

Local, Foreign and Global Consumer Culture Positioning: Strategy choices in Dutch television advertising.

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Declaration of own work

I, the undersigned, **Dirk Kremers 4374657**, Master student of the degree programme Communication and Information Studies at Radboud University Nijmegen, specialization International Business Communication, hereby declare that the thesis I have submitted with the title '**Local, Foreign and Global Consumer Culture Positioning: Strategy choices in Dutch television advertising**' was solely written by me, and that no help was provided from other sources than those allowed. I confirm that the work presented in this thesis has been generated by me as the result of my own original research. Furthermore, I declare that I have fully and appropriately acknowledged, cited and referenced in this thesis any information or ideas originating from other sources, including all and any literature used. Finally, I declare that the data for the study presented in this thesis were collected solely by me, the undersigned.

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1. Abstract

A potentially effective way to position a brand is by referring to a specific local, foreign or global consumer culture in advertising campaigns (Alden, Steenkamp & Batra, 1999). Alden et al. (1999) and Aichner (2014) both developed distinct frameworks that allow for the identification of culture-specific elements and consumer culture positioning strategies in advertisements. However, no studies appear to have used these frameworks to analyze the full spectrum of possibilities to refer to a local, foreign or global consumer culture. Therefore, the present study investigated the use of culture-specific elements and consumer culture positioning strategies in advertising and the influence of product category and origin of the brand on the use of these phenomena. To investigate this, the content of 338 advertisements on Dutch primetime television was analyzed. The findings showed that the use of consumer culture positioning strategies was common. In particular, positioning a brand as being local was used extensively. The results also demonstrated that certain culture-specific elements were more widely used than others. For example, the use of language to refer to a certain culture was used frequently, whereas 'made in ...' statements and logo's to refer to a certain culture were hardly used. Furthermore, it was shown that product category and brand origin affected the use of culture-specific elements and consumer culture positioning strategies. In addition, the present study introduced a new methodology to analyze consumer culture positioning strategies, based on a number of ten markers that measure the full range of possible culture-specific elements. The findings can help scholars and practitioners in the field of international marketing to identify consumer culture positioning strategies and the factors on which these strategic choices depend. Besides, the introduction of a new methodology allows for a more detailed analysis of consumer culture positioning strategies and may be used as a tool for comparison of the use of local, foreign and global consumer culture positioning strategies across cultures.

2. Introduction

In today's society, consumers all over the world are constantly confronted with large amounts of product information and brands making all kinds of claims about their products. More than ever, marketers need to find new strategies to obtain a favourable position in the mind of their target audience. Two closely related positioning strategies that have received substantial attention in the field of international marketing are the country-of-origin positioning strategy and the consumer culture positioning strategy. The country-of-origin positioning strategy is based on the country-of-origin effect, which is the impact the country of origin of a product has on consumers' perceptions of the product (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). The consumer culture positioning strategy is the positioning of a brand as a symbol of a global, foreign or local culture (Alden et al. 1999). Many scholars argue that these positioning strategies have a complex but potentially significant impact on the attitudes and behavioural intentions of consumers (Aichner, 2014; Alden et al, 1999; Hornikx, Van Meurs & Hof, 2013; Nijssen & Douglas, 2011; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). Alden et al.

(1999) and Aichner (2014) both developed distinct frameworks to enable marketers and scholars to identify these positioning strategies. To date, however, no studies appear to have used these frameworks to analyze the full spectrum of possibilities to communicate the country of origin and/or to refer to a local, foreign or global consumer culture. Therefore, the present study involves a content analysis aimed to investigate the occurrence of country-of-origin markers, consumer culture positioning indicators and consumer culture positioning strategies. Country-of-origin markers and consumer culture positioning indicators are elements in advertisements that reflect a certain culture. An example of a marker or indicator is the use of a specific language in an advertisement to refer to a culture. Markers and indicators are similar constructs, but developed by different scholars. Alden et al. (1999) introduced a list of five indicators, whereas Aichner's (2014) list of markers contained 8 items. Furthermore, consumer culture positioning strategies are advertising strategies that focus on positioning a specific brand or product as being typical of a certain culture. An example of a consumer culture positioning strategy is an advertisement of the Dutch brand *Unox* that contains language, spokespersons, symbols and music that refer to the Dutch culture. In addition, the factors on which these choices depend were analyzed. Specifically, the influence of the factors product category and origin of the brand. Additionally, the current study proposes a new methodology for the analysis of consumer culture positioning strategies in advertisements. In brief, this new methodology proposes an analysis of advertisements by means of ten country-of-origin markers. If an advertisement contains at least four of these markers that each refer to the same culture, the advertisement can be regarded as containing a consumer culture positioning strategy. This consumer culture positioning strategy may be local (when the advertisement reflects the local culture of the target market), foreign (when the advertisement reflects a foreign culture) or global (when the advertisement reflects a global culture). The study provides new insights into the academic field of international marketing and gives suggestions for organizations on possible advertising strategies.

3. Literature review

3.1. The country-of-origin effect

The country of origin (COO) of a product is a form of product information that has a potential effect on consumers (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). Schooler (1965) was the first to find empirical evidence for the influence of the country of origin on product evaluations. Later studies confirm the results of Schooler's study and found that COO has a significant effect on product evaluations (Verlegh, Steenkamp & Meulenberg, 2005) and purchase decisions (Beverland & Lindgreen, 2002).

Just like price, brand name and retailer reputation, country of origin is regarded as an extrinsic cue, which means that it can be manipulated without changing the physical product (Olson, 1972, as cited in Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). Several studies have shown that such extrinsic cues act as signs to determine product quality (Dawar & Parker, 1994; Steenkamp, 1990). Other studies argue that COO is not just a sign to determine product quality, but also has a symbolic and emotional meaning to consumers (Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp & Ramachander, 1999; Hong & Wyer,

1989; 1990; Li & Wyer, 1994) and may link products to national identity, which can result in a strong emotional attachment to certain brands and products (Fournier, 1998).

The impact of a product's country of origin is called the country-of-origin effect (Aichner, 2014). The foundations of the country-of origin effect (COO effect) lie in the consumers' images of the quality of specific products marketed by firms associated with a country of origin (Verlegh et al., 2005). These images are often referred to as product-country images and may be based on actual product experiences, word-of-mouth, advertising and other mass media (Verlegh et al., 2005). Consumers use these product-country images as information when they evaluate products.

The impact of the COO of a specific product may add value but may also subtract value. Verlegh et al. (2005), for example, found that tomatoes with Spain as country of origin resulted in a high product attitude and purchase intention, whereas tomatoes with the Netherlands as country of origin lowered the product attitude and purchase intention. This indicates that communicating the country of origin of a product may result in differences in consumer behaviour. According to Kelly-Holmes (2005, p. 71), consumers associate a product with a country's competences based on "deep-rooted beliefs and perceptions about the specific country".

3.1.1. Country-of-origin markers

As mentioned, COO can influence the perception and behavioural intentions of consumers. Companies might wish to communicate the COO of their brand because they hope to benefit from the patriotism of domestic customers or from positive stereotypes that foreign customers have about products from a specific country (Aichner, 2014). Aichner (2014) describes eight different markers to communicate the country of origin.

Possibly the most straightforward marker is the use of the phrase 'Made in ...'. In many countries, brands are obliged to mention these statements on product packages. Whether the 'Made in ...' statement is required or not, several companies have used this strategy in advertising, as they believe it might improve their sales (Aichner, 2014). Besides referring to the country of origin, companies might also use this statement to indicate the region or city of origin (Guerini & Uslenghi, 2006, as cited in Aichner, 2014). A second, centrally regulated COO marker is the use of quality and origin labels. These labels are regulated by law on an international, national or regional level or awarded by public or private corporations based on certain criteria (Aichner, 2014). Such labels help consumers verify the quality of products and to diminish the perceived risk of purchasing an unsatisfactory product (Resano, Sanjuán & Albisu, 2012). Examples of quality and origin labels are '*Rheinisches Apfelkraut*' (apple marmalade from the Rhine area) and '*Pancetta di Calabria*' (bacon of Calabria). These examples are labels that are registered by the European Union in order to guarantee that only traditional and specialised brands are able to use them in their communication. Quality and origin labels are often used as part of marketing strategies to positively influence the consumers' attitudes and behavioural intentions (Moschini, Menapace & Pick, 2008).

Besides 'Made in ...' statements and quality and origin labels, there are a number of unregulated COO strategies. As they are unregulated (i.e. companies are not restricted by certain laws when considering these COO markers), companies may use them to make a product appear to originate from a different country than it actually does. A possible reason to do this is when the image

of the pretended COO (in general or for the specific product range) is more favourable than the image of the actual COO (Aichner, 2014). Aichner (2014) identified six unregulated markers. In addition, the present study added two markers in order to make the list exhaustive.

An explicit (unregulated) marker to communicate the (actual or pretended) COO is embedding the COO in the company name. This can be the name of a country, a region, a city or any related modification, such as adjectives (Aichner, 2014). Examples of this marker are *Alitalia*, *Deutsche Bank* and *Texas Instruments*. A closely related marker is the use of typical words associated with the COO, embedded in the company name. This includes stereotypical first or second names or other elements, such as specific animals or non-existing words that are perceived as typical for the country of origin (Aichner, 2014). Examples of this marker are *Husky Energy* (Canada) and *Novo Nordisk* (Denmark).

The use of the COO language is another possible marker. The language may be implemented in the name, in the slogan or in advertising texts (Aichner, 2014). An example of this marker is the slogan '*Auto emoción*' used by *Seat*. A sub-category within this marker is the use of a strong accent that is related to the language of the country of origin (e.g. *Lancôme* pronounced with a French accent). The effect of the use of the COO language in advertising has been studied extensively. Hornikx et al., (2013) found that advertisements with a specific foreign language are better evaluated for products that are associated with the language (congruent) than for products that are not associated with the language (incongruent products). In addition, Kelly-Holmes (2005) argues that the associations evoked by the language should match the relevant characteristics of the product that is advertised. Hornikx et al. (2013) conclude that two conditions might indicate the effectiveness of the use of the COO language. First, the language should be congruent with the product and second, the country that is associated with the language should have a positive image among the target consumers.

Furthermore, companies could choose to use famous or stereotypical people associated with the COO. Stereotypes are attributed to the characteristics of a person based on their group membership (Hinton, 2000) and can be related to the person's look, behaviour, clothes or other elements. Examples of this marker are present in the advertisements of *Bertolli*, which contain stereotypical Italian actors. Yet another possible marker is the use of COO flags and/or symbols. Symbols could be any object or element that is linked in some way to the country of origin. Examples of these symbols are 'British humor' (Aichner, 2014), 'Dutch parsimony' and the German '*Lederhose*'. An eighth marker is the use of typical landscapes and/or famous buildings associated with the COO in advertisements. This marker includes among other things buildings, mountains, rivers and cities. An example is the use of *Wall Street* in New York in the background of *Chocomel* advertisements. Finally, two possible COO markers that were not mentioned by Aichner (2014) are the use of music associated with the COO and the COO embedded in bodycopy or voice-over. Use of music associated with the COO may be based on associations with regard to the language, the lyrics, the artist or the genre of the song (e.g. samba for Brasil). COO embedded in bodycopy or voice-over includes the use of the name of a country, region, city or any related modification within any element of an advertisement with the exclusion of the company name. An example is the display of the word *London* in an advertisement about the brand *Pepe Jeans*.

3.2. Consumer culture positioning

A construct that is related to the country-of-origin effect was introduced by Alden et al., (1999). Alden and his colleagues argue that a brand may base its positioning strategy on three different types of consumer culture. The authors state that besides referring to a culture belonging to a certain (local or foreign) country or region, the brand may also position itself as a global brand by associating it with global consumer culture. Global consumer culture (GCC) is defined as a shared set of consumption-related symbols and behaviours (e.g. product categories, brands, consumption activities) that are commonly understood but not necessarily shared by consumers and businesses around the world (Akaka & Alden, 2010; Alden et al., 1999). Alden et al. (1999) label this strategy as global consumer culture positioning (GCCP) and state that this strategy can be contrasted with local consumer culture positioning (LCCP) and foreign consumer culture positioning (FCCP). LCCP is a strategy in which a brand is associated with local meanings, reflects the local culture's norms and identities, is portrayed as consumed by local people in the national culture, and/or is depicted as locally produced for local people. FCCP is defined as a strategy that positions the brand as symbolic of a specific foreign consumer culture or, in other words, as a brand whose personality, and/or user group are associated with a foreign culture (Alden et al., 1999).

Alden et al., (1999) argue that positioning a brand as a global player may have positive effects because consumers seem to have a greater preference for brands with a global image than for brands with a local image. Research suggests that brands with a global image benefit from consumer attributions of enhanced self-worth and status through purchase of the brand (Friedman, 1990). These consumers purchase certain brands to reinforce their membership in a specific global segment (Alden et al., 1999). Nijssen and Douglas (2011), however, argue that the effect of GCCP, FCCP and LCCP may vary across situations. They found that consumers with ethnocentric attitudes have more positive attitudes towards LCCP compared to GCCP and FCCP. On the other hand, they found that consumers that are more world-minded (i.e. open to other cultures and lifestyles) have more positive attitudes towards GCCP and FCCP compared to LCCP. The effectiveness of consumer culture positioning strategy choices may, thus, vary across situations.

3.2.1. CCP indicators

According to Alden et al. (1999), marketing strategists may focus on the use of visual aesthetic, thematic, and verbal signs in advertising to associate the brand with global, foreign, or local consumer culture. A brand might use visual aesthetic signs such as colors, shapes, materials, but also styles that reflect for example minimalism, abstraction, harmony or complexity. The use of spokespersons that have certain aesthetic characteristics that reflect a specific consumer culture is a visual aesthetic style that might act as an indicator (Alden et al., 1999). An example, according to Alden et al. (1999), is the use of Michael Jordan in *Nike* commercials to emphasize that *Nike* is a global brand (GCCP). Also, the use of a brand logo that reflects a certain strategy is a visual aesthetic style that might act as an indicator. An example is the *Ikea* logo, which contains the colors of the Swedish flag (FCCP). A brand might also use thematic signs that reflect for example professionalism, family values, tradition, enjoyment or cost savings. Using a businessperson travelling the world in an advertising campaign

might act as a thematic indicator of GCCP, whereas an advertisement with an actor in *Lederhose*, with the Alps on the background is an example of a thematic indicator of FCCP. Furthermore, a brand might use verbal signs to associate the brand with a certain consumer culture. Examples of possible verbal signs are spelling, pronunciation and language style. Alden et al., (1999) argue that the use of English (written or spoken) is a way for brands to communicate GCCP, as English signals modernism and internationalism to many consumers. In contrast, if a brand wants to use LCCP, it might emphasize the local language and if a brand wants to associate itself with a specific FCCP, it might use the language from that specific culture. *Volkswagen*, for instance, has used *Das Auto* as the slogan in its worldwide campaigns.

In their study, Alden et al. (1999) used five indicators that reflect one of the abovementioned signs to identify consumer culture positioning strategies, namely 1.) pronunciation of brand name, 2.) symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name, 3.) symbols used for brand logo, 4.) central themes, and 5.) appearance of spokesperson(s). They state that, although there are other possible indicators (Caudle, 1994), these five form a representative set of indicators without making the analysis too complex.

According to Alden et al. (1999), a brand can be uniquely positioned through GCCP, FCCP, or LCCP, but it can also be positioned predominantly on one of the three types while incorporating elements of other types of positioning or using a mixed strategy. An example of a mixed strategy, according to Alden et al. (1999), is the advertising campaign of *Pepsi-Cola* in which Tina Turner (GCCP) sings the theme song of the brand together with local bands (LCCP) in different countries.

3.3. COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies

The terms COO marker, CCP indicator and CCP strategy are the central topic in the present study. Clearly defined definitions of these closely related terms are therefore imperative to fully understand the essence of the current research.

COO markers and CCP indicators are defined as elements of an advertisement that contain certain characteristics that refer to a specific culture. This culture may be the local culture of the target market, a foreign culture or a global culture. A total number of ten different COO markers and five different CCP indicators are identified in the current study. These markers and indicators, which are based on the studies of Alden et al. (1999) and Aichner (2014), are both used to identify culture-specific elements in advertisements and they sometimes overlap (i.e. the same element within an advertisement can be both a COO marker and a CCP indicator).

The term CCP strategy refers to advertisements that contain COO markers and/or CCP indicators to explicitly refer to a certain culture. As advertisements contain numerous elements such as visuals, linguistics and narratives, COO markers and CCP indicators might be used without the intention to position the brand as being typical of a certain culture. To make a distinction between advertisements that contain CCP indicators with the purpose of positioning the brand as belonging to a certain consumer culture and advertisements that use CCP for other reasons than to refer to a certain culture, Alden et al. (1999) used a methodology in which a threshold of three out of five indicators would specify whether an advertisement contained a CCP strategy or not. Those

advertisements with three or more CCP indicators were specified as containing a CCP strategy. In other words, according to Alden et al. (1999), an advertisement containing at least three CCP indicators uses culture-specific elements to position a brand or product as being typical of a certain culture. For example, if an advertisement contains a French spokesperson, a French landscape and a pronunciation of the brand name with a French accent, the advertisement is regarded as containing a CCP strategy referring to France. In this example, the decision to explicitly refer to France might be based on the marketers' idea that positioning the product as being French would result in more purchases.

3.4. The current study

Advertising strategies that use markers and/or indicators to associate a brand with a certain (actual or pretended) country of origin or a specific consumer culture (local, foreign or global) have been discussed extensively (e.g. Aichner, 2014; Alden et al., 1999). Many scholars acknowledge the potential effects of these strategies. The effects have been experimentally tested in numerous settings (e.g. Nijssen & Douglas, 2011; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Verlegh et al. 2005). Few studies, however, have focused on the actual implementation of these strategies in advertising. One of the few exceptions is the study of Gerritsen et al. (2007), which investigated the occurrence of English (a GCCP marker according to Alden et al., 1999) in product advertisements in several European countries. This study, however, only investigated the use of one single language in advertising and thus only covered a fraction of the possible COO markers and CCP indicators mentioned by Aichner (2014) and Alden et al. (1999). Another study that analyzed the occurrence of English in advertising was carried out by Griffin (1997), who studied the use of English in Polish magazine advertising. Neelankavil, Mummalaneni & Session (1995) also investigated the occurrence of certain COO markers and CCP indicators. They investigated the use of foreign words and foreign models in advertisements in a number of Asian countries and analyzed whether their use depended on the factors product type, target consumers, actual country of origin and social and cultural climate of the target country.

The studies of Gerritsen et al. (2007), Griffin (1997), and Neelankavil et al. (1995) only covered a part of the possible COO markers and CCP indicators that were described in the studies of Aichner (2014) and Alden et al. (1999). To date, no studies appear to have investigated the occurrence of the full spectrum of markers and indicators as identified by Alden et al. (1999) and Aichner (2014). An analysis of the occurrence of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies in advertising may help to obtain a better understanding of the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and the factors on which strategy choices depend. In order to bridge the gap between the description of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies in the literature and the actual implementation of these phenomena in advertising campaigns, the current study consisted of a content analysis in which the frequency of the occurrence of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies was analyzed as well as an analysis of the influence of the product category and product origin on the use of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies. The study provides new insights into the academic field of international marketing and gives new suggestions for organizations

on possible advertising strategies.

3.4.1. The Netherlands

CCP strategies are aimed at evoking positive associations in the minds of consumers. It is expected that consumers who have an above average knowledge of different cultures and languages are better able to form clear associations with positioning strategies that focus on specific local, foreign or global consumer culture characteristics. CCP strategies might therefore be particularly effective in markets in which consumers have an above average knowledge of different cultures and languages. In such a market, it is possible to use a wide range of COO markers and/or CCP indicators because consumers will be likely to identify these elements as aspects of a certain culture and form appropriate associations. This might particularly be the case in Europe, as the density of different countries, each with a different culture, is relatively high. The Netherlands, geographically situated in the center of Europe, is a country that has a high level of foreign trade (Netherlands Foreign Investment Agency, 2015) and has a large immigrant population (Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek, 2013). Many Dutch people frequently travel to foreign countries (Centraal Bureau voor Statistiek, 2014) and are often characterized as being open to other cultures and as being aware of activities and behaviour in other parts of the world (Nijssen & Douglas 2008; 2011). For these reasons, the Dutch population is likely to be sensitive and responsive to different cultural positioning strategies in advertising (Nijssen & Douglas, 2011). Consequently, the Netherlands seems to be a target market in which the implementation of CCP strategies in advertisements might be effective.

3.4.2. Advertisements on Dutch television

Television is a medium that consists of both verbal and visual signs. Therefore, all COO markers and CCP indicators are implementable. Besides, television is, behind internet, the second most important medium with regard to media expenditures in the Netherlands (Nielsen, 2014). Hence, television is a medium that is suitable for an analysis of the occurrence of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies. For the abovementioned reasons, the corpus of the present study consisted of advertisements on Dutch television.

3.5. Research questions

The current study intended to establish a link between the description of possible COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies in the literature (Aichner, 2014; Alden et al., 1999) and the actual implementation of these markers, indicators and strategies in advertising. A content analysis of Dutch television advertisements was carried out to help obtain a better understanding of the use of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies and the relationship of these phenomena with product category and origin of the brand. The following main research questions were answered during the present study:

Research question 1: Which choices are made in Dutch television advertising with regard to COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies?

Research question 2: Which factors influence choices in Dutch television advertising with regard to COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies?

In order to answer the first main research question, the present study analyzed which COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies occurred in Dutch television advertisements as well as the quantity of their occurrence. The following sub questions were formulated to provide this information:

Sub question 1a: Which COO markers are used in Dutch television advertisements and what is their frequency?

Sub question 1b: Which CCP indicators are used in Dutch television advertisements and what is their frequency?

Sub question 1c: Which CCP strategies are used in Dutch television advertisements and what is their frequency?

Neelankavil et al. (1995) found evidence that language choice and the models used in advertisements in Asian countries are affected by product type. They concluded that advertisements about personal-care products manufactured in the US and marketed in South Korea are more likely to contain Caucasian models and a Western language than advertisements about other product types originating from the US. Although these relationships between product category and use of models and product category and language use were observed in East Asian advertisements, this finding suggests that there might be a relationship between product category and the use of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies in advertising in Western countries, such as the Netherlands. Therefore, this study investigated if there is a relationship between the use of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies and product category. This analysis helped answering the second main research question. The following sub questions were formulated to observe whether there is a relation between the number of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies and product category:

Sub question 2a: Which COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies are used in Dutch television advertisements per product category?

Sub question 2b: Is there a relation between use of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies in Dutch television advertisements and product category?

Aichner (2014) suggested that companies may choose not to communicate the COO or even use strategies to make a product appear to originate from another country than it actually does. The latter could be an effective strategy when the image of the pretended COO is more favourable than the image of the actual COO. In line with this, Hornikx et al. (2013) state that a negative image of the actual country of origin may negatively affect the effectiveness of COO strategies. Thus, the actual country of origin may influence the decision to use or not to use specific cultural elements and CCP strategies in advertising.

As organizations are increasingly expanding their businesses overseas, the country where a

brand was founded may be different from the country where its headquarters are based and where the products are designed, assembled or produced (Vianelli & Marzano, 2012). Defining the actual country of origin of a brand may therefore be more complex than expected at first glance. Vianelli and Marzano (2012) use the term 'country of brand' (or COB) and define COB as the country in which the brand was actually founded. To avoid confusion with regard to what is meant by actual country of origin, the present study used the term country of brand as provided by Vianelli and Marzano (2012).

Country of brand may influence decisions with regard to the use of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies (Aichner, 2014; Hornikx et al., 2013). Therefore, this study investigated whether there is a relationship between the use of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies and COB. In addition, a comparison between Country of Brand and the country that was referred to in each advertisement was made in order to identify whether the countries that were referred to were in line with the actual origin of the brands or whether there was referred to a certain pretended country of brand. This analysis helped answering the second main research question. Sub questions 2c and 2d were formulated to investigate whether the number of markers, indicators and strategies were related to the country of brand. Additionally, sub question 2e was formulated to compare the actual COBs with the countries that were referred to in the advertisements:

Sub question 2c: Which COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies are used in Dutch television advertisements per COB?

Sub question 2d: Is there a relation between use of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies in Dutch television advertisements and COB?

Sub question 2e: Are the COBs in line with the countries that are referred to in advertisements on Dutch television?

4. Method

4.1. Materials

In the present study, 338 advertisements on Dutch television were analyzed. The units of analysis were the audiovisual content of each separate advertisement. Each advertisement was analyzed once. Repeated advertisements were removed from the sample, as well as short advertisements referring to previous advertisements. The selection of broadcasting channels was based on two criteria. First, the channel needed to be among the ten most important Dutch channels with regard to viewing rates. Second, the channels needed to cover a nationwide target group between the age of 18 and 65. Based on these criteria, the governmentally subsidized broadcasting channels NPO 1 and NPO 3 and the commercial broadcasting channels RTL 4, RTL 5, RTL 7, SBS 6 and NET 5, were selected as unit of sampling (see Appendix A).

Each of the broadcasting channels was analyzed once between 6 a.m. and midnight in a random order on a random date between Tuesday 14 April and Saturday 2 May 2015. The choice for

the specific broadcasting hours was based on the fact that viewing rates are highest during these hours (Stichting Kijkonderzoek, 2014) and because television advertisements before and after these hours are often aimed at specific target groups such as children, the elderly or people interested in adult-industry advertisements.

4.2. Procedure

The analysis was carried out by two native Dutch coders who, at the time of the study, were both following a Master's programme in Communication and Information Studies with an international focus. The first coder analyzed the whole sample and the second coder analyzed ten percent of the total sample. Both coders carried out the analysis fully independently.

Before the actual analysis, both coders went through the coding scheme in order to identify potential problems. The coding scheme can be found in Appendix B. After the identification of potential problems, both coders independently performed a pilot test which consisted of an analysis of fifteen advertisements which were not part of the actual sample. After this analysis, the data was assessed for interrater reliability through the Cohen's Kappa.

The resulting coding scheme after the pilot test was used as the guideline for the analysis of each separate advertisement. During the actual analysis, the coders first indicated whether it was the first time that they were confronted with the particular advertisement. If not, the advertisement was removed from the sample.

Following the coding scheme, the first steps of the analysis were an indication of 1.) the brand name, 2.) a short product description, and 3.) the product category. The categorisation of products was based on Alden et al. (1999) and consisted of the following categories: 1.) food nondurables, 2.) personal nondurables, 3.) household nondurables, 4.) lower-technology consumer durables, 5.) higher-technology durables, 6.) consumer services, 7.) business goods, 8.) business services, and 9.) other. The present study used the following definitions: 1.) food nondurables are goods that people eat, that do not last for a long time and are bought frequently (<http://dictionary.cambridge.org/>). Examples are fruit and coffee. 2.) Personal nondurables are goods that people use to look after (parts of) their bodies, that do not last for a long time and are bought frequently. Examples are makeup and toothpaste. 3.) Household nondurables are goods that are used in houses (or gardens) that do not last for a long time and that people buy often. Examples are laundry detergents and all-purpose cleaners. 4.) Lower-technology consumer durables are goods that are less advanced, less technologically developed, relatively unsophisticated, last a long time and are not intended to be bought often (<http://www.merriam-webster.com/>). Examples are chairs and simple clocks. 5.) Higher-technology durables are those goods that involve the most modern or advanced methods, last a long time and are not intended to be bought often. Examples are cars and phones. 6.) Consumer services are services aimed at fulfilling consumer needs. Examples are mortgages and job recruitment. 7.) Business goods are goods that are provided to companies. Examples are office supplies and handbooks for international entrepreneurship and 8.) Business services are services aimed at fulfilling the needs of companies. Examples are intranet and web shop consultancy. More detailed definitions of each of the terms that were used in the present study can be found in Appendix C.

The next step in the analysis was the identification of the occurrence of country-of-origin markers. The coders first indicated whether or not they identified any COO marker. The identification of COO markers was based on Aichner (2014), who identified the following eight categories: 1.) 'Made in ...' statements, 2.) Quality and origin labels, 3.) COO embedded in the company name, 4.) Typical COO words embedded in the company name, 5.) Use of the COO language, 6.) Use of famous or stereotypical people from the COO, 7.) Use of COO flags and symbols and 8.) Use of typical landscapes or famous buildings from the COO. Additionally, a ninth and tenth marker were added, namely 9.) Use of typical music related to the COO and 10.) COO embedded in bodycopy, slogan or voice-over. If the coders did identify one or more COO markers, they indicated which markers were used. Furthermore, they determined whether the marker(s) reflected 1.) LCCP, 2.) FCCP, 3.) GCCP, 4.) a mix of LCCP and FCCP, 5.) a mix of LCCP and GCCP, 6.) a mix of FCCP and GCCP or 7.) a mix of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP. Finally, they indicated which country was referred to in case of the identification of a marker reflecting FCCP.

Subsequently, the coders needed to analyze the occurrence of the five consumer culture positioning indicators as introduced by Alden et al. (1999). These five indicators were based on a list of strategies developed by Caudle (1994) to overcome linguistic and cultural obstacles in magazine advertising. The CCP indicators as introduced by Alden et al. (1999) consist of: 1.) Pronunciation of brand name, 2.) Symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name, 3.) Symbol used for brand logo, 4.) Central themes, and 5.) Appearance of spokesperson(s). The present study used the following definitions: 1.) Pronunciation of brand name is the verbal expression of the brand name using an accent that is typical for speakers of a certain language that is spoken in a specific culture (e.g. the pronunciation of *Lancôme* with a strong French accent reflects FCCP). 2.) Symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name consists of the use of an alphabet, a word or a combination of words that is associated with a certain culture. The brand name may be an existing or non-existing word, as long as it is related to a specific culture. An example is the spelling of the brand name *Paturain*, which is typical of the French language and therefore it can be interpreted as a form of FCCP. 3.) Symbols used for brand logo is the use of a brand logo that is symbolic for a certain culture through its shape, colour use, symbol(s), visual(s), alphabet and/or word(s). An example is the use of a Chinese calligraphy stroke in the logo of *Cathay Pacific* (FCCP). 4.) Central themes relates to the main subject of the advertisement displayed through the use of narratives, symbols, landscapes, visuals, texts, spokespersons and/or other thematic signs. Displaying persons riding bikes for a number of day-to-day activities in *Gazelle* advertisements indicates LCCP (from a Dutch consumer's perspective). 5.) Appearance of spokesperson(s) indicates the use of famous or stereotypical models that are associated with a certain culture through their origin, country of residence, profession, appearance, behaviour and/or other characteristics (e.g. Michael Jordan for Nike and Pierce Brosnan for Omega are GCCP). Each coder observed whether the advertisement contained any indicators and if they did identify one or more indicators, they also determined whether they explicitly reflected LCCP, FCCP, GCCP or any combination of these three positionings. Following the methodology of Alden et al. (1999), the coders regarded an advertisement as explicitly reflecting a certain CCP if at least three different indicators, focusing on the same consumer culture, were observed. If, for example, an

advertisement contained three different indicators of LCCP, it was regarded as an advertisement that reflects LCCP. If an advertisement contained three LCCP indicators and three FCCP indicators, it was regarded as an advertisement with a mix of LCCP and FCCP.

The last step in the coding procedure was desk research aimed to identify the country of brand for each of the advertised brands.

4.3. Reliability

The interrater reliability of the variables as described above was tested by means of the Cohen's kappa. It appeared that the reliability of Product Category was good (.86) and the interrater reliability of ten out of 15 COO markers and CCP indicators was sufficient or good. However, the interrater reliability of the COO markers 'Typical COO words embedded in company name', 'COO embedded in bodycopy or slogan', 'Use of famous or stereotypical people from COO' and the CCP indicators 'Symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name' and 'Appearance of spokesperson(s)' were insufficient. For these variables, the interrater agreement was calculated. Each of the variables had an agreement of at least 70 percent. Although an interrater agreement of 70 percent indicates an adequate reliability, this statistic does not correct for chance and therefore, the results with regard to these variables should be interpreted with caution.

4.4. New methodology for identifying consumer culture positioning strategies

As mentioned previously, Alden et al. (1999) introduced a methodology to identify consumer culture positioning strategies in advertisements. To date, this has been the only study that described a methodology for the identification of local, foreign and global consumer culture positioning strategies. Although the article was published many years ago, this methodology has not been critically assessed. As culture is known to be a phenomenon that changes over time (Hofstede, 1983), it is questionable whether this method is still adequate in the current marketing landscape. Besides, Alden et al. (1999) mention that the five indicators do not cover all possible culture-specific elements in advertising, which may lead to overlooking important results. In addition, the study of Alden et al. (1999) did not provide clear definitions of the five indicators and possible CCP strategies. As a result, the scholars that use this methodology to investigate CCP strategies in advertising may experience difficulties, as unclear definitions give room for personal interpretations. The present study therefore proposes a new methodology for the identification of CCP.

The new proposed methodology was developed after a post-analysis of the observed advertisements. In order to develop a valid methodology, the first coder observed each of the 338 advertisements again while intuitively judging the presence of a CCP strategy. Per advertisement, the number of observed COO markers was counted. Then, a comparison was made between the number of markers that were observed in the advertisements that contained or did not contain a CCP on the basis of intuition. This comparison showed that the advertisements with an intuitive local, foreign or global consumer culture positioning contained four or more COO markers. Furthermore, the advertisements with a mixed consumer culture positioning contained three or more COO markers per culture (local, foreign or global). The advertisements with no intuitive CCP contained three or less

COO markers and two or less COO markers per culture when referring to more than one culture (mixed positioning). This threshold (i.e. at least four markers for local, foreign or global positioning and at least three markers for mixed positioning) was in line with the analysis of the advertisements on the basis of intuition in 85 percent of the cases.

The comparison between the presence of a CCP strategy on the basis of intuition with the number of COO markers resulted in a new methodology for the identification of consumer culture positioning in television advertisements. In brief, when applying this new methodology, a coder should indicate the presence of each of the ten COO markers and code each of them as local, foreign or global. If an advertisement contains four or more COO markers that refer to the same culture, it should be labeled as containing a local, foreign or global consumer culture positioning. Furthermore, if an ad contains at least three COO markers referring to a certain culture and at the same time three COO markers referring to another culture (e.g. three COO markers referring to a local culture and three COO markers referring to a global culture), it should be labeled as containing a mixed strategy. Both the new proposed methodology to identify CCP strategies and the methodology as described by Alden et al. (1999) were used and compared during the present study.

5. Results

The results section consists of a description of the quantitative analysis of the data that were collected during the present study and provides answers to the two main research questions 'Which choices are made in Dutch television advertising with regard to COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies?' and 'Which factors influence choices in Dutch television advertising with regard to COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies?'.

5.1. Occurrence of COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies

In order to answer research question 1 and sub questions 1a, 1b and 1c the quantity of the occurrence of each COO marker and CCP indicator per consumer culture (i.e. none, LCCP, FCCP, GCCP, mixed LCCP and FCCP, mixed LCCP and GCCP, mixed FCCP and GCCP or mixed LCCP, FCCP and GCCP) was analyzed. Furthermore, the quantity of occurrence of each CCP strategy per consumer culture was analyzed using both the methodology proposed by Alden et al. (1999) and the new proposed methodology (see method section). Table 1 and Table 2 show the total number of every observed COO marker and CCP indicator and the number of markers and indicators per consumer culture. Additionally, Table 3 shows the observed number of CCP strategies per consumer culture using both the methodology of Alden et al. (1999) and the new proposed methodology.

5.1.1. COO markers

The marker Use of COO language was used in 335 of the 338 advertisements, which indicates that virtually all advertisements contained spoken or written language. A total of 320 advertisements contained the Dutch language, which means that only 15 advertisements contained a foreign

language only (e.g. an advertisement with only the German language). The marker Typical COO words embedded in company name was observed in almost two thirds of the advertisements. In other words, two thirds of the brand names contained elements that refer to a certain culture (e.g. *Renault* refers to France). The marker use of 'Made in ...' statements was only observed once and was therefore by far the least observed marker. The markers Quality and origin labels (e.g. the text "By appointment to the royal Danish court" in *Jysk* advertisements), COO embedded in the company name (e.g. the brand name *Hollands Nieuwe*) and Use of typical music related to the COO (e.g. oriental Asian background music in *HAK* advertisements about stir-fry mixes) were observed in less than 10 % of the advertisements, whereas the markers COO embedded in bodycopy, slogan or voice-over (e.g. "In a world that .." in voice-over of an *Axe* advertisement, translated from Dutch), Use of famous or stereotypical people from the COO (e.g. the Dutch model Doutzen Kroes in *Rivella* advertisements), use of COO flags and symbols (e.g. *Lederhosen* in *Almhof* advertisements) and use of typical landscapes or famous buildings from the COO (e.g. Eiffel tower in *Lancôme* advertisements) were each used in 20 to 30 % of the advertisements.

Table 1: Number of COO markers by type of marker and consumer culture positioning ($N = 338$)

	Local	Foreign	Global	Local+ Foreign	Local+ Global	Foreign +Global	Local+ Foreign +Global	Total ($N = 338$)
Use of COO language	171	7	4	10	123	4	16	335
Made in statement	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Quality & Origin labels	11	3	0	0	0	0	0	14
COO embedded in name	13	7	1	0	0	0	0	21
Typical COO words in name	79	48	68	0	2	0	0	197
COO embedded in bodycopy	36	23	7	6	1	1	0	74
Famous/Stereotypical people	46	17	18	6	2	1	0	90
COO flags and/or symbols	52	25	11	6	3	0	1	98
COO landscapes and/or buildings	29	29	22	2	2	2	0	86
Typical COO music	9	14	3	0	0	0	0	24

5.1.2. CCP indicators

The indicator Pronunciation of brand name was observed in 307 out of 338 advertisements. This means that in the large majority of the advertisements, the brand name was pronounced with a local pronunciation (i.e. a Dutch pronunciation), a foreign pronunciation (e.g. *PME Legend* with a strong American accent) or global pronunciation. A global pronunciation is defined as the use of English without a country-specific accent (e.g. the pronunciation of *Hugo Boss* without a clear intention to refer

to a certain culture) in the present study. The pronunciation was local in 274 advertisements, whereas a foreign or global pronunciation occurred in only 17 and 23 advertisements, respectively. Symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name was observed 219 times, which means that more than two thirds of the advertisements contained elements of a local (e.g. *Amstel*), foreign (e.g. *Le Sud*) or global language or culture (e.g. *Fashion Cheque*). The rest of the brand names did not refer to any culture (e.g. *Supradyn*). Furthermore, only 20 brand logos contained the indicator Symbols used for brand logo (e.g. the colours of the Dutch flag in the *Unox* logo). This indicator appears to be a rarity. Central themes were observed in almost a third of the advertisements (e.g. the Alps in the background of a *Milka* advertisement) and the indicator Spokespersons referring to a certain culture (e.g. two English men with strong accents in *Eurostar* advertisements) were observed in a little more than a fourth of the advertisements.

Table 2: Number of CCP indicators by type of marker and consumer culture positioning ($N = 338$)

	Local	Foreign	Global	Local+ Foreign	Local+ Global	Foreign +Global	Local+ Foreign +Global	Total ($N = 338$)
Pronunciation of brand name	267	17	16	0	7	0	0	307
Symbols/spelling of brand name	91	55	71	0	2	0	0	219
Symbols in brand logo	12	7	1	0	0	0	0	20
Central themes	43	34	20	5	2	1	1	106
Spokespersons	44	17	18	6	2	1	0	88

5.1.3. CCP strategies

With reference to the data after analysis using the new method, it is shown that the majority of the advertisements did not contain a CCP strategy. This was the case in 276 advertisements (and 272 times using the method of Alden et al, 1999). Regarding the observed frequency of CCP strategies after analysis using the new method, a total of 62 advertisements did contain CCP, which is equal to 18.40 %. Exactly half of these advertisements contained an LCCP strategy only. In other words, 31 advertisements used a strategy which clearly and exclusively referred to the local culture. A fourth of the 62 advertisements contained an FCCP strategy and only four advertisements contained a GCCP strategy. Furthermore, 11 advertisements referred to more than just a single culture. Seven advertisements referred to both the local and a foreign culture, whereas three advertisements contained a mix of local and global consumer culture positioning. Finally, one advertisement contained a mix of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP.

When comparing the new method with the original method, mixed strategies were more often observed in the new method. Furthermore, GCCP strategies were less often observed in the new method. Specifically, in four advertisements a GCCP strategy was observed after analysis with the new methodology, compared to eight times after using the methodology of Alden et al. (1999).

Table 3: Number of CCP strategies per consumer culture using both the new proposed method and the method of Alden et al. (1999) ($N = 338$).

	None	Local	Foreign	Global	Local + Foreign	Local + Global	Foreign + Global	Local + Foreign + Global
New method	276	31	16	4	7	3	0	1
Method Alden et al. (1999)	272	38	18	8	1	0	1	0

5.2. The influence of Product Category

In order to answer research question 2 and sub questions 2a and 2b the number of COO markers and CCP indicators per product category were counted. These frequencies are shown in Table 4 and Table 5. In addition, the number of CCP strategies per product category were counted. The count of these frequencies were analyzed using both the method as proposed by Alden et al. (1999) and the new proposed methodology. The data of these frequencies can be found in Table 6 and Table 7. The count of these frequencies are on the basis of present/not present, so if, for example, an advertisement contained the marker COO flags and/or symbols, referring to both a local consumer culture and a foreign consumer culture, this was counted as 'present'. The product categories Business products, Business services and Other were removed because they appeared less than five times.

5.2.1. Relationship Product Category and COO markers

In order to determine whether Product Category was related to the use of COO markers, Fisher's exact tests with Product Category as independent variable and each marker as dependent variable were performed. In addition, in case there was a significant relationship, the column proportions were compared to observe which product categories were accountable for the relationship.

The Fisher's exact test for Product Category and Use of COO Language was not significant ($p = 1.000$). No significant relation was found between Product Category and Use of 'Made in ...' Statements either ($p = 1.000$). This finding was not surprising because this marker was observed only once, namely in an advertisement of the Dutch supermarket brand *Plus*, advertising for chicory. Use of Quality and Origin Labels (e.g. "*Amstel*, the no. 1 Radler of the Netherlands", translated from Dutch) were also used equally among different product categories ($p = .722$).

A significant relation was found between Product Category and COO Embedded in Company Name ($p = .015$). The column proportions showed that advertisements about Consumer Services contained the marker COO Embedded in Company Name (e.g. *Nationale Nederlanden*) significantly more often (in 13.68 %) than advertisements about High-Technology Durables (0 %), Low-Technology Durables (2.08 %) and Personal Nondurables (2.13 %). The other product categories did not significantly differ with regard to the use of the marker COO Embedded in Company Name.

There was also a significant relation between Product Category and Use of Typical COO Words Embedded in Company Name ($p = .007$). All Product Categories significantly differed from each other in terms of the use of Typical COO Words Embedded in Company Name (e.g. *Hyundai*). Advertisements about High-Technology Durables most often contained this marker (77.78 %),

followed by Low-Technology durables (64.58 %), Consumer Services (58.95), Food Nondurables (44.44 %), Household Nondurables (38.89 %) and Personal Durables (35.89 %).

No significant relation was found between Product Category and COO Embedded in Bodycopy and/or Voice-over (i.e. the name of a country, city or region in any vocal or linguistic element of the advertisement, $p = .377$).

A significant relation was found between Product Category and Use of Famous or Stereotypical People from COO ($p < .001$). Advertisements about Food Nondurables made significantly more use of Famous or Stereotypical People from COO (e.g. actors in *Lederhosen* in *Almhof* advertisements, 44.44 %) than any other product category. Furthermore, Consumer Service advertisements (28.42 %) made significantly more use of this marker than did Low-Technology Durables (12.5 %).

Also, a significant relation was found between Product Category and Use of COO flags and/or Symbols (e.g. shape of The Netherlands in *Hema* advertisements, $p < .001$). Advertisements about Personal Nondurables (8.33 %) significantly less often made use of this marker than did advertisements about Food Nondurables (40.74 %), Low- and High Technology Durables (25 %) and Consumer Services (36.84 %). Besides, Household Nondurables (5.56 %) significantly less often contained COO Flags and/or Symbols than did Consumer Services (36.84 %) and Food Nondurables (40.74 %).

Another significant relation was found between Product Category and Use of COO Landscapes and/or Buildings (e.g. typical Dutch facades in *Vereniging Eigen Huis* advertisements, $p = .011$). Advertisements about Food Nondurables (33.33 %) made significantly more use of this marker than did advertisements about Personal Nondurables (14.58 %) and Low-Tech Durables (12.5 %). Television advertisements about High-Technology Durables (33.33 %) significantly more often contained Typical COO Landscapes and/or Buildings than did advertisements about Personal Nondurables (14.58 %). Advertisements about Low-Technology Durables significantly less often contained this marker than did advertisements about High-Technology Durables and Consumer Services (30.52 %).

Furthermore, a significant relation was found between Product Category and Use of Typical COO Music ($p = .010$). Advertisements about Food Nondurables (17.28 %) contained significantly more Typical COO Music (e.g. American bluegrass jingle in *Ben & Jerry's* advertisements) than did advertisements about Personal Nondurables (0 %), Low-Technology Durables (4.17 %), High-Technology Durables (6.67 %) and Consumer Services (6.32 %).

Table 4: Use of COO markers by type of marker and Product Category in numbers and percentages ($N = 335$)

	Food ($n = 81$)	Personal ($n = 48$)	Household ($n = 18$)	Low-tech ($n = 48$)	High-tech ($n = 45$)	Consumer service ($n = 95$)
COO language	80 (98.77)	47 (97.92)	18 (100)	48 (100)	94 (100)	94 (98.95)
Made in statement	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (1.05)
Quality & Origin labels	4 (4.94)	2 (4.17)	0 (0)	4 (8.33)	1 (2.22)	3 (3.16)
COO embedded in name	5 (6.17)	1 (2.13)	1 (5.56)	1 (2.08)	0 (0)	13 (13.68)
Typical COO words in name	36 (44.44)	29 (35.8)	7 (38.89)	31 (64.58)	35 (77.78)	56 (58.95)
COO embedded in bodycopy	17 (20.99)	8 (16.67)	2 (11.11)	12 (25)	7 (15.56)	27 (28.42)
Famous/Stereotypical people	36 (44.44)	10 (20.83)	2 (11.11)	6 (12.5)	7 (15.56)	27 (28.42)
COO flags and/or symbols	33 (40.74)	4 (8.33)	1 (5.56)	12 (25)	11 (24.44)	35 (36.84)
COO landscapes and/or buildings	27 (33.33)	7 (14.58)	2 (11.11)	6 (12.5)	15 (33.33)	29 (30.52)
Typical COO music	14 (17.28)	0 (0)	1 (5.56)	2 (4.17)	3 (6.67)	6 (6.32)

5.2.2. Relationship Product Category and CCP indicators

Five Fisher's exact tests were performed to test relations between Product Category and each of the CCP indicators. In addition, to observe which Product Categories significantly differed in terms of use of CCP indicators, the column proportions per Product Category for each CCP indicator were compared.

A significant relation was found between Product Category and the CCP indicator Pronunciation of Brand Name ($p = .004$). The column proportions showed that advertisements about Personal Nondurables (100 %) contained the CCP indicator Pronunciation of Brand Name (e.g. clear American accent in *Basic-Fit* advertisements) significantly more often than did advertisements about Food Nondurables (86.42 %) and Consumer Services (84.21 %). Also, advertisements about Low-Technology Durables (95.83 %) contained this marker significantly more often than advertisements about Consumer Services (84.21 %).

Another significant relation was found between Product Category and the CCP indicator Symbols used and Spelling of visually displayed Brand Name (e.g. *Van Lanschot*, which is typical for the Dutch language, $p = .002$). Advertisements about Food Nondurables (50.62 %) and Household Nondurables (44.44 %) contained this indicator significantly less often than advertisements about Low- and High-Technology Durables (70.83 % and 77.78 %) and Consumer Services (73.68 %).

No significant relation was found between Product Category and the CCP indicator Symbols used for Brand Logo (e.g. the orange lion in the *ING* logo, $p = .189$). No significant relation was found

between Product Category and the CCP indicator Central Themes either (e.g. the theme of *Calvé* about the youth of Dutch football player Robin van Persie, $p = .169$).

However, there was a significant relation between Product Category and Use of Spokespersons (e.g. actors with a Mediterranean appearance in *Fiat* advertisements, $p < .001$). Advertisements about Food Nondurables (44.44 %) contained significantly more Spokespersons referring to a certain culture compared to any other product category. Besides, advertisements about Consumer Services (27.37 %) contained this indicator significantly more often than advertisements about Low-Technology Durables (10.42). Personal nondurables, Household Nondurables and High-Technology Durables contained this marker in 20.83 %, 11.11 % and 15.56 % of the advertisements, respectively.

Table 5: Use of CCP indicators by type of indicator and Product Category in numbers and percentages ($N = 335$)

	Food ($n = 81$)	Personal ($n = 48$)	Household ($n = 18$)	Low-tech ($n = 48$)	High-tech ($n = 45$)	Consumer service ($n = 95$)
Pronunciation of brand name	70 (86.42)	48 (100)	18 (100)	46 (95.83)	43 (95.56)	80 (84.21)
Symbols and spelling of brand name	41 (50.62)	28 (58.33)	8 (44.44)	34 (70.83)	35 (77.78)	70 (73.68)
Symbols used for brand logo	7 (8.64)	1 (2.08)	0 (0)	3 (6.25)	0 (0)	8 (8.42)
Central themes	32 (39.5)	12 (25)	2 (11.11)	14 (29.17)	17 (37.78)	29 (30.53)
Spokespersons	36 (44.44)	10 (20.83)	2 (11.11)	5 (10.42)	7 (15.56)	26 (27.37)

5.2.3. Relationship Product Category and CCP strategy

The relationship between Product Category and CCP strategy was tested by means of two Chi-square tests. The first Chi-square test was carried out to measure the relation between CCP Strategy and Product Category after analysis using the new proposed methodology. The second Chi-square test was carried out to measure the relation between CCP Strategy and Product Category after analysis using the method by Alden et al. (1999).

The Chi-square test for the data after analysis using the new proposed method showed no significant relation between CCP strategy and Product Category ($\chi^2 (36) = 38.22$, $p = .170$). The use of either a local, foreign, global, mixed or no CCP strategy was not related to product category when the new method was used for analysis.

The Chi-square test for the data after analysis using the method of Alden et al. (1999) showed a significant relation between CCP strategy and Product Category ($\chi^2 (25) = 43.12$, $p = .014$). To assess which product categories accounted for this relationship, column proportions per CCP strategy were calculated. These column proportions showed that advertisements about Food Nondurables and Consumer Services significantly more often contained an LCCP strategy (i.e. the advertisement contained three or more CCP indicators referring to the local culture) than Personal Nondurables. All

the other comparisons were not significant.

Chi-square tests were used to test the relationship between Product Category and CCP strategy instead of Fisher's exact tests because the column proportions could not be calculated using the latter test. As Chi-square tests are less accurate than the Fisher's exact test and because the assumption of expected cell count, which assumes that no more than 20 % of the cells should have an expected cell count of less than 5 was not met, these results should be interpreted with caution.

Table 6: Consumer Culture positioning strategies per Product Category using the new methodology as proposed in the method section ($N = 335$)

	Food nondurables ($n = 81$)	Personal Nondurables ($n = 48$)	Household Nondurables ($n = 18$)	Low-Tech Consumer durables ($n = 48$)	High-Tech Consumer durables ($n = 45$)	Consumer services ($n = 95$)	Total ($N = 335$)
None	59 (72.84)	44 (91.67)	17 (94.44)	44 (91.67)	39 (86.67)	70 (73.68)	273 (81.49)
LCCP	9 (11.11)	0 (0)	1 (5.56)	3 (6.25)	2 (4.44)	16 (16.84)	31 (10.81)
FCCP	7 (8.64)	2 (4.17)	0 (0)	1 (2.08)	2 (4.44)	4 (4.21)	16 (4.78)
GCCP	1 (1.24)	1 (2.08)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (4.44)	0 (0)	4 (1.19)
L+FCCP	4 (4.94)	1 (2.08)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (2.11)	7 (2.09)
L+GCCP	1 (1.24)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (2.11)	3 (0.90)
F+GCCP	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
L+F+GCCP	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (1.05)	1 (0.30)

Table 7: Consumer Culture positioning strategies per Product Category using the methodology as proposed by Alden et al. (1999) ($N = 335$)

	Food nondurables ($n = 81$)	Personal Nondurables ($n = 48$)	Household Nondurables ($n = 18$)	Low-Tech Consumer durables ($n = 48$)	High-Tech Consumer durables ($n = 45$)	Consumer services ($n = 95$)	Total ($N = 335$)
None	55 (67.90)	40 (83.33)	17 (94.44)	43 (89.58)	41 (91.11)	74 (77.90)	270 (80.59)
LCCP	15 (18.52)	0 (0)	1 (5.56)	3 (6.25)	1 (2.22)	17 (17.90)	37 (11.05)
FCCP	7 (8.64)	6 (12.5)	0 (0)	1 (2.08)	1 (2.22)	3 (3.16)	18 (5.37)
GCCP	3 (3.70)	2 (4.17)	0 (0)	1 (2.08)	1 (2.22)	1 (1.05)	8 (2.39)
L+FCCP	1 (1.23)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.30)
L+GCCP	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
F+GCCP	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (2.22)	0 (0)	1 (0.30)
L+F+GCCP	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)

5.3. The influence of Country of Brand

In order to answer research question 2 and sub questions 2c and 2d, the number of COO markers and CCP indicators per country of brand were counted. These frequencies are shown in Table 8 and Table 9. In addition, the number of CCP strategies per COB, using both the method as proposed by Alden et al. (1999) and the new proposed methodology, were counted. These frequencies are shown in Table 10 and Table 11. The count of these frequencies are on the basis of present/not present. Additionally, in order to answer sub question 2e, a comparison was made between COB and the country that was referred to in each advertisement. The countries of brand with less than five occurrences were removed. The following countries of brand occurred less than 5 times: Italy, Switzerland, Denmark, Cuba, Spain, Jamaica, Scotland, Sweden, South-Africa.

5.3.1. Relationship Country of Brand and COO marker

Fisher's exact tests for Country of Brand and each individual COO marker were performed to test relations between Country of Brand and each of the markers. The Fisher's exact tests for Country of Brand and Use of COO language ($p = 1.00$), Use of Made in ... Statement ($p = 1.00$), Use of Quality and/or Origin labels ($p = .557$), COO Embedded in Company Name ($p = .326$), Typical COO Words Embedded in Company Name ($p = .376$), COO Embedded in Bodycopy and/or Voice-over ($p = .389$), Use of Famous and/or Stereotypical People from COO ($p = .377$), COO Flags and/or Symbols ($p = .157$), Typical Landscapes and/buildings from COO ($p = .185$) and Use of typical COO Music ($p = .725$) were all not significant.

Table 8: Use of COO markers by type of marker and per Country of Brand in numbers and percentages ($N = 335$)

	NL ($n = 174$)	US ($n = 44$)	Germany ($n = 40$)	France ($n = 21$)	UK ($n = 16$)	Japan ($n = 8$)	South-Korea ($n = 5$)	Belgium ($n = 5$)
Use of COO language	171 (98.28)	44 (100)	40 (100)	21 (100)	16 (100)	8 (100)	5 (100)	5 (100)
Made in statement	1 (0.57)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Quality & Origin labels	6 (3.45)	0 (0)	3 (7.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (20)
COO Embedded in name	14 (8.05)	1 (2.23)	3 (7.5)	0 (0)	3 (18.75)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Typical COO Words in name	106 (60.92)	24 (54.55)	22 (55)	17 (80.95)	8 (50)	6 (75)	3 (60)	1 (20)
COO embedded in bodycopy	43 (24.71)	7 (15.91)	4 (10)	4 (19.05)	3 (18.75)	2 (25)	0 (0)	2 (40)
Famous/ Stereotypical people	50 (28.74)	12 (27.27)	10 (25)	3 (14.29)	5 (31.25)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
COO flags and/or symbols	62 (35.63)	10 (22.73)	7 (17.5)	4 (19.05)	3 (18.75)	2 (25)	2 (40)	0 (0)
COO landscapes and buildings	43 (24.71)	10 (22.73)	6 (15)	10 (47.62)	4 (25)	3 (37.5)	1 (20)	0 (0)
Typical COO music	15 (8.62)	6 (13.64)	3 (4.76)	1 (4.76)	0 (0)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)

5.3.2. Relationship Country of Brand and CCP indicator

Five Fisher's exact tests for Country of Brand and each of the CCP indicators were performed to test relations between Country of Brand and each of the indicators. The Fisher's exact tests for Country of Brand and Pronunciation of Brand Name ($p = .264$), Symbols used and Spelling of Visually Displayed Brand Name ($p = .306$), Symbols used for Brand Logo ($p = .888$), Central Themes ($p = .172$) and Use of Typical or Famous Spokespersons ($p = .504$) were all not significant.

Table 9: Use of CCP indicators by type of indicator and Country of Brand in numbers and percentages (N = 335)

	NL (n = 174)	US (n = 44)	France (n = 40)	Germany (n = 21)	UK (n = 16)	Japan (n = 8)	South-Korea (n = 5)	Belgium (n = 5)
Pronunciation of brand name	159 (91.38)	40 (90.91)	37 (92.5)	21 (100)	12 (75)	7 (87.5)	5 (100)	5 (100)
Symbols and spelling of brand name	121 (69.54)	24 (54.54)	24 (60)	17 (80.95)	12 (75)	6 (75)	3 (60)	1 (20)
Symbols used for brand logo	13 (7.47)	2 (4.54)	2 (5)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Central theme(s)	49 (28.16)	13 (29.55)	9 (22.5)	12 (57.14)	4 (25)	3 (37.5)	1 (20)	0 (0)
Spokespersons	49 (28.16)	12 (31.81)	10 (25)	2 (9.52)	4 (25)	1 (12.5)	0 (0)	0 (0)

5.3.3. Relationship between Country of Brand and CCP strategy

In order to test the relationship between Country of Brand and CCP strategy, a Chi-square test on both the data after analysis with the new method and the method of Alden et al. (1999) were performed.

The Chi-square test for CCP strategy and COB using the new proposed method was significant ($\chi^2(42) = 65.80, p = .011$). In order to identify which Countries of Brand were accountable for this relationship, the column proportions were analyzed. These showed that there was only a difference between COBs with regard to the use of FCCP and GCCP strategies. The results showed that advertisements about brands from France (14.29 %) and the United Kingdom (18.75 %) significantly more often contained an FCCP strategy than did advertisements from The Netherlands (1.15 %). In addition, advertisements about brands from Japan (12.50 %) significantly more often contained a GCCP strategy than did advertisements from The Netherlands (0 %).

The Chi-square test for CCP strategy and COB using the method of Alden et al. (1999) was also significant ($\chi^2(42) = 95.51, p < .001$). The column proportions showed that LCCP strategies were used significantly more often in advertisements about brands from The Netherlands (20.69 %) than brands from the United States (0 %). Conversely, advertisements about brands from The Netherlands (0 %) significantly less often contained an FCCP strategy than did brands from the United States (6.82 %), France (28.57 %) and the UK (18.75 %).

Chi-square tests were used to test the relationship between Product Category and CCP strategy instead of Fisher's exact tests because the column proportions could not be calculated using the latter test. As Chi-square tests are less accurate than Fisher's exact tests and because the assumption of expected cell count, which assumes that no more than 20 % of the cells should have an expected cell count of less than 5 was not met, these results should be interpreted with caution.

Table 10: Consumer Culture positioning strategies per Country of Brand using the new methodology as proposed in the method section (N = 337)

	NL (n = 174)	US (n = 44)	Germany (n = 40)	France (n = 21)	UK (n = 16)	Japan (n = 8)	South-Korea (n = 5)	Belgium (n = 5)	Total (N = 337)
None	133 (76.44)	38 (86.36)	37 (92.5)	18 (85.71)	13 (81.25)	7 (87.50)	5 (100)	5 (100)	275 (81.60)
LCCP	31 (17.82)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	31 (9.20)
FCCP	2 (1.15)	3 (6.82)	3 (7.5)	3 (14.29)	3 (18.75)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	16 (4.75)
GCCP	0 (0)	2 (4.55)	2 (5.00)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (12.50)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (1.19)
L+FCCP	5 (2.87)	1 (2.27)	1 (2.50)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	7 (2.08)
L+GCCP	2 (1.15)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (0.89)
F+GCCP	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
L+F+GCCP	1 (0.58)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.30)

Table 11: Consumer Culture positioning strategies per Country of Brand using the methodology as proposed by Alden et al. (1999) (N = 337).

	NL (n = 174)	US (n = 44)	Germany (n = 40)	France (n = 21)	UK (n = 16)	Japan (n = 8)	South-Korea (n = 5)	Belgium (n = 5)	Other (n = 24)	Total (N = 337)
None	135 (77.59)	38 (86.36)	35 (87.50)	14 (66.67)	12 (75.00)	8 (100)	5 (100)	5 (100)	19 (79.17)	271 (80.42)
LCCP	36 (20.69)	0 (0)	2 (5.00)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	38 (11.28)
FCCP	0 (0)	3 (6.82)	1 (2.50)	6 (28.57)	3 (18.75)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	5 (20.83)	18 (5.34)
GCCP	2 (1.15)	3 (6.82)	2 (5.00)	0 (0)	1 (6.25)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	8 (2.37)
L+FCCP	1 (0.58)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.30)
L+GCCP	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
F+GCCP	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (4.76)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.30)
L+F+GCCP	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)

5.3.4. Country of Brand and country referred to

In order to identify whether the countries that were referred to in the advertisements were in line with the actual Country of Brand or whether they referred to a pretended COB, a comparison was made between the countries that were referred to in advertisements about foreign brands and the actual COB of the advertised brand. This comparison showed that 75.41 % of the advertisements about

foreign brands referred to the actual COB. The culture that was most often referred to by foreign brands was the French culture. A total of 19 foreign advertisements referred to France. Of these 19 advertisements, 13 were actually for French brands. Three advertisements for German brands and three advertisements for US brands referred to France as well. A total of 14 advertisements referred to Germany. Each of these advertisements were actually for German brands. Seven advertisements referred to Japan and six of these were actually for Japanese brands. One advertisement for a US brand referred to Japan. Six advertisements referred to the United States. Five of these advertisements were actually for US brands and one of the advertisements was for a German brand. Four advertisements referred to England. For all of these advertisements the COB was England. Of the three advertisements referring to South Korea, all were actually South Korean brands. Spain was referred to in two advertisements. The advertisements that referred to Spain, however, were actually for US and German brands. The two advertisements that referred to the continent Africa were also for US and German brands. Of the two advertisements that referred to Belgium, one was actually for a Belgian brand and one was for an English brand. One advertisement referred to Italy. The brand, however, was actually from the US. Finally, one advertisement referred to Brazil. This was, however, an advertisement for a US brand.

In addition to advertisements with a foreign COB, advertisements with a Dutch COB also referred to foreign countries. Seven Dutch brands referred to the United States in their advertisement, whereas six Dutch brands referred to France. Five Dutch brands referred to Italy in their advertisements. Spain was referred to in two advertisements for a Dutch brand. Furthermore, Germany, United Kingdom, Switzerland, Belgium, the continent Africa, the continent Asia, Mexico and Portugal were referred to once in advertisements for Dutch brands.

6. Discussion & Conclusion

The present study aimed to assess the occurrence of country-of-origin markers, consumer culture positioning indicators and consumer culture positioning strategies and the factors on which these frequencies of occurrence depend. A lack of literature about the actual use of these strategies in advertising gave rise to this research topic. The two main research questions in the present study were 1.) Which choices are made in Dutch television advertising with regard to COO markers, CCP indicators and CCP strategies? and 2.) Which factors influence choices in Dutch television advertising with regard to CCP strategies? To answer these research questions, 338 television advertisements on Dutch television were analysed.

6.1.1. Frequencies of COO markers

A count of the COO markers showed that there were substantial differences in the frequency of occurrence of each marker. COO language was used in virtually all advertisements, whereas two thirds of the advertisements contained typical COO words in the brand name. COO embedded in bodycopy and/or voice-over, famous and/or stereotypical people from the COO, COO flags and/or

symbols and typical landscapes and/or famous buildings from the COO were each used in 20 to 30 percent of the advertisements. Quality and origin labels, COO embedded in the company name and typical music related to COO were observed in less than ten percent of the advertisements. Use of 'Made in ...' statement was only used once.

Aichner (2014) attempted to introduce an exhaustive list of possible COO markers. The current study, however, identified two new markers, namely typical COO music and COO embedded in bodycopy and/or voice-over. The analysis showed that both markers occurred several times. Future research should investigate whether this list of ten markers covers all possible culture-specific elements in advertisements. Furthermore, Aichner (2014) did not investigate the frequencies of COO markers. The current study did investigate these frequencies and found a contrasting result with regard to one of Aichner's claims. According to him, the 'Made in ...' statement is the most frequently used marker. The present study, however, showed that the use of this marker is very rare. Future research may investigate whether the use of 'Made in ...' statements is more common in other communication means, such as product packaging. A limitation of these findings was that the frequencies were not statistically tested as the complexity of the required statistical tests was beyond the scope of the present study. Therefore, no generalizations can be made.

6.1.2. Frequencies of CCP indicators

The count of CCP indicators showed that the indicator pronunciation of brand name occurred most often. Symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name were also used regularly. Central themes were used in a third of the advertisements and spokespersons referring to a certain culture were observed in a fourth of the advertisements. Finally, symbols used for brand logo were least often used to refer to a certain culture. These results demonstrate that there were substantial differences in frequency of occurrence of each indicator. This is similar to the results with regard to COO markers. As the frequencies of CCP indicators were not analyzed in earlier studies, the current study gives new insights about the popularity of each indicator as an instrument to position a brand. However, as the frequencies were not statistically tested, no generalizations can be made.

6.1.3. Frequencies of CCP strategies

The count of CCP strategies per consumer culture showed that the use of a CCP strategy is a common way to distinguish a brand from other brands. Although the majority of the advertisements did not contain one, a substantial number of advertisements did contain a CCP strategy. The LCCP strategy was by far the most popular strategy, followed at a distance by the FCCP strategy. Mixed strategies were also used in a number of cases. The GCCP strategy was, however, hardly used. Some of these results are in contrast with the study of Alden et al. (1999). Firstly, in Alden et al. (1999), 85.2 percent of the advertisements did contain a CCP strategy. Furthermore, a majority of the advertisements contained LCCP in Alden et al. (1999), whereas the present study indicated that only about ten percent of the advertisements contained LCCP. Besides, in contrast with the present study, mixed strategies were hardly observed and GCCP was found two times more often in Alden et al. (1999). These contrasting results may be explained by differences in the methodology and

operationalizations used in the two studies. Alden et al. (1999), for example, determined that an advertisement refers to a global consumer culture when it contained "non-local language, symbols, logo's, people and/or characters that are not clearly identifiable with a single culture or country" (D. L. Alden, personal communication, May 2, 2015). In other words, according to Alden et al. (1999), an advertisement contains GCCP if the content is not clearly referring to a local or foreign culture. The present study, however, used a different operationalization, namely: a positioning in which a brand is associated with global consumer culture. Following the operationalization of the present study, an advertisement that does not clearly refer to a local or foreign culture does not necessarily refer to a global culture. Future research should develop definitions of consumer culture positioning that are precise and that give no room for personal interpretations. Furthermore, with regard to methodology, the differences in observation of mixed strategies may be explained by the fact that the present study used a methodology that has a lower threshold for mixed strategies (i.e. if three out of ten markers refer to a consumer culture and three other markers refer to another consumer culture, it is regarded as a mixed strategy) compared to the threshold for single strategies (i.e. four out of ten markers), whereas in the method of Alden et al. (1999) the threshold was three out of five for both single and mixed CCP strategies. Another explanation for the contrasting findings is the fact that both studies were conducted in different periods of time. Marketing strategies may have been subject to change during the years between the study of Alden et al. (1999) and the present study.

The use of mixed strategies was discouraged by Alden et al. (1999), as they argued that these strategies may confuse consumers and create negative brand attitudes. However, an argument in favour of the use of a mixed strategy can be derived from Nijssen and Douglas (2011), who stated that consumers that are 'world-minded' have positive attitudes toward foreign and global consumer culture positioning strategies and negative attitudes towards local strategies, whereas 'ethnocentric' consumers develop negative attitudes towards foreign and global positioning strategies and positive attitudes towards local strategies. In this light, a mixed strategy might be an effective strategy, as it would appeal to both types of consumers. Future research should investigate the effects of mixed versus either local, foreign or global strategies among ethnocentric and world-minded audiences.

As mentioned, the present study showed that GCCP strategies were hardly observed, whereas in Alden et al. (1999) almost a quarter of the advertisements contained a GCCP strategy. The fact that GCCP hardly occurred in the present study is noteworthy as research suggests that brands with a global image benefit from consumer attributions of enhanced self-worth and status through purchase of the brand (Friedman, 1990). As Alden et al. (1999) and Friedman (1999) were published in a different period of time, the impact of a global image may have decreased since these articles were published, which may explain the contrasting findings. Again, the frequencies were not statistically tested and therefore no generalizations can be made.

6.1.4. The influence of product category

Analysis of the influence of product category showed that there was a complex relation between product category and use of COO markers. In general, advertisements about food nondurables contained more COO markers than advertisements about any other product category. Consumer

service advertisements also contained an above average number of COO markers. Advertisements about personal nondurables and household nondurables contained the least COO markers. These results indicate that the occurrence of culture-specific elements such as words relating to a culture in the company name, use of landscapes, buildings, symbols, flags, spokespersons and music is dependent on the product that is advertised. This is in line with the study of Griffin (1997), who analyzed the occurrence of English in Polish advertisements. He found that the use of English (a COO marker) differs among different product types. Neelankavil et al. (1995), who studied the appearance of language choice and use of models with either a Western or Asian appearance in Asian advertisements, also found that the use of culture-specific elements in advertisements was affected by product type. Their results suggested that personal nondurables were more likely to contain Caucasian models and a Western language than advertisements about other product types. The current study, however, found that personal nondurables contained a relatively low number of culture-specific elements. This may indicate that the influence of product categories on the use of COO markers differs among cultures. A replication of the present study in different cultures would allow for a cross-cultural comparison of the use of the full spectrum of COO markers.

With regard to CCP indicators, consumer service advertisements contained more indicators than other product categories, whereas advertisements about household nondurables contained fewer indicators than other products. These results indicate that the use of CCP indicators depends on product type. Although Alden et al. (1999) analyzed the use of CCP strategies per product category, they did not compare the use of CCP indicators per product category. The present study therefore gives new insights into the use of CCP indicators per product category. The findings with regard to the relation between COO markers and product category showed a similar pattern. However, the analysis of the COO markers showed more differences between product types than the analysis of the CCP indicators. An explanation for this difference is that the analysis through observation of COO markers is a more fine-grained method as it encompasses ten elements instead of five. Comparison of these methods in future research investigating cultural elements in advertising may determine which method would be more precise.

The present study also found that product categories differed with regard to the use of CCP strategies. In other words, whether a brand uses a strategy to refer to the local culture, a specific foreign culture, a global culture or a mixed culture depended on the product category. Specifically, food nondurable brands and consumer service brands used a local strategy more often than did personal nondurable brands. The other product categories did not differ with regard to the use of consumer culture positioning strategies. An explanation for this finding is that the advertisements about food nondurables and consumer services in the present study were more often for local brands compared to advertisements about personal nondurables, which were more often for foreign brands. Alden et al. (1999) also found that product categories differed with regard to the use of CCP strategies. However, their results indicated that goods used relatively less LCCP compared to services, which is not in line with the present results. Besides, in Alden et al. (1999) GCCP was used more often in advertisements about high-tech consumer durables compared to advertisements about food products, household products, personal care products and low-tech durable consumer products.

Food products made least often use of GCCP in Alden et al. (1999).

The difference between the use of CCP strategies among product categories in the current study was only present when the advertisements were analyzed with the method as proposed by Alden et al. (1999) and not when analyzed using the new method. It is therefore unclear whether product category has an influence on the use of CCP strategies. Future research should investigate whether product category has an influence on the use of CCP strategies.

6.1.5. The influence of country of brand

The current study found no relationship between origin of the brand and use of COO markers and CCP indicators. None of the countries of brand differed with regard to the use of COO markers and CCP indicators. This indicates that the origin of a brand does not affect the use of culture-specific elements in advertisements. This is a remarkable finding as previous studies suggested that some brands may be less likely to refer to their own country because of a potentially negative image of the country of origin in the eyes of the target consumers (Aichner, 2014; Griffin, 1997; Hornikx et al., 2013). This, however, could be explained by the fact that the large majority of the advertisements that were analyzed in the present study originated from developed countries, which are perceived to have a favourable country image among Dutch consumers. The small number of brands from developing countries in the present study suggests that advertisements about brands from these type of countries are rare on Dutch television.

The direction of the consumer culture positioning strategy (i.e. whether they referred to a local, foreign, global or mixed strategy) did differ significantly among different countries of brand. The results showed that brands from France, the United Kingdom and the US used a foreign strategy more often compared to The Netherlands. In contrast, Dutch brands used a local strategy more often than did brands from the United States. Both the analyses using the new method and the method of Alden et al. (1999) showed similar results in this respect. Furthermore, the foreign brands that used a foreign positioning referred to their own country in the majority of the cases. In other words, the positioning was generally in line with the actual country of brand (e.g. a French brand positioned as a French brand). This finding indicates that it is not common to use a strategy in which the advertisers make a product appear from a different country than it actually does. This is in contrast with previous studies, which suggested that this could be an effective positioning strategy when the pretended country of origin has a more favourable image than the actual country of origin (e.g. Aichner, 2014; Hornikx et al. 2013). Again, the fact that there were no significant differences among foreign brands with regard to the use of CCP strategies might be a result of the lack of advertisements about brands from less developed countries.

6.1.6. New method for analysis of consumer culture positioning strategies

The current study introduced a new methodology for analyzing the occurrence of consumer culture positioning strategies in advertisements. This new methodology is partially based on studies by Aichner (2014) and Alden et al. (1999) and serves as a tool to make more in-depth observations of the use of CCP strategies in advertising as the methodology that was introduced by Alden et al. (1999) did

not measure the full spectrum of possible cultural elements in advertisements and lacked clear operationalizations of each CCP strategy. The new methodology contains ten items to measure cultural elements in advertisements and is therefore more detailed than the methodology of Alden et al. (1999), which contains only five items. The new methodology may help researchers studying the topic of consumer culture positioning and country of origin strategies to perform more precise analyses. The full explanation of the new methodology can be found in the methodology section and in Appendix C. Although this new methodology is based on a thorough literature study and analysis of a number of 338 advertisements, the preciseness of this method should be assessed by other researchers to be accepted as a tool for measuring CCP strategies. Future research on CCP strategies using this method as a tool for the analysis of advertisements in a diversity of countries with different cultural, social, economic and political characteristics is therefore required.

A comparison between the results after analysis with the new method and the method of Alden et al. (1999) showed several differences. Analysis of the advertisement with the new method resulted in a higher number of mixed CCP strategies. An explanation may be the fact that the new methodology used a lower threshold for mixed strategies (i.e. three out of ten) compared to the threshold for single strategies (i.e. four out of ten), whereas Alden et al. (1999) used a threshold that was three out of five in both cases. Another difference between the results after analysis with the new method and the method of Alden et al. (1999) is the number of observed GCCP strategies. GCCP strategies were observed less often in the new methodology. This difference may be explained by differences in methodology and operationalizations of GCCP strategies in the two studies. Future research should assess which methodology and which operationalization is more precise with regard to the analysis of CCP strategies.

6.2. Practical implications

There are several ways practitioners could use the results of the current study. The results may be used by companies as an example for determining their marketing strategy. The present results indicate that when using a CCP strategy to position a brand, advertisements should contain at least four markers to make the CCP strategy apparent. It is recommended that marketers use the threshold of four markers to evaluate their advertisements. Besides, the results indicate that the culture that is referred to should be in accordance with the actual origin of the brand. The majority of the foreign brands on Dutch television refer to their own country, which suggests that this is perceived as the most effective strategy by marketers. These strategic decisions would be recommended in particular for brands of food products and consumer services, as advertisers of these product categories have been shown to use CCP strategies most often. Another potentially effective, but also more risky strategy is using the results of the present study to distinguish a brand from other brands by going against the most common strategic decisions. In general, positioning a brand as reflecting a global consumer culture would be most likely to be distinctive from other positioning strategies, as this is the least frequently used CCP strategy.

Another possibly effective positioning strategy could be a mixed one. According to Alden et al. (1999), this would lead to confusion among the target group. However, an argument in favour of a

mixed strategy may be made on the basis of the study of Nijssen and Douglas (2011), who found that people that are predominantly ethnocentric have more positive attitudes towards LCCP, whereas people that are predominantly world-minded have more positive attitudes towards GCCP and FCCP. This would indicate that it is effective to use a mixed strategy in order to make advertisements appealing to both consumer groups.

6.3. Contribution to theory

Although Alden et al. (1999), Gerritsen et al. (2007), Griffin (1997) and Neelankavil et al. (1995) investigated the occurrence of a number of culture-specific elements in advertising, the present study is the first study that investigated the occurrence of the full range of possible culture-specific elements in advertisements. The results demonstrate that the list of markers to communicate the country of origin of a brand, introduced by Aichner (2014), may also be used to position a brand as a local, foreign or global brand. In addition, the markers typical COO music and the COO embedded in slogan, bodycopy and/or voice-over were added to this list, resulting in an exhaustive list of possible culture-specific elements. The present study shows that certain culture-specific elements are used more often than others. For example the use of language to refer to a certain culture is used frequently, whereas 'made in ...' statements are hardly used.

Neelankavil et al. (1995) investigated the influence of product category on language choice and use of models in Asian countries (both culture-specific elements). The present study, however, investigated the influence of product category on all possible culture-specific elements in advertisements and shows that advertisements about food nondurables and consumer services contain more elements to refer to a certain culture compared to other product categories.

The present study, in addition, confirms the results in Alden et al. (1999), which indicated that the use of consumer culture positioning strategies is a common advertising strategy. Alden's (1999) study suggested that the large majority of advertisements contains a consumer culture positioning strategy. The present study, however, demonstrates that only a fifth of the advertisements on Dutch television contains this strategy. Of the advertisements that contain a CCP strategy, LCCP is used most often. It can therefore be concluded that LCCP is the most common CCP strategy in advertisements on Dutch television. FCCP is also frequently used. Mixed strategies occur occasionally as well. However, the use of global consumer culture positioning is rare. The present study also shows that the country that is referred to in advertisements is generally in line with the actual origin of the brand. Although Aichner (2014) and Hornikx et al. (2013) argued that it may be effective for companies to use positioning strategies in which they make a product appear to originate from another country than it actually does, the present study shows that this is not a common strategy.

As the current study involved television advertisements in the Netherlands, the findings may be similar in other countries that have populations with an above average knowledge of different cultures and languages, such as other countries in Europe. Future research should determine whether the present findings are similar in these countries.

Additionally, the current study introduced a new methodology for the analysis of consumer culture positioning strategies in advertising. This methodology serves as a tool to make in-depth

observations of the use of these strategies. It is based on ten markers that measure the full range of possible culture-specific elements and is therefore more in-depth than the methodology of Alden et al. (1999), which contains only five items. This new methodology may be used in future research to make more precise analyses of the occurrence of CCP strategies in countries throughout the world.

The findings in the present study can help scholars and practitioners in the field of international marketing to identify CCP strategies and the factors on which these strategic choices depend. In addition, the introduction of a new methodology allows for more detailed analysis of CCP strategies and serves as a starting point for comparison of the use of CCP strategies across cultures.

6.4. Limitations

A limitation of the present study was the fact that the interrater reliability for three of the COO markers and two of the CCP indicators was insufficient, implying that the interpretation was dependent on the coder. Future content analyses on the topic of consumer culture positioning should develop an operationalization with less room for personal interpretation. Another limitation was the sample size. Although the current analysis involved 42 hours of broadcasting time, the high number of repeated advertisements and the low percentage of broadcasting time for advertisements in relation to the total broadcasting time led to a sample size of 338 different advertisements. The use of a larger sample in future research would allow for more compelling generalizations. Besides, as the present study only involved advertisements on Dutch television, generalizations to other countries with similar cultural characteristics, such as other European countries cannot be made. A replication of the same analysis in different countries would allow for a comparison of the results between countries throughout the world.

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Appendix A: Overview of selected broadcasting channels

Broadcasting Channel	Market share regarding viewing rates in percentages	Target audience
NPO 1	20.7	unknown
RTL 4	18.2	20 - 49 years old
NPO 3	7.4	20 - 34 years old
SBS 6	7.2	Families, 20 - 54 years old
RTL 7	6.3	Males, 20 - 49 years old
RTL 5	5.0	20 - 34 years old
NET 5	3.8	Females, 20 - 54 years old

Source: *Stichting Kijkonderzoek (2014)*

Appendix B: Coding scheme

Before analysis

Coder ID

- 0.) Coder 1
- 1.) Coder 2

First occurrence of advertisement?

- 0.) Yes
- 1.) No (remove advertisement from sample)

Actual analysis

A. Brand name

- 1.)

B. Product description

- 1.)

C. Product category

- 0.) Food nondurables
- 1.) Personal nondurables
- 2.) Household nondurables
- 3.) Lower-technology consumer durables
- 4.) Higher-technology durables
- 5.) consumer services
- 6.) Business goods
- 7.) Business services
- 8.) Other
- 99.) Unable to determine

COO markers

D. Which COO marker(s) is/are and which consumer culture is referred to?

a.) Use of COO language

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

b.) 'Made in ...' statement

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP

- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

c.) Quality and origin labels

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

d.) COO embedded in company name

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

e.) Typical COO words embedded in company name

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

f.) COO embedded in bodycopy or slogan

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

g.) Use of famous/stereotypical people from COO

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP

- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

h.) Use of COO flags and/or symbols

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

i.) Use of typical landscapes or famous buildings from COO

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

j.) Use of typical music related to COO

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

E. Which culture(s) is/are referred to? *Only if FCCP is observed*

- 0.) NL
- 1.) US
- 2.) Germany
- 3.) France
- 4.) UK
- 5.) Japan
- 6.) South-Korea
- 7.) Italy
- 8.) Switzerland
- 9.) Belgium
- 10.) EU
- 11.) Denmark
- 12.) Cuba

- 13.) Spain
- 14.) Jamaica
- 15.) Scotland
- 16.) Sweden
- 17.) South-Africa
- 18.) Africa
- 19.) Scandinavia
- 20.) Asia
- 21.) Mexico
- 22.) Portugal
- 23.) Brasil
- 99.) Not applicable

CCP indicators

F. Which CCP indicator(s) is/are present and which consumer culture is referred to?

a.) Pronunciation of brand name

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

b.) Symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

c.) Symbols used for brand logo

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

d.) Central themes

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP

- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

e.) Appearance of spokesperson(s)

- 0.) Not present
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

G. Which CCP is reflected? (applies when 3 or more indicators of either LCC, FCC or GCC are present)

- 0.) None
- 1.) LCCP
- 2.) FCCP
- 3.) GCCP
- 4.) mixed LCCP + FCCP
- 5.) mixed LCCP + GCCP
- 6.) mixed FCCP + GCCP
- 7.) mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP
- 99.) Unable to determine

H. Were the COO markers/CCP indicators accompanied by humor? (only when 3 or more indicators of a certain CCP)

- 0.) No, no humor was used
- 1.) Yes, they were displayed in a humorous setting
- 99.) Unable to determine

I. Were the COO markers/CCP indicators accompanied by exaggerated stereotypes? (only when 3 or more indicators of a certain CCP)

- 0.) No
- 1.) Yes
- 99.) Unable to determine

Desk research

J. What is the COB of the brand?

- 0.) NL
- 1.) US
- 2.) Germany
- 3.) France
- 4.) UK
- 5.) Japan
- 6.) South-Korea
- 7.) Italy

- 8.) Switzerland
- 9.) Belgium
- 10.) EU
- 11.) Denmark
- 12.) Cuba
- 13.) Spain
- 14.) Jamaica
- 15.) Scotland
- 16.) Sweden
- 17.) South-Africa
- 18.) Africa
- 19.) Scandinavia
- 20.) Asia
- 21.) Mexico
- 22.) Portugal
- 23.) Brazil
- 99.) Not applicable

K. COB in line with communicated country? (applies only if COO and/or LCCP and/or FCCP is used)

- 0.) Yes
- 1.) No
- 99.) Unable to determine

Appendix C: Operationalization of coding scheme

Product categories

0.) *Food nondurables*

-> Goods that people eat, that do not last for a long time and that are bought often (e.g. fruit, vegetables, coffee, chocolate sprinkles, burritos).

1.) *Personal nondurables*

-> Goods that people use to look after their bodies, that do not last for a long time and that are bought often (e.g. shampoo, makeup, toothpaste, deodorant).

2.) *Household nondurables*

-> Goods that are used in houses or gardens that do not last for a long time and that are bought often. Also non-food baby care and pet food and care. (e.g. laundry detergent, all-purpose cleaners, pampers, anti-tick medicines).

3.) *Lower-technology consumer durables*

-> Goods that are less advanced, less technologically developed or relatively unsophisticated and that last a long time and are not intended to be bought very often (e.g. chair, book, simple clock).

4.) *Higher-technology durables*

-> Goods that involves the most modern or advanced methods (e.g. car, phone, electronic notebook, sophisticated watch, kitchen)

5.) *consumer services*

-> Services provided to consumers by companies (e.g. mortgage, hotel, job recruitment)

6.) *Business goods*

-> Goods that are provided to companies (e.g. office supplies, hospitality industry supplies, handbook for international entrepreneurs)

7.) *Business services*

-> Services provided to companies (e.g. telephone subscription for businesses, intranet, advice for international entrepreneurs, webshop consultancy)

COO markers

a.) *Use of COO language*

-> The use of the COO language in any textual element in an advertisement or the use of an accent that is typical for the speakers of a language in a certain culture (e.g. créative technologie in Citroën ads is FCCP; A Dutch speaking voice-over is LCCP; English is FCCP if it is clearly American, British or Australian English, otherwise it is GCCP).

b.) *'Made in ...' statement*

-> The COO is mentioned explicitly through the statement 'Made in ...' (or 'established in ...', 'developed in...', 'original product from ..') followed by a country or region or the word 'world'.

c.) *Quality and origin labels*

-> Quality and origin labels may be implemented in an advertisement if an international, national or regional government or a public or private corporation has awarded a brand, based

on certain criteria. A label reflects CCP if it is an officially registered label and it refers to a certain country, culture, region or global reach.

d.) COO embedded in company name

-> The COO is embedded directly in the company name. This can be the name of the country, a region, a city, the word 'world' or any related modification, for example adjectives.

e.) Typical COO words embedded in company name

-> The use of stereotypical names (e.g. first or second names) and/or elements (e.g. a country-specific animal) in the company name. The word may actually mean something but it may also be a made-up word.

f.) COO embedded in body copy, slogan or voice-over

-> The COO is embedded directly in the spoken or written text in the advertisement. This can be the name of the country, a region a city, the word 'world' or any related modification, for example adjectives (e.g. 'De nr. 1 van Nederland' = LCCP; also 'wereld', 'world', 'global', 'earth' = GCCP)

g.) Use of famous/stereotypical people from COO

-> The use of famous or stereotypical people from the COO in advertisements. Stereotypical persons are persons who possess characteristics such as looks, behaviours and clothes that are typical for the COO (If the character does not clearly represent a culture but is known worldwide, it is GCCP).

h.) Use of COO flags and/or symbols

-> The use of official flags, emblems, symbols and other national elements (e.g. German *bratwurst*, Italians pizzas, German *lederhose*, British humor, and Dutch parsimony).

i.) Use of typical landscapes or famous buildings from COO

-> The use of buildings and landscapes that are typical or known to belong to a certain COO (Skyline of a unspecified metropole or several landscapes from different countries indicates GCCP).

j.) Use of typical music related to COO

-> The use of music associated with the COO. These associations may be based on the language, the lyrics, the artist or the genre of the song (e.g. samba for Brasil).

CCP strategies

a.) LCCP

-> LCCP is a strategy in which a brand is associated with local meanings, reflects the local culture's norms and identities, is portrayed as consumed by local people in the national culture, and/or is depicted as locally produced for local people.

b.) FCCP

-> FCCP is defined as a strategy that positions the brand as symbolic of a specific foreign consumer culture; that is, a brand whose personality, use occasion, and/or user group are associated with a foreign culture.

c.) GCCP

-> GCCP is defined as a strategy in which a brand is associated with global consumer culture. Global consumer culture (GCC) is defined as a shared set of consumption-related symbols

and behaviours (e.g. product categories, brands, consumption activities) that are commonly understood but not necessarily shared by consumers and businesses around the world (Akaka & Alden, 2010; Alden et al., 1999).

CCP indicators

a.) Pronunciation of brand name

-> The use of pronunciation of the brand name with an accent that is typical for speakers of a certain language, spoken in a specific culture (e.g. the pronunciation of *Lancôme* with a strong French accent is FCCP; English pronunciation is FCCP if it is a clearly American, British or Australian English accent, otherwise it is GCCP).

b.) Symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name

-> The use of an alphabet, a certain word or a combination of words in the brand name that is associated with a certain culture. The brand name may be an existing or non-existing word, as long as it is related to a specific culture (e.g. the spelling of the brand name Paturain is typical for the French language: FCCP).

c.) Symbols used for brand logo

The use of a brand logo that is symbolic for a certain culture through its shape, colours, symbol(s), visuals, alphabet or word(s). (e.g. the use of a Chinese calligraphy stroke in the logo of Cathay Pacific is FCCP; the use of blue and yellow in the logo of Ikea is FCCP).

d.) Central themes

-> The main subject that is described in the ad through the use of a narrative, symbols, landscapes, visuals, texts, spokesperson(s) or other thematic signs (e.g. the purple cow in the Alps for Milka is FCCP; persons riding bikes for several daily activities for Gazelle is LCCP from a Dutch perspective; businessperson traveling the world for Toshiba is GCCP).

e.) Appearance of spokesperson(s)

-> The use of famous or stereotypical models that are associated with a certain culture through their origin, country of residence, their profession, their appearance, their behaviour or other characteristics (e.g. Michael Jordan for Nike is GCCP, Pierce Brosnan for Omega is GCCP, German engineer for Audi is FCCP).

CCP reflected

-> A CCP is reflected if at least 3 of the 5 indicators of the same consumer culture are observed in an advertisement. If an advertisement contains at least 3 out of 5 indicators of more than one consumer culture, the ad reflects a mixed strategy.

COB

-> Country of brand (COB) is the country in which the brand was actually founded (Vianelli and Marzano, 2012).

