Country image in advertising across European countries

*A corpus analysis of consumer culture positioning and COO markers
in France, Germany, Italy and Spain*

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Cover image (edited): printed medium advertisement of Dolce & Gabbana, published in France.

Abstract

Effective brand positioning is becoming increasingly important within today's international business world. Brands can position themselves as part of a global segment in order to obtain an international character, or they can profit from positive stereotypes of a country by promoting the country-of-origin (COO) of the brand or its products in terms of specific local or foreign cultural attributes. Previous literature has claimed that the occurrence of a number of these strategies differs across product categories and across countries (Aichner, 2014; Alden, Steenkamp & Batra, 1999; Neelankavil, Mummalaneni & Sessions, 1995). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine whether differences exist between different product categories and between countries in how brands are positioned in print medium advertisement (global, local or foreign) and how COO markers are manifested. In total, 1,863 advertisements from France, Germany, Italy and Spain were examined based on the consumer culture positioning strategies (local, foreign, global) and COO markers used. The findings indicated that consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers were indeed used differently across product categories and across countries. Overall, local consumer culture positioning (LCCP) was used more frequently in France than in the three other countries, and foreign consumer culture positioning (FCCP) was used more frequently in Germany and Spain than in France. In addition, FCCP was used more frequently for food products than for other product categories. Overall, this study has yielded insights into the actual use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers and it has shown how these strategies are used across product categories and across countries. Additionally, three new COO markers have been identified, namely the COO in the body copy, the COO written near the brand name and COO words in the product name. It appeared that these strategies occurred regularly.

1. Introduction

Due to globalisation and the increase of global communication through mass media, several studies stress the growth of a global consumer: a member of a global culture, which is based on universal perceptions, behaviours, preferences or lifestyles (Alden et al., 1999; Becker-Olsen, Taylor, Hill, & Yalcinkaya, 2011; Caudle, 1994; Cayla & Arnould, 2008; Domzal & Unger, 1987; Elinder, 1965; Fatt, 1967; Martin, 2006; Okazaki, Mueller & Taylor, 2010a). As a result, brands may use commonly understood symbols or gestures in their advertisements in order to reinforce their relation with certain social groups that are represented all over the world, such as cosmopolitans, business people and teens (Akaka & Alden, 2010; Alden, et al., 1999; Becker-Olsen et al., 2011). Such a modern, cosmopolitan image is claimed to create a powerful brand (Kampferer, 2012; Shocker, Srivastava & Ruekert, 1994).

As opposed to the global culture that is described in literature, other research underlines the growing interest in promoting the country-of-origin (COO) of products in terms of specific local or foreign cultural attributes (Alden et al., 1999; Nijssen & Douglas, 2011). Previous studies have indicated that the product's COO is an important informational cue in consumers' product evaluation: as a result of favourable associations consumers have with a country or culture, international companies can benefit from revealing the product's country-of-origin in their advertisements (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1999; Aichner, 2014; Domzal, Hunt & Kernan, 1995; Gerritsen, Nickerson, Van Hooft, Van Meurs, Nederstigt, Starren, & Crijns, 2007; Hornikx, Van Meurs & Hof, 2013; Leclerc, Schmitt & Dubé, 1994; Maheswaran, 1994; Niss, 1996). In other words, by using COO as an attribute, advertisers hope to profit from the positive perceptions of a country's reputation regarding the quality of certain products (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1999; Aichner, 2014; Hornik, Van Meurs & Starren, 2007; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007). Such a positive country image is crucial for advertisers when dealing with consumer culture positioning or COO strategies, since overall consumers are willing to spend more money on products when the image of the COO is favourable (Aichner, 2014).

There has been an extensive amount of research on the effects of COO on consumers' product evaluation. For instance, several studies have underlined the positive impact of COO on the consumer's product and brand evaluation and on their buying decisions (Aichner, 2014; Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Han, 1989; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007). Other studies suggest that COO perceptions might be affected by the level of consumers' familiarity with products and countries (Usunier & Cestre, 2007), consumers' level of expertise (Han, 1989; Maheswaran, 1994) or other attributes, such as history, traditions, economy and

political background (Nagashima, 1970). Based on previous research, it seems that COO has a significant influence on consumers perceptions. However, taking into account that consumers can also evaluate products and brands by other extrinsic values (e.g. price and brand name) and by their intrinsic values (e.g. quality, taste and appearance) (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1999; Ahmed, Johnson, Yang, Kheng Fatt, Sack Teng, & Chee Boon, 2004; Aichner, 2014; Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Han & Terpstra, 1988; Lim, Darley & Summers, 1994; Niss, 1996; Pharr, 2005; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Srinivasan, Jain & Sikand, 2004; Usunier & Cestre, 2007), the value of COO seems limited. This may imply that COO does not occur frequently in advertisements. Nonetheless, such statements cannot be made, since there is as yet no research providing information about the actual use of COO strategies. In addition, research into COO effects has focused on only a few COO strategies (i.e. 'made in' statements, use of language and brand names), while it is not yet proven that these strategies occur (most) often in advertisements.

Generally, two concepts exist that describe and categorise the use of cultural attributes in advertising, namely consumer culture positioning and country-of-origin. Despite the growing attention for consumers' perceptions about global, local and foreign branding, little is known about how specific strategies are manifested in print medium advertisements. Previous literature has claimed that the occurrence of these strategies differs across product categories and across countries (Aichner, 2014; Alden et al., 1999; Neelankavil et al., 1995). However, these conclusions were based on only a limited number of strategies. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine whether differences exist between different product categories and between countries in how brands are positioned in print medium advertisement (global, local or foreign) and how COO markers are manifested.

2. Literature review

2.1. Consumer culture positioning (local, foreign and global)

Due to globalisation, the idea has arisen that consumers are feeling connected with one global consumer culture (Alden et al., 1999; Cayla & Arnould, 2008; Elinder, 1965; Fatt, 1967; Okazaki, Mueller & Taylor, 2010a). In addition, there is a growing association of cosmopolitanism and modernity with certain product categories (Alden et al., 1999). This has resulted in the concept of global branding by MNCs, a strategy that Alden et al. (1999) label as "global consumer culture positioning" (GCCP). GCCP is used by brands, both national and international, in order to associate with a global culture and to strengthen their power and value (Alden et al., 1999; Kapferer, 2012; Okazaki et al., 2010a). Such a global culture can,

for example, be expressed through multiracial people or images from different parts of the world (see Appendices A.1 and A.2) (Alden et al., 1999; Martin, 2006). Despite the growing attention for global campaigns, which has the advantage of building economies of scale and scope (Backhaus, Muhlfeld & Van Doorn, 2001; Domzal & Unger, 1987; Sandler & Shani, 1992; Zou & Cavusgil, 2002) and projecting a consistent brand image (Backhaus et al., 2001; Morimoto, & Chang, 2009; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008), advertisers may also profit from adapting their branding techniques to the local consumers' perceptions about cultures in relation to the product and the brand (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1999; Aichner, 2014; Gerritsen et al., 2007; Domzal et al., 1995; Hornikx et al., 2013; Maheswaran, 1994; Martin, 2006; Niss, 1996; Okazaki et al., 2010a). To illustrate, in 2014 Dolce & Gabbana adapted the themes of their campaigns for the French and the German market (see Figure A.3 and A.4 in Appendix A). Figure A.3 shows the advertisement published in France, expressing a typical French theme with baguettes, berets and typical gestures. Since this ad refers to the local culture of the target group, it can be categorised as a local consumer culture positioning strategy (Alden et al., 1999; Okazaki et al., 2010a). Figure A.4, on the other hand, shows the advertisement published in Germany, expressing an Italian theme through typical gestures and food. Since this ad refers to a foreign culture from the target group's perspective, it can be categorised as a foreign consumer culture positioning strategy (Alden et al., 1999; Okazaki et al., 2010a). This example shows that brands can adapt consumer culture positioning strategies, depending on the country in which the advertisement is published (Alden et al., 1999; Neelankavil et al., 1995).

In their research into consumer culture positioning in television commercials, Alden et al. (1999) found that LCCP (59%) was overall used more often in advertisements than GCCP (22.4%), leaving FCCP (3.8%) as the least frequently used positioning type. It should also be underlined that in 14.8% of the advertisements no dominant consumer culture positioning strategy was used, which means that brands do not always use a dominant positioning strategy in their advertisements. Since their research was based upon television commercials only, no conclusions can be made about consumer culture positioning in print medium advertisements. After all, television commercials provide more possibilities than print medium advertisements, such as showing movement and multiple scenes, playing music and using a voice over. In fact, in order to determine whether an advertisement was positioned as local, foreign, global or as no dominant consumer culture positioning, Alden et al. (1999) used five indicators, namely a spokesperson's appearance, the theme (e.g. national/ local symbols and landscapes), the visual display of the brand name, the brand logo design and the pronunciation

of the brand name. These indicators all contain either language, aesthetic styles or story themes, which are, according to the authors, central components of a cultural symbol. With respect to this coding method, pronunciation cannot be used in print medium advertisements, which means that strategies might be used differently in print medium advertisement as opposed to television commercials, regarding consumer culture positioning.

In addition, Alden et al. (1999) did not categorise hybrid forms of consumer culture positioning, such as a mix of both local and foreign consumer culture positioning. To illustrate, the brand name of a Spanish warehouse, called 'El corte Ingles' (translated as 'the English cut') refers to both Spain (through the language that is used) and England (through the reference of the word 'Ingles'). This means that certain indicators can carry out multiple consumer culture positioning strategies. These mixed strategies are meaningful to include in research, since they give a more detailed insight into how cultural indicators are used in order to carry out certain consumer culture positioning strategies.

2.2. Country-of-origin strategies

Whereas certain authors have focused on the distinction between GCCP, LCCP and FCCP (Alden et al., 1999; Becker-Olsen et al., 2011; Okazaki et al., 2010a), others have focused on the concept of country-of-origin (COO) (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1999; Aichner, 2014; Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Han, 1989; Han & Terpstra, 1988; Maheswaran, 1994; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Usunier & Cestre, 2007). It appears that the idea of these two approaches are corresponding, since they both aim to make use of positive cultural stereotypes. However, it seems that consumer culture positioning is a somewhat broader concept than COO. More specifically, whereas consumer culture positioning only focuses on three categorisations (global, local or foreign), COO focuses on the specific country that is positioned by means of certain strategies. It could be argued that COO is more related to LCCP and FCCP (as opposed to GCCP), because they all focus on a specific culture. However, since the categorisation of GCCP is also based on certain (COO) strategies (Alden et al., 1999), the present study also puts GCCP in relation to COO markers.

There are different ways of communicating the COO of a brand or product to consumers. As was mentioned in the previous section, Alden et al. (1999) based their categorisation of GCCP, LCCP and FCCP on several advertising strategies, which were used as a research instrument rather than a research goal. This means that they have not investigated to what extent these strategies occur per advertisement. In this study, the actual

frequencies of several COO markers are investigated on the basis of the markers described by Aichner (2014), which is, to date, the only study that has made an overview of different COO markers (see Table 1). These strategies will be described in this section.

Previous research has mainly focused on the use of a foreign language in advertisements. Particularly, European languages such as French, German, Italian and Spanish, are often used in product advertisements for symbolic reasons and for the ethno-cultural stereotypes they evoke (Gerritsen et al., 2007; Hornikx et al., 2013; Hornikx, Van Meurs & Starren, 2005; Piller, 2001). This can be illustrated by the study of Haarmann (1989), who found that European languages, such as English, French, German and Spanish were frequently used in Japanese advertisements, depending on the advertised product type. He concluded from his findings that these European languages are most likely used for symbolic reasons, since Japanese people generally do not speak or understand these languages (Haarmann, 1989). Therefore it can be stated that language is not only employed as a functional attribute; sometimes the symbolic associations that consumers have with a language are more important than the actual meaning of the words (Caudle, 1994; Haarmann, 1989; Hornikx et al., 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2005). English, however, is argued to be used to express modernisation, cosmopolitanism and youth rather than evoking associations of an English speaking country (Alden et al., 1999; Gerritsen et al., 2007; Piller, 2003; Ray, Ryder & Scott, 1994). This implies that English may be found more often in GCCP advertisements than in LCCP and FCCP advertisements.

Apart from foreign language, Aichner (2014) has described seven other strategies. First of all, companies may use a 'made in' statement in their advertisement (e.g. 'Made in Germany'). This way a brand can explicitly communicate the origin of a certain product. These statements can be found in a textual part of the ad or as independent statements at any place in the ad, as in the advertisement of *Häagen-Dasz* (see Figure A.5 in Appendix A). For 'made in' statements, it is required that all essential manufacturing processes must be carried out in that country, although explicit rules about 'made in' statements are not clearly described for the European Union (Aichner, 2014). However, it is the only strategy that is compulsory in most countries (Aichner, 2014; Pharr, 2005). Furthermore, Aichner (2014) and Pharr (2005) suggest that this is de easiest and most frequently used strategy, although they have not empirically tested this claim.

Another legally regulated COO marker concerns the label of quality and origin. According to Aichner (2014), registrations such as Protected Designation of Origin (PDO), Protected Geographical Indication (PGI) or Traditional Speciality Guaranteed (TSG) are

required by the European Union when products are specified according to particular classifications by a group of producers (e.g. a group of farmers from a specific region). Another example is the Origine France Garantie (OFG) label in the advertisement of *Häagen-Dasz* contains (see Figure A.5 in Appendix A). With these labels, consumers are ensured of the origin of a product.

It is also possible to communicate the COO of the product directly through the company name, by means of the name of the country, the region, the city or an adapted version of these (e.g. *Air France, Vichy, L'Oréal Paris*) (Aichner, 2014).

In addition, it is possible to use typical COO words in the company name, which, according to Aichner (2014), do not necessarily have to mean something, as long as the words evoke typical COO associations. For instance, if a company name includes a word that is typical for a country (e.g. *Beefeater*) or if it the spelling is particular for a certain language (e.g. *Clinique* and *Schwarzkopf*), it is seen as a COO marker.

Some companies may use famous or stereotypical people from the COO by relating stereotypes to the person's clothes, behaviour or overall look (Aichner, 2014; Alden et al., 1999; Min Jung, Polyorat & Kellaris, 2009). For this strategy, brands can choose to show multiracial people, such as in the advertisement of *Clarins* (see Figure A.1 in Appendix A) or people in stereotypical clothing, such as in the advertisement of *Swatch* (see Figure A.6 in Appendix A)

Flags, symbols or other national attributes may also be used by companies in order to communicate the COO of a product. These attributes may be used in both the advertisement and the brand logo, in order to symbolise specific cultural values and traditions (Alden et al., 1999). The advertisement of *Swatch* is an example of how a Swiss flag is presented in both the brand logo as in the advertisement (see Figure A.6 in Appendix A).

The final strategy that Aichner (2014) described is the use of typical landscapes or famous buildings from the COO. The advertisement of *American Tourister* with famous buildings of several cities across the world is a good example of this strategy (see Figure A.2 in Appendix A).

In addition to the strategies that Aichner described, three other strategies might occur regularly in print medium advertisement. For instance, it is possible to write the COO in the body copy. To illustrate, in the advertisement of *Kusmi Tea*, the little story describes 'la Russie imperial' (the Russian imperial), 'Palais d'Hiver de Saint-Pétersbourg' (the winter palace of Saint Petersburg) and 'un mélange russe' (a Russian mix) (see Figure A.7 in Appendix A).

Moreover, brands can choose to use typical COO words for the product(s) they advertise. The product name 'Tsarevna' of *Kusmi Tea*, which is a Russian word for the daughter of a Tsar, is a good example of this strategy (see Figure A.7 in Appendix A).

In the same advertisement another strategy is found, namely the COO (Paris) written under the brand name. This example shows that brands can choose to display multiple COO's in one advertisement; A strategy that refers to the origin of product and a strategy that refers to the origin of the brand.

Table 1.   COO strategies (Aichner, 2014, p. 91)

Strategy type	Description/ example	Strategy type	Complexity
1. 'Made in...'	An explicit mention of where a product is made or produced ('Made in Germany', 'Produced in France)	Explicit	Low
2. Quality and origin labels	Protected Designation of Origin (PDO), Protected Geographical Indication (PGI) or Traditional Speciality Guaranteed (TSG) (Aichner, 2014)	Explicit	Low
3. COO embedded in the company name	*Air France, American Tourister, L'Oréal Paris,*	Explicit	Low
4. Typical COO words embedded in the company name	*L'Eggs, LaYogurt, (Piller, 1999), Beefeater, Clinique, Schwarzkopf, Häagen-Dasz*	Implicit	Medium
5. Use of the COO language	'Vorsprung durch Technik' (advance through technology) (Aichner, 2014)	Implicit	Medium/ high
6. Use of famous or stereotypical people from the COO	Can be related to the person's look, behaviour, clothes and other elements	Implicit	Medium/ high
7. Use of COO flags and symbols	Including shape, colour, texture, and overall design (Alden, Steenkamp, Batra, 1999)	Explicit/ implicit	Low/ medium
8. Use of typical landscapes or famous buildings from	Includes single buildings, mountains, rivers, cities and more (Aichner,	Implicit	Medium

the COO	2014).		
9. COO in body copy	A country, city or region written in the body copy.	Explicit	Low
10. Typical COO words in the product name	*Tsarevna, Acqua di Gioia, La vie est belle.*	Implicit	Medium
11. COO near/ attached to the brand name	A country, city or region written near the brand name.	Explicit	Low

Regarding the use of these COO markers, some brands might choose to use a few explicit COO markers, while others might use more subtle, implicit COO markers (see Table 1). The choice for implicit or explicit COO markers may depend on product category that is advertised or on the target country in which the advertisement is published.

A discussion on how the use of COO markers may differ across countries and across product categories is described in the next section.

2.3. Possible differences in consumer culture positioning and COO markers among countries

As previously explained, consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers are used in order to profit from the positive stereotypes consumers have about countries. Previous literature has indicated that certain stereotypes are assigned to particular countries, which means that they do not hold for every country. For instance, France is associated with 'elegance' (Haarmann, 1989; Hornikx et al., 2005; 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2000; Piller, 1999), 'beauty' (Hornikx et al., 2005; 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2005), 'attractiveness' (Haarmann, 1989; Hornikx et al., 2007), 'luxurious' (Nagashima, 1970;1977) 'haute cuisine' (Kelly-Holmes, 2000) and 'femininity' (Hornikx et al., 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Piller, 1999), Germany is associated with 'technical', 'quality' (Hornikx et al., 2005; 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2005), 'precision' (Kelly-Holmes, 2000) and 'reliability' (Hornikx et al., 2005; Kelly-Holmes, 2000), Italy is associated with 'family and tradition', 'authenticity and naturalness', 'stylishness and good taste', 'the good life', 'art and beauty' and 'passion' (Chiaro, 2009) and Spain is associated with 'freedom', 'adventure', 'masculinity' (Piller, 1999) and 'passion' (Hornikx et al., 2007). With regard to the use of consumer culture positioning and COO markers, a brand for watches could for example use COO markers in order to refer to France if it wants to focus on its luxury, or it can refer to Germany if it wants to focus on its technical ability.

Han and Terpstra (1988) suggest that these country images are universal, although this suggestion was based on the perceptions of U.S. consumers only. However, several authors claim that country image or ethno-cultural stereotypes that consumers have may differ across countries (Aichner, 2014; Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Cattin, Jolibert & Lohness, 1982; Nagashima, 1970; 1977; Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007). As Aicher (2014) suggests, it is therefore possible that neighbouring countries have different stereotypes about each other's culture than countries that are geographically more distant from each other. Since the consumers' perceptions about a foreign culture might differ, depending on their own culture, it is possible that brands may adapt their use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers to the country in which they publish based on the complexity (i.e. implicit versus explicit strategies) of the strategy (see Table 1).

Based on their study into the use of foreign language and models in print medium advertisements in East Asian countries, Neelankavil et al. (1995) found that the choice of Western language and models in Eastern Asian countries depends on the country of publication. Alden et al. (1999) also found an association between the consumer culture positioning strategy and the country of publication. More specifically, they found that GCCP was used less frequently in the U.S. than in several Asian and European countries and that LCCP was the dominantly used consumer positioning strategy in the U.S. One explanation for these findings could be that brands expect that certain countries prefer their own ethno-cultural products more than others do (Ahmed et al., 2004; Alden et al., 1999; De Mooij, 2013; Martin, 2006; Papadopoulos, Heslop & Beracs, 1990). For instance, Nagashima (1970) found that Japanese businessmen rated 'made in Japan' products lower than U.S. businessmen rated 'made in U.S.A'. Another possible explanation could be that in Europe and Asia the U.S. American lifestyle is often associated with a global culture, whereas this lifestyle is perceived as a local culture in the U.S. It is therefore possible that brands use standard advertisements around the world, although they are coded as containing a different strategies in each country. With regard to the findings of Alden et al. (1999), it is surprising that LCCP was not found to be used more frequently in France, as the French government tries to protect the French language and culture by means of the *Toubon law* for example (Ministère de la Culture et de la Communication, 2013).

Aichner (2014) suggests that certain COO markers are explicit while others are more implicit (see Table 1). This distinction seems to overlap with the concept of soft/hard sell approaches in communication research (Bradley, Hitchon, & Thorson, 1994; Mueller, 1987; Okazaki et al., 2010a;b). Soft-sell advertisements communicate messages in a more implicit

matter than hard-sell advertisements by using more visual imagery, whereas hard-sell advertisements are more explicit and focus more on tangible features of the product than soft-sell advertisements (Alden et al., 1999; Bradley et al., 1994; Mueller, 1987, p. 53; Okazaki et al., 2010b). To illustrate, 'made in' statements are seen as explicit COO markers (hard-sell approach) and flags are seen as implicit COO markers (soft-sell approach). The studies of Mueller (1987), Lin (2001) and Bradley et al. (1994) showed that hard-sell advertisements were found more frequently in the U.S., whereas soft-sell advertisements were found more frequently in Japan, China and the United Kingdom respectively. Since the use of explicit (hard-sell) and implicit (soft-sell) strategies has been found to vary across countries, it is possible that the use of COO markers in terms of explicit/ implicit is also different across countries based on the complexity of the COO marker.

In general, it is suggested that MNCs always try to use COO markers if a particular COO is favourable in the target country. Although stereotypes exist about countries, it is possible that they are used differently across countries by means of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers, since countries might differ in their perceptions about foreign countries (Aichner, 2014; Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007). Apart from the study of Alden et al. (1999), there has been relatively limited research on how consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers are translated in print medium advertisements across countries. Therefore, the present study tries to investigate the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers across countries.

2.4. Possible differences in consumer culture positioning and COO markers among product categories

The fact that certain countries have a favourable country image does not mean that this image is applicable to all product types (Kelly-Holmes, 2005). Accordingly, several authors claim that COO strategies are more effective if the product and the country match (Domzal et al., 1995; Hornikx et al., 2005; 2007; Hornikx et al., 2013; Maheswaran, 1994; Neelankavil et al., 1995; Verlegh, Steenkamp & Meulenberg, 2005; Usunier & Cestre, 2007). Roth and Romeo (1992) explain that a product-country match exists when the product and country evoke shared associations. To illustrate, the association 'elegance' is more relevant for perfume than for pizza and, as mentioned earlier, it is also linked to France. Consequently, when this key dimension of a product category is also part of the country image (e.g. 'elegance' is associated with both France and perfume), a fit between a product and country should exist (i.e. France

should be associated with perfume) (Roth & Romeo, 1992). To illustrate how certain product categories match particular countries, previous literature has summed up a number of examples of product-country fit. For instance, France is linked to wine (Hornikx et al., 2007; Nagashima, 1970; Usunier & Cestre, 2007), cars, bags, perfume, cosmetics (Hornikx et al., 2005; Haarmann, 1989; Nagashima, 1977; Usunier & Cestre, 2007) and cheese (Usunier & Cestre, 2007), Germany is linked to beer, cars (Hornikx et al., 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Nagashima, 1970), chemical, mechanical engineering (Niss, 1996) technology (Kelly-Holmes, 2000; Nagashima, 1977; Niss, 1996) and *bratwurst* (Aichner, 2014), Italy is linked to pasta (Aichner, 2014; Usunier & Cestre, 2007) and fashion (shoes, leather goods) (Aichner, 2014; Nagashima, 1970; Usunier & Cestre, 2007) and Spain is linked to tomatoes (Verlegh et al., 2005) and wine (Usunier & Cestre, 2007).

Since not every product category is congruent with a country, it is possible that the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers in ads may differ between products/ services that match the COO and those that do not match the COO. Neelankavil et al. (1995) found that the choice for Western language and models in Eastern Asian countries was influenced by the product types that were advertised. More specifically, in Asian countries foreign words and models were more likely to be used for personal care products than for other product types. They concluded that only a certain number of product types are suited for standardisation rather than adaptation regarding advertising strategies. Moreover, Alden et al. (1999) suggest that LCCP and FCCP are expected to be used in product categories that symbolise tradition. For instance, food might be positioned on a local level, because this product category is most often consumed in particular traditional ways (Alden et al., 1999). At the same time, as GCCP results from associations with cosmopolitism and modernity, they suggest that GCCP is expected to be more frequently used in product categories that symbolise these values, such as high-tech products. Indeed, the study of Alden et al. (1999) showed that services, followed by food and household products reflected LCCP, whereas high-tech and low-tech products reflected GCCP. Hence, it is possible that certain product categories are less susceptible for the use of certain consumer culture positioning strategies and certain COO markers than other product categories.

Whereas several products are typically associated with a singular COO (e.g. pasta is associated with Italy), other products are associated with multiple countries (e.g. cars are associated with both France and Germany) (Usunier & Cestre, 2007). This implies that some product categories (e.g. cars) are not evaluated as a whole, but based upon certain attributes Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka (1985). This means for example that French cars may be

associated with being luxurious and elegant, whereas German cars are associated with the quality of technical attributes. At the same time, as mentioned in the previous section, consumers may also have different associations with foreign countries in relation to certain product types.

2.5. The present study

Since the product's COO influences consumers preferences, MNCs have to deal with the strategic implications this causes for their advertising (Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop & Mourali, 2005). Two concepts that focus on using COO strategies (i.e. consumer culture positioning and country-of-origin) are suggested to be comparable approaches. In particular, Alden et al. (1999) have based their distinction of each consumer culture positioning type on only a limited number of COO markers. This means that several COO markers are yet unexplored regarding their frequencies. Moreover, in the field of consumer culture positioning and COO markers in advertising, previous research has mainly focussed on effectiveness, product evaluation and buying intention. However, there has been relatively limited research on how consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers are reflected across countries and product categories. This is relevant, since future recommendations about consumer culture positioning and COO markers cannot be made if information about the actual occurrence is missing.

It has been suggested that the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers differs across countries (Alden et al., 1999; Neelankavil et al., 1995). Furthermore, several authors have discussed the ethno-cultural stereotypes that exist across countries, in particular stereotypes about France, Germany, Italy and Spain (Aichner, 2014; Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Cattin et al., 1982; Nagashima, 1970; 1977; Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007). These countries are analysed in the present study in order to examine how stereotyping is visible in the country-of-origin itself compared to other countries. Therefore, the present study focuses on the extent to which differences in country image are visible in print medium advertisements in France, Germany, Italy and Spain, with regard to consumer culture positioning and the use of COO markers.

In addition, it has been suggested that the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers differ across product categories (Alden et al., 1999; Neelankavil et al., 1995). Moreover, it is shown that certain product categories are congruent with a particular country and others are not (Aichner, 2014; Haarmann, 1989; Hornikx et al., 2005;

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2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2000; Nagashima, 1970; 1977; Niss, 1996; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Verlegh et al., 2005). Therefore, this study will also examine the extent to which consumer culture positioning strategies and the use of COO strategies differ across product categories. For example, it is possible that product categories that are congruent with a particular culture or country contain more consumer culture positioning strategies or COO markers than other product categories.

Whereas previous research has operationalised COO mainly as only one strategy, such as the 'made in' statements, foreign language and foreign words in brand names, the present study will elaborate on the eight COO strategies described by Aichner (2014). Thus, not consumers' perceptions about consumer culture positioning and COO markers are investigated in the present study, but advertiser behaviour with regard to the choice of consumer culture positioning and COO markers employed in print medium advertisements in four European countries. Therefore, this study will give a broader theoretical insight into the use of consumer culture positioning and COO markers compared to previous literature.

On a practical level, the results of the present study could help MNCs by showing how consumers currently are exposed to consumer culture positioning types and COO by means of advertising strategies. More specifically, since consumers' stereotypes regarding products are influenced by what they see in the media (Hornikx et al., 2007), it is relevant to examine to what extent consumers in different countries are exposed to consumer culture positioning and COO. This way, MNCs can take an example from the consumer culture positioning types and COO strategies that are used by other companies in the same branch or in the same target countries. Moreover, by identifying to what extent COO strategies are used differently per product categories, MNCs might get a better understanding of how to distinguish from competitors when promoting the product's COO. In order to understand the motivations of global firms to position themselves or a product as global, local or foreign, it is highly relevant to first examine the frequencies of these strategies and to compare these strategies across countries by answering the following research questions:

RQ1: To what extent do print medium advertisements differ across European countries regarding consumer culture positioning strategies?

RQ2: To what extent do product categories in print medium advertisements differ regarding consumer culture positioning strategies?

RQ3: To what extent do product categories differ across European countries, with regard to consumer culture positioning strategies in print medium advertisements?

RQ4: To what extent do print medium advertisements differ across European countries regarding the use of COO strategies?

RQ5: To what extent do product categories in print medium advertisements differ regarding the use of COO strategies?

RQ6: To what extent do product categories differ across European countries, with regard to the use of COO strategies in print medium advertisements?

3. **Method**

3.1. Materials

For this study, a corpus analysis was conducted in order to examine possible differences in consumer culture positioning types and examine differences in COO strategies in print medium advertisements in France, Germany, Italy and Spain. These countries were included in order to compare results with outcomes of previous research into (the effects of) consumer culture positioning, COO strategies and country image (Aichner, 2014; Alden et al., 1999; Haarmann, 1989; Hornikx et al., 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2000; Nagashima, 1970; 1977; Niss, 1996; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Verlegh et al., 2005). For data collection, both a men's magazine (*GQ*) and a women's magazine (*Glamour*) were selected. *GQ* and *Glamour* were selected, because they are published in all countries in this study. According to the circulation figures published by Condé Nast (2015), *GQ* has a total readership of 6,791,000 and *Glamour* has a total readership of 12,161,000, which indicates that the advertisements in these magazines are viewed by a large number of consumers. Because of the different audiences that are targeted by these two magazines, it was expected that advertisements of a large variety of product categories would be found. On the basis of availability, five monthly issues (February, April, June, August, December 2014) were selected for *Glamour* and five monthly issues (February, April, June, October, December 2014) were selected for *GQ*. These issues were selected, because they are the most recent representation of trends in consumer culture positioning and COO possible for this study. The issues were spread over the year in order to reduce seasonal related bias, regarding advertisements. For instance, Italian scenery may occur more often in spring or summer than in winter. Per issue, all advertisements were used, resulting in a total sample of 1,863 ads. Of this total, 458 advertisements originated from France, 513 from Germany, 541 from Italy and 351 from Spain. The advertisements were equally distributed over the magazines (51,8% from *Glamour*). The December issue of

Glamour Italy was not included in the sample, in order to create an overall equal sample in each country. It should be noted that Chi-square tests revealed that the two magazines differed regarding the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers, which might affect the generalisability of the results. For the detailed results, see Appendix B.

3.2. Procedure

All the advertisements were analysed independently by one researcher. An additional coder coded 10.7% of the data (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 158). After being trained in the coding scheme, this coder independently rated 200 advertisements (25 advertisements per country of both *Glamour* and *GQ*). First, all ads were analysed for their consumers culture positioning strategy (GCCP, LCCP, FCCP) on the basis of four measurement criteria described in Alden et al. (1999), namely (1) symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name, (2) symbol used for brand logo, (3) central themes, and (4) appearance of spokesperson(s) (for the definitions of these measurement criteria, see Appendix C). The fifth criterion of their research, pronunciation of brand name, was not included in this study as this study is based on print medium advertisements only. Advertisements were coded as local if the previous mentioned signs reflected the culture of the country where the magazine is published (e.g. the Eiffel tower in a cosmetics advertisement in a French magazine), foreign if they represented a different culture (e.g. the Eiffel tower in a cosmetics advertisement in a German magazine), and global if they represented a cultural element that is not specifically assigned to one culture, but rather to a larger group recognised as international and transcending individual national cultures (e.g. a cell phone advertisement featuring business people from multiple countries in a business environment) (Alden et al., 1999). The strategy that was counted two or more times based on the four indicators, was assigned to the advertisement (Alden et al., 1999).

Second, in order to examine potential differences between COO markers used, all the advertisements were analysed for eleven COO markers (see Table 1). If certain strategies occurred multiple times in one advertisement, they were only counted as one strategy. However, when strategies reflected more than one consumer culture positioning strategy, it was counted as a mixed strategy (i.e. LCCP+ FCCP, LCCP + GCCP, FCCP + GCCP or LCCP+ FCCP + GCCP) (see Appendix C).

In order to check for differences in COO between product categories, the product classification of Alden et al. (1999) were used, namely food non-durables, personal non-

durables, household non-durables, lower-technology consumer durables, higher-technology durables, consumer services, business goods and business services. Since previous research has also mentioned more specific ethno-cultural products (Aichner, 2014; Haarmann, 1989; Hornikx et al., 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2000; Nagashima, 1970; 1977; Niss, 1996; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Verlegh et al., 2005), the advertisements were further categorised into 33 product types, depending on the product types that occurred in the advertisements. For the entire coding scheme and definitions, see Appendix C.

Of the total of 1,863 advertisements, 1182 (63.5%) concerned Low-tech consumer durable products, 382 (20.6%) concerned personal nondurable products, 127 (6.8%) concerned high-tech consumer durable products, 95 (5.1%) concerned consumer services, 68 (3.7%) concerned food, 7 (.4%) concerned household nondurable products and 1 (.1%) advertisement could not be categorised. Business goods and business services were not found in this sample.

To ensure consistent coding of the consumer culture positioning strategies, the interrater reliability (Cohen's kappa) was computed, 10.7% of all data (3200 cases) were analysed by a second coder, which revealed substantial agreement among the coders for the consumer culture positioning strategies (86% agreement; 1000 cases; $\kappa = .67$, $p < .001$) and substantial agreement for the COO markers (90.5% agreement; 2200 cases; $\kappa = .70$, $p < .001$).

3.3. Statistical treatment

The data were analysed using the statistical program SPSS 22. Chi-square tests ($\chi 2$) were used to compare distributions of categorical variables in coding the magazine contents between the four countries and between the six product categories. Descriptive statistics were used to count the consumer culture positioning indicators (Alden et al., 1999) and the COO markers (Aichner, 2014). In order to specify the differences found by the Chi-square tests, custom tables were used. If more than 20% of the expected count of the cells in a table was less than 5, the Fisher's exact test was reported in addition to the chi-square test.

4. Results

The main purpose of this study was to examine to what extent advertisements for several product categories differ with regard to the use of COO markers and consumer culture positioning strategies in advertisements and to what extent differences exist between countries.

4.1. Consumer culture positioning strategies

4.1.1. Consumer culture positioning strategies across European countries

The first research question concerned the differences across European countries in the use of consumer culture positioning strategies. Table 2 reveals that most often no CCP at all was used. Furthermore, FCCP and GCCP were the two most frequently used consumer culture positioning strategies, followed by LCCP. All mixed strategies were the least frequently used consumer culture positioning strategies. Additionally, Table 2 shows that consumer culture positioning strategies were most frequently used through spelling/ symbols in the brand name. To test whether these differences were significant, several Chi-square tests were carried out. The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the use of spelling/symbols in brand name and the use of spelling/symbols in logo (χ^2 (1) = 6.27, p = .014, Cramer's V = .06) and spokespersons (χ^2 (1) = 4.56, p = .033, Cramer's V = .05). Spelling/symbols in brand name appeared to be used more frequently than spelling/symbols in logo and spokespersons.

Table 2.   Frequencies of the distribution and the relative use (%) of each consumer culture positioning strategy per indicator (Alden et al., 1999) (N = 1863).

	Indicator				
Strategy	Spelling/ symbols in brand name	Spelling/ symbols in brand logo	Theme	Spokesperson	Total
No CCP	635 (34.1)	1466 (78.7)	1650 (88.6)	1548 (83.1)	5299
LCCP	335 (18)	111 (6)	44 (2.4)	71 (3.8)	561 (26.1)
FCCP	492 (26.4)	154 (8.3)	78 (4.2)	29 (1.6)	753 (35)
GCCP	342 (18.4)	103 (5.5)	89 (4.8)	213 (11.4)	747 (34.7)
LCCP+FCCP	6 (.3)	0	0	2 (.1)	8 (.4)
LCCP+GCCP	28 (1.5)	13 (.7)	0	0	41 (1.9)
FCCP+GCCP	25 (1.3)	16 (.9)	1 (.1)	0	42 (2)
Total (used strategies)	1228 (57.1)	397 (18.4)	212 (9.9)	315 (14.6)	2152 (100)

Note: Percentages are in parentheses.

Each advertisement was coded as containing a certain consumer culture positioning strategy if one consumer culture positioning strategy was used two or more times using these four indicators (i.e. brand name, brand logo, theme and spokesperson). In any other case, the advertisements were coded as no consumer culture positioning (no CCP). Table 3 and Figure

1 show the distribution of the consumer culture positioning strategies (No CCP, LCCP, FCCP and GCCP) that occurred two or more times per advertisement, on the basis of the four indicators of Alden et al. (1999).

Table 3.   Frequencies of the distribution and the relative use (%) of each consumer culture positioning strategy, on the basis of the 4 indicators of Alden et al. (1999) (N = 1862).

| Country | consumer culture positioning strategies | | | | |
	No CCP	LCCP	FCCP	GCCP	Total
France	372 (81.2%)	47 (10.3%)	11 (2.4%)	28 (6.1%)	458
Germany	413 (80.5%)	14 (2.7%)	43 (8.4%)	43 (8.4%)	513
Italy	461(85.2%)	30 (5.5%)	24 (4.4%)	26 (4.8%)	541
Spain	288 (82.3%)	9 (2.6%)	25 (7.1%)	28 (8%)	350

| Total | 1534 | 100 | 103 | 125 | 1862 |

Figure 1: Total number of consumer culture positioning strategies used per country (N = 1862).

The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country of publication and the consumer culture positioning strategy (χ^2 (21) = 176.65, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .10$). LCCP was used more frequently in France than in the three other countries. Furthermore, FCCP was used more frequently in Germany and Spain than in France.

Thus, overall it appears that consumer culture positioning strategies are used differently in the four countries and that these difference occurred for LCCP and FCCP, but not for GCCP.

4.1.2. Consumer culture positioning strategies across product categories/ types

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The second research question concerned the differences between product categories in ads regarding consumer culture positioning strategies. To check whether differences exist between the product categories, regarding each consumer culture positioning strategy (No CCP, LCCP, FCCP and GCCP) that was coded two or more times per advertisement, six Chi-square tests were performed. An overview of all frequencies and percentages of these strategies is presented in Table 4 and Figure 2.

Table 4.   Frequencies of the distribution and the relative use (%) of each consumer culture positioning strategy per product category, when the same strategy was coded two or more times per advertisement, on the basis of the four indicators of Alden et al. (1999) (N = 1862).

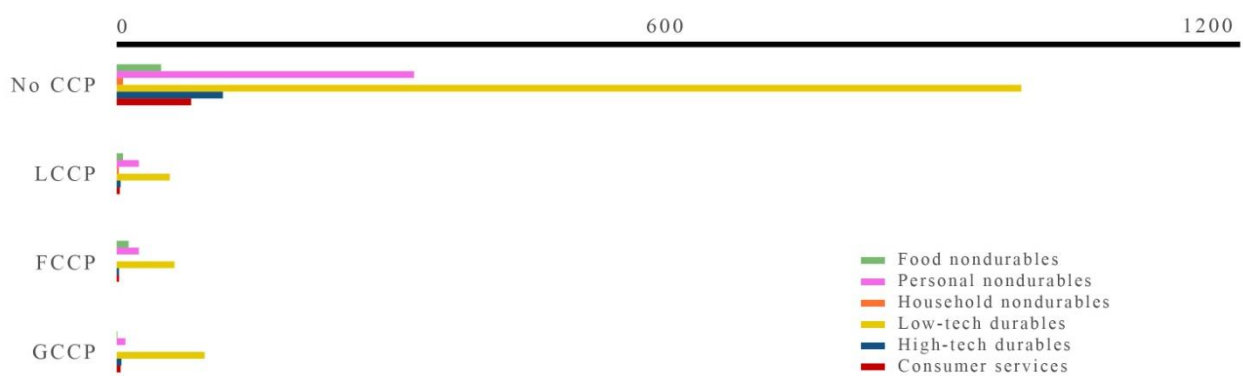|	consumer culture positioning strategies				
Product category	No CCP	LCCP	FCCP	GCCP	Total
Food nondurables	49 (71%)	6 (8.7%)	13 (18.8%)	1 (1.4%)	69 (3.7%)
Personal nondurables	313 (81.7%)	26 (6.8%)	25 (6.5%)	19 (5.0%)	383 (20.6%)
Household nondurables	6 (85.7%)	1 (14.3%)	0	0	7 (.4%)
Low-tech durables	967 (81.9%)	58 (4.9%)	62 (5.2%)	94 (8%)	1181 (63.5%)
High-tech durables	113 (89%)	5 (3.9%)	3 (2.4%)	6 (4.7%)	127 (6.8%)
Consumer service	83 (87.4%)	4 (4.2%)	3 (3.2%)	5 (5.3%)	95 (5.1%)
Total	1531 (82.2%)	100 (5.4%)	106 (5.7%)	125 (6.7%)	1862 (100%)

Figure 2: Total number of consumer culture positioning strategies used per product category (N = 1862).

The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy that was used (χ^2 (15) = 41.80, $p < .001$, Cramer's V =

.09; Fisher's exact test, *p* = 002). Based on the custom tables for product category and consumer culture positioning strategy, it appears that FCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables than for personal nondurables, low-tech durables, high-tech durables and consumer services. Additionally, for high-tech durables there were more advertisements without any consumer culture positioning strategies than for food nondurables.

Thus, overall it appears that the use of consumer culture positioning types differs among certain product categories. Additionally, these differences occurred for FCCP and not using any consumer culture positioning strategy.

Since the product categories as described by Alden et al. (1999) were found to be too broad, a more detailed categorisation was made by means of product *types*. Table 5 shows the distribution of consumer culture positioning strategies (No CCP, LCCP, FCCP and GCCP) per product category found in the magazines.

Table 5.   Frequencies of the distribution and the relative use (%) of each consumer culture positioning strategy per product type, when the same strategy was coded two or more times per advertisement, on the basis of the four indicators of Alden et al. (1999) (N = 1863).

Product type	consumer culture positioning strategies				
	No CCP	LCCP	FCCP	GCCP	Total
Alcoholic beverages	34 (69.4%)	3 (6.1%)	13 (24.5%)	0	59
Baby food	3 (75%)	1 (25%)	0	0	4
Bags	65 (81.3%)	5 (6.3%)	8 (10%)	2 (2.5%)	80
Banking	9 (90%)	1 (10%)	0	0	10
Beer	3 (75%)	0	1 (25%)	0	4
Cars	80 (93%)	0	1 (1.2%)	5 (5.8%)	86
Cleaning products	3 (75%)	1 (25%)	0	0	4
Clothing	464 (84,8%)	21 (3.8%)	25 (4.6%)	37 (6.8%)	547
Dental hygiene	2 (50%)	0	0	2 (50%)	4
Electric beauty products	13 (100%)	0	0	0	13
Electronic devices	27 (87.1%)	0	2 (6.5%)	2 (6.5%)	31
Events	10 (71.4%)	4 (28.6%)	0	0	14
Films/ series	39 (83%)	2 (4.3%)	2 (4.3%)	4 (8.5%)	47
Food	3 (100%)	0	0	0	3
Glasses	55 (78.6%)	2 (2.9%)	3 (4.3%)	10 (14.3%)	70
Hair products	37 (75.5%)	7 (14.3%)	3 (6.1%)	2 (4.1%)	49

Interior products	3 (100%)	0	0	0	3
Jeans	37 (82.2%)	0	0	8 (17.8%)	45
Jewellery	50 (83,3%)	6 (10%)	0	4 (6.7%)	60
Kitchen Electronics	8 (18%)	2 (20%)	0	0	10
Magazines/ books	55 (73.3%)	7 (9.3%)	1 (1.3%)	12 (16%)	75
Make-up	58 (80.6%)	4 (3.9%)	7 (9.7%)	3 (4.2%)	72
Non alcoholic beverages	5 (71.4%)	2 (28.6%)	0	0	7
Perfume	143 (87.7%)	8 (4.9%)	7 (4.3%)	5 (3.1%)	163
Sanitary products	7 (100%)	0	0	0	7
Shoes	98 (86.7%)	8 (7.1%)	4 (3.5%)	3 (2.7%)	113
Skin cream	61 (72.6%)	7 (8.3%)	8 (9.5%)	8 (9.5%)	84
Snacks	2 (66.7%)	0	1 (33.3%)	0	3
Travel (services)	7 (63.6%)	2 (18.2%)	1 (9.1%)	1 (9.1%)	11
Watches	137 (76.1%)	6 (3.3%)	20 (11.1%)	17 (9.4%)	180
Other	5 (71.4%)	1 (14.3%)	1 (14.3%)	0	7
Total	1523 (81.7%)	100 (5.4%)	107 (5.7%)	125 (6.7%)	1863 (100)

The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the consumer culture positioning strategy that is used (χ^2 (111) = 221.61, p < .001, Cramer's V = .20; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). LCCP was used more frequently for events than for clothing and watches. In addition, FCCP was used more frequently for alcoholic beverages than for cars, clothing, perfume, shoes and magazines/books, and FCCP was used more frequently for snacks than for cars. Furthermore, GCCP was used more frequently for both jeans and magazines/ books than for perfume, and GCCP was used more frequently for dental hygiene than for bags, make-up, perfume and shoes.

Thus, overall it seems that the use of consumer culture positioning types differs among certain product types. Additionally, differences were found for all three consumer culture positioning types.

4.1.3. Consumer positioning strategies across European countries per product category/type.

The third research question concerned the differences between product categories across European countries, with regard to consumer culture positioning strategies in advertisements. The Chi-square tests showed no significant relation between the country of publication and the consumer culture positioning strategy that was used for food nondurables (χ^2 (9) = 12.77,

$p = .173$), household nondurables (χ^2 (3) = .88, $p = .831$) and consumer services (χ^2 (9) = 6.19, $p = .720$). The Chi-square tests for the remaining product categories did reveal significant differences between the four countries, regarding the consumer culture positioning strategies used. These findings are explained in the section below.

Personal nondurables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country of publication and the consumer culture positioning strategy that was used for personal nondurables (χ^2 (9) = 43.88, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .20$). LCCP was found to be used more frequently in France than in Germany and Italy. Regarding the more specific product types within personal nondurables, the Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country of publication and the consumer culture positioning strategy that was used for skin cream (χ^2 (9) = 25.42, $p = .003$, Cramer's $V = .32$; Fisher's exact test, $p = .005$), hair products (χ^2 (9) = 19.89, $p = .019$, Cramer's $V = .37$; Fisher's exact test, $p = .028$) and perfume (χ^2 (9) = 20.59, $p = .015$, Cramer's $V = .21$; Fisher's exact test, $p = .008$). GCCP was found to be used more frequently in Germany than in Italy for skin cream. Furthermore, LCCP was used more frequently in France than in Germany, and FCCP was used more frequently in Italy than in Germany for hair products. For perfume no further details were presented in the custom tables. Therefore, no specifications of the findings can be given.

Low-tech durables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country of publication and the consumer culture positioning strategy that was used for low-tech durables (χ^2 (9) = 30.76, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .09$). LCCP was used more frequently in France than in Germany. Furthermore, FCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in France and Italy. Additionally, the Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and consumer culture positioning strategy that was used for bags (χ^2 (9) = 17.55, $p = .041$, Cramer's $V = .27$; Fisher's exact test, $p = .028$). FCCP appeared to be used more frequently in Germany than in Italy for bags.

High-tech durables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy that was used for high-tech durables (χ^2 (9) = 19.81, $p = .019$, Cramer's $V = .23$, Fisher's exact test, $p = .010$). Further details were not presented in the custom tables. Therefore, no specifications of the findings can be given.

Thus, overall it appears that for certain product categories and product types consumer culture positioning strategies are used differently between the four countries. Additionally, differences were found between France, Germany and Italy, but not between these countries and Spain.

4.2. COO markers

4.2.1. COO markers across European countries

The fourth research question concerned the differences across European countries regarding the use of COO strategies. Table 6 and Figure 3 show that overall COO words in brand name and use of language were the most frequently used COO markers. Table 7 and Figure 4 show that these COO markers were used most frequently in all four countries.

Table 6.   Frequencies of the distribution and the relative use (%) of the 11 COO markers (N = 4277).

	Frequencies	
COO marker	*n*	%
'Made in' statements	42	1
Quality label	15	.4
COO in brand name	101	2.4
COO words in brand name	1167	27.3
COO in body copy	253	5.9
Use of language	1444	33.8
Stereotypical people	310	7.2
Flags/ symbols	160	3.7
Typical landscape	109	2.5
COO near brand name	207	4.8
COO words in product name	469	11
Total	4277	100

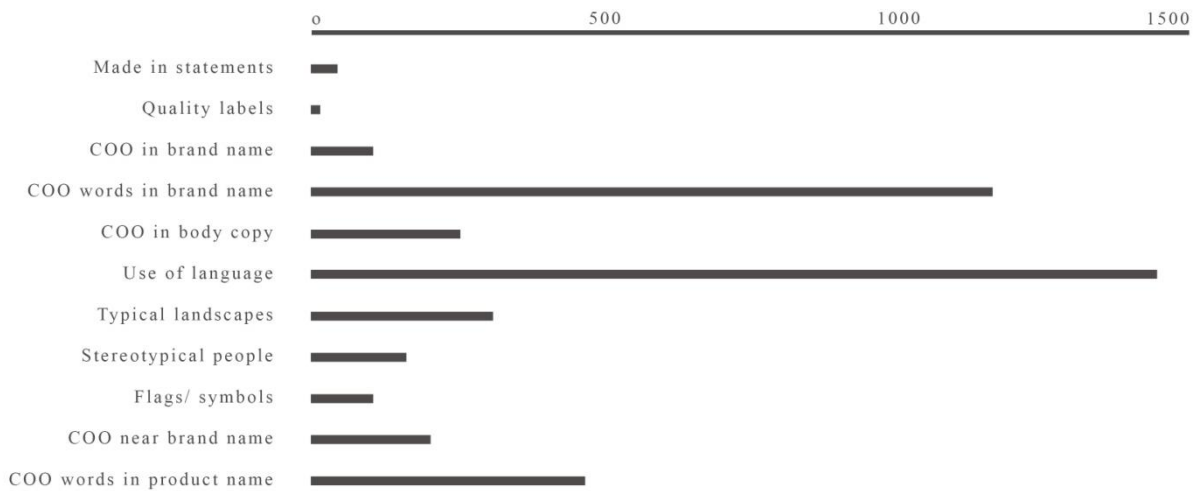Figure 3: Total number of COO markers used (N = 4277).

	o	500	1000	1500
Made in statements				
Quality labels				
COO in brand name				
COO words in brand name				
COO in body copy				
Use of language				
Typical landscapes				
Stereotypical people				
Flags/ symbols				
COO near brand name				
COO words in product name				

Table 7. Frequencies of the distribution and the relative use (%) of the eleven COO markers for country (N = 4277).

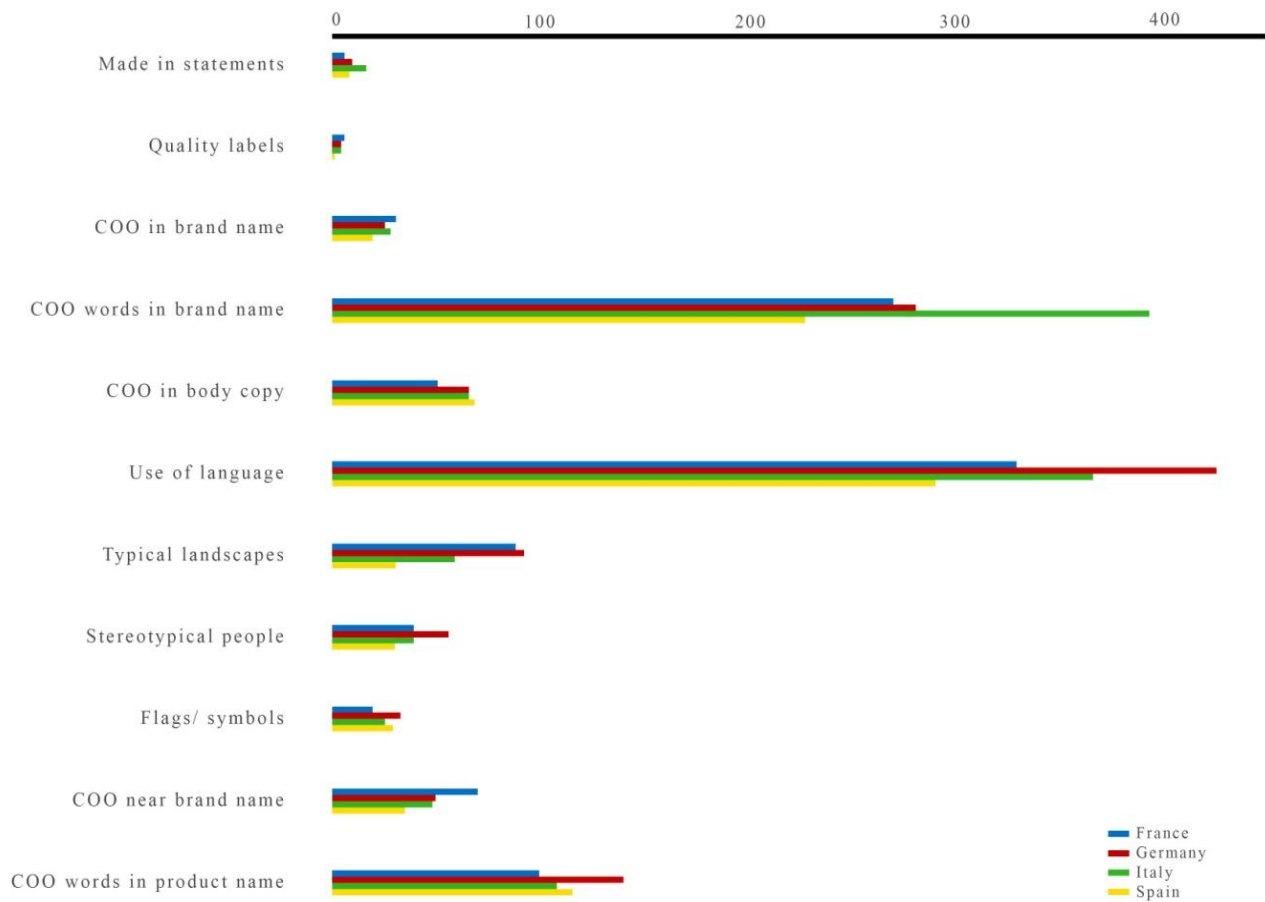|	Country			
COO marker	France	Germany	Italy	Spain
Made in	6 (.6%)	10 (.8%)	17 (1.5%)	9 (1%)
Quality Label	6 (.6%)	4 (.3%)	4 (.3%)	1 (.1%)
COO in brand name	31 (3%)	25 (2.1%)	27 (2.3%)	18 (2%)
COO words in brand name	273 (26.1%)	281 (23.7%)	389 (33.6%)	224 (25.3%)
COO in body copy	55 (5.3%)	65 (5.5%)	66 (5.7%)	67 (7.6%)
Use of language	355 (33.9%)	427 (36.1%)	368 (31.8%)	294 (33.1%)
Stereotypical people	91 (8.7%)	92 (7.8%)	63 (5.4%)	64 (7.2%)
Flags/ symbols	36 (3.4%)	55 (4.6%)	40 (3.5%)	29 (2.9%)
Landscape	19 (1.8%)	34 (2.9%)	28 (2.4%)	28 (3.2%)
COO near brand name	72 (6.9%)	50 (4.2%)	49 (4.2%)	36 (4.1%)
COO words in product name	103 (9.8%)	141 (11.9%)	108 (9.3%)	117 (13.2%)
Total	1047 (100%)	1184(100%)	1159(100%)	887 (100%)

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Figure 4: Total number of strategies used per country (N = 4277).

To check whether differences existed between the four countries, eleven chi-square test were performed. An overview of all Chi-square testes of these strategies is displayed in Table 8.

Table 8.   Chi-square test for country of publication and COO marker.

	Country	
COO marker	χ^2	Cramer's V
'Made in' statements	4.16	.05
Quality label	2.69	.04
COO in brand name	2.18	.03
COO words in brand name	35.41***	.14***
COO in body copy	11.28*	.08*
Language	45.45***	.16***
Stereotypical people	14.33**	.09**
Flags/ symbols	4.31	.05
Typical landscape	6.30	.06

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COO near brand name	13.39**	.09**
COO words in product name	23.41***	.11***

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Chi-square tests showed no significant relation between country and the use of 'made in' statements (χ^2 (3) = 4.16, p = .233), Quality label: (χ^2 (3) = 2.69, p = .443; Fisher's exact test, p = .476), COO in brand name: (χ^2 (3) = 2.18, p = .537), flags/ symbols: (χ^2 (3) = 4.31, p = .23, Cramer's V = .05) and typical landscape: (χ^2 (3) = 6.30, p = .098, Cramer's V = .06). The Chi-square tests for the remaining strategies did reveal significant differences between the four countries. These findings are explained in the section below.

COO words in brand name: The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO in brand name (χ^2 (3) = 35.41, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .14). COO words in brand name appeared to be used more frequently in Italy and Spain than in Germany, and they appeared to be used more frequently in Italy than in France.

COO in body copy: The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO in body copy (χ^2 (3) = 11.28, p = .010, Cramer's V = .08). COO in body copy appeared to be used more frequently in Spain than in France and Italy.

Use of language: The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of language (χ^2 (3) = 45.45, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .16). The COO marker language appeared to be used more frequently in France, Germany and Spain than in Italy.

Stereotypical people: The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of stereotypical people (χ^2 (3) = 14.33, p = .002, Cramer's V = .09). Stereotypical people appeared to be used more frequently in France, Germany and Spain than in Italy.

COO near brand name: The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO near brand name (χ^2 (3) = 13.39, p = .004, Cramer's V = .09). COO near brand name appeared to be used more frequently in France than in Germany and Italy.

COO words in product name: The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO words in product name (χ^2 (3) = 23.41, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .11). COO words in product name appeared to be used more frequently in Germany and Spain than in Italy, and they appeared to be used more frequently in Spain than in France.

Thus, overall it appears that certain COO markers are used differently across the four

countries. Furthermore, it appears that most of the differences occur between Italy and the other three countries. For more detailed analyses regarding differences in the consumer culture positioning strategies that were used in terms of each COO marker across the four countries, see Appendix D.

4.2.1. COO markers across product categories

The fifth research question concerned the differences between product categories in print medium advertisements regarding the use of COO strategies. Table 9 and Figure 6 reveal that COO words in brand name and the use of language were used most frequently for all product categories, particularly for low-tech durables.

Table 9.   Frequencies of the distribution and the relative use (%) of the eleven COO markers for each product category (N = 4277).

| COO marker	Food nondurables	Personal nondurables	Household nondurables	Low-tech durables	High-tech durables	Consumer services
'Made in' statements	2 (1)	2 (.2)	0	35 (1.5)	3 (.9)	0
Quality labels	3 (1.5)	2 (.2)	0	2 (.1)	4 (1.3)	4 (1.8)
COO in brand name	7 (3.6)	41 (3.6)	0	43 (1.8)	1 (.3)	9 (4)
COO words in brand name	34 (17.3)	271 (24.1)	4 (26.7)	748 (31.3)	60 (18.8)	49 (21.6)
COO in body copy	27 (13.7)	34 (3)	1 (6.7)	156 (6.5)	16 (5)	19 (8.4)
Use of language	69 (35)	345 (30.7)	6 (40)	803 (33.6)	12 (39.4)	95 (9.3)
Stereotypical people	14 (7.1)	89 (7.9)	1 (6.7)	181 (7.6)	10 (3.1)	15 (6.6)
Flags/ symbols	13 (6.6)	9 (.8)	0	104 (4.4)	27 (8.4)	7 (3.1)
Landscape	8 (4.1)	12 (1.2)	1 (6.7)	59 (2.5)	21 (6.6)	8 (3.5)
COO near brand name	7 (3.6)	44 (3.9)	0	150 (6.3)	2 (.6)	3 (1.3)
COO words in product name	13 (6.6)	275 (24.5)	2 (13.3)	109 (4.6)	50 (15.6)	20 (8.8)
Total	197 (100)	1124(100)	15 (100)	2390 (100)	320 (100)	227 (100)

Note: Percentages are in parentheses.
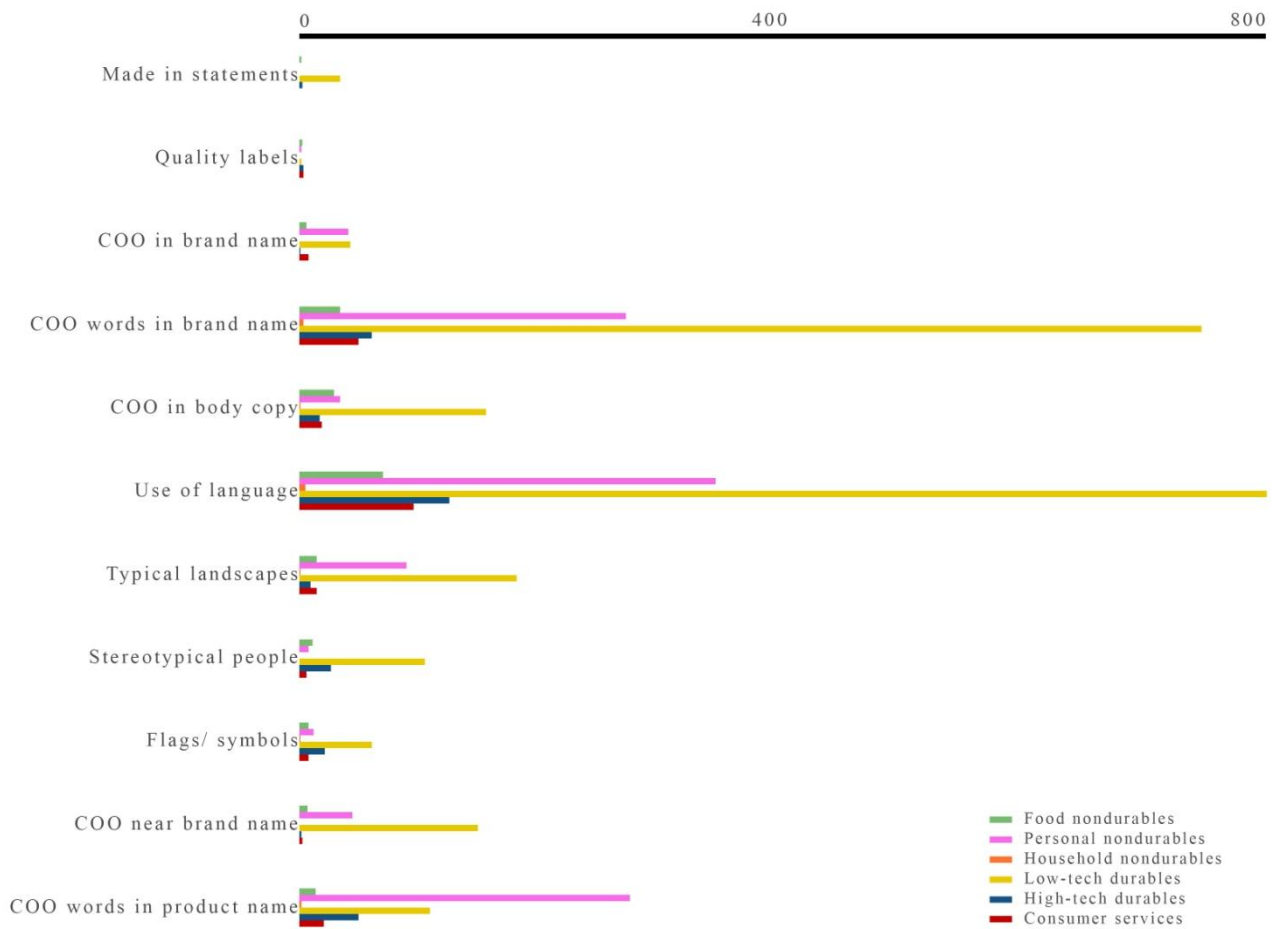
Figure 5: Total of number of COO markers used per product category (N = 4277).

In order to check whether differences between the product categories were significant, eleven Chi-square tests were performed. An overview of all Chi-square results is displayed in Table 10.

Table 10.　　　　　Chi-square test of product category and COO marker.

COO marker	Product category	
	χ^2	Cramer's *V*
'Made in' statements	10.39	.08
Quality label	39.77***	.15***
COO in brand name	39.90***	.15***
COO words in brand name	34.21***	.14***
COO in body copy	49.16***	.16***
Language	178.47***	.31***

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Stereotypical people	21.22**	.12**
Flags/ symbols	55.08***	.17***
Typical landscape	39.18***	.15***
COO near brand name	21.87**	.12**
COO words in product name	617.18***	.58***

p < .05, **p* < .01, ***p* < .001

The Chi-square tests for all strategies revealed significant differences between the six product categories regarding the use of COO markers. These findings are explained in the section below.

'Made in' statements: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and 'made in' statements (χ^2 (5) = 10.39, *p* = .065, Cramer's *V* = .075; Fisher's exact test, *p* = .030). 'Made in' statements appeared to be used more frequently for low-tech durables than for personal nondurables.

Quality label: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and quality labels (χ^2 (5) = 39.77, *p* < .001, Cramer's *V* = .15; Fisher's exact test, *p* < .001). Quality labels appeared to be used more frequently for food nondurables, high-tech durables and consumer services than for low-tech durables, and they were used more frequently for consumer services than for personal nondurables.

COO in brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and COO in brand name (χ^2 (5) = 39.90, *p* < .001, Cramer's *V* = .15). COO in brand name appeared to be used more frequently for food nondurables, personal nondurables and consumer services than for high-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for low-tech durables.

COO words in brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and COO words in brand name (χ^2 (5) = 34.21, *p* < .001, Cramer's *V* = .14). COO words in brand name were used more frequently for personal nondurables and low-tech durables than for high-tech durables, and they were used more frequently used for personal nondurables than for food nondurables and consumer services.

COO in body copy: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and COO in body copy (χ^2 (5) = 49.16, *p* < .001, Cramer's *V* = .16). COO in body copy appeared to be used more frequently for food nondurables and consumer services than for personal nondurables, and it was used more frequently for food nondurables than for low-tech durables and high-tech durables.

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Use of language: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and use of language (χ^2 (5) = 178.47, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .31$). The COO marker language appeared to be used more frequently for personal nondurables and high-tech durables than for low-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for high-tech durables than for personal nondurables and household nondurables.

Stereotypical people: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and stereotypical people (χ^2 (5) = 21.22, $p = .001$, Cramer's $V = .12$). Stereotypical people appeared to be used more frequently for personal nondurables than for low-tech durables and high-tech durables.

Flags/ symbols: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and flags/ symbols (χ^2 (5) = 55.08, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .17$). Flags/symbols appeared to be used more frequently for food nondurables, low-tech durables and high-tech durables than for personal nondurables, and they were used more frequently for high-tech durables than for low-tech durables and consumer services.

Typical landscape: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and typical landscapes (χ^2 (5) = 39.18, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .15$). Typical landscapes appeared to be used more frequently for food nondurables and high-tech durables than for personal nondurables, and they were used more frequently for high-tech durables than for low-tech durables

COO near brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and COO near brand name (χ^2 (5) = 21.87, $p = .001$, Cramer's $V = .12$). COO near brand name appeared to be used more frequently for personal nondurables and low-tech durables than for high-tech durables.

COO words in product name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and COO words in product name (χ^2 (5) = 617.18, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .58$). COO words in product name appeared to be used more frequently for personal nondurables than for food nondurables, low-tech durables, high-tech durables and consumer services. Furthermore, they appeared to be used more frequently for high-tech durables and consumer services than for low-tech durables, and they were used more frequently for high-tech durables than for food-products.

Thus, overall it appears that certain COO markers were used differently across product categories. Furthermore, it appears that personal nondurables and low-tech durables differ most frequently from each other. For analyses regarding differences in COO markers used between the more specific product *types*, see Appendix E. For more detailed analyses

regarding differences in the consumer culture positioning strategies that were used through each COO marker across the six product categories, see Appendix F.

4.2.3. COO markers across European countries per product category/ type

The sixth research question concerned the differences between product categories across European countries, with regard to the use of COO strategies in advertisements. Therefore, several chi-square tests were carried out (for each COO strategy within each product category). Differences between product types were analysed for all product categories which were found more than 30 times in the sample (see Table 4). All significant findings are presented in the section below.

Food nondurables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of landscapes (χ^2 (3) = 10.48, p = .015, Cramer's V = .39; Fisher's exact test, p = .029). Landscapes appeared to be used more frequently in Spain than in France for food nondurables.

Alcoholic beverages: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO in body copy (χ^2 (3) = 11.57, p = .009, Cramer's V = .49; Fisher's exact test, p = .010). COO in body copy was used more frequently in Spain than in Italy.

Personal nondurables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO near brand name (χ^2 (3) = 9.71, p = .021, Cramer's V = .16). COO near brand name appeared to be used more frequently in France than in Spain for personal nondurables.

Skin cream: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO in body copy (χ^2 (3) = 13.26, p = .004, Cramer's V = .40; Fisher's exact test, p = .008). COO in body copy was be used more frequently in Spain than in Italy.

Hair products: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO words in brand name (χ^2 (3) = 12.04, p = .007, Cramer's V = .50; Fisher's exact test, p = .005). COO words in brand name were used more frequently in France than in Germany.

Perfume: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of stereotypical people (χ^2 (3) = 8.82, p = .032, Cramer's V = .23). Stereotypical people were used more frequently in France than in Italy.

Low-tech durables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO words in brand name (χ^2 (3) = 21.70, p < .001, Cramer's V = .14), COO in body copy (χ^2 (3) = 7.93, p = .048, Cramer's V = .08), language (χ^2 (3) = 34.62, p < .001, Cramer's V = .17), stereotypical people (χ^2 (3) = 12.03, p = .007, Cramer's V = .10), COO near brand name (χ^2 (3) = 10.06, p = .018, Cramer's V = .09) and COO words in product name (χ^2 (3) = 19.70, p < .001, Cramer's V = .13). COO words in brand name appeared to be used more frequently in Italy than in the three other countries for low-tech durables. COO in body copy was used more frequently in Spain than in Italy. The COO marker language was used more frequently in Germany and Spain than in Italy. Stereotypical people were used more frequently in France, Germany and Spain than in Italy, and they were found to be used more frequently in France than in Italy. COO words in product name appeared to be used more frequently in Germany and Spain than in Italy.

Clothing: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO in brand name (χ^2 (3) = 8.96, p = .030, Cramer's V = .13), language (χ^2 (3) = 11.18, p = .011, Cramer's V = .14), stereotypical people (χ^2 (3) = 8.46, p = .037, Cramer's V = .12) and COO near brand name (χ^2 (3) = 10.45, p = .015, Cramer's V = 14). The COO marker language was used more frequently in Spain than in Italy. COO near brand name was used more frequently in France than in Germany. For COO in brand name and stereotypical people no details were presented in the custom tables. Therefore no specifications of the differences can be given.

Watches: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO words in brand name (χ^2 (3) = 9.04, p = .029, Cramer's V = .22). COO words in brand name appeared to be used more frequently in France than in Spain.

Jeans: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO words in brand name (χ^2 (3) = 9.80, p = .020, Cramer's V = .47; Fisher's exact test, p = .020) and COO near brand name: (χ^2 (3) = 9.00, p = .029, Cramer's V = .45; Fisher's exact test, p = .047). COO words in brand name appeared to be used more frequently in Italy than in Germany. COO near brand name was used more frequently in Spain than in France.

High-tech durables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO in body copy (χ^2 (3) = 18.74, p < .001, Cramer's V = .38; Fisher's exact test, p < .001), flags/ symbols (χ^2 (3) = 12.83, p = .005, Cramer's V = .32) and typical landscape (χ^2 (3) = 8.57, p = .036, Cramer's V = .26). COO in body copy appeared to be used more frequently in Italy than in Germany and Spain. Flags/ symbols were used more frequently in

Germany and Italy than in France. Typical landscapes were used more frequently in Germany than in France.

Cars: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of 'made in' statements (χ^2 (3) = 8.31, p = .040, Cramer's V = .31; Fisher's exact test, p = .035), flags/ symbols (χ^2 (3) = 13.78, p = .003, Cramer's V = .40; Fisher's exact test, p = .002) and landscapes (χ^2 (3) = 7.92, p = .048, Cramer's V = .30; Fisher's exact test, p = .028). For all three COO markers no details were presented in the custom tables. Therefore no specifications of the differences can be given.

Electronic devices: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO words in product name (χ^2 (3) = 11.20, p = .011, Cramer's V = .60; Fisher's exact test, p = .008). COO words in product name appeared to be used more frequently in Italy than in Germany for electronic devices.

Consumer services: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the use of COO in brand name (χ^2 (3) = 11.36, p = .010, Cramer's V = .35; Fisher's exact test, p < .016), COO words in brand name (χ^2 (3) = 10.68, p = .014, Cramer's V = .34; Fisher's exact test, p = .010), COO in body copy (χ^2 (3) = 11.03, p = .012, Cramer's V = .34; Fisher's exact test, p = .013) and COO words in product name (χ^2 (3) = 9.02, p = .029, Cramer's V = .31; Fisher's exact test, p = .036). COO in brand name was used more frequently in Spain than in Germany. COO in body copy was used more frequently in Italy than in Germany. For COO words in brand name and COO words in product name, no details were presented in the custom tables. Therefore no specifications for the findings can be given.

Thus, overall it appears that for certain product categories and product types more differences occurred across countries with regard to the COO markers used than for other product categories and product types. Moreover, it appeared that differences occurred most frequently for COO words in brand name, followed by COO in body copy. Overall, most differences occurred for implicit COO markers. The differences between the four countries were inconsistent. For more detailed analyses regarding differences in the consumer culture positioning strategies that were used through each COO marker across the four countries, see Appendix G.

5. Discussion and conclusion

The aim of this study was to determine whether consumer culture positioning strategies (LCCP, FCCP, GCCP) and COO markers are used differently between product categories and

between European countries (France, Germany, Italy and Spain), and if advertisements for certain product categories show more or less differences between countries in the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers. The first three research questions focussed on the actual occurrence of *consumer culture positioning strategies*, which was counted in terms of four indicators (i.e. brand name, brand logo, theme, spokesperson), used by Alden et al. (1999).

The first research question concerned the possible differences across countries regarding consumer culture positioning strategies in print medium advertisements. The findings revealed that there was indeed a relation between country and consumer culture positioning. In fact, LCCP was used more frequently in France than in the other three countries, and FCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in Spain and France. The findings of Alden et al. (1999) showed a relation between country and consumer culture positioning as well, although they were found for the U.S. and GCCP. One explanation for the present findings could be that brands may use LCCP more often in countries where they expect that the preference for own ethno-cultural products is higher than in other countries (Ahmed et al., 2004; Alden et al., 1999; De Mooij, 2013; Martin, 2006). In addition, the use of LCCP strategies in France may also have to do with the *Toubon law* (Ministère de la Culture et de la Communication, 2013), which was set up to preserve the French language and to promote the French culture (Martin, 2006). In the first place it can be argued that brands see this law as a signal that the French culture is considered to be highly important in France and therefore use LCCP more often in France in the hope to appeal to the target group. Furthermore, as a result of this law, foreign language needs to be translated into French, which means that certain foreign themes may be more difficult to communicate in advertisements. However, indicators such as spokespersons or symbols in logos are not restricted by the *Toubon law*. It is therefore unclear why LCCP is used more frequently in France than in other countries.

The second research question concerned the possible differences between product categories regarding consumer culture positioning strategies in print medium advertisements. The findings revealed that there was indeed a relation between product category and consumer culture positioning strategy. Additionally, the findings also revealed a significant relation between product *type* (a more refined characterisation than product category) and consumer culture positioning strategy. In fact, FCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables, particularly alcoholic beverages, than for the other product categories. Alden et al. (1999) also found a relation between product category and the consumer culture

positioning strategy used, although they found that LCCP, instead of FCCP, was used more frequently for food products than for the other product categories. They explained their findings by suggesting that traditions and socio-cultural values play a crucial role in food consumption, which makes it more likely that food brands try to relate their products to the (local) values of the COO. Since FCCP is also used to refer to specific local values, although not from the home country, it may be suggested that for food products it is more likely that advertisements use consumer culture positioning strategies in order to refer to a specific culture (either local or foreign) and not to a global culture. Another explanation for differences between the findings of the present study and the study of Alden et al. (1999) is the difference between the broad product categories and the more specific product types. Since the present study found differences in consumer culture positioning between more specific product types compared to the broader defined product categories used by Alden et al. (1999), it is possible that differences occurred between the two studies due to different product types available in the sample. Further research should therefore take into account these product types, rather than product categories, when categorising the data.

Additionally, in contrast with the present study, Alden et al. (1999) did not find any significant differences between the European countries they investigated regarding the use of consumer culture positioning strategies. Since both the present study and the study of Alden et al. (1999) compared France and Germany, it is remarkable that in the present study differences were found between France and Germany, whereas no differences were found between these countries in the study of Alden et al. (1999). It is possible that trends in consumer culture positioning strategies have changed over time. Another explanation could be that television commercials are more often standardised than print medium advertisement, since they are more expensive. More research is required in order to find additional support for the present findings. Moreover, further research should compare other countries than those of the present study and the study of Alden et al. (1999) in order to find out if the present findings are generalisable across countries.

The third research question concerned the differences between product categories across countries with regard to consumer culture positioning strategies used in print advertisements. The results revealed that within personal nondurables, low-tech durables and high-tech durables differences occurred between the four countries. More specifically, differences occurred for skin cream, hair products, perfume and bags. Moreover, the results indicated that overall LCCP was most frequently used in France and FCCP was most frequently used in Germany for these product categories/ types. These findings are in line

with previous research into country image, stating that personal care products and bags are congruent with France (Haarmann, 1989; Hornikx et al., 2005; 2007; Kelly-Holmes, 2005; Nagashima, 1970;1977; Usunier & Cestre, 2007), rather than with Germany. This may explain why these product types referred to the local culture in France and to a foreign culture in Germany. Although it was not investigated to which specific culture each ad referred, it is possible that FCCP strategies in Germany were used in order to associate personal care products and bags with the French culture. This means that stereotyping may be the same across countries for certain product categories, which makes it more likely that for these product types standardisation of advertisements is found rather than adaptation. Nevertheless, these assumptions can only be made if further research focuses on the specific culture that is referred to in advertisements.

The next three research questions focussed on the actual occurrence of *COO markers*, which was counted in terms of the eight COO markers of Aichner (2014) and three other markers (i.e. COO in body copy, COO near brand name and COO words in product name) (see Table 1).

The fourth research question concerned the potential differences across European countries regarding the use of COO markers in print medium advertisements. The results show that indeed differences occurred between the four countries regarding the COO markers used. These findings are in line with the findings of Neelankavil et al. (1995), who showed that the use of a foreign model and language depended on the country in which the advertisements were published. In addition, more detailed analyses of the present study revealed that the countries also differed in the type of consumer culture positioning (local, foreign, global) that the COO markers expressed. For instance, the results indicated that in France language was more likely to be used as an LCCP strategy, whereas it was more likely to be used as a GCCP strategy in the other three countries. The fact that in France the local language was used more frequently than a foreign language may again have to do with the *Toubon law* in France (Ministère de la Culture et de la Communication, 2013), which was set up to preserve the French language and to promote the French culture (Martin, 2006). Due to this law, brands are restricted in the amount of foreign language they can use in their ads. It is therefore possible that advertisers avoid to use foreign language in ads that are published in France.

The fifth research question concerned the potential differences between product categories regarding the use of COO markers in print medium advertisements. The results show that differences occurred between product categories regarding the COO markers used.

This is in line with the findings of Neelankavil et al. (1995), who showed that the use of foreign words and models depended on the advertised product type. It may be suggested that the use of certain COO markers is only relevant for a number of product types. For instance, the results of the present study indicated that it is more likely that typical landscapes are used for food nondurables and high-tech durables than for personal nondurables. For food products, a typical landscape could be used to show the origin of the ingredients, and they could be used to place cars in a context of driving in a particular country. For personal nondurables however, it might be less obvious to use landscapes as a COO marker. On the other hand, for personal nondurables, it is more obvious to use stereotypical people in order to demonstrate the use of the products. In accordance with the results of Neelankavil et al. (1995), stereotypical people were indeed used more frequently for personal nondurables than for other product categories. In addition, it might be more likely that COO markers would be used if the product category/ type is congruent with a certain country. On the other hand, product categories/ types that are not congruent with a certain country might need more (explicit) COO markers to associate with a COO than product categories/ types that are congruent with a country, because the association of a COO with non-congruent products are more difficult to make than with congruent products.

The sixth research question concerned the differences between product categories across European countries with regard to the use of COO strategies in print medium advertisements. The results showed that for certain product categories and product types more differences occurred across countries with regard to the COO markers used than for other product categories and product types. Several product types in the present study were congruent with one of the countries that was examined. Therefore, an explanation for the finding might be that in the country that was congruent with the product type, more subtle (i.e. implicit) COO markers were used than in other countries, since local consumers are more familiar with their own culture (Aichner, 2014) or since they have different perceptions about their own culture than other countries have (Aichner, 2014; Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007).

Additionally, more differences occurred for implicit COO markers than for explicit COO markers. This might have to do with the fact that the explicit COO markers, as they were operationalised in this study, are in general more difficult to adapt to countries. As mentioned earlier, 'made in' statements and quality labels are restricted to certain legislations. Moreover, brand names are normally the same in each advertisement. It can therefore be concluded that certain COO markers are by nature more difficult to be adapted to countries

and product categories. Furthermore, the results indicated that there did not seem to be any consistency in the type of COO markers that were used in each country, particularly in terms of explicit versus implicit COO markers. Therefore it can be concluded that brands do not use consistent consumer culture positioning strategies for particular product types or for particular countries.

In addition, more detailed results revealed that COO markers are used for different consumer culture positioning strategies depending on the product category/type and the country in which the advertisement is published. Similar to the findings of RQ3, an explanation might be that neighbouring countries have different stereotypes about each other's culture than countries that are geographically more distant from each other (Aichner, 2014). For instance, within the product category low-tech durables (particularly for clothing, watches and jeans) many differences were found in the type of COO markers that were used across countries. This means that, although the findings for RQ5 indicated that there seems to be a certain pattern in how COO markers are used for certain product categories, these patterns differ across countries. It is therefore suggested that brands may pay attention to differences in ethno-cultural stereotyping in order to adapt their use of COO markers to local markets.

To conclude, both product categories/ types and countries differ with regard to the consumer culture positioning strategies and the COO markers that are used in print medium advertisements. A practical implication of this study is that brands could use these findings to analyse competitive advertising in certain branches or certain target countries. For instance, the present findings showed that for hair products brands mainly use LCCP strategies in France by means of COO words in brand name. With this knowledge, a brand for hair products may therefore decide to distinguish by adapting the brand name using foreign COO words, in order to create competitive advantage.

The present study has contributed to the theory of COO by exploring the actual use of a more varied set of COO markers than was used in previous research (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Han, 1989; Roth & Romeo, 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Maheswaran, 1994; Nagashima; 1970; Piller, 1999), which could be a basis for future research into COO effects. Noteworthy, the 'made in' statement, as claimed to be a frequently used COO marker (Aichner, 2014; Pharr, 2005), did not appear to be a frequently used in the present study. In addition, the present study has added three regularly used COO markers to the list of COO markers that was provided by Aichner (2014), namely the COO in body copy, the COO written near the brand name and COO words in the product name. Regarding research into consumer culture

positioning strategies, the present study contributed to the theory by showing that mixed consumer culture positioning strategies (e.g. LCCP + FCCP) did not occur in print medium advertisements in France, Germany, Italy and Spain. Additionally, the more detailed analyses of the present study (see Appendices C, D, E and F) have contributed to the theory by showing that in addition to the indicators that Alden et al. (1999) used, other indicators (i.e. COO markers) also differ in the consumer culture positioning type they express. In other words, the number of indicators used in the study of Alden et al. (1999) is found to be too limited. Therefore, future research into consumer culture positioning strategies should base its coding on the eleven COO markers that were examined in the present study.

The present study has also contributed to the theory into consumers' perceptions regarding consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers, since perceptions might depend on how often consumers come across certain strategies (Usunier & Cestre, 2007). Research into consumers' perception should therefore take into account the likelihood that certain consumer culture positioning strategies or COO markers do actually occur in a certain sector or country by using the findings of the present study.

6. Limitations and future research

The current study has a number of limitations. The first limitation of this study was the distribution of the magazine issues of *Glamour* and *GQ*. Due to unavailability of certain issues, *Glamour* and *GQ* did contain different issues. In addition, the August issue of Glamour Italy was not included in the sample, because the sample for Glamour Italy was already large. This might have influenced the differences that were found across countries. Therefore, future research should use a homogeneous sample.

The second limitation was that differences were found between the two magazines that were analysed for the data (*Glamour* and *GQ*) regarding the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers. It might be possible that the gender of the target group influences the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers. This means that the results of the present study may not be generalisable across women's and men's magazines. In order to examine whether the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers is influenced by the gender of the target group, future research should compare advertisement of men's and women's magazines.

Another limitation was the method used for coding the product categories. That is, sometimes, multiple different products were advertised at the same time (e.g. an

advertisement showed both bags and shoes). This made it difficult to place them in specific categories regarding the product types. In this research the advertisement was placed in the product type that was most prominent in the advertisement. It is possible that findings would be different if all advertised products were coded separately.

Additionally, several advertisements only contained a small written text, such as 'shop at' or 'visit'. In this study these small textual parts were also included in the analyses. However, it could be argued that such small texts are placed in ads for practical reasons rather than for strategic reasons. Even though it might be difficult to clearly define coding guidelines, future research may exclude such small textual parts from the sample.

The COO marker 'stereotypical people' was coded when the name of the person was written in the ad or when the person was recognised by the coder. Although the interrater reliability of the present study was substantial, this way of coding is partly dependent on the personal knowledge of the coder. For future research, it is also possible to exclude celebrities from the sample when their name is not displayed in the ad.

In certain advertisements, strategies referred to different countries at the same time. For example, in a print medium advertisement for Beefeater (see Appendix A.8), the left side shows a British theme with the typical British flag, a man wearing a derby hat, the famous British phone booth, 'The Gherkin' and the slogan 'This is my London'. The right side of the ad shows an Asian theme with people wearing typical Asian head gear, sitting in a typical Asian boat, a colourfully dressed dancer in the background and two famous designers, originally from Laos. In the present study, these kinds of advertisements were coded as FCCP, although they do not refer to one specific foreign culture. Future research should take into account the possibility that advertisements refer to multiple specific cultures by coding the cultures that advertisements refer to.

In the study of Alden et al. (1999), a consumer culture positioning strategy was coded only when at least three indicators referred to the same consumer culture strategy. In the present study, an ad was coded as a consumer culture positioning strategy when at least two indicators referred to the same strategy (either local, foreign or global), since only four indicators instead of five were used for coding. This may have led to different results regarding the number of consumer culture positioning strategies that were found. As suggested in the conclusion, further research should determine consumer culture positioning strategies on the basis of the eleven COO markers used in the present study.

As Aichner (2014) argues, some COO markers are more complex than others. In addition, he claims that some COO markers are more explicit, whereas others are more

implicit. Therefore, it may be suggested that certain COO markers have a stronger impact on communicating the country-of-origin than other COO markers. In order to examine whether the use of COO markers is influenced by their complexity, future research should compare the use of implicit COO markers with the use of explicit COO markers.

These recommendations may lead to a clearer understanding of how and why consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers are used differently.

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Appendix A

Examples print medium advertisements from the corpus.

Figure A.1: Carins advertisement

Figure A.2: American Tourister

Figure A.3: Dolce & Gabbana advertisement (published in France)

Figure A.4: Dolce & Gabbana advertisement (published in Germany)

Figure A.5: Häagen-Dazs advertisement.

Figure A.6: Swatch advertisement

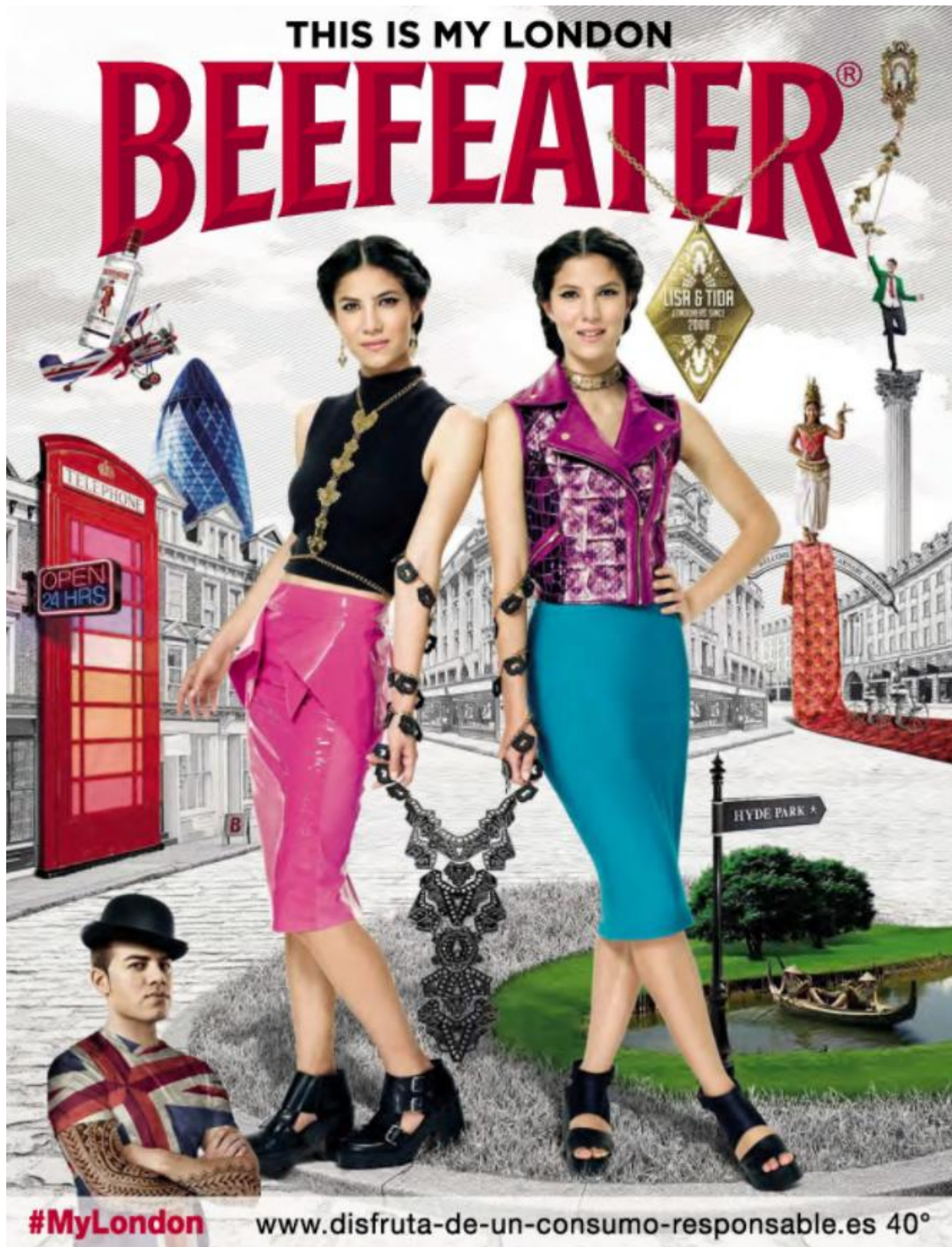Figure A.7: Kusmi tea advertisement

Figure A.8: Beefeater advertisement

Appendix B

Differences between *Glamour* and *GQ* regarding the consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers used.

To check whether the magazines (*Glamour* and *GQ*) differed regarding the use of consumer culture positioning strategies and COO markers, several Chi-square tests were carried out.

First of all, Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the magazine and the consumer culture positioning strategy that was used (χ^2 (3) = 20.27, $p < .001$, Cramer's *V* = .10). No CCP at all appeared to be used more frequently in *Glamour* than in *GQ*. Furthermore, FCCP and GCCP appeared to be used more frequently in *GQ* than in *Glamour*.

The Chi-square tests also revealed a significant relation between the product category and the use of 'made in' statements (χ^2 (1) = 4.45, $p = .035$, Cramer's *V* = .05), COO in brand name (χ^2 (1) = 5.72, $p = .017$, Cramer's *V* = .06), COO words in brand name (χ^2 (1) = 4.66, $p = .031$, Cramer's *V* = .05), COO in body copy (χ^2 (1) = 14.41, $p < .001$, Cramer's *V* = .09), flags/ symbols (χ^2 (1) = 29.60, $p < .001$, Cramer's *V* = .13), typical landscapes (χ^2 (1) = 5.13, $p = .024$, Cramer's *V* = .05) and COO words in product name (χ^2 (1) = 24.22, $p < .001$, Cramer's *V* = .11). 'Made in' statements, COO in body copy, flags/symbols and typical landscapes appeared to be used more frequently in *GQ* than in *Glamour*. Furthermore, COO in brand name, COO words in brand name and COO words in product name appeared to be used more frequently in *Glamour* than in *GQ*.

Appendix C

Coding scheme CCP and COO analysis in printed advertisements

A. **Coder ID:** *Report the coder's number.*

    1. Coder 1

    2. Coder 2

B. **Magazine:** *Report the name of the magazine.*

    1. Glamour

    2. GQ

C. **Issue:** *Report the month of the issue.*

    1. February

    2. April

    3. June

    4. August

    5. October

    6. December

D. **Country of magazine:** *Report the country of the magazine.*

    1. France

    2. Germany

    3. Italy

    4. Spain

E. **First occurrence of advertisement?:** *Indicate whether the advertisement occurs for the first time in either Glamour or GQ in a country (e.g. the first time in Glamour France).*

    0. No

    1. Yes

F. **Number of pages**: *Fill in whether the advertisement is spread over 1 or 2 pages.*

    1. 1 page

2. 2 pages

3. 3 pages

4. 4 pages

G. Brand name: *Fill in the name of the brand that belongs to the advertisement.*

H. Scope brand: *Report the scope of the brand/ company.*

1. Domestic company: *A brand that is developed for a specific national market.*

2. Multinational company (MNC): *A corporation that has its facilities and other assets in at least one country other than its home country. Such companies have offices and/ orfactories in different countries and usually have a centralized head office where they co-ordinate global management.*

99. Unable to determine

I. Product description: *Fill in a brief description of the product/ service*

J. Product category: *Report the product category.*

1. Food nondurables: *Something that people and animals eat or drink, or plants absorb. These goods do not last for a long time and people buy them often.*

2. Personal nondurables: *Products that people use to look after their hair, face, skin, teeth, etc. These goods do not last for a long time and people buy them often (e.g. shampoo,makeup, lotion, toothpaste).*

3. Household nondurables: *Equipment, tools, machines and other things that are used in houses or gardens that do not last for a long time and that people buy often (e.g. detergents, soaps, diapers and other tissue and household paper products).*

4. Lower-technology consumer durables: *Products that do not involve specialized, complex technology. These products are able to stay in good condition for a long time and after being used a lot (e.g. furniture).*

5. Higher-technology durables: *The most advanced and developed machines and methods These products are able to stay in good condition for a long time and after being used a lot (e.g. cameras and computers).*

6. Consumer services: *Particular skills that are offered to customers by a company. No transfer of possession or ownership takes place when services are sold, and they (1) cannot be stored or transported, (2) are instantly perishable, and (3) come into existence at the time they are bought and consumed. (e.g. accounting, banking, cleaning, consultancy, education, insurance, expertise, medical treatment or transportation.*

7. Business goods: *Things that a company owns or sales (e.g. office supplies, accessory equipment, component parts, installations, operating supplies, raw materials, and services).*

8. Business services: *Particular skills that are offered to companies. No transfer of possession or ownership takes place when services are sold, and they (1) cannot be stored or transported, (2) are instantly perishable, and (3) come into existence at the time they are bought and consumed (e.g. accounting, banking, cleaning, consultancy, education, insurance, expertise, medical treatment or transportation).*

99. Unable to determine

K. Product type: *Report the product type. This is a more specific categorisation than product category (e.g. 'chocolate', 'cheese' or 'wine', rather than 'food').*

1. Jewellery	13. Drinks	25. Electronic devices
2. Jeans	14. Perfume	26. Travel
3. Bags	15. Shoes	27. Cleaning products
4. Makeup	16. Hair products	28. Banking
5. Baby food	17. Sanitary products	29. Events
6. Car(services/accessories)	18. Magazine/Book	30. Food
7. Clothing	19. Snacks	31. Medication
8. Glasses	20. Watch	32. Insurance services
9. Recycling	21. Kitchen electronics	33. Website
10. Skin cream/ lotion	22. Electric beauty products	34. Coins
11. Film/ series	23. Dental hygiene	35. Fitness
12. Ice cream, dessert	24. Beer	36. Interior
		99. Unable to determine

L. Consumer Culture Positioning (CCP) indicators

a) Symbols used and/or spelling of visually displayed brand name: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through the symbols and/ or   spelling of the visually displayed brand name (if present). These are official flags, emblems, a letter, a group of letters, a word, a group of words, characters, shape, colours, symbol(s), graphics or single images.*

    0. No CCP

    1. LCCP: *The indicators represent the native culture of the magazine's target group (e.g. the Eiffel tower in a cosmetics advertisement in a French magazine).*

    2. FCCP: *The indicators represent an individual, identifiable culture other than the magazine's target group (e.g. the Eiffel tower in a cosmetics advertisement in a German magazine).*

    3. GCCP: *The indicators represent a cultural element that is not specific assigned to one culture, but rather to a larger group recognised as international and transcending individual national cultures (e.g. a cell phone advertisement featuring business people from multiple countries in a business environment).*

    4. Mixed LCCP + FCCP : *The symbols used and/or spelling of the visually displayed brand name represented both a local and a foreign consumer culture.*

    5. Mixed LCCP + GCCP: *The symbols used and/or spelling of the visually displayed brand name   represented both a local and a global consumer culture.*

    6. Mixed FCCP + GCCP: *The symbols used and/or spelling of the visually displayed brand name   represented both a foreign and a global consumer culture.*

    7. Mixed LCCP + FCCP + GCCP: *The symbols used and/or spelling of the visually displayed brand name represented both a local, a foreign and a global consumer culture.*

    99. Unable to determine

b) Symbol used for brand logo: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through the symbols used for the brand logo (if present). These are official flags, emblems, a letter, a group of letters, characters, shape, colours, symbol(s), graphics or single images.*

    0. No CCP

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) Central theme: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through a central theme (if present).This is a the focal subject, issue or situation that is typical for a certain culture through symbols, landscapes, visuals, texts, spokesperson(s) or other thematic signs.*

0. No CCP
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

12. Appearance of spokesperson(s): *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through the appearance of a spokesperson (if present). These are stereotypes that are attributed to the characteristics of a person based on their group membership and that can be related to the person's look, behaviour, clothes and other elements.*

0. No CCP
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

M. Which CCP is reflected?: *Indicate whether the advertisement overall represents a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global). A CCP is reflected if at least 2 indicators of the same consumer culture are observed in an advertisement. If an advertisement contains at least 3 indicators reflecting more than one consumer culture, the advertisement reflects a mixed strategy.*

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

N. Which culture(s) is/are referred to?: *Report the primary culture/ country that is reflected in the advertisement.*

0. None	5. Hawaii	10. Austria	15. Japan
1. France	6. Switzerland	11. Belgium	16. Russia
2. Italy	7. U.S.	12. Latin America	17. South-Korea
3. Spain	8. England	13. Scandinavia	99. Unable to
4. Germany	9. Australia	14. Caribbean	determine

O. COO strategy:

a) 'Made in' statement: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through a 'made in' statement (if present). This is a phrase that explicitly mentions in which country or region a product is made in (e.g. 'made in Germany).*

0. No CCP
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

13. Quality and origin labels: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through quality and origin labels (if present). When a group of producers defines a product according to specific specifications, it can be registered as a Protected Designation of Origin (PDO),Protected Geographical Indication (PGI) or Traditional Speciality Guaranteed (TSG).*

0. No CCP
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

14. COO embedded in the company name: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through the COO embedded in the company name (if   present). This can be the name of the country, a region, a city or any related modification, for example, adjectives.*

0. No CCP
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

15. Typical COO words embedded in the company name: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through COO words embedded in the company name (if present). Stereotypical names (for example, first or second names) and/ or elements (for example, a country-specific animal) in their company name. It does not usually make a difference whether the word actually means something, as long as it is perceived as typical to the COO in the target market. (e.g. Husky Energy, Lincoln National, Dollar General, Sandvik, Dr. Oetker).*

0. No CCP

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

16. COO embedded in body copy/ slogan: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through the COO embedded in the body copy/ slogan (if present). This is an explicit reference to the COO in any textual part of the advertisement other than the brand name. This can be the name of the country, a region a city or any related modification, for example adjectives (e.g. 'Italian quality' or 'coffee from Italy').*

0. No CCP

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

17. Use of the COO language: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through language (if present). This is the COO language for the company or brand name itself, for slogans or for other textual parts of the advertisements.*

0. No CCP

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

18. Use of famous or stereotypical people from the COO: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through famous or stereotypical people from the COO (if present). These are stereotypes that are attributed to the characteristics of a person based on their group membership and that can be related to the person's look, behaviour, clothes and other elements.*

0. No CCP

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

19. Use of COO flags and symbols: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through flags and symbols (if present). These are official flags, emblems, symbols and other national elements from the COO.*

0. No CCP

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

20. Use of typical landscapes or famous buildings from the COO: *Indicate whether a consumer culture positioning strategy (local, foreign, global) is represented through typical landscapes or famous buildings from the COO (if present). These are buildings and landscapes that are typical or known to belong to a certain country (e.g. the Eiffel Tower (France), the Statue of Liberty (the United States).*

0. No CCP

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

Differences between France, Germany, Italy and Spain, regarding the consumer culture positioning strategies used in terms of COO makers.

To check whether differences exist between the four countries, regarding the consumer culture positioning strategies used in terms of each COO marker, eleven Chi-square tests were performed. For an overview of the results, see Table 11.

Table 11. Chi-square test of country and COO strategy.

| | Country | |
COO marker	χ^2	Cramer's *V*
'Made in' statements	11.29	.06
Quality label	6.24	.04
COO in brand name	28.78**	.07**
COO words in brand name	168.94***	.17***
COO in body copy	29.69	.07
Language	161.50***	.17***
Stereotypical people	31.74**	.08**
Flags/ symbols	33.95*	.08*
Typical landscape	26.01**	.07**
COO near brand name	74.65***	.12***
COO words in product name	80,73***	.12***

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Chi-square tests showed no significant relation between country and the use of consumer culture positioning strategies through 'made in' statements (χ^2 (10) = 13.82, $p = .18$), quality labels (χ^2 (6) = 6.24, $p = .397$), and COO in body copy (χ^2 (21) = 29.69, $p = .098$). The Chi-square tests for the remaining strategies did reveal significant differences between the four countries.

      COO in brand name: The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy used for COO in brand name (χ^2 (9) = 28.78, $p = .001$, Cramer's *V* = .07; Fisher's exact test, $p = .001$). LCCP was found to be used more frequently in France than in the three other countries.

      COO words in brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (18) = 168.94, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .17; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). LCCP was used

more frequently in France than in the three other countries. Furthermore, no CCP at all was used more frequently in France and Germany than in Italy, and it was used more frequently in Germany than in Spain. In addition, LCCP was used more frequently in France and Italy than in Germany and Spain. FCCP was used more frequently in Germany, Italy and Spain than in France, and in Spain it was used more frequently than in Italy. The mixed strategy LCCP+GCCP was used more frequently in Italy than in the three other countries. The mixed strategy FCCP+GCCP was used more frequently in Spain than in France.

Use of language: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language (χ^2 (21) = 161.50, $p <$ .001, Cramer's V = .17; Fisher's exact test, $p <$ .001). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Italy than in the three other countries. Furthermore, LCCP was used more frequently in France, Germany and Spain than in Italy, and it was used more frequently in France and Spain than in Germany. Moreover, GCCP was used more frequently in Germany, Italy and Spain than in France. The mixed strategy LCCP+FCCP was used more frequently in Italy than in France. The mixed strategy LCCP+GCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in France and Italy.

Stereotypical people: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through stereotypical people (χ^2 (15) = 31.74, $p =$ .007, Cramer's V = .08; Fisher's exact test, $p =$ .002). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Italy than in the three other countries. Furthermore, FCCP was used more frequently in Spain than in Italy. GCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in Italy.

Typical landscapes/ buildings: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy used for flags/ symbols (χ^2 (18) = 33.95, $p =$ .013, Cramer's V = .08; Fisher's exact test, $p =$ .004). GCCP was found to be used more frequently in Germany than in France and Italy.

COO near brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy used for COO near brand name (χ^2 (12) = 74.65, $p <$ .001, Cramer's V = .12; Fisher's exact test, $p <$ .001). It appeared that no CCP at all was used more frequently in Germany and Italy than in France. LCCP was used more frequently in France than in the three other countries.

COO words in product name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy used for COO words in product name (χ^2 (18) = 80.73, $p <$ .001, Cramer's V = .12; Fisher's exact test, $p <$ .001). It appeared that no CCP at all was used more frequently in France and Italy than in Spain, and it

was used more frequently in Italy than in Germany. Furthermore, LCCP was used more frequently in France than in the three other countries. GCCP was used more frequently in Germany and Spain than in France and Italy. The mixed strategy FCCP+GCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in France. Taken together, these findings indicate that differences exist between the four countries, with regard to the consumer culture positioning strategy used through COO markers.

Appendix E

Differences between product types, regarding each COO marker.

To check whether differences exist between the product types regarding each COO marker, eleven Chi-square tests were performed. An overview of all frequencies and percentages of these strategies is presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Chi-square test of product type and COO marker.

COO marker	Product type	
	χ^2	Cramer's V
'Made in' statements	117.00***	.25***
Quality label	386.86***	.46***
COO in brand name	156.71***	.29***
COO words in brand name	159.08***	.29***
COO in body copy	169.59***	.30***
Language	324.46***	.42***
Stereotypical people	73.84***	.20***
Flags/ symbols	154.17***	.29***
Typical landscape	102.87***	.24***
COO near brand name	73.21***	.20***
COO words in product name	756.97***	.64***

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Made in statements: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of 'made in' statements (χ^2 (37) = 117.00, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .25; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). 'Made in' statements appeared to be used more frequently for baby food and watches than for clothing.

Quality labels: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of quality labels (χ^2 (37) = 386.86, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .46; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). Quality labels appeared to be used more frequently for baby food and banking than for shoes, and it appeared to be used more frequently for banking than for makeup, cars, glasses and skin cream.

COO in brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of COO in brand name (χ^2 (37) = 156.71, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .29; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). COO in brand name appeared to be used more frequently for

makeup, events and non-alcoholic beverages than for cars, clothing and watches. Furthermore, it appeared to be used more frequently for events and non-alcoholic beverages than for bags, glasses, films/series, perfume and shoes. It was used more frequently for non-alcoholic beverages than for jeans.

COO words in brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of COO words in brand name (χ^2 (37) = 159.08, p < .001, Cramer's V = .29; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). COO words in brand name appeared to be used more frequently for bags, glasses and perfume than for jeans, cars, films/series, sanitary products, watches, kitchen electronics, banking and non-alcoholic beverages. It was used more frequently for bags and perfume than for shoes. It was used more frequently for perfume than for electronic devices.

COO in body copy: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of COO words in brand name (χ^2 (37) = 169.59, p < .001, Cramer's V = .30; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). COO in body copy was used more frequently for skin cream , alcoholic beverages, magazines/books, watches, beer, travel products/ services and events than for perfume. Furthermore, it was used more frequently for alcoholic beverages, travel products/services and events than for jewellery, jeans, bags, cars, clothing, shoes and hair products. It was used more frequently for alcoholic beverages and events than for makeup and glasses.

Use of language: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of language (χ^2 (37) = 324.46, p < .001, Cramer's V = .42; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). Language appeared to be used more frequently for makeup, cars, skin cream, perfume magazines/books and watches than for clothing. Furthermore, it appeared to be used more frequently for makeup, cars, skin cream magazines/books and watches than for bags, glasses and shoes. It was used more frequently for makeup, cars, skin cream and magazines/books than for jewellery. It was used more frequently for makeup, cars and skin cream than for perfume. It appeared to be used more frequently for cars and skin cream than for jeans.

Stereotypical people: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of stereotypical people (χ^2 (37) = 73.84, p < .001, Cramer's V = .20; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). Stereotypical people appeared to be used more frequently for hair products and dental hygiene than for cars and shoes. Furthermore this strategy was used more frequently for hair products than for watches. It was used more frequently for dental hygiene than for electronic devices.

Flags/ symbols: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of flags/ symbols (χ^2 (37) = 154.17, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .29; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). Flags/ symbols appeared to be used more frequently for jeans, cars, alcoholic beverages watches and kitchen electronics than for perfume. Furthermore, they were used more frequently for cars, alcoholic beverages, watches, kitchen electronics and non-alcoholic beverages than for skin cream. They were used more frequently for cars, watches and kitchen electronics than for makeup, clothing and glasses. They were used more frequently for cars than for jewellery, shoes and magazines/books.

Typical landscapes: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of landscapes (χ^2 (37) = 102.87, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .24; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). Typical landscapes appeared to be used more frequently for cars and travel products/services than for clothing. Furthermore, they were used more frequently for travel products/ services than for jewellery, makeup, glasses, perfume, shoes, magazines/books and watches.

COO near brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of COO near brand name (χ^2 (37) = 73.21, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .20; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). COO near brand name appeared to be used more frequently for watches than for clothing and perfume.

COO words in product name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product type and the use of COO words in product name (χ^2 (37) = 756.97, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .64; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). COO words in product name appeared to be used more frequently for jewellery, makeup, cars, skin cream, films/series, alcoholic beverages, perfume, hair products, sanitary products, snacks, watches, kitchen electronics, electric beauty products electronic devices and food than for clothing. It was used more frequently for makeup, cars, skin cream, films/series, perfume, hair products, sanitary products, watches, kitchen electronics, electric beauty products, electronic devices and food than for jeans and shoes. It was used more frequently for makeup, cars, skin cream, films/series, perfume, hair products, sanitary products, watches, electric beauty products and electronic devices than for bags and magazines/books. It was used more frequently for makeup, skin cream, perfume, hair products and electric beauty products than for jewellery. It was used more frequently for makeup, skin cream, perfume and hair products than for alcoholic beverages. It was used more frequently for makeup skin cream and perfume than for cars, watches, travel products/services and events. It was used more frequently for makeup and perfume than for films/series.

Differences between product categories, regarding the consumer culture positioning strategies used in terms of each COO marker.

To check whether differences exist between the product categories, regarding the consumer culture positioning strategies used in terms of each COO marker, eleven Chi-square tests were performed. An overview of all frequencies and percentages of these strategies is presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Chi-square test of product category and COO marker.

	Product category	
COO marker	χ^2	Cramer's V
'Made in' statements	13.82	.06
Quality label	51.02***	.12***
COO in brand name	67.67***	.11***
COO words in brand name	125.93***	.12***
COO in body copy	116.43***	.11***
Language	587.25***	.25***
Stereotypical people	71.57***	.09***
Flags/ symbols	149.00***	.13***
Typical landscape	95.42***	.13***
COO near brand name	39.50**	.07**
COO words in product name	677.45***	.27***

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Chi-square tests showed no significant relation between product category and the use of consumer culture positioning strategies through 'made in' statements (χ^2 (10) = 13.82, p = .18). The Chi-square tests for the remaining strategies did reveal significant differences between the six product categories regarding the use of COO markers.

Quality labels: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy through quality labels (χ^2 (10) = 51.02, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .12; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). No CCP at all was used more frequently for personal nondurables and low-tech durables than for food products and consumer services, and it was used more frequently for low-tech durables than for high-tech durables. Furthermore, it appeared that LCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables,

high-tech durables and consumer services than for low-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for consumer services than for personal nondurables.

COO in brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategies through COO in brand name (χ^2 (15) = 67.67, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .11$; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). No CCP at all was used more frequently for low-tech durables and high-tech durables than for personal nondurables, and it was used more frequently for high-tech durables than for food nondurables, low-tech durables and consumer services. Furthermore, LCCP was used more frequently for consumer services than for low-tech durables. FCCP was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for low-tech durables.

COO words in brand name: Furthermore, Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (30) = 125.93, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .12$; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). No CCP at all was used more frequently for food nondurables, high-tech durables and consumer services than for personal nondurables, and it was used more frequently for high-tech durables than for low-tech durables. Furthermore, FCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables, personal nondurables, low-tech durables and high-tech durables than for consumer services. GCCP was used more frequently for low-tech durables and consumer services than for personal nondurables and high-tech durables. The mixed strategy FCCP+GCCP was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for low-tech durables.

COO in body copy: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO in body copy (χ^2 (35) = 116.43, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .11$; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). No CCP at all was used more frequently for personal nondurables, low-tech durables and high-tech durables than for food nondurables, and it was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for consumer services. Furthermore, FCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables than for household nondurables, low-tech durables, high-tech durables and consumer services. Moreover, GCCP was used more frequently for high-tech durables than for personal nondurables and low-tech durables.

Use of language: The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language (χ^2 (35) = 587.25, $p < .001$, Cramer's $V = .25$; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). No CCP at all was used more frequently for personal nondurables, household nondurables and low-tech durables than for high-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for low-tech durables than for

personal nondurables. Furthermore, LCCP appeared to be used more frequently for food nondurables, personal nondurables, high-tech durables and consumer services than for low-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for consumer services than for personal nondurables, household nondurables and high-tech durables. GCCP was used more frequently for personal nondurables and low-tech durables than for high-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for low-tech durables than for food nondurables, personal nondurables and consumer services. The mixed strategy LCCP+FCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables, personal nondurables and high-tech durables than for low-tech durables. The mixed strategy LCCP+GCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables and high-tech durables than for personal nondurables and low-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for high-tech durables than for consumer services. The mixed strategy FCCP+GCCP was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for low-tech durables.

Stereotypical people: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy through stereotypical people (χ^2 (25) = 71.57.25, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .09; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). It appeared that no CCP al all was used more frequently for low-tech durables and high-tech durables than for personal nondurables. Furthermore, LCCP was used more frequently for consumer services than for low-tech durables. FCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables than for personal nondurables and low-tech durables. GCCP was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for low-tech durables and consumer services.

Flags/ symbols: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy through flags/symbols (χ^2 (30) = 149.00, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .13; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). No CCP al all was used more frequently for personal nondurables, low-tech durables and consumer services than for high-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for low-tech durables and high-tech durables. LCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables and high-tech durables than for personal nondurables and low-tech durables. FCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables and low-tech durables than for personal nondurables, and it was used more frequently for food nondurables than for low-tech durables, high-tech durables and consumer services. GCCP was used more frequently for high-tech durables than for personal nondurables.

Typical landscape: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy through typical landscapes (χ^2 (15) = 95.42, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .13; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). It appeared that no

CCP al all was used more frequently for personal nondurables and low-tech durables than for high-tech durables. Moreover, LCCP was used more frequently for household nondurables than for personal nondurables and low-tech durables. FCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables than for personal nondurables and low-tech durables. GCCP was used more frequently for high-tech durables than for personal nondurables and low-tech durables.

COO near brand name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy used for COO near brand name (χ^2 (20) = 39.50, p = .006, Cramer's V = .07; Fisher's exact test, p = .002). No CCP al all was used more frequently for high-tech durables than for personal nondurables and low-tech durables.

COO words in product name: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the product category and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in product name (χ^2 (30) = 677.45, p < .001, Cramer's V = .27; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). It appeared that no CCP al all was used more frequently for food nondurables, low-tech durables, high-tech durables and consumer services than for personal nondurables, and it was used more frequently for low-tech durables than for high-tech durables and consumer services. LCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables, personal nondurables and consumer services than for low-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for high-tech durables. FCCP was used more frequently for food nondurables, personal nondurables and high-tech durables than for low-tech durables, and it was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for consumer services. GCCP was used more frequently for personal nondurables and high-tech durables than for food nondurables, low-tech durables and consumer services. The mixed strategy FCCP+GCCP was used more frequently for personal nondurables than for low-tech durables. Taken together, these findings indicate that differences exist between the six product categories, with regard to the consumer culture positioning strategy used through COO markers.

Differences between France, Germany, Italy and Spain regarding the consumer culture positioning strategies used in terms of each COO marker.

To check whether differences exist between the four countries, regarding the consumer culture positioning strategies used in terms of each COO marker, several chi-square tests were carried out (for each COO strategy within each product category). Differences between product types were analysed for all product categories which were coded more than 30 times (see Table 4).

Food nondurables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through flags/ symbols: (χ^2 (6) = 19.37, p = .004, Cramer's V = .38; Fisher's exact test, p = .007). FCCP was found to be used more frequently in Spain than in France.

Personal nondurables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO in brand name (χ^2 (6) = 28.56, p < .001, Cramer's V = .19; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). It appeared that LCCP through COO in brand name was used more frequently in France than in Italy.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand (χ^2 (15) = 100.09, p < .001, Cramer's V = .30; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). LCCP was used more frequently in France and Italy than in Germany and Spain, and in France it was used more frequently than in Italy. Furthermore, FCCP appeared to be used more frequently in Germany, Italy and Spain than in France.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language (χ^2 (18) = 69.11, p < .001, Cramer's V = .25; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). LCCP through use of language was used more frequently in France than in the three other countries. Furthermore GCCP and the mixed strategy LCCP+GCCP appeared to be used more frequently in Germany than in France. The mixed strategy LCCP+FCCP was used more frequently in Italy than in Germany and Spain.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO near brand name (χ^2 (6) = 54.24, p < .001, Cramer's V = .27). It appeared that no CCP at all was used more frequently in Spain than in France.

Furthermore, LCCP appeared to be used more frequently in France than in Germany and Italy.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in product name (χ^2 (18) = 60, p < .001, Cramer's V = .23; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). It appeared that LCCP was used more frequently in France and Italy than in Germany, and it was used more frequently in France than in Spain. Furthermore, GCCP appeared to be used more frequently in Spain than in France and Italy.

Makeup: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (12) = 42.32, p < .001, Cramer's V = .44; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). It appeared that LCCP was used more frequently in France than in Germany and Italy.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in product name (χ^2 (15) = 25.06, p = .049, Cramer's V = .34; Fisher's exact test, p = .036). GCCP was used more frequently in Spain than in Italy.

Skin cream: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO in brand name (χ^2 (6) = 16.41, p = .012, Cramer's V = .31; Fisher's exact test, p = .013). Further details of these findings were not available. Therefore, no specifications of the findings can be given.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (12) = 27.94, p = .006, Cramer's V = .33; Fisher's exact test, p = .003). FCCP was used more frequently in Spain than in France.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO near brand name (χ^2 (6) = 25.08, p < .001, Cramer's V = .39; Fisher's exact test, p = .001). Further details of these findings were not available. Therefore, no specifications of the findings can be given.

Hair products: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (12) = 37.10, p < .001, Cramer's V = .50; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Germany than in France. LCCP was used more frequently in France than in Germany. FCCP was used more frequently in Italy than in France and Germany.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through stereotypical people (χ^2 (6) = 15.61, p = .016, Cramer's V = .40; Fisher's exact test, p = .017). GCCP was used more frequently in France than in Germany.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO near brand name (χ^2 (6) = 14.65, p = .023, Cramer's V = .39; Fisher's exact test, p = .024). Further details of these findings were not available. Therefore, no specifications of the findings can be given.

Perfume: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (15) = 48.36, p < .001, Cramer's V = .31; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). LCCP was used more frequently in France and Italy than in Spain. FCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in France and Italy.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language: (χ^2 (18) = 62.93, p < .001, Cramer's V = .36; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). LCCP was used more frequently in France than in the three other countries. GCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in France.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO near brand name (χ^2 (6) = 18.21, p = .006, Cramer's V = .24; Fisher's exact test, p = .008). LCCP was used more frequently in France than in Germany.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in product name (χ^2 (18) = 42.54, p = .001, Cramer's V = .30; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). LCCP was used more frequently in France than in Spain.

Low-tech durables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through 'made in' statements (χ^2 (6) = 14.94, p = .021, Cramer's V = .08; Fisher's exact test, p = .014). Further details of these findings were not available. Therefore, no specifications of the findings can be given.

The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (18) = 114.76, p < .001, Cramer's V = .18; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). No CCP at all was used more frequently in France, Germany and Spain than in Italy. Furthermore, LCCP appeared to be

used more frequently in France and Italy than in Germany and Spain. The mixed strategy LCCP+GCCP was used more frequently in Italy than in Germany and Spain.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language (χ^2 (21) = 92.85, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .16; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). It appeared that no CCP at all was used more frequently in Italy than in Germany and Spain. Furthermore, LCCP appeared to be used more frequently in France and Spain than in Germany and Italy. GCCP appeared to be used more frequently in Germany than in France.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through stereotypical people (χ^2 (12) = 31.63, $p = .002$, Cramer's V = .10; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). It appeared that no CCP at all was used more frequently in Italy than in the three other countries. Furthermore, LCCP appeared to be used more frequently in France than in Germany. GCCP appeared to be used more frequently in Germany than in Italy.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through flags/ symbols (χ^2 (15) = 28.85, $p = .017$, Cramer's V = .10; Fisher's exact test, $p = .004$). FCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in Italy.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO near brand name (χ^2 (12) = 37.75, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .10; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Italy than in France. Furthermore, LCCP was used more frequently in France than in Germany and Italy.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in product name (χ^2 (12) = 44.75, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .11; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). Further details of these findings were not available. Therefore, no specifications of the findings can be given.

Clothing: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (18) = 73.22, $p < .001$, Cramer's V = .21; Fisher's exact test, $p < .001$). No CCP at all was used more frequently in France than in Italy. LCCP was used more frequently in France and Italy than in Germany and Spain. FCCP was used more frequently in Spain than in France. The mixed strategy LCCP+GCCP was used more frequently in Spain than in Germany.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language (χ^2 (21) = 56.79, p < .001, Cramer's V = .19; Fisher's exact test, p < .001). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Italy than in Spain. LCCP was used more frequently in France than in Germany and Italy. GCCP was used more frequently in Germany and Spain than in France. The mixed strategy LCCP+GCCP appeared to be used more frequently in France than in Italy.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through stereotypical people (χ^2 (9) = 21.21, p = .012, Cramer's V = .11; Fisher's exact test, p = .009). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Italy than in Germany. FCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in Italy.

Watch: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language (χ^2 (15) = 26.62, p = .032, Cramer's V = .22; Fisher's exact test, p = .027). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Italy than in Germany. LCCP appeared to be used more frequently in France than in the three other countries.

Shoes: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language: (χ^2 (12) = 22.10, p = .036, Cramer's V = .26; Fisher's exact test, p = .015). Further details of these findings were not available. Therefore, no specifications of the findings could be given.

Jeans: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO near brand name: (χ^2 (3) = 9.01, p = .029, Cramer's V = .45; Fisher's exact test, p = .046). No CCP at all was used more frequently in France than in Spain. FCCP was used more frequently in Spain than in France.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (12) = 28.82, p = .004, Cramer's V = .46; Fisher's exact test, p = .005). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Germany than in Italy.

Bags: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language (χ^2 (12) = 24.04, p = .020, Cramer's V = .31; Fisher's exact test, p = .020). LCCP was used more frequently in Spain than in Italy.

The Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name: (χ^2 (12) = 23.88, p

= .21, Cramer's V = .32; Fisher's exact test, p = .006). FCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in France and Italy.

High tech durables: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO words in brand name (χ^2 (12) = 25.05, p = .015, Cramer's V = .26; Fisher's exact test, p = .008). FCCP was used more frequently in Italy than in Spain.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO in body copy (χ^2 (15) = 27.98, p = .022, Cramer's V = .27; Fisher's exact test, p = .002). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Germany and Spain than in Italy.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through typical landscapes (χ^2 (9) = 18.59, p = .029, Cramer's V = .22; Fisher's exact test, p = .008). Further details of these findings were not available. Therefore, no specifications of the findings can be given.

Cars: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through 'made in' statements : (χ^2 (3) = 8.31, p = .040, Cramer's V = .31; Fisher's exact test, p = .038). Further details of these findings were not available. Therefore, no specifications of the findings can be given.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through use of language (χ^2 (18) = 30.43, p = .033, Cramer's V = .34; Fisher's exact test, p = .004). LCCP was used more frequently in France than in Germany and Italy. The mixed strategy LCCP+GCCP was used more frequently in Germany than in France.

Consumer services: Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO in brand name (χ^2 (6) = 23.64, p = .001, Cramer's V = .35; Fisher's exact test, p = .002). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Germany than in Spain.

Chi-square tests revealed a significant relation between the country and the consumer culture positioning strategy through COO in body copy (χ^2 (15) = 32.34, p = .006, Cramer's V = .34; Fisher's exact test, p = .005). No CCP at all was used more frequently in Germany than in Italy. LCCP was used more frequently in Italy than in Germany. Taken together, these findings indicate that for certain product categories and product types consumer culture positioning strategies are used differently through COO markers between the four countries.