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„Product packaging and consumers' willingness to pay: the role of implicit and explicit country-of-origin cues"

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Abstract

Marketers and academics agree that product packaging is an important communication tool for influencing consumers. One of the most common information in packaging is the origin of the product. A product's country-of-origin (COO) affects consumers' product perceptions and behaviors. Companies can either explicitly highlight their COO through adding a made in label or implicitly indicate it by using the language spoken in the COO of the product. However, research has paid little attention to foreign languages (FLs) as implicit COO cues on product packaging. Specifically, it is still uncertain whether an implicit COO cue (i.e., foreign language with unconventional lettering) influences consumers' willingness to pay (WTP) to the same extent as an explicit COO cue (i.e., a made in label in respondents' native language). Drawing from the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspectives on foreign languages (FLs) and focusing on product packaging, this thesis examines the influence of explicit versus implicit COO cues on consumers' WTP. For this purpose, two experimental studies in two different product categories (with distinct unconventional letterings) were conducted. The results in the olive oil study reveal that adding unconventional lettering (Greek) to an olive oil packaging significantly increases consumers' WTP compared to a product packaging without a COO cue. In contrast, the results in the vodka study cannot reveal a difference in WTP when the unconventional lettering (Cyrillic) is included or not. On the other hand, both studies show that the use of an implicit COO cue (unconventional lettering) lead to a significant higher WTP that the use of an explicit COO cue (made in label). Based on these findings, implications for research and practice are discussed and suggestions for future research are defined.

Key words: *product packaging, explicit country-of-origin cue, implicit country-of-origin cue, willingness to pay*

Table of contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Abbreviations

C-COSMO	Consumer cosmopolitanism
FL	Foreign language
FLs	Foreign languages
FLD	Foreign language display
COI	Country-of-origin image
COO	Country-of-origin
e.g.	for example (Latin: exempli gratia)
et al.	and others (Latin: et alia)
i.e.	that is (Latin: id est)
vs.	versus
PSM	Price Sensitivity Meter
US	United States of America
WTP	Willingness to pay
LCCP	Local Consumer Culture Positioning
FCCP	Foreign Consumer Culture Positioning
GCCP	Global Consumer Culture Positioning
PI	Product image
PCI	Product-country image
EU	European Union

1. Introduction

The first chapter elaborates on the topic's research background and research gaps. This is followed by the managerial and theoretical importance of the topic. Next, the research question and the structure of the thesis are presented.

1.1 Background and research gaps

While the Greek brand Plakias adds the Greek slogan "παρθένο ελαιόλαδο" (in English "virgin olive oil") to their olive oil bottle, Irina, also a Greek brand selling olive oil, rather includes the label "Griechisches Produkt" (in English "Greek product"). Both brands sell their products in Austria and use these additional cues to indicate their Greek origin. These examples illustrate that companies can either explicitly (directly) indicate their origin (country of origin information, i.e., "Griechisches Produkt") or implicitly (indirectly) highlight it through using its national language (foreign language, i.e., "παρθένο ελαιόλαδο"). How does consumers' willingness to pay (WTP) change when companies add such implicit versus explicit country-of-origin cues to product packaging? Which cue is more appealing to consumers and will make them to pay a higher price?

Globalization has enlarged the range of products offered and enabled consumers to choose products originating not only from their home country but also from foreign countries (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Simmonds & Spence, 2016). Due to this continuous increase in product variety, consumers have started to base their consumption decisions on extrinsic rather than intrinsic cues (Aichner, 2014). Extrinsic cues are not physical part of the product, as for example, an appealing packaging or a product's country-of-origin (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Watson & Wright, 2000; Olson & Jacoby, 1972). Intrinsic cues refer to physical product features, such as quality, design, or taste (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Watson & Wright, 2000).

Furthermore, the ongoing globalization and internationalization of markets emphasize the need of using languages as a competitive advantage (Alcántara-Pilar, Del Barrio-García & Crespo & Porcu, 2015). One of the most efficient ways to achieve a lasting impression on the consumers is packaging's language (Schlossberg, 1990). Therefore, the product packaging itself is not only of increasing interest for markets and consumers, but also for governments regulating global trade.

Over the last two decades, product packaging has become far more than protecting the product from damage (Spence, 2016). Also called "salesman on the shelf" (Silayoi & Speece, 2004, p.607), it has become a powerful marketing tool (e.g., Rundh, 2005) and an important aspect of product strategy (Holmes & Paswan, 2012). Product packaging influences consumers' purchase behavior at the point of sale (Prendergast & Pitt, 1996) as 90% of consumers make a purchase decision after evaluating the front of the package (Urbany, Dickson & Kalapurakal, 1996).

Thus, companies can use their product packaging to communicate product information, to gain customers' attention and to achieve a positive effect of the product in the customer's perception (Bloch, 1995). A widely communicated information in product packaging is the country-of-origin (COO), namely "the country in which the product is manufactured or assembled" (Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006, p. 412). COO is an extrinsic product cue (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995) as it can be adapted without changing the product itself (Olson & Jacoby, 1972). This cue is important for consumers' buying decisions (Beverland & Lindgreen, 2002), attitudes or preferences (Pharr, 2005).

Indeed, several studies have shown that a more (less) favorable COO positively (negatively) influences product quality perceptions (e.g., Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006), product evaluations (e.g., Piron, 2000), purchase intentions (e.g., Berry, Mukherjee, Burton, & Howlett, 2015; Yunus & Rashid, 2016; Kim, Chun & Ko, 2017), or willingness to pay (e.g., Umberger, Feuz, Calkins & Killinger-Mann, 2002; Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos & Oldenkotte, 2012). This is the so-called COO-effect, i.e., the influence or bias resulting from COO information (Diamantopoulos & Zeugner-Roth, 2010).

To indicate a COO of a product, companies either use explicit (direct) or implicit (indirect) strategies. Explicit COO cues directly indicate a brand's COO (Hornikx & van Meus, 2017a; Aichner, 2014), such as "made in Austria". Implicit COO cues only suggest a COO (Hornikx & van Meus, 2017a; Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013) and requires consumers to associate the implicit cue to the relevant COO (Aichner, 2014), such as linking French to France or Cyrillic to Russia.

In this context, research on product packaging has examined the effects of different design elements on consumers, including, for instance, packaging size (Wansink, 1996), color

of the packaging (Danger, 1987), product information (Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999) or extrinsic cues such as brand, price or country (Bonner & Nelson, 1985). However, research has paid little attention to foreign languages (FLs) as implicit COO cues on product packaging (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016).

First, past research on foreign language display (FLD) mostly examined FLs using the same script as the national language, such as displaying German in an advertisement in the Netherlands (e.g., Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a) or Spanish on a product sold in Germany (e.g., Huettl-Mack & Schwenk, 2016). Only one master's thesis (see Zatega, 2017) and three papers (de Run & Fah, 2003; Ho, Chiu, Jiang, Shen & Xu, 2019; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021) have investigated FLs using a script distinct from the respondents' native tongue. FLs that are based on a different script and are not commonly used in the research country are called unconventional lettering (Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). For instance, Cyrillic or Arabic lettering may be considered unconventional in Austria as the national language (German) is based on Latin lettering. FLs using the same script as the national language in the research country are defined as conventional lettering (e.g., French in Austria, because this language is also based on a Latin script). However, in these studies, the unconventional lettering impact was investigated with an English product packaging. This is problematic because English is an international language that is widely used in advertisements (Yener & Taşçıoğlu, 2021) and it is known for having special effects on consumers compared to other FLs (e.g., Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020; Planken, van Meurs & Radlinska, 2010), such as modernity associations (Khan & Lee, 2020).

Another limitation of these studies is the focus only on the sociolinguistic view on FLs (Zatega, 2017; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021) without considering the psycholinguistic view, as done by Yener and Taşçıoğlu (2021). On the one hand, the sociolinguistic perspective of FLD assumes that a FL is used as an ethnocultural symbol and not for its literal meaning (Haarmann, 1989; Ray, Ryder & Scott, 1991; Piller, 2003). On the other hand, the psycholinguistic perspective claims that FLs are linked differently to concepts in the mind compared to consumers' mother tongue (Kroll & De Groot, 1997). This might be particularly important when examining unconventional lettering, as consumers must process FLs that are more distinct from their national language more deeply (Domzal, Hunt & Kernan, 1995). Therefore, unconventional lettering may foster more attention and curiosity leading to a deeper mental

information processing and to the formation of perceptions about the product or brand (Ho et al., 2019).

Second, albeit many scholars claiming FLs to function as implicit COO cues (e.g., Aichner, 2014; Melnyk, Klein & Völckner 2012), only one empirical study has indeed tested this claim (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a), but using advertisements and not product packaging as a main focus. Specifically, Hornikx and van Meurs (2017a) compared the effects of an advertisement with FLs (implicit COO cue) versus (vs.) an advertisement with explicit COO cues. While both COO cues were equally effective in increasing product quality perception, product attitude and purchase intention, the advertisements with FLs led to a higher advertisement liking than advertisements with explicit COO cues.

Finally, previous research on foreign language display has only examined "softer" outcome variables, such as product quality perceptions (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016), product evaluations (Zatega, 2017; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021), taste perceptions (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016), or purchase intentions (Ho et al., 2019). However, these measures have been increasingly criticized for not capturing consumers' actual behavior (Yang, Wang & Zhong, 2015) as higher product evaluations or purchase intentions do not automatically lead to a higher willingness to pay (WTP) for a certain product (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012).

Against this background, this thesis investigates the influence of implicit vs. explicit COO cues on product packaging and consumers' WTP, i.e., "the maximum amount of money a customer is willing to spend for a product or service" (Homburg, Koschate & Hoyer, 2005, p. 85). Thus, this master's thesis examines how adding unconventional lettering (i.e., made in translated to the foreign language) or a made in label (i.e., made in label in the respondents' mother tongue) to a product packaging influence consumers' WTP. The former one has started to be used by companies and is therefore considered as a new COO method (Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). In contrast, the latter one is a widely used COO strategy (Zeugner-Roth & Bartsch, 2020).

On the theoretical front, this thesis extends prior research on foreign language display and COO by not only examining consumers' price responses to unconventional lettering (implicit COO cue), but also comparing these responses to a product packaging including a made in label (explicit COO cue). Such analysis allows to assess which COO cue might generate higher consumers' WTP. Because packaging plays a crucial role in differentiation and

influencing consumers' brand choice (e.g., Creusen, Gemser & Candi, 2018; Krishna Cian & Aydınoğlu, 2017), it is a critical question whether and under which circumstances, it is more effective to not display a COO cue, to add unconventional lettering (implicit COO cue) or to display a made in label (explicit COO cue) for increasing consumers' WTP.

From a managerial perspective, companies might have the opportunity to implement a premium (discount) price strategy based on the most relevant origin cue (explicit or implicit) to consumers. As displaying the unconventional lettering or the made in label on product packaging is easily done at low cost, companies can exploit financial benefits with comparably low effort.

Based on the above points, the research question is presented next.

1.2 Research question

This study aims to answer the following research question:

To what extent do implicit and explicit country-of-origin cues on product packaging influence consumers' willingness to pay?

To answer this question, this thesis draws from the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspectives on FLs and employs an experimental approach.

1.3 Structure of the thesis

This master's thesis is structured in 6 chapters. **Chapter 1** presents the topic's theoretical background, research gaps, and research question. Additionally, the managerial as well as the theoretical relevance of the topic is outlined.

Chapter 2 reviews existing literature on country-of-origin, foreign language display and willingness to pay.

Chapter 3 introduces the conceptual model and explains the hypotheses development to answer the research question.

Chapter 4 describes the research method, including the research design, variables and measures, pretests, stimuli, main questionnaire as well as data collection and sampling procedures.

Chapter 5 shows the main results of the two experimental studies conducted. Sample profile, construct's reliability, manipulation checks and hypotheses testing are presented.

Chapter 6 discusses the main findings and highlights theoretical as well as managerial implications. Limitations and future research propositions are also made.

2. Literature review

This chapter presents the relevant literature to support the empirical part of the study. This section is divided into three parts. The first covers literature on country-of-origin (COO) and country-of-origin image (COI). The second focuses on foreign language display (FLD). The last comprises an overview on willingness to pay (WTP).

2.1 Country of origin and country image

The following section first elaborates on the COO construct and the so-called COO effect. To underscore the COO, its main driver is introduced (i.e., country-of-origin image - COI). Next, product ethnicity is also outlined within COO research and the COO effect. Finally, different COO strategies are described, emphasizing the use of explicit and implicit COO cues.

2.1.1 Development of country-of-origin research and the country-of-origin effect

In 1962, Dichter was probably the first to suggest that a product's success might be influenced by its COO (Dichter, 1962). Since then, the influence of a product's origin on consumers' preferences and behaviors has developed into a major research field in international business and marketing (Usunier, 2006; Diamantopoulos & Zeugner-Roth, 2010; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012), with more than 500 peer-reviewed articles (Lu, Heslop, Thomas & Kwan, 2016).

Considering the great number of articles published to date, it can already be assumed that both COO definitions and operationalizations have changed over time. The first phase of COO research, which lasted until the 1990s (Srinivasan, Jain & Sikand, 2004), associated the COO with "the country in which the product is manufactured or assembled" (Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006, p. 412) and thus with the made in label (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Usunier, 2006).

The first empirical study on COO was conducted by Schooler (1965). He examined the effects of different made in labels on consumers' product evaluations. Specifically, by exposing consumers to products differing only on the country names on labels, Schooler (1965) showed substantial variations in consumers' product evaluations. This investigation as well as other similar early studies in COO, such as Reierson (1967), Schooler and Wildt (1968) and

Nagashima (1970), were later classified as single-cue studies, as the made in label was the only informational cue available for consumers to evaluate the product (Phau & Prendergast, 2000; Maheswaran, Yi Chen & He, 2013).

However, these single-cue studies were criticized for over-estimating the influence of COO and not reflecting the reality, as consumers base their evaluations on several cues rather than only the "made in" label (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Usunier, 2006).

Consequently, the second phase of COO research started to observe multi-cue rather than only the COO (e.g., Usunier, 2006). Specifically, to investigate COO influence on product evaluations other cues, such as brand, design or price, were also added (Lu et al., 2016; Usunier, 2006). For example, Roth & Romeo (1992) and Chao (1993) identified that COO effects also occur when several cues are considered.

In addition to categorizing COO research in single-cue and multi-cue studies researchers have started to split the COO construct into different dimensions (Insch & McBride, 2004; Magnusson, Westjohn & Zdravkovic, 2011) in the 1980s (Usunier, 2011). This breakdown was required because markets were becoming increasingly globalized, and the country of the brand was mostly different to the country of manufacture (Pharr, 2005; Usunier, 2006; Magnusson et al., 2011).

Hence, the broad notion of COO was specified by introducing different origin labels (e.g., Aichner, 2014; Johnson, Tian & Lee, 2016). While the COO originally referred to the made in label (Nebenzahl, Jaffe & Lampert, 1997) or the country of manufacture (Samiee, 1994), other COO concepts emerged (Usunier, 2006).

Each label was linked to a country that has a relationship to the product (Coskun & Burnaz, 2016). Some examples include the country of brand (COB) (e.g., Phau & Prendergast, 2000) or brand origin (BO) (e.g., Samiee, Shimp & Sharma, 2005), country of design (COD) (e.g., Usunier, 2006), country of manufacture (COM) (e.g., Arora, McIntyre, Wu & Arora, 2015) or country of assembly (COA) (Insch & McBride, 2004). For that reason, COO conceptualization shifted mostly to a focus on the brand origin, i.e., "the country where the corporate headquarters of the company marketing the product or brand is located" (Johansson, Douglas & Nonaka, 1985 p. 389), as consumers still differentiate origin cues, but now associate the product's origin with the place of the brand rather than the manufacturing location (Usunier, 2011).

From a company's perspective, the COO dimensions may be implemented in their communication strategy (Usunier, 2006; Aichner, 2014). For example, the American brand Apple informs that their iPhone (mobile phone) is designed in California (COD) to overcome possible negative effects caused by the manufacturing location in China. However, the dimensions make it rather challenging for consumers to define the actual origin of a product (Aichner, 2014).

The present master's thesis refers to the made in definition, i.e., "the country in which the product is manufactured or assembled" (Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006, p. 412). A product's COO on product packaging is indicated through explicit, such as made in labels (e.g., Insch & Florek, 2009; Ku & Chen, 2021), or implicit COO cues, such as FLs (e.g., Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021).

Regardless of the COO conceptualization and the several COO dimensions (e.g., COB, COM, COD), the origin is an important cue in consumers' buying decisions (Beverland & Lindgreen, 2002), influencing their product evaluations and subsequent behaviors (e.g., Schooler, 1965; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). Overall, consumers rely on informational product cues when making purchase decisions, namely intrinsic and extrinsic cues. Intrinsic cues refer to physical product features such as design, quality, or taste. Extrinsic cues are not physically part of the product and concern intangible characteristics such as price, brand name, or packaging characteristics (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Watson & Wright, 2000). Thus, a product's COO is an extrinsic cue (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Diamantopoulos & Zeugner-Roth, 2010) because it can be manipulated without changing the product itself (Olson & Jacoby, 1972).

Plentiful studies have shown that the COO of a product affects consumers' behaviors (e.g., Cordell, 1992; Han, 1990; Lawrence, Marr & Prendergast, 1992). Specifically, COO affects product quality perceptions (e.g., Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006), product evaluations (e.g., Piron, 2000), purchase intentions towards a product or brand (e.g., Berry et al., 2015; Yunus & Rashid, 2016; Kim, Chun & Ko, 2017), and willingness to pay for a product or brand (e.g., Umberger et al., 2002; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). This influence or bias resulting from COO information is called COO-effect (Diamantopoulos & Zeugner-Roth, 2010).

COO effect on consumers' responses towards a product or brand result of the cognitive, affective, and normative processing of COO cues (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989). The cognitive processing of a COO cue is the most frequent mechanism used for explaining COO effects (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989) and is the most employed by existing COO research (e.g., Steenkamp, 1990). In this processing, the COO acts as a cue for product quality or attributes, such as reliability or durability (Li & Wyer, 1994). Besides, the cognitive process is also influenced by consumers' mental representations of a country's people, products, cultures, or national symbols (Ger, 1991; Askegaard & Ger, 1998). These mental representations result in the country image construct, explained in the next section.

Second, the affective process circumvents the mere cognitive evaluation and therefore causes an emotional response to the COO cue (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989). Hence, the COO has symbolic and emotional meaning to consumers resulting in benefits, such as social status or national pride (Askegaard & Ger, 1998; Fournier, 1998; Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp & Ramachander, 2000). The COO may be used by consumers as image attributes, which "reveal how product use and/or ownership associates the consumer with a group, role or self-image" (Lefko-Hagius & Mason, 1993, p. 101). For example, Fournier's (1998) reported that the COO led to a referral of the product to national identity. Botschen and Hemettsberger (1998) revealed that consumers associate the COO with product quality, feelings of national pride or memories of the last holidays.

The third process relates to consumers' personal and social norms linked to COO (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). While the normative processing might influence consumers' purchase intention, attitudes or product evaluations might not be affected (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989). Consumers might decide deliberately to buy domestic products as it complies with the norm and supports their domestic economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Another norm is to avoid buying products from a specific country because of economic or political issues between the home and the foreign country (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998).

Overall, the three processes are interacting and cannot be seen as independent aspects of COO (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). For instance, consumers' normative processing about buying or refraining from buying a product from a certain country is also accompanied by cognitive and affective reactions. Furthermore, positive affective responses to COO may also influence the cognitive evaluation of the COO by favoring a deeper mental processing (Isen, 1984). In the next section, country image is elaborated.

2.1.2   Country image as a driver of COO effect

The three processes introduced by Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989) and the decomposition of the COO construct in different components, e.g., COB, COA, or COM, (Magnusson et al., 2011), indicates that the focus of COO research has changed from merely evaluating product evaluations and preferences based on mentioning different COOs to a more complex construct called country-of-origin image (COI) (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

COI is an important construct for studying and explaining the COO effect (Carneiro & Faria, 2016), as it examines why consumers prefer products or brands originating from a specific country instead of another country (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) undertook an extensive literature review of the COI construct and presented a conceptualization that distinguishes between three different groups: country image (CI), product country image (PCI) and product image (PI).

The first category (country image – CI) focuses on a generic construct of image and it can be defined as "the sum of beliefs and impressions people hold about places" (Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993, p 141). Thus, CI is created by the economic and political status, culture and traditions, and the level of technology and industrialization of a country (Allred et al., 1999; Bannister & Saunders, 1978).

The next group (product country image – PCI) refers to a country's image as origin for certain product categories and links the country image to the product image (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Li, Fu & Murray, 1998). According to Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009, p. 727) the "definition implies that, first, country image and product image are two distinct (but related) concepts, and second, that country images affect the images of products from that country."

The third group (product image – PI) concentrates on the product images of a country and is defined as "the picture, the reputation, the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to products of a specific country" (Nagashima, 1970, p. 68). The PI refers to the general perception consumers have about the quality of products made in a certain country (Han, 1989) and is influenced by consumers' prior perceptions of the country's production and marketing performance (Roth & Romeo, 1992).

Overall, country-of-origin conceptualization was criticized as being inconsistent (Carneiro & Faria, 2016) and unclear about what is being measured, i.e., products or countries (Usunier, 2011). Furthermore, COO effects are mainly based on consumers' product perceptions originating from a certain country (Maheswaran et al., 2013) and the COI construct can thus not be fully separated from the product (Wang, Li, Barnes & Ahn, 2012).

Despite the conceptual confusing, literature has consistently shown that COI influences consumers' product evaluations (Maheswaran et al., 2013) and consumers therefore evaluate products originating from a country with a more favorable image more positively than products from a country with a less favorable image (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). A product from a COO with a more favorable image is often associated with a higher benefit (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011; Koschate-Fischer et. al, 2012) than one from a COO with a less favorable image, which is frequently related to greater perceived risk (Ahmed, Johnson, Lin, Fang & Hui, 2002).

This master's thesis refers to PCI and measures the "overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country, based on their prior perception of the country's production and marketing strengths and weaknesses" (Roth & Romeo 1992, p. 480).

Next, the construct product ethnicity is described.

2.1.3   Product ethnicity and COO effect

The COO effect has been examined in different ways. Several studies focus on the effect of a potential congruence/match between the COO and the product advertised, the so-called product ethnicity (Usunier & Cestre, 2007).

Product ethnicity is defined as "a strong association between a product and a country" or as "the degree of product-country match" (Usunier & Cestre, 2007, p. 33). Examples for product-country matches are perfumes and France (e.g., Bhaskaran & Sukumaran, 2007), or chocolate and Belgium (e.g., Phau & Prendergast, 2000). Such products are named ethnic products (Phau & Prendergast, 2000).

In addition, these products can be defined as typical products for France or Belgium, because product ethnicity is described as a form of typicality (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011).

Typicality indicates "the degree to which an item is perceived to represent a category" (Loken & Ward, 1990, p. 112).

By including typicality in COO research, the extent to which a product category represents a particular country is indicated (Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006) and product-specific differences of COO effects can be further explored (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011). "A product-country match should occur when important dimensions for a product category are also associated with a country's image" (Roth & Romeo, 1992, p. 482). Hence, if peoples' associations with certain countries are relevant for evaluating a specific product type, a product-country match will occur. For instance, Italy and shoes constitutes a product-country match, because consumers link Italy to design and prestige, and these associations are important factors when evaluating the product category shoes (Roth & Romeo, 1992).

Overall, COO research has demonstrated that a higher typicality positively influences consumer attitudes (e.g., Loken & Ward, 1987; Nedungadi & Hutchinson, 1985, Tseng & Balabanis, 2011), product evaluation (e.g., Hong & Kang, 2006; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Verlegh, Steenkamp & Meulenberg, 2005), product quality evaluations (e.g., Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006), willingness to buy (e.g., Roth & Romeo, 1992), purchase intention (e.g., Usunier & Cestre, 2007) or product attitudes (e.g., Tseng & Balabanis, 2011; Verlegh et al., 2005). These positive effects of product ethnicity may be caused by the more favorable country images of typical products compared to atypical products resulting in differences in consumers evaluations of products from different countries (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011).

COO strategies, namely implicit and explicit COO cues, are summarized next.

2.1.4   COO strategies: implicit and explicit COO cues

As COO is often interpreted by consumers as a signal of quality (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006), companies should analyze country-specific associations and implement them through their communication strategy (Aichner, 2014). This can be done by either highlighting a products' COO or by intentionally not mentioning it at all.

On the one hand, some companies may explicitly prefer not to indicate the products' origin because either consumers do not appreciate the quality of the products originating from a certain country or they have an unfavorable country image that can harm their evaluations (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020). Additionally, Kelly-Holmes (2005) highlights that some

13

companies might not underline its COO because of the missing match between the product's attributed and the country's qualities.

Past research has shown that COO information may have both positive and negative effect on consumers' product perceptions (e.g., Elliott & Cameron, 1994; Maheswaran, 1994; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). This derives from the notion that consumers hold different country images (i.e., favorable, or unfavorable) that translate into products' evaluations (see again section 2.1.2). Furthermore, COO information may lead to a positive (vs. negative) product evaluation if the country in which the product was made is perceived (is not perceived) as being specialized in producing these types of goods (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999).

Thus, to avoid negative consequences on consumers' product evaluations, companies might avoid the COO connection and choose to highlight other attributes from the brand. For example, Kaynak, Kucukemiroglu, and Hyder (2000) described that Jaguar did not mention its British origin as consumers only had limited positive associations with Great Britain and they wanted to maintain its high-tech image.

On the other hand, a product's origin may be communicated by explicitly (directly) mentioning the COO or by implicitly (indirectly) suggesting a COO (e.g., Aichner, 2014; Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2013). Examples for explicit COO strategies are made in labels, quality and origin labels or brand names that contain the COO, such as Air France (Aichner, 2014). The use of typical landscapes or famous buildings from the COO (e.g., the picture of a Swiss mountain on the packaging of the Swiss chocolate brand Toblerone), stereotypical people from the COO (e.g., Elisabetta Canalis, an Italian actor, for the Italian company Ferrero) or the COO language are implicit COO cues (Aichner, 2014). For instance, the German brand Volkswagen used the Slogan "Vorsprung durch Technik" both in national and foreign advertisements to implicitly highlight the German origin (Kelly-Holmes, 2005).

While explicit strategies rather imply a low communication complexity for companies, the communication complexity for implicit strategies is medium or high as customers' knowledge about certain foreign countries might differ depending on their nationality (Aichner, 2014).

In the following section, foreign language display (FLD) is explained.

2.2 Foreign Language Display (FLD)

This section first defines FLD and elaborates on previous research to establish the link between FLD and COO effect. Next, FLD on product packaging is outlined, with a particular emphasis on unconventional lettering.

2.2.1   Foreign language display and COO effect

Displaying foreign languages (FLs) is a promotion strategy used by companies from all over the world (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a). FLD can be defined as "the appropriation of words or phrases from another language [...] used within one's own social group" (Eastman & Stein, 1993, p. 189).

The use of a foreign language (FL) can be classified as a foreign consumer culture positioning (FCCP) strategy (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b; Alden, Steenkamp & Batra, 1999). This brand strategy focuses on displaying FLs other than English, which differs from: (i) a global consumer culture positioning (GCCP), which focuses on the use of English (Piller, 2003), and (ii) a local consumer culture positioning (LCCP), which introduces national/ethnic languages (Luna & Peracchio, 2005) – see also Alden et. al (1999).

Regarding FCCP, extant research has explored foreign language display (FLD) (e.g., Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a; Hornikx, van Meurs & Hof, 2013; Nederstigt & Hilberink-Schulpen, 2018). One of the first linguists that examined the link between a FL and a product in an advertising environment was Haarmann (1984, 1989). The author analyzed the use of FLs (e.g., German, French, Italian), in Japan's advertisements. The display of these FLs was not random but was selected according to the product promoted. Italian, for example, occurred in advertisements for sport cars and motor scooters while French was introduced in advertisements for watches, bags, and perfume. Findings revealed that FLs were widely used in commercials, even though most Japanese are monolingual. In addition, each FL evoked different associations and ethnocultural stereotypes, such as elegance and attractiveness for the French language.

Although Haarmann (1984, 1989) and other early studies on FLD in advertising (e.g., Harris, Sturm, Klassen & Bechtold, 1986; Ray et al., 1991) investigated consumers' associations between FLs and general product categories, such as French to perfume or Italian to sports cars (Haarmann, 1984), they did not refer to COO effect while a FL is presented in

advertising. In this context, Kelly-Holmes' (2000) paper was perhaps the first step to associate FLD to countries. In her study, the use of FLs in advertising is explained by the notion of "cultural competence hierarchy", i.e., "preordains [what] products particular countries are "permitted" to produce" (Kelly-Holmes, 2000, p. 71). This concept is functionally equivalent to the notion of country of origin (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020).

More precisely, FLs obtain meaning through the cultural competence hierarchy and are therefore used in commercials (Kelly-Holmes, 2000). Research findings have demonstrated that FLs are chosen based on their symbolic value and identity forming impact on products, brands, or advertisers, rather than their informational content. Hence, FLs convey a meaning that exceeds their mere translation (Kelly-Holmes, 2005). For instance, car manufacturing is considered a cultural competence of Germany (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020). Therefore, the German language can be used for advertising cars in non-German-speaking countries, such as "Das Beste oder nichts" ("the best or nothing" in English) of the German car brand Mercedes-Benz (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020).

Overall, both linguistics and marketing experts claim that FL function as implicit COO cues, which aim at conveying information on a foreign country that is considered as being the best producer of a particular product (Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Leclerc, Schmitt & Dube, 1994; Melnyk et al., 2012). Previous studies have provided support for this claim by demonstrating that individuals link a FL to the prototypical country in which the language is spoken (Samiee et al., 2005; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Melnyk et al., 2012). For instance, Melnyk et al. (2012) examined the association between foreign brand names and countries by asking consumers about the country of the French brand name Croixbergière and the German brand name Kreuzberger. As expected, the study showed that most consumers allied the French brand name with France and the German brand name with Germany.

Furthermore, consumers are not only able to link FLs to a country in which the language is spoken, but also to the country that is relevant for the advertised product, i.e., the COO (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a). By testing FLs that are spoken in more than one country and displaying the same FLs in different product categories, Hornikx and van Meurs (2017a) examined if the interpretation of the FLs is influenced by the actual COO of the product advertised. For instance, they displayed German as a FL in a Dutch advertisement for beer to indicate Germany as COO. Besides, they added German to skis advertisements to emphasize Austria as relevant COO. The study revealed that in the case of beer, the German slogan was

16

mostly linked to Germany rather than Austria, while in the case of skis, respondents mostly mentioned Austria as the COO of the product. This indicates that FLs are indeed linked to a COO that is relevant for the product category, providing empirical evidence for the suggestion that FLs can be classified as implicit COO cues.

The sociolinguistic view of FLD also states that the congruence between products and FLs affects its effectiveness (e.g., Ray et al., 1991; Domzal et al., 1995; Kelly-Holmes, 2005). Research on FLD defines congruence as the match between products and languages (Kelly-Holmes, 2000; Ray et al., 1991). This sociolinguistic notion of congruence is similar to the idea of product ethnicity from COO research, linking products and countries (see section 2.1.3 again).

While COO researchers have extensively shown the positive effects of product ethnicity (congruence between product and COO) on product evaluations (e.g., Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Verlegh et al., 2005), the study by Hornikx, van Meurs, and Hof (2013) was the first one providing evidence for the importance of congruence between FLs and product categories. The experiment compared the impact of displaying FLs in congruent (e.g., wine-French) vs. incongruent (e.g., beer-French) product advertisements. The results showed that including FLs in advertisements led to higher perceived product quality, better product attitudes, and increased purchase intentions for congruent than for incongruent products.

Besides, many researchers have claimed that FLs function as implicit COO cues (e.g., Aichner 2014; Kelly-Holmes 2005; Leclerc et al. 1994; Melnyk et al. 2012). However, Hornikx and van Meurs (2017a) study was the first one testing this claim. In their study they investigated the effects of implicit (FLs) and explicit (made in labels) COO cues on consumers' behaviors. They compared the effectiveness of three advertisements: an advertisement with (i) an explicit (made in label) COO cue that is congruent to the product advertised (e.g., made in Spain label for oranges), (ii) an implicit COO cue (FL) that is congruent to the product advertised (e.g., Spanish as a congruent FL for oranges), and (iii) an explicit COO cue that is incongruent to the product advertised (e.g., made in the Netherlands label for oranges).

The findings indicated that adding explicit (made in label) and implicit (FLs) COO cues that are congruent to the product advertised led to similar product attitudes and purchase intentions. Both cues were more effective than the incongruent COO advertisement (e.g., made in Spain label for oranges and Spanish as a FL for oranges vs. made in the Netherlands label

for oranges). Surprisingly, the FL advertisement even led to a higher ad linking than the ad with the explicit COO cue. Hence, Hornikx and van Meurs (2017a) demonstrated that FLs (implicit COO cues) are as effective as made in labels (explicit COO cues) and provided empirical evidence to support the claim that FLs function as implicit COO cues.

In the following chapter the FLD on product packaging is presented.

2.2.2   Foreign language display on product packaging

According to Huettl-Maack and Schwenk (2016), research on FLD and product packaging is still scarce. Table 1 summarizes studies related to FLD on product packaging applied in marketing as well as the positioning of the current study.

Study	Research country and language	FLs on product packaging	Lettering	COO cues	Brand strategy	Outcome variables
De Run & Fah (2003)	Malaysia (Malaysian)	• Malaysian-only • Chinese-only	UCL	IM	LCCP	A, I
Gopinath & Glassman (2008)	America (English)	• English + Spanish	CL	IM	LCCP	E
Gopinath, Glassman & Nyer (2013)	America (English)	• English + Spanish • English + Spanish + French	CL	IM	LCCP	E
Huettl-Maack & Schwenk (2016)	Germany (German)	• German + English • German + Spanish	CL	IM	FCCP	A, P
Zatega (2017)	Austria (German)	• English + Arabic • English + Cyrillic	UCL	IM	FCCP + GCCP	V, P, A
Ho, Chiu, Jiang, Shen & Xu (2019)	China (Chinese)	• English + Korean • English + Japanese	SL + UCL	IM	FCCP + GCCP	P, I
Khan (2019)	Pakistan (Urdu) and China (Chinese)	• English only • Urdu only • Chinese only	SL	IM	GCCP	D
Khan & Lee (2020)	Pakistan (Urdu)	• English only • Urdu only	SL	IM	GCCP	E
Wagner & Charinsarn (2021)	Austria (German) and Thailand (Thai)	• English + Arabic • English + Cyrillic	SL + UCL	IM	FCCP + GCCP	E
Yener & Taşçıoğlu (2021)	Turkey (Turkish)	• Turkish + English	SL	IM	GCCP	E, I
This paper	**Austria (German)**	**German + Cyrillic** **German + Greek**	UCL	**IM vs. EX**	**FCCP**	**WTP**

Notes:

Lettering is coded as (UCL) = unconventional lettering, (CL) = conventional lettering and (SL) = standard lettering.

COO cues are coded as (IM) = implicit, (EX)= explicit

Outcomes variables are coded as (A) attitudes = e.g., product attitude, company attitude; (E) evaluations = e.g., product evaluations, packaging evaluation, packaging likeability, brand likeability; (I) = intentions, e.g., purchase intentions, willingness to buy; (P) = perceptions = e.g., taste perceptions, quality perceptions, trust perception; (V) value = e.g., emotional value; (D) dispositions = e.g., personal dispositions, familiarity, consumption situation, (WTP) = willingness to pay.

Table 1: FLD research on product packaging

With regards to the company's strategy of displaying the FLs on product packaging, studies employed foreign culture positioning strategy - FCCP (local language to stress localness or ethnic relationships), global consumer culture positioning - GCCP (English language to emphasize a global brand) or local consumer culture positioning – LCCP (local language to stress localness or ethnic relationships) – for details, see Alden et al. (1999).

Specifically, Khan (2019), Khan and Lee (2020), Yener and Taşçıoğlu (2021) investigated GCCP and compared the effectiveness of a product packaging in English to one in the research country's local language.

Besides, three studies (Run & Fah, 2006; Gopinath & Glassman, 2008; Gopinath, Glassman & Nyer, 2013) focused on LCCP by examining the so-called ethnic languages instead of the local language. While the local language refers to the country's main language (e.g., German in Austria), the ethnic language is a language variety of a subgroup in the country (e.g., Spanish for Hispanics in the USA) (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020). Companies strategically decide to display ethnic languages to target an ethnic minority living in the investigated country.

The third language strategy (FCCP) was employed either on its own (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016) or together with GCCP (Zatega, 2017; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). More precisely, only one study examined solely FCCP without including English (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016) as the present master's thesis does, i.e., product packaging in the respondent's national language and only one additional FL. As already described, English is a special case in FLD and part of GCCP (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020). It is considered an international language and is the most widely used language in advertisement throughout the world (e.g., Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021; Yener & Taşçıoğlu, 2021). The use of English is "not motivated by a desire to allude to the perceived stereotypical characteristics of countries with which the language is associated" (Kelly-Holmes, 2005, p.67). Instead, English causes different effects than the ones caused by other FLs (e.g., Gerritsen, Nickerson, van Hooft, van Meurs, Nederstigt, Starren & Crijns, 2007; Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020; Planken, van Meurs & Radlinska, 2010), such as highlighting a brand's globalness (Piller, 2001), prestige (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008) or modernity (Khan & Lee, 2020). Thus, it is important to examine the effect of adding only one FL, i.e., unconventional lettering, to a product packaging to capture its individual effect.

Moreover, research has employed conventional, unconventional, and standard lettering. The notion unconventional lettering was introduced by Wagner and Charinsarn (2021). It refers to FLs that are based on a script that is different to the one relevant in the investigated country. FLs with unconventional letterings are neither commonly spoken by the research countries' inhabitants nor commonly used by companies in the research area (Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). In Austria, for example, unconventional letterings are Cyrillic, Arabic or Japanese. In contrast, FLs that use the same script as the language spoken in the research country may be classified as conventional lettering. For instance, the Latin script is the basis of German and Spanish. Besides, English, again, needs a special categorization with standard lettering.

As of today, three papers (de Run & Fah, 2003; Ho et al., 2019; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021) and one master's thesis (Zatega, 2017) examined unconventional lettering. The study by de Run & Fah (2019) focused on using FLs to target ethnic minorities living in Malaysia, i.e., Chinese. They compared the effects of designing a product packaging completely in Chinese vs. Malaysian and focused on LCCP. The present master's thesis focuses on adding FLs as implicit COO cues and FCCP. Therefore, the study by Run & Fah (2003) followed distinct research goals and is not described in detail.

Consequently, only two studies (Ho et al., 2019; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021) and one master's thesis (Zatega, 2017) investigated FLs as part of FCCP and are relevant for the present thesis. Zatega's (2017) master's thesis is very similar to the study by Wagner and Charinsarn (2021). Both experiments investigated the same unconventional letterings (Arabic and Cyrillic) and used the same stimuli. Only the outcome variables and hypotheses were partly different. Hence, only the paper by Wagner and Charinsarn (2021) is described in detail.

According to Wagner and Charinsarn (2021), their study was the first one examining unconventional lettering on product packaging. The dependent variable was product evaluation, the mediator was product packaging evaluation, the moderators were language-congruence, product category familiarity and economic environment, and the covariate was COO. The study applied FLD theory as a theoretical underpinning and employed an experimental design.

Two studies were conducted in Austria and Thailand and investigated Arabic and Cyrillic as unconventional letterings. For each unconventional lettering a congruent product category (i.e., match between product and lettering) was tested: the congruent product

categories were dates (for Arabic) and vodka (for Cyrillic). The unconventional letterings were added to a congruent (i.e., Arabic on the dates packaging), an incongruent (i.e., Cyrillic on the dates packaging) and a neutral (i.e., Arabic on a waffles packaging) product packaging. Waffles were chosen as a neutral product category because consumers neither associated it with Arabic nor with Cyrillic.

For instance, in one experimental group consumers received a dates packaging in English with an additional slogan in Arabic (a vodka packaging in English with an additional slogan in Cyrillic). Hence, the product packaging was in English and Arabic (Cyrillic). The counterpart condition was a date packaging only in English (vodka packaging only in English). Another experimental group included a waffle packaging in English with an Arabic slogan (vodka packaging with a Cyrillic slogan). As product packaging were designed in English and the unconventional lettering, the study may be classified as both GCCP and FCCP.

The results showed that adding unconventional lettering on product packaging resulted in a positive effect on product evaluation (dependent variable). However, these direct effects were only significant for vodka and the Austrian sample. The effects found for the dates packaging with Arabic and the Thai sample were not significant.

Regarding the evaluation of the product packaging (mediator), the effects were positive and significant for the vodka and dates packaging in the Austrian and Thai sample. Considering the findings regarding the impact of unconventional lettering on the dependent variable, i.e., product evaluation, this mediation effect is also significant for vodka and the Austrian sample only.

In terms of the moderators, the effect of congruency between the unconventional lettering and product category was positive and significant in the Austrian sample only. Besides, the impact of familiarity with the product category on product packaging and product evaluation was consistently positive and significant. Furthermore, a cross-countries comparison did not provide any evidence on moderation effects of the economic environment (Austria vs. Thailand) on the relationship between unconventional lettering and product evaluations.

The study by Ho et al. (2019) investigated the effects of packaging labels in different FLs (Korean, Japanese, and English) on consumers' buying preferences. The authors used a coffee beverage product with a fictitious brand name as experimental product and only the

language displayed on each packaging was adapted. The study was conducted in China and the sample included Chinese students.

The results indicated that for all dependent variables, the coffee product with the English label received the highest evaluations by the respondents. Hence, the coffee product with the English label (compared to Korean and Japanese labels) was evaluated the best in terms of product quality, taste perception, trust, attention, and purchase intentions. However, the study did not consider product-language congruence. Instead, they chose coffee because of its daily consumption and significant number of coffee products available.

In summary, previous research showed that adding FLs leads to positive consumer responses, such as higher perceived quality (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016), better product evaluation (Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021), better taste perceptions (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016; Ho et al., 2019), and purchase intentions (Ho et al., 2019). However, researchers so far neglected price-related outcome variables, which are closer to actual consumer behavior and therefore provide a stricter test of the FLD effect.

Moreover, previous research on unconventional lettering designed the product packaging in two FLs, i.e., English and the unconventional lettering. Thus, the significant effects found may be partly attributed to the English language, which is known for its effectiveness and positive influence (e.g., Gerritsen, Nickerson, van Hoof, van Meurs, Korzilius, Nederstigt, Starren & Crijns, 2010; Hornikx et al., 2010; Planken et al., 2010).

In addition, the table illustrates that previous research on FLs on product packaging did only focus on FLs as implicit COO cues. A comparison between the effectiveness of adding an implicit COO cue vs. an explicit COO cue to a product packaging has not been done yet. Hence, the current investigation enhances the previously introduced study by Hornikx & van Meurs (2017a) in which the researchers added implicit COO cues (FLs with conventional letterings) vs. explicit COO cues (made in label) to advertisements in the Netherlands (see section 2.2.1).

Next, the outcome variable, namely consumers' WTP, is elaborated.

2.3 Willingness to pay

Willingness to pay (WTP) refers to "the maximum amount of money a customer is willing to spend for a product or service" (Homburg, Koschate & Hoyer, 2005, p. 85) and represents the worth a person assigns to it (Homburg et al., 2005). WTP is related to a person's reservation price (Monroe, 2003) or price tolerance (Homburg et al., 2005). Above all, WTP is a price measure. Price is "the amount of money we must sacrifice to acquire something we desire" (Monroe, 2003, p. 5).

Most research on COO effects has examined "softer" outcome variables, such as brand evaluations or purchase intentions (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Diamantopoulos, Matarazzo, Montanari & Petrychenko, 2021). The use of such measures has received criticism as the impact of COO often decreases when consumers move closer to the decision of purchasing the product (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1999; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999) and the sacrifice a consumer accepts to buy a product is not considered (Monroe, 2003). In addition, positive product evaluations or higher purchase intention do not imply that consumers are also willing to purchase the product (Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988). Consumers might assess a product from country A better than a product originating from country B, however, they might not be willing to pay a premium price for it (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012).

Consequently, measuring the consumers' WTP overcomes these limitations and allows consumers to undertake an informed decision whether the product is worth buying (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). By introducing a price measure, it is possible to "monetize" the COO effect (see Nebenzahl & Jaffe, 1996), thus providing a stricter test (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). As price directly impacts on a company's profitability and therefore, the "monetization" of the COO effect can be used by companies in their marketing-mix (Han, Gupta & Lehmann 2001).

Consumers' WTP may either be obtained from actual price-response data or survey techniques. Price-response data is often referred to as revealed preference data, i.e., experiments, auctions and data obtained through market observations (Kloss & Kunter, 2016; Breidert, Hahsler & Reutterer, 2006). Survey techniques are regularly referred to as stated preferences, i.e., direct, and indirect surveys for collecting data. While direct surveys ask the consumers to state their WTP, indirect surveys derive WTP through applying a rating or

ranking procedure for different products, which creates a preference structure (Breidert et al., 2006).

Furthermore, stated preferences can be distinguished between hypothetical and incentive-aligned approaches, depending on whether the WTP is stated based on an actual product purchase or only a hypothetical scenario (Kloss & Kunter, 2016).

For instance, among the most widely known indirect methods to elicit WTP are the Discrete-Choice Analysis (hypothetical nature) and the Incentive-Aligned Discrete-Choice Analysis (incentive-aligned). The Van Westendorp Price Sensitivity Meter (PSM) and Becker-DeGroot-Marschak mechanism (BDM) are direct survey methods (Kloss & Kunter, 2016).

The increasing literature linking COO and price responses (e.g., Pucci, Casprini, Guercini, & Zanni, 2017; Lee, Gartner, Song, Marlowe, Choi & Jamiyansuren, 2018; Siew, Minor, & Felix, 2018) mostly applied direct survey methods with a single question to measure WTP, i.e., consumers had to state their maximum WTP for products originating from different COOs (Backhaus, Wilken, Voeth & Sichtmann, 2005). While this single question approach has time and cost advantages, consumers tend to overestimate their price sensitivity (Lipovetsky Magnan & Zanetti-Polzi, 2011), because of, for example, prestige or collaboration effects (Breidert et al., 2016). Therefore, only one question to measure WTP is not advised (Desmet, 2016).

Only Koschate-Fischer et al. (2012) and Hu and Wang (2010) employed auction methods to measure WTP in COO research. For instance, Koschate-Fischer et al. (2012) used Becker, DeGroot and Marschak (1964) mechanism, which is based on a lottery. In this procedure, all consumers submit an offer for a product and then, the products' sales price is randomly set. If the bid price is higher than the sales price, the bidder receives a unit of the good paying the sales price for it. Thus, the bid only determines whether the bidder is allowed to buy the product and does not represent the final purchase price, and that is why this auction method it is classified as incentive compatible (Breidert et al., 2006). The BDM approach is limited to certain market situations though, because in supermarkets the product supply is mostly unrestricted and competing to buy a product is not required (Wertenbroch & Skiera, 2002). In addition, BDM approach requires the consumer to actually buy the product, which makes approaches such as Van Westendorp (1976) PSM less costly and preferable by managers (Völckner, 2006).

This master's thesis employs the Van Westendorp (1976) PSM. In addition to the advantage of not demanding a purchase (Breidert et al., 2016), PSM asks for four different prices. Compared to a single question, this approach results in a more realistic pricing decision (Desmet, 2016). Specifically, PSM measures by means of open-ended questions at what prices the respondents consider products to be (i) too cheap, (ii), cheap, (iii) expensive and (iv) too expensive. These questions aim at covering respondents' price acceptability and judgements (Ceylana, Koseb & Aydin, 2014). They also define price elasticity and price thresholds (Lipovetsky et al., 2011).

PSM measures the WTP at low costs with highly acceptable results (Müller, 2009) and offers advantages when product attributes need to be adapted (Breidert et al., 2006). This method "provides reliable information about consumers' reaction to prices" (Çolak & Koşan, 2021, p.70) and the results are quickly available (Breidert et al., 2006). Moreover, it does not create a purchase obligation, which gives flexibility to the choice of product categories.

Overall, by using different approaches (e.g., BDM, PSM, single questions) to estimate WTP, extant COO research suggests a positive link between COO and consumers' WTP (e.g., Johansson & Nebenzahl 1986; Aichner, Forza & Trentin, 2016; Diamantopoulos et al., 2021).

Specifically, a more favorable country image increases consumers' WTP, while WTP decreases for countries with a less favorable country image (Drozdenko & Jensen, 2009; Hu & Wang, 2010; Pucci et al., 2017). In low-involvement settings the COO positively influences the WTP regardless of the brand familiarity. In high-involvement settings, a higher brand familiarity results in a weaker effect of COO on consumers' WTP (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012).

Although an increasing number of COO research has included price-related variables as dependent variable (e.g., Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Loureiro & Umberger, 2003; Diamantopoulos et al., 2021), PSM has being employed only recently in this field (see Diamantopoulos et al., 2021). More importantly, research on FLD on product packaging still ignores WTP and employs softer outcome variables, such as product quality perceptions (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016), product evaluations (Zatega, 2017; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021), taste perceptions (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016), or purchase intentions (Ho et al., 2019). However, the effects of different packaging elements on consumers' WTP have already

been empirically demonstrated (e.g., Bloch, Brunel & Arnold, 2003; van Ooijen, Fransen, Verlegh & Smit, 2016; Joutsela, Latvala & Roto, 2017).

For instance, a product's visual aesthetic is not only essential for increasing recognition in a crowded marketplace (Simonson & Schmitt, 1997) and for forming consumer/product relationships (Hollins & Pugh, 1990), but also for determining consumers' WTP (Bloch et al., 2003). Bloch et al. (2003) suggested that a higher centrality of visual product aesthetics increases WTP.

After presenting the main concepts (COO, FLD and WTP), the conceptual framework and hypotheses of the study are introduced next.

3. Conceptual framework and hypotheses development

This chapter describes the conceptual model and develops the research hypotheses.

3.1 Conceptual model

Based on the literature review and research gaps, this master's thesis investigates the following research model:
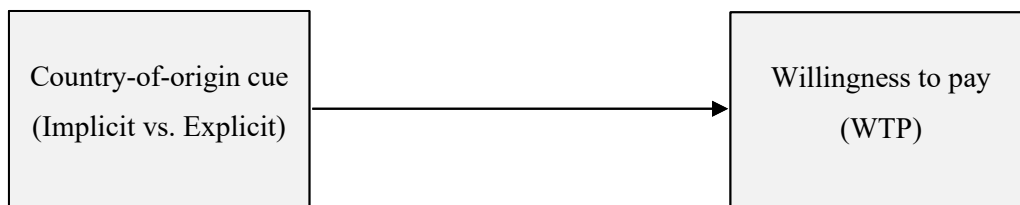
Figure 1: Conceptual model

The model illustrates that the present study will examine the impact of an implicit (unconventional lettering) and an explicit (made in label) COO cue on consumers' WTP.

Next, the theoretical underpinning of the model and the corresponding hypotheses are described.

3.2 Hypotheses development

This section outlines the theoretical underpinnings of the conceptual model. The relationship between implicit vs. explicit COO cues and consumers' WTP is theoretically developed through the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspectives. Both are discussed together with previous research on FLD and COO effect to build the research hypotheses.

The sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspective constitute the two approaches to explain the display of FLs. The sociolinguistic perspective deals with how consumers link FLs to specific countries or speakers (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b). This perspective assumes that the display of the FL matters, but not the actual meaning of the language (e.g., Haarmann, 1989; Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Piller, 2003). Under the sociolinguistic perspective, the main theory is called theory of FLD, which proposes that FLs are rather used for the associations they evoke than the literal content they convey (Haarmann, 1989; Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Piller, 2003; Ray et al., 1991). For example, Audi uses the slogan "Vorsprung durch Technik" to create associations to Germany, which is known by engineering quality and reliability of its products (Kelly-Holmes, 2005). Thus, the use of German reflects a symbolic meaning and not literal meaning, such as the translation of the slogan mentioned, i.e., "progress through technique" (Hornikx et al., 2013).

The theory of FLD is based on the study of language attitudes and assumes that languages convey information about the speaker's or writer's identity (Dragojevic, Giles & Watson, 2013), as for instance, information about the person's national background or cultural characteristics (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010). This theory is often used to explain why FLs can be more efficient than the same advertisements in the consumers' mother tongue (Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Hornikx & van Meurs, 2015) and has three central claims (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b).

First, FLD evokes ethnocultural associations with the country or culture in which the FL is spoken or its speakers (e.g., Haarmann, 1989; Piller, 2003; Alcántara-Pilar, Del Barrio-García & Porcu, 2015) and these associations are further transferred to the product (Hornikx & Starren, 2006).

Empirical studies have investigated associations evoked by FLs and provided evidence for this claim (e.g., Haarman, 1989; Domzal et al., 1995; Hornikx & Starren, 2006). For instance, Hornikx, van Meurs and Starren (2007) revealed that different FLs evoke different

associations. While an ad with a French slogan generated associations with beauty, elegance, and style, the same ad with a German slogan led to associations with business and reliability. Furthermore, Kelly-Holmes (2000) argues that consumers call up cultural associations of the country in which the FL is spoken (Kelly-Holmes, 2000). Thus, FLs signal a product's origin and function as implicit COO cues (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a). Moreover, the associations evoked by a FL are similar to those evoked by an explicit COO cue, i.e., associations with Spanish and a made in Spain label (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a).

Second, the FLD theory "claims that for FLD to be effective (appreciated, liked, etc.), the comprehension of the utterance is of minor importance" (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b, p. 308). FLs are used because of their symbolic value which creates identities for products, brands, or producers (Kelly-Holmes, 2005). While it is not important that consumers understand the literal meaning of the FL slogan, it is crucial that they recognize the FL displayed (Hornikx et al., 2013).

Researchers have investigated the effect of comprehension of the FLs on advertisement evaluation (e.g., Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Hornikx et al., 2010; Hendriks, van Meurs & Poos, 2017). Most of these empirical studies compared easy and difficult (in terms of comprehension) English slogans and consumers showed better attitudes towards the advertisements (Hendriks et al., 2017) and higher appreciations (Hornikx & Starren, 2006; Hornikx et al., 2010) for English slogans easy to understand. In addition, the higher the perceived comprehension of the English slogan, the better consumers' attitudes towards the product and advertisements (Raedts, Dupré, Hendrickx & Debrauwere, 2016).

Although these studies indicate that higher level of comprehension and easy FL slogans result in better consumers' evaluations towards the products and the ad, the differences found were rather small (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020). Therefore, these empirical results can actually be taken as an empirical support for the limited role of comprehension (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020). Wagner & Charinsarn's (2021) study, for instance, supported the lack of need to understand the language as consumers in the study could mostly not read the unconventional slogans but were able to interpret them based on evoked emotions.

Third, the main principle holds that the display of FL "is more effective for products that are congruent with the country where the language is spoken" (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b, p. 205), e.g., more appreciated or liked (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b). Hence, the

associations evoked by the FLs should be congruent with the type of product advertised (e.g., Domzal et al., 1995; Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Ray et al., 1991), also called product-language-match (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b).

For instance, Hornikx et al. (2013), who were the first authors to investigate the effect of congruence between FLs and products, supported the importance of product-language-congruence. They observed that consumers' perceived product quality, product attitudes and purchase intentions are higher for congruent products (e.g., wine-French language) than for incongruent products (e.g., beer-French language). Furthermore, Zatega (2017) and Wagner and Charinsarn (2021) also revealed that the effects of adding unconventional lettering to a product packaging are stronger if the lettering is congruent to the product category.

Further evidence on the effect of FLs for congruent products can be found in foreign branding literature, which mainly investigates the effects of foreign brand names (e.g., Leclerc et al., 1994; Salciuviene, Ghauri, Salomea Streder & de Mattos, 2010). For instance, in Leclerc et al. (1994), English-speaking respondents heard brand names pronounced in French or English and evaluated ad liking and brand attitude for different products. The product categories chosen in this study were products that matched on one important attribute for each country (France – hedonism and US – utilitarianism). For the French pronunciation, consumers evaluated ad liking and brand attitude better for hedonic products (e.g., fragrance) than for utilitarian product (e.g., foil wrap) and for the English pronunciations the opposite was found.

In addition, COO literature and the concept of product ethnicity (Usunier & Cestre, 2007) have also shown the positive effects of product-country congruence on product evaluations (e.g., Roth & Romeo 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Verlegh et al., 2005). For instance, typical (or congruent) products from a country (e.g., cosmetics for France) led to higher purchase intentions than incongruent products (e.g., cosmetics for Mexico) (see Usunier & Cestre, 2007). Consumers are not only capable of connecting products to typical COOs (Usunier & Cestre, 2007), but also connecting FLs to the relevant COO in which the FL is spoken (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2008; Magnusson et al., 2011; Melnyk et al., 2012), e.g., the French brand name Croixbergièere and France or the German brand name Kreuzberger and Germany (Melnyk et al., 2012).

Finally, as described in section 2.2.1, consumers are able to link FLs to a particular COO that is relevant for the advertised product (Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Leclerc et al., 1994;

Melnyk et al., 2012). Hence, unconventional letterings function as implicit COO cues and positively impact consumers' product evaluations and intentions (e.g., Ho et al., 2019; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). Bearing the three central claims of FLD theory in mind, it can be assumed that adding unconventional lettering is effective in terms of increasing consumers' WTP when displayed on a congruent product category. Respondents do not have to understand the unconventional lettering. Instead, it functions as an implicit COO cue and consumers link the lettering to the relevant COO for the product advertised. Therefore, consumers should be willing to pay a higher price for a product packaging with a congruent unconventional lettering compared to a product packaging without the implicit COO cue. Thus, the following hypothesis is introduced:

H1: A product packaging with a congruent unconventional lettering (implicit COO cue) generates higher willingness to pay than a product packaging without any COO cue.

The psycholinguistic perspective, also called information-processing perspective (Harris, Ruth, Klassen & Bechtold, 1986), focuses on how consumers process FLs (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b) and assumes that FLs are linked differently to concepts in the mind compared to the consumer's mother tongue (Kroll & De Groot, 1997). The mental structure consumers have about advertisements, for instance, differs in the case of advertisements with FLs compared to general advertisements, implying that consumers must process FLs more deeply (Domzal et al., 1995). This language processing affects consumers' cultural values and, in turn, influences their behavior (Alcántara-Pilar et al., 2015).

More precisely, the psycholinguistic perspective argues that FLD attracts more attention than consumers' native language and arouses curiosity, as FLs constitute information that is distinctive (Domzal et al., 1995; Petrof, 1990; Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b). This claim is supported by theories on curiosity, which hold that new information compared to other information available evokes curiosity (Litman, 2005; Loewenstein, 1994). Empirical research has provided evidence for this relationship between new information and curiosity (e.g., Huang, 2003; Stell & Paden, 1999).

Moreover, new, and visual information has shown to influence consumers' curiosity (Pieters, Warlop & Wedel, 2002) and "foreign languages in advertisement can act as novel information, provided that they are not frequently used" (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b, p. 303). Researchers stated that FLD attracts consumers' attention (Domzal et al., 1995; Petrof, 1990;

Piller, 2001). Schlossberg (1990), for instance, argues that FLs are one of the most effective methods to attract consumers' attention to a product.

This attention-grabbing power of FLs depends on the FLs' level of distinctiveness (Domzal et al., 1995; Piller, 2001). While the distinctiveness of English as a FL is rather low due to its worldwide use in advertisements, other FLs are considered as more distinctive (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020). Hence, the distinctiveness of conventional letterings may be lower compared to unconventional letterings, as the latter is less spoken by the consumers in the researce country and less familiar to them (Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). Therefore, unconventional lettering may foster more attention and curiosity leading to a deeper mental information processing and to the formation of perceptions about the product or brand (Ho et al., 2019). This may likely result in consumers being willing to pay a higher price for a product packaging with an implicit COO cue (i.e., unconventional lettering informing the COO) than an explicit COO cue (i.e., the made in label using the mother tongue).

Furthermore, Domzal et al. (1995, p. 14) state that "foreign expressions have the capability of enabling advertisements to be noticed more, processed deeper, and remembered more readily than equivalent advertisements using no foreign words". Then, foreign visual stimuli on product packaging attract consumers' attention, which results in a deeper mental processing of information (Domzal et al., 1995). Through this information processing, consumers form opinions about brands or products (Ho et al., 2019) which further influence consumers' purchase decisions (Venter, Van der Merwe, De Beer, Kempen & Bosman, 2011).

According to Hornikx & van Meurs (2017a), their study was the first comparing the effects of adding FLs as implicit COO cues vs. explicit COO cues to Dutch advertisements. They compared FLs with conventional letterings, e.g., "¡Las naranjas más jugosas del mundo!" (In English "The juiciest oranges in the world!"), to made in labels, e.g., "Spanish product". Despite the study finding mostly similar effects of explicit and implicit cues on consumers' responses towards advertisements, the FL advertisements included incongruent COO information. This is a common approach in foreign branding research (e.g., Leclerc et al., 1994; Melnyk et al., 2012) proving that FLs overrule the incongruent COO cue. However, the effects found may be influenced by the incongruent COO information (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a). Therefore, the positive effects of FLs may be stronger when displayed without incongruent COO information. This may further lead to FLs being more effective than explicit COO cues.

Moreover, the study compared FLs with conventional lettering (e.g., Spanish and German). The findings for conventional and unconventional letterings may not lead to similar consumers' responses, as the level of their perceived distinctiveness to the mother tongue is different. Additionally, unconventional lettering is only barely used by companies (Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021) and is therefore a new COO method. In contrast, adding explicit COO cues is a widely used COO strategy (Zeugner-Roth & Bartsch, 2020) and less attention-grabbing to consumers. For instance, Austrians may perceive Spanish or English as less distinctive than Cyrillic as the former ones are based on Latin lettering. According to the psycholinguistic view, more distinctive FLs attract more attention, which favors a deeper mental processing of the information and results in influencing consumers' behavior (Domzal et al. 1995; Alcántara-Pilar et al., 2015). Thus, adding unconventional lettering to a product packaging may be more effective in influencing consumers' WTP than explicit COO cues.

Based on the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspective on FLD, the following is hypothesized:

H2: *A product packaging with a congruent unconventional lettering (implicit COO cue) generates higher willingness to pay than a product packaging with a congruent explicit COO cue.*

In the next chapter, the research's methodology is outlined.

4. Methodology

The following chapter describes the study's methodology including the research design, country of research, variables and measures, stimuli, pretests, questionnaire, and data collection.

4.1 Research design

To investigate the research question and test the hypotheses presented, two experimental studies were conducted. Both employed a between-groups design. Hence, each respondent is exposed to only one condition (Field, 2018). On the one hand, this choice was made to avoid any carry-over effects. On the other hand, between-groups designs are more accurate for investigating WTP as consumers want to differentiate in their answers and therefore tend to overestimate their WTP in within-group designs (Frederick & Fischhoff, 1998).

Both studies manipulated COO cues on the product packaging (see Table 2). Specifically, respondents were randomly exposed either to a packaging with no COO cue, to a packaging with an implicit COO cue (unconventional lettering) or to a packaging with an explicit COO cue (made in label). Despite the COO cue, the product packaging was identical across the three experimental conditions and the rest of the packaging was in the mother tongue of the respondents (German). The only difference between the studies was the product category (olive oil and vodka) and thus the unconventional lettering used (Greek and Cyrillic) – for details see sections 4.4.

Control group	Experimental group 1: implicit COO cue	Experimental group 2: explicit COO cue
No COO cue	Unconventional lettering	Made in label

Table 2: Research design

Next, the country of research is introduced.

4.2 Country of research: Austria

Both experimental studies were conducted in Austria. The country represents a suitable choice for several reasons. First, the World Bank classifies Austria as a high-income country indicating a gross national product (GNI) per capita of $12,696 or more (The World Bank, n.d.-b). More precisely, in 2020, the Austrian GNI per capita amounted to $48,350 (The World Bank, 2022). This value represents rank 18th among 217 countries worldwide (The World Bank, n.d.-a).

Second, in 2020, Austria imported goods worth 157.8 billion Euro while the exports of goods amounted to 153.5 billion Euro, which represents rank six and rank five per capita among European Union countries respectively (Wirtschaftskammer Österreich, 2022). In addition, during the past 20 years Austria has become an important trade partner on the global market holding the seventh rank in per-capita-export worldwide (Aussenwirtschaft Austria, 2021).

Furthermore, in 2019, Austria held rank seven in the KOF Globalization Index (ETH Zürich, 2021). This index measures economic, social, and political dimensions of globalization for nearly every country in the world (Gygli, Haelg, Potrafke & Sturm, 2019). This high position in the KOF Globalization Index indicates that Austria is part of long-distance flows of goods or services and a highly globalized country in cultural terms. This results, for instance, in a huge stock of trademarks applications by foreigners (Gygli et al., 2019). Moreover, Austrians interpersonal globalization is also assessed as high, as they frequently interact with citizens living in foreign countries through migration or tourism (Gygli et al., 2019).

Against this background, it is possible to state that Austrians are not only frequently confronted with foreign products and product packaging with FLs (including products/brands that display unconventional lettering) but are also open-minded towards products from foreign countries. For instance, the recent study by Wagner & Charinsarn (2021) adapted product packaging of real brands selling their products in Austrian supermarkets. Therefore, Austria is suitable for conducting this research.

In the following section, the main variables are shown.

4.3 Variables and measures

In this section, the variables and measures used in both studies, are described.

4.3.1   Dependent variable

The dependent variable, also called outcome variable (Field, 2018), represents the assumed effect in an experiment, and its value depends on the independent variable (Field, 2018). In the present study the dependent variable is consumers' willingness to pay, defined as "the maximum amount of money a customer is willing to spend for a product or service" (Homburg et al., 2005, p. 85).

As outlined before (see section 2.3 again), this master's thesis employs the Van Westendorp's (1976) Price Sensitivity Meter, which is an indirect method for measuring consumers' WTP. The PSM is based on four open-ended questions indicating at what prices consumers perceive a specific product as (i) too cheap, (ii), cheap (a bargain), (iii) expensive, or (iv) too expensive (Lipovetsky et al., 2011). Table 3 shows the dependent variable and its measurement.

Variable	Measurement
Willingness to pay "The maximum amount of money a customer is willing to spend for a product or service" (Homburg et al., 2005, p. 85)	4 items with open-ended questions following the Van Westendorp PSM: ● At what price would you consider this product to be so low that you would question its quality? ● At what price would you consider the product to be a bargain – a great buy for the money? ● At what price would you consider the product starting to get expensive – not out of the question, but you'd need to give some thought to buying it? ● At what price would you consider this product so expensive that you would not consider buying it? Source: Ceylana, Koseb & Aydin (2014)

Table 3: Dependent variable

Despite the fact most studies employing the PSM have examined the four pricing elements separately (e.g., Diamantopoulos et al. 2021), this master's thesis calculates the average of the too expensive and expensive prices to obtain an individual-level estimation of consumers' WTP.

Research has shown that the expensive price element is close to a person's reservation price (Roll, Achterberg & Herbert, 2010). However, Diamantopoulos et al. (2021) pointed out that only considering this price element leads to an underestimation of consumers' WTP as this is still not the maximum price consumers would be willing to pay. Besides, the too expensive price element is above consumers' WTP and at this price level they would not consider buying the product. Thus, taking the mean of the expensive and too expensive price elements addresses both the underestimation of the former and the overestimation of the latter one and constitutes a representative approximation for consumers' actual WTP.

The research's independent variable is explained next.

4.3.2 Independent variable

Independent variables, also called predictor variables, are causes of some effect (Field, 2018). In experimental research, the term independent variable refers to a variable that is manipulated by the researcher (Field, 2018).

In the present study, the independent variable is COO. While there are various definitions for COO, this master's thesis refers to "the country in which the product is manufactured or assembled" (Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006, p. 412). The COO is directly manipulated through using explicit vs. implicit COO cues on product packaging (see table 4), i.e., the made in label in German or the unconventional lettering (in English "made in Greece" and "Russian Vodka").

The explicit COO cues are operationalized in the respondents' mother tongue, i.e., made in label in German. As outlined in chapter 2.2.2, putting the made in label in English would lead to additional language effects. Regarding the operationalization of the implicit COO cue, the present thesis translates the made in label into the unconventional lettering. Similar studies operationalized the unconventional lettering through translating a product attribute, i.e., natural dates or glacier water in the unconventional lettering (Zatega, 2017; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). However, the understanding of the unconventional lettering is expected to be low (see Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021) and therefore its literal meaning is less important (e.g., Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b).

Variable	Measurement
Country-of-origin "The country in which the product is manufactured or assembled" (Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006, p. 412).	Manipulated through explicit vs. implicit COO cues Olive oil study: • Explicit COO cue: "Hergestellt in Griechenland" • Implicit COO cue: "Παράγεται στην Ελλάδα" Vodka study: • Explicit COO cue: "Russischer Vodka" • Implicit COO cue: "Русская водка"

Table 4: Independent variable

Subsequent, the control variables are defined.

4.3.3 Control variables

Control variables, also called confounding variables (Field, 2018), are other variables than the independent variable that affect the outcome variable (Field, 2018; Malhotra, 2011). To assume cause-and-effect relationships, several conditions have to be met and one condition defines that all other confounding variables influencing this relationship have to be ruled out (Field, 2018).

Based on the literature review on COO, WTP and FLD, five control variables that might influence consumers' price perceptions were identified and measured: product involvement, price sensitivity, consumer cosmopolitanism, product-country typicality, and country image (see Table 5).

The measurements of the control variables were adapted from previous studies on COO research and the items were summarized in single composite indicators by calculating their average. Through including these control variables, the risk of overestimating the impact of unconventional lettering on consumers' WTP is reduced and the extent to which these variables affect WTP is revealed.

Variable	Measurement
Product involvement "A person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interests" (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342).	3 items on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree"): • I choose the [product] that I buy very carefully. • Which [product] I buy matters to me a lot. • Deciding which [product] to buy is an important decision to me. Source: Mittal and Lee (1989)

Price sensitivity "The extent to which individuals perceive and respond to changes or differences in prices for products or services" (Wakefield & Inman, 2003, p. 201).	3 items on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree"): • I'm willing to make an extra effort to find a low price for [product]. • I will change what I had planned to buy in order to take advantage of a lower price for [product]. • I am sensitive to differences in the prices for [product]. Source: Wakefield and Inman (2003)
Cosmopolitanism "A relative distance from one's own culture and affiliation and openness towards other cultures and customs" (Riefler, Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2012, p. 285).	12 items on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree"): Open-mindedness: • When traveling, I make conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions. • I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries. • I like to have contact with people from different cultures. • I have got a real interest in other countries. Diversity appreciation: • Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me. • The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity. • I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries. • Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time. Consumption transcending borders: • I like watching movies from different countries. • I like listening to music of other cultures. • I like trying original dishes from other countries. • I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world. Source: Riefler et al. (2012)
Country image "Overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country, based on their prior perception of the country's production and marketing strengths and weaknesses" (Roth & Romeo 1992, p. 480)	4 items on a seven-point bipolar semantic differential scale: Please rate [COO] products in general regarding the following characteristics: • Innovativeness (i.e., the use of new technology and engineering advances): 1 = "not innovative"; 7 = "innovative" • Attractiveness of the design (i.e., appearance, style, colors, and variety): 1 = "no attractive design"; 7 = "attractive design" • Prestige (i.e., exclusivity, status, and brand name reputation): 1 = "low prestige"; 7 = "high prestige" • Workmanship (i.e., reliability, durability, craftsmanship, and manufacturing quality): 1 = "bad workmanship"; 7 = "good workmanship" Source: adapted from Roth and Romeo (1992)

Product-country typicality "Associations that consumers make between countries and generic products" (Usunier & Cestre, 2007, p. 32)	4 items on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree"): • [Product] reflects [country]. • I associate [product] with [country]. • [Product] makes me think of [country]. • There is a strong link between [product] and [country]. Source: Halkias and Diamantopoulos (2020)

Table 5: Control variables

Product involvement is defined as "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values and interests" (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342). Previous research on COO revealed that product involvement moderates the COO effect. However, this moderation effect is controversial, as some studies suggest that a higher product involvement weakens the COO effect (e.g., Ahmed, Johnson, Yang, Kheng Fatt, Sack Teng & Chee Boom, 2004; Josiassen, Lukas & Whitwell, 2008; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). Other studies indicate that a higher product involvement increases the role of COO for consumers' perceptions thus strengthening the COO effect (e.g., D'Astous & Ahmed, 1999). In line with the latter, it was shown that consumers' WTP for specific products increases with a high product involvement (Campbell, DiPietro & Remar, 2014).

Price sensitivity reflects "the extent to which individuals perceive and respond to changes or differences in prices for products or services" (Wakefield & Inman, 2003, p. 201). Research has demonstrated that price-insensitive consumers are willing to pay higher prices for a specific product than price-sensitive consumers (Goldsmith & Newell, 1997).

Product-country typicality refers to the "associations that consumers make between countries and generic products" (Usunier & Cestre, 2007, p. 32). Research suggests that product-country typicality positively influences consumers evaluations and behaviors, as for instance, consumers attitudes (e.g., Loken & Ward, 1987), willingness to buy (e.g., Roth & Romeo, 1992) or product quality perceptions (e.g., Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2006). Thus, the perceived product-country typicality might influence consumers' WTP, i.e., a higher ethnicity increases their WTP.

Country image is the "overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country, based on their prior perception of the country's production and marketing strengths and weaknesses" (Roth & Romeo 1992, p. 480). Country image influences consumers' product

evaluations (Maheswaran et al., 2013). Consumers evaluate products originating from a country with a more favorable image more positively than products from a country with a less favorable image and vice versa (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). Therefore, consumers' country image perceptions may influence their WTP for product packaging without a COO cue, with an implicit or explicit COO cue, i.e., a more favorable country image may increase consumers' WTP.

Finally, consumer cosmopolitanism (C-COSMO) is "the extent to which a consumer (1) exhibits an open-mindedness towards foreign countries and cultures, (2) appreciates the diversity brought about by the availability of products from different national and cultural origins, and (3) is positively disposed towards consuming products from foreign countries" (Riefler et al., 2012, p. 287). C-COSMO affects consumers product preferences towards foreign and global brands (Cleveland, Laroche & Papadopoulos, 2009; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar & Diamantopoulos, 2015). For instance, Zatega (2017) found that C-COSMO positively moderates consumers evaluations of product packaging with unconventional letterings, i.e., the more cosmopolitan a consumer was, the better the product packaging with unconventional lettering was evaluated. Hence, C-COSMO might influence consumers' WTP, i.e., cosmopolitan consumers might be willing to pay more for foreign products.

Demographic variables (gender, age, nationality, occupation, monthly net income) were also included in the main questionnaire (see Table 6).

Variable	Measurement
Gender	**What's your gender?** ( ) Female ( ) Male ( ) Diverse
Age	**How old are you?** _____ years old.
Nationality	**What's your nationality?** ( ) Austrian ( ) Other
Occupation	**What is your occupation?** ( ) Employed ( ) Unemployed ( ) Student ( ) Retired ( ) Homemaker ( ) Other
Monthly net income	**What is approximately your monthly net income in euros?** _____ **Euro (€)**

Table 6: Demographics

Next, the stimuli are described.

4.4 Stimuli

The main stimuli of the two experimental studies are presented next, i.e., countries and product categories.

4.4.1 Countries

The stimuli countries (Greece – Study 1 and Russia – Study 2) were selected based on the choice of two unconventional letterings according with the country of research: Austria.

Specifically, languages are classified in three groups of writing, i.e., alphabetic scripts (e.g., Latin, Cyrillic, Greek), logographic scripts (e.g., Mandarin) and a combination of alphabetic and logographic scripts (e.g., Korean) (Akmajian, Demers, Farmer & Harnish, 2001; Hernandez & Minor, 2010; Fang, Tzeng & Alva, 1981). The native language in Austria is German (based on Latin lettering), therefore, FLs based on other letterings than Latin are considered as unconventional letterings.

The choice of the unconventional lettering for each experimental study was based on two criteria. The first criterion was that the two unconventional letterings referred to languages used in countries that are economically relevant and geographically close to the research country. Austria is part of the European Union (EU), and all member states may be considered as both geographically close and economically relevant for Austria. In the EU there are three different alphabets, namely, Cyrillic (Bulgaria), Greek (Greece and Cyprus), and Latin (e.g., Austria, France). Therefore, Cyrillic and Greek, which are both classified as alphabetic scripts, were selected.

Regarding Greek, in 2001, an Austrian census found that roughly 3,000 people living in Austria have spoken Greek (Statistik Austria, 2001). This small number indicates that Greek may be considered as an unconventional lettering.

Concerning Cyrillic, Austrians usually connect this alphabet to Russia (see Zatega, 2017 and Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). Russia is an important trade partner outside the European Union (EU). As of 2020, Russia was the 13th most important country for exports and ranked 16th for imports (Wirtschaftskammer Österreich, 2021). While most countries ranking before Russia are part of the EU, only China, the US and Switzerland rank as non-European countries before Russia (Wirtschaftskammer Österreich, 2021), which further highlights the importance of Russia as a trading partner outside the EU.

Additionally, more than 275 million people worldwide speak Russian either as their mother tongue or as a second language (Statista, 2010). In 2001, around 8,400 people living in Austria spoke Russian, Ukrainian or Belarusian (Statistik Austria, 2022) which further emphasizes that Cyrillic may be considered as an unconventional lettering.

The second criterion was based on the availability of products with product packaging including these unconventional letterings in Austria. Overall, various Russian and Greek products are present on the Austrian market and several of them contain a product packaging with some words in Cyrillic and Greek (e.g., olive oil, olives, feta cheese, vodka, Russian cookies).

While the comprehension of these FLs is, according to the FLD theory, rather irrelevant, the effectiveness of the FLs' display depends on the respondent's capacity to correctly link the FL to the relevant COO. Both alphabets are spoken in more than one country and respondents' country associations with the alphabets was checked in a pretest (for details, see section 4.5).

4.4.2 Product categories

For FLD to be effective, consumers must perceive the product category as congruent with the foreign lettering (e.g., Kelly-Holmes, 2005). Thus, two congruent product categories (olive oil – Study 1 and vodka – Study 2) and their respective fictitious brand names (Ovli – Study 1 and Vodron – Study 2) were chosen based on pretests (for details, see section 4.5).

While Wagner and Charinsarn (2021) used product packaging of real brands offering products in Austrian supermarkets, the present thesis aimed at designing new product packaging to avoid effects due to brand equity and familiarity (Dimofte, Johansson & Ronkainen, 2008). That is the reason why fictitious brand names were employed in the research.

The product packaging for vodka and olive oil was designed similar to the product packaging used in past studies on FLD (e.g., Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021; Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016; Yener & Taşçıoğlu, 2021) and real examples in supermarkets. The relevant product attributes were added to the product packaging, namely the product category (olive oil and vodka) and the packaging size (750 ml and 75cl).

There were three product packaging for olive oil and three for vodka: (i) control group, a packaging without any COO cue; (ii) experimental group one, a packaging with an implicit COO cue (for olive oil "Παράγεται στην Ελλάδα" (in English "made in Greece") and for vodka "Русская водка" (in English "Russian vodka")) and (iii) experimental group two, a packaging with an explicit COO cue ("hergestellt in Griechenland" (in English "made in Greece") and for vodka "Russischer Vodka" (in English "Russian vodka")). The product information, design and brand name in each condition were identical and only the COO cue was adapted (the stimuli are displayed in the Appendix B).

In the following section, the pretests are outlined in detail.

4.5 Pretests

As stated before, the pretests were essential to check whether unconventional letterings were recognized. Furthermore, they were employed to define congruent product categories and select fictitious brand names for both experimental studies. All pretests are included in Appendix A.

4.5.1 First pretest

4.5.1.1 Design and method

The objective of this pretest was twofold. First, it aimed to examine whether respondents correctly recognize and link the two chosen foreign alphabets (Greek and Cyrillic) to the relevant COOs (Greece and Russia). The second goal was to find product categories that are perceived as congruent with the unconventional letterings.

The pretest design was chosen similar to the studies by Zatega (2017) and Wagner and Charinsarn (2021). Qualitative interviews were conducted so that respondents could answer and react intuitively to the foreign alphabets without using the internet. This approach is crucial as unconventional letterings are not only based on a distinct alphabet but are also less spoken by the research country's inhabitants. In addition, previous studies indicated that the respondents are less familiar with this lettering (Zatega, 2017; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021).

In this pretest, every respondent was exposed to both foreign alphabets (Greek and Cyrillic). To avoid possible sequence effects, the order that the alphabets was introduced to each respondent varied.

The interviews were held online via Skype, and participants were contacted through friends, family members and work colleagues. To avoid fill-in mistakes and due to the online approach, the researcher shared the screen and filled in the questions based on the respondents' answers.

Thus, after briefly introducing the research goal, the subjects saw the first foreign alphabet and were asked if they recognize this alphabet and if so, which one it is. Next, the respondents' familiarity with the alphabet was asked by using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = "not familiar at all" and 7 = "very familiar"). The third question asked the respondents if they link the alphabet to a specific country and if so, to which one. The following question was about products that the respondents associate with the alphabet. The same questions were then repeated for the second foreign alphabet. The final questions included demographics (age, gender, nationality, occupation).

4.5.1.2 Results

A total of 30 Austrians participated in the pretest. The respondents were between 19 and 67 years old and the average age was 38.5 years. Out of the 30 subjects, 16 were females and 14 males.

Regarding the Greek alphabet, 29 respondents (96%) correctly recognized it. Only one person referred it to Hebrew. The average familiarity with the alphabet was 2.65. Additionally, nearly all respondents associated the alphabet with Greece (the exception was one participant who stated Cyprus).

The respondents linked more than 30 different products to the Greek alphabet. Frequency analysis (see Table 7) revealed that the most congruent product was olive oil, as 25 respondents named it in their answer. The second position was olives, with 24 respondents naming it. These were followed by feta cheese (22 respondents named it) and Ouzo (13 respondents named it). This pretest supports the choice of olive oil as the product category for Study 1.

Products	Number of Respondents
Food	
Tzatziki	11
Olive oil	25
Olives	24
Feta cheese	22
Yoghurt	11
Fruits (general)	3
Vegetables (general)	3
Haloumi	2
Honey	2
Salami	1
Fish	1
Sea food	1
Cheese (general)	1
Watermelon	1
Greek Dishes	
Gyros	9
Souvlaki	7
Moussaka	3
Baklava	1
Bifteki	1
Drinks	
Ouzo	13
Wine	8
Other products	
Mathematic	8
Gods	2
Wood products	2
Greek poems	1
Marble	1

Table 7: Product associations with Greek

Concerning the Cyrillic alphabet, 23 respondents (76%) correctly identified it. Five participants did not recognize the alphabet at all, and two respondents linked it to Arabic. On average, remaining respondents' familiarity with the Cyrillic alphabet was 1.73, which is more than one Likert-scale point lower than the respondents' familiarity with Greek (2.65). While 22 respondents (73%) linked the Cyrillic alphabet to Russia, only one person (3%) linked it to Serbia.

In total, participants associated 30 products with the Cyrillic alphabet (Table 8). After calculating the frequencies, it was possible to verify that vodka was the most associated product (21 respondents named it), followed by Borschtsch, Pelmeni and fur clothing (9 respondents named them). Thus, the results support the choice of vodka as a congruent product for study 2.

Products	Number of Respondents
Food	
Pelmeni	9
Caviar	5
Sweets (general)	3
Cookies	2
Pickled vegetables	2
Chocolate	1
Sour Cream	1
Russian bread	1
Buckwheat	1
Millet	1
Stuffed pancake	1
Fish	1
Condense milk	1
Spices	1
Russian Dishes	
Borschtsch	9
Blini	1
Kebab	1
Drinks	
Vodka	21
Tee	3
Other products	
Fur clothing	9
Matryoshka	7
Oil	5
Weapons (nuclear and firearm)	4
Hats	3
Jewelry	2
Combat aircraft	1
Ballet	1
Serbian Books	1
Soap	1

Table 8: Product associations with Cyrillic

The second pretest is elaborated next.

4.5.2   Second pretest

4.5.2.1 Design and method

After successfully deciding on congruent product categories for both alphabets, suitable fictitious brand names had to be defined and pretested. Thus, the purpose of the second pretest was to ensure that the fictious brand names were neither linked to a specific country nor to a specific product category. Additionally, questions about the foreign alphabets' recognition were also included to replenish and further strengthen the results of the first pretest.

The online survey was created with SoSci Survey. The questionnaire link was sent to friends and acquaintances and was published on social media channels (Facebook, Instagram, WhatsApp groups). New respondents who have not taken part in the first pretest were recruited.

Specifically, other friends were contacted by asking them to answer the questionnaire and if possible, to send the link also to their friends, families, or colleagues (i.e., a snowballing approach). As in the first pretest, the order of the two unconventional alphabets varied to avoid possible sequence effects.

The fictitious brand names tested for the Greek olive oil were "Ovli" and "Voliv". For the Russian vodka, "Vodav" and "Vodron" were used. To safeguard that the brand names do not exist yet, all were checked on the global brand database provided by the World Intellectual Property Organization.

To determine whether respondents associate a specific country or product category to the brand names, two questions per brand name were asked: *"Does [fictitious brand name] remind you of any country?"* and *"Does [fictitious brand name] remind you of a specific product type?"*. If respondents chose yes, they could type in a country / product category. Then, the respondents were exposed to the foreign alphabets. They were asked if they recognize the alphabet and if so, which one it is. Finally, the questionnaire included questions on demographics (age, gender, nationality, occupation).

4.5.2.2 Results

A total of 43 respondents fulfilled the whole questionnaire. The respondents were between 19 and 60 years old and the average age was 29.5 years. In addition, 18 respondents were female while 15 were male.

Regarding the fictitious brand names for the olive oil (Study 1), only one respondent associated the brand name "Ovli" with a specific country, namely Italy, while 42 respondents (97.7%) answered "no", indicating no association with any country. Furthermore, 8 respondents (18.6%) declared that "Ovli" reminded them of a certain product category. The mentioned product categories were porridge, olive oil, olives (2 respondents), care products, oatly, spread and candy. For the brand name "Voliv", one respondent linked the brand name to a country, namely Bolivia, and the other 42 people (97.7%) answered "no", showing no country association. Regarding the product categories, 15 respondents associated product categories with the brand name. Among the product categories listed were health, olives (5 respondents), water (4 respondents) or dish soap.

Based on this information, "Ovli" was chosen because of two reasons. First, in total, less product categories were mentioned (8 vs. 15) comparing to "Voliv". Second, while for "Ovli" only one or two people stated the same product category, four or five people stated the same product category for "Voliv". Hence, "Ovli" is both less associated with a certain country as well to individual product categories than "Voliv".

With regards to the fictitious brand names for the vodka (Study 2), 3 respondents (6.9%) stated that they associate "Vodron" to a certain country, while 40 answered "no" to the question. The listed countries were France and Russia (2 respondents). A total of five respondents (11.6%) linked "Vodron" to a product category. The listed product categories include drugs, energy, robots, mobile phones. For "Vodav", 4 respondents (9.3%) connected the brand name to a certain country, namely Russia (3 respondents) and the United Kingdom (1 respondent). In addition, 10 people (23.2%) associated the brand name "Vodav" with specific product categories as for instance telecommunication (3 respondents), vodka (3 respondents), mobile communications (2 respondents) or water.

Therefore, "Vodron" was selected because less respondents linked the brand name to a certain country or product category. Additionally, for "Vodron" each product category was only listed by one respondent, while for "Vodav" three or two respondents listed the same product category.

Finally, in terms of the recognition of the two foreign alphabets, 37 respondents (86.0%) correctly recognized the Greek alphabet and 20 respondents (46.5%) named the Cyrillic alphabet correctly.

Of course, the fact that less than half of the respondents recognized the Cyrillic alphabet raised concerns about proceeding with it in Study 2. However, there are three reasons to believe that more respondents would recognize the Cyrillic alphabet if it were displayed on an ethnic (i.e., congruent) product category rather than on its own.

First, the display of foreign alphabets is most effective if the FL is congruent to the product category, according to the FLD theory (e.g., Domzal et al., 1995; Kelly-Holmes, 2000, 2005; Ray et al., 1991). Second, research on FLD has shown that consumers link FLs to a COO that is relevant to the product advertised (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a). Third, research on product ethnicity already indicated that vodka is an ethnic product for Russia (Usunier &

Cestre, 2007). Therefore, the Cyrillic alphabet recognition may increase if it is shown on a vodka bottle, considered a congruent and ethnic product.

In order to test that, a third pretest was designed.

4.5.3 *Third pretest*
4.5.3.1 Design and method

As mentioned above, the purpose of the third pretest was to test whether more respondents would recognize the Cyrillic alphabet if it were added to a congruent product category.

The online survey was also designed with SoSci Survey. The questionnaire link was sent to fellow students and was published on social media channels (Facebook, WhatsApp groups). Again, it was crucial to find new respondents who did not answer the first or the second pretest. Fellow students were contacted by asking them to answer the questionnaire and if possible, to send the link also to their friends, families, or colleagues.

The pretest used a vodka bottle with Cyrillic writing as stimulus material. The vodka bottle was designed by the researcher and included the fictious brand name "Vodron", "Vodka", "750 ml" and "Русская водка" (in English "Russian vodka"). After seeing the vodka bottle, the respondents were asked which alphabet despite the Latin one they could see on the bottle. Finally, some demographic variables were included.

4.5.3.2 Results

A total of 44 Austrians participated in the third pretest. The respondents were between 20 and 71 years old and the age was, on average, 36.9 years. Among the respondents, 24 were women and 19 were men, while one person did not answer to this question.

A total of 38 respondents (86.4%) correctly recognized the Cyrillic alphabet, while 6 people (13.6%) stated different alphabets. The wrong answers included none, Greek, German, or Polish.

Thus, this pretest collaborated to the assumption that more respondents would recognize the foreign alphabet if shown on a congruent / ethnic product. Consequently, the use of Cyrillic and vodka for Study 2 was maintained. In addition, the pretest reveals the

importance of both the congruence between the FL and the product category as well as product ethnicity.

The main questionnaire and the data collection are described next.

4.6 Questionnaire and data collection

This section describes the questionnaire including its design, and pretest. Then, the data collection method and sampling procedure are described.

4.6.1 Design

The questionnaires for the two experimental studies (Study 1 – olive oil and Study 2 – vodka) were designed online through the platform SoSci Survey. For each study, three versions of questionnaires were created, differing only in terms of the packaging presented: either without any COO cue, with an explicit COO or with an implicit COO cue.

According to back-translation procedures (e.g., Behling & Law, 2000), the questionnaires were first created in English, then translated to German, and finally back-translated to English to guarantee translation accurateness.

The design, structure, and measures of both studies were identical. Each questionnaire started with a welcome text describing the study's purpose and anonymous treatment of data. Then, the stimulus (picture of a product packaging) was presented. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the three experimental conditions (see again section 4.1). For an example please see Appendix C.

After seeing the stimulus, participants answered the questions of the PSM, later used to estimate consumers' individual WTP. Next, they answered questions about the control variables (product involvement, price sensitivity, cosmopolitanism, product-country typicality, country image). These were finally followed by demographics.

The experimental group for unconventional lettering asked two additional questions before the control variables. These questions allowed to check whether respondents recognized the foreign alphabet correctly and how familiar they were with this foreign alphabet. The correct recognition of the unconventional lettering was used as a manipulation check and wrong identifications of the lettering were excluded from the sample, as proposed by Wagner and

Charinsarn (2021). In addition, the familiarity with the unconventional lettering can be used to check whether respondents could most likely understand it and interpreted it based on evoked emotions and associations (see Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021).

Lastly, the questionnaire included a bogus item, which is a question with only one correct answer. Bogus items can be used to check for respondents' attention and wrong answers were also excluded from the sample (Meade & Craig, 2012). The present study used the bogus item ("I have never brushed my teeth") on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree") and all answers different to one were excluded from the sample.

Next, the questionnaire's pretest is summarized.

4.6.2   Pretest

The questionnaire was successfully pretested with five Austrians to check for possible understanding difficulties, or any issues related to the stimuli, such as the design or the display of the packaging. These respondents, who did not participate in any of the pretests, answered the questionnaire with the explicit instruction to focus on product packaging, design, questions, and layout rather than on the answers themselves. At the end of the questionnaire participants could enter comments if anything remained unclear.

As none of the respondents had any comments, no adjustments on the main questionnaire were necessary. The following section illustrates the sampling procedure.

4.6.3   Sampling procedure

The present study collected data through the crowdsourcing platform clickworker. Such crowdsourcing platforms allow researchers to upload their questionnaires and pay a pre-defined amount to people for participating in the survey (Goodman & Paolacci, 2017).

This data collection method enables researchers to accumulate a high number of respondents in a short time and at relatively low costs (e.g., Buhrmester, Kwang & Gosling, 2011; Straub, Gimpel, Teschner & Weinhardt, 2015). Also, the platforms provide scholars with the option to define certain criteria that the respondents have to fulfil to be eligible to participate in the survey. Such criteria are, for example, research country, native language, or age. This option allows researchers to target the population of interest, which increases external validity. Additionally, the final sample is usually diverse in terms of occupation, education, or age and

hence a good representation of a country's population (Behrend, Sharek, Meade & Wiebe, 2011).

However, online surveys are generally criticized for the lack of participants' attention, as they cannot be supervised while answering the questionnaire (Paolacci, Chandler & Ipeirotis, 2010). Moreover, if respondents get paid little, they might not answer the questions seriously resulting in a lower data quality. The data quality might also be reduced if respondents get exposed to similar or related surveys (Chandler, Mueller & Paolacci, 2014; Goodman & Paolacci, 2017; Pham, 2013).

This criticism might be counteracted by certain means. For example, data quality might be increased by offering fair payment (Lovett, Bajaba, Lovett & Simmering, 2018). Another way to minimize such problems is by including manipulation checks and a bogus item as it was done in the present study.

The studies' results are analyzed and presented next.

5. Results

This chapter shows the main results of both experimental studies. For each study, the data analysis procedure is divided into five parts: (i) sample profile, (ii) construct's reliability, (iii) manipulation checks, (iv) control variables, and (v) hypotheses testing (for more details see SPSS results in Appendix D).

5.1 Study 1 (olive oil)

5.1.1 Sample profile

Before performing statistical analyses, the sample of 257 respondents had to be cleaned. First, questionnaires with blank cells (13 respondents) and non-Austrian respondents were removed (21 respondents). Participants who failed the attention check, i.e., gave the wrong answer to the bogus item (any number different to 1), were also eliminated (15 respondents).

Next, the clickworker identification number was checked. On the clickworker platform each respondent has a specific identification number and those who participated twice in the survey were identified and their second participation was excluded (3 respondents).

Moreover, participants who answered the questionnaire too fast were also eliminated. For excluding these participants, the relative speed index in the SoSci platform was used as reference. This index measured how much faster/slower a participant filled out a questionnaire in relation to the median of the sample. SoSci proposes that respondents with a value above 2.0 should be excluded (SoSci Survey, 2020) and this guideline was followed (8 respondents).

Another step to clean the data consisted in excluding respondents that did not recognize the unconventional letterings (13 respondents), as suggested by Wagner & Charinsarn (2021).

Finally, the four prices stated by respondents had to be checked. According to PSM, respondents with inconsistent pricing footprints that do not follow the increasing price levels (too cheap < cheap < expensive < too expensive) were excluded (20 respondents). Next, outliers were excluded based on multiple boxplot analyses for each of the four prices (27 respondents). These analyses were performed separately for each product category.

The final sample of 137 Austrians consisted of 82 women (59.9%) and 55 men (40.1%) with an age range from 18 to 68 years old and an average age of 31.46 years (SD = 10.06).

Regarding occupation, the majority of the respondents was employed (60.6%), while 25.5% were students, 4.4% were unemployed, 1.5% were a homemaker or housewife, and another 1.5% were pensioners. Finally, 6.6% crossed "other" and self-employment, teacher, or pupil were mentioned in these other occupations.

The monthly net income ranged from 0 to 6,000 Euro, with an average income of 1,651.64 (SD = 1,103.93 Euro).

Next, the demographic variables were compared across the three experimental groups, coded as: 0 = no COO, 1 = implicit COO, i.e., unconventional lettering, 2 = explicit COO, i.e., made in label. For gender and occupation (nominal variables), frequencies and chi-square tests were performed. For income and age (metric variables), descriptive statistics and a series of analyses of variance (one-way ANOVAs) were applied.

Regarding gender, there was a slight predominance of female respondents, however, a chi-square test did not find a significant difference of gender across the three groups (X^2 (2) = 0.34, $p > 0.05$). For age, a one-way ANOVA also revealed no significant difference between the groups (F (2,134) = 0.23, $p > 0.05$). In terms of income, a one-way ANOVA indicated no significant main effect and thus no difference in average income across the groups (F (2,134) = 0.35, $p > 0.05$).

Considering occupation, a chi-square test could not be performed as the assumption of expected frequencies in each cell of larger than 5 (and for large tables a maximum of 20% < 5) was not met (Field, 2018). Therefore, frequencies of the occupations were contrasted. In all groups most of the respondents were employed (No COO = 68.29%, Implicit COO = 53.19%, Explicit COO = 61.12%) or a student (No COO = 26.83%, Implicit COO = 36.17%, Explicit COO = 14.29%), followed by unemployed, pensioners, homemaker/housewife or other occupations. Although there were slight differences, these are not expected to have a major influence on the results.

To sum up, the demographic characteristics of the three experimental groups did not significantly differ and were therefore comparable.

Now, constructs' reliability is described.

5.1.2 Constructs reliability

The reliability of constructs was measured by calculating the Cronbach's alpha (α) (Cronbach, 1951). The acceptable value for Cronbach's alpha depends, for example, on the type of test (Kline, 1999) or the stage of research (Nunnally, 1978). While generally a value above 0.7 to 0.8 is accepted (Field, 2018), Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black (2009), for instance, set the acceptable limit at 0.5.

Table 9 demonstrates that for all constructs, the Cronbach's alpha was above the acceptable level of 0.7 and the constructs are therefore considered reliable.

Construct	Cronbach's alpha
Product involvement (Mittal & Lee. 1989)	α = 0.93
Price sensitivity (Wakefield & Inman, 2003)	α = 0.83
Consumer Cosmopolitanism (Riefler et al., 2012)	α = 0.86
Product-country typicality (Halkias & Diamantopoulos, 2020)	α = 0.95
Country Image (Roth & Romeo, 1992)	α = 0.76

Table 9: Cronbach's alpha in olive oil study

The manipulation checks are outlined next.

5.1.3 Manipulation checks

As mentioned before, respondents who did not recognize the FL (in this case, Greek) were removed from the sample (13 respondents).

Furthermore, respondents' familiarity with the Greek lettering was low (M = 2.60, SD = 1.85). This indicates that respondents could most probably not understand the unconventional lettering. Hence, participants rather interpreted the unconventional lettering based on evoked emotions and associations than on its literal meaning, as proposed by the sociolinguistic view.

In the following chapter the control variables are explored.

5.1.4 Controls

The five control variables are analyzed with descriptive statistics and compared across the experimental groups through analyses of variances (one-way ANOVAs). In the one-way ANOVAs, the dependent variables correspond to the covariate and the independent variable were the three groups. Overall, it is expected that the effect of covariates does not differ across experimental groups as this might influence the experimental effect (Miller & Chapman, 2001).

In this study, product involvement was moderate (M = 4.67, SD = 1.52). A one-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference in terms of product involvement across the experimental groups (F (2,134) = 1.54, p > 0.05; M_{NoCOO} = 4.75, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 4.90, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 4.37).

Regarding price sensitivity, the respondents showed moderate scores (M = 3.45, SD = 1.47) and the average price sensitivity in each group (M_{NoCOO} = 3.28, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 3.73, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 3.32) did not significantly differ as displayed by the ANOVA results (F (2,134) = 1.31, p > 0.05).

In addition, Austrian consumers demonstrated a high cosmopolitanism (M = 5.69, SD = 0.86). This characteristic was homogeneous across the three experimental groups (M_{NoCOO} = 5.60, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 5.74, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 5.70; F (2,134) = 0.30, p > 0.05).

In terms of product-country typicality, Austrian consumers showed a relatively high level indicating that they considered olive oil as a typical product for Greece (M = 5.11, SD = 1.48). The means across the groups (M_{NoCOO} = 4.73, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 5.30, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 5.23) were compared with a one-way ANOVA revealing that there was no significant difference between groups (F (2,134) = 1.92, p > 0.05).

Finally, the evaluation of Greece country image was favorable, but the overall score was not very high (M = 4.43, SD = 0.95). The average country images across the groups (M_{NoCOO} = 4.21, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 4.40, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 4.64) were contrasted by an ANOVA showing no significant differences between groups (F (2,134) = 2.33, p > 0.05).

Overall, the means and standard deviations of all control variables were very similar in the three groups. However, as these covariates might also influence WTP, they were included in the main analysis. Next, the research's hypotheses are analyzed.

5.1.5 Hypotheses testing

To test H1 and H2, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed. In this analysis, WTP was the dependent variable, the experimental groups (No COO vs. Implicit COO vs. Explicit COO) act as the independent variable and product involvement, price sensitivity, consumer cosmopolitanism, country image, and product-country typicality were included as control variables.

Before calculating the ANCOVA, assumptions of normality, independence of the covariates, relationship between covariates, linear relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable, homogeneity of regression slopes and homogeneity of variance were checked (Field, 2018).

Regarding normality, the histograms do not show a perfect bell shape, however, the assumption of normality was met as the values of skewness and kurtosis in relation to their standard error are within the acceptable range of below 1.96 (Field, 2018).

The assumption of independence of covariates was met for all five control variables ($p > 0.05$). Besides, none of the control variables was highly correlated (Pearson correlation < 0.7).

Concerning the linear relationship between the covariates and the dependent variable, five scatter dots were performed. The assumption was met for product involvement and typicality. In contrast, the assumption was not met for price sensitivity, cosmopolitanism, and country image. For these three control variables, two of the groups showed a similar positive relationship, while one group had a negative linearity. For instance, for price sensitivity the unconventional and base lines are positive linear and parallel whereas the explicit condition shows a negative linear relationship. However, all lines were nearly horizontal indicating a small slope. Thus, homogeneity of regression slopes was met for all control variables ($p > 0.05$).

Finally, Levene's test (Levene, 1960) of equality of error variances was significant ($F_{(2,134)} = 17.90$, $p < 0.001$) showing that the variances in the three groups are significantly different. Hence, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated. However, according to Field (2018) violations of this assumption only matters when group sizes are unequal. Therefore, the present study proceeded with performing an ANCOVA including all covariates.

59

Next, the means and standard deviations of WTP in the groups (M_{NoCOO} = 7.76, SD = 2.56; $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 11.54, SD = 5.03; $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 7.43, SD = 2.66) were analyzed alongside with the control variables in the ANCOVA. After adjusting for control variables, WTP results significantly differed in the groups ($F_{(2, 129)}$ = 16.78, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.21$). However, none of the control variables had a significant impact on WTP ($p > 0.05$) and were therefore dropped out in further analyses. Therefore, an analysis of variance (one-way ANOVAs) followed by post-hoc comparisons (Games-Howell tests) were conducted.

Once again, before performing the one-way ANOVA, Levene's test was checked revealing that the variances across the groups were statistically different across the groups ($F_{(2,134)}$ = 20.29, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, both a one-way ANOVA and Welch test were performed.

The one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a significant difference in WTP across the experimental groups ($F_{(2,134)}$ = 18.56, $p < 0.001$). A post-hoc comparison with Games-Howell tests showed that the explicit COO cue (i.e., packaging with made in label in German) did not significantly differ from the condition with no COO cue ($M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 7.43, SD = 2.66 vs. M_{NoCOO} = 7.76, SD = 2.56, $p > 0.05$). In contrast, the implicit COO cue (i.e., packaging with unconventional lettering) resulted in significantly higher WTP than the condition with no COO cue ($M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 11.54, SD = 5.03 vs. M_{NoCOO} = 7.76, SD = 2.56, $p < 0.001$) and the explicit COO condition ($M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 11.54, SD = 5.03 vs. $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 7.43, SD = 2.66, $p < 0.001$). This provides support for both H1 and H2 in this study. Moreover, the effect size of the ANOVA ($\eta^2 = 0.22$) is according to Cohen (1988) high, as it is above 0.14. Likewise, the Welch test was also significant ($F_{(2, 85.239)}$ = 12.87, $p < 0.001$) indicating that the groups significantly differ.

Regarding the magnitudes of the group differences, the average prices associated with the unconventional condition exceeds those of the explicit condition by 55.5% and those of the control condition by 48.9%.

Next, the vodka results are presented.

5.2 Study 2 (vodka)

5.2.1   Sample profile

Again, before performing statistical analyses, the sample of 264 respondents had to be cleaned. Blank cells (12 respondents), non-Austrian respondents (18 respondents), participants who failed the attention check (16 respondents), clickworker who participated twice (3 respondents), respondents who answered the questionnaire too fast (13 respondents), wrong recognitions of the unconventional letterings (19 respondents), inconsistent pricing footprints (19 respondents) and outliers (13 respondents) were excluded.

The final sample of 151 Austrians consisted of 88 women (58.3%) and 63 men (41.7%) with an age range from 18 to 68 years old and an average age of 33.99 years (SD = 11.98).

In terms of occupation, most participants were either employed (58.9%) or students (24.5%). A small percentage was unemployed (2.6%), homemaker/housewife (1.3%) and pensioners (3.3%). 9.3% crossed "other", which included occupations such as, for example, self-employment, teacher, or pupil.

Participants' monthly net income ranged from 0 (3.3%) to 6,000 Euro (0.7%) with an average net income of 1,645.80 Euro (SD = 1,045.91).

Similar to Study 1, the three experimental groups were compared regarding demographic data. Thus, the same statistical tests were also conducted for Study 2.

With regards to gender, there was a slight predominance of female respondents, but a chi-square test did not reveal a significant difference (X^2 (2) = 0.45, p > 0.05) of gender across the experimental groups. In terms of age, a one-way ANOVA showed no significant difference in average age between the groups (F (2,148) = 0.82, p > 0.05). In the income comparison, a one-way ANOVA resulted in non-significant differences in average income across the groups (F (2,148) = 0.20, p > 0.05).

Regarding occupation, a chi-square test once again could not be run. Analyzing the frequencies, it is possible to grasp that the three groups consisted mainly of employed individuals (No COO = 48%, Implicit COO = 60%, Explicit COO = 67.86%) or students (No COO = 30%, Implicit COO = 22.22%, Explicit COO = 21.43%), followed by unemployed

individuals, pensioners, homemaker/housewife, and other occupations. Although slight differences could be spotted, the results should not be highly affected.

Hence, similar to the first study, all demographics were homogeneous across the three experimental groups, enabling a comparison.

The constructs' reliability is performed next.

5.2.2 Constructs reliability

The reliability of constructs was again checked with the Cronbach alpha (α) (Cronbach, 1951). As in Study 1, the Cronbach's alpha was above the acceptable level of 0.7 for all constructs and thus these were reliable (see Table 10).

Construct	Cronbach's alpha
Product involvement (Mittal & Lee. 1989)	α = 0.92
Price sensitivity (Wakefield & Inman, 2003)	α = 0.84
Consumer Cosmopolitanism (Riefler et al., 2012)	α = 0.91
Product-country typicality (Halkias & Diamantopoulos, 2020)	α = 0.90
Country Image (Roth & Romeo, 1992)	α = 0.86

Table 10: Cronbach's alpha in vodka study

The next chapter outlines manipulation checks.

5.2.3 Manipulation checks

In line with Study 1, respondents who did not recognize the FL were excluded (19 respondents) and the final sample only included respondents who correctly identified the Cyrillic lettering.

Furthermore, respondents' familiarity with the Cyrillic lettering was low (M = 1.73, SD = 1.59) and almost one Likert scale point lower than the average familiarity with Greek (M = 2.60). Again, this illustrates that the alphabet is unconventional and interpreted based on its symbolic meaning.

Now, the control variables are described.

5.2.4 Controls

Similar to Study 1, a series of analyses of variance (one-way ANOVAs) with the covariates as dependent variables and the experimental groups as independent variables were performed.

In this study, product involvement was overall moderate (M = 4.32, SD = 1.68). The one-way ANOVA revealed no significant difference in terms of product involvement between the groups (F $(2,148)$ = 1.03, p > 0.05; M_{NoCOO} = 4.35, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 4.04, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 4.52).

Respondents showed a medium price sensitivity (M = 3.39, SD = 1.58) and the average in each group (M_{NoCOO} = 3.41, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 3.12, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 3.59) did not significantly differ across the three groups, as reported by the one-way ANOVA (F $(2,148)$ = 1.09, p > 0.05).

In addition, Austrian consumers demonstrated a high cosmopolitanism (M = 5.53, SD = 1.02), but, different from Study 1, there was a significant difference in this characteristic across experimental groups (F $(2,148)$ = 4.46, p < 0.05; M_{NoCOO} = 5.87, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 5.31, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 5.39). A post-hoc comparison with Games-Howell tests revealed that respondents in the condition with no COO cue showed a significant higher cosmopolitanism than respondents in the conditions that displayed an implicit or explicit COO cue.

In terms of product typicality, Austrian consumers showed a high score (M = 5.86, SD = 1.16), indicating that they considered Vodka as a typical product for Russia. The means across the groups (M_{NoCOO} = 5.80, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 5.90, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 5.88) were analyzed with an ANOVA revealing that there were no significant differences between groups (F $(2,148)$ = 0.115, p > 0.05).

Next, the evaluation of Russia's country image was medium (M = 3.97, SD = 1.23). The average country images across the groups (M_{NoCOO} = 4.01, $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 3.72, $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 4.15) were compared with a one-way ANOVA that showed no significant differences between groups (F $(2,148)$ = 1.60, p > 0.05).

Overall, the means and standard deviations of product involvement, product ethnicity, price sensitivity and country image were highly similar across groups. In contrast, respondents' average cosmopolitanism significantly differed when the three groups were compared. Covariates that differ across experimental groups can still be included in an ANCOVA analysis, however, it is important to consider the significant difference when interpreting the

results (Miller & Chapman, 2011; Field, 2018). The remaining covariates were also part of the main analysis, as they could still show an effect on WTP.

Next, the research's hypotheses are tested and described.

5.2.5 Hypotheses testing

To test H1 and H2, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed. In this analysis, WTP was the dependent variable, the experimental groups (No COO vs. Implicit COO vs. Explicit COO) act as the independent variable and product involvement, price sensitivity, consumer cosmopolitanism, country image, and product-country typicality were included as control variables.

Once again, before calculating the ANCOVA, assumptions of normality, independence of the covariates, relationship between covariates, linear relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable, homogeneity of regression slopes and homogeneity of variance were checked (Field, 2018).

Regarding normality, as in Study 1, the histograms do not show a perfect bell shape, however, as the values of skewness and kurtosis in relation to their standard error were within the acceptable range of a value below 1.96 (Field, 2018). Therefore, the normality assumption was met.

The assumption of independence of covariates was met for every control variable ($p > 0.05$) despite cosmopolitanism. This was already indicated by the significant difference of cosmopolitanism in the groups (see section 5.2.4). Besides, none of the control variables was highly correlated (Pearson correlation < 0.7).

Concerning the linear relationship between the covariates and the dependent variable, five scatter dots were defined. For all control variables this assumption was not met. For each control variable, there was a linear and positive relationship for two groups/lines and a negative relationship in the third group. For instance, for product involvement the unconventional and explicit lines are positive linear and parallel whereas the base condition shows a negative relationship. However, all lines are nearly horizontal indicating a small slope. Despite the positive/negative relationship, all control variables met the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes ($p > 0.05$).

Finally, Levene's test (Levene, 1960) of equality of error variances was significant (F (2,148) = 6.369, p < 0.05), revealing significant differences in the variances across the three experimental groups. Hence, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated. However, according to Field (2018) violations of this assumption only matters when group sizes are unequal. Thus, this present study continued with an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA).

In line with Study 1, the means of WTP across the groups (M_{NoCOO} = 19.87, SD = 8.64; $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 21.21, SD = 8.62; $M_{ExplicitCOO}$ = 16.47, SD = 5.29) as well as the impact of the covariates on WTP were verified. Overall, the ANCOVA revealed significant results (F (2,143) = 4.92, p < 0.05, η^2 = 0.06), demonstrating significant differences in WTP across the three groups. However, none of the control variables was statistically significant (p > 0.05). As a result, the control variables were dropped out in further analyses and an analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) was carried out. Post-hoc comparisons (Games-Howell tests) were also conducted.

Before performing the one-way ANOVA, Levene's test was ran, and as expected, the variances across the groups statistically differed across the groups (F (2,148) = 6.18, p < 0.05). Therefore, both a one-way ANOVA and Welch test were performed.

The one-way ANOVA displayed a significant difference in WTP across the groups (F (2,148) = 5.38, p < 0.01). On the one hand, the post-hoc tests showed, different from Study 1, no significant difference between the WTP for the product packaging without a COO cue and with the unconventional lettering (M_{NoCOO} = 19.87, SD = 8.64 vs. $M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 21.21, SD = 8.62, p > 0.05). Hence, hypothesis 1 is rejected in the vodka study.

On the other hand, as in the first study, consumers' WTP for the packaging with the unconventional lettering is significantly higher than for the packaging with the made in label ($M_{ImplicitCOO}$ = 21.21, SD = 8.62 vs. $M_{Explicit}$ = 16.47, SD = 5.29, p < 0.01). This provides further support for H2. Furthermore, the absence of a COO cue resulted in significantly higher WTP than the condition containing the explicit COO cue (M_{NoCOO} = 19.87, SD = 8.64 vs. $M_{Explicit}$ = 16.47, SD = 5.29, p < 0.05). The ANOVA effect size (η^2 = 0.07) was moderate according to Cohen (1988), as it is above 0.06. Likewise, the Welch test was also significant (F (2, 86.677) = 6.57, p < 0.05) supporting a significant difference between the groups.

In terms of magnitudes increases in WTP, the average prices associated with the condition including the unconventional lettering exceeded those of the explicit condition by 28.8% and the control condition exceed those of the explicit condition by 20.7%.

In the next chapter, the discussion and conclusions are outlined.

6. Discussion and conclusions

This chapter discusses the main findings and managerial as well as theoretical implications. Finally, limitations and possible avenues for future research are outlined.

6.1 Discussion

Based on the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspective on FLs, this master's thesis aimed at investigating the effect of an implicit and explicit COO cue on consumers' WTP. Specifically, the study examined whether consumers would pay a higher price for a product packaging with an explicit (made in) or implicit (unconventional lettering) COO cue.

To answer the study's research question (To what extent do implicit and explicit country-of-origin cues on product packaging influence consumers' willingness to pay?) two hypotheses were developed and empirically tested in two experimental studies.

The first hypothesis examined whether adding unconventional lettering to product packaging increases consumers' WTP compared to product packaging without any COO cue. While this hypothesis was supported in Study 1 (olive oil), no empirical support was found in Study 2 (vodka).

More precisely, in the first study, the unconventional lettering (Greek) product packaging was associated with a significant higher WTP than the packaging without a COO cue. This finding corroborates with the theoretical prediction that unconventional lettering functions as an implicit COO cue (e.g., Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Aichner, 2014). The positive effect is also in line with previous FLD research examining other outcome variables, such as purchase intention (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a), product evaluation (e.g., Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021) or quality perception (e.g., Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016). Subsequently, the results support FLD theory holding that FLs are effective if the associations evoked by the FLs are congruent to the type of product (e.g., Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a).

Additionally, it is noteworthy that the familiarity with the Greek alphabet was low (M = 2.60) indicating that respondents could most probably not understand the Greek slogan. As proposed by the sociolinguistic view, consumers interpreted the unconventional lettering based on its symbolic value rather than its literal meaning (e.g., Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a; Piller,

2003). Thus, the unconventional lettering evoked ethnocultural associations with the COO (e.g., Alcántara-Pilar et al., 2015), which were further transferred to the olive oil and therefore increased the WTP compared to the product packaging without any COO cue. This finding matches research on FLD revealing that the comprehension of the FLs does not matter for their effectiveness (e.g., Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021).

Interestingly, the percentage differences between the control and unconventional condition of the $WTP_{individual}$ is remarkable. On average, the price level of the unconventional product packaging exceeds the control condition by 48.9%. Hence, adding unconventional lettering seems to exert a stronger impact on consumers' WTP and incentivizes consumers to pay a premium price in this product category.

Contrary to this strong effect found in WTP, Wagner and Charinsarns' (2021) study found relatively small positive effects of unconventional lettering on other outcome variables. One reason for the stronger effect found in the present study might be the languages displayed on the product packaging itself. The present study designed the product packaging in the native language (German) and the unconventional lettering, whereas Wagner and Charinsarn (2021) created it in English and the unconventional lettering. Based on the FLD theory, the associations and emotions evoked by English and the unconventional lettering are different. Displaying English as a FL is associated with GCCP (Alden et al., 1999) and research has shown that its effects are different to other FLs due its international and widespread use (e.g., Hornikx & van Meurs, 2020; Planken, van Meurs & Radlinska, 2010). Hence, the associations evoked by the two FLs might have been counteracting. This may have further resulted in a weaker effect of the unconventional lettering on respondents' behavior. This assumption may also be supported by Kelly-Holmes (2005) who stated that using more than one FL may increase consumers' misunderstandings (Kelly-Holmes, 2005).

Another reason for the significant difference might also be the chosen product category and respondents' product involvement. In general, olive oil is considered a low involvement product as "consumers do not search extensively for information about brands, evaluate their characteristics, and make a weighty decision on which brand to buy" (Kotler, Ang, Leong & Tan, 1996, p. 225). Buying low involvement products is associated with low risk (Mitchell, 1999) and consumers are less committed to certain brands and substitute easily when other brands are available (Silayoi & Speece, 2004).

However, the level of involvement for food products depends on the individual's values, feelings, self-concept or perception of product importance and higher involvement results in more attention to the product packaging and product attributes (Silayoi & Speece, 2004). The average product involvement in the two olive oil groups compared was moderate to high (M_{base} = 4.75, $M_{unconventional}$ = 4.90). Previous COO research suggested that higher product involvement increases the impact of COO on consumers' perceptions (e.g., D'Astous & Ahmed, 1999; Moradi & Zarei, 2012) and more precisely consumers' WTP (e.g., Campbell, DiPietro & Remar, 2014). Therefore, the higher product involvement in the olive oil study may have increased the relevance of the implicit COO for respondents' packaging evaluation resulting in a higher WTP for the product packaging with the implicit COO cue (i.e., packaging with unconventional letting) than the product packaging with no origin information.

Additionally, COO cues act as a product quality indicators and influence respondents' product quality perceptions (e.g., Li & Wyer, 1994). The results indicate that respondent's may have inferred high product quality from the unconventional lettering resulting in a deeper mental processing of the cue and further a higher WTP for the packaging with unconventional lettering. This explanation may also be supported by COO research revealing that consumer's quality perceptions increase their WTP (e.g., Ku & Chen, 2021).

In contrast, hypothesis one was rejected in Study 2 (vodka). The unconventional lettering (Cyrillic) did not significantly increase consumers' WTP compared to the packaging without a COO cue. The respondents' average familiarity with Cyrillic (M = 1.73) was also low, and it can again be assumed that the sample could most probably not understand the unconventional alphabet added to the packaging. Contrary to the olive oil study, the results did not support the sociolinguistic view on FLs. Moreover, this result is different to Wagner and Charinsarn's (2021) study, which found that adding Cyrillic to a vodka bottle significantly increases consumers' product evaluations.

One explanation for the limited impact of unconventional lettering when compared with a product with no origin information might be Austrians alcohol consumption behavior. In 2021, 90% of the alcohol consumed among Austrians were wine or beer and only 7% spirits (Bachmayer, Strizek, & Uhl, 2021). This leads to the conclusion that Austrians do not frequently buy vodka. Previous research has shown that purchase frequency influences consumers' decision making (e.g., D'Astous, Bensouda & Guindon, 1989) and consumption behaviors (Mataveli & Gil, 2018). For instance, Barrena and Sánchez (2009) revealed that COO

information is only relevant for consumers who frequently buy the product category. As Austrians infrequently buy vodka, they may have attached less importance to the implicit COO cue (Cyrillic lettering). This may have resulted in a smaller effect of the Cyrillic lettering on consumers' WTP.

Besides, respondents' associations with the Cyrillic lettering might be another explanation for the not significant result in the vodka study. Zatega (2017) showed that Austrians perceive the Cyrillic lettering as complicated and not nice. In her study, respondents did not only link the alphabet to positive categories, but also to negative ones, i.e., politics and strangeness (Zatega, 2017). Moreover, the ongoing conflict between Russia and the Ukraine since 2014 (Landeszentrale für politische Bildung Baden-Württemberg, 2022) might also have led to negative associations to the Cyrillic lettering and Russia as COO. Hence, the Cyrillic lettering might have evoked negative ethnocultural associations, which were transferred to the vodka and further influenced consumers' product perceptions. Consequently, the implicit COO cue did not increase consumers' WTP compared to the product packaging without a COO cue.

Regarding the second hypothesis, the results offer interesting insights regarding implicit and explicit COO cues. In both studies, the product packaging with an unconventional lettering showed a significant higher WTP than the packaging with an explicit COO cue, supporting the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic view on FLs. The magnitudes of the group differences show that the WTP for the product packaging with the unconventional lettering exceeds the explicit condition by 55.5% on average for olive oil and by 28.8% on average for vodka.

This result is partly consistent with the findings of Hornikx and van Meurs' (2017a) study, in which the implicit COO cue was more effective than the explicit COO cue in terms of advertisement liking, but not in terms of product quality perception, product attitude and purchase intention. However, Hornikx and van Meurs (2017a) included an incongruent COO cue in the FL condition. This may have reduced the effectiveness of the letterings examined. In contrast, the present studies did not include any incongruent COO information in the unconventional lettering product packaging. This might have increased the effectiveness of the lettering and therefore increased consumers' WTP in comparison to the explicit condition.

Overall, the low familiarity with both alphabets indicates that respondents considered the unconventional letterings as new, exotic, or novel information to which they have not been frequently exposed to (Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). Consumers may have perceived the

unconventional lettering as highly distinctive to their native language as it is based on a different alphabet. This may have increased their curiosity and attention to the product packaging with the unconventional lettering, which may has further led to a deeper mental processing. Consequently, this may have resulted in a higher product quality perception and finally, a higher WTP for the unconventional lettering packaging. In contrast, the explicit COO cue was presented in the consumers' native language, for which the expected level of distinctiveness and attention-grabbing power was low. This is in line with the psycholinguistic view holding that FLs attract more attention and are therefore processed more deeply than the native language (e.g., Domzal et al., 1995) affecting consumers' behavior (Venter, Van der Merwe, De Beer, Kempen & Bosman, 2011).

In addition, adding explicit COO cues to advertisements or product packaging is an established marketing strategy and widely employed by companies from different COOs. Zeugner-Roth and Bartsch (2020), for example, stated that around 66.9% of the COO mentions are explicit and 33.1% are implicit. Also, adding unconventional lettering as an implicit COO cue is only rarely used by companies (Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). Consumers are thus more frequently confronted with explicit COO cues and may not consider them as new or distinct information leading to a weaker mental processing of the made in label compared to unconventional lettering, which resulted in a lower WTP.

The significant difference in WTP might also be explained by the perceived aesthetic of the unconventional lettering. As consumers could most probably not read the unconventional lettering, they may have interpreted the unconventional lettering based on aesthetic terms (e.g., Giles & Niedzielski 1998; Van Bezooijen, 2002), a view derived from the sociolinguistic perspective. Consumers may have perceived the unconventional lettering as more aesthetic than the German explicit COO cue. This aesthetic evaluation of the unconventional lettering product packaging may has further positively influenced respondents' product quality judgements leading to a higher WTP, i.e., consumers assumed that the olive oil and vodka packaging with the unconventional lettering was of better quality than the packaging with the explicit COO cue resulting in a premium price.

This aesthetical influence is also supported by research on product packaging. Consumers tend to link a nice packaging design to good quality products (Silayoi & Speece, 2004). Besides, the appearance of the product packaging is particularly important as consumers tend to make purchase decisions by looking at the front of the packaging (Urbany, Dickson &

Kalapurakal, 1996; Abdullah, Kalam & Akterujjaman 2013; Silayoi & Speece, 2004). At the point-of-sale, consumers are typically forced to judge product quality based on the product packaging without actually seeing the product (Grunert, Bech-Larsen & Bredahl, 2000). The importance of aesthetics is underlined by prior research on product packaging revealing that words or typographic styles influence consumers' product evaluation (Klimchuk & Krasovec, 2012) and an aesthetically pleasing product packaging design can increase consumers' WTP (e.g., Gao & Schroeder, 2009; Bloch et al., 2003).

Next, theoretical implications are presented.

6.2 Theoretical implications

From a theoretical point of view, the present study contributes to the understanding of the relationship between implicit and explicit COO cues and consumers' WTP by drawing on the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic view on FLs. Precisely, this thesis empirically investigated whether FLs function as implicit COO cues and further whether unconventional lettering might be more effective than an explicit COO cue.

First, the thesis extends scarce literature on FLD on product packaging. This thesis builds on Wagner & Charinsarn's (2021) study, as one of the few to examine the impact of unconventional lettering on consumers' behavior and the first to compare such lettering with an explicit COO cue in the packaging. Prior FLD research has rather focused on conventional lettering and little evidence on implicit vs. explicit cues has been drawn. Besides, previous FLD research, has only employed "softer" outcome variables, such as purchase intentions, attitudes, or preferences (e.g., Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016; Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021; Yener & Taşçıoğlu, 2021). The present master's thesis measured consumers' WTP and therefore provided a stricter test of the FLD effect by capturing actual consumers' behavior (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012).

The comparison of product packaging with unconventional lettering to product packaging without any COO cue gained important insights into the effect of an implicit COO cue on consumers' WTP. Since the results were significant only for Study 1, one can conclude that the effectiveness of displaying unconventional lettering depends on the product category and the ethnocultural associations evoked by the foreign lettering. Furthermore, Study 2 demonstrates that adding unconventional lettering might increase "softer" outcome variables, as found by Wagner and Charinsarn (2021); however, the more favorable attitudes or product

evaluations do not necessarily lead to consumers being willing to pay a higher price (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012).

Second, the present thesis contributed to the understanding of how implicit and explicit COO cues on product packaging influence consumers' WTP. In both studies, the results indicated that unconventional lettering was associated with a significantly higher WTP than the explicit COO cue. Therefore, the results supported the claim that unconventional lettering might be an effective and innovative way to signal COO and is due to its novelty and distinctiveness even more effective than established made in labels.

Third, research on unconventional lettering was extended by drawing the research hypotheses on two perspectives on FLD. While previous research on unconventional lettering only focused on the sociolinguistic view, the present thesis combined consumers' processing of FLs (psycholinguistic view) and their FLs associations and attitudes (sociolinguistic view). The study's results support both views on FLs showing that they should not be investigated as two distinct but complementary perspectives. Hence, "the two accounts are related, in the sense that ultimately sociolinguistic considerations are processed in the brain and thus serve as input for psycholinguistic processing" (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017b, p. 311).

Next, managerial implications are described.

6.3 Managerial implications

Given the beforementioned findings, companies may adjust their marketing strategies and product packaging to use the positive effects of unconventional lettering. From a managerial perspective, findings suggest that companies should identify and add unconventional lettering to congruent products. However, the findings also show that the effect of adding unconventional lettering might depend on the product category considered and the ethnocultural associations evoked.

A key managerial implication is that brands should add an unconventional lettering slogan to their product packaging rather than an explicit COO cue to implement a premium price strategy. The unconventional lettering attracts consumers attention resulting in a deeper mental processing of the packaging and ultimately a higher WTP. This is particularly important at the point of sale, where consumers mostly make a purchase decision by looking at the front of the packaging (Urbany et al., 1996).

As proposed by Wagner and Charinsarn (2021), marketers can obtain advantage of unconventional lettering by either adjusting the packaging through a minor relaunch or through simply adding a sticker. A major advantage of adding a sticker to the packaging is that the implementation is quick and does not require high financial investments. Hence, the company can highly benefit from consumers' increased WTP without having a profound influence on its financial results.

Finally, not only foreign but also Austrian companies may apply the research results. While it is legally not allowed to mention a COO other than the actual COO (e.g., Aichner, 2014), companies can implement implicit COO cues to suggest a foreign origin (e.g., Aichner et al., 1994), such as unconventional lettering. Established brands already claim a desired foreign origin although it was produced elsewhere (Wagner & Charinsarn, 2021). For instance, the German supermarket chain Aldi sells its pizza with the slogan "La cucina tradizionale" to benefit from consumers' associations with Italy (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a). Austrian brands may therefore display an unconventional lettering slogan on their product packaging to suggest a foreign origin and to increase consumers' WTP, as for instance the Austrian supermarket chain Billa might add a Greek slogan to their olive oil packaging.

6.4 Limitations and future research

The current study has limitations which may be addressed in future research. The first limitation consists in the generalizability of the results based on the nationality of the participants of the study. Thus, the results are limited to the chosen research country (Austria). Indeed, previous research has shown that a person's nationality influences the link between products, countries, and languages (e.g., Roth & Romeo, 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007). For people with other nationalities, the perceived congruence between a product category and a FL might be different, i.e., people from other countries might not link Cyrillic to Russia but to Bulgaria. Future research may overcome this limitation through conducting studies in different research countries.

Another notable limitation refers to the selection of unconventional letterings and product categories. Examining two unconventional letterings and products strengthened the robustness of the results, however, the effects found may not be the same for other unconventional letterings. According to the FLD theory, each FL evokes different associations and emotions, and the effectiveness of FLD depends on these positive or negative associations

(Hornikx et al., 2007). Hence, adding other unconventional letterings, such as Chinese or Japanese, may lead to different price levels and consumers' WTP than those found in this thesis.

A third limitation is the operationalization of the unconventional lettering in the present study, by employing the made in label in Greek or Cyrillic. However, future research might, for example, focus on investigating the effects of unconventional lettering slogans, which is a common approach in advertising practice (e.g., Gerritsen et al., 2007; Hornikx & van Meurs, 2017a) or the effects of a product packaging that is only in an unconventional lettering (e.g., a product packaging only in Greek and without the native language). Designing, for instance, the whole product packaging only in the unconventional lettering could either further increase consumers' WTP or reduce it as consumers cannot understand any information displayed on the packaging.

In addition, the present thesis designed new product packaging with fictitious brand names rather than adapting product packaging of real brands. By employing fictitious brand names, the study avoided effects due to brand equity or familiarity (Dimofte et al., 2008). However, when brand familiarity is low, the product's origin is a more determinant cue (Josiassen, Lukas & Whitwell, 2008). Specifically, in high-involvement settings, consumers' WTP for low familiar brands is positively affected by the COO cue (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). Thus, it would be worthwhile to conduct follow-up studies using real brand names to check whether and to what extent brand familiarity impact on the relationship between implicit/explicit COO cues and WTP.

Furthermore, future research might also investigate the interaction effect of foreign or local brand names and unconventional lettering. Previous research on English as a FL has shown that consumers' product evaluations and purchase intentions are higher for foreign brand names and bilingual product packaging (Yener & Taşçıoğlu, 2021). Brand names influence consumers' product quality perception (e.g., Dodds, Monroe & Grewal, 1991) and purchase intentions (Hui & Zhou, 2002). New studies should therefore investigate the interaction effects of foreign (local) brand names and unconventional lettering on consumers' WTP.

Future investigations should also examine the role of aesthetics for the effectiveness of FLs on product packaging. As the sociolinguistic perspective holds that FLs are evaluated

based on aesthetic terms (e.g., Giles & Niedzielski 1998), this may influence consumers' product packaging evaluation, quality perception and ultimately WTP.

Finally, none of the chosen covariates were found to influence consumers' WTP. Thus, research may include different consumers characteristics, such as consumer ethnocentrism (e.g., Shimp & Sharma, 1987) or xenocentrism (e.g., Kent & Burnight, 1951), to analyze whether other boundary conditions might exert an influence in the relationship between implicit/explicit COO cues and consumers' WTP.

In conclusion, the present thesis has shown that the use of unconventional lettering, as part of FCCP, is an effective COO cue for increasing consumers' WTP and is even more effective than an explicit COO information. These insights are not only relevant to FLD research and COO research, but also to companies which can benefit from adding unconventional lettering to their product packaging as a means of brand positioning strategies. Undoubtedly, the present findings also provide new opportunities for future research, which enhances the understanding of unconventional lettering's role for consumers' decisions and behaviors.

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Appendices

A: Pretests

<u>Pretest 1: Qualitative Interviews</u>

Introduction: This pretest aims at investigating different foreign languages as well as collecting products that you associate with the foreign language. The data will be analysed anonymously.

1. Look at the alphabet below. What alphabet is it?
   Answer: _____

A, α	N, ν
B, β	Ξ, ξ
Γ, γ	O, o
Δ, δ	Π, π
E, ε	P, ρ
Z, ζ	Σ, σ
H, η	T, τ
Θ, θ	Y, υ
I, ι	Φ, φ
K, κ	X, χ
Λ, λ	Ψ, ψ
M, μ	Ω, ω

   1.1. How familiar are you with the alphabet? (1 = not familiar at all / 7 = very familiar)
( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7

   1.2. To which country do you link this alphabet?
Answer: _____

   1.3. Which products (food and beverages) do you link to this alphabet?
Answer:

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. Look at the alphabet below. What alphabet is it?
   Answer: _____

А а	П п
Б б	Р р
В в	С с
Г г	Т т
Д д	У у
Е е	Ф ф
Е е	Х х
Ё ё	Ц ц
Ё ё	Ч ч
Ж ж	Ш ш
З з	Щ щ
И и	Ъ ъ
Й й	Ы ы
К к	Ь ь
Л л	Э э
М м	Ю ю
Н н	Я я
О о	

2.1. How familiar are you with the alphabet? (1 = not familiar at all / 7 = very familiar)
( ) 1 ( ) 2 ( ) 3 ( ) 4 ( ) 5 ( ) 6 ( ) 7

2.2. To what country do you link this alphabet?
Answer: _____

2.3. Which products (food and beverages) do you link to this alphabet?
Answer:

_____

_____

_____

_____

3. Gender
   o Male
   o Female

4. Age
   _____ years old

5. Nationality
   o Austria
   o Other

6. Occupation:
   o Employed
   o Unemployed
   o Student
   o Retired
   o Homemaker

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- There is no time limit for this questionnaire. Please take your time in filling it out.
- This questionnaire is anonymous. All information will be kept strictly confidential.

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at a11928577@unet.univie.ac.at.

1. Does Ovli remind you of any country?
   ( ) Yes   ( ) No
   If yes, which one? _____

2. Does Ovli remind you of a specific product type?
   ( ) Yes   ( ) No
   If yes, which one? _____

3. Does Voliv remind you of any country?
   ( ) Yes   ( ) No
   If yes, which one? _____

4. Does Voliv remind you of a specific product type?
   ( ) Yes   ( ) No
   If yes, which one? _____

5. Look at the alphabet below. What alphabet is it?
Answer:_____

A, α	N, ν
B, β	Ξ, ξ
Γ, γ	O, o
Δ, δ	Π, π
E, ε	P, ρ
Z, ζ	Σ, σ
H, η	T, τ
Θ, θ	Y, υ
I, ι	Φ, φ
K, κ	X, χ
Λ, λ	Ψ, ψ
M, μ	Ω, ω

6. Does Vodron remind you of any country?
( ) Yes   ( ) No

If yes, which one? _____

7. Does Vodron remind you of a specific product type?
( ) Yes   ( ) No

If yes, which one? _____

8. Does Vodav remind you of any country?
( ) Yes   ( ) No

If yes, which one? _____

9. Does Vodav remind you of a specific product type?
( ) Yes   ( ) No

If yes, which one? _____

10. Look at the alphabet below. What alphabet is it?

Answer:

А а	П п
Б б	Р р
В в	С с
Г г	Т т
Д д	У у
Е е	Ф ф
Е е	Х х
Ё ё	Ц ц
Ё ё	Ч ч
Ж ж	Ш ш
З з	Щ щ
И и	Ъ ъ
Й й	Ы ы
К к	Ь ь
Л л	Э э
М м	Ю ю
Н н	Я я
О о	

11. Gender
- o Male
- o Female

12. Age
_____ years old

13. Nationality
- o Austria
- o Other

14. Occupation:
- o Employed
- o Unemployed
- o Student
- o Retired
- o Homemaker

XXX

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1. Please look at the bottle. Despite the Latin alphabet, which other alphabet can you see?
Answer: _____

B: Stimuli

<u>Greek</u>

Control condition	implicit COO cue	explicit COO cue

Vodka

Control condition   implicit COO cue   explicit COO cue

C: Main questionnaire
Example: Greek unconventional lettering condition

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<u>Stimuli</u>
Imagine that you are considering buying an olive oil in a supermarket. Thus, please take your time and look carefully at the product packaging as you will be asked some questions about the product afterwards.

Please answer some questions about the product that you have just seen.

At what price would you consider the price of this product so low that you would question its quality?

_____Euros.

At what price would you consider the product to be a bargain – a great buy for the money?

_____Euros.

At what price would you consider the product starting to get expensive – not out of the question, but you would need to give some thought to buying it?

_____Euros.

At what price would you consider this product so expensive that you would not consider buying it?

_____Euros.

Now, please indicate the likelihood of buying the product shown above, in which 0% = would definitely not buy; 100% = would definitely buy:

0%_____100%

Unconventional lettering: this part was not included in the control and explicit condition

---

Now, please answer two questions about the product you have just seen.

On the product packaging you could see a foreign alphabet, which one was it?

( ) Hindi

( ) Cyrillic

( ) Thai

( ) Hebrew

( ) Greek

( ) Chinese

( ) Arabic

( ) I don't know

How familiar are you with this foreign alphabet?

Not at all   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Very familiar
familiar

Now, please state the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements (numbers closer to 7 indicate higher agreement, while numbers closer to 1 indicate higher disagreement with the statement):

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
I choose my olive oil very carefully.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Which olive oil I buy matters to me a lot.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Deciding which olive oil to buy would be an important decision to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
I'm willing to make an extra effort to find a low price for olive oil.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will change what I had planned to buy in order to take advantage of a lower price for olive oil.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am sensitive to differences in the prices for olive oil.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
I have never brushed my teeth.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to have contact with people from different cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have got a real interest in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like watching movies from different countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like listening to music of other cultures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like trying original dishes from other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
Olive oil reflects Greece.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I associate olive oil with Greece.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Olive oil makes me think of Greece.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is a strong link between olive oil and Greece.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Now, please rate Greek products in general regarding the following characteristics:

Innovativeness (i.e., the use of new technology and engineering advances).

| Greece | Not innovative | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Innovative |

Attractiveness of the design (i.e., appearance, style, colors, and variety).

| Greece | No attractive design | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Attractive design |

Prestige (i.e., exclusivity, status, and brand name reputation).

| Greece | Low prestige | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | High prestige |

Workmanship (i.e., reliability, durability, craftsmanship, and manufacturing quality).

| Greece | Bad workmanship | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Good workmanship |

Demographics

Gender ( ) Female ( ) Male

Age _____ years.

Citizenship _____.

Employment ( ) Employed

( ) Unemployed

( ) Student

( ) Retired

( ) Homemaker

( ) Other

Net Monthly Income _____ euros.

D: Results

Greek study

Sample profile analyses

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	137	0	1	,40	,492
Age	137	18	68	31,46	10,063
Nation	137	2	2	2,00	,000
Occup	137	3	9	4,29	1,587
Income	137	0	6000	1651,64	1103,926
Valid N (listwise)	137				

Age

Descriptives

Age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	41	31,76	10,670	1,666	28,39	35,12	18	54
1	47	30,66	9,647	1,407	27,83	33,49	18	61
2	49	31,98	10,094	1,442	29,08	34,88	18	68
Total	137	31,46	10,063	,860	29,76	33,16	18	68

ANOVA

Age

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	46,935	2	23,468	,229	,796
Within Groups	13725,094	134	102,426		
Total	13772,029	136			

Gender

Gender * CASE Crosstabulation

Count

		CASE			Total
		0	1	2	
Gender	0	26	27	29	82
	1	15	20	20	55
Total		41	47	49	137

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,339[a]	2	,844
Likelihood Ratio	,340	2	,843
Linear-by-Linear Association	,148	1	,701
N of Valid Cases	137		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16,46.

Income

Descriptives

Income

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	41	1647,93	974,744	152,229	1340,26	1955,59	0	3500
1	47	1556,60	1089,915	158,980	1236,58	1876,61	0	4300
2	49	1745,90	1226,676	175,239	1393,56	2098,24	0	6000
Total	137	1651,64	1103,926	94,315	1465,12	1838,15	0	6000

ANOVA

Income

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	860479,162	2	430239,581	,350	,706
Within Groups	164876380,589	134	1230420,751		
Total	165736859,752	136			

Reliability

Scale: Product involvement

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,925	,925	3

Scale: Price Sensitivity

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,834	,833	3

Scale: Cosmopolitanism

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,863	,876	12

Scale: Product typicality

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,951	,952	4

Scale: Country Image

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,761	,762	4

Control variables

Product involvement

Descriptives

Involvement

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	41	4,7480	1,63432	,25524	4,2321	5,2638	1,00	7,00
1	47	4,9007	1,39688	,20376	4,4906	5,3108	2,00	7,00
2	49	4,3741	1,51785	,21684	3,9382	4,8101	1,00	7,00
Total	137	4,6667	1,52002	,12986	4,4099	4,9235	1,00	7,00

ANOVA

Involvement

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7,038	2	3,519	1,535	,219
Within Groups	307,184	134	2,292		
Total	314,222	136			

Price sensitivity

Descriptives

Price_Sensitivita

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	41	3,2846	1,21920	,19041	2,8997	3,6694	1,00	6,67
1	47	3,7304	1,47717	,21547	3,2967	4,1641	1,00	6,67
2	49	3,3197	1,64564	,23509	2,8470	3,7924	1,00	7,00
Total	137	3,4501	1,47397	,12593	3,2011	3,6991	1,00	7,00

ANOVA

Price_Sensitivita

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5,650	2	2,825	1,306	,274
Within Groups	289,822	134	2,163		
Total	295,472	136			

Product typicality

Descriptives

Product_typicality

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	41	4,7317	1,31028	,20463	4,3181	5,1453	1,25	7,00
1	47	5,2979	1,38963	,20270	4,8899	5,7059	1,00	7,00
2	49	5,2347	1,66020	,23717	4,7578	5,7116	1,25	7,00
Total	137	5,1058	1,48049	,12649	4,8557	5,3560	1,00	7,00

ANOVA

Product_typicality

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8,286	2	4,143	1,916	,151
Within Groups	289,805	134	2,163		
Total	298,090	136			

Cosmopolitanism

Descriptives

Cosmopolitanism

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	41	5,6037	1,08426	,16933	5,2614	5,9459	2,50	7,00
1	47	5,7448	,79975	,11666	5,5099	5,9796	3,08	7,00
2	49	5,6973	,70786	,10112	5,4940	5,9006	4,08	6,83
Total	137	5,6855	,86153	,07361	5,5400	5,8311	2,50	7,00

ANOVA

Cosmopolitanism

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,446	2	,223	,298	,743
Within Groups	100,498	134	,750		
Total	100,944	136			

Country Image

Descriptives

Country_Image

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	41	4,2134	1,01637	,15873	3,8926	4,5342	1,75	6,00
1	47	4,3989	,88873	,12963	4,1380	4,6599	2,75	6,25
2	49	4,6378	,91010	,13001	4,3763	4,8992	3,25	6,75
Total	137	4,4288	,94516	,08075	4,2691	4,5885	1,75	6,75

ANOVA

Country_Image

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,083	2	2,042	2,330	,101
Within Groups	117,410	134	,876		
Total	121,494	136			

Test of hypotheses

ANCOVA results

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

CASE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
0	7,7580	2,55602	41
1	11,5447	5,02656	47
2	7,4257	2,66119	49
Total	8,9382	4,06927	137

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

F	df1	df2	Sig.
17,900	2	134	<,001

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Involvement + Price_Sensitivita + Cosmopolitanism + Country_Image + Product_typicality + CASE

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	536,096[a]	7	76,585	5,758	<,001	,238
Intercept	136,072	1	136,072	10,230	,002	,073
Involvement	43,944	1	43,944	3,304	,071	,025
Price_Sensitivita	4,714	1	4,714	,354	,553	,003
Cosmopolitanism	,886	1	,886	,067	,797	,001
Country_Image	,175	1	,175	,013	,909	,000
Product_typicality	1,268	1	1,268	,095	,758	,001
CASE	446,404	2	223,202	16,780	<,001	,206
Error	1715,918	129	13,302			
Total	13197,257	137				
Corrected Total	2252,015	136				

a. R Squared = ,238 (Adjusted R Squared = ,197)

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

(I) CASE	(J) CASE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0	1	-3,752[*]	,794	<,001	-5,679	-1,826
	2	,222	,797	1,000	-1,710	2,154
1	0	3,752[*]	,794	<,001	1,826	5,679
	2	3,974[*]	,764	<,001	2,121	5,827
2	0	-,222	,797	1,000	-2,154	1,710
	1	-3,974[*]	,764	<,001	-5,827	-2,121

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Estimates

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

CASE	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0	7,730[a]	,580	6,583	8,878
1	11,483[a]	,539	10,417	12,549
2	7,508[a]	,532	6,456	8,561

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Involvement = 4,6667, Price_Sensitivita = 3,4501, Cosmopolitanism = 5,6855, Country_Image = 4,4288, Product_typicality = 5,1058.

One-way ANOVAs

WTP individual

Descriptives

WTP_final

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	41	7,7580	2,55602	,39918	6,9513	8,5648	1,75	13,00
1	47	11,5447	5,02656	,73320	10,0688	13,0205	4,50	22,50
2	49	7,4257	2,66119	,38017	6,6613	8,1901	2,25	12,50
Total	137	8,9382	4,06927	,34766	8,2507	9,6258	1,75	22,50

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
WTP_final	Based on Mean	20,289	2	134	<,001
	Based on Median	12,556	2	134	<,001
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	12,556	2	88,447	<,001
	Based on trimmed mean	18,823	2	134	<,001

ANOVA

WTP_final

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	488,502	2	244,251	18,559	<,001
Within Groups	1763,513	134	13,161		
Total	2252,015	136			

ANOVA Effect Sizes[a]

		Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
WTP_final	Eta-squared	,217	,099	,324
	Epsilon-squared	,205	,086	,314
	Omega-squared Fixed-effect	,204	,085	,312
	Omega-squared Random-effect	,114	,045	,185

a. Eta-squared and Epsilon-squared are estimated based on the fixed-effect model.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

Games-Howell

(I) CASE	(J) CASE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0	1	-3,78663*	,83482	<,001	-5,7855	-1,7877
	2	,33233	,55125	,819	-,9823	1,6470
1	0	3,78663*	,83482	<,001	1,7877	5,7855
	2	4,11897*	,82590	<,001	2,1408	6,0971
2	0	-,33233	,55125	,819	-1,6470	,9823
	1	-4,11897*	,82590	<,001	-6,0971	-2,1408

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Welch test

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

WTP_final

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	12,870	2	85,239	<,001

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Vodka study

Sample profile analyses

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	151	0	1	,42	,495
Age	151	18	68	33,99	11,978
Nation	151	2	2	2,00	,000
Occup	151	3	9	4,46	1,788
Income	151	0	6000	1645,80	1045,905
Valid N (listwise)	151				

Gender

*Gender * CASE Crosstabulation*

Count

		CASE			Total
		0	1	2	
Gender	0	31	25	32	88
	1	19	20	24	63
Total		50	45	56	151

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,452[a]	2	,798
Likelihood Ratio	,454	2	,797
Linear-by-Linear Association	,241	1	,624
N of Valid Cases	151		

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18,77.

L

Age

Age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	50	33,22	12,104	1,712	29,78	36,66	18	68
1	45	35,91	13,877	2,069	31,74	40,08	18	67
2	56	33,14	10,120	1,352	30,43	35,85	18	57
Total	151	33,99	11,978	,975	32,07	35,92	18	68

ANOVA

Age

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	235,912	2	117,956	,820	,442
Within Groups	21285,082	148	143,818		
Total	21520,993	150			

Occupation

Occup

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	3	37	24,5	24,5	24,5
	4	89	58,9	58,9	83,4
	6	2	1,3	1,3	84,8
	7	4	2,6	2,6	87,4
	8	5	3,3	3,3	90,7
	9	14	9,3	9,3	100,0
	Total	151	100,0	100,0	

Income

Descriptives

Income

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	50	1636,40	1015,884	143,668	1347,69	1925,11	0	4000
1	45	1723,02	1202,358	179,237	1361,79	2084,25	0	6000
2	56	1592,14	948,449	126,742	1338,15	1846,14	0	5000
Total	151	1645,80	1045,905	85,115	1477,62	1813,98	0	6000

ANOVA

Income

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	433994,205	2	216997,102	,196	,822
Within Groups	163653739,835	148	1105768,512		
Total	164087734,040	150			

Constructs' reliability

Product involvement

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,921	,923	3

Price sensitivity

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,840	,839	3

Cosmopolitanism

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,907	,913	12

Product typicality

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,904	,907	4

Country Image

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,861	,861	4

Control variables

Product Involvement

Descriptives

Involvement

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	50	4,3533	1,83121	,25897	3,8329	4,8738	1,00	7,00
1	45	4,0370	1,59896	,23836	3,5567	4,5174	1,00	7,00
2	56	4,5179	1,60670	,21470	4,0876	4,9481	1,00	7,00
Total	151	4,3201	1,68254	,13692	4,0495	4,5906	1,00	7,00

ANOVA

Involvement

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5,851	2	2,925	1,034	,358
Within Groups	418,789	148	2,830		
Total	424,640	150			

Price sensitivity

Descriptives

Price_sensitivity

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	50	3,4067	1,83230	,25913	2,8859	3,9274	1,00	7,00
1	45	3,1185	1,46707	,21870	2,6778	3,5593	1,00	5,33
2	56	3,5833	1,41742	,18941	3,2037	3,9629	1,00	7,00
Total	151	3,3863	1,58142	,12869	3,1320	3,6406	1,00	7,00

ANOVA

Price_sensitivity

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5,422	2	2,711	1,085	,341
Within Groups	369,710	148	2,498		
Total	375,132	150			

Cosmopolitanism

Descriptives

Cosmopolitanism

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	50	5,8683	,68926	,09748	5,6724	6,0642	4,08	7,00
1	45	5,3148	1,18544	,17671	4,9587	5,6710	1,00	7,00
2	56	5,3943	1,05857	,14146	5,1109	5,6778	2,42	7,00
Total	151	5,5276	1,01843	,08288	5,3638	5,6914	1,00	7,00

ANOVA

Cosmopolitanism

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8,837	2	4,418	4,456	,013
Within Groups	146,743	148	,992		
Total	155,579	150			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Cosmopolitanism

Games-Howell

(I) CASE	(J) CASE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0	1	,55352*	,20182	,021	,0701	1,0369
	2	,47399*	,17179	,019	,0650	,8830
1	0	-,55352*	,20182	,021	-1,0369	-,0701
	2	-,07953	,22636	,934	-,6191	,4600
2	0	-,47399*	,17179	,019	-,8830	-,0650
	1	,07953	,22636	,934	-,4600	,6191

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Product typicality

Descriptives

Product_typicality

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	50	5,7950	1,26036	,17824	5,4368	6,1532	2,00	7,00
1	45	5,9000	1,14738	,17104	5,5553	6,2447	2,00	7,00
2	56	5,8839	1,09748	,14666	5,5900	6,1778	1,25	7,00
Total	151	5,8593	1,16138	,09451	5,6725	6,0460	1,25	7,00

ANOVA

Product_typicality

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,315	2	,158	,115	,891
Within Groups	202,007	148	1,365		
Total	202,322	150			

Country image

Descriptives

Country_Image

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	50	4,0050	1,11402	,15755	3,6884	4,3216	1,00	6,25
1	45	3,7167	1,28098	,19096	3,3318	4,1015	1,00	6,25
2	56	4,1518	1,27625	,17055	3,8100	4,4936	1,00	7,00
Total	151	3,9735	1,23124	,10020	3,7755	4,1715	1,00	7,00

ANOVA

Country_Image

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4,798	2	2,399	1,595	,206
Within Groups	222,596	148	1,504		
Total	227,394	150			

Test of hypotheses

ANCOVA results

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

CASE	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
0	19,8742	8,63593	50
1	21,2084	8,62385	45
2	16,4724	5,29499	56
Total	19,0102	7,78210	151

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

F	df1	df2	Sig.
6,369	2	148	,002

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Involvement + Price_sensitivity + Cosmopolitanism + Country_Image + Product_typicality + CASE

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	792,154[a]	7	113,165	1,952	,066	,087
Intercept	833,504	1	833,504	14,374	<,001	,091
Involvement	58,753	1	58,753	1,013	,316	,007
Price_sensitivity	84,153	1	84,153	1,451	,230	,010
Cosmopolitanism	37,941	1	37,941	,654	,420	,005
Country_Image	,129	1	,129	,002	,962	,000
Product_typicality	10,509	1	10,509	,181	,671	,001
CASE	570,408	2	285,204	4,918	,009	,064
Error	8292,008	143	57,986			
Total	63653,888	151				
Corrected Total	9084,162	150				

a. R Squared = ,087 (Adjusted R Squared = ,043)

CASE

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

			95% Confidence Interval	
CASE	Mean	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0	19,670[a]	1,102	17,493	21,848
1	21,311[a]	1,152	19,035	23,587
2	16,572[a]	1,033	14,530	18,614

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the
following values: Involvement = 4,3201, Price_sensitivity =
3,3863, Cosmopolitanism = 5,5276, Country_Image =
3,9735, Product_typicality = 5,8593.

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

					95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
(I) CASE	(J) CASE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0	1	-1,641	1,609	,929	-5,539	2,257
	2	3,098	1,528	,134	-,604	6,801
1	0	1,641	1,609	,929	-2,257	5,539
	2	4,739[*]	1,552	,008	,979	8,499
2	0	-3,098	1,528	,134	-6,801	,604
	1	-4,739[*]	1,552	,008	-8,499	-,979

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the ,05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

ANOVAs

WTP individual

Descriptives

WTP_final

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	50	19,8742	8,63593	1,22130	17,4199	22,3285	8,50	40,00
1	45	21,2084	8,62385	1,28557	18,6176	23,7993	6,50	45,00
2	56	16,4724	5,29499	,70757	15,0544	17,8904	6,50	27,50
Total	151	19,0102	7,78210	,63330	17,7589	20,2616	6,50	45,00

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
WTP_final	Based on Mean	6,184	2	148	,003
	Based on Median	3,554	2	148	,031
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	3,554	2	120,209	,032
	Based on trimmed mean	5,333	2	148	,006

ANOVA

WTP_final

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	615,438	2	307,719	5,378	,006
Within Groups	8468,723	148	57,221		
Total	9084,162	150			

ANOVA Effect Sizes[a,b]

		Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
WTP_final	Eta-squared	,068	,007	,149
	Epsilon-squared	,055	-,007	,138
	Omega-squared Fixed-effect	,055	-,007	,137
	Omega-squared Random-effect	,028	-,003	,074

a. Eta-squared and Epsilon-squared are estimated based on the fixed-effect model.

b. Negative but less biased estimates are retained, not rounded to zero.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: WTP_final

Games-Howell

(I) CASE	(J) CASE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0	1	-1,33424	1,77321	,733	-5,5585	2,8900
	2	3,40179*	1,41147	,047	,0306	6,7730
1	0	1,33424	1,77321	,733	-2,8900	5,5585
	2	4,73603*	1,46743	,005	1,2217	8,2503
2	0	-3,40179*	1,41147	,047	-6,7730	-,0306
	1	-4,73603*	1,46743	,005	-8,2503	-1,2217

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Welch Test

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

WTP_final

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	6,568	2	86,677	,002

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Abstract German

Marketingexperten und Wissenschaftler sind sich einig, dass die Produktverpackung ein wichtiges Kommunikationsinstrument zur Beeinflussung der Verbraucher ist. Eine der am häufigsten gezeigten Information auf der Verpackung ist die Herkunft des Produkts. Das Herkunftsland (COO) eines Produkts beeinflusst die Produktwahrnehmung und das Verhalten der Verbraucher. Unternehmen können entweder explizit auf ihr Herkunftsland hinweisen, indem sie ein "hergestellt in"-Label anbringen, oder es implizit angeben, indem sie die Sprache verwenden, die im Herkunftsland des Produkts gesprochen wird. Die Forschung hat Fremdsprachen als implizite COO-Hinweise auf Produktverpackungen jedoch wenig Aufmerksamkeit geschenkt. Insbesondere ist noch unklar, ob ein impliziter COO-Hinweis (eine Fremdsprache mit unkonventionellen Buchstaben) die Zahlungsbereitschaft der Verbraucher in gleichem Maße beeinflusst wie ein expliziter COO-Hinweis (ein „hergestellt in" Label in der Muttersprache der Befragten). Basierend auf der soziolinguistischen und psycholinguistischen Perspektive von Fremdsprachen (FLs) und mit Fokus auf Produktverpackungen untersucht diese Arbeit den Einfluss von expliziten und impliziten COO-Hinweisen auf die Zahlungsbereitschaft der Konsumenten. Zu diesem Zweck wurden zwei experimentelle Studien in zwei verschiedenen Produktkategorien (mit unterschiedlichen unkonventionellen Schriften) durchgeführt. Die Ergebnisse der Olivenöl-Studie zeigen, dass das Hinzufügen eines unkonventionellen Schriftzugs (griechisch) auf eine Olivenölverpackung die Zahlungsbereitschaft der Verbraucher im Vergleich zu einer Produktverpackung ohne COO-Hinweis signifikant erhöht. Im Gegensatz dazu verändert sich die Zahlungsbereitschaft der Kunden nicht, wenn der unkonventionelle Schriftzug (kyrillisch) auf einer Vodka Flasche enthalten ist oder nicht. Zudem zeigen beide Studien, dass die Verwendung eines impliziten COO-Hinweises (unkonventioneller Schriftzug) zu einer signifikant höheren Zahlungsbereitschaft führt als die Verwendung eines expliziten COO-Hinweises („hergestellt in" Label). Auf der Grundlage dieser Ergebnisse werden Implikationen für die Forschung und Praxis erörtert und Vorschläge für künftige Forschung definiert.