

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

Many years ago, researchers had already found the concept of Country-of-Origin (COO) effect. This concept explained on how country-of-origin could affect the consumers' attitude toward a certain brand. However, consumers could not easily determine where a brand comes from and it brought to a misjudgment of the brand origin. The next question is how this misjudgment of brand origin would affect their preference and purchase likelihood toward the brand. Therefore, this chapter discussed deeper about the COO effect to the brand, followed by the consumer's brand origin confusion (BOC) effect to the brand preference and purchase likelihood. More importantly, this chapter discussed the role of consumer's knowledge about the origin of the brand to brand origin confusion effect. In the final part of this chapter, the hypotheses development was discussed.

2.2. Country-of-Origin

A product is consisted of both intrinsic and extrinsic cues. Intrinsic cue is a collection of information cues, such as the physical make-up of the product, including material, colour, technical specifications, performance, taste, texture, and design. Besides, extrinsic cue is coming from the aspect of external, such as reputation, brand equity, price, brand name, and country-of-origin (Liefeld, 1993, cited in Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic, 2011, p. 456). Each cue provides

customers with a basis for evaluating product based on risk, quality and purchase intention (Bilkey and Nes, 1982). Furthermore, consumers face difficulties in finding the intrinsic cue of the product that will influence their preference and purchasing. In this case, consumers are forced to rely on information which is easier to be found like the extrinsic cues, such as price and country-of origin. These cues would be used in the judgment of the product's value and quality (Shimp, Samiee, and Madden, 1993).

Country-of-origin concept first was introduced in the literature by Dichter (1962, cited in Coskun and Burnaz, 2013). Dichter was the first one stated that the country-of-origin of a product was very important for the success and recognition in global markets. Then in 1965, Schooler conducted the first empirical research about COO case (Magnusson *et al.*, 2011). Schooler found that Guatemalan students gave lower evaluation to products from El Salvador and Costa Rica than to domestic and Mexican products (Magnusson *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, in more than 35 years, the role of country-of-origin in determining the consumers' attitudes has been a big phenomenon in the literature of international marketing community and more than 100 studies had examined some aspect of the COO phenomenon (Magnusson, Westjohn, and Zdravkovic, 2011).

The study of Schooler was focused on the "made in ..." label. In this perspective, a product's brand origin was the same as the manufacturing home of the product. Thus, it was viewed as the same as a product's "made in ..." label. Kwok, Uncles, and Huang (2006) stated that country-of-origin effect was a phenomenon when consumers used the country in which a product was

manufactured as an extrinsic cue when making a purchase decision. Previous studies had found that the “Made in ...” label affects consumers in many ways, including product evaluation, quality perceptions, and purchase likelihood (Zhuang *et al.*, 2008; Kinra, 2006)

As it was stated earlier, COO was said to be a primary cue by consumers in evaluating new products. As a primary cue, COO was found to reflect consumers’ general perceptions about quality of products made in foreign country (Kinra, 2006). COO not only had a direct influence on product evaluation, but also appeared to stimulate consumers to think more extensively about other product attribute information (Hong and Wyer, 1989). Moreover, it had also been examined that COO influences not only for generic product categories, but also for specific brands (Bilkey and Nes, 1982, cited in Kinra, 2006, p. 17).

COO effect may happen because of the consumers’ perception of the country image. “Country image is the overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country based on their prior perceptions of the country’s production and marketing strength and weaknesses” (Roth and Romeo, 1992, p.480). Many of brand promotions are emphasizing the COO in order to gain advantage of country image and stereotype. This is derived from how each country is attached with a certain product category such as America with Jeans, Germany with beer, Sweden with cars, and Japan with microelectronics (Kinra, 2006).

Country image is particularly important when consumers are not familiar with the brand names. Its influence is therefore higher than the brand itself

(Nebenzahl and Jaffe, 1996, cited in Salciuviene, Ghauri, Streder, and De Mattos, 2010, p. 1040). In addition, Sharma (2010) argued that COO affected product evaluation through “halo” and “summary” effects. Under the halo effect, consumers made judgment about the product quality based on the image they have about its COO, whereas under the summary effect consumers made abstractions of the product information into a country image, which directly affected product evaluation. Moreover, it was also argued that COO had a symbolic and emotional meaning for consumers. COO might associate a product with status, authenticity, and exoticness.

In conclusion, the image which is attached to the country would bring the consumers into a stereotype about the product. This stereotypes in further determine the consumers’ attitude toward the product. This phenomenon is called as country-of-origin effect.

2.3. Further Development of Country-of-origin Concept

In the first section, it has already discussed what country-of-origin is as it was first introduced in 1965 (Magnusson *et al.*, 2011). Country-of-origin in this perspective was focused on the “made in ...” label. A product’s brand origin was the same as the manufacturing home of the product. Thus, it was viewed as the same as a product’s “made in ...” label.

However, the importance of country-of-origin has changed in the last 35 years (Salciuviene, 2010). The world has changed and COO as image of actual manufacturing origin based on “Made in ...” labels no longer holds (Nebenzahl *et*

al., 1997 cited in Usunier, 2011). Moreover, Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, and Paliawadana, (2011) said that in recent years, the country-of-origin construct has been attacked from at least three angles.

Firstly, it was argued that the “COO effect is no longer a major issue for international marketing operations: multinational production, global branding, and the decline of origin labeling in WTO rules tend to blur the COO issue and lessen its relevance” (Usunier, 2006, p. 61). In further, the continuing globalization of markets has led many companies to produce product components from multiple countries, so it is more difficult to identify the COO of a product by manufacturing location (Clarke, Owens, and Ford, 2000). In response to the globalization where “made in ...” label is no longer the same as the brand’s home country, researchers have attempted to separate the COO construct into different components, such as a country of design, manufacture, assembly, and parts. However, it is almost impossible for consumers to keep track of design, part, and assembly origins (Magnusson, 2011). Usunier (2006) also stated that “manufacturing origin has become largely irrelevant (at least for most product categories)”.

Secondly, studies have shown that in many cases, consumers do not know the correct COO of many well-known brands. Thus, it seems that “consumers either had limited recognition of brand origins or found such information relatively unimportant and thus unworthy of retention in memory” (Samiee *et al.*, 2005, p. 392). Thirdly, Diamantopoulos *et al.* (2011) stated that in surveys on the

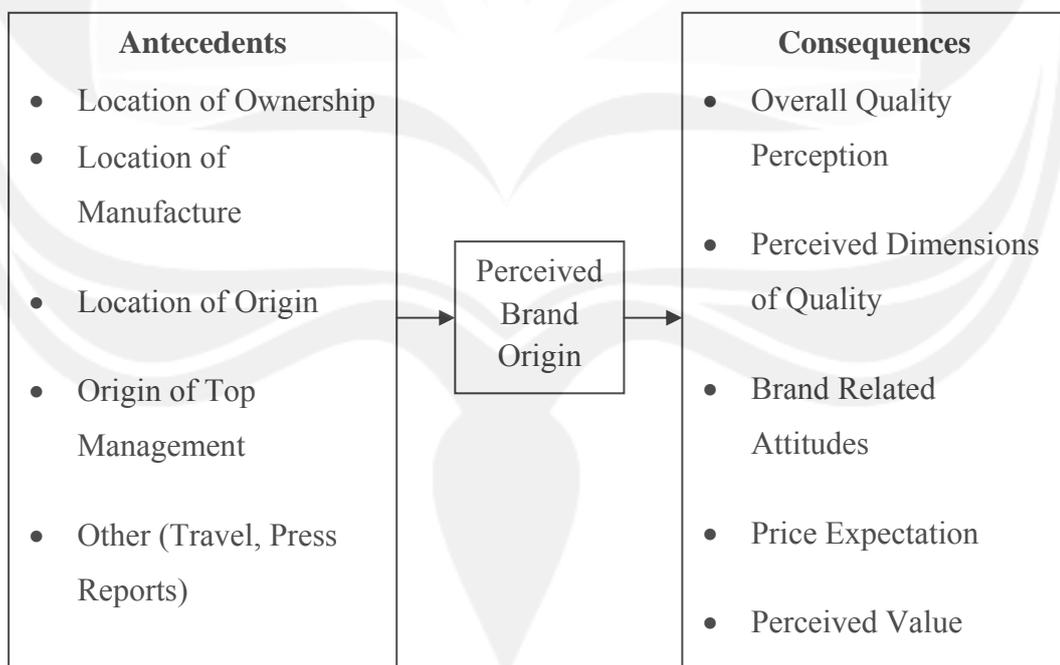
use of COO as an informational cue, only small proportion of respondents agreed that COO might have played some role in product choice.

2.4. Concept of Brand Origin

If consumers still perceive origin of the product as a cue for their attitude, manufacturing origin has become irrelevant and brands has progressively taken the lead in suggesting the product origin (Samiee *et al.*, 2005; Usunier, 2011). Brand names work better than manufacturing origins because, among many stimuli that could activate origin recognition, marketers were always willing to put the brand in the front. Because the brand is always displayed, it is said to be a visually salient cue which do not require much effort rather than finding the “made in ...” label on the side of consumers (Usunier, 2011).

According to Thakor and Kohli (1996), brand origin (BO) could be defined as “the place, region or country to which the brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers”. They also explained that when a brand relied on a feature-based concept, the BO cues became more explicit. When the brand relied on a symbolic concept, the BO cues became more implicit and subtle. The key dimension which differentiates COO and BO was the difference in focus. In COO studies, basic importance had been given to the country at product level and not at the brand level. The primary focus was determining the effect of consumers’ perceptions of the countries rating of the product, whereas brand origin studies focused to integrate the origin cues within brand image (Saran and Gupta, 2012; Thakor and Kohli, 1996).

Previous studies have found that brand origin, similar to COO in the past, affects consumers' quality perceptions, brand-related attitudes, and purchase likelihood and results in brand origin stereotypes (Zhuang, 2008). In further Thakor and Lavack (2003) explained that brand origin association appeared to represent a more powerful influence on consumers, while information about where a product's parts were manufactured or assembled was less important. Brands tended to be in a better position to insure a product's credibility and authenticity rather than the traditional country-of-origin cues (such as, made-in "... " label) (Zhou, Yang, and Hui, 2010). The model in figure 2.1 which was proposed by Thakor and Lavack (2003) shows the antecedents and consequences of BO.



Source: Thakor and Lavack (2003)

Figure 2.1
Antecedents and Consequences of Brand Origin

2.5. Foreign and Local Brand

A brand could be a valuable asset to the firm. It differentiates the firm, shows the main source of ownership, communicates consistent quality, helps consumers determining purchase decisions, and acts as a symbolic device for consumers' self perceptions (de Chernatony and McWilliam, 1989, cited in Alashban, Hayes, Zinkhan, and Balazs, 2002).

Furthermore, Zhuang *et al.* (2008) classified brand origin into two categories: local and foreign and many companies have tried to use this local or foreign brand concept in order to gain advantages. There are many different views about which strategy should be taken by the firm in order to gain product success. Many multinational corporations today are using global brands, believing that consumers worldwide prefer global brands to local brands. However this belief, as well as the consumers' motivation has not been systematically researched (Steenkamp *et al.*, 2003).

Alashban *et al.*, (2002, p. 22) described how the issue of standardization versus adaptation in marketing activities had been a big issue in international literature. It was suggested to treat market segments as global entities, not local ones. They argued that because of the development of television satellites and increased cable penetration, the viewers were able to access multiple international perspectives and cultures (Winram, 1984, cited in Alashban *et al.*, 2001, p. 22) However, it was also mentioned the disagreement of this view. It was argued that there were no empirical evidence exists to show that the world became more homogeneous and global products were usually very pricy and it was not suitable

for consumers who sought for lower-priced brands (Wind, 1986, cited in Alashban *et al.*, 2002, p. 22).

Alashban *et al.* (2002) concluded that both local and foreign brand had their strengths and weaknesses. Local brand could be preferable in reason to improve the competitive standing in the market and to grab different market segments easily. However, foreign brand name had cost-saving advantage because variations in brand names led to an increase in the cost of promotion, distribution, and packaging. Moreover, consumers might prefer global brands because of associations of higher *prestige* and would enhance their self-image as being cosmopolitan, sophisticated, and modern (Friedman, 1990, cited in Steenkamp *et al.*, 2003). More importantly, Steenkamp *et al.* (2003, p. 62) found that perceived brand globalness might provide a significant strength: “the higher a brand’s perceived globalness, the higher the perceived quality, *prestige*, and purchase likelihood.”

In order to get advantages that the global brands might give, some companies intentionally use foreign-sounding name for their brands. Leclerc, Schmitt, and Dube (1994) explained the strategy of spelling or pronouncing a brand name in a foreign language which was called as foreign branding. Foreign branding was targeted primarily to influence the brand image dimension of brand equity. Leclerc *et al.* (1994) studied that foreign branding could be an effective means of influencing consumers’ perceptions and attitudes. It was also supported with the study which Thakor and Pacheco (1997) did. They found that foreign branding affected product evaluations more than country-of-origin.

2.6. Brand Origin Effect in Developing Country

Brand origin research investigate the effect that the COO of brands had on consumers. Those researchers have found that brand origin, similar to COO in the past, affects consumers' quality perceptions, brand-related attitudes, and purchase likelihood, and resulted in brand origin stereotypes (Thakor and Lavack, 2003; Zhuang *et al.*, 2008).

Moreover, speaking about foreign and local brand origin, previous researches have reported that consumers in developed countries prefer local brands than foreign brands (Netemeyer *et al.*, 1991, cited in Zhuang, 2008, p. 444). Sharma (2011) explained that consumers in developed markets perceived products from less developed markets to be of inferior quality, and those from other developed markets to be of similar or superior quality to their domestic products.

In contrast, in most developing markets, consumers tend to show a greater preference for foreign brands, especially for luxury brands (Zhou and Belk, 2004). Kinra (2006) also found that Indian consumers had a greater preference to the foreign brands rather than the local ones. Batra *et al.* (2000) argued that in developing countries, a brand's country-of-origin affected perceptions of nonlocalness. Such nonlocalness could be very favorable, especially if the COO was a western or developed-economy country.

Previous researches have already described how foreign brand is favorable for consumers in emerging market. There are some factors which made these brands are favorable. Sharma (2011) and Kinra (2006) stated that consumers in emerging markets perceived imported product from developed markets to be of

superior quality. Batra *et al.* (2000) found that nonlocal effect operated in addition to consumer assessments of the brand's quality ratings. Furthermore, consumers believed that foreign brands were more reliable and safe than their domestic country brands (Kinra, 2006).

Besides, not only about quality perception, consumers in developing countries also see COO as determining a brand's desirability for symbolic, status-enhancing reasons (status preference) (Batra *et al.*, 2000). Batra *et al.* (2000) continued to study about why the effect of desirability for symbolic, status-enhancing reasons was stronger in developing countries. Such concern with status display was even more important in developing countries because of the interpersonal relationships which became the prime importance in society.

Zhou and Hui (2003) stated that interpersonal relationship or "interdependent orientation" played an important role in society and it explained the consumers' buying behavior. Interdependent cultures emphasize conformity to group norms, social acceptance, and hierarchical interpersonal relationship (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran, 2000, cited in Zhou and Hui, 2003, p. 43). It was also explored that interdependent orientation shaped the expectations and desires for authentic consumption among consumers in East Asia (Wong and Ahuvia, 1998 cited in Zhou and Hui, 2003, p. 43). In addition, East Asian consumers were found to have a strong tendency to consume luxuries brands because they believed that they had to and thus exploring cosmopolitanism and *prestige* in foreign products would be very important strategy to do (Wong and Ahuvia, 1998 cited in Zhou and Hui, 2003, p. 43).

As what stated before, the effect of desirability for symbolic, status-enhancing reasons was stronger in developing countries (Batra *et al.*, 2000). It was argued that it was happened not only because of interpersonal relationship, but also because of economic factors and western media exposure. Consumers in developing countries are relatively less affluent than those in developed countries, and this could create a sense of insecurity and inferiority (Batra *et al.*, 2000). Moreover, increasing exposure to global media and the show of Western lifestyle in local media have increased the desire for high-quality goods and services among consumers in the developing countries (Belk, 1999, cited in Sharma, 2011, p. 288). The flow of media images is mostly from the economic centre (the West) and it makes brands that symbolize the Western lifestyle seems favorable for consumers in developing countries.

Batra *et al.* (2000, p. 93) concluded that “among consumers in developing countries, for reasons that go beyond brand quality assessments, brands perceived as having nonlocal country-of-origin are attitudinally preferred to brands seen as local”. Furthermore, Batra *et al.* (2000) suggested that brand’s COO not only served as a quality halo or summary of product quality, but could also affect in additional dimension, which was the status enhancing explanation.

Additionally, Bar-Haim (1987, cited in Batra *et al.* 2000, p. 85) explained that this status enhancing desirability also worked on young consumers who saw foreign brands as symbols of status, affluence, modernity, individuality, rebellion against traditional institutions and freedom of choice (Zhou and Hui, 2003). The summary of some literatures regarding COO effect is listed in the table 1 below.

Table 1
Literature Overview on Country-of-Origin Effect

Authors	Focus of the research	Measure of evaluation	Research Findings
Schooler (1965)	Perception of product quality from less developed and developed countries	Quality assessment	COO matters in the perception of product quality
Bilkey and Nes (1982)	Qualitative study on how COO effect product evaluation	Quality assessment and consumers attitude	COO is confirmed to affect product evaluation
Hong and Wyer (1989)	Effect of COO and specific attribute information on product evaluation	Quality assessment and consumers attitude	COO and product information are used as the basis of judgment
Leclerc <i>et al.</i> (1994)	Foreign branding effect on product evaluation	Product perception and consumers attitudes	Foreign branding which indicate the perceived COO influence consumers' perception and attitude
Peterson and Jolibert (1995)	Effect of COO on product perception and purchase likelihood	Product perception and Purchase likelihood	COO effect to purchase likelihood is more sensitive than to quality/reliability perception
Batra <i>et al.</i> (2000)	Brand origin effect on brand preference for consumers in developing countries	Quality assessment, consumers attitude (brand preference)	Perceived brand nonlocalness affect the quality perception and brand preference
Steenkamp <i>et al.</i> (2002)	Effect of perceived brand globalness to brand purchase likelihood	Brand quality, <i>prestige</i> , purchase likelihood	PBG positively affect the perceived quality, prestige and purchase likelihood

Thakor and Lavack (2003)	Effect of country of component source, country of manufacture, and country of corporate ownership to consumers perceptions	Quality assessment and consumers attitude	Country of corporate ownership effect to brand perception confirmed, country of manufacture has low effect on consumers attitude
Samiee <i>et al.</i> (2005)	The effect of consumer knowledge to COO effect	Quality assessment and Brand preference	Consumers do not know the national origins of brands, COO does not affect on product judgment
Zhuang <i>et al.</i> (2008)	Effects of brand origin confusion on local or foreign brand preference and purchase likelihood	Brand preference and purchase likelihood	Brand origin confusion positively affect the local brand preference
Zhou <i>et al.</i> (2010)	Effect of confidence in brand origin identification on perceived brand foreignness effect	Brand value perception	Confidence in brand origin identification moderates the effect of PBF on consumers evaluation
Magnusson <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Effect of COO information on product evaluation and buying behavior	Brand preference	Perceived brand origin strongly effect brand attitudes
Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2011)	Effect of brand origin classification on consumers' brand evaluation	Brand preference and consumers attitude	Consumers' misclassification of brand origin negatively affect the brand evaluation and purchase likelihood

2.7. Hypotheses Development

This study would like to investigate how the confusion of consumers about the origin of a brand might affect brand preference and purchase likelihood in the context of local and foreign brand competition. Furthermore, this study also would like to see whether brand knowledge might affect the relationship of consumers' confusion to their preference of local and foreign brands. The model for hypotheses is shown below on figure 2.2:

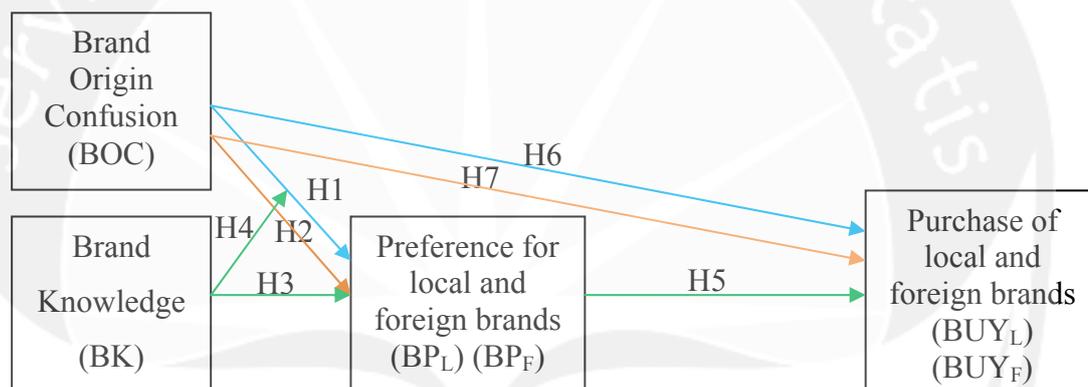


Figure 2.2
Conceptual Model

2.7.1. Brand Origin Confusion to Brand Preference

Prior research in country-of-origin had argued that consumers had limited knowledge of the origins of many (even well-known) brands and that they frequently categorized a brand to the wrong COO (Samiee *et al.*, 2005; Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2011). For example, Samiee *et al.* (2005) reported average correct identification rates of only 49% for 40 domestic brands and 22% for 44 brands from seven other countries in

Unites States. Similar findings indicated the limited ability of consumers to classify brands according to their true origins (Paswan and Sharma, 2004). This issue was important because “if consumers associate a brand with the wrong COO, their brand evaluations (and subsequent buying decisions) could differ from what they would have been if the correct COO had been identified” (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008). Moreover, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2011) found out that COO misclassification had negative consequences for both brand image evaluations and purchase intention.

Zhuang *et al.* (2008) described brand origin confusion as the extent to which consumers perceived local brands to be foreign brands and vice versa. Different from some other research which used COO, Zhuang *et al.* (2008) used perceived local and foreign brands to describe brand origin confusion. This measurement was used because previous research indicated that the “don’t know” rate of evaluating brand COO was very high (Paswan and Sharma, 2004). By only forced to associate a brand as local or foreign, the “don’t know” rate from consumers was logically zero (Paswan and Sharma, 2004; Zhuang *et al.*, 2008).

There are at least two factors which might cause such confusion or the misclassification of brand origin. Firstly, consumers’ cognition processes, such as their cognitive ability, attention paid to the brand and its origin, and memory, might influence the amount of confusion they experience (Zhuang *et al.*, 2008). Secondly, a company might intentionally

attempt to mislead consumers about company's brand origins. As what Leclerc *et al.* (1994) mentioned before that brand owners used foreign branding both intentionally and unintentionally to associate their brand with a strong image or to avoid the brand origin if the country image was weak. Zhou *et al.* (2010, p. 204) observed, "The origin information for most brands may not be readily accessible either because global marketers have the desire to mask the origins of their brands or the globalization of firms and the cross-border acquisition of brands complicate the nature of brand origin".

Brand origin confusion might have significant impact on consumers' attitudes and buying behaviors. Batra *et al.* (2000) argued that in developing countries, consumers preferred foreign brands than local one, and they had more favorable attitudes toward that brand. It was also supported by some other researchers (Steenkamp *et al.*, 2002; Zhou and Hui, 2003).

Based on the literature in brand origin effect in developing countries, it could be argued that Indonesian consumers prefer foreign brands to local brands because of the brand origin stereotype. Foreign brands from more developed countries are perceived as having higher quality, more advanced technology, and more fashionable (Zhou and Belk, 2004). Hence, consumers would have a positive preference for local brand if it is perceived to be a foreign brand (consumers misjudge the brand origin). Then, we could propose a hypothesis:

H1: In Indonesia, all else being equal, consumers' confusion about the origin of local brands is related positively to their preference for local brands.

Consequently, if consumers perceive a foreign brand as a local brand, the brand origin stereotype effect might not be working anymore. It would decrease the consumers' preference as it is perceived as local brand. Therefore we could propose another hypothesis:

H2: In Indonesia, all else being equal, consumers' confusion about the origin of foreign brands is related negatively to their preference for foreign brands.

2.7.2. Brand Knowledge

An individual develop an attitude toward a brand based on his or her cognitive understanding of that brand (Zhuang *et al.*, 2008). It includes the individual's understanding about the brand's tangible and intangible characteristics, such as quality, price, function, service, image, and awareness (Zhuang *et al.*, 2006).

Brand knowledge is composed of stored information about the brand in memory, and includes all descriptive and evaluative brand-related information (Keller, 2003). Such knowledge could become one factor in forming brand preference (Kotler, 2012). It can be used by the marketers to link their brands with a positive country image, but it can also be a threat for marketers who want to mask their origin in order to decrease the

negative country image (Samiee *et al.*, 2005). Therefore a hypothesis could be developed:

H3: Brand knowledge is related positively to the preference for both local and foreign brands.

Zhuang *et al.* (2008) argued that the more knowledge that the consumers had of a brand, the more likely it was that they would be able to distinguish it among other brands. In the first hypothesis, it was stated that consumers' confusion about the origin of local brands was related positively to their preference for local brands. However, it is clear that if consumers have more knowledge about the brand, they may not misperceive the origin of the brand. Hence, brand knowledge may weaken the positive relationship of BOC to the local brand preference. If consumers with higher knowledge really like the brand, their preference for the brand should be due more to the characteristics connected with the brand than to the BOC effect. In other words, the BOC effect on consumers' preference for local brands is weaker for the local brands that consumers have greater knowledge. In conclusion, brand knowledge should play a moderating role in the relationship between BOC and brand preference and we could propose a hypothesis:

H4: In Indonesia, all else being equal, consumers' knowledge of local brands negatively moderates the relationship between consumers' confusion about the origin of local brands and preference for local brands.

Besides, Zhuang *et al.* (2008) argued that the moderating effect of brand knowledge of foreign brands could not follow the same logic like the local one. As mentioned before, the more knowledge consumers have the less consumers would misjudge the origin of the brand. Thus, when consumers with more knowledge of foreign brand do not like the brand, it is unreasonable to say that their lower preference to it is because of the characteristic of the brands rather than to the BOC effect. It is against the concept of how consumers in developing countries prefer foreign brands to local ones. In conclusion, it is not appropriate to put brand knowledge as a moderating variable in the relationship between consumers' confusion about the origin of foreign brands and preference for foreign brands.

2.7.1. Brand Origin Confusion to Brand Purchase Likelihood

After describing how BOC affect brand preference, it is needed to describe how BOC could affect brand purchase likelihood. However, in order to test the conceptual model, it is very important to look how brand preference affect brand purchase likelihood. Banks (1950) found that brand preference was almost identical with purchase intention, for about 96 per cent. He also noted that preference for brands was a good predictor of purchases with the average coefficient of correlation was 0.918. In order to confirm this statement, we could state a hypothesis:

H5: Brand preference is related positively to the purchase likelihood

As stated before, in developing countries, consumers preferred foreign brands than local one, and they had more favorable attitudes toward that brand (Batra *et al.*, 2000). Steenkamp *et al.* (2002) observed how perceived brand globalness affected brand purchase likelihood. They found that in developing countries, perceived brand globalness positively associated with both perceived brand quality and prestige which gave a strong effect on purchase likelihood. Hence, consumers would have a higher purchase likelihood level for local brand if it was perceived to be a foreign brand (consumers misjudge the brand origin). Then, next hypothesis could be proposed:

H6: In Indonesia, all else being equal, consumers' confusion about the origin of local brands is related positively to their purchase likelihood of local brands.

In reverse, if consumers perceive a foreign brand as a local brand, the perception of foreign brand of superior quality and high *prestige* would be diminished. The purchase likelihood therefore would be negatively affected. Therefore we could propose another hypothesis:

H7: In Indonesia, all else being equal, consumers' confusion about the origin of foreign brands is related negatively to their purchase likelihood for foreign brands.