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The Hong Kong Polytechnic University  
Department of Management and Marketing

The Effect of a Chinese Translated Brand  
Name Cue on Brand Associations

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

**January 2007**



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## **ABSTRACT**

When international marketers expand into a new foreign country, a critical decision that they must make is whether to standardize or customize the various elements of their brand. Of all the branding elements, a product's brand name is perceived to be the most explicit peripheral cue that captures the immediate attention of consumers and influences their perception and evaluation of the product. Brand names are frequently used by consumers as "informational chunks" that represent a composite of information about a product's attributes. More importantly, the country of origin effect, which is demonstrated to have a strong influence on the associations that consumers make about a brand, is also inherent in a brand name.

The objective of this research is to explore the moderating effect of the two product relevancy variables of hedonism and consumer involvement on the relationship between brand name translation into Chinese and brand associations. An experiment was conducted with a 2x2x2 factorial design framework in which translation, hedonism, and involvement were manipulated.

The research results provide useful guidelines for marketing managers to consider when devising an international brand-name strategy and positioning strategy. The results indicate that the presence or absence of a translated Chinese brand name has a significant influence on the brand associations that consumers make. It is noteworthy that Chinese consumers generally favor products that do not carry a translated Chinese brand name. The interaction effect of hedonism

and translation is a very powerful moderator of brand associations, including overall brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention. Hedonic products are found to be rated more positively if they only carry a foreign brand name and no translated Chinese brand name, whereas utilitarian products are rated more positively if they carry both a foreign brand name and a translated Chinese brand name. Involvement is also found to be a strong moderator of the relationship between brand name translation, perceived quality, and purchase intention, with the interaction being particularly pronounced for high-involvement products than for low-involvement products. However, involvement is found to have no significant interaction effect on the relationship between brand name translation and overall attitude. Finally, it is found that Chinese consumers generally favor hedonic products over utilitarian products, and generally rate hedonic products more positively with respect to the three dimensions of brand associations.

To conclude, this research contributes to the branding literature by identifying that a product's brand name has a differing degree of influence on brand associations that depends on the product relevancy (degree of hedonism and consumer involvement). Marketing managers are therefore advised to pay attention to product relevancy positioning before considering other branding issues. The theoretical and managerial implications of the findings are discussed.

Publications arising from the thesis:

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## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

In an increasingly complex world, individuals and businesses are faced with more choices but less time in which to make those choices. The ability of a strong brand to simplify consumer decision making, reduce risk, and set expectations is thus valuable. Many organizations and firms have come to the realization that the most valuable assets that they have are the brand names that are associated with their products or services. As the world economy moves toward a free market model, it has been argued that only the best managed and strongest brand names will survive (Ourusoff et al. 1992). A strong brand name enables a company to earn above-average returns by creating a loyal consumer stream, which protects it from competitive encroachment.

### ***Brand Name Standardization***

As firms expand into foreign markets, it is critical that they maintain a strong core brand in the face of greater international competition. Many firms therefore put tremendous effort and investment into deciding whether a brand name will be standardized or whether it will be adapted by translation into a local version (Zhang and Schmitt 2001). The issue of standardization versus adaptation in marketing activities has been prominent in the literature of international marketing since the publication of Levitt's (1983) article on the globalization of markets. In this article, Levitt (1983) proposed that a global corporation can serve the world more economically through large-scale

production if it views the world as a small number of standardized markets, rather than a large number of customized markets. In this way, managers can achieve economies of scale and message consistency and attract common cross-national market segments through the use of global, standardized marketing programs. The pursuit of global standardization is generally considered to be appropriate to the extent that it has a positive influence on financial performance, and Buzzell (1968), in his pioneering piece on marketing standardization, showed the importance of profitability in assessing the suitability of standardization. Other authors have also stressed the importance of the economic payoff in decisions about the standardization of global marketing practice (Jain 1989; Keegan 1969; Wind 1986). Winram (1984) suggested that successful marketers are those that treat market segments as global, rather than local, entities. Winram (1984) claimed that cultural convergence will proceed at an accelerated rate as a result of the development of satellite television stations and increased cable penetration, as this technology will enable viewers to access multiple international perspectives and cultures. This will lead in turn to consumers gaining more exposure to standardized communication messages. Zou and Cavusgil (2002) identify three major perspectives of global marketing strategy that comprises the standardization perspective, the configuration perspective, and the integration perspective. The logic underlying these perspectives suggests that global firms need to co-ordinate the various activities in its value chain so as to maximize the production efficiency; participate in all

major markets, and integrate their competitive moves across country markets by exporting the highly standardized finished products to the end users in targeted country markets through a standardized marketing approach. Particularly, firms need to concentrate their manufacturing (or assembly) plants in a few geographical locations and serve their target markets through exporting in order to fully exploit the possibilities for economies of scale through exporting. These multidimensions of concentration of marketing activities, co-ordination of marketing activities and integration of competitive moves are consistent with the definition of “global rationalization” (Craig and Douglas, 1996b) and poses similar challenges with respect to co-ordination, control, handling technical aspects of exporting, and managing intra-company relationships (Balabanis, Theodosiou, Katsilea 2004).

### ***Brand Name Adaptation***

Contrary to this view, Wind (1986) argued that there is no powerful empirical evidence to show that the world is becoming more homogeneous or consumers universally more price conscious. He argued that the world is made up of multiple market segments that contain customers with specific needs and desires, and that brands that target multiple market segments will increase their revenue by adapting to the specific needs of each segment while maintaining or increasing prices. Samiee and Kendall (1992) found no support for global standardization and very few differences between firms that stressed

standardization and those that did not. They argued that although brand names have a high likelihood of being adopted through standardization, a standardized global name may not be beneficial to a firm. They concluded that although standardization does take place to a certain extent, it is not necessarily the optimal approach in all markets or for all products of the firm, nor is it necessarily successful to the same extent across all of the elements of the marketing mix. Wind (1986) proposed that despite the fact that standardization saves costs, customization for local or national markets may be worthwhile because of differences in consumers, cultures, socioeconomic conditions, and market structures. He concluded that it is more appropriate to adopt a customized image when there are differences in the national environment market conditions, such as cultural uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and national socioeconomics. Hsieh (2002) further reinforced the concept that a standardized image is only suitable and profitable if it applies to national markets that have similar national characteristics (Morrison 1992), such as economic development, cultural dimensions, and geographic-based trading blocs. Moreover, according to Balabanis, Theodosiou, Katsilea (2004), the implementation of standardization through the adopting of a global strategy which aims to achieve operation efficiency may contradict with the basic principle of an export market orientation particularly to effectively meeting customers needs and satisfaction; and would also likely to create in inflexible organization that would unable to effectively respond to unpredictable changes in the economic, technological or

legal/political environment.

Researchers have generally agreed that the decision of standardization versus adaptation is situation-specific and should be based on a through analysis of the relevant environmental, industry-specific and firm-specific factors. Given to the diverse differences between the West and the Asian countries particularly in terms of cultural values, customs, traditions and social organization, it is unlikely that Western marketers will succeed with an export strategy of standardization unless they are targeting to a narrowly defined market segment that has the characteristics of a “global” segment. On the other hand, the developing countries located in the Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) and the developing Asian markets may represent an excellent opportunity for pursuing a strategy of regionalization (Balabanis, Theodosiou, Katsilea 2004)

Proponents of the contingency perspective claim that firms should take both standardization and adaptation into account when formulating international marketing strategies, because situations vary across cultures (De Chernatony, Halliburton, and Bernath 1995) and adaptation profiles vary with the category or product (Still and Hill 1984). Most empirical studies have found high levels of brand name standardization (Rosen, Boddewyn, and Lousis 1989; Sandler and Shani 1992; Still and Hill 1984), but in practice firms seem to use both standardization and localization strategies (Sandler and Shani 1992). For example, most promotional efforts must be tailored to the local market to some degree, even if that simply means translating copy into the local language

(Harvey 1993). Other research has demonstrated support for the use both of standardized international branding and the adaptation of product specifications to national preferences (Chan and Huang 1997), such as translating a product brand name into a local brand name but keeping the product's logo, symbol, and design standardized across all markets. According to Bardakei and Whitelock 2004, as customization is associated with premium pricing, which is not favored by a sizable segment of customers, standardization is still necessary to satisfy customers who are more price conscious. It is therefore advisable to implement mass customization to increase competitive advantage over global rivals while maintaining a certain degree of standardization to keep customers happy.

### ***Value of a Brand Name***

According to the American Marketing Association's dictionary of marketing terms (Bennett 1995), a brand is a combination of components or elements, including a name, URL, logo, term, sign, symbol, characters, spokesperson, signage or design, that serves to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors. Among the various brand elements, a product's brand name is perceived to be one of the most effective communication cues that captures the immediate attention of consumers and influences their perception of the product or service. The time it takes consumers to comprehend marketing communications can range from half a minute (for an advertisement) to potentially hours (for a sales

call), but a brand name is noticed and its meaning registered or activated in the memory within just a few seconds (Keller 2003). It is therefore unsurprising to find many international companies spending billions dollars on branding activities. From a company's perspective, the brand name is the foundation of a product and an important asset. It is an important consumer cue that can help to differentiate the company from its competitors, signify the main source of ownership, and communicate consistent quality (De Chernatony and McWilliam 1989), and is critical in creating awareness of new products (Kohli and LaBahn 1997; Lubliner 1993). The importance of a brand name for a product and its contribution to the establishment of a high level of brand equity has been reported in many marketing studies (Farquhar 1989; Aaker 1991, 1996; Keller 1993; Park and Srinivasan 1994; Cobb-Walgren et al. 1995). For instance, the choice of brand name for a product is found to be fundamentally important because it captures the central theme or key association of the product in a very compact and economical fashion (Hoyer and Brown 1990; Keller 1993). Brand names are important tools that can be used to enhance a product's value (Dodds et al. 1991), its perceived price (Donoho and Nelson 1989), and purchase intentions (Dodds, Monroe and Grewal 1991).

From the consumer perspective, a brand name is an important cue that provides information about the product, communicates the product's quality, and evokes specific knowledge association structures (Hoyer and Brown 1990; Keller 1993). Research has also indicated that brand names can help to



influence consumer perceptions and evaluation processes. In particular, studies have indicated that brand names can help to influence consumer evaluations of search products, experience products, and the credence attributes of a product. A strong brand name can therefore help consumers to make rapid purchase decisions, and acts as a symbolic device for consumer self-perceptions.

More recently, the issue of brand name strategy has been explored in Asian markets, where it is common practice for foreign products to carry both an original and a translated brand name (Hong et al. 2002). As a product's brand name plays a crucial role in influencing consumer decision making, it is therefore unsurprising that many international companies expend significant effort on the brand naming process, and in particular the translation of Chinese characters from the original English words (Simon and Palder 1987; Cravens et al. 1987; McDonald and Roberts 1990; Robinson 1995; Chan and Huang 1997, 2001; Alashban 2002; Francis and Lam 2002; Chan and Huang 1990, 1997, 2001; Alashban 2002).

### ***Country of Origin Effect and the Brand Name***

There are many definitions in the literature of country of origin (COO) effects. Country of origin has variously been defined as the country where the corporate headquarters of the company marketing the product are located or where the brand originated (Johansson, Douglas and Nonaka 1985; Ozsomer and Cavusgil 1986), the country of manufacture or assembly (Papadopoulos 1993;

Lee and Schaninger 1996), and the country of product design (Ahmed, d'Astou and El Adraoui 1994). COO effects have been found to influence consumer evaluations of foreign products that are based on brand attitude, perceptions of quality, and perceptions of purchase value (Khachaturian and Morganosky 1990; Ahmed and d'Astou 1993). COO effects have also been found to influence consumer preferences for products from one country over another. COO effects include the tendency for consumers to evaluate their own country's products more favorably than imported products and the tendency for products from emerging economics to be evaluated negatively (Bilkey and Nes 1982; Cordell 1992). Other studies have suggested a relationship between COO and level of economic development, in that products from developed countries are perceived to be superior to those from undeveloped and developing countries. The reasons for these perceptions are largely attributed to the economic, cultural, and political systems of the source country (Wang and Lamb 1983).

However, the traditional idea of COO effects is becoming increasingly confused in the modern marketplace, as products are typically designed in one country, manufactured in another, and assembled in a third country (Baker and Michie 1995). This has resulted in the proliferation of "hybrid products" that may have more than one country of origin (Han and Qualls 1985; Johansson and Nebenzahl 1986; Han and Terpstra 1988). Consumers may now be faced with complex country-of-origin information about hybrid products, with the result that COO effects have shifted from the product level to the brand level in

consumer product evaluations. In the modern global marketplace, country of origin may be more appropriately seen as the brand culture origin (or brand origin). According to Leclerc, Schmitt and Dube (1994), this essence of brand origin is reinforced when the spelling or pronunciation of a brand name is associated with a foreign language such as French or Italian, as this creates a more differentiated cue than simple country of origin information that leads to unique brand perceptions. Thakor and Kohli (1996) proposed that brand origin can be defined as the place, region, or country to which a brand is perceived by consumers to belong. That consumer perceptions of brand names are influenced by cultural effects is now widely accepted, and is viewed as a form of generic cognition. It has also been hypothesized that consumers attach certain cultural characteristics to a brand when specific information about the foreign country is not available (Samiee 1994). Country of origin or brand origin is conveyed either explicitly as an information cue or implicitly through the brand name. It is therefore assumed that the power of COO can be revealed through a product's brand name to become a brand origin effect that influences consumer perceptions. A foreign brand name implies a foreign source, whereas a local brand name implies a local source. Many research studies have demonstrated that a product's country of origin or brand origin is a powerful extrinsic product cue that influences overall evaluations of perceived quality, attitude, and purchase intention toward a product (Khachaturian and Morganosky 1990; Han 1990). This influence is more pronounced among consumers from less

developed countries than among those from developed countries. That is to say, consumers in less developed countries are likely to rely on national image and the country of origin or brand origin in their product evaluations, possibly due to the unavailability of information about the product or a lack of purchasing experience (Lin and Sternquist 1994). As has been stated, products from more developed countries are generally evaluated more positively than products from less developed countries (Schooler 1965; Khachaturian and Morganosky 1990; Han 1990), perhaps because consumer evaluations of a product may be influenced by the product source, which indicates the source country's level of economic development (Lin and Sternquist 1994). A product's brand name and its country of origin are considered to be powerful extrinsic cues that have a strong influence on the perceived quality of and purchase intention toward the product (Han and Terpstra 1988; Okechuku 1994; Kaynak and Cavusgil 1983). Consumers may consider not buying an unfamiliar brand name simply because they may make unfavorable inferences about the quality of the brand from their lack of familiarity with products from that country. It is also likely that consumers evaluate a product with respect to the economic, political, and cultural characteristics of the product's country of origin (Han 1990). It is therefore believed that a product's brand name inherently implies the product's COO, and has a strong impact on consumer feelings.

Most studies of brand naming in Asia focus on the process of translating Western words to Chinese words. Some brand name studies in China have

focused on the linguistic development of a good Chinese brand name through the incorporation of Chinese cultural and social perspectives. At one end of the market, marketers are working hard to come up with good translated brand names for their foreign products, and at the other end of the market marketers are standardizing their foreign brand names across markets. It has been observed that most imported products in China that are positioned as having a higher hedonic value and that trigger a higher consumer involvement level carry only the original foreign brand name without any Chinese translation, whereas the majority of imported products that are positioned as having a higher utilitarian value generally carry both the original brand name and a translated Chinese brand name. The essence of the country of origin effect or brand of origin effect is inherent in the product's brand name, and influences consumer evaluations, perceptions, and purchase behavior. Obviously, there are many possible product-related stimuli in addition to brand name that influence consumers, including price, packaging, channel distribution, promotion campaigns, and external factors, such as personal characteristics and cultural, economic, social, and political factors. Among these many possible variables, the focus of interest in this research is on those that relate to product relevancy, including the degree of hedonic or utilitarian value that is associated with the product and the degree of consumer involvement during the process of evaluating the product. These two variables are chosen first because they are the two major conceptualizations of product relevancy in the product evaluation literature (Mano and Oliver 1993),

and second because they are the main variables that determine the level of perceived risk and perceived differences among brands, which are important in the establishment of successful brand-customer relationships in the long term (Addis and Holbrook 2001). The objective of this research is therefore to examine the influence of the presence or absence of a translated Chinese brand name on brand associations under the moderating effects of product relevancy, including the degree of hedonic or utilitarian value that is associated with the product and the degree of consumer involvement during the product evaluation process. To control other extraneous variables that may affect brand associations, a laboratory experiment was conducted using a 2x2x2 factorial design with manipulations of translation, hedonism, and involvement. The research contributes to the marketing literature by shedding light on the appropriate brand name strategy for the Chinese market. This research is believed to be one of the few studies to explore the suitability of the adoption of a translated local brand name in terms of product relevancy. Given that China is one of the most promising new markets, this research should have valuable implications for international marketing managers who are considering expansion into China.

## CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

### *Brand Name*

Branding has been around for centuries as a means of distinguishing the goods of one producer from those of another. The word *brand* is derived from the Old Norse word “*brandr*,” which means “to burn,” as brands were and still are the means by which owners of livestock mark their animals to identify them (Keller 2003). According to the American Marketing Association (Bennett 1995), a brand is a combination of brand elements or brand identities that serves as a trademark able device to identify and differentiate the brand (Keller 2003). The main brand elements are brand name, URL, logo, term, sign, symbol or design, characters, spokespeople, slogan, jingle, packaging, signage, or a combination of these, all of which aim to identify the goods or services of one seller or group of sellers and differentiate them from those of the competition. Among the brand elements, a product’s brand name is believed to be one of the most important extrinsic cues that captures the central theme or key associations of a product in a very compact and economical fashion (Hoyer and Brown 1990; Keller 1993). The importance of brand names and their contribution to the establishment of a high level of brand equity has been reported in many marketing studies (Farquhar 1989; Farquhar and Herr 1993; Aaker 1991, 1996; Keller 1993; Park and Srinivassan 1994; Cobb-Walgren et al. 1995). Brand names are also an important tool that can be used to enhance a product’s value, its perceived price

and value, and purchase intentions toward the product (Dodds, Monroe and Grewal 1991), and are valuable assets that help to communicate quality and evoke specific knowledge structures that are associated with a brand (Hoyer and Brown 1990; Keller 1993; Rao and Monroe 1989). Brand names also have a significant influence on consumer evaluations of the perceived quality of products in both single cue and multicue situations (Donoho and Nelson 1989; Dawar and Parker 1994). The value of a brand name is usually associated with the loyalty that it engenders, name awareness, perceived quality, and strong brand associations (Aaker 1991). Research has indicated that high-equity brands, which are being defined as brands with a higher level of brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, and competitive advantage (Aaker 1996), carry a greater number of associations and net positive associations (Krishnan 1996).

### ***Brand Associations***

Consumers derive brand meanings partly from associations that are linked with the brand (Aaker 1990; Keller 2003), which also allow information retrieval about the brand (Tybout et al. 1981; Janiszewski and Van Osselaer 2000; Van Osselaer and Janiszewski 2001). According to Aaker (1991), the underlying value of a brand name is the set of associations through which it offers meaning to people and its role as a cue for the retrieval of images that have been formed based on experience with the brand or information obtained about it (Swait et al. 1993). Brand associations are the brand assets and liabilities that include



anything that is “linked” in the memory to the brand. Brand associations come in all forms and may reflect the characteristics of the product or aspects that are independent of it (Aaker 1991; Keller 1991, 2003; Low and Lamb 2000). Brand associations help to form a brand image, and are an important component in the construction of brand equity (Biel 1992). Brand associations may be based on product experience, product attributes, the positioning of the brand in promotional communications, price information, packaging, perceived typical user imagery, or other sources (Dwane 2004), and can bring valuable benefit both to marketers and consumers. Marketers use brand associations to differentiate, position, and extend a brand, and also to create positive attitudes and feelings toward a brand and to suggest attributes or benefits that may be conferred by the purchase or use of a specific brand. Consumers use brand associations to help process, organize, and retrieve information from the memory and to aid them in making purchase decisions. A review of the literature on brand associations shows that at the conceptual level there is extensive agreement as to their definition. Most authors provide a definition of brand associations that is generally similar to that of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993, 2003), which is basically founded in cognitive and psychological principles. In this definition, brand associations are any aspects that are linked in the memory to a brand, and basically constitute a linkage of informational nodes that are connected to the brand node in the minds of consumers (Krishnan 1996; Dobni and Zinkhan 1990; Low and Lamb 2000). Numerous studies have been

conducted to measure brand associations. Some of these studies have focused on the use of product associations such as functional or emotional attributes to measure brand associations. For instance, Aaker (1991) focused on the use of customer benefits and product related variables, such as product class, relative price, use/application, user status, celebrity, lifestyle, and personality, to measure brand associations; whereas Biel (1992) adopted functional product images, such as speed and ease of operation, and emotional attributes, such as fantasy, excitement, innovation, or trustworthiness, as measurements. Farquhar and Herr (1993) focused on product category, product attributes, customer benefits, and customer usage situation. Park and Srinivasan (1994) developed items to measure a dimension of toothpaste brand associations that included the brand's perceived ability to fight plaque, freshen breath, and prevent cavities. Aaker (1997) developed a brand personality scale that comprised five dimensions and 42 items. However, the scale is criticized for its lack of practical applicability due to its length and limited generalizability, because many brands are not personality brands and no protocol is given for the adaptation of the scale.

Other research studies have focused on the use of organizational associations, such as corporate ability and corporate social responsibility, to measure brand associations. Pappu, Quester, and Cooksey (2005) emphasized brand personality and organizational attributes; Keller and Aaker (1995) and Aaker (1996) focused on items such as innovativeness, environmental consciousness, community mindedness, perceived quality innovation,

society/community orientation, presence and success, and customer-oriented aspects; and Brown and Dacin (1997) used corporate ability and corporate social responsibility to measure brand associations. Yet other studies have emphasized the use of both product attributes and corporate attributes (Hsieh, Pan, and Setiono 2004; Chen 2001) or brand personality and organizational associations to measure brand associations, as these have been demonstrated to have an important influence on customer-based brand equity (Aaker 1991, 1996; Keller 1993, 2003; Pappu, Quester, and Cooksey 2005). In practice, a company's branding strategy sets out the way in which different brand associations will be created. For instance, U.S. companies typically advertise the benefits and images of individual brands and therefore create associations that are linked to the products themselves, whereas most Japanese and East Asian firms use corporate advertising that stresses the benefits that the company itself brings to consumers and society at large, which results in the creation of organizational associations. This indicates that the creation of brand associations not only depends on product associations, but also on organizational associations.

Brand associations can be transferred to other product categories through alliances or extensions. Numerous studies have developed associations for unfamiliar brands by pairing them with favorable visual stimuli using classical conditioning procedures (Grossman and Till 1998; Kim, Allen, and Kardes 1996; Stuart, Shimp, and Engle 1987). Some examples of these associations include overall quality, price, product attributes, usage situation, image, a firm's

reputation, and product performance (David 2005). Brand associations are influenced by country of origin associations (Chao 2001; Pecotich and Rosenthal 2001; Verlegh and Steenkamp 1999) or brand origin associations, through which the originality of the product is communicated explicitly through its brand name or the language that is used alongside the brand name (Thakor and Lavack 2003; Papadopoulos 1993; Johansson 1993; Thakor and Kohli 1996; Clarke et al. 2000; O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy 2000), the latter being more powerful in product categories in which perceived origin or national identity is exceptionally important to consumers. Gucci and Prada, for example, signify Italy to many consumers.

A product's brand name has been shown to convey information about and represent images of a product, and to be used by consumers as a cue to make judgments about products and their attributes (Rao and Ruekert 1999; Swait et al., 1993). The associations that consumers form in their minds affect their overall perceptions, such as attitude, perceived quality, and decision to purchase the product (Keller 2003). Brand associations have also been found to be influenced by brand functions, which are defined as associations with the intangible attributes, images, or benefits that a product's brand name confers. According to Rio, Vazquez, and Iglesias (2001), measurements of brand associations include guarantees, personal identification, social identification, and status, all of which have been demonstrated to have a strong influence on the acceptance of brand extensions, recommendations, and price premiums. Brand

associations may also be driven by other kinds of intangible images, symbolic information or experiential feelings that are related to the product, such as price, channel distribution, promotion, and spokespeople, all of which contribute to the overall attitude, perceived quality, and evaluation of the brand. According to Mano and Oliver (1993), the two major conceptualizations of product relevancy are the ratio of utilitarian/hedonic value and the degree of consumer involvement with the product, which drive the strength, uniqueness, and favorability of brand associations (Keller 2003) and the formation of perceived risk, expectations, and responses (Addis and Holbrook 2001; Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2002).

Despite the number of studies in this area, most measurements of brand associations have explored specific elements of brand associations, and limit themselves to looking at one product (Srinivasan 1994) or product category (Pappu, Quester, and Cooksey 2005) and therefore only measure partial associations. This kind of partial measurement of associations is criticized for its lack of generalizability to other product categories. Moreover, it appears that marketing researchers have not used a consistent definition or measurement technique to assess brand associations, and it is therefore difficult to compare the results of different studies. Furthermore, little of the research discusses the issue of how to conceptualize brand associations, focusing instead on empirically identifying the factors that enhance or diminish one component of consumer perceptions of a brand (Berthon et al. 1997; Keller and Aaker 1997; Keller et al. 1998; Roedder-John et al. 1998; Simonin and Ruth 1998). To conclude, there is a

lack of consistency in the definition of brand associations and no general measurement scale that can be applied to multiple product categories. There is a need to come up with a practical and simple protocol for the measurement of brand associations that can be used by brand managers for various product categories. According to Low and Lamb (2000), the three most commonly cited and researched constructs used to study brand associations are the product's brand image, brand attitude, and perceived quality.

Keller (1993, 2003) defined brand image as the perceptions of a brand that are reflected by the brand associations that are held in the memory of consumers, and include brand attitude, brand quality, and purchase intention toward the brand. In the consumer behavior literature, these three constructs are related to each other, and are important, consistent, and fundamental constructs that can create a parsimonious and comprehensive structure for the measurement of consumer responses and perceived brand associations in the initial stages of new product development. Moreover, they are established, reliable, and published measures in the marketing literature.

## ***Two Conceptualizations of Product Relevancy***

### **Hedonism versus Utilitarianism**

In the product evaluation literature, consumer perceptions are held to be driven by many different product-related variables, such as price, channel distribution, promotion, spokespeople, perceived innovation, and perceived prestige, but are also driven by demographic, economic, and cultural factors or

personal characteristics. Among these possible variables, the focus of interest in this research is on product relevancy variables, which are believed to make an important contribution to lasting brand-customer relationships. According to Mano and Oliver (1993), the two major conceptualizations of product relevancy variables are the degree of hedonic or utilitarian value and the level of consumer involvement in the evaluation of the product. Although a product's brand name is an important explicit cue that attracts the attention of consumers, the degree of hedonic or utilitarian value and the level of consumer involvement with the product are important implicit cues that influence the perceptions and evaluations of consumers. It is therefore expected that in combination these three variables exert a crucial influence on consumer perceptions of risk and differences among brands, both of which are central to the establishment of lasting brand-customer relationships. The perceived risk of a product is also known as the brand-choice risk, and comprises the two dimensions of functional and emotional risk. Functional brand-choice risk refers to the risk aspects of choosing a brand in a product class in which brands differ in their financial characteristics, such as cost, physical safety, or performance. In contrast, emotional brand-choice risk refers to the risky aspects of choosing between brand that differ in terms of their psychological consequences, such as self-image or status. Perceived difference is a product-class characteristic that refers to the extent to which the brands in a product category are perceived to differ in terms of quality, reliability, or other key performance-related attributes.

According to Addis and Holbrook (2001), each product is associated with a ratio of hedonic to utilitarian value, which can be used as a basic and fundamental descriptor of product-class characteristics. The hedonic/utilitarian value ratio leads to varying perceptions of the difference and relative risk of brands (Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2002), and also determines the level of involvement of consumers with a product (Babin, Darden, and Griffin 1994). Therefore, the perceived hedonic or utilitarian value that is associated with a product and the perceived level of involvement with that product are the two main conceptualizations of product relevancy that determine perceptions of the risk and of the differences between brands and that therefore drive consumer responses or choices.

The two conceptualizations have multiple dimensions (Mano and Oliver 1993). Hedonic or utilitarian value consists of two dimensions. The first refers to the traditional notion of instrumental or utilitarian performance, whereby the product is seen as performing a useful function, and the second refers to the hedonic or aesthetic performance (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982), whereby the product is valued for its intrinsically pleasing properties. This two-dimensional approach is typified as one of thinking versus feeling. Research suggests that consumer choices are driven by utilitarian and hedonic considerations, which contribute to product evaluation and attitudes and therefore enable consumers to distinguish between goods according to their relative hedonic or utilitarian value (Batra and Ahtola 1990; Mano and Oliver 1993).



## **Product Hedonism**

Although the consumption of many goods involves both the hedonic and utilitarian dimensions to varying degrees (Batra and Ahtola 1990), hedonic goods are generally defined as those that generate an affective, sensory consumption experience of aesthetic or sensual pleasure, fantasy, fun, and excitement. Examples of hedonic products include designer clothes, sports cars, and luxury watches (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982; LeClerc, Schmitt, and Dube 1994; Thakor and Pacheco 1997; Dhar and Klaus 2000). Hedonic evaluative criteria relate to experiential, abstract, subjective, emotional, symbolic, sensory, non-rational, and aesthetic purchase attributes and benefits (Ahtola 1985; Hirschman and Holbrook 1982).

According to Yeung and Wyer (2004), affective reactions are likely to have an impact on product judgments that are typically based on hedonic, feeling-related criteria (e.g., taste, physical attractiveness, and comfort). Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2002) held that hedonic products generally bear a higher emotional risk in terms of the psychological consequences (e.g., self-image) or social implications (e.g., social status) of choosing them. To reduce or overcome this emotional risk, consumers must first elicit a positive emotional brand affect that is associated with the product. In other words, as the emotional elements of risk are higher for hedonic products, it is expected that consumers attribute greater affect (brand affect) to the products that they normally use (Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2002). Another interpretation is that when consumers evaluate hedonic

products, they generally use more of their emotions or feelings. Research has demonstrated that brand name, as one of the most important extrinsic cues, is important in helping consumers to elicit positive, affective, and hedonic feelings about a product. According to Leclerc et al. (1994) and Thakor and Pacheco (1997), when products are associated with a foreign brand name, for instance, a French or Italian brand name, they are perceived to be hedonic products, and thus the degree of hedonism that can be elicited from them will be enhanced. This can be attributed to the stereotyping effect whereby a brand name is associated with a country of origin or brand of origin. As France and Italy are generally perceived to have a hedonic image, for example, this image is also conferred on the product as a result of the brand name.

### **Product Utilitarianism**

According to Dhar and Klaus (2000), utilitarian goods are primarily instrumental and functional products, the consumption of which is cognitively driven, instrumental, and goal oriented and accomplishes a functional or practical task. Examples of utilitarian products include microwaves, minivans, and personal computers. (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982; Strahilevitz and Myers 1998). Utilitarian products are judged on how well they function, and are described in terms of the functional benefits that they provide for consumers (LeClerc, Schmitt, and Dube 1994). Utilitarian evaluative criteria relate to objective, economic, rational, concrete, and functional purchase dimensions (Ahtola 1985; Holbrook and Hirschman 1982). From the decision-oriented

perspective of consumer behavior, utilitarian products are generally related to tangible, objective features that offer functional benefits to consumers, and are expected to have a greater ability to perform everyday functions in the life of a consumer (Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2002). Utilitarian products bear a higher level of “functional brand-choice risk,” which is identified in terms of financial, social, psychological, physical and performance risk and the risky aspects of choosing a brand in a product class in which brands differ in their financial characteristics, such as cost, physical safety, and healthiness, or other tangible characteristics, such as performance (Jacoby and Kapkan 1972). It is expected that a higher level of functional brand-choice risk exerts a direct positive effect on brand trust. In other words, as the functional elements of risk are higher for utilitarian products, it is expected that consumers attribute greater trust (brand trust) to the products that they normally use (Moorman et al. 1992). In particular, brand trust is expected to increase when the functional elements of risk are high, that is, when the ability of other brands to provide the same instrumental benefits is uncertain. Utilitarian products bear a higher degree of “brand-choice risk,” and therefore consumers need to build up a higher degree of brand trust to feel confident and secure in using them. According to Lin and Chang (2003), a product’s brand name can be an important cue to enhance trust, and when a product’s brand name is written in familiar language it provides an effective cue that stimulates trust, shared values, and product meaning, thereby making consumers feel more comfortable with the product.

### ***Consumer Involvement in the Product Evaluation Process***

The second conceptualization of product relevance is that of involvement (Mittal and Lee 1989; Zaichkowsky 1985), which reflects the different levels of inherent need, fulfillment, value expression, or interest that the consumer has in a product. The involvement construct has garnered a great deal of interest from researchers over the past two decades. Day (1970) defined involvement as “the general level of interest in the object, or the centrality of the object to the person’s ego-structure.” Other research has shown involvement to be closely related to product meaning and consumer-product relationships. For example, Howard and Sheth (1969) equated involvement with importance, and Laurent and Kapferer (1985) suggested that meaning, value, and the nature of relationships between consumers and product categories can be expressed in terms of involvement profiles. Bowen and Chaffee (1974) defined involvement as “a relation between consumer and product,” and many researchers have equated involvement with perceived personal relevance (Celsi and Olson 1988; Petty and Cacioppo 1981; Richins and Bloch 1986; Zaichkowsky 1985). Krugman (1968) defined involvement as the number of personal links per minute between the person and the observed object or message. Zaichkowsky (1985) later formulated involvement as a person’s perception of the relevance of an object based on inherent need, values, and interest. Evrard and Aurier (1996) found involvement in terms of “centrality” to be at the heart of the “person-

object relationship” and the relational variable most predictive of purchase behavior. Martin (1998) investigated the development of an affective, high-involvement relationship from the product side of the dyad, and identified ten attributes that nurture this relationship, including uniqueness, nostalgic value, price risk, association, quality/excellence, sensory appeal, sign value, personification, interactivity, and facilitation. Kenhove, Katrien, and Kristof (2002) found the degree and speed of consumer involvement in mail surveys to be positively related to the interest of consumers in the topic of the survey. This is further demonstrated in other research that has indicated that as long as consumers are personally interested in the advertised topic or product, they will be highly motivated to process the advertisement’s information, even though it may be perceived to have a low readability and to be excessively complicated because it contains foreign or unknown words that are not intended to be understood literally by the average consumer (Lowrey 1988). Conversely, low readability of advertising information will dampen the motivation of consumers to process the advertisement if they are not personally interested in the topic or product (Dean 1997; Chebat et al. 2003). The influence of involvement on consumption experiences is best illustrated by the psychological consequences that are evoked by a product’s heightened relevance to the consumer. These consequences are known to include greater motivation, heightened arousal, and an increase in cognitive elaboration. An increase in the interactions among these processes leads to greater motivation, and thus in terms of relevance, value,

interest, and need, involvement is a major element in defining and assessing the dimensions of a product.

Consumer involvement consists of two levels. The first is a high level of involvement, in which consumers fully engage themselves in the purchase decision process, and the second is a low level of involvement, in which consumers are not motivated to spend time, effort, and money on the purchase decision process.

### **High-Involvement Products**

A high level of involvement in the evaluation of a product usually involves the initiation of some type of problem-solving behavior, and usually occurs when the purchase is perceived to have a high personal importance and involves comparatively higher amounts of risk. High levels of involvement can naturally occur due to high risk perceptions (Batra and Ray 1985), strong personal interest in a subject matter (Zaichkowsky 1994), and general interest learning (Bloch, Sherrel, and Ridgway 1986; Capon and Lutz 1983; Thorelli and Engledow 1980). In such situations consumers usually have higher expectations about a greater number of product attributes (Barber and Venkatraman 1986), and therefore use more criteria, search for more information, process relevant information in more detail, and accept fewer alternatives during the decision-making process (Beatty and Scott 1987; Mitchell 1980; Chaiken 1986; Petty and Cacioppo 1981). According to Celsi and Olson (1988), when a consumer experiences the activation of something that is personally relevant in the memory, a motivational

state is created that drives cognitive behavior such as attention and comprehension processes. Thus, consumers with a higher level of involvement should put greater effort into, focus more attention on, and better comprehend the information presented about a product. In the Elaboration Likelihood model (ELM), the central route to persuasion is based on a high level of cognitive processing of product-related information that leads to attitude change, and only consumers with a reasonably high level of involvement in the product category will follow this route and change their attitude (Petty and Cacioppo 1981). Thus for high-involvement products, the presence of a peripheral cue, such as a product's brand name, will not help to enhance the evaluation process. However, D'Astous and Ahmed (1992) demonstrated that as a product's brand name is associated with the country of origin (COO), it is an important extrinsic cue that consumers use to evaluate it, particularly when it is a high-involvement, complex product. Other research has demonstrated that higher levels of involvement motivate consumers to produce more elaborate meanings of product information (Celci and Olson 1988) and undertake the piecemeal judgment of a product during the evaluation process. In addition, consumers are more willing to process less readable and complicated information about high-involvement products. Some examples of high-involvement products are fashionable designer clothes, television sets, washing machines, calculators, and automobiles (Laurent and Kapferer 1985; Zaichkowsky 1985).

## **Low-Involvement Products**

“Low involvement” is probably the most accurate description of most consumers in most situations, as there is evidence that most purchase decisions are based on very little information (Park and Srinivasan 1994). Hawkins and Hoch (1992) noted that most advertising can probably be termed “low involvement,” as research has suggested that most advertisements are ignored or lightly processed. In low-involvement situations, consumers do not have the time, resources, or motivation to engage in Extended Problem Solving (EPS) processes. Rather, they are passive recipients of product information and spend minimal time and effort in choosing a brand (Hoyer 1984). Consumers with a low level of involvement are less motivated to put effort into, focus attention on, or comprehend information about a product (Celci and Olson 1988), and are further discouraged from processing information that is complicated or difficult to read, such as that written in a foreign language. According to the ELM model, in low-involvement situations consumers follow a peripheral route to persuasion that is based on a low level of processing or inference, and thus peripheral cues, such as a product’s brand cues, are important in capturing consumer attention. These peripheral cues should be combined with familiar, simple, or positive signs that stimulate favorable attitudes toward the product. In the product-evaluation literature, researchers have demonstrated that affective-based preferences may not always require cognitive processing, as is the case with high-involvement products (Zajonc and Markus 1982; Janiszewski 1993), and that affect and preference can be created for an object merely by exposing the



subject to that object repeatedly, even in the absence of memory of the exposure (Bonanno and Stillings 1986; Bornstein and D'Agostino 1992; Janiszewski 1993; Vanhuele 1995; Zajonc and Markus 1982). Preference for a product has been found to increase initially with an increasing number of exposures (Bornstein 1989; Janiszewski 1990, 1993; Aanand and Sternthal 1990). As most purchase decisions occur in low-involvement settings and most of the information about such products is ignored or lightly processed (Hawkins and Hoch 1992), repeated exposure to a peripheral cue, such as a brand name written in the native language, can create relevant brand associations. Examples of low-involvement products are instant coffee, breakfast cereals, mouthwashes, and oils (Laurent and Kapferer 1985; Zaichkowsky 1985).

### ***Brand Name Studies***

Whenever a new brand is being launched into a foreign market, one of the critical decisions is whether to standardize the brand name or to translate the international brand name with appropriate form, style, and image to the target segment. Research has demonstrated that linguistic and cultural diversity are pushing firms to invest substantial resources in brand-name creation by engaging multiple parties, including marketing managers, naming agencies, corporate-identity firms, advertising firms, customers, and distributors, in the name selection process (Javed 1993; Ship, Hooley, and Wallace 1988) to ensure that they are on the right track in the new market. A brand name is a complex

symbol that represents a variety of ideas and attributes, not only through its sound or meaning, but also through the body of associations that are built up around it and acquired as a public object over time. Consumers with different orientations of culture, linguistic background, education background would have different levels of judgment attitude towards the brand name. When it comes to brand name decisions, it has been argued that the linguistic component of the brand name is the critical element that affects the name's recognizability and distinctiveness (Charmasson 1988; Huang and Chan 1997). The linguistic component of a brand name is the founding medium through which marketing communications such as advertising messages and brand names are delivered. Global branding is further complicated by languages and national and cultural factors (Hong, Pecotich, and Schultz 2001) in different countries particularly between the East and the West. As Westerners would have different judgments towards brand names than Chinese, significant efforts are needed when translating English brand names to Chinese brand names. For example, Western languages are based on a phonetic alphabetical system, whereas many Asian languages are based on ideographs. Westerners would evaluate the brand name based on how pleasing it sounds while Chinese would judge the brand name based on the visual appeal and also the implicit meaning associated with the brand name (Dong 2001). This important difference may render many brand name practices, such as the use of abbreviations and meaningless names, difficult to replicate, and makes phonetic-based names difficult to pronounce. Significant

effort is needed during the translation process to find the appropriate form, content, style, and image of brand that will satisfy particular market segments (Hong, Pecotich, and Schultz 2001). Although empirical studies of brand strategy reported high degrees of brand name standardization; these studies are however limited to Western countries where culturally and linguistically contexts are similar (Huang and Chan 1997). There exists little empirical work on the effects of brand name translation with brand associations and have reported contradictory results. Different arguments have been proposed towards the brand name standardization and brand name translation issues.

### **Linguistic Aspects of Brand Name Studies**

Early studies on branding were largely conducted in the United States and Europe in relation to Western products branded in Western European languages (Chan and Huang 1997). Early studies on branding focused on English words, and more specifically on the characteristics and functions of English names and the criteria or conditions for the development of effective brand names (Peterson and Ross 1972; Collins 1977; McNeal and Zeren 1981; McCarthy and Perreault 1987; Charmasson 1988; Meyers-Levy 1989; Maheswaran, Mackei, and Chaiken 1992; Ship, Hooley, and Wallace 1988). For example, Peterson and Ross (1972) observed that plural and one-syllable words were more remindful than singular and multiple-syllable words. It is important to select names that build on familiar words, because consumers may already have positive notions about such words that may help them to recognize and recall the brand name.

Meyers-Levy (1989) also demonstrated that the use of common words can contribute to positive brand associations. Maheswaran, Mackei, and Chaiken (1992) demonstrated that the favorability of a brand name can be used as a heuristic cue when consumers make product judgments, and that brand names that communicate benefit facilitate the recall of advertisements. Howard et al. (1995) found that the recall of a brand name facilitated compliance with a purchase request. Robertson (1989) proposed the four qualities of a strategically desirable brand name to be simplicity, distinctiveness, meaningfulness, and association with the product class. These qualities have also been suggested to be particularly important in the naming of services (Berry et al. 1988). The evaluation of a good brand name also depends on how easy and pleasant it is to pronounce. This is especially important when the product is a new brand in the market and consumers have never heard of it before. Research has also noted that consumers make a more favorable evaluation of a brand name if it has a foreign-sounding pronunciation. According to Schmitt and Tavassoli (1994), Thakor and Pacheco (1997), and Hong, Pecotich, and Schultz (2001), foreign-sounding brand names can affect perceptions of product quality, origin, price, and purchase intentions, and can thus be used as a powerful tool to position products and to differentiate them from those of competitors.

### **Brand Name Studies in Asia**

Recently, researchers have turned their attention to Asian countries, and have found some significant differences between Western and Asian consumers

in the evaluation of brand names. Previous research had shown that English words were more likely to be processed phonetically and Chinese words were more likely to be processed semantically (Baddeley 1986; Hung and Tzeng 1981; Perfetti and Zhang 1991; Schmitt and Tavassoli 1994). According to Li and Shooshtari (2003), for example, most Americans evaluate a brand name based on its pronunciation, and favor brand names with a sound that appeals to them. In contrast, most Chinese rely on ideographic features, rather than sound, to evaluate brand names. Thus, the search for an appropriate Chinese translation of a brand name should not only focus on the sound but also on the combination of words that will differentiate the product. A brand name is a sociolinguistic symbol that carries cultural meaning and builds up relationships. Most Chinese consumers favor brand names that express socioeconomic status, provoke memorable visual and mental images, appeal to their sophistication and sentiment, and indicate moral or value orientations. Other research has indicated the importance of the pronunciation of translated Chinese brand names. For example, Chan (1990) reported that the level of difficulty of brand name pronunciation affects sales, and suggested that the creation of a good Chinese name is not simply a matter of choosing from available letters, such as is the case with Latin based or Cyrillic languages. Chan and Huang (1997) proposed some general principles for a good Chinese brand name that include a length of two syllables, a H-H tone combination, a positive connotation, and a noun-noun morphemic structure (Chan 1990). Chan and Huang (1999; 2001) further

proposed that the contextualization of brand naming should follow a syllabic, tonic, semantic, and compounding structure that includes morphological requirements (two-morpheme compounding with the structure of a modifier noun), phonological requirements (a high-toned second syllable), and semantic requirements (a positive connotation). They further demonstrated that the creation of a good name should be guided by semantic requirements, and should incorporate the nature and function of the product, the needs of the target consumers, and the societal consumer culture. Zhang and Schmitt (2004) and Yorkston and Menon (2004) demonstrated that consumers evaluate brand names in an automatic, uncontrollable, unconscious, and effortless manner by using the information that they gather from a composition of individual sounds called phonemes to infer product attributes and evaluate brand names. Zhang and Schmitt (2004) also commented that the evaluation of consumers is actually a very complicated process, which contradicts earlier studies that demonstrated that consumers prefer a certain type of brand name translation, such as by sound (Chan 1990, 2001) or sound plus meaning (Seligman 1986). They further demonstrated that the brand name evaluation process actually incorporates multiple factors, such as stimulus-related characteristics, including type of translation and language emphasis; person-related characteristics, including language proficiency and knowledge-related variables; linguistic characteristics; and the combination of brand names.

## **Alpha-Numeric Brand Name Studies**

Another stream of research has focused on the study of alpha-numeric brand names among Chinese consumers. Alpha-numeric brand names are defined as those that contain letters and numbers that do not carry a literal meaning, such as WD40, Didi 7, and RX7. Such names can be used as abbreviations of the proper name, as inventory code numbers, as name extensions, or as symbolism of the technicality or a specific image that the product seeks to convey. There are many reasons for the proliferation of alpha-numeric brand names, including short product life cycles, the emergence of technology, a lack of new words, variations in product models, and the need for a brand name that can be used when marketing the product internationally (Boyd 1985). Although such brand names do not carry a literal meaning, consumers impute meanings to them and infer qualities about the product. According to Schloss (1981), certain letters have been observed to appear more frequently than others as the first letters of the top brand names. Pavia and Costa (1993) found that the influence of letters and numbers on the understanding and expectations of the product among consumers varied depending on whether the product was technical or non-technical. Moreover, they found that “Z” was perceived to be a more favorable brand name than “A” for technical products, because it is believed to be an indicator of high technology, speed, and complexity. It is also perceived as a masculine letter because of its sharp visual appearance, harsh spoken sound, and placement at the end of the alphabet. Schloss (1981) observed that among the top ten brands, some 65 percent began

with the letters A, B, C, K, M, P, S, or T. He therefore suggested that “A,” in general, is more preferred than “Z.” Boyd (1985) suggested that “X” and “7” are commonly used in alpha-numeric brand names because “X” is related to Christianity and has favorable connotations, and “7” is perceived to be a lucky number. Although this may be true in Western cultures, the Confucian culture of China, for example, is less familiar with Christianity, and therefore Chinese consumers are less likely to associate “X” with that religion. Instead, “X” may be considered to be negative, as it is associated with the mark of error. It has been shown that numbers are used in brand names in Asia to create brand awareness (Simmons 1979). According to Lip (1992), Chinese consumers consider 3, 6, and 8, but not 7 and 4, to be lucky numbers. Swee (1996) posited that Chinese consumers make inferences about product characteristics and success based on the brand name, and are more influenced by numbers than letters. Thus, the use of a “lucky” number in a brand name may be important in achieving a head start in marketing to Chinese communities.

### **Different English-to-Chinese Translation Methods**

Another stream of brand name studies has focused on the process of translating a foreign Western name to a local Chinese name. According to Webster’s New World College Dictionary, translation means “to put into the words of a different language,” and “the rendering from one language into another of something written or spoken.” Transliteration, in contrast, is “the writing of words with characters of another alphabet that represent the same



sound or sounds.” According to the New English-Chinese Dictionary, there are three types of translation: “free translation,” “literal translation,” and “mixed translation.” Free translation is defined as the transferring of words or brand names from one language into another based simply on the original meaning and without consideration of the sound of the words. For example, the Chinese name for “General Motors” (Tong-Yong -Qi-Che 通用汽車) has exactly the same meaning as the English name, but a completely different sound. Literal translation, which is also known as “transliteration” or “direct translation,” is defined as the transferal of words or names from one language to another based on the original sounds with or without consideration of the original or new meaning of the words or name. This category can be further divided into four subcategories: pure literal translation, literal translation with meaning created, literal translation with meaning modified and literal translation with meaning lost. Pure literal translation is the transferal of a word or brand name into another language based on its original sound with no meaning being attached either before or after the transfer process. For example, the well-known U.S. brand “Motorola” does not seem to have any meaning in English, and its Chinese version “mo-tuo-luo-la 摩托羅拉” bears no meaning other than indicating that this is a Western name. It was initially translated like this probably because the brand managers thought that the targeted Chinese consumer segments were organizational purchasers, college graduates, and college students, who are mostly well educated and have some knowledge of international markets and

may therefore be attracted by a foreign-sounding name. Literal translation with meaning created is the transferal of a word or brand name into another language based on its original sound where the word has no meaning before the process but a meaning is attached to the new name. For example, “Coca-Cola” may not have any literal meaning to U.S. consumers, but its Chinese version “Ke-kou-ke-le 可口可樂” means “tastes good and makes you happy,” which relates to the product category and meets the cultural need for happiness and harmony. Literal translation with meaning modified is the transferal of a word or brand name into another language based on its original sound with a meaning that is different from the original meaning. For example, “Head and Shoulders” in English refers to parts of the body, whereas its Chinese name “hai-fei-si 海飛絲” has a completely different meaning of “sea of flying silk.” The meaning is appropriate because black silk is often used as a metaphor in Chinese for smooth and beautiful hair, and thus the new name fits the culture in addition to representing the product category. Literal translation with meaning lost is the transferal of a word or brand name into another language based on its original sound where the original meaning is lost after the transferal process. For example, “Kraft” means “strong wrapping paper,” but its Chinese version “ka-fu 卡夫” is merely two Western-sounding characters without any meaning. Finally, creative translation is the transferal of a word or name from one language into another based on neither its original meaning nor its sound. Brand names that are created in this way in the new market have little link with the original name. Instead, the

strategy is to create a name that has the most desirable meaning in the new culture and language and that best serves the organizational and marketing goals of the product in the new market. The well-known auto brand “BMW” is translated into “Bao-Ma 寶馬,” meaning “precious horse,” which implies that it runs fast and for a long time. The horse is a favorable image among Chinese consumers, and is a very popular subject of Chinese paintings and other art forms, and this is thus a very clever translation. In addition to the foregoing translation methods, Ying (2002) also included “mixed translation,” which refers to a translation in which both sound and meaning are considered. The pronunciation of the original name dictates the sound (phoneme/syllable) of the new name, and the meaning of the name is chosen after the sound. According to Ying (2002), the mixed translation method is the most popular translation method. Chan (1990) found that 69.3% of translated Chinese brand names contained dissimilar connotations to those of the original names and that 93.3 % had a reasonable length of about two or three Chinese characters. Ying (2002) further demonstrated that 69.3% of translated Chinese brand names contain dissimilar and usually more positive connotations than their original brand names, and 90% had a reasonable length of about two or three Chinese characters. Ying (2002) concluded that a proper translation of a brand name into Chinese is very difficult, but the following factors should be taken into consideration: a linguistic component that focuses more on the semantic meaning that is expressed in the ideographic Chinese characters than on the

sound, cultural issues, and the desired brand positioning image, whether global or local. Zhang and Schmitt (2001) posited that an English-Chinese translation can be accomplished technically in three ways. The first is through phonetic translation (translating by sound), some examples of which are *Motorola* (Mou-tuo-luo-la 摩托羅拉), *Swatch* (Si-wo-qi 斯沃奇), *Dove* (De-fu 德芙), and *Exxon* (Ai-ke-sen 艾克森), all of which sound similar to the original but have no specific meaning. The second is semantic translation (translating by meaning), some examples of which include *NorthWest Airlines* “Xi-bei 西北” and *United Airlines* “Lian 聯,” in which meanings are paired. The third is phonosemantic translation (translating by sound plus meaning), some examples of which include the Chinese names for *Sprite*, “Xue-bi 雪碧”, which means “snowy and green”; *Johnson and Johnson*’s name in Chinese, “Qiang-sheng 強生”, which sounds like the English name and means “strengthen life,” a meaning that relates to the product categories of most Johnson and Johnson products; and the Chinese for *Colgate*, “Go low zhei 高露潔” which means “highly clear and clean.” Although most research has suggested that semantic focus is much more important than phonetic focus when it comes to Chinese brands (Chan and Huang 2001; Dong 2001; Ying 2002; Swee 1996), other researchers have indicated that a phonetic translation is the best translation method for new products in the East and South East Asian markets, whereas retaining the original brand name with no translation is much better for existing strong brand names (Hong, Pecotich, and Schultz 2001).

# **CHAPTER 3**

## **CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES**

### *Translation Situations in China*

A study of brand name translation for foreign and domestic products was conducted in several major cities of China, including Guangdong, Beijing, and Zhenjiang, and in Sichuan province. The results revealed that there are generally four situations in which foreign products carry translated Chinese brand names.

1. When the translated Chinese brand name is printed on the product or package, some examples of which include “Nestle” (雀巢) coffee, “Cup Noodle” (合味道) instant noodles, and “Johnson & Johnson” (莊生) household cleaning products.

2. When the translated Chinese brand name does not appear on the product or its package, but is printed along with some product information in Chinese on an additional label that is attached to the product. Some examples include “Thomson” (湯母迅) washing machines, “Asko” (賽寧) dryers, and “Kinox” (建樂士) cooking utensils.

3. There is no translated Chinese brand name appears either on the product or package or attached materials, but a related translated Chinese name or Chinese information appears when the product is advertised in public

communications channels such as information boards or in advertisements. For instance, when consumers walk into a department store, they will find informational boards containing product information with translated Chinese brand names, such as “Vichy” (薇姿) and “Avon” (雅芳) cosmetics.

4. There is no officially translated Chinese brand name for the foreign product, but when consumers are exchanging information about the product among themselves they come up with a mutually understood translated brand name for social communication purposes. This occurs especially among consumers who do not understand or are not able to comprehend the original language of the brand name. Some examples include the Japanese clothes brand Scholar (大頭妹) and the French fashion designer Louis Vuitton (LV).

Most foreign products do carry a Chinese brand name, as it is assumed by marketers that the use of such a name will help to customize the product for the local culture and enhance communications, and to certain extent may help to arouse shared values and reinforce the relationship between brand and customer. However, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name may also be perceived to bring about negative effects, and is therefore not common practice among local merchants. Many local merchants intentionally display the Chinese brand name and related translated product information on the back of the product only, and, as has been stated, many local companies deliberately name their local products with a foreign sounding brand name to benefit from the appeal of foreignness. It is interesting to note that the majority of foreign products that are

regarded to be low-involvement products carry a translated Chinese brand name, such as Andrex (皇冠) toilet tissue role and Zebra (斑馬牌) pens, whereas most of foreign products that are regarded to be high-involvement products do not have a translated brand name, such as the Japanese skin-care products “Covermark” and “Osim” massage chairs. Similarly, products that are positioned as being highly hedonic in nature, such as “Chanel” designer handbags, “Cartier” watches, and “Leo” diamond rings, do not display a translated Chinese brand name, whereas products that are positioned as being more utilitarian, such as “Axe” (斧頭) washing detergent, “Thermos” (膳魔師) heaters, and “Pledge” (碧麗珠) furniture polish, all have a translated Chinese brand name. These different practices reveal that marketers adapt brand names for some categories of products, but standardize them for others.

Of the aforementioned four types of brand-name translation situations, the printing of the Chinese brand name directly on the product or package or on a separately attached label appears to be more persuasive and effective in capturing the immediate attention of consumers. According to Keller (2003), a product’s package acts as a five-second sales pitch to capture the attention of consumers (Keller 2003), and thus a translated brand name that appears on packaging has an important role in communicating, persuading, and influencing consumer perceptions. In contrast, the purpose of a translated brand name in the other two situations is more for logistics purposes, such as internal operations and stocktaking. In this study, the focus is therefore on the investigation of the

brand name translations that are associated with a product's packaging and labeling. The scope of the research is therefore defined as the situation in which *a translated Chinese brand name is printed on the product/package or attached label*. In brief, the scope included the conduction of a lab experiment in 2x2x2 factorial design with manipulation of translation, hedonism and involvement and using students as the subjects. Print advertisements of different products with respect to product relevancy including hedonism and consumer involvement were adopted during the experiment to collect data. Details of the methodology will be thoroughly discussed in chapter four; results will be discussed in Chapter five and implications to global marketers will be discussed in Chapter six.

### ***Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development***

Owing to the diverse differences in terms of linguistic, culture, education background and level of economic development between the Western and Asian countries; a foreign brand name written in foreign language would appear as an unfamiliar brand name cue and that would cause misunderstanding and complicate the comprehension. These miscommunications would convey negative connotations among Chinese consumers and would therefore negatively influence the sales of the product (Chan 1990). On the contrary, a translated brand name in a familiar language is more effective to create necessary affinity with consumers (Chan 1990) such as establishing a distinctive local image or



stimulating shared values. For example, Children are found to prefer sounds produced by mothers and native languages (Macwhinney 1998). Through the process of translation, the product brand name can be enhanced with much better meaning. This is being demonstrated in many successful brands such as *Coke Cola* (Ke-Kou-Ke-Le 可口可樂) soft drink, *Pepsi* (Bai-Shi-Ke-Le 百事可樂) soft drink, *Colgate* (Gao-Lu-Jie 高露潔) toothpaste, and *BMW* (Bao-Ma 寶馬) automobile in which the translated Chinese name are found to be much more meaningful than the original brand names. Accordingly, researchers believe that foreign brand names should be translated into Chinese brand names when expanded into China.

On the other hand, as stated from Huang and Chan (1997), it is not appropriate and is very difficult to translate foreign brand names into Chinese due to the cultural and linguistic differences. A brand name is found to associate with the country origin or brand origin which is found to be a very important factor to influence consumers' associations (Khachaturian and Morganosky 1990). Through the process of stereotyping effect, the brand name is implicitly associated with the country image and is commonly known as the country of origin effect. This COO effect is found to be pronounced in products associated with a foreign spelling or language (Leclerc, Schmitt and Dube-Riox 1994; Thakor, Pacheco 1997). National and cultural stereotypes are broad and consensually shared beliefs and judgments related to a country, its citizens, and their culture (Peabody 1985; Taylor and Moghaddam 1987). Consumers in less

developed countries, for instance, Chinese, are likely to rely on national image and the country of origin or brand origin for product evaluations. Generally, products from more developed countries receive more positive evaluations than products from less developed countries. According to Ying (2002) and Tai (1998), Chinese think highly of western products and would find western products more superior to local products. It is therefore not surprising that many of the local companies deliberately name the local products with a foreign sound brand name so as to benefit from the exotic superior image (Ying 2002). For instance, the “TCL” company – a leading electronics brand in China which simply adopts a foreign brand to benefit from the superior image. Similarly, when foreign brand names have a direct translation, the translated sound is very close to the original sound and therefore is still able to convey a distinctive foreign or Western image, which is perceived to be superior in the Chinese market: “Disney”, for instance, is translated as “*迪斯尼*”, which is pronounced Disini). This practice has now been taken up in the local market, and has influenced local Chinese marketers in choosing brand names.

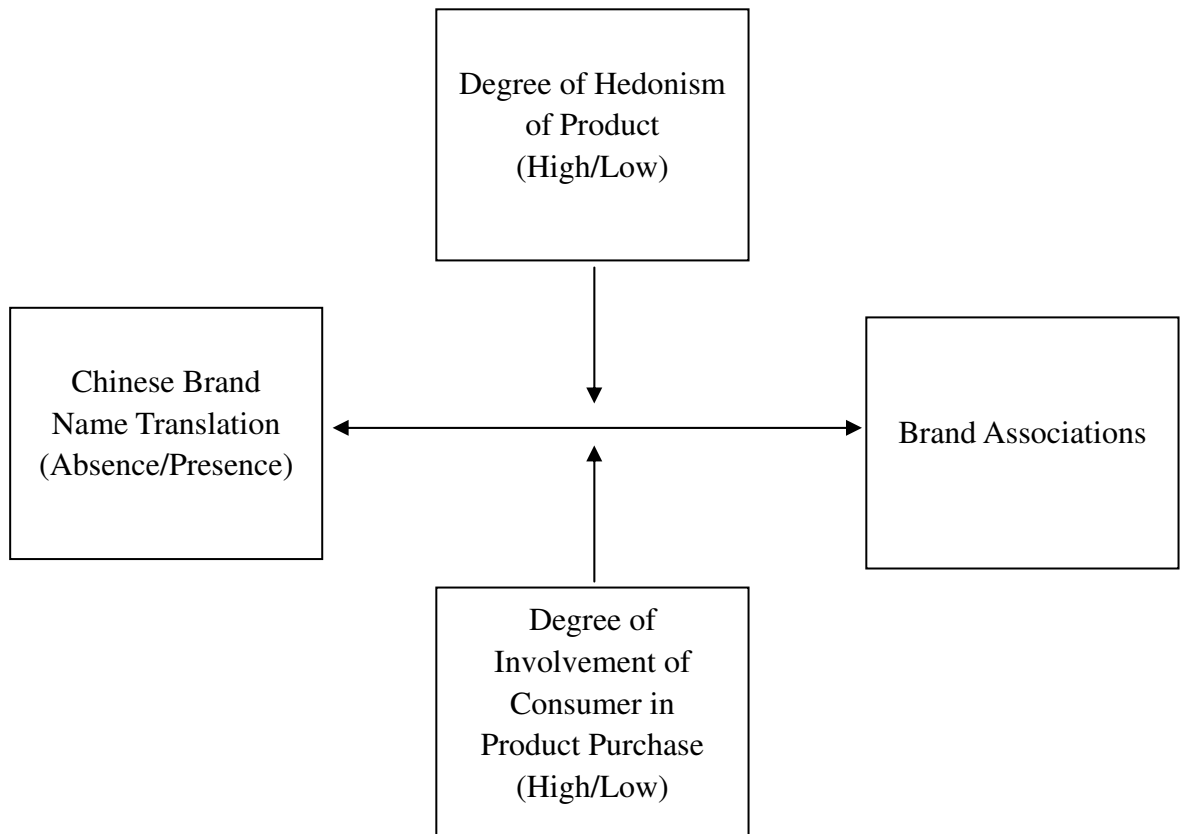
Base on the literature review, three broad propositions about brand name translation into Chinese can be derived as follows.

1. The presence or absence of a translated Chinese brand name cue is expected to have different effects for different product types in different situations. A translated Chinese brand name cue is recommended for some products because it will help to enhance communication and may

have a persuasive influence. However, for other products a translated brand name may distort the original foreign image of the product and should not be adopted. As there is an inconsistent relationship between translation and brand associations, the two product relevancy variables of hedonism and involvement are introduced to define the different product types and different situations. Hence the following two propositions are developed.

2. The degree of hedonic value, or hedonism, of a product moderates the effect of a Chinese brand name translation on the perceived brand associations.
3. The degree of consumer involvement in the product purchase process moderates the effect of a Chinese brand name translation on the perceived brand associations.

A conceptual map that summarizes the relationships that are explored in the research is given in the following, and three research hypotheses are detailed.



As firms expand into foreign markets, a critical step is the creation of a well translated brand name for products, and many such firms are therefore willing to spend tremendous resources on the brand-name translation process. It is therefore expected that a well translated brand name will engender positive associations that influence the purchase behavior of consumers. However, it is also observed that some foreign companies have decided to use only a foreign brand name and avoid having a translated Chinese brand name at all so as to preserve the foreign image of their products. Moreover, some local companies

attempt to build a foreign image for their products by purposely using a foreign or foreign-sounding brand name. Regardless of the perspective on brand name translation that is taken, the underlying assumption is that marketers believe that an appealing translated Chinese brand name will influence the associations that consumers make about the product. Particularly, since Chinese consumers think highly of Western, foreign products; and have demonstrated that they would rely on product's brand name to evaluate the products, it is therefore expected that they would demonstrate more positive feelings towards products which do not carry a Chinese translated brand name.

**H1: The presence of a translated Chinese brand name in a product has a negative impact on its brand associations.**

### **The Moderating Effect of Product Hedonism**

In this research, products with a *high* degree of hedonism are defined as being *hedonic* in nature, whereas products with a *low* degree of hedonism are deemed to be *utilitarian* in nature. To further explain, the consumer evaluation of hedonic products is generally guided by an emotional, instinctive, and spontaneous process (Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2002), and hedonic evaluative criteria are related to experiential, abstract, subjective, emotional, symbolic, sensory, non-rational, and aesthetic purchase attributes and benefits (Ahtola 1985; Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). Hedonic products are strongly attached to emotions, and have the ability to arouse emotional feelings, such as making one feel well-being, happiness, pleasure, or even pride about one's perceived

elevated status in society. It is therefore believed that the evaluation of hedonic products bears a higher level of emotional risk that can threaten the psychological or emotional feelings that are associated with a consumer's self-image, sense of security, or social status. In other words, consumers may suffer more emotionally when they feel that they have chosen the wrong hedonic product. It is therefore expected that consumers will be more emotionally involved when choosing hedonic products, and will attribute greater affective feelings toward such products (Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2002). Research has shown that hedonic products are perceived to have a higher degree of hedonism when they are associated with a foreign brand name, such as an Italian or a French name (Leclerc et al. 1994). A study that was conducted in China arrived at the same conclusion (Wang, Chen, Chan and Zheng 2000). This phenomenon may be attributable to the country of origin stereotyping effect that derives from a product's brand name and is carried over into the realm of product evaluation. Gong (2003) and Wong and Ahuvia (1998) also posited that Chinese people have very high expectations of foreign, and particularly Western, products. It is therefore deduced that hedonic products are perceived to possess a superior hedonic value when they are associated with a Western brand name. This deduction results from the stereotyping effect, which is well documented in the psychology literature (Eagly, Ashmore, Makhijani and Longo 1991; Gardner 1973; Katz 1981). It is therefore expected that when the foreign brand name of a hedonic product is translated into Chinese, both the superior image of the

product and its perceived hedonic value will be distorted, which will lessen the brand associations.

Consumer evaluations of utilitarian products, in contrast to those of hedonic products, are usually rational, thoughtful, and deliberative (Chardhuri and Holbrook 2002). In this process, consumers usually pay attention to the product's intrinsic qualities, its function as a means to an end, and its ability to serve their need to control and manipulate the environment (Allen, Ng and Wilson 2002). Research suggests that consumers have a predisposition toward and form expectations about a particular product. It is therefore expected that consumers will show particular concern about whether utilitarian products confer the required instrumental and functional benefits. Utilitarian products are found to bear a higher functional brand choice risk, and it is therefore particularly essential for consumers to build up a trustful disposition toward such products before they come to use them (Moorman et al. 1992). The presence of a translated Chinese brand name, as an explicit extrinsic cue, is an effective tool for the enhancement of perceptions of "shared value" and "product meaning" among consumers. When consumers feel that they are familiar with a product, they tend to have confidence in it and trust it, which in turn increases their intention to purchase it (Lin and Chang 2003). Similarly, when consumers feel that they are able to comprehend, manipulate, and control the product more easily, they form a more positive attitude toward it, which in turn yields more positive brand associations.

**H2: The degree of hedonism moderates the relationship between brand name translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to lower brand associations for highly hedonic products.**

### **The Moderating Effect of Consumer Involvement**

In this research, products that trigger a high degree of consumer involvement in the product purchase process are defined as high-involvement products, whereas those that trigger a low level of involvement are defined as low-involvement products.

High involvement usually refers to the initiation of a type of problem-solving behavior when the purchase is perceived to be high in personal importance and involves a comparatively higher amount of risk. Mitchell (1980) reports that high-involvement consumers use more criteria in decision making, search for more information (Beatty and Smith 1987), accept fewer alternatives (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981), and process relevant information in more detail (Chaiken and Shelley, 1986). Consumers of high-involvement products are more motivated to produce elaborate meanings about product information (Celsi and Olson 1988), and therefore put greater effort into, focus more attention on, and better comprehend information about a product. In short, high-involvement products are defined as those that are highly relevant and important to consumers, and that cause consumers to be highly motivated in the product evaluation



process. This motivation includes being more willing to process information with a low level of readability that uses complicated, *unfamiliar* language (Chebat et al. 2003), such as a foreign brand name. Consumers of high-involvement products are willing to spend time, energy, and effort in making “piecemeal” judgments during the evaluation process (Neubery and Fiske 1987; Pavelchak 1989; Wilson, Lisle, Kraft and Wetzel 1989). According to the ELM model, highly involved consumers rely on a central route of information, rather than peripheral cues such as the product’s brand name, to make a purchase decision, and make that decision only after a logical and deliberative evaluation, rather than an instinctive and spontaneous evaluation. It is therefore deduced that the presence of a Chinese brand name to capture attention is not needed for high-involvement products, and will not enhance the logical and deliberative product evaluation process. Indeed, it may even distort the foreign image of a product and lower the overall feeling toward it, including the brand associations.

Low involvement in the purchase process is probably the most accurate description of the behavior of most consumers in most situations, as there is evidence that most purchase decisions are based on very little information (Park and Srinivassan 1994). In low-involvement situations, consumers do not have the time, resources, or motivation to engage in the Extended Problem Solving (EPS) processes (Hoyer 1984), and are less motivated to pay attention and comprehend product information (Celsi and Olson 1988). According to the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), low-involvement consumers do not

follow the central route to persuasion, but rather follow peripheral cues, such as a product's brand name, that require a low level of processing or inference (Petty and Cacioppo 1983; Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983; Vakratsas and Ambler 1999; Hawkins and Hoch 1992). Research has shown that less involved consumers do not have the motivation to comprehend products, and are further discouraged to understand them if the product information appears in a foreign language that makes it less readable, is difficult, or appears to be complicated (Chebat et al. 2003). As such, it is proposed that low-involvement products should carry a translated Chinese name to arouse a sense of familiarity and capture the immediate attention of consumers.

Research has shown that the repeated exposure of objects to consumers has an impact on the effect of – and preference for – the object, which may be a geometric shape, foreign character, or piece of advertising (Bonanno and Stillings 1986; Borstein and D' Agostino 1992; Janiszewski 1993; Zajonc and Markus 1982; Bornstein 1989). It is therefore expected that the repeated exposure of a cue such as a brand name may serve to capture the attention of consumers and increase their awareness of low-involvement products despite their low level of involvement. It is therefore expected that in a low-involvement buying situation, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will enhance the familiarity of consumers with the product, which will then contribute to a higher level of brand associations.

**H3: Consumer involvement moderates the relationship between brand name translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to lower brand associations for products that are characterized by a high level of consumer involvement.**

The main focus of this research is to study the moderating effects of product relevancy (high/low hedonism and high/low involvement) on the relationship between a product's brand name and the brand associations that consumers make about the product. As indicated in the literature, although there is no consistent measurement of brand associations, there appears to be some agreement among researchers as to their conceptualization. According to Keller (1993; 1998; 2003), brand associations are synonymous with brand image, and can be defined as the perceptions about a brand that are reflected by the associations that consumers make with the brand in the memory. Similarly, Aaker (1991, 1996a) stated that brand associations can be defined as anything that is linked in the memory to a brand. In the consumer behavior literature, there are three related constructs that are, by definition, linked in the memory to a brand, and that have been researched conceptually and measured empirically: brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention. These three constructs are therefore chosen for this research, because they are important, consistent, and

fundamental constructs that can be used to form a parsimonious and comprehensive structure with which to measure consumer responses and perceived brand associations at the initial stage of new product marketing. In addition, they are among the most commonly cited consumer brand perceptions in the empirical marketing literature, have been frequently discussed in conceptual research (Aaker 1991, 1996b; Keller 1993; 1998), and have established and reliable measures that have been published in the marketing literature. They are used in this research as the dimensions of brand associations.

### ***Brand Attitude***

Brand attitude is considered to be an element in a consideration set that results from the evaluation of an object and its value relative to other objects (Berger and Mitchell 1989; Fazio, Powell and Williams 1989; Fazio et al. 1986; Judd et al. 1991; Noffsinger, Pellegrini and Brunell 1983), or as a consumer's overall evaluation of a brand (Wilkie 1986; Keller 1993). Brand attitudes are important because they often form the basis for consumer behavior, such as brand choice. Although different models of brand attitude have been proposed, the expectancy-value model that was proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) have been the most influential. According to this model, brand attitudes are a multiplicative function of the salient beliefs that a consumer has about the product or service (the extent to which the consumer believes the brand to have certain attributes or benefits) and the evaluative judgment of those beliefs (how good or bad it is that the brand has those

attributes or benefits). Brand attitudes can also be related to beliefs about product-related attributes and the functional and experiential benefits of a product, which is consistent with work on perceived quality (Zeithaml 1988). Brand attitudes can also be related to beliefs about non-product-related attributes and symbolic benefits (Rossiter and Percy 1987), which is consistent with the functional theory of attitudes (Katz 1960; Lutz 1991) that maintains that attitudes have a “value-expressive” function in the expression of an individual’s self-concept. Research has also indicated that attitudes are spontaneous feelings that can be formed by less thoughtful decision making (Chaiken 1986; Petty and Cacioppo 1986). If consumers lack the motivation or ability to evaluate a product or service, then they may use signals or extrinsic cues, such as the product’s brand name, to infer their attitude toward it based on what they know about the brand (Olson and Jacoby 1972).

### ***Perceived Quality***

Crosby (1979) defined quality as “conformance to requirements,” and Monroe and Krishnan (1985) defined perceived quality as “the perceived ability of a product to provide satisfaction relative to available alternatives.” Olshavsky (1985) viewed quality as a form of overall product evaluation that is similar to attitude, and Holbrook and Corfman (1985) suggested that quality is a relatively global value judgment. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) suggested that service quality is an overall evaluation that is similar to attitude, and others have proposed that a consumer’s attitude corresponds to a global evaluation of a

product or service offering, rather than an evaluation of a specific transaction (Holbrook and Corfman 1985; Olshavsky 1985). Zeithaml (1988) defined perceived quality as a consumer's judgment about the superiority or excellence of a product. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988) developed a 22-item scale called SERVQUAL to assess consumer perceptions of service quality in service and retailing organizations, and later divided the 22 items between the five dimensions of Tangibles, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, and Empathy. The development of SERVQUAL has sparked intense debate (Carman 1990; Cronin and Taylor 1994; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry 1994; Teas 1993; Teas 1994), as there are a number of complications with the theoretical definitions and measurements of the model. Keller (1993) proposed a customer-based brand equity model that defines perceived quality as a customer's perception of the overall quality or superiority of a product or service relative to relevant alternatives and with respect to its intended purpose. This model also posits perceived quality to be a global assessment that is based on customer perceptions of what constitutes a quality product and how well a brand rates in several dimensions. This definition of perceived quality is consistent with that of the brand attitude. According to Low and Lamb (2000), perceived quality is the most relevant measurement of brand associations for fictitious brands. Zeithaml (1988) made a clear statement about the effect of a product's extrinsic cues, such as its brand name, and its perceived quality. He demonstrated that extrinsic cues are important quality indicators when a consumer is operating without adequate

information about intrinsic product attributes. Such situations may occur when the consumer has little or no experience with the product, and has insufficient time or interest to evaluate the intrinsic attributes, or cannot readily evaluate the intrinsic attributes (Zeithaml 1988, p. 9).

### ***Purchase Intention***

According to Fishbein's theory of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975), consumer purchase intentions serve as the mediator between consumer attitudes toward a product and actual purchasing. As there is a high correlation ( $r = 0.95$ ) between purchase intention and purchase probability, Gruber (1971) suggested that intention links consumer reactions to products and their acquisition or use of products. Intention has been used extensively as an alternative measure to purchase behavior. Purchase intention measures focus on the likelihood of buying the brand or of switching from one brand to another.

In this research, the three constructs of brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention are explored independently to measure the associations that consumers make about brands and their responses to those brands. As indicated in the literature, the constructs indicate that consumer responses follow a similar pattern, but with different degrees of magnitude, and it is therefore expected that they will have the same direction of influence on consumer associations. Accordingly, it is expected that the interaction effect between a product's relevancy (degree of hedonism and consumer involvement) and a product's brand name translation status will have a similar effect on brand

attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention. The initial three hypotheses are therefore expanded to the following nine hypotheses.

- H1a: The presence of a translated Chinese brand name in a product has a negative impact on its *brand attitude*.
- H1b: The presence of a translated Chinese brand name in a product has a negative impact on its *perceived quality*.
- H1c: The presence of a translated Chinese brand name in a product has a negative impact on its *purchase intention*.
- H2a: The degree of hedonism of a product moderates the relationship between translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower *brand attitude* toward products that have a high hedonic value and vice versa.
- H2b: The degree of hedonism of a product moderates the relationship between brand name translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower *perceived quality* for products that have a high hedonic value and vice versa.
- H2c: The degree of hedonism of a product moderates the relationship between brand name translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower *purchase intention* for products that have a high hedonic value and vice versa.
- H3a: Consumer involvement moderates the relationship between brand name translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower *brand attitude* toward



products that are characterized by a higher level of consumer involvement and vice versa.

H3b: Consumer involvement moderates the relationship between brand name translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower *perceived quality* for products that are characterized by a higher level of consumer involvement and vice versa.

H3c: Consumer involvement moderates the relationship between brand name translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower *purchase intention* toward products that are characterized by a higher level of consumer involvement and vice versa.

## **CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY**

A 2x2x2 factorial design lab experiment was conducted to test the hypotheses. A series of focus groups and pilot tests were first conducted to ensure that the main experiment was set up correctly.

### ***First Focus Group***

A focus group of 50 students was formed to explore purchasing patterns and the familiarity of the participants toward certain consumer products. Seven products, including shampoo, toothpaste, a tissue pack, camera film, a computer, an mp3 player, and a mobile phone, were explored in the focus group. The results indicated that the participants were very familiar with the seven chosen products and had different degrees of involvement in purchasing them.

### ***Second Focus Group***

The purpose of the second focus group was to improve the scale of the constructs of interests, that is, brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention, in terms of the seven products being researched. The students in this focus group were asked to write down any ideas, feelings, or attitudes that they deemed important in evaluating their attitude toward, the quality of, and their purchase intention toward the seven products. The open-ended responses were tabulated and the most common named terms were used to develop the semantic differential items for the main experiment, as suggested by Dolich (1969). It was

found that most of the items that measured perceived quality and brand attitude that were developed from the pretest were similar to the scales that were developed by Keller and Aaker (1992) and Zinkhan et al. (1986). For brand attitude, the three items including good, pleasant, and valuable were drawn from the literature, and the scale was then further modified to include “cool” and “sentimental.” For perceived quality, the semantic differential items that were used were good quality/bad quality, superior/inferior, and excellent/poor. Based on the results from the focus groups, this scale was further modified by adding four more items: useful/useless, functional/non-functional, reliable/unreliable, and high technology combination/low technology combination. Although other studies (e.g., that of Lafferty, Goldsmith and Newell, 2002) have followed the study of Yi (1990) in measuring purchase intention by a single question with three items, due to the specific context of this research it is measured using a four-item question that was generated from the findings of the focus groups.

### ***Pilot Tests***

Pilot tests were conducted to ensure the correct set-up for the experiment. One hundred and thirty-five students participated in the pilot tests, all of whom were local Macanese or mainland Chinese students who were studying at one of the six faculties at the University of Macau, namely, the Faculty of Business Administration (FBA), Faculty of Education (FED), Faculty of Law (FLL), Faculty of Sciences and Humanities (FSH), Faculty of Science and Technology

(FST), and Center of Macau Studies (CMS). All of the participants had to be able to read and write Chinese. The students were all volunteers, and no compensation of any form was given to them. To further enhance the internal validity of the pilot tests, the students were randomly assigned to different treatment groups. All of the participants received a package that contained seven print advertisements for seven products, including a computer, mp3 player, mobile phone, shampoo, toothpaste, camera film, and tissue pack. The participants were given one minute to look at each of the print advertisements, and were then given five minutes to fill in a questionnaire about each product. After the participants had completed all seven questionnaires for the seven products, they were given a final questionnaire that related to the manipulation treatment and the proposed hypothesis of the research, and on completing this were invited to attend an exit interview. The purpose of the exit interview was to clear up any possible confusion, and to collect feedback for the further improvement of the experiment, and also to explore the purchasing pattern of the students, such as their familiarity and level of involvement with the products and their opinion toward the definitions of high-involvement and low-involvement products.

The results of the pilot study indicated that the participants were very familiar with the seven products, and had different degrees of involvement in their purchase. All of them agreed that shampoo, toothpaste, film, and tissue were low-involvement products, whereas computers, mobile phones, and mp3

players were high-involvement products. Improved versions of the print advertisements, questionnaires, and experimental procedures were then generated for use in the main experiment.

### ***Rationale for the use of Student Participants***

For the main experiment, 237 mainland Chinese students were recruited who hailed from the cities of Beijing, Shanghai, Tianjin, and Chongqing, and the major cities in the provinces of Fujian, Guangdong, Hainan, Hubei, Hunan, Jiangsu, Liaoning, Sichuan, Zhejiang, and Guangxi. All of the students had resided in Macau for less than two years for the purpose of attending university, and always went back to their hometown during holidays and term breaks. Due to their short and temporary residence in Macau, they still displayed the consumer behavior pattern of mainland Chinese consumers, and can therefore be considered to be legitimate subjects who would reflect typical Chinese consumption behavior. The average age of the students was around 20 years old, and two thirds of them were female. None of the students were working, and all were fully supported by their parents during their college education. One third of the students were living in dormitories within the campus and two thirds were renting apartments close to the university. As they were all away from home, they all had to make purchase decisions about personal and household products. In terms of brand experience, most of them owned at least one mobile phone and one mp3 player. All of them were frequent computer users and the majority had their own computer. Most were frequent users of shampoos, toothpaste, and

tissue paper, but many did not have camera and those that did had digital models. They were not therefore frequent users of camera film, although all of them had used film before and knew where to buy a roll if necessary. As the participants, despite being students, were both current and potential consumers who would use all of the seven products frequently except for film, the use of a student sample from a university is justified, and, rather than being a liability for the research, should actually improve the homogeneity of the sample and thus strengthen the internal validity of the findings. Calder, Phillips, and Tybout (1982) asserted that internal validity must be given a higher priority than external validity in testing a theory. Likewise, Cook and Campbell (1979, p. 84) asserted that, in experimentation, “jeopardizing internal validity for the sake of increasing external validity usually entails a minimal gain for a considerable loss.” Therefore, in this research, the priority is placed on the achievement of a higher level of internal validity.

### ***Rationale for the use of Fictitious Brands***

To achieve a higher level of internal validity, fictitious brand names for the seven products were used in this research to avoid any possible variation that might result from a predisposition toward a real brand. Of the various types of brand name translations that are mentioned in Chapter One, only the phonetic translation (translation by sound only) was adopted in the brand name translation process to avoid any possible variation in brand associations that might derive

from a well translated brand name as a result of semantic translation (translation by meaning) or phonosemantic translation (translation by sound plus meaning). The translation of a brand name to achieve a pleasant sound, ease of pronunciation, or ease of readability was deliberately avoided to prevent any possible variation in perception caused by a well translated name. To conclude, no extra effort was spent on improving the function of the brand name in the translation process so as to ensure that the translated brand name provided no added meaning, but was simply a Chinese name with Chinese characters. Special effort was made, however, to ensure that both the English and Chinese versions of the fictitious brand names contained no meaning and were perceived to be neutral by the participants.

### ***Manipulation of the Treatment***

Chinese brand name translation was manipulated at two levels – present and absent – to create a *between*-subject variable. Two levels of hedonism – high hedonism and low hedonism – were also manipulated to create a *between*-subject variable, where “low-hedonism product” was treated as a synonym of “utilitarian product.” Two types of products – high-involvement products and low-involvement products – were tested as a *within*-subject variable. In total, there were four treatment groups: translation present, high hedonism; translation present, low hedonism; translation absent, high hedonism; and translation absent, low hedonism. Each group received *both* high-involvement and low-

involvement products for the brand association evaluation. Therefore, eight groups (4x2) were formed in the data analysis, as illustrated in Figure 1.



**Table 4.1: Experiment Cell Groups**

<b>Chinese Brand Name Translation</b>							
<b>PRESENT</b>				<b>ABSENT</b>			
<b>Hedonism</b>				<b>Hedonism</b>			
<b>HIGH</b>		<b>LOW</b>		<b>HIGH</b>		<b>LOW</b>	
<b>Involvement</b>		<b>Involvement</b>		<b>Involvement</b>		<b>Involvement</b>	
<b>HIGH</b>	<b>LOW</b>	<b>HIGH</b>	<b>LOW</b>	<b>HIGH</b>	<b>LOW</b>	<b>HIGH</b>	<b>LOW</b>

***Treatment 1: Brand Name Translation***

Where the brand name translation status was “absence,” only the fictitious English brand name was used in the print advertisement, both in the logo part and the product description part.

Where the brand name translation status was “presence,” a phonetic Chinese translation of the fictitious brand name was used as part of the logo (along with the English brand name) in the print advertisement, and whenever the English brand name appeared in the advertisement, it was accompanied by the phonetic brand name translation.

***Treatment 2: Product Hedonism***

In considering the product categories for the research, particular attention was paid to the selection of hybrid products that contained both hedonic and utilitarian value. This is because all products in the market actually have both hedonic and utilitarian value, and it is simply a matter of which is perceived to be greater by consumers or which position marketers are trying to achieve when

launching the product in the market. For instance, the emphasis in marketing a camera can be placed on fun and pleasant memories (hedonic value) or on taking a record of events (utilitarian value). Similarly, for a computer the emphasis can be placed on games (hedonic value) or word processing (utilitarian value). For both shampoo and toothpaste the emphasis can be placed on beauty (hedonic value) or hygiene (utilitarian value), whereas for a tissue pack the emphasis might be on convenience and hygiene (utilitarian value) or the pleasure that derives from its softness and touch (hedonic value). A film can keep fun memories (hedonic value) or record images for work purposes (utilitarian value). The marketing of a mobile phone can emphasize its use for maintaining interpersonal connections or its use in making work more efficient. Given the fact that a product's relative utilitarian value or hedonic value may already be fixed in the minds of consumers (for instance, a shampoo may be perceived to be a hedonic product by women but a utilitarian product by men), it is difficult to manipulate degree of hedonism simply by using different categories of products. According to the hedonism literature, hedonic goods are generally defined as those that generate an affective and sensory consumption experience that involves sensual pleasure, fun, and excitement, whereas utilitarian goods are generally defined as those that generate a functional and practically driven consumption experience (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982; Strahilevitz and Myers 1988; Ahtola 1985; Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2002; Dhar and Wertenbroch 2000; Leclerc, Schmitt and Dube 1994; Thakor and Pacheco 1997). Due to the specific

context of this research, in which the participants were only given print advertisements with limited verbal information, it was decided to use different wordings or forms of communication that conveyed inherent degrees of hedonic or utilitarian value to manipulate the hedonism treatment. Thus, where the hedonic level was “high,” the wording of the product description focused on the relatively higher conspicuous, unique, and social value of the product, such as enjoyment, sense of freedom, self-expression, social status, spiritual feeling, fun, pleasure, sensory arousal, and experiential adventure. Conversely, for the low hedonism products (utilitarian value), the product description focused more on the perceived functional value of the product, such as practicality, price affordability, usefulness, efficiency, convenience, and durability.

### ***Treatment 3: Consumer Involvement***

In the focus groups, information about the attitude of the students toward high-involvement and low-involvement products was collected. The students were given definitions of “high-involvement” and “low-involvement” products and were asked to determine whether the seven products, namely, shampoo, mp3 player, computer, film, mobile phone, toothpaste, and tissue, were low-involvement or high-involvement on a seven-point Likert-scale where 1 was “low degree of involvement” and 7 was “high degree of involvement.” The results were consistent with expectations, in that the computer, mobile phone, and mp3 player were considered to be relatively high-involvement products, whereas the toothpaste, tissue, film, and shampoo were considered to be

relatively low-involvement products.

As is explained in the section on the experimental setup, the “involvement” variable is a *within*-subject variable, and therefore each treatment group was manipulated at both the high-involvement and low-involvement levels. Each participant was effectively used twice because it was assumed that the responses that derived from the two treatments would be independent of each another. That is to say, it was assumed that if a participant were exposed to a high-involvement product and asked to evaluate it, and then exposed to a low-involvement product and asked to evaluate it, the judgment of the second product would not be influenced by that of the previous product. This design allows the extraction of two sets of results from each of the participants (one from the low-involvement treatment and the other from the high-involvement treatment. As the involvement variable is a within-subject variable, the 237 research generated 474 (2N) cases. This was achieved in practice by asking the students to look at the print advertisements for both the high-involvement and low-involvement products during the experimental procedure. The participants were given 5 minutes to look at the print advertisement for each product, regardless of its involvement level, and were then given a questionnaire to measure their perceptions of their degree of involvement with each product. The manipulation treatment was found to be effective, as the participants considered the computer, mobile phone, and mp3 player to be high-involvement products and the tissue pack, shampoo, toothpaste, and camera film to be low-involvement products.

### ***The experiment Set-Up***

A sample of 362 participants was recruited from the student population of a university in Macau. Among the 362 participants, 237 came from the Chinese mainland and 125 students were local residents of Macau. As one of the objectives of the research is to investigate the consumption behavior of mainland Chinese people, only mainland Chinese students were considered, and thus there were 237 participants in the final sample, each of which was randomly assigned to one of the four treatment groups. A remuneration fee of Mop\$100.00 (~10 Euros) was given to the students if they participated successfully in the experiment. Before the experiment started, the participants were told that they were going to see seven print advertisements for new foreign imported products. Each participant received a set of papers, on the first page of which were written the rules that they should obey throughout the process and some instructions as to what they had to do. The rules were that they should not carry a mobile phone, must keep silent, and should not take any action before they hearing further instructions from the invigilators. The experiment began with the distribution of the package that contained the seven print advertisements, which were developed by an outside advertising agency. Each advertisement featured a product with a fictitious brand name. The stimulus products were a laptop computer, shampoo, toothpaste, a handy tissue pack, an mp3 player, a roll of camera film, and a mobile phone. As has been

stated, these products were chosen in accordance with the findings of the earlier focus groups, which indicated that they were all products with which the participants were familiar, with the lap-top computer, mp3 player, and mobile phone being perceived to be high-involvement products, and the shampoo, camera film, toothpaste, and tissue pack being perceived to be low-involvement products. The participants in the main experiment were given sufficient time to read the details of the advertisements one at a time, and after reading each advertisement were given a questionnaire about the product. They were also instructed to answer a questionnaire that asked them to comment on the treatment manipulations, guess the hypotheses, and give details of their personal profiles.

### ***Dependent Measures***

The full questionnaire with all the items and scales is shown in the Appendix section.

### **Brand Attitude**

The scale for the measurement of brand attitude was adopted from the study of Zinkhan et al. (1986). The original scale comprised three items to measure the construct, to which were added two items that were generated from the focus group.

The participants were asked to rate their agreement with the measurement items using the following scale.

I feel that this brand is 1. good; 2. pleasant; 3. valuable; 4. cool, and 5. sentimental.

### **Perceived Quality**

The scale for the measurement of perceived quality was adapted from the study of Keller and Aaker (1992). To the three original measurement items were added four items that were generated from the focus groups to give a total of seven items to measure perceived quality. The participants were asked to rate their agreement with the semantic items that measured perceived quality using the following scale.

I feel that this product is 6.superior/inferior; 7.excellent/poor; 8.good quality/bad quality; 9. functional/non-functional; 10.reliable/unreliable; 11. a high technology combination/a low technology combination; 12. useful/useless.

### **Purchase Intention**

The four items for the measurement of consumer purchase intention were again generated from the focus group. The participants were asked to rate their agreement with the measurement items using the following scale.

13. I am willing to purchase this brand.

14. I shall recommend my friends to purchase this brand.

15. Even though this brand is more expensive than other brands in the market,

I am still willing to purchase it.

16. Even though this brand is no different from other brands in the market, I

think that it is smarter to purchase this brand than the other alternatives.



Table 4.2: Manipulation Checks (Scale Measures)

<i>Translation</i>	I can see the Chinese name in the advertisement
<i>Hedonism</i>	<p>a. The using of this brand make me feels more superior to the other.</p> <p>b. I feel this is a brand with high practical value.</p> <p>c. I feel this is a high functional product.</p> <p>d. I understand how to control the functions of this product.</p>
<i>Involvement</i>	<p>a. High Involvement products are defined as one which is more important and relevant to consumers, more risk is accrued if the wrong decision is made. They are relatively more expensive and consumers are willing to spend more money, time and energy to evaluate and purchase the products.</p> <p>b. Low involvement products are defined as one which consumers are not willing to spend too much time, energy and effort to evaluate and purchase the products. These products are relatively less expensive, less important and less risk is accrued if the wrong decision is made.</p>

After the participants had completed the questionnaires on brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention, they were asked to answer further questions with respect to the manipulation treatment of translation, hedonism and consumer involvement to ensure that they had been effectively manipulated during the experimental process.

As shown in the questionnaire attached in the Appendix section, one item (Question 17) checked the manipulation of the translation using a seven-point Likert-scale. Four items (Question 18 to 21) base on a seven-point Likert scale were used to check the manipulation of hedonism. The questions were self-developed items taking into account of the perspective with respect to hedonic and utilitarian products. According to the hedonism literature, hedonic products

are described as one which is more emotionally attached (i.e. feeling-oriented) with consumers and that would make consumers feel good about oneself while utilitarian products are described as one which are highly functional (i.e. thinking-oriented) and contains a high practical value. Consumers would find the products highly utilitarian if they are able to manipulate/control the products. Question 18 was developed to investigate whether consumers would agree that the using of the brands would make them feel more superior, which is a dimension to measure hedonism. Questions 19 to 21 were designed to investigate the perceived practicality, functionality and manipulative ability toward the product, which are the three dimensions to measure utilitarianism.

To check the manipulation of involvement, the participants were asked to state the degree to which they would be involved in the purchasing of each of the stimulus products. The definition of involvement was included in Part II of the questionnaire. High-involvement products were defined as those that trigger intense interest and that are relatively more expensive, thereby leading consumers to pay more attention and spend more time and energy in considering the alternatives during the consumption process. Low-involvement products were defined as those that are relatively less important and that are less expensive, thereby leading consumers to spend less time and effort in considering the alternatives during the consumption process. Base on the above definition, A seven-point Likert scale was developed where 1 signified a “low degree of involvement” and 7 a “high degree of involvement.”

As all of the participants were Chinese, the original questions, which were written in English, were translated into Chinese. Some of the questions were modified in such a way as to retain the spirit of the original but render them properly applicable to the Chinese context.

## CHAPTER 5

### FINDINGS AND RESULTS

#### *Manipulation Checks and Findings*

One item (Question 17) checked the translation manipulation using a seven point Likert-scale, and was found to be effective [M(absent) = 6.03, M(present) = 1.45, t-value = 31.01,  $p < 0.01$ ]. Four items (Question 18 to 21) were used to check the hedonism treatment, and was found to be effective [M(low)= 3.31, M(high) = 5.21, t-value = 3.61,  $p < 0.01$ ]. Seven items in Part II of the questionnaires using a seven point Likert scale were adopted to check the consumer involvement level. The resulting score for the computer was 6.61, for the mobile phone was 6.20, for the mp3 player was 5.52, for the film was 2.58, for the tissue was 1.50, for the toothpaste was 2.43, and for the shampoo was 3.06. As the value for the shampoo (3.06) indicates a moderate degree of involvement, it was difficult to assign it an involvement level, and it was thus excluded from the subsequent analysis. This left three products in the low-involvement category (toothpaste, film, and tissue) and three products in the high-involvement category (computer, mobile phone, and mp3 player).

The mean value of the low-involvement set was recalculated as a result of the exclusion of the shampoo product. The mean of the high-involvement set was compared with the mean of the low-involvement set and was found to be significantly different, with M(high-involvement) = 6.11, M(low-involvement) =

2.39,  $t$ -value = 30.02, and  $p < 0.01$  on a seven-point scale. The manipulations of the three treatments were thus deemed to be effective.

### ***Check for Hypotheses Guessing***

Part III of the questionnaire included the opened-ended question “What is this research trying to test?” to find out whether the participants had been able to guess the true purpose of the research. It was found that all of the participants believed that the purpose of the research was to test the acceptance of new imported products from abroad, which was exactly what they were told was the purpose before they participated in the experiment. The purpose of the study was thus successfully disguised, and any errors resulting from the social desirability effect are therefore likely to be minimal.

### ***Reliability of the Dependent Measures***

**Table 5.1 Cronbach’s Alpha Values of the Six Products**

	Brand Attitude	Perceived Quality	Purchase Intention
Mobile Phone	0.725	0.959	0.939
Computer	0.751	0.962	0.971
Mp3 player	0.733	0.954	0.957
Tissue	0.788	0.911	0.955
Toothpaste	0.847	0.934	0.951
Film	0.770	0.945	0.965

As shown in Table 5.1, the Cronbach’s alphas of the multi-item measures of brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention for each product

were higher than 0.7, which is the lowest level of acceptability (Hair et al. 1986), and therefore none of the 16 items to measure the three dependent variables was excluded.

The mean value of the five items for brand attitude was averaged to give an overall score for brand attitude, the mean value of the seven items for perceived quality was used to reflect overall perceived quality, and the mean value of the four items for purchase intention was used to reflect overall purchase intention. The mean value for the low-involvement products (tissue, film, toothpaste) was further averaged to derive an overall mean for low-involvement products, and the same was carried out for the high-involvement products (computer, mobile phone, and mp3 player).

### ***Preliminary Analysis to check The ANOVA Assumptions***

**Table 5.2 Inter-Construct Correlations**

	Brand Attitude	Perceived Quality	Purchase Intention
<i>Brand Attitude</i>	1	.759**	.684**
<i>Perceived Quality</i>	.759**	1	.818**
<i>Purchase Intention</i>	.684**	.818**	1

\* correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed).

\*\* correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed).

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is recommended to be used when there is more than one dependent variable. These dependent variables should be related in some way or there should be some conceptual

reason for considering them together. However, on the other hand, MANOVA works best only when the dependent variables are moderately correlated (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, Black 1998). If the dependent variables are highly correlated resulting in multicollinearity, i.e. when the correlations are around .8 or .9 (Pallant 2001); and that would indicate the degree to which a variable's effect can be predicted or accounted for by the other variables in the analysis. As multicollinearity increases, the ability to define any variable's effect is diminished; and that would engender redundant dependent measures and decrease statistical efficiency. As shown in Table 5.2, the correlations among the three dependent variables, including brand attitude; perceived quality; and purchase intention are around .8, which indicate multicollinearity. Accordingly, MANOVA, though powerful, is not conducted in the present research. Moreover, as the three dependent measures (brand attitude, perceived quality and purchase intention) adopted in the present research are independent, unique, useful and powerful constructs by itself to explain consumers' perceptions and behavior; a separate univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) for each of the dependent variable is therefore conducted in the present research.

A three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the interaction effects between translation, hedonism, and involvement on the impact of brand associations, but preliminary analyses were first performed to examine whether the underlying criteria or assumptions for the performance of an ANOVA had been met. These assumptions included the following:

1. The using of dichotomous variables to measure the independent variables and a continuous scale to measure the dependent variable.
2. A sample that was randomly taken from the population and is regarded as being normally distributed with a sample size of greater than 30 (Gravetter and Wallnau 2000, p. 302; Stevens 1996, p. 242).
3. Independence of the observations of the participants.
4. Use of the Levene test to examine the equality of variance in each cell.

In terms of the last assumption, the value of  $p > .05$  was found to be significant for perceived quality and purchase intention, but not for brand attitude. Fortunately, ANOVA is very robust, and the violation of this assumption has a minimal impact if the groups are of approximately equal size, that is, if the largest group size divided by the smallest group size is less than 1.5 (Hair; Anderson; Tatham; Black (1998, p. 348). In this research the largest group size is 70 and the smallest is 47, and as  $70/47 = 1.48$ , it is deemed that the group sizes are similar.

One of the most significant and revolutionary developments in modern research design and statistics is the planning and analysis of the simultaneous operation and interaction of two or more variables. Many researchers believe that the most effective research method is to vary one independent variable while controlling as far as is possible other independent variables that might contribute to the variance of the dependent variable. According to Kerlinger (1986), analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a very power statistical analytical method and



is the most used of all experimental research. The virtue of ANOVA lies in the fact that it enables researchers to achieve several powerful accomplishments at the same time. First, it allows researchers to manipulate and control two or more variables simultaneously. Second, and perhaps most importantly from a scientific viewpoint, it enables researchers to hypothesize interactions, because the interactive effects can be directly tested. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), moderator variables are typically introduced when there is an inconsistent relation between a predictor and criterion variables. Conceptually, a pure moderator is defined as a variable that interacts with predictor variables and has a negligible correlation with the criterion variable. However, the existence of such moderators is difficult to justify without strong theoretical support. According to Sharma, Durand and Gur-Arie (1981), a moderator can be defined as a quasi-moderator when it possesses the properties of a pure moderator with some additional properties, for instance if it is also a predictor and has a relationship with the criterion variable. However, in the psychometric literature, this definition of a quasi-moderator has a limited ability to obviate ambiguity about which of the predictor variables is the moderator. Nevertheless, a variable can still be justified as being a moderator if there is sufficient theoretical background to support its being so. In short, a moderator can be considered to be a quasi-moderator if it satisfies the following properties. The first is that the presence of the variable influences the strength or form of the relationship between the predictor and the criterion variables. The second is that there is an

interaction effect between the moderator and the predictor. The third is that the moderator is also a predictor variable itself, and the fourth is that the moderator has a relationship with the criterion variable.

## Results and Discussions

**Table 5.3 Means (Standard Deviations) of Brand Attitude, Perceived Quality, and Purchase Intention by Translation, Hedonism and Involvement**

Translation Hedonism Involvement	Translation (absent)				Translation (present)			
	Hedonism		Utilitarianism		Hedonism		Utilitarianism	
	High (N=70)	Low (N=70)	High (N=54)	Low (N=54)	High (N=65)	Low (N=65)	High (N=47)	Low (N=47)
Brand attitude	4.67(1.07)	4.08(1.13)	2.77(.88)	2.27(1.12)	3.01(.95)	2.84(1.19)	3.65(.96)	3.47(1.11)
Perceived quality	5.94(.79)	5.31(.84)	3.70(1.07)	3.20(1.04)	3.55(1.12)	3.66(1.19)	5.20(.99)	4.91(1.00)
Purchase intention	5.50(1.09)	5.14(.96)	3.33(.85)	3.17(.88)	2.81(1.05)	3.17(1.11)	4.19(1.06)	4.25(.95)

**Table 5.4 F-value and Significance of the Main and Interactive Effects**

Dependent variable	Brand Attitude		Perceived quality		Purchase intention	
	F-value	Sig.	F-value	Sig.	F-value	Sig.
<b>Main effects:</b>						
Translation	4.286	0.039*	4.806	0.029*	50.925	0.000**
Hedonism	38.275	0.000**	14.821	0.000**	18.867	0.000**
Involvement	13.088	0.000**	12.011	0.001**	0.009	0.924
<b>Two-way interaction effects:</b>						
Translation * Hedonism	158.397	0.000**	371.770	0.000**	305.906	0.000**
Translation * Involvement	3.667	0.056	6.260	0.013*	5.715	0.017*
Hedonism * Involvement	0.030	0.862	0.541	0.462	0.151	0.698
<b>Three-way interaction effects:</b>						
Translation * Hedonism * Involvement	0.047	0.828	2.095	0.148	1.499	0.222

\*p < .05.

\*\*p < .001.

### ***Main effects of Translation, Hedonism, and Translations***

As shown in Table 5.4, the ANOVA revealed brand name translation to have a main effect on brand attitude (F-value = 4.286 and  $p < 0.05$ ), perceived quality (F-value = 4.806 and  $p < 0.05$ ), and purchase intention (F-value = 50.925 and  $p < 0.01$ ), which indicates that on average brand associations are evaluated more favorably when no translated Chinese brand name appears on the product than when such a translation is present. Therefore H1a, 1b, and 1c are supported.

The ANOVA also revealed hedonism to have a main effect on brand attitude (F-value = 38.275 and  $p < 0.01$ ); perceived quality (F-value = 14.821 and  $p < 0.01$ ), and purchase intention (F-value = 18.867 and  $p < 0.01$ ), which indicates that on average hedonic products are evaluated more favorably than utilitarian products.

Finally, the ANOVA also revealed involvement to have a main effect on brand attitude (F-value = 13.088 and  $p < 0.01$ ) and perceived quality (F-value = 12.011 and  $p < 0.01$ ). However, the main effect of involvement on purchase intention was found to be insignificant (F-value = 0.009 and  $p > 0.05$ ). These results indicate that, on average, high-involvement products are evaluated more favorably than low-involvement products with respect to brand attitude (i.e. overall evaluation) and perceived quality, but when it comes to the moment when consumers are thinking of purchasing the products, involvement does not influence purchase intention.

## ***Two-way interactive effects of Translation and Hedonism***

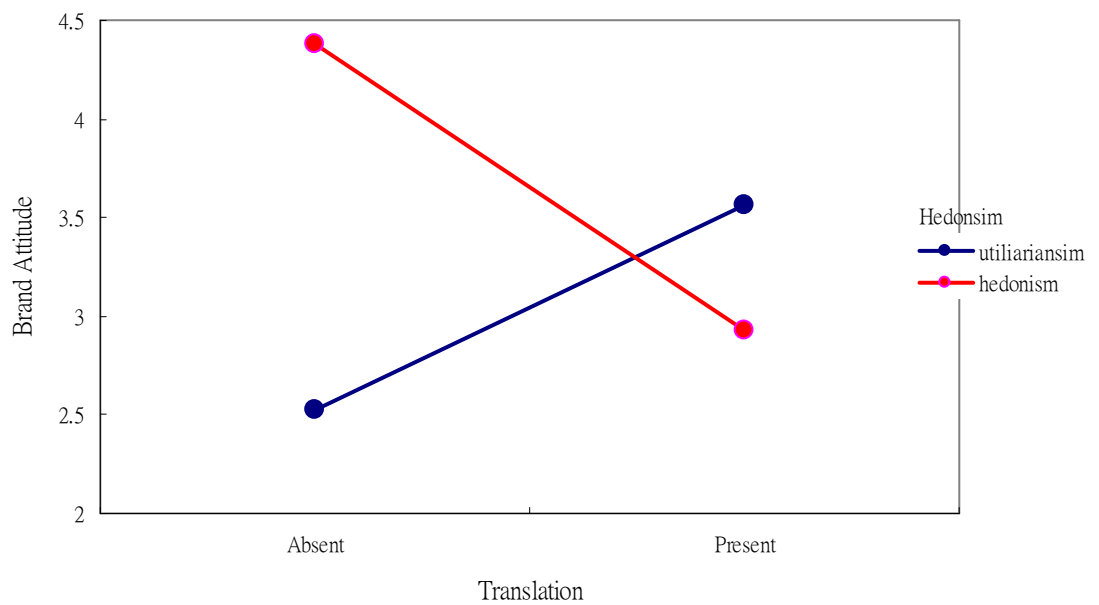
### **Brand Attitude**

As shown in Table 5.4, the ANOVA revealed a significant two-way interaction effect between brand name translation and hedonism on brand attitude (F-value = 158.397 and  $p < .0001$ ). Figure (5.1a) shows the interaction effect to reveal that brand attitude toward hedonic products was evaluated more favorably when no translated Chinese brand name appeared on the product than when a translated brand name did appear (M (absent) = 4.375 vs. M (present) = 2.926), F-value = 158.397, and  $p < .0001$ ), whereas the brand attitude toward utilitarian products was evaluated more favorably when a translated Chinese brand name appeared on the product than when it did not (M (present) = 3.559 vs. M (absent) 2.520, F-value = 158.397, and  $p < .0001$ ). Therefore H2a is supported.

**Table 5.5a Mean values of Brand attitude by Translation and Hedonism**

Translation	Hedonism	Mean	95% Confidence level	
			Lower bound	Upper bound
Absent	Utilitarianism	2.520	2.319	2.720
	Hedonism	4.375	4.199	4.552
Present	Utilitarianism	3.559	3.344	3.774
	Hedonism	2.926	2.744	3.109

**Figure 5.1a**  
**Interaction Effect of Translation and Hedonism on Brand Attitude**



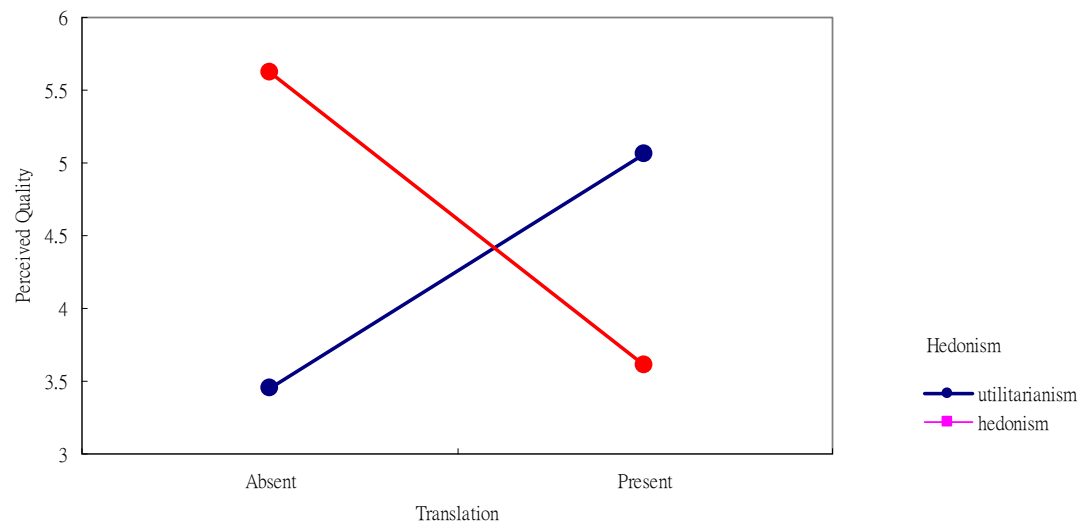
### **Perceived Quality**

The ANOVA also revealed a significant two-way interaction between brand name translation and hedonism on perceived quality (F-value = 371.770 and  $p < .0001$ ). As Figure (5.1b) shows, the interaction effect revealed that the perceived quality of hedonic products was evaluated more favorably when no translated Chinese brand name appeared on the product than when a translated brand name did appear there is (M (absent) = 5.626 vs. M (present) = 3.605), F-value = 371.770, and  $p < .0001$ ), whereas the perceived quality of utilitarian products was evaluated more favorably when a translated Chinese brand name appeared on the product than then it did not (M (present) = 5.058 vs. M (absent) = 3.449, F-value = 371.770,  $p < .0001$ ). Therefore H2b is supported.

**Table 5.5b Mean values of Perceived Quality by Hedonism and Translation**

Translation	Hedonism	Mean	95% Confidence level	
			Lower bound	Upper bound
Absent	Utilitarianism	3.449	3.259	3.640
	Hedonism	5.626	5.458	5.794
Present	Utilitarianism	5.058	4.853	5.262
	Hedonism	3.605	3.431	3.779

**Figure 5.1b**  
Interaction Effect of Translation and Hedonism on Perceived Quality





### **Purchase Intention**

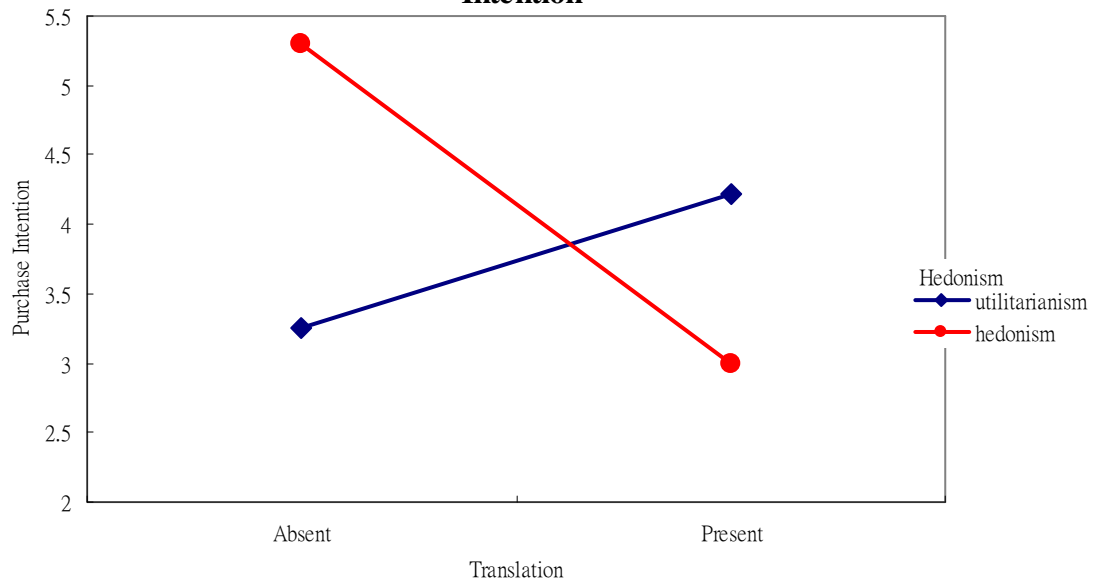
Finally, the ANOVA also revealed a significant two-way interaction between brand name translation and hedonism on purchase intention (F-value = 305.906 and  $p < .0001$ ). Figure (5.1c) shows the interaction effect to reveal that the intention to purchase hedonic products was evaluated more favorably when no translated Chinese brand name appeared on the product than when a translated name did appear (M (absent) = 5.293 vs. M (present) = 2.990, F-value = 305.906,  $p < .0001$ ), whereas the intention to purchase utilitarian products was evaluated more favorably when a translated Chinese brand name did appear on the product than when it did not appear (M (present) = 4.220 vs. M (absent) = 3.252), F-value = 305.906,  $p < .0001$ ). Therefore H2c is supported.

As the interaction between brand name translation and hedonism was found to have a significant effect on brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention, hypotheses H2a, 2b, and 2c are supported.

**Table 5.5c Mean values of Purchase Intention by Hedonism and Translation**

Translation	Hedonism	Mean	95% Confidence level	
			Lower bound	Upper bound
Absent	Utilitarianism	3.252	3.062	3.441
	Hedonism	5.293	5.127	5.460
Present	Utilitarianism	4.220	4.016	4.423
	Hedonism	2.990	2.817	3.163

**Figure 5.1c  
Interaction Effect of Translation and Hedonism for Purchase Intention**



## *Two-way interactive effects of Translation and Involvement*

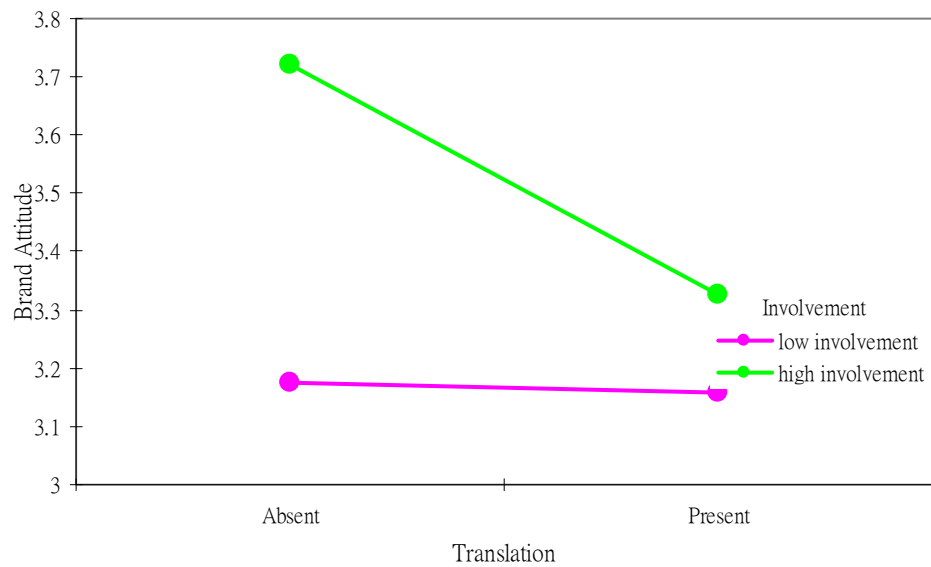
### **Brand Attitude**

As Table 5.4 shows, the ANOVA revealed an insignificant interaction effect between brand name translation and involvement on brand attitude (F-value = 3.667 and  $p > .05$ ). Figure (5.2a) shows that the insignificant interaction effect revealed that the degree of consumer involvement had an indifferent influence on the relationship between the translation status of a product's brand name and brand attitude. Therefore H3a is not supported.

**Table 5.6a Mean values of brand name Translation and Involvement on Brand Attitude**

Translation	Involvement	Mean	95% Confidence level	
			Lower bound	Upper bound
Absent	Low involvement	3.174	2.985	3.363
	High involvement	3.721	3.532	3.910
Present	Low involvement	3.159	2.959	3.358
	High involvement	3.327	3.127	3.527

**Figure 5.2a  
Interaction Effect of Translation and Involvement on Brand Attitude**



## Perceived Quality

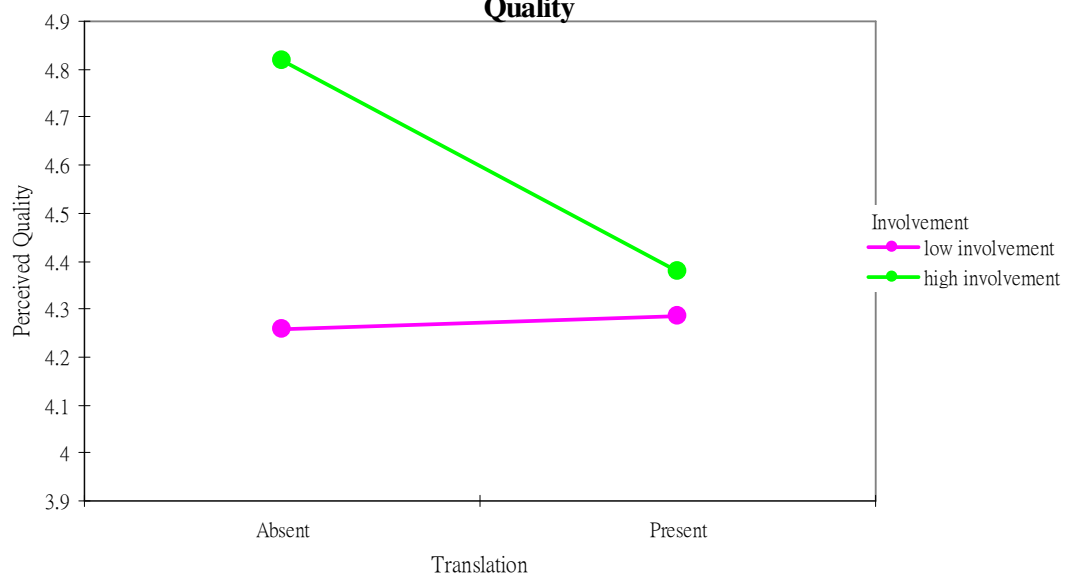
The ANOVA revealed a significant two-way interaction between translation and involvement on perceived quality (F-value = 6.260 and  $p < .005$ ). As shown in Figure (5.2b), the perceived quality of high-involvement products was evaluated more favorably when no translated Chinese brand name appeared on the product than when such a brand name did appear ( $M$  (absent) = 4.819 vs.  $M$  (present) = 4.377, F-value = 6.260,  $p < .05$ ). This result is significant at  $p < 0.05$  level, as the lower bound value of the 95% confidence level when brand name translation is absent (4.639) is larger than the upper bound when brand name translation is present (4.567). However, for low-involvement products, although the interaction effect of translation by involvement is significant, it is not quite as expected. As shown in Figure (5.2b), the perceived quality of low-involvement products was higher when translation was present (4.286) than when translation was absent (4.257), but the result is not significant, as the lower bound value of the 95% confidence interval when translation is present (4.096) is smaller than the upper bound value when translation is absent (4.437). This indicates first that the perceived quality of low-involvement products was not evaluated more favorably when such products were associated with a translated Chinese brand name than when no such association was present, and therefore H3b is only partially supported. Second, the locus of significant interaction was more pronounced for high-involvement products than for low-involvement products, with Figure (5.2b) demonstrating that the mean values of perceived

quality for high-involvement products decreased more significantly when a translated Chinese brand name was featured ( $M(\text{absent}) = 4.819$  vs.  $M(\text{present}) = 4.377$ ,  $F\text{-value} = 6.260$ ,  $p < .05$ ), whereas the mean values of perceived quality for low-involvement products increased only very slightly when a translated Chinese brand name was featured ( $M(\text{present}) = 4.286$  vs.  $M(\text{absent}) = 4.257$ ,  $F\text{-value} = 6.260$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Another interpretation is that although the interaction effect of translation and involvement is significant, it appears that high-involvement products have a much stronger moderating impact on the strength of the relationship between translation and perceived quality than low-involvement products.

**Table 5.6b Mean values of Translation and Involvement on Perceived Quality**

Translation	Involvement	Mean	95% Confidence level	
			Lower bound	Upper bound
Absent	Low involvement	4.257	4.077	4.437
	High involvement	4.819	4.639	4.998
Present	Low involvement	4.286	4.096	4.476
	High involvement	4.377	4.187	4.567

**Figure 5.2b  
Interaction Effect of Translation and Involvement on Perceived Quality**



### **Purchase Intention**

The ANOVA found a significant two-way interaction between translation and involvement on purchase intention (F-value = 5.715 and  $p < .05$ ). Figure (5.2c) shows that the participants demonstrated a higher intention to purchase high-involvement products when no translated Chinese brand name appeared on the products than when such a brand name did appear (M (absent) = 4.389 vs. M (present) = 3.498, F-value = 5.715,  $p < .05$ ). This result is significant at  $p < 0.05$ , as the lower bound value of the 95% confidence level when translation is absent (4.210) is larger than the upper bound when translation is present (3.687). Similarly, although different from initial expectations, the same case applies to low-involvement products, in that the participants demonstrated a higher intention to purchase low-involvement products when no translated Chinese brand name appeared on low-involvement products than when a translated brand name did appear (M (absent) = 4.156 vs. M (present) = 3.712, F-value = 5.715,  $p < .05$ ). This result is significant at  $p < 0.05$ , as the lower bound value of the 95% confidence level when translation is absent (3.978) is larger than the upper bound when translation is present (3.901). Figure (5.2c) shows that the interaction effect revealed that the mean values of purchase intention for both high-involvement and low-involvement products were higher when a translated Chinese brand name was absent. Therefore H3c is only partially supported. It is also of note that when a translated Chinese brand name was featured on high-involvement products, the mean values of purchase intention decreased more



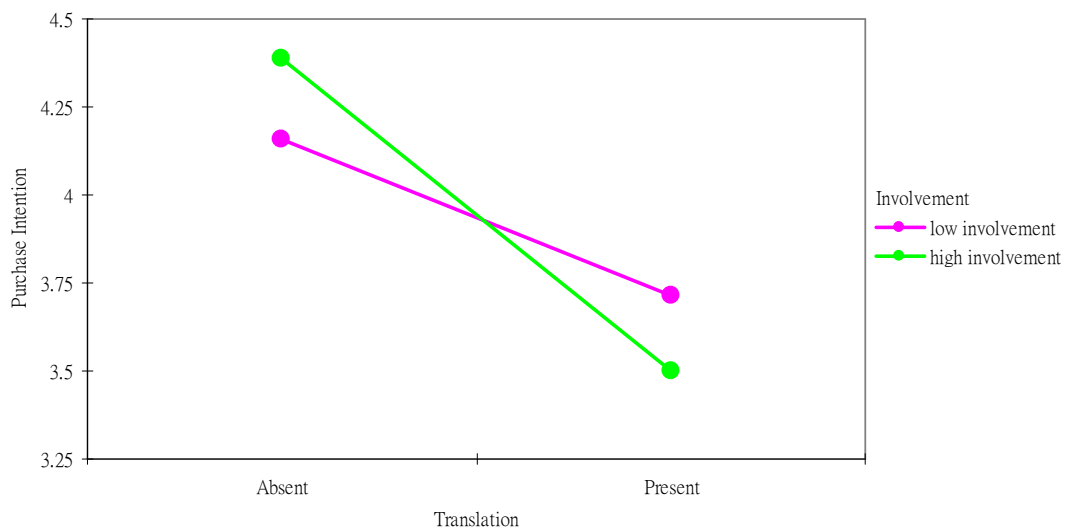
significantly ( $M$  (absent) = 4.389 vs.  $M$  (present) = 3.712,  $F$ -value = 5.715,  $p$  < .05), whereas with the low-involvement products the mean values decreased less significantly when a translated Chinese brand name was present ( $M$  (absent) = 4.156 vs.  $M$  (present) = 3.712,  $F$ -value = 5.715,  $p$  < .05). Thus, although consumers are likely to demonstrate a stronger intention to purchase products with no translated Chinese brand name regardless of whether they are perceived to be high-involvement or low-involvement products, they may show a much stronger unwillingness to purchase high-involvement products with a brand name translation than low-involvement products with a brand name translation. Another interpretation is that high-involvement products appear to have a much stronger moderating impact that reduces the strength of the relationship between brand name translation and purchase intention than low-involvement products.

**Table 5.6c Mean values of Purchase Intention by Translation and**

**Involvement**

Translation	Involvement	Mean	95% Confidence level	
			Lower bound	Upper bound
Absent	Low involvement	4.156	3.978	4.335
	High involvement	4.389	4.210	4.567
Present	Low involvement	3.712	3.524	3.901
	High involvement	3.498	3.309	3.687

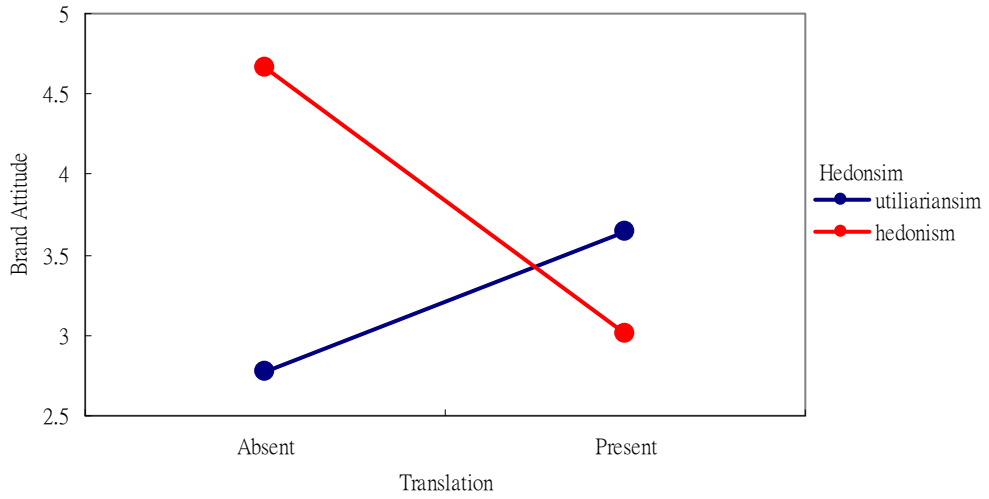
**Figure 5.2c  
Interaction Effect of Translation and Involvement on Purchase Intention**



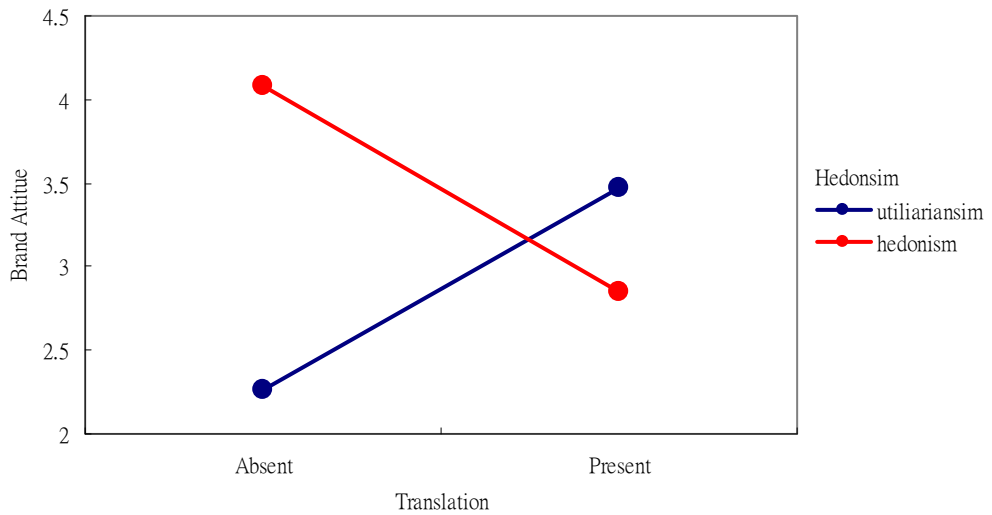
### ***Three-Way Interactive Effects***

As shown in Table 5.4, the three-way interactive relationship between involvement, hedonism, and translation had no significant effect on brand attitude (F-value = 0.047 and  $p > 0.05$ ), perceived quality (F-value = 2.095 and  $p > 0.05$ ), or purchase intention (F-value = 1.499,  $p > 0.05$ ). As the interaction is insignificant for all three dimensions of brand associations, the three-way plots may not provide any more findings to interpret. For instance, in terms of brand attitude, the three-way plots of hedonism by translation by involvement for both high-involvement (Figure 5.3a) and low-involvement (Figure 5.3b) products indicates the same pattern of lines as in the two-way plots of hedonism by translation that are shown in Figure 5.1a.

**Figure 5.3a**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Hedonism and Involvement**  
**on Brand Attitude**  
**For High Involvement Products**

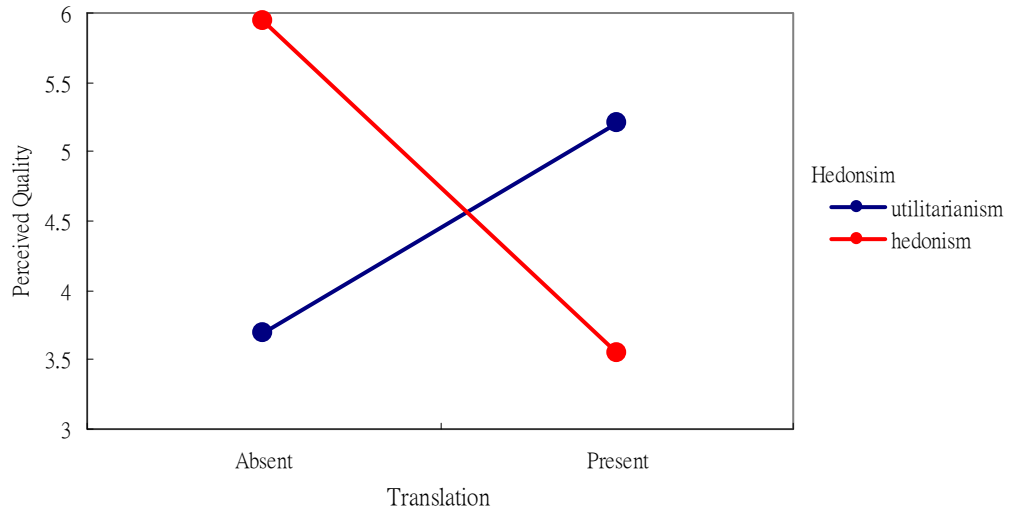


**Figure 5.3b**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Hedonism and Involvement**  
**on Brand Attitude**  
**For Low Involvement Products**

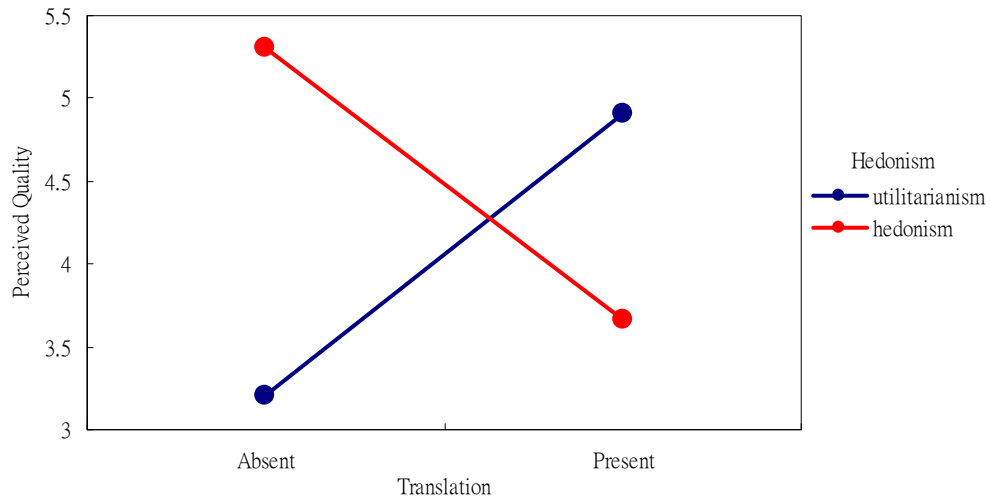


A similar pattern of lines is found in the plot of the three-way interaction effect for perceived quality (Figures 5.4a and 5.4b) as is shown in the plot of the two-way interaction effect in Figure 5.1b. Furthermore, the graphical representations of the three-way interaction effect for purchase intention (Figures 5.5a and 5.5b) appear to be the same as those of the two-way interaction effect that is shown in Figure 5.1c. The similarity of the patterns of the two-way and three-way interaction effects may be due to the fact that the moderating impact of hedonism is so significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ) that it outweighs the moderating effect of involvement on the main effect of translation and all three dimensions of brand associations.

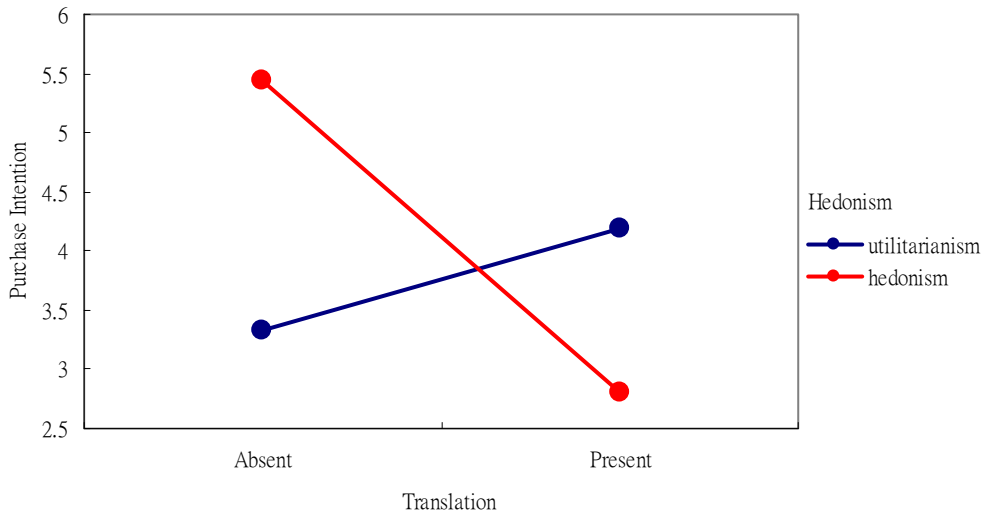
**Figure 5.4a**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Hedonism and Involvement**  
**on Perceived Quality**  
**For High Involvement Products**



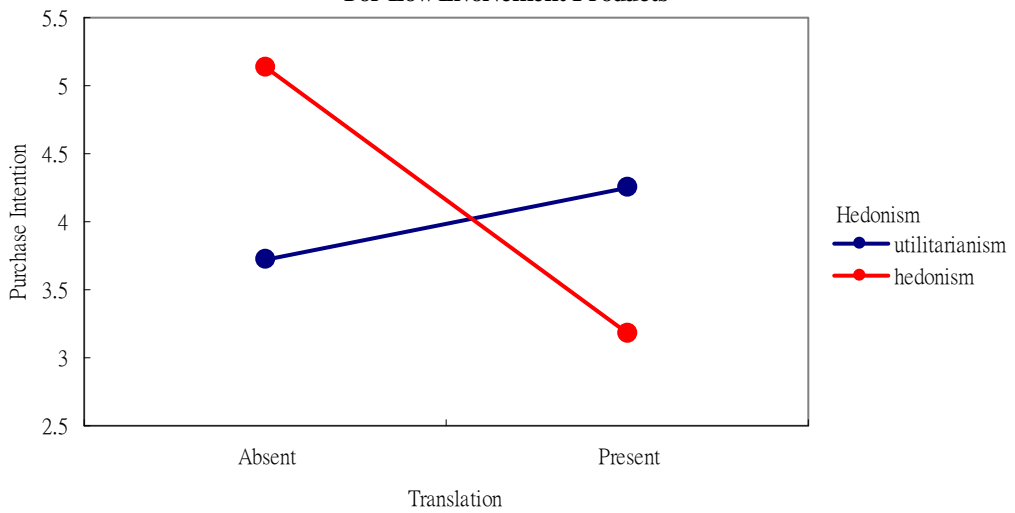
**Figure 5.4b**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Hedonism and Involvement**  
**on Perceived Quality**  
**For Low Involvement Products**



**Figure 5.5a**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Hedonism and Involvement**  
**on Purchase Intention**  
**For High Involvement Products**



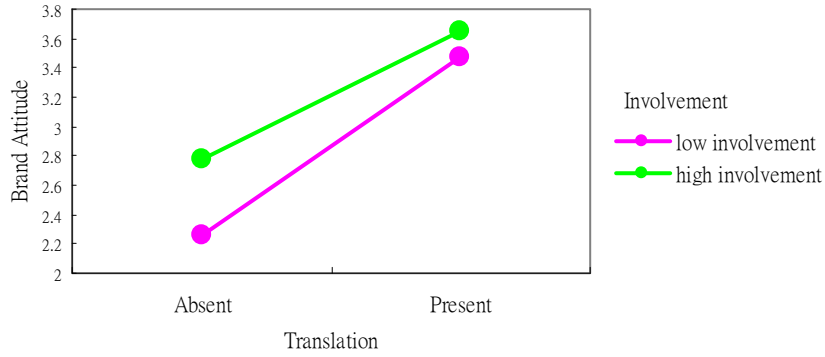
**Figure 5.5b**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Hedonism and Involvement**  
**on Purchase Intention**  
**For Low Involvement Products**



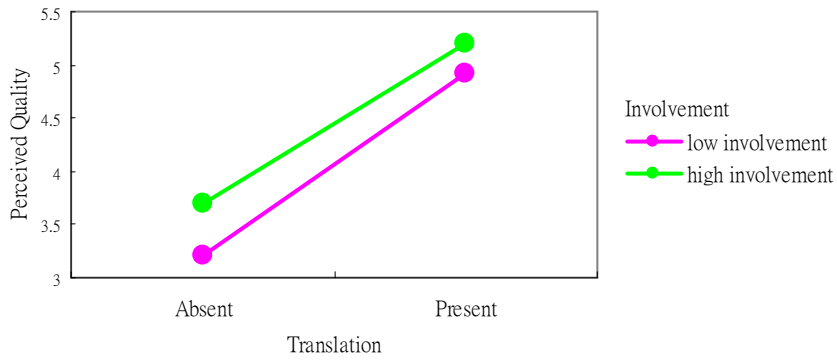
The three-way plots of involvement by translation by hedonism for utilitarian and hedonic products also have interesting patterns. In terms of utilitarian products, the brand attitude (Figure 5.6a), perceived quality (Figure 5.7a), and purchase intention (Figure 5.8a) for both high- and low-involvement products are significantly higher when translation is present and vice versa. In contrast, in terms of hedonic products, the brand attitude (Figure 5.6b), perceived quality (Figure 5.7b), and purchase intention (Figure 5.8b) for both high- and low-involvement products are significantly higher when translation is absent and vice versa. Again this may be due to the fact that the moderating effect of hedonism is very significant and outweighs the moderating effect of involvement on the main effect of translation and the three dimensions of brand associations. Therefore, regardless of whether the product is a high- or low-involvement products, the perceived brand associations are consistently higher for utilitarian products when a translated brand name is present than when it is absent, whereas the opposite is the case for hedonic products.



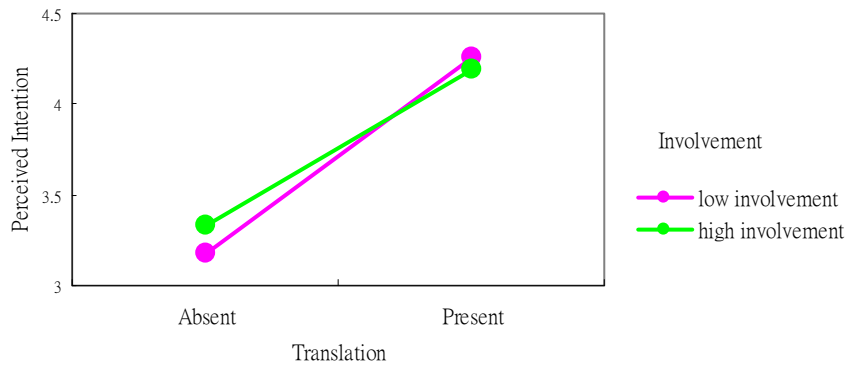
**Figure 5.6a**  
**3-way Interaction Effect of Translation and Involvement and Hedonism on Brand Attitude For Utilitarian Products**



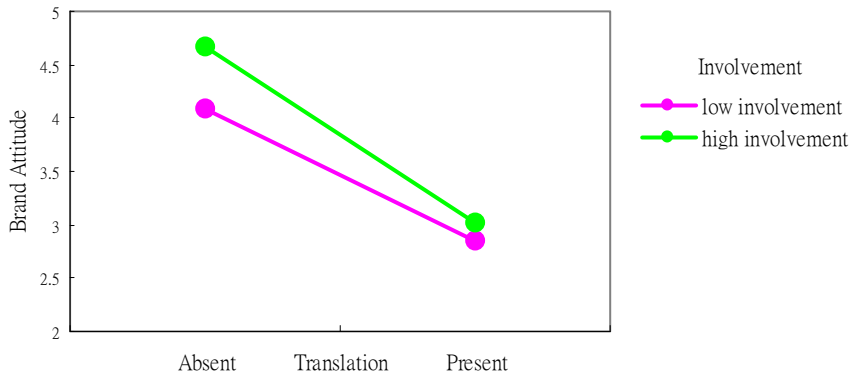
**Figure 5.7a**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect Translation and Involvement and Hedonism on Perceived Quality For Utilitarian products**



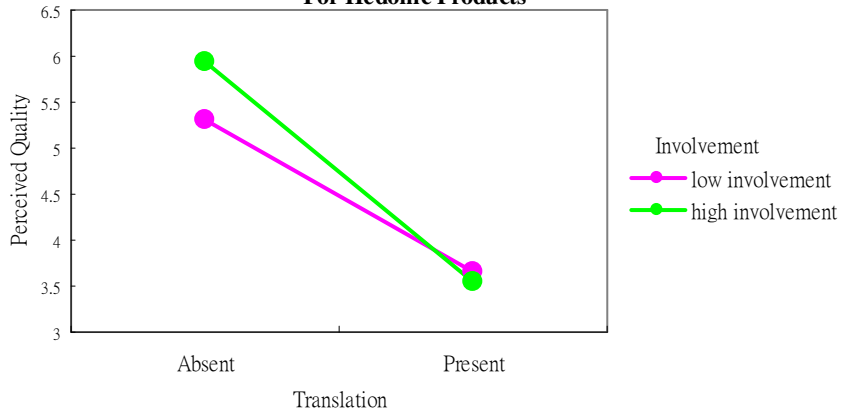
**Figure 5.8a**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Involvement and Hedonism on Purchase Intention For Utilitarian Products**



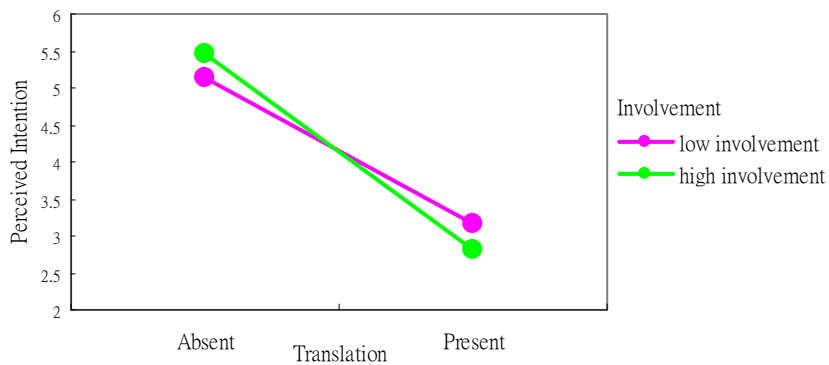
**Figure 5.6b**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Involvement and Hedonism on Brand Attitude For Hedonic Products**



**Figure 5.7b**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Involvement and Hedonism on Perceived Quality For Hedonic Products**



**Figure 5.8b**  
**3-Way Interaction Effect of Translation and Involvement and Hedonism on Purchase Intention For Hedonic Products**



## *Summary of Findings*

The findings of the research support most of the hypotheses that were formulated. The main effect of translation and the main effect of hedonism are found to have significant influences on brand associations, with brand name translation, for example, having a positive impact on brand associations among the participants. On average, the participants demonstrated more favorable brand associations toward products that did not display a translated Chinese brand name. The degree of hedonism of a product was also found to have a very strong impact ( $p < 0.0001$ ) on brand associations, with the participants displaying more favorable brand associations toward hedonic products than utilitarian products. This can be attributed to the fact that as Chinese consumers are becoming richer; they generally like to spend money on purchasing pleasurable and entertaining products that offer them fun, excitement, comfort, and pride. Moreover, as most Chinese consumers still believe that foreign products are superior to local products, they are likely to display more favorable feelings toward products that are not associated with Chinese cues, which generally imply products of a pure foreign origin.

Second, degree of hedonism is found to be a very powerful moderator of the effect of translation on brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention in the expected direction. When a product was perceived to be a hedonic product, the participants would make more

favorable associations about the products if it did not display a translated Chinese brand name. It is therefore argued that as consumers are more emotionally attached to hedonic products and therefore evaluate them in an affective way rather than a logical way, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name implies a lower perceived COO image, which tempers the foreign image of the product and therefore distorts or dilutes its superior image. It is therefore expected that the presence of a translated Chinese name will lower the overall associations that consumers hold about the product, such as overall brand attitude and perceived quality, with the consequence that consumers will be less motivated to make a purchase.

Conversely, when a product was perceived to be a utilitarian product, the participants expressed more favorable associations toward it if it displayed a translated Chinese brand name. It is therefore argued that as consumers focus more on the practical and functional aspects of utilitarian products, rather than using emotional or affective feelings to evaluate them, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name enhances their sense of familiarity with the product, which contributes to a higher level of trust between consumer and product. It is therefore expected that consumers will display a more positive overall attitude and a higher judgment of perceived quality, and will therefore be more motivated to purchase utilitarian products that carry a translated Chinese name.

Third, the findings indicate that involvement is not a moderator of

the relationship between translation and brand attitude, but is a powerful moderator of the relationship between translation, perceived quality, and purchase intention. Although the interaction between translation and perceived quality is significant, it differs from initial expectations, in that the interaction effect is more pronounced for high-involvement products than for low-involvement products. As shown in Figure (5.2b), when consumer involvement is low, the presence or absence of a Chinese brand name has little influence on perceived quality. However, when consumer involvement is high, perceived quality is relatively higher when there is no Chinese brand name associated with the product. This implies that the perceived quality of high-involvement products is much higher when there is no Chinese brand name associated with the product, and decreases significantly when there is a Chinese brand name associated with the product. Another interpretation is that for high-involvement products, the presence or absence of a brand name is of crucial concern to consumers, who will rate the quality of a product very high if they do not see a translated Chinese brand name but very poorly if they do see such a brand name.

Fourth, involvement is found to be a moderator of the relationship between translation and purchase intention. As expected, when consumer involvement is high, the purchase intention is significantly higher when no translated Chinese brand name is associated with the product. Similarly,

and in contrast to expectations, when consumer involvement is low, the purchase intention is higher when a translated brand name is absent than when translation it is present. Looking at it another way, the purchase intention is higher for both high- and low-involvement products (regardless of the consumer involvement level) if there is no Chinese brand name displayed on the product, and is significantly lower if the product does carry a translated Chinese brand name.

### ***Practical Significance of the Statistical Tests***

Although null hypothesis significance testing is extensively used in many research fields, it is often criticized for its limited ability to report the strength or magnitude of variables and for its lack of practical significance (Carver 1978; Cohen 1988, 1990, 1992; Falk and Greenbaum 1995; Guttman 1985; Kirk 1996; Mazen et al. 1987; Rosnow and Rosenthal 1989; Sawyer and Ball 1981; Wilkinson 1999). As an alternative, researchers are encouraged to pay more attention to the statistical power and the effect size associated with variables. The effect size represents the magnitude of a phenomenon in a population. If all else is constant, then the larger the effect size, the greater the degree to which a phenomenon will manifest itself and the greater the probability that it will be detected and the null hypotheses rejected (Mazen et al. 1987). The effect size can also detect the strength and magnitude of the association between variables, and can thus describe the amount of variance in the dependent variable that is

predictable from knowledge of the levels of the independent variable (Cohen 1977, Tabachnick & Fidell 1996, p. 53). There are a number of different effect size statistics, but the most commonly used is the Eta squared (ES) index. Eta squared can range from 0 to 1, and represents the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the independent variable. According to Cohen's (1977) criteria for the behavioral sciences, there are three conventional levels, which represent small, medium and large values that are at least approximately consistent across different ES indexes. The small ES is noticeably smaller than the medium but not so small as to be trivial, the medium ES represents an effect likely to be visible to the careful observer, and a large ES is the same distance above the medium as the small level is below it. Indices of the proportions of explained variance depend on the kind of statistical test used (Sawyer and Ball 1981), and each statistical test has its own ES index. According to Cohen (1977), the effect size for an analysis of variance of group means can be expressed by using " $f$ " as the standardized difference. Cohen suggests values of " $f$ " equal to .10, .25, and .40 for the small, medium, and large effect sizes, which correspond to proportions of explained variance of 1% (small), 5.9% (moderate), and 13.8% (large), respectively.

**Table 6.1**

**Effect size of Brand Name, Hedonism, and Involvement on Brand Associations**

Independent Variable	Effect size ( $\eta^2$ )		
	Brand Attitude	Perceived Quality	Purchase Intention
Treatment Condition			
Brand name	.01	.01	.10
Translation moderated by Hedonism	.30	.50	.40
Translation moderated by Involvement	.01	.01	.01

Note: NA = not applicable.

DMB 1991 denotes findings from Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991).

TA 1000 denotes findings from Teas and Agarwal (2000).



Table 6.1 illustrates the effect size of the treatment variables of brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention.

Using criteria suggested by Cohen (1977), the current results indicate the effect size of brand name translation on both the brand attitude and the perceived quality ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ) to be small, whereas the effect size of brand name translation on purchase intention ( $\eta^2 = .10$ ) is moderate.

The effect size of the brand name and hedonism treatment on brand attitude ( $\eta^2 = .3$ ), perceived quality ( $\eta^2 = .5$ ), and purchase intention ( $\eta^2 = .4$ ) is large.

The effect size of the brand name and involvement treatment on brand attitude ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), perceived quality ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ), and purchase intention ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ) is small.

## CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

### *Discussion*

Whenever international marketers expand into a foreign country, one of the critical decisions that they must make is whether to standardize or customize the elements of their brand. Among these branding elements, a product's brand name is perceived to be one of the most explicit peripheral cues that captures the immediate attention of consumers and influences their perception and evaluation of the product (Hoyer and Brown 1990; Keller 1993; Olson and Thjomoe 2003; Lin and Chang 2003). According to the country of origin literature, brand names are frequently used to elicit the origin associations and are demonstrated to be very powerful source of brand appeal to influence consumers' perceptions. (Agrawal and Kamakura 1999). Because of the diverse difference of culture, linguistic system, and economic development between the West and Asia, consumers in different nations may come up with different associations related with the product's brand name.

This research is one of the first of its kind to explore how Chinese consumers perceive country of origin through the products' brand name; and have contributed to the branding literature by demonstrating how product-related variables such as consumer involvement and product hedonism are important drivers of brand associations and therefore generate a higher level of brand equity. Nine hypotheses are proposed to examine

this topic. As shown in Table 6.2, the hypotheses that relate to the main effect between brand name translation and brand associations are supported, and the presence of an interaction effect between translation and hedonism is also confirmed, and therefore H1a, 1b, and 1c and H2a, 2b, and 2c are all supported. The interaction effect between brand name translation and involvement is mainly verified, which supports H3b and H3c, but the interaction effect between brand name translation and involvement on brand attitude is not confirmed, and thus H3a is not supported.

**Table 6.2 Hypotheses Table**

Hypothesis		Results
H1a	<i>A translated Chinese brand name has a negative impact on <b>brand attitude</b>.</i>	<i>Supported</i>
H1b	<i>A translated Chinese brand name has a negative impact on <b>perceived quality</b></i>	<i>Supported</i>
H1c	<i>A translated Chinese brand name has a negative impact on <b>purchase intention</b>.</i>	<i>Supported</i>
H2a	The degree of hedonism of a product moderates the relationship between translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower <b>brand attitude</b> toward products that have a high hedonic value and vice versa.	<i>Supported</i>
H2b	The degree of hedonism of a product moderates the relationship between translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower <b>perceived quality</b> toward products that have a high hedonic value and vice versa.	<i>Supported</i>
H2c	The degree of hedonism of a product moderates the relationship between translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower <b>purchase intention</b> toward products that have a high hedonic value and vice versa.	<i>Supported</i>
H3a	Consumer involvement moderates the relationship between translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower <b>brand attitude</b> toward products that are characterized by a higher level of consumer involvement and vice versa.	<i>Not supported</i>
H3b	Consumer involvement moderates the relationship between translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower <b>perceived quality</b> toward products that are characterized by a higher level of consumer involvement and vice versa.	<i>Partially supported</i>
H3c	Consumer involvement moderates the relationship between translation and brand associations. Specifically, the presence of a translated Chinese brand name will lead to a lower <b>purchase intention</b> toward products that are characterized by a higher level of consumer involvement and vice versa.	<i>Partially supported</i>

### **Main Effect of Brand Name on Brand Associations**

As expected in the hypotheses, the presence or absence of a translated Chinese brand name brings about different levels of brand association, with Chinese consumers on average demonstrating more positive feelings toward products that do not carry a translated Chinese brand name cue. This can be attributed to the fact that Chinese consumers generally rate foreign products as superior to local products, and are consistent with the theory in the COO literature that consumers tend to express more favorable feelings toward products from developed economics than those from less developed economics (Bilkey and Nes 1982; Cordell 1992; Wang & Lamb 1983; Roth & Romeo 1992). The results are also supported by COO studies on Chinese consumers conducted in other areas of the world. For instance, Chinese consumers in Taiwan rely heavily on COO information to make product evaluations and give the highest ranking to products made from developed countries, such as Japan, the U.S., and Italy, and the lowest ranking to products made domestically (Lin & Sternquist 1994). Chinese consumers in Hong Kong rely on COO to form purchase intention toward high-involvement products, such as color televisions, and demonstrate a greater intention to buy products from developed countries such as Germany and Japan than products from South Korea or Hong Kong (Tse et al. 1996). Tse (1999) also demonstrates that the Hong Kong Chinese rely on COO to judge the perceived safety of computer monitors, and rank products manufactured in the United States but assembled in China higher than

products both manufactured and assembled in China (Tse 1999). Consumers in Shanghai rely on COO to evaluate apparel products, and consider U.S. products superior in terms of innovation and design, although they prefer domestic apparel in terms of fit and affordability (DeLong et al. 2004). Mainland Chinese consumers in general rely more on COO information to make product evaluations based on perceived quality, perceived value, and purchase intention, and prefer products of U.S. origin to products of Korean or Chinese origin (Forsythe, Kim & Petee 1999).

The significance of COO effects has also been found in studies of other consumer segments in Asia. For instance, consumers in South Korea rely on COO to evaluate the attributes, features, and perceived quality of imported goods such as televisions and T-shirts (Ulgado & Lee 1998), and Singaporeans rely on COO to form price perceptions, preferences, and purchase intentions, preferring brands of Western origin to those of Eastern origin (O’Cass & Lim 2002).

Nevertheless, although COO effects are found to be significant among various consumer segments in Asia, their influence occurs in different evaluation dimensions. This research indicates some interesting differences among Chinese from mainland China, Chinese from Taiwan, South Koreans, and Singaporeans with other studies. For instance, although COO information has a strong influence on purchase intention among mainland Chinese consumers, it has less influence on overall attitude and

perceived quality dimensions. In contrast, Chinese consumers from Taiwan rely heavily on COO information to form quality perceptions of imported products (Lin & Sternquist 1993). This implies that the Taiwanese have less confidence in the quality of domestic products than mainland Chinese consumers, and perceive Western products to be superior.

Similarly, although Korean consumers rely on COO as an important extrinsic cue in judging product quality, they do not consider it to be significant when it comes to forming purchase intentions (Forsythe, Kim & Petee 1999). According to Ulgado and Lee (1998), the main difference between Koreans and the Chinese is that the former rely more on intrinsic cues, such as design and product quality, to make an evaluation, whereas the latter rely more on extrinsic cues, such as price, brand name, and COO. This implies that as the economic environment of a segment becomes more developed and consumers gain more experience of imported products, they rely less on COO cues to make purchase decisions. Thus, as mainland Chinese consumers generally lack experience with modern marketing and reputable brands, they tend to rely more on COO information to make a product evaluation. This is further demonstrated by a comparison of the results from Singaporeans and mainland Chinese. Although mainland Chinese and Singaporean consumers both use COO in product evaluation, Singaporeans rely on COO cues to form price perceptions, perceived quality, and purchase intention toward imported products (O’Cass & Lim

2002), whereas mainland Chinese consumers use them to form purchase intentions only, at least in this study. Mainland Chinese consumers express a higher intention to purchase products of Western origin than products of Eastern origin. In contrast, although Singaporeans show a preference for Western brands over Eastern brands, when it comes to purchase intention the reverse is the case. This is attributed to the fact that Eastern brands are perceived to be better value and therefore more affordable. Thus, although COO has a significant influence on the perceptions of Singaporean consumers, their budget has a much more important effect on their actual purchase decision. In contrast, although the Mainland Chinese are found to be price-conscious (Gong 2003) and use price extensively to judge the value of a product (Forsythe et al. 1999), when it comes to purchase intention, they prefer to purchase Western brands. This is because they believe that cheap products are never good. The expensive price tags of Western products are not only an assurance of quality but also earn “face” for mainland Chinese consumers, making them appear superior in the eyes of others (Gong 2003).

### **Interaction Effect of Brand Name with Hedonism on Brand Associations**

Hedonism is found to have a very powerful influence on brand associations (brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention), both by itself and in interaction with brand name translation. The results of this research support the foreign branding effect highlighted in the study of



LeClerc et al. (1994), who find that when a product is positioned as a hedonic product and is displayed with a foreign name, consumers show more positive feelings toward it. Here, the results are extended to the context of Chinese consumers and demonstrate that a customized brand name, in this case a translated Chinese brand name cue, also arouses favorable feelings, such as a sense of familiarity or the sharing of common values, when the product is positioned as a utilitarian product. This confirms the notion that COO effects can be effectively communicated via the product's brand name, rather than just the "made in" label (Papadopoulos 1993; Johansson 1993; Harris et al. 1994). The search for pleasure as a paradigm of human motivation and action, which has been addressed in marketing and consumer behavior theory, is also revealed in the findings of this research. The fact that the main effect of hedonism has a very powerful influence on consumer brand associations demonstrates that Chinese consumers are generally more attracted to pleasurable (hedonic) products than utilitarian products, and display a higher intention to purchase hedonic products. This may be because the standard of living in China has increased or because Chinese consumers are more knowledgeable and have greater access to information about the West: indeed, they are now bombarded with Western ideas and imported products and are afforded much more choice. Chinese consumers today not only pursue the items of basic necessity, but also have more money to spend on

luxury products to improve their quality of life.

### **Interaction effect of Brand name and Involvement on Brand Associations**

Although the interaction effect between involvement level and brand name translation is not found to have a significant influence on overall brand attitude, it is found to have a differing degree of impact on perceived quality and purchase intention. The implications of this finding are discussed in the following section.

### **Brand Attitude**

The results indicate that the interaction effect of brand name translation and consumer involvement does not have a significant influence on overall consumer attitude toward a product, and therefore H3a is not supported. This is a very interesting finding that has important implications for marketing managers. First, brand attitude is characterized as a spontaneous feeling that is formed through a non-deliberative thought process that is triggered by eye-catching extrinsic cues such as brand name, color, celebrity endorsement, or distinctive packaging. Although a product's brand name is supposed to be the extrinsic cue that is most likely to capture the attention of consumers and therefore influence their overall brand attitude, it is found in this research that the presence or absence of a translated Chinese brand name does not influence brand attitude. There are several possible reasons for this. First, it is observed that many of the

foreign-source imported products that are available in the Chinese marketplace are actually manufactured in China. These products are usually associated with Chinese information and carry a translated Chinese brand name. This has resulted in the common situation in the market environment of imported foreign-source products carrying both a foreign brand name and a translated Chinese brand name. As consumers have become used to being exposed to dual brand names cues, the idea of using a brand name translation as an eye-catching cue to capture consumer attention is no longer effective. As consumers are bombarded with a host of imported products that are displayed in two languages, they are becoming indifferent to the presence or absence of a translated Chinese brand name. In other words, when the majority of imported products are displayed in two languages, with both the brand name and information or instructions being written in both languages, then brand names lose their ability to attract the immediate attention of consumers.

The second possible reason for the finding of an indifferent effect of a translated brand name may be due to the set up of the experiment. A phonetic translation was purposely adopted to achieve a higher level of internal validity, but this meant that the fictitious translated brand names were meaningless to the participants. Chinese consumers are known to judge the meaning of a brand name through visual images and the implicit meaning that is revealed in each of the ideographic characters or

combination of characters in a Chinese name, and thus the simple phonetic translation method may have resulted in brand names that were both nonsensical and without linguistic appeal.

Finally, another possible reason for the finding may be that, according to Fishbein's attitude model, the attitude of consumers toward a product is a function of their evaluation of the attributes that are possessed by the product. However, in this research not only could the participants find no meaning in the dual-language brand names, they also had no access to information on the product attributes (as they were only given print advertisements), which may explain why a meaningless translated name was unable to stimulate their attention and influence their brand attitude, in contrast to the expectation in the hypotheses.

### **Perceived Quality**

The results indicate that the effect of involvement interacts with that of brand name translation to influence the perceived quality of consumers, and thus H3b is supported. However, the interaction effect differs for high-involvement and low-involvement products, being more pronounced for the former than for the latter. Figure (5.2b) shows that consumers have a better perception of the quality of high-involvement products if they do not carry a translated Chinese brand name, but perceive the quality of low-involvement products to be similar regardless of whether they carry a translated Chinese brand name or not. Another interpretation is that the

presence or absence of a translated Chinese brand name has an insignificant influence on brand associations for low-involvement products. This result differs from the hypotheses, and may be due to the following reasons. First, the process of forming a perception of quality is different from that of forming a brand attitude. A brand attitude is defined as a spontaneous overall feeling toward a product, whereas perceived quality is defined as a more deliberative perception that is usually associated with a product's attributes, features, performance, expectations, and satisfaction. Consequently, compared to brand attitude, the formation of a perception of quality is relatively more complicated, and involves a more deliberative process of evaluation. At the same time, consumers have higher expectations of the product and incur higher risks during the quality evaluation process. This is especially true when the product is relatively more important, relevant, or expensive. In this situation, consumers are more motivated to evaluate the product and look for more product-related variables to help them to understand it. During the evaluation process, they look not only at the brand name, but also search for multi sources that may somehow associate the product with a certain level of quality, such as the maker or manufacturer, country of origin, components or ingredients, product performance, serviceability, user profile, and credibility. Because of the changes in consumption preferences that have resulted from substantial increases in income and exposure to the outside world, the

Chinese market has become flooded with a tremendous number of reputable international brands. From a marketing perspective, these brands, particularly in the case of high-involvement products, are premium and luxury brands that are still at the introductory stage (Tai 1998) and are new to Chinese consumers. According to Eckhart & Houston 1998, Chinese consumers use brand names to provide security due to their limited experience with a modern free market and also as indicator to judge product function (Schmitt & Pan 1995) Examples of these products include Louis Vuitton handbags, Cartier watches, and Chanel perfume. Consumers want these products, but have limited experience and knowledge with which to evaluate them. They therefore rely heavily on the product's brand name and country of origin in their evaluations (Zhang 1996). As Chinese consumers generally display more favorable feelings toward foreign-source products, which are considered to be more prestigious and high-class than domestic products (Tai 1998; Wong and Ahuvia 1998), it is likely that when it comes to high-involvement products that merit a more cautious approach, Chinese consumers tend to trust products of a pure foreign origin (as communicated by a foreign brand name and no translation), and thus the presence of a translated Chinese brand name cue serves only to distort the image of the product as a premium item.

With low-involvement products, in contrast, the evaluation process may not so complicate, as consumers have a relatively lower interest and

expectations. Consumers tend to make the minimum effort to evaluate such products, and accordingly base their opinions on peripheral cues to evaluate their quality. Even though a product's brand name is supposed to be the main extrinsic cue that influences consumer evaluation, it does not work very effectively for low-involvement products. There are several possible reasons for this. With the increasing globalization of business, there is a tendency for manufacturers to locate production facilities in different countries such as China to produce branded products so as to take advantage of the lower cost of production. This is particularly applied to products that are less complicated and high-technology in nature. These products are usually found to be displayed with a foreign and Chinese brand name. Examples of such products include car accessories, office supplies, household accessories, food, and clothing. Although the presence of a Chinese brand name cue on such products may on the one hand be associated with a lower COO and an inferior image, on the other hand consumers are starting to accept this as a normal state of affairs and may find the brand name cue to be less important or to less accurately reflect the product's quality. In addition, as low-involvement products are less important because they involve less risk, consumers are unlikely to care too much about where they are actually made (as communicated by the product's brand name). This explains why they do not perceive the quality of foreign-source low-involvement products with a translated Chinese

brand name to be significantly different from the quality of those without a translated Chinese brand name.

### **Purchase Intention**

The results indicate that brand name translation, both by itself and in interaction with involvement, have a strong impact on purchase intention, and therefore H3c is supported. When consumer involvement is high, it is more likely that consumers will demonstrate a higher level of intention to purchase products that do not carry a translated Chinese brand name. Contrary to expectations, when consumer involvement is low, consumers also demonstrate a higher intention to purchase products when they do not carry a translated Chinese brand name. The level of consumer involvement seems not to influence the intention of consumers to purchase products, but the presence or absence of a translated brand name does cause some variation in purchase intention. A possible explanation for this is that, according to Fishbein's theory of reasoned action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975), a consumer's purchase intention serves as the mediator between their attitude toward a product and their actual purchase behavior. Gruber (1971) further suggested that intention provides a link between consumer reactions to products and their acquisition or use of the product, and therefore purchase intention is a more serious form of thought that is close to action, rather than an overall judgment or feeling toward a product. At the same time, the intention to purchase a product may lead consumers to associate a



certain level of risk with using the product, which will make them even more cautious when considering whether to purchase. According to Thakor and Katsanis (1997) and Wang and Lamb (1983), consumers tend to rate products from industrialized countries as being superior to those from developing countries. Similarly, Ying (2002) and Tai (1998) found that Chinese consumers still believe foreign products to be superior to local products. Therefore, when it comes to the critical moment when consumers have to pay for a product, they still prefer to purchase foreign products, because they are perceived to be superior to local products regardless of whether they are high-involvement or low-involvement products. As the stereotyping country effect is inherent in a product's brand name, it can be deduced that Chinese consumers prefer to buy products that do not carry a translated Chinese brand name.

## *Effect Sizes*

**Table 2. Effect Sizes of Brand Name, Hedonism, and Involvement on Brand Associations (Comparison with Dodds et al. (1991) and Teas and Agarwal (2000))**

Independent Variable	Effect size ( $\eta^2$ )		
	Brand Attitude	Perceived Quality	Purchase Intention
Brand name	.01	.01	.10
Brand name (DMG 1991)		.295	
Brand name (TA 2000)		.065	
Brand name (TA 2000)			NA
Translation moderated by Hedonism	.30	.50	.40
Translation moderated by Involvement	.01	.01	.01

Note: NA = not applicable.

DMG 1991 denotes findings from Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991).

TA 1000 denotes findings from Teas and Agarwal (2000).

Table 2 shows a comparison of the effect sizes of brand name and brand associations reported by Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991) and Teas and Agarwal (2000) and the effect sizes estimated in this study.

### **Effect size of Brand Name and Brand Associations**

The results of this research support the findings of Dodds (1991) and Teas and Agarwal (2000), which report strong associations between brand name and product evaluation among U.S. consumers. However, despite this consistency, contrasting results are found for U.S. and Chinese consumers. As

indicated in Table 2, the effect size of brand name translation on perceived quality in the current research ( $\eta^2 = .01$ ) is much smaller than the effect size found by Dodds et al. (1991) ( $\eta^2 = .295$ ) and Teas and Agarwal (2000) ( $\eta^2 = .065$ ). This implies that when it comes to communicating quality perceptions to Chinese consumers, international marketers may want to focus on other extrinsic cues rather than brand name to convey a product's quality, and that among Chinese consumers price is a potentially critical element in judging a product's quality (Gong 2003; Forsythe et al. 1999).

In contrast, the effect size of brand name translation on purchase intention in the current research ( $\eta^2 = .10$ ) is much larger than the negligible effect size found by Teas and Agarwal (2000). This implies that when it comes to making decisions, Chinese consumers rely heavily on brand name cues, perhaps because they lack experience in modern marketing and therefore rely on reputable brand names to evaluate a product. This demonstrates the necessity of creating a global-local image that balances the retention of the foreign image and adaptation to the local culture.

Furthermore, the small effect size between brand name and brand attitude in this research implies the inefficiency of adopting a phonetic translated brand name, as it may be perceived to be lacking implicit content and therefore fail to communicate positive meaning to consumers (Klink 2003). Although the results contradict previous findings that phonetic translation is the best method to achieve positive associations (Hong et al. 2001), they are

consistent with the finding of Schmitt et al. (1994) that Chinese consumers emphasize implicit meaning and the visual appeal generated from verbal information. International managers are therefore recommended to adopt phono-semantic translation, which is believed to be the best translation means of retaining the foreign image and at the same time adapting to the local culture. Many U.S. brands are enjoying success in the Chinese market due in large part to their well-translated names. Coca-Cola (Ke-kou-ke-le 可口可樂) and Sprite (Xue-bi 雪碧), for example, are both very popular among Chinese consumers.

### **Effect size of Brand Name and Hedonism on Brand Associations**

As indicated by the large effect size between the brand name and hedonism treatments, product class variables such as the perceived degree of hedonism associated with a brand name account for a large amount of the variance in brand associations. This is also consistent with the finding in the foreign branding literature that hedonic products are perceived to be more hedonic when associated with hedonic brand names (LeClerc et al. 1994; Thakor & Pacheco 1997), which naturally leads to the supposition that Chinese consumers will perceive utilitarian products to be more utilitarian if they are associated with Chinese names. This demonstrates to international managers that attention must be paid to the positioning of the product class before a decision is made on the brand name. As most products in the market are considered to be hybrid products that have both hedonic and utilitarian

value, managers should therefore pay careful attention to the weighting that is accorded the hedonic or utilitarian aspects associated with the product before devising an appropriate brand name.

### **Effect size of Brand Name and Involvement on Brand Associations**

The relatively small effect size between brand name and involvement treatment suggests that they only account for a relatively small amount of the variance on brand associations. This result does not support the Elaboration Likelihood model, in which the brand name is a peripheral cue that has an important influence on consumer perceptions when their involvement is low (Petty and Cacioppo 1983; Petty et al.(1983); Vakratsas and Ambler 1999; Hawkins and Hoch 1992). There must be other possible variables or factors causing the unaccounted for differences in brand associations. International managers should therefore pay attention to other branding elements or other marketing mix variables, and possibly even other product classes, such as the complexity, technology, prestige, and premium classes.

Although it is clear that effect size is an important indicator of the strength among variables in a statistical sense, this does not indicate that it is of practical importance, which after all is what matters most to managers. Its practical significance can be explained as follows. The product is the key element in a marketing offering that aims to influence consumer perceptions. Marketing mix planning therefore begins with the designing of a product that has the very best functionality, is tailor-made for target customers, and

satisfies customer needs to sustain a long-term customer relationship. The results of this research provide insights on the importance of brand name, perceived hedonism, and involvement in influencing the associations consumers make with a product, which should be of value to managers in determining planning, promotional, and positioning strategies.

### ***Managerial Implications***

The contributions of this research are significant from a number of managerial perspectives. Overwhelmed by the proliferation of new products in the market place, brand name appears to be a very important extrinsic cue for evaluating a product. Creating an effective brand name for international expansion is a challenging endeavor due to differences in culture and language and also the considerable number of new brand names being introduced into an already crowded marketplace. Adding to the challenge is the lack of empirical research on the display of a brand name cue on a product. Whereas most of the previous brand name research has focused on the presumed translation strategy in terms of the translation method employed, such as phonetic translation, semantic translation, or phono-semantic translation, the main argument in this research is whether or not a foreign brand name should actually be translated at all. One of the most important findings supports the proposition in the literature that the COO effect can be communicated implicitly through a product's brand name and has a very powerful influence on purchase intention. With the

multiple manufacturing strategies of many multinational corporations, the COO effect is synthesized with the brand of origin effect in influencing consumer perceptions. Chinese consumers are found to be heavily influenced by both the COO and brand origin in making product evaluations. However, creating a new brand name or adjusting a brand name to a new culture or market is a very difficult task due to the complexity of product meanings across cultures. Consequently, the adoption of a translated Chinese brand name may not always engender positive brand associations among consumers, and the appropriateness of having a customized translated brand name for a foreign-source product depends on the specific cultural, linguistic, and product-relevancy conditions, including the degree of hedonism and involvement.

Second, the findings of this research also indicate to international managers that translating a Western brand name into Chinese actually means the creation of a new brand name. Renaming can be a creative and value-added process when cultural, linguistic, and brand-positioning issues are taken into consideration, but, as indicated by the large effect sizes between brand name and degree of hedonism or utilitarianism, managers are advised to pay attention to their product positioning strategy before deciding on a brand-name strategy. Most products in the market are considered to be hybrid products that have both hedonic and utilitarian value: a skin lotion, for instance, can be marketed by emphasizing its

functional benefits, such as the elimination of dryness, or its emotional benefits, such as softening the skin. Similarly, a rice-cooker can be marketed by emphasizing its functional benefits, such as speed, or its emotional benefits, such as connecting the user with friends and family. Managers should therefore pay careful attention to the weighting that is given to the hedonic and utilitarian aspects of a product before deciding on an appropriate brand name, because the perceived degree of hedonism of a product will be reinforced by its brand name and will thus determine the associations that consumers make with the product.

Third, the relatively small effect between brand name and involvement implies that there may be other possible variables or factors that influence the perceptions of Chinese consumers. International managers are therefore encouraged to explore other marketing mix elements and product class characteristics, such as the degree of complexity, technology, or prestige associated with the product.

Fourth, international marketers should be aware of the emergence of changing consumer behavior in China, especially among the younger generation, as a result of substantial increases in income and greater exposure to the West. This group of consumers is picking up new values and Western ideas very rapidly and is more willing to absorb new products and ideas than previous generations. In targeting this group of consumers, international marketers should place greater emphasis on the hedonic value



or private meaning of possessing the product or service by increasing the exposure of consumers to the branding elements or by employing more hedonic advertising themes. As foreign products and contemporary advertising practices become more prevalent in the market, younger consumers are likely to pay closer attention to advertising and also to the Internet, which has become a major source of information. On June 30, 2002, the number of Internet users in China exceeded 45 million, most of whom have a generally positive attitude toward Web advertising (CNNIC 7/2002). International marketers should take full advantage of this new medium and create Web sites that Chinese consumers trust and enjoy using for on-line communication.

Fifth, taking into account the cultural and linguistic differences between different market segments, the challenge for international marketers is to create a global brand-local image that retains the foreign “superior” image but uses a local brand name that is linguistically appealing to the target segments. Compared with English speakers who judge brand name only on the pronunciation or appeal of the sound, Chinese consumers are more complicated, valuing the implicit meaning that is conveyed through verbal information and the visual image of the calligraphy (Schmitt et al. 1994). Consequently, the adoption of semantic or phono-semantic brand name translation is recommended as the most appropriate brand name translation strategy.

Finally, the results of the research provide several guidelines for international managers seeking to expand or position new products across countries. The results can be generalized to other market segments in which the language of the target consumers is different from that originally displayed on the product, for which the adoption of a translated brand name may be appropriate. The results can also be generalized to other market segments with different levels of economic development, as long as the target consumers perceive specific imported products to be superior to local products. This may apply to Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan, where consumers perceive Western brands to be superior to Eastern brands (O’Cass and Lim 2002; Forsythe et al. 1999; Lin and Sternquist 1994).

In this research, COO is found to be synthesized with the brand of origin effects, a finding that has two important implications for international managers. Companies in developed areas such as the U.S., Australia, Japan, and Europe that are trying to increase exports of manufactured products to developing countries may benefit from a COO or brand of origin advertising campaign because of the associations that consumers make with foreign brand names or foreign made-in labels. In China, imported products from developed countries are perceived to be of better quality than domestic products, and advertisers would certainly benefit from incorporating a pure foreign brand name, or a strong cue such as “Made in Japan” or “Parts from Australia” to make their products more appealing to

consumers. This also applies to Taiwanese, Korean, and Singaporean consumers and probably also to other developing countries. Companies that are considering moving their manufacturing plants to developing countries to take advantage of lower labor costs but worry about the less superior image that will be conveyed by the made-in label can still exploit the COO effect through the adoption of foreign branding.

At the same time, local companies in developing countries may also benefit from the adoption of a Western brand name, which can be synthesized with the COO effect to stimulate a superior image among consumers. Moreover, products manufactured in China or in other developing countries are generally considered to have more competitive prices and to be better value, and thus local merchants should continue to strengthen this competitive advantage by offering good service and warranty programs. As developing countries are generally perceived negatively in terms of product design and innovation, it is suggested that firms in such countries concentrate on less complicated, less involved products. Research indicates that product familiarity can enhance COO evaluation, particularly for negatively developing countries (Samiee 1994; Zhang 1996). These countries should therefore start to expand into Western markets by taking the role of COA (country of assembly) or COP (country of parts) to make foreign consumers familiar with, and build up confidence about, the products associated with the country.

### ***Theoretical Contributions***

The results of this research have several theoretical implications. First, previous studies have presumed that the adoption of a translated brand name cue is unavoidable and essential in creating a strong domestic image for local expansion. However, there is a gap in the research on the appropriateness of displaying a local brand name for imported products in different circumstances. This is the first study to address this important gap, and it demonstrates that the display of a translated brand name cue does not always engender positive associations as is assumed by researchers, but is subject to product-relevancy factors. Specifically, the results confirm the findings of previous studies that hedonism and involvement are important product-relevancy variables that influence consumer perceptions (Mano and Oliver 1993), but extend this to show that they are significant moderators between a product's brand name cue and brand associations.

Second, the results of this research confirm the proposition in the COO literature that the COO effect has a significant influence on the product evaluation of Chinese consumers (Tai 1998; Zhang 1996; Yan 1994; Cui 1998), and extend this theory by demonstrating that the COO effects have shifted from the product level to the brand level. This can be attributed to the complication of multi-country manufacture practice, in which design, assembly, and manufacture are carried out in different countries. The specific country of origin information,

which is now synthesized with the brand of origin, is more readily available to the consumer as a result of exposure to the marketing activities for the brand and is becoming more dominant during the consumer evaluation process. This shift is further confirmed by the foreign branding effect through which consumers rely on the brand name to form impressions of a product, such as perceiving it to be more hedonic if it is associated with a foreign spelling or pronunciation (LeClerc et al. 1994; Thakor and Kohli 1996). This research also extends the theory that the brand of origin is a strong extrinsic indicator of identity and a means of differentiating among competitors in the market.

Third, the results confirm the categorization theory that consumers react to extrinsic cues, such as brand name, first in evaluating a new product if they do not have access to the intrinsic cues. However, the results contradict the ELM model with respect to the central route of persuasion, indicating that although a product's brand name is an important peripheral cue, it does not consistently arouse consumer interest for low-involvement products. It is, however, demonstrated to be consistent in influencing consumer perceptions for high-involvement products.

Fourth, the results confirm the congruency theory that highlights the favorability and strength of brand associations in consumer memory. Congruence is defined as the extent to which a brand association shares content and meaning with another brand association. A brand is perceived to be less cohesive and more confusing when it generates incongruent brand associations

(Keller 1993). The results of this research confirm the congruency theory by demonstrating that when the brand name matches the product class, such as when a Western brand name is adopted for a hedonic product or a Chinese brand name is adopted for a utilitarian product, the congruency between the two associations arouses positive perceptions or associations about the brand.

Fifth, whereas previous research on brand associations has been criticized for only measuring partial associations in various product-specific dimensions and for lacking generalizability to a wide variety of products, thus limiting its practical value, this research uses the three fundamental constructs of brand attitude, perceived quality, and purchase intention to measure brand associations, and adds several new items to improve the validity of the scale for Chinese consumers.

### ***Limitations***

Five limitations of this research warrant comment. First, it is founded on a lab experiment in which factors other than those being tested were tightly controlled to ensure a sufficiently high internal validity to arrive at the hypothesized causality. However, this has also resulted in the loss of a certain degree of external validity, and the research can thus be criticized for its lack of realism. However, the trade-off between internal and external validity is a fact of life in experimental research, and the loss of external validity can be compensated by future research in which field studies are used to replicate the experiment.

Second, for the same purpose of enhancing internal validity, a student sample was used, which unavoidably limits the generalizability of the findings to the general public. Furthermore, the participants in the research were all university students and resembled a segment with a higher education level, and thus the results may be less applicable to the majority of Chinese consumers, who have a low level of education.

Third, the use of phonetic translation for the brand names is contradictory to the general marketing practice in today's market, as most international brand name translations in China adopt the semantic or phonosemantic translation methods. The use of phonetically translated brand names may also be a problem because they are more likely to be subject to abstract associations that are close to the original names, and much less so to practical or utilitarian associations. The adoption of "meaningless" brand names may be a major factor that contributed to some of the insignificant results in the research.

Fourth, as different products were used to distinguish between high-involvement and low-involvement products, the identified differences may not only be due to a different level of consumer involvement toward the product, but also to the fact that the products were different.

Fifth, in the experiment only print advertisements were used, but different patterns of results may have emerged had the participants been given the physical products to assess or try. The results are therefore only

valid from an experimental standpoint, and further research is needed to overcome this shortcoming to enhance the generalizability of the results.

### ***Directions for future research***

The limitations of this study open the way to future research on the relationships among brand name, product class characteristics, and brand associations. It would be interesting to investigate other possible moderators in addition to hedonism and involvement, such as the branding elements of logo, symbol, slogan, jingle, price, packaging design, or celebrity endorsement. The personal characteristics of consumers, such as gender, age, lifestyle, and social class, could also be investigated.

It would also be interesting to examine the impact of using other foreign languages in the branding process and their influence on brand associations.

Given the differences between Chinese consumers from mainland China and those from Taiwan, it would be interesting to investigate the effects of the use of translated simplified Chinese characters versus translated traditional Chinese characters on brand associations. Furthermore, other kinds of COO information, such as the made-in label and country of design, parts, or assembly information, merit further exploration. In the same vein, the nature of product class characteristics, such as the degree of complexity, technology, luxury, prestige, and channel distribution, may influence consumer evaluation, and therefore deserves further investigation. Finally, given the limitation of using student



samples, which constrain this research, future studies should also be conducted among other age groups, social classes and genders.

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# APPENDIXES

This is a research trying to test the effectiveness of the advertised new foreign imported products, and will be carried out in two parts.

**Part I.** You will be given seven print advertisements and seven sets of questionnaires. The print advertisements include shampoo, Mp3, roll of film, toothpaste, tissue pack, mobile phone and computer. Please answer the questions according to the following scales.

- 1 = absolutely agree
- 2 = agree
- 3 = slightly agree
- 4 = No feeling
- 5 = slightly disagree
- 6 = Not agree
- 7 = definitely disagree

You can choose the “NA” if you feel that the scales or choices is not applicable to the question. For example, if you think that a piece of cake cannot be interpreted as durable or not durable, you may choose “NA”.

Please circle the choice which can best interpret your feelings to the question. Please answer the assigned question set with respect to the relevant print advertisement. For instance, after you have finished reading the “shampoo” print advertisement, please answer the questionnaire relating to the “shampoo” advertisement. Please clip the print advertisement and the related questionnaire and put them together inside the envelope. Then you may start reading the second print advertisement and answer the second questionnaire and so on. When you have completed all the seven sets of questionnaire, you have finished part I of the experiment. Please raise your hand and the Part II questionnaire will be distributed to you.

**Part II.** The Part II questionnaire will be distributed to you. Please circle the answers that best interpret your feelings to the question. Please put the questionnaire inside the envelope after you have completed it. Please ensure that you have put back all the print advertisements and questionnaires into the envelope before you leave.

The data gathered from this experiment will be used for academic research only.

Thank you very much of your valuable time and support to this research.

## PART I

I feel this brand is:

			Absolutely Agree			Not Feeling			Definitely Disagree		
1	Good	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
2	Pleasant	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
3	Valuable	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
4	Cool	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
5	Sentimental	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

I feel the brand's quality is:

			Absolutely Agree			Not Feeling			Definitely Disagree			
6	Superior	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Inferior	
7	Excellent	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Poor	
8	Good Quality	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Bad Quality	
9	Good Functions	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Bad Functions	
10	Reliable	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Unreliable	
11	High Technology Combination	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Low Technology Combination	
12	Useful	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Useless	
13	I am willing to purchase this brand	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
14	I am willing to purchase this brand	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
15	I shall recommend my friends to buy this brand	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
16	Even though this brand is more expensive than the other brand in the market, I am still willing to purchase this brand	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			

			Absolutely Agree 1	2	3	No feeling 4	5	6	Definitely Disagree 7
17	I can see the Chinese name in the advertisement	NA							
18	The using of this brands make me feel more superior than the other	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I feel this is a brand with high practical value	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I feel this is a high functional product	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I understand how to control the functions of this product	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## Part II: Definition of High Involvement and Low Involvement products.

Please read the definition of High Involvement and Low Involvement products carefully before you proceed.

High-involvement products are defined as products which are more important and relevant and are therefore more risk is accrued if the wrong decision is made. They are relatively more expensive and consumers are willing to spend more money, time and energy to evaluate and purchase the products.

Low-involvement products are defined as products which consumers are not willing to spend too much time, energy and effort to evaluate and purchase the products. These products are relatively less expensive, less important and less risk is accrued if the wrong decision is made.

Please circle your perceived consumer involvement with respect to each of the product listed below.

	(Low Involvement)					(High Involvement)	
1. Computer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Mobile phone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. MP3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. A roll of film	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Tissue pack	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Toothpaste	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Shampoo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

這是一個測試廣告效應的實驗，這個實驗將會分作兩部分進行。

**第一部份：**你將會被派發七種新產品的廣告及七份問卷。這些產品包括有洗髮水，MP3，膠捲，牙膏，紙巾，手機以及電腦，請用下面的評判標準表明你對後文描述的接受程度。

**1 = 強烈同意**      **2 = 同意**      **3 = 稍微同意**

**4 = 沒感覺**      **5 = 稍微不同意**      **6 = 不同意**

**7 = 強烈不同意**

如果你認為這些描述對該產品不實用，例如一塊蛋糕不能用“耐用”來形容的時候，你可以選擇用 **NA** 表示。

你只需要根據自己的感覺來回答問卷的問題，圈出你認為最合適的答案。當你看完一個產品廣告之後，例如洗髮水，便回答一份問卷。答妥這份問卷後，請立即用迴紋針把產品和廣告夾在一起，放回信封裏面。隨即可開始看第二個產品廣告並且回答相應的問卷，答妥後這份問卷後，重復上述操作，依此類推。當你做完七份問卷後，實驗第一部分結束。請舉手示意工作人員進入第二部分。

**第二部分：**我們將會派發你第二部份問卷。請圈出你認為最合適的答案。

填妥後，請放回信封內。在你離開座位之前，請仔細檢查你是否將 **8** 份問卷及 **7** 份廣告都放入信封中。

這個實驗得到的資料只會用作學術研究。

**謝謝你抽出寶貴的時間來支持這份問卷。**

**第一部分：**

**我覺得這個廣告產品是：**

	強烈 同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	強烈 不同意
1. 好的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. 優雅的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. 有價值的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. 很酷	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. 很感性	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

**我覺得這個品牌的品質是**

6. 優秀組合的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	粗劣組合的
7. 極好的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	極差的
8. 高質數的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	低質數的
9. 功能性強的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	功能性的
10. 可靠的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	不可靠的
11. 高科技的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	低科技的
12. 有用的	NA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	無用的



13. 我願意購買這個品牌產品
- 強烈同意      沒感覺      強烈不同意
- NA 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. 儘管這個品牌的價格高於其他產品，我仍然願意購買這個品牌
- NA 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. 即使這個產品與其他產品沒有任何區別，購買這個產品會更明智
- NA 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. 我能夠看到這個產品的中文名字：
- 強烈      沒感覺      強烈      不同意
- 同意
- NA 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. 我覺得假如我不使用這個產品，別人會認為我落伍
- 強烈      沒感覺      強烈      不同意
- 同意
- NA 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. 我覺得這是一個實用價值很高的產品
- 強烈      沒感覺      強烈      不同意
- 同意
- NA 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. 我明白這件產品的主要
- 強烈      沒感覺      強烈      不同意
- 同意

功能性

NA 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

強烈

沒感覺  
同意

強烈

不同意

21. 我理解如何操作這件產品

NA 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 第二部分：

### 說明

在你回答以下問題之前請閱讀關於高度參與產品(High-involvement products)與低度參與產品(Low-involvement products)的定義：

高度參與產品是指你需要花費大量時間，精力和金錢去評估和購煤的產品。由於這類產品的價格一般較高，假如你做出了一個錯誤的決定而誤買了該產品，相對來說你會有較大的損失。因此，高度參與產品的風險相對較高。

低度參與產品是指你不需要花費大量時間和精力去評估的產品。這類產品相對較便宜，所以風險也相對較小。

建立在以上定義的基礎上，請選擇你所認為的產品的參與程度。

(低度參與)

(高度參與)

1. 電腦 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. 手機 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3 · MP3           1    2    3    4    5    6    7

4 · 膠捲           1    2    3    4    5    6    7

5 · 紙巾           1    2    3    4    5    6    7

6 · 牙膏           1    2    3    4    5    6    7

7 · 洗髮水        1    2    3    4    5    6    7

**普通問題：**

你的性別：1) 男   2) 女

你的年齡：\_\_\_\_\_

你的學年：\_\_\_\_\_

你的學院：\_\_\_\_\_

你的專業：\_\_\_\_\_

你是澳門居民嗎？ 1) 是   2) 否

如果上題答案是“否”，請回答以下問題，否則跳過下兩題繼續回答。

你來自中國的哪一個省市？\*\_\_\_\_\_

你來澳門多久了？\*\_\_\_\_\_

試說出這個研究測試的是什麼東西。（請用文字回答）

\_\_\_\_\_

你是否明白問卷裏出現的問題。如有不明白的，請清楚列出哪些問題你不明白：

---

謝謝你的支持！



# 亞比斯

## ABIES

體積最小  
重量最輕  
方便攜帶

- 亞比斯(ABIES) - 旅行必備之選
- 亞比斯(ABIES) - 可存8000首你聽覺的歌
- 亞比斯(ABIES) - 完全中文文化的人性操作
- 亞比斯(ABIES) - 輕便設計
- 亞比斯(ABIES) - LCD 螢幕有65,536 的鮮艷色彩
- 亞比斯(ABIES) - 2安士量及2英吋長

# ABIES

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- ABIES - 2安士量及2英吋長



**亞貝** ALBAN

柔軟的接觸  
溫柔的體驗



**ALBAN**

柔軟的接觸  
溫柔的體驗



**亞貝** ALBAN

100%原生木漿製造  
乾淨衛生

- 亞貝 (ALBAN) - 柔軟及堅韌
- 亞貝 (ALBAN) - 黏貼設計、方便攜帶
- 亞貝 (ALBAN) - 吸水力強



**ALBAN**

100%原生木漿製造  
乾淨衛生

- ALBAN - 柔軟及堅韌
- ALBAN - 黏貼設計、方便攜帶
- ALBAN - 吸水力強

**佳華**  
**CAU**

簡約生活  
從此而起

**CAU**

簡約生活  
從此而起

**佳華**  
**CAU**

四合一功能：  
錄像機 高萬像照相機  
優質音色MP3 記事簿

- 奇理 (KIRA) - 制式三頻 GSM 900/1800/1900 MHz
- 奇理 (KIRA) - 顯示屏:TFT 65,536色
- 奇理 (KIRA) - 備用時間:336分鐘
- 奇理 (KIRA) - 通話時間:180分鐘
- 奇理 (KIRA) - 可存8000首歌
- 奇理 (KIRA) - 錄影2小時以上
- 奇理 (KIRA) - 其他:100萬像素鏡頭連閃光燈、JAVJ、內置藍芽、MP3鈴聲

**CAU**

四合一功能：  
錄像機 高萬像照相機  
優質音色MP3 記事簿

- KIRA - 制式三頻 GSM 900/1800/1900 MHz
- KIRA - 顯示屏:TFT 65,536色
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用燦爛的笑容  
來開始新的一天！



用燦爛的笑容  
來開始新的一天！



防止蛀牙  
保持口腔衛生

- 戴斯(Desi) - 能有效地防止蛀牙
- 戴斯(Desi) - 能有效地清除牙漬
- 戴斯(Desi) - 能有效地防止牙石形成
- 戴斯(Desi) - 能預防且減少牙垢及牙齦炎
- 戴斯(Desi) - 能潔白牙齒



防止蛀牙  
保持口腔衛生

- Desi - 能有效地防止蛀牙
- Desi - 能有效地清除牙漬
- Desi - 能有效地防止牙石形成
- Desi - 能預防且減少牙垢及牙齦炎
- Desi - 能潔白牙齒



分享生命  
重要的每個時刻!

卡馬 Kalma

分享生命  
重要的每個時刻!

Kalma

顏色鮮明  
超級微粒製造

卡馬 Kalma

- 卡馬 (Kalma) - 金裝ISO100菲林片
- 卡馬 (Kalma) - 順滑、倍加通透
- 卡馬 (Kalma) - 顏色準確超凡
- 卡馬 (Kalma) - 四層色技術
- 卡馬 (Kalma) - 超級微粒子及色精度
- 卡馬 (Kalma) - 多功能

顏色鮮明  
超級微粒製造

Kalma

- Kalma - 金裝ISO100菲林片
- Kalma - 順滑、倍加通透
- Kalma - 顏色準確超凡
- Kalma - 四層色技術
- Kalma - 超級微粒子及色精度
- Kalma - 多功能





**奧利亞**  
OLIA  
滋潤洗髮水  
moisturizing shampoo

**奧利亞**  
OLIA

田園清香味！  
清純女人味！



**OLIA**  
moisturizing shampoo

**OLIA**

田園清香味！  
清純女人味！



**奧利亞**  
OLIA  
滋潤洗髮水  
moisturizing shampoo

**奧利亞**  
OLIA

有效地清除頭皮  
使頭髮貼服、容易打理！

- 奧利亞(OLIA) - 能有效清除頭皮及防止頭皮再生。
- 奧利亞(OLIA) - 含獨特配方，有效防止頭髮變黃、變枯。
- 奧利亞(OLIA) - 能有效地減低頭髮因染髮而造成的傷害。
- 奧利亞(OLIA) - 能使頭髮回復柔順、亮澤。



**OLIA**  
moisturizing shampoo

**OLIA**

有效地清除頭皮  
使頭髮貼服、容易打理！

- OLIA - 能有效清除頭皮及防止頭皮再生。
- OLIA - 含獨特配方，有效防止頭髮變黃、變枯。
- OLIA - 能有效地減低頭髮因染髮而造成的傷害。
- OLIA - 能使頭髮回復柔順、亮澤。

任何時刻都倍住你...

**柯新**  
ORSON

任何時刻都倍住你...

**ORSON**

**柯新**  
ORSON

內置高效能技術  
外接全方位裝備

- 柯新(ORSON) - Intel Centrino Mobile Technology
- 柯新(ORSON) - 60GB硬碟 250MB記憶體(Max.2GB)
- 柯新(ORSON) - CD-RW/DVD-ROM Combo Drive
- 柯新(ORSON) - 內置Intel Pro/Wireless 2100 802.11b無線網絡
- 柯新(ORSON) - Microsoft Windows XP Professional (中文 / 英文版)
- 柯新(ORSON) - 1年國際保養及維修服務

**ORSON**

內置高效能技術  
外接全方位裝備

- ORSON - Intel Centrino Mobile Technology
- ORSON - 60GB硬碟 250MB記憶體(Max.2GB)
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- ORSON - Microsoft Windows XP Professional (中文 / 英文版)
- ORSON - 1年國際保養及維修服務

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