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## **Application of counter-stereotype strategy for national image management: a comparative study of U.S. and South Korean college students' national stereotypes of China**

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**APPLICATION OF COUNTER-STEREOTYPE STRATEGY FOR  
NATIONAL IMAGE MANAGEMENT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF  
U.S. AND SOUTH KOREAN COLLEGE STUDENTS'  
NATIONAL STEREOTYPES OF CHINA**

A Dissertation  
Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the  
Louisiana State University and  
Agricultural and Mechanical College  
in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy  
in  
The Manship School of Mass Communication

by  
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## **ABSTRACT**

The study sought to explore the applicability of national stereotypes for implicit stereotype by measuring reaction times (RTs). Also, the study intended to suggest a more effective national image management in overseas practices by demonstrating the effect of counter-stereotype strategy on country-of-origin (COO) effect. A focus of the study was on China and Chinese people for national stereotypes and Chinese corporations and products made in China for the COO effect, considering unfavorable national images of China in news media and negative impressions on products made in China. The study compared national stereotypes of China and Chinese people and COO effect of Chinese corporations and products made in China with national stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people and Germany and German people and the COO effects of Japanese corporation and product made in Japan and German corporation and product made in Germany. Also, the study examined the comparison between U.S. and South Korean college students. The study employed two research methods, an experimental and online survey design.

The results showed the potential that national stereotypes can be implicit by demonstrating a significant difference in subjects' RTs. The difference in RTs between consistent and inconsistent attributes with countries' existing national stereotypes can be inferred about the possibility that national stereotype can be implicit. The U.S. and South Korean participants reported more favorable perceptions of Japan and Japanese people than China and Chinese people and Germany and German people. The South Korean participants' overall national stereotypes of the three countries were less favorable than the U.S. participants'. For the COO effect, the U.S. and South Korean participants also more favorably evaluated the Japanese corporation and its product than the two others, Chinese and German corporations and their

products. Also, concerning the effect of counter-stereotype cues, the Chinese corporation with counter-stereotypical cues in the news story was more favorably evaluated than that of the other Chinese corporation without the cues.

The study indicated the potential of applying national stereotypes for implicit stereotypes and utilizing counter-stereotype strategy in reducing unfavorable country images and suggested practical implications for overseas practitioners based on the findings.

## INTRODUCTION

Public relations and marketing practitioners have attempted to improve the image of their clients' host countries in order to undermine existing negative images. The need for national image management is generated from people's tendency to associate a country with stereotypes and bias (Kunczik, 1997; O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2000). The demand for managing national image is much greater for developing and underdeveloped countries, which are often represented by negative images that derive from stereotypes and prejudices. For example, many images of developing countries presented in the news are unfavorable and focus on themes such as political conflict and disasters (Beaudoin & Thorson, 2001; Crawford, 1996; Dressor & Berain, 1998; Giffard, 1984; Luther, 2002; McCracken, 1987; Riffe & Shaw, 1982; Zaharopoulos, 1989; Zelizer, Park, & Gudelunas, 2002). China has been considered a developing country a rising political power and an emerging market. The study took the country as a good example that it has faced the need for its tackling tainted national image, particularly outside the country (Goryaina, 2009; Jianping, 2008).

A country's national image influences not only consumers' individual perceptions and behaviors but also international relations (Boulding, 1959). National image is also associated with its effect on consumers' intent to purchase products and brands manufactured in that country. This is because consumers tend to evaluate a product based on a country's image, as presented in the news, if little else is known about the country (Schaefer, 1995).

In this vein, image cultivation is a form of international public relations in which the target audiences are outside of the country itself, such as other governments, multinational corporations (MNCs), and international actors including non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The main purpose of national image management in public relations and marketing practices is to establish



or maintain favorable images of one's nation and to appear trustworthy to foreign governments and publics.

### **National Image and Stereotypes in Public Relations and Marketing**

For international PR, the main practice of state-initiated public relations campaigns is to reinforce favorable images or to reduce unfavorable images under the assumption that a positive country image contributes to economic benefits that generate tourism, create amiable relations with other governments, and increase the country's chance of receiving support. National governments have conducted international advertising campaigns and public relations programs to improve their images and thus influence foreign policy. In particular, governments in developing nations are motivated to engage in international advertising to promote the country's goods and services such as travel, tourism, and airlines as well as the need to change public opinion about their nation (Amaize & Faber, 1983).

Developing nations have used advertising campaigns to change biased or misleading impressions that are reinforced by Western media and wire services. There are many examples of national PR projects that favorably brand countries' images, such as Australia's "Sunshine Australia," New Zealand's "100% Pure New Zealand," Singapore's "Uniquely Singapore," Malaysia's "Malaysia, Truly Asia," and Thailand's "Amazing Thailand" campaigns (Curtin & Gaither, 2007). Another image management strategy that governments in developing countries use is hosting international activities, such as global conferences and sports events, because they can influence not only governments of other nations, but also world-wide viewers and readers, thus enhancing trade and diplomatic relations as well as promoting tourism and foreign investment (Ahn, 2002; Giffard & Rivenburgh, 2000; Jaffe & Nebenzahol, 1993).

Many in marketing studies have paid attention to the role of country-of-origin not only in

terms of consumers' perceptions of products and in their purchasing behaviors, but also in corporate and brand images. The studies commonly note that the country-of-origin's image does indeed affect product evaluations. For example, in the 1950s, people considered products made in Japan as being inferior to those made in Western Europe or the United States. However, in the 1990s, consumers had a more positive image about products made in Japan, and thereby products with the "Made in Japan" label had the same or greater legitimacy as those with the "Made in USA" label. This implies that the image of a certain country can change over time. Marketers in countries that possess a favorable country-of-origin image emphasize the phrase, 'Made in...' while countries with unfavorable images minimize the use of their country's image in marketing. Han (1989) noted that consumers may use a summary construct of a country's image to evaluate products, such as by retrieving stored information, for example, about Japanese products in general to evaluate Japanese electronics, which consumers evaluate highly due to Japan's favorable reputation for making high quality products in general.

A country's negative image may provoke the consumer to associate that negative image with the product itself. Thus, many MNCs strive to obscure and downplay a country's negative image in order to disassociate the product from the country. Another strategy commonly used involves borrowing the image of another country, such as in branding, packaging, and advertising. For example, Reebok, an American shoe company, utilizes the British flag as an emblem on its shoes in order to associate it with the UK rather than America, where the products were initially manufactured. However, Kim's (2006) study on Samsung's branding efforts shows that obscuring a country's image may have no long-term effect and suggests that positively promoting a country's image may contribute to the products' marketability.

Many studies on national image and stereotypes have assumed that stereotypes tend to be

relatively durable across cultures and generations (Macrae, Strangor, & Hewstone, 1996; Wegener, Clark, & Petty, 2006). People have a tendency to hold on to them with great conviction, although stereotypes are usually simple, inaccurate, overgeneralized, and widely accepted (Lippmann, 1929).

On the other hand, a key assumption of national image management is that national image can be reinforced and cultivated through a variety of efforts via mass media, as well as by public relations practitioners and marketers (Albritton & Manheim, 1984; Alvesson, 1990; Anderson, 1985; Boorstin, 1961; Furbank, 1970; Herman, 1993; Jaffe & Nebenzahol, 2001; Kunczik, 1997). According to Anderson (1985), image is more flexible than pictures in an individual's head. An image is created, altered and managed to make a certain kind of believable impression. Furbank (1970) noted that image is a "pseudo-ideal," in that it can be fabricated by various institutions through the public relations industry and other means (p. 142). Kunczik (1997) illustrated many cases in which governments have attempted to cultivate their image in another country. From the viewpoint of marketing and public relations, national image can be managed to attract the attention of consumers and the public (Jaffe & Nebenzahol, 2001).

### **Priming Stereotypes**

Public relations and marketing practices are based on the belief that stereotypes of a nation create psychological consistency and bolster bias (Lawrence, Marr, & Prendergast, 1992). Messages that practitioners construct are expected to influence the way people perceive a nation and its associated products. This notion is grounded on the priming effect, in which message consumption may serve to enhance the accessibility of particular constructs. The basic concern of social cognition research is that cognitive processes mediate the relation between social information and judgment (Wyer & Scrull, 1989).

Priming refers to people's engagement in perceptual concepts which influence the way they behave by activating knowledge stored in memory following exposure to a stimulus such as media information (Bargh, 1999). The cognitive process is considered a mediator between stimulus, such as media message and its characteristics, and reactions, such as attitudes, beliefs, and behavior. The basic purpose of the cognitive approach is to identify the thought process that underlies attitude change. Research on priming effects has demonstrated that media coverage can influence people's attitudes, though the studies note that a media message by itself is unlikely to change an audience's attitudes, and different research methods reach different conclusions about the duration of the priming effect (Althaus & Kim, 2006; Iyengar, Peters, & Kinder, 1982; Iyengar & Kinder, 1987; Krosnick & Kinder, 1990; Price & Tewksbury, 1997).

Social psychologists have long been interested in the effect of stereotypes on information processing. The literature distinguishes this type of information processing into two categories: 1) *implicit stereotypes* which might be automatically, mostly unconsciously, and involuntarily activated; and 2) *explicit stereotypes* which might be mostly consciously and voluntarily activated (Posner & Snyder, 1975; Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977; Shiffrin & Schneider, 1977). Automatic processes involve the unintentional or spontaneous activation of some well-learned set of associations, such as stereotypes and prejudices, which have been developed through repeated activations in one's memory. They do not require conscious effort and appear to be initiated by the presence of stimulus cues in the environment (Shiffrin & Dumais, 1981).

Recent research on stereotypes has focused on automatic activation, which is considered inevitable. Their influence is nearly impossible to avoid considering the tendency of people to hesitate about overtly admitting that they have negative stereotypes. A more basic level most of use even lack awareness of the underlying stereotypes we possess. Social psychologists have

raised questions about respondents' self-reports and agree that an automatically activated attitude is a better predictor of behaviors than an explicitly-reported attitude (Bessenoff & Sherman, 2000; Devine, 1989; Dovidio, Kawakami, Johnson, C., Johnson, B., Howard, 1997; Fazio, Jackson, Dunton, & Williams, 1995; Gaertner & McLaughlin, 1983).

In this light, the present study concerns the possibility that national stereotypes may be implicitly activated. It also investigates the potential utilizing counter-stereotypes as a practical strategy to mediate implicit national stereotypes. Such implicit stereotypes may have been formed without intention or awareness, but nonetheless influence individual judgment and decision as indicated in the existing research on stereotypes focused on race and gender (Kwakami, Dovidio, Moll, Hermsen, & Russin, 2000).

According to social psychologists, there are two strategies to moderate automatic stereotypes: enhancing stereotype suppression and promoting counter-stereotypes. The former is an attempt to inhibit a stereotype, although it does not contribute to reducing automatic stereotypes. The latter promotes counter-stereotype associations in order to reduce automatic stereotypes activated implicitly. Gawronski and others (2007) noted that "simply negating a stereotype without simultaneously activating the counter-stereotype is ineffective in reducing automatic stereotyping" (p. 376).

Counter-stereotypes are not highly accessible and are unlikely to be implicitly activated to influence judgment and behavior in the same way as stereotypes. However, social psychologists have paid attention to the possibility that the representation of stereotypes may also include information about counter-stereotypes in that priming a stereotype not only facilitates access to stereotype-consistent attributes but also inhibits access to stereotype-inconsistent attributes. In this light, the present study employed an experimental design to

examine implicit stereotypes without participants' awareness. Most studies of counter-stereotypes have focused on gender, overweight people, and race—in particular African Americans—because those stereotypes tend to be prevalent and strong enough to be automatically activated.

To apply implicit stereotypes to national stereotypes, China is the country of interest in this study considering the fact that the Asian economic crisis of the late 1990s facilitated an increased role for public relations (Taylor & Kent, 1999), as well as China's recent prominence in the international market. China has the 2<sup>nd</sup> largest economy only behind the U.S. It has been noted that “within the next 25 years, China will overtake the U.S. as the world's largest economy and many of the top 15 economies will be from today's developing countries” (“China lets,” 2005). Indeed, China has emerged as a lucrative market for multinational corporations, and most consumers, including Americans and Koreans, are exposed to products made in China, such as daily use products like shoes and clothing, to high tech products such as computers and space technology.

Recently the Chinese government and its corporations have struggled with unfavorable national images. Negative images that may impact people's impression of all goods “Made in China” were examined in the literature review. Due to the prevalence of these images, the need for image restoration management has been an extremely demanding task for public relations practitioners. The Chinese governments' efforts to improve its national image has manifested in China hosting sports events, such as the 2008 Beijing Olympics and the 2010 Guangzhou Asian Games, as well as major international conferences, such as UN summit meetings and the 2010 Shanghai World Expo (Hogg, 2010).

## **Purpose of the Study**

The researcher explored the influence of national counter-stereotype cues presented in media messages on people's evaluations of the Chinese national image associated with products and services. This study was conducted under the assumption that people tend to be influenced by unfavorable images of a certain country that are repeatedly presented in the news media, and that the images may impact their evaluations of that country. The concerns were generated from the following question: Since national stereotypes, which an individual may be unaware of, influence judgment and decision making associated with a nation's performances, what strategy is best to counteract a country's unfavorable stereotypes? This study is relevant in that most public relations and marketing practices lean toward emphasizing favorable images.

The purpose of the dissertation is to explore how the images people hold of certain countries interplay with images constructed in persuasive communication strategies, such as those constructed in public relations and marketing. This study aims to propose an alternative to traditional public relations effects for negating existing stereotypes about countries. Instead, it proposes the practical application of more proactive counter-stereotypes to better manage a country's image. The ultimate goal of this study is to explore its application to the fields of strategic communication of public relations rather than to reveal the priming process.

The main purpose of the study is five-fold. The first objective of this study is to examine if national stereotypes are strong enough to be automatically activated and resist counter-stereotyping.

Second, the study explores if the priming counter-stereotype strategy that social psychologists have suggested is applicable to moderating negative stereotypes about countries.

The third purpose is to reexamine the country-of-origin (COO) effects on news readers'

attitudes toward foreign corporations and products.

The fourth purpose is to examine if the participants' presuppositions, such as ethnocentrism and patriotism, reliance on online news media in terms of news and information about foreign countries, and how this influences national stereotypes about China and Chinese corporations' performances and their products. For example, it has been determined whether or not participants highly exposed to news media in terms of news about foreign countries are likely to respond faster when asked about their evaluation of a certain foreign country, and if their perceptions of the nation's image correspond to news media presentations about the foreign country and its people.

The fifth purpose of this study is to review existing research that has examined China's national image in the United States and South Korea. This portion of the study shows the attributes that are typical of China's images, as well as the various efforts the Chinese government and corporations have made to improve China's national image and counteract unfavorable images associated with the "Made in China" label.

### **Significance of the Study**

Overall, this study is expected to contribute to research on applying national stereotypes to implicit stereotypes, and whether or not promoting counter-stereotypes as a national image management strategy is useful in public relations practices.

This study is one of few to explore the feasibility of implicit stereotypes to national stereotypes utilizing an experiment and an online survey. This study also examines the potentiality of applying counter-stereotypes to national image management as a more effective strategy than hiding negative stereotypes.

For its theoretical framework, this study is grounded in the social construction view under



the assumption that a nation's image is framed in mass media, and that this frame contributes to priming the public's image of the country.

The comparative aspect of this study allows for an examination of the possible differences in national stereotypes, evaluation of country image-associated performances, and comparison of the influence of ethnocentrism and patriotism on national stereotypes and attitudes between the U.S. and South Korean college students.

Finally, the study is expected to suggest that practitioners of international public relations, advertising, and marketing utilize counter-stereotypes as a more proactive strategy when presenting a country's image in practice.

## **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter examines a wide range of literature related to national image. It is broadly organized into four parts. The first section on image discusses the concepts of image, national image, and national stereotypes and the impact of national image in marketing, public relations, and international relations practices. The first section then discusses marketing research on country-of-origin (COO) effects.

The second section presents a media-based model of image formation for a country not within the consumers' direct experience. In other words, the discussion is based on "framing" with an emphasis on the crucial role of news media in reinforcing the images of a foreign country. The focus is on China and its people, as presented in both the U.S. and South Korean media. It discusses the public's views toward China and Chinese people reflected in public opinions as well as some factors that influence the perceptions, such as the "Made in China" crisis. It also reviews public relations efforts to manage country images and practices, such as hosting international events and branding a national image, which developing countries such as China practice.

The third section summarizes research about priming stereotypes because all public relations and marketing efforts have the expectation that their campaigns have an impact. The basic goal in many international communications plans is to improve the national image that foreign governments and targeted publics hold of the sponsoring country. This section will also review and analyze applicable research on counter-stereotypes.

### **National Image and Stereotypes**

The definition of image has received little consensus due to its complexity and ambiguity, though its utility has still spurred scholars to apply the term to various fields including

mass communication, public relations, marketing, and advertising. Many scholars have commonly argued that image does not consist of simple and static pictures, but dynamic social constructions of previous information in the sense that past images are continuously remembered and applied to current situations (Boulding, 1956; Crespi, 1961; O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2000; Papadopoulos, 1993; Winfield & Yoon, 2002). Thus, people tend to interpret image differently according to perceptions accumulated through their individual historical experiences and viewpoints.

This notion is in line with images' subjectivity in that image is defined as "all the accumulated, organized knowledge that the organism has about itself and its world" (Miller, 1970, p. 17) and "subjective perceptions of a person about an object" (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001). Boulding (1956) viewed image as "a definite behavior stereotype," that is based on people's opinions and illusions, mythological descriptions of the past, and imaginative visions of the future rather than on objective facts and knowledge about the object. Marton and Boddewyn (1978) also noted that people's ultimate behaviors are not only based on the image formed in their minds but also are determined by the given image. This characteristic of an image implies that people can construct subjective and symbolic realities that are different from the existing reality (Papadopoulos, 1993). Moreover, it can be inferred that such symbolic reality might be managed or even controlled as in image management practices.

### **National Image**

National image is one of the most dominant themes in international public relations and marketing practice. These days, when foreign affairs are so closely related to efforts to solicit support from foreign governments and publics, the image of a certain nation has become no less important than the political, military, and economic realities that lie behind it.

According to Kunczik (1997), the image of a nation is “the cognitive representation” that an individual holds of a certain country and “what a person believes to be true about a nation and its people” (p. 46). Boulding (1956) defined the image of a nation as a perceptual structure that consists of cognitive, affective, and evaluative components. The conceptualization of national image mirrors cognitive, affective, and normative mechanisms that are utilized in marketing research on COO effects.

Some scholars have emphasized a negative side to national image by equating it to stereotypes and bias, which function as factors in people’s perceptions of a certain country (Kunczik, 1997; O’Shaughnessy & O’Shaughnessy, 2000; Zelier, Park, & Gudelunas, 2002). It is noted that although most stereotypes are imprecise because they are based on routine and simple judgments, people have a tendency to hold them with great conviction (Lippmann, 1929). The image of developing countries is often considered an example of such negative national images.

In this vein, national image can be defined as a composite perception that encompasses comprehending cognitive, affective, and evaluative factors that an individual has about other countries. National image is also variable depending on the extent of experience and information an individual has about a country. For a country with which an individual has direct experience, the country’s image tends to be either altered or reinforced according to that direct experience.

The present study pays attention to national stereotypes, which influence negative national images, because that the main task of international practitioners working for developing countries in particular is to manage national image. In other words, the focus of their task is on dissociating the country from and weakening negative stereotypes that influence not only foreign consumers’ perceptions and behaviors but also international relations between nations (Boulding, 1959).

## **National Stereotypes**

A stereotype, one of implicit attitudes, refers to the association of specific traits, roles, and characteristics with a person or a group based on group membership. Lippmann (1929) characterized stereotypes as setting up “a very partial and inadequate way of representing the world” (p. 72). Stereotypes represent individuals’ cognitive associations and expectations about societal groups, such as foreign countries, ethnic groups, age groups, and so forth (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Moreover, stereotypes are usually defined by outside observers as “beliefs about the characteristics, attributes, and behaviors of certain groups” (Hilton & von Hippel, 1996, p. 240). Also, stereotypical beliefs tend to be magnified and distorted by prejudicial attitudes of out-group members (Allport, 1965).

Stereotyping is often described as one of the most fundamental psychological process that determines the course of social relations in the sense that people tend to employ stereotypes when judging other groups because stereotyping a certain group reduces the complexity of the judgment by facilitating and accelerating information processing (Diehl & Jonas, 1991). In this way, stereotypes lead people to simplify, justify, and give meaning to social reality (Brewer, 1988; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990).

Mass media supplies its consumers with abundant stereotypes. Common stereotypes of society are mirrored consciously or unconsciously in media messages, such as in news messages, advertisements, and movies. Likewise, stereotypes influence the interpretation of perceived messages and color the meaning of behaviors of peoples known to belong to a certain social group. For example, Berelson and Salter (1946) demonstrated different presentations between the majority and minority of Americans, which reflect stereotypes of race. In terms of media effect on children, children watching TV tend to be more prone to use stereotypes of nationality

(Himmelweit, Oppenheim, & Vince, 1958) and sex roles (Durkin, 1984). The stereotypes, such as seniors are “weak,” and women are “dependent,” tend to be used as the attributes that most elders and females allegedly share. Social psychologists who have delved into how stereotypes function in the processing of social information have found how people incorporate inconsistent information regarding a certain group attributes into their existing stereotypes and how the accessibility of certain stereotypical attributes may affect social judgment.

National stereotypes are qualities perceived to be associated with a nation’s people (Schneider, 2005). National stereotypes have long been popular themes in the field of social psychology (Madon et al, 2001; Peabody, 1985; Koomen & Bähler, 1994). In particular, a large-scale study by Peabody (1985) found that people with different nationalities commonly represent other nations. Other studies have questioned the interaction between observers and targets in the sense that stereotypes might be determined by the nature of the contact between groups involved (Stephan & Rosenfield, 1982). It is highly likely that the relationships between countries that have had a history of warfare, such as Japan and South Korea, or a form of cooperation, such as China and the United States, strongly influence the content of the stereotypes their publics hold of each other.

### **Application of National Image/Stereotypes in Public Relations and Marketing**

In our globalized era, with the rising importance of foreign publics and consumers, image management in the fields of public relations and marketing has steadily increased. In particular, the main task of public relations professionals, who have been called “image-makers” and “spin doctors” as Hallahan (1999) cited (p. 205), is to manage or frame issues and images associated with their organization to meet the needs of the organization. Framing implicitly plays an integral role in public relations by directing attention to the neglect of certain trends, issues, or

publics. Thus, public relations can be defined as the process of establishing common frames of reference about topics or issues of mutual concern. As Sallot and Johnson (2006) argued, public relations practitioners “set, frame, and build” the agenda for the news media and the public (p. 152).

In terms of foreign affairs beyond the public’s experience, media framing of foreign news influences the public’s perception of other countries. For example, Graber (1988) stated that journalists construct reality for their audiences “particularly when the story concerns unfamiliar matters and there is no way to test its accuracy” (p. 147). Thus, the overseas practitioners need to recognize that the image various media project affects not only foreign publics’ perception and consumers’ purchases but also, as Kunczik (2003) noted, the mass media “have broken into the traditionally exclusive sphere of diplomacy and have themselves become an instrument of international conciliation and mediation of international information” (p. 407).

Studies on the images of developing countries in the U.S. news media show a possible relationship between the image in news media and foreign policy (Crawford, 1996; Malek, 1997; Soroka, 2003). Saxer (1993) emphasized the commonalities between public relations practices and politics in that both develop and use symbols and images, relying heavily on mass media. Signitzer and Coomb (1992) showed that practitioners in the field of diplomacy and public relations pursue the same objective, which is to affect public opinion for the benefit of their organizations.

For example, in a study about images of Africa presented in the U.S. media, Crawford (1996) argued that negative portrayals of Africa are intended to “pave the way for benevolent interventions” into Africa’s political and economic affairs (p. 31). Soroka (2003) examined relationships between media content, public opinion, and foreign policy in the United States and

the United Kingdom, and found that mass media play a significant role in directing public attention to foreign affairs. Brewer, Graf, and Willnat (2003) explored news stories linking an issue to a foreign nation and suggested that a particular evaluative implication in frames could shape how audience members judge the nation.

In a comparative study examining news coverage of South Korean and Chinese student demonstrations in the *New York Times* and *Newsweek*, Wang (1995) argued that the two student movements were framed in entirely different ways. The Chinese students were described as idealistic, peaceful, fearless, and brave while the Korean students as violent, rebellious, and even as mobs though they shared a similar cause: the acceleration of democratic reforms (Wang, 1995). Choi's study (2006) also noted that the U.S. newspapers framed North Korea as an "evil, enemy, blackmailer, and poor" country.

In this vein, most national governments have conducted international public relations events to advance their image and possibly influence foreign policy. International public relations practitioners have played a crucial role in foreign affairs by purposefully providing information to the news media and lobbying political organizations such as Congress (Albritton & Manheim, 1985; Chen, 2008; Cutlip, 1987; Zhang & Cameron, 2003). In particular, the Asian economic crisis of the late 1990s facilitated an increased role for public relations (Taylor & Kent, 1999). Amaize and Faber (1983) have noted two motivations in particular for developing nation governments to engage in international advertising: the promotion of goods and services such as travel, tourism, and airlines owned and operated by national governments, and the need to change public opinion about their nation. The two researchers also pointed out that developing nations utilize advertising to change biased or misleading impressions reinforced by Western media and wire services. Kunczik (2003) considered public relations and propaganda to be



synonymous in that nowadays most foreign policy agendas consider the effect of a program on the nation's image.

Albritton and Manheim (1985) documented how Argentina, Indonesia, South Korea, the Philippines, and Turkey hired American public relations consultants, and subsequently their national images in the *New York Times* became more positive and cooperative. Zhang and Cameron's study (2003) showed that the Chinese government's international public relations campaign contributed, although temporarily, to lessening the damaging coverage of China. Thus, for nation-states, public relations is "the planned and continuous distribution of interest-bound information by a state aimed mostly at improving the country's image abroad" (Kunczik, 1997, p. 74). Public relations has expanded into a communication strategy, and its influence has permeated all areas of society in developed countries.

From the viewpoints of marketing, the conceptualization of Country of origin (COO) effects has become more diverse, ranging from the extent to which the place of manufacture influences product evaluations (Gurhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 2000) to intangible forms such as consumers' biases toward imported products (Wang & Lamb, 1983). However, Chattalas, Kramer, and Takada (2008) pointed out that as global outsourcing and manufacturing has increased, identifying a product's specific COO is becoming more difficult. Thus, the present study defines COO simply as information that refers to the phrase "Made in" and the country name (Zhang, 1996; Amine, Chao, & Arnold, 2005).

Country of origin links a product to an associative network of national stereotypes with cognitive, affective, and normative implications (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). In this light, Chattalas, Kramer, and Takada (2008) examined the relationship between national stereotypes and country of origin (COO). For the cognitive process, COO is "a

heuristic” in that it refers to a product’s quality based on consumer evaluations of the products. As an affective process, COO is a stereotype-driven attribute that links the product to positive and/or negative emotional associations with a certain nation (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). Also, as a normative process, consumers tend to hold socially desirable behavior norms linked to COO cues. The COO cues lead consumers to not only identify objective information about a certain manufacturer country but also to activate subjective impressions of the country they might have already held.

### **Implicit Stereotypes in Mental Imagery**

Priming is the activation of knowledge stored in memory following exposure to a stimulus. Social psychologists’ attention to the “networks models” first used to explain the priming effect has shifted to the “mental models” in order to more adequately explain the priming phenomena. The mental models are “the cognitive representations of situations in real or imagery worlds, the entities found in the situation, the interrelationships between the various entities and the situation, and events that occur in that situation” (Roskos-Ewoldsen, D., Roskos-Ewoldsen, B., & Carpentier, 2008, p. 110).

Mental imagery grounded on the mental model is defined as “the conscious and intentional act of creating a mental representation of a person, object, or event by seeing it with the mind’s eye” (Blair et al., 2001, p. 828). For example, when people are informed of an airplane crash happening at the host country during worldwide sporting events, such as the Olympics, people tend to access all recent information of accidents and potential causes and consequences as well as to retrieve related knowledge stored. Many characteristics of mental imagery are common in a real experience, including “concrete details, causal sequences, logical constraints, concomitant emotional arousal, and similar neurological characteristics” (Blair et al.,

2001, p. 828). Of interest is that mental imagery considers stereotypes malleable and manageable. The potentials to moderate implicit stereotypes challenge traditional models of stereotypes, such as the associate network models, which regard stereotypes as stable and long-term cognitive structures that cannot be easily altered (Bargh, 1999). Mental imagery implies that implicit stereotypes can alter judgment and behavior.

Social psychologists have long been interested in the effects of stereotypes on information processing, which is distinguished between automatic (mostly unconscious and involuntary) and controlled (mostly conscious and voluntary) processes (Posner & Snyder, 1975; Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977; Shiffrin & Schneider, 1977). Automatic processes involve the unintentional or spontaneous activation of some well-learned set of associations, such as stereotypes and prejudices, which have been developed through repeated activations in one's memory. They do not require conscious effort and appear to be initiated by the presence of stimulus cues in a certain situation (Shiffrin & Dumais, 1981).

Recent research on stereotypes in social psychology has focused on automatic activation, which is considered inevitable, and its influence nearly impossible to avoid. Stereotype is automatically activated when the appropriate situational cues are present (Blair & Banaji, 1996; Brewer, 1988; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). People also tend to hesitate to overtly admit the negative stereotypes to which they subscribe and are often even unaware of the underlying stereotypes they hold. Social psychologists have questioned about reliability of the respondents' reports and agreed that an automatically activated attitude is a more reasonable predictor of attitudes and behaviors than the explicitly reported (Bessenoff & Sherman, 2000; Devine, 1989; Dovidio, Kawakami, Johnson, C., Johnson, B., & Howard, 1997; Fazio, Jackson, Dunton, & Williams, 1995). For example, Gaertner and McLaughlin (1983) found that respondents tend to identify

attributes faster when given consistent information with the existing stereotype. Dovidio and others (1997) noted that automatic evaluations are more feasible to measure participants' attitudes toward an African- American interaction partner.

To establish a connection between implicit memory and the role it plays in the stereotyping effect, Banaji, Hardin, and Rothman (1993) employed the term "implicit" from recent research on memory in which the term describes effects attributed to unreportable residues from prior experiences. Greenwald and Banaji (1995) defined implicit attitudes as "introspectively unidentified (or inaccurately identified) traces of past experience that mediate favorable or unfavorable feeling, thought, or action toward social objects" (p. 8). The concern of implicit stereotypes has driven scholars to explore the possibility that a perceiver who is motivated to avoid stereotyping may moderate the activation of implicit stereotypes (Blair & Banaji, 1996; Blair, Ma, & Lenton, 2001). Influencing mental imagery is considered one answer to this predicament as a strategy to moderate implicit stereotypes in that "past experiences with members of particular social groups might leave traces that may affect later reactions to similar others, perhaps without the perceiver being aware of the influence or even being able to retrieve the earlier experiences as explicit memories" (Smith & Branscombe, 1988, p. 502).

Stereotypes, though subliminally activated, could affect judgments (Devine, 1989). Stereotyping "begins with the activation of implicit stereotypes and ends with judgment and behavior" (Blair et al., 2001, p. 828). For the stereotyping process to be completed, the activated stereotypic information must be used to be applied in judgment (Blair & Banaji, 1996).

To measure the implicit stereotypes, social psychologists have used various measurement techniques including the implicit association test (IAT) and reaction times (RTs). The former has been utilized in the current research on implicit stereotypes by assessing the strength of an

association between a target concept and an attribute dimension. The reaction times (RTs) gauge up to milliseconds on the assumption that stereotypically related concepts tend to automatically facilitate responses to a greater level than those inconsistent with stereotypes (Banaji & Hardin, 1996; Bargh, Chaiken, Govender, & Pratto, 1992; Blair & Banaji, 1996; Fazio, Sanbonmatsu, Powell, & Kardes, 1986; Gaertner & McLaughlin, 1983; Neely, 1991).

The studies have commonly identified the time it takes people to react to certain attributes as “a measure of the strength with which the concepts are semantically associated, with faster reaction times to the target indicating greater strength of association between attributes and the targeted” (Blair & Banaji, 1996, p. 1143). For example, in a study of Dovidio, Evans and Tyler (1986), the activation of race stereotypes was shown via participants’ faster responses to attributes consistent (e.g., White-ambitious) than to attributes inconsistent with the existing stereotypes, in other words, counter-stereotypes (e.g., White-musical).

### **Counter-stereotypes**

A counter-stereotype, in other words, anti-stereotype, is the reverse of an existing stereotype of an individual and social group. The concern about counter-stereotypes has been facilitated by an awareness that highlighting positive aspects of a stereotype tends to reify and elicit the negative implications of the stereotype. As Wegner (1994) described, “the very attempt to control prejudice may initiate ironic automatic processes that promote prejudice” (p. 47). Thus, counter-stereotypes include elements that directly contradict or disconfirm the stereotype of an individual or social group (Montgomery, 1989; Power, Murphy, & Coover, 1996; Seiter, 1986).

In this light, researchers have attempted to moderate the automatic activation of negative attitudes toward stigmatized social groups by increasing the accessibility of counter-stereotypes.

Most studies of counter-stereotypes have focused on gender, overweight people and race—in particular African Americans—because those stereotypes are strong enough to be automatically activated (Blair et al., 2001; Bodenhausen, Schwarz, Bless, & Wanke, 1995).

Counter-stereotypes are not highly accessible and are unlikely to be implicitly activated to influence judgment and behavior in the same way as stereotypes. However, social psychologists have paid attention to the possibility that the representation of stereotypes may also include information about counter-stereotypes. In other words, priming a stereotype not only facilitates access to stereotype-consistent traits but also inhibits access to stereotype-inconsistent traits (Blair et al., 2001; Dijksterhuis & van Knippenberg, 1995). Some media effects scholars have noted that counter-stereotypical media examples might influence subsequent judgments by preventing the use of stereotypes and increasing the accessibility of counter-stereotypical cognitive linkages (Hewstone, Hopkins, & Routh, 1994; Power et al., 1996; Richards & Hewstone, 2001). Scherer (1970-71) demonstrated that people tend to be affected by exposure to counter-stereotypical characters depicted in TV movies though it might be short-term change. Dasgupta and Greenwald (2001) demonstrated that implicit expression of attitudes toward a stigmatized group such as African Americans and the elderly can be moderated by repeated exposure to counter-stereotypes. There are a few theories of supporting the effect of counter-stereotype: Exemplification theory, Drench theory, and Subgrouping and Subtyping theory.

Using exemplification theory, Zillmann (2002) assumes that counter-stereotypical exemplars might be used to break down negative stereotypes and schemas by providing concrete examples that do not fit the stereotype. Greenberg's (1988) drench theory indicated that noteworthy media examples might weaken stereotypes by taking an example from the *Cosby Show* to show how white peoples' stereotypes about black peoples can be overridden by

mediated counter-stereotypical examples.

Subtyping and subgrouping theories, based on the awareness that stereotypes have been frequently conceptualized as beliefs or expectations associated with categories (Allport, 1965), have been applied to explain the effect of presenting counter-stereotypical media examples. A common assumption of the theories is that positive portrayals might work to weaken support for negative stereotypes. According to Subtyping theory, subtyping occurs when a group of members disconfirm a stereotype in such an extreme way that the member becomes disparate from the group, and the group's stereotype persists (Hewstone, Macrae, Griffiths, Milne, & Brown, 1994; Johnston & Hewstone, 1990). As a result, the example case can be viewed as unrepresentative of the rest of the group and as an "exception to the rule" (Richard & Hewstone, 2001, p. 53). The exception tends to insulate the stereotype instead of breaking the stereotype. For example, the studies pointed out that the rare exemplifications of black people's characters depicted in the *Cosby Show* could be considered exceptions who do not reflect the typical blacks (Gray, 1989; Jhally & Lewis, 1998).

Subgrouping takes place when group members reveal a key characteristic different from stereotypes. For example, Covert and Dixon's (2008) study examined the effect of counter-stereotypical portrayals in mainstream women's magazines and found that exposure to articles illustrating women of color in professional roles can influence readers. In particular, white readers tend to consider women of color in a more favorable way than other minorities do. The result showed that stereotypes might be weakened if subgroups demonstrate the variability of a certain group member that is different from the existing stereotypes (Richard & Hewstone, 2001). Kawakami and others (2000) also noted that thinking about stereotyped groups or individuals in counter-stereotypical terms is more effective in reducing unfavorable stereotyping

than attempts to use negative existing stereotypes.

These theories and assumptions lead practitioners to collaborate two strategies to control automatically activated stereotypes (Bessenoff, & Sherman, 2000; Blair, 2002), i.e., through stereotype suppression and the promotion of counter-stereotypes (Blair & Banaji, 1996). Some studies illustrated that suppressing stereotype might lead people to replace stereotypical items that spring to mind with the opposite construct or the antonym of the stereotypic item (Wegner, Schneider, Carter, & White, 1987; Macrae, Milne, & Bodenhausen, 1994). Moreover, Galinsky and Moskowitz's study (2006) found that attempts to control stereotypes by suppression contribute to simultaneous accessibility of the stereotype and the counter-stereotype.

The effects of media messages, which prime stereotypes, have long been of interest to media researchers. Research in the stereotype domain has indicated that both fictional and nonfictional media can prime stereotypes, and that these primed stereotypes affect how people are later perceived (Devine, 1989; Greenberg & Pyszczynski, 1986; Hansen & Hansen, 1988; Iyenger & Kinder, 1987; McKenzie-Mohr & Zanna, 1990). Iyenger and Kinder (1987) illustrated that the news media tend to lend viewers' attention to certain issues while overlooking others and thereby set the standards by which people judge political candidates. Pechmann (2001) examined the priming effect in public health campaigns and developed priming model in terms of stereotypes. The model maintains that the media can affect people's behaviors by priming pre-existing stereotypes, suggesting that the activation of negative stereotypes in turn leads to impression management behaviors. Studies have noted that people tend to go beyond the message given explicitly in the text and infer all manner of traits related to issues as discussed in the mental imagery model (Bruner, 1957). The repetitive and long-standing media presentation, such as "typecasting" and "stock characters" in fictional media, contributes to creating a



stereotype and reinforcing existing stereotypes (Power et al., 1996, p. 41). This priming of stereotypes relies heavily on the cognitive accessibility of the stereotype.

On the other hand, scholars have paid attention to implications that counter-stereotypical information might not have the same potential as a stereotypic representation to produce shifts in judgment. In other words, it may backfire and have a negative effect because it might call up pre-existing stereotypes from people's minds and cannot benefit from established mental representations (Bargh, Lombard, & Higgins, 1988; Higgins & Brendl, 1995; Power et al., 1996).

### **National Image and Stereotypes of China**

The process of creating the national images relies on various factors, such as a nation's successful foreign policy, economic development, reputation of leaders, and so forth. On the other hand, there is little dispute that mass media play a key role in shaping pictures of the world by setting the agenda and framing the news (Brewer et al., 2003; Graber, 1988; Kunczik, 1997; McCombs, 1994; Wu, 2006).

Communication scholars have noted that dominant images in news about developing countries are unfavorable and negative focusing on destructive themes, such as political conflicts and disasters (Beaudoin & Thorson, 2001b; Crawford, 1996; Dressor & Berain, 1998; Giffard, 1984; Luther, 2002; McCracken, 1987; Montgomery, 1988; Riffe & Shaw, 1982; Wu, 2006; Zaharopoulos, 1989; Zelizer, Park, & Gudelunas, 2002). For example, studies concerned with news coverage of Africa indicated that American journals tend to depict Africans as either unhappy, helpless people who desire benevolent assistance from the United States, or as perpetrators of violence (Beaudoin & Thorson, 2001b; Crawford, 1996; Pratt, 1980). Also, for nations with a history of war, the media might project similarly negative images (Deluca & Paraschos, 1990; Luther, 2002). Political cartoons, for instance, are an area in which distortion

can be presented through the simplification or exaggeration that cartoonists use to represent their political attitudes. Windfield and Yoon (2002) noted that American editorial cartoons used historical references to previous wars such as the Korean War in their visual presentations of contemporary Asian conflict, including the struggle between communism and democracy, thus creating stereotypes.

Moreover, descriptions of Africa and Africans reflect the desire of the United States to look away from the disasters and “to facilitate the marginalization” of Africa (Crawford, 1996, p. 31). This argument implies that the tone of news coverage reflects official governmental foreign policy. As such image politics is regarded as central to the conduct of international relations (Malek, 1997; Soroka, 2003). Madon and others (2001) noted that most studies on national stereotype have concerned European-American’s stereotypes about other ethnic groups while little is known about stereotypes of them endorsed by other groups. Furthermore, most studies of the national image in news media have also focused on developing countries rather than developed countries such as Japan and Germany.

China has undertaken and maintained a significant revolution for the last 30 years. Its rapid economic progress has contributed to remarkable changes in the cultural and political sphere. However, its image did not keep up with the shifts since the Chinese government focused on economic development in the 1980s. China’s images have on the whole been overwhelmingly negative and unfavorable by evoking “distrust,” “suspicion,” “a dubious blend of outdated ideas, fantastic hopes, and ineradicable prejudices and phobias” (Goryaina, 2009, p. 29). Recent and continuous recalls of Chinese made products have severely damaged China’s image as the world’s factory, which has manufactured most goods for transnational corporations. Thereby, the Made-in-China label has had negative implications for foreign consumers who question the

product's quality and safety.

### **Crisis on “Made- in-China”**

Though nearly half of all finished industrial goods in the world come out of China, continuous recalls of Made-in-China products, such as tainted pet food, toothpastes, and toys, have promoted worldwide consumers to be alert to the label despite its advantages of competitive pricing. The crises triggered by a 2006 pet food recall in the United States led to successive recalls in Europe and South Africa (Coghlan, 2007; Pejijuan, Ting, & Pang, 2009). The US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) eventually warned about the need for vigilant monitoring of imported products from China including drugs and pet foods (“F.D.A. in crisis,” 2008). The suspicion of Made-in-China labels has tremendously damaged of global corporations' reputations, such as those of P&G (Procter & Gamble) and Mattel, which have outsourced their manufacture to China.

In terms of the pet food crisis, Melamine, which causes kidney failure and death of pets, was found in pet food. These recalled pet foods triggered U.S. consumers' fears of tainted Chinese goods (Coghlan, 2007). P&G's shares in the dry-food business have declined since the recall of its products made in China and Colgate-brand toothpaste made in China has also been accused of containing a poisonous ingredient used in antifreeze (Mullan & Neff, 2007). Many toy products made in China also faced recalls. For example, Mattel, one of biggest toy companies, recalled 19 million made-in-China toys because of their potentially hazardous magnets and lead paint (“Mattel issues,” 2007). Importing organic foods from China has also been considered to carry an enormous environmental footprint, and thus consumers are warned to look beyond the organic label of Made-in-China products (“Fake organic food,” 2010).

A series of product recalls and bans of a wide range of Made-in-China products have

resulted in consumer distrust of the reliability and safety of the country's products (Coghlan, 2007). According to a Gallup Panel survey (2007), American consumers tend to pay more attention to a product's country-of-origin and are willing to pay higher prices for domestic products. They became deeply suspicious of Chinese-made products following a string of recalls of potentially unsafe products made in China and considered close to half of imported and manufactured products from China to violate U.S. health and safety standards (Jones, 2007; Saad, 2007).

On the other hand, despite the "Made in China" crises, multinational corporations tend to choose to outsource their production to low-cost labor countries such as China so as to become more competitive in the market. Marketers and retailers have also continued to source products from China. Instead of giving up the benefits from low production, they make efforts to strengthen safety checks and emphasize more strict safety operations (Mullan & Neff, 2007). China has faced the challenges of developing better media strategies and strong public relations campaigns to eliminate its negative national image (Choong, 2009). In this light, public relations practices for China need to pay attention to more effective of national image management rather than simply presenting and emphasizing only favorable images and overlooking negative ones.

### **Image of China/Chinese People in the U.S. News Media and Public Opinions**

The mass media have fostered "a poor China's national image" by relying on stereotypes that are familiar to domestic publics (Jianping, 2008, p. 4). Most studies on the national image of China presented in the western news media including the U.S. indicated that the dominant image of China is negative (Liss, 2003; Luo, 2009; Peng, 2004), although some noted that the Chinese government's public relations efforts hosting international sporting events and conferences is slowly bettering its national image.

For example, Luo (2009) pointed out that after the formal opening of the Olympic Games, western reports' "original prejudices" against China changed into a relatively objective attitude (Luo, 2009, p. 112). On the other hand, out of news stories presented in the U.S. news media during the 2008 Beijing Olympics, most spotlighted was a story covering Lin, a nine year old girl, who was lip-synching in it's opening ceremony to the sound of another girl who was not seen. The news stories presented negative images with statements, such as "deception," "no respect for honesty," "fake," and "unethical," projected onto China's image (Bristow, 2008; "Olympic child," 2008; Vaues, 2008).

Peng (2004) divided the U.S. news coverage of China into four periods: the Red China (1949-1979) when ideological anti-communist biases dominated; the Green China (1979-1992) when the détente between the two countries resulting from the establishment of formal diplomatic relations contributed to more objective and favorable news coverage of China; the Dark China (1989-1992) when the massacre in Tiananmen Square damaged China's image; and the Grey China (1992 to present) when China's rapid economic growth has resulted in the U.S. media's viewpoints becoming more complicated and mixed, although negative images and stereotypes remain dominant in terms of the socio-political evolution of China.

Liss's study (2003) analyzed articles about China in four U.S. daily newspapers over a three-year period from 2000 to 2002 and found six recurring themes in the negative images of China. These include great power rivalry with the United States; inevitable conflict over the reunification of Taiwan; breakdown of domestic law and order; human rights abuses; a repressive political system; widespread social unrest; and corruption within the political system. Within the article, the researcher also found positive tones focusing on the rising promise of the Chinese market and its economic growth and reform, and more recently diplomatic cooperation in the

fight against terrorism. The study noted on the whole that negative images of China presented in the newspapers overwhelmed the positive. But the study indicated that there was a significant image change of China implying potential partnership with China rather than a competitive relationship in the future.

Peng (2004) examined the coverage of China in two mainstream newspapers between 1992 and 2001 and noted that the overall tone remained unfavorable across time. This was especially true in political and ideological frames, which are constantly salient in the news coverage, though the number of news stories about China significantly increased and the number of negative reports slightly declined.

Wu (2006) conducted a comparative study of the news coverage on HIV/AIDS in China by the Xinhua News Agency of China and the Associated Press of the United States, and identified favorable and pro-government frame in the news stories of Xinhua but an unfavorable and stable anti-government frame in the AP's stories. For example, the AP described the Chinese government and its officials as incredible, dishonest, and inefficient in addressing the AIDS problem in China. The study argued that "anti-communism ideology" is reflected in the AP's discourses (p. 270).

A 2011 Project for Excellence in Journalism (PEJ) for the Pew Research Center analyzed news coverage of China since 1997. The project revealed that the two biggest stories involving China that are covered by the U.S. media are news dealing with imported products (21%), including tainted pet food and lead paint in children's toys, and the May 2008 earthquake (14%), which occurred in a China's Sichuan Province and caused 70,000 deaths and injured 400,000. PEJ noted that the issues of trade and business seem to be overshadowed by the news covering destructive issues ("How the U.S. Media cover," 2011).

The U.S. public's negative images toward China have been revealed in its public opinions, for example those elicited by Gallup. Figure 1 shows the change of Americans' image of China from 1980 and 2010, with some fluctuation over time ("China," 2010).

*Next, I'd like your overall opinion of some foreign countries. First, is your overall opinion of China very favorable, mostly favorable, mostly unfavorable, or very unfavorable?*

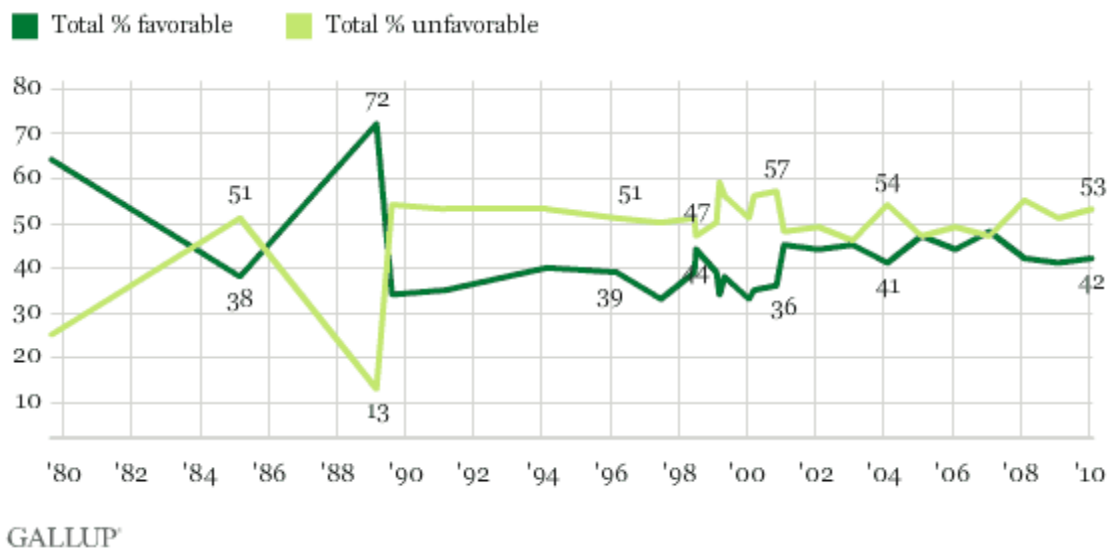


Figure1. Change of Americans' image of China in 1980 to 2010  
Source: Gallup (<http://www.gallup.com/poll/1627/China.aspx>)

According to Gallup, Nixon's historic visit to China in 1972 and the death of Mao in 1976 contributed to Americans' more positive opinions. By the 1980s, the period known as the Second Revolution during which China undertook social and economic reforms, the U.S. public's views toward China had lent to the positive. For example, by 1985 during Ronald Reagan's administration, American opinion had dropped to 38% favorable and 51% unfavorable (Moore, 2001). In 1987, over 65% of the U.S. public showed a favorable opinion of China (Newport, 1999). Also, following President George H. W. Bush's visit to China, American

opinion bound up to its most positive ratio over the entire period from 1979 through 2001-72% favorable to just 13% unfavorable.

However, Americans had a more negative image of China than any time since Tiananmen Square in mid-1989. Favorable opinions of China fell from 72% in February to 34% in August, and unfavorable opinions rose concomitantly, from 13% in February to 54% in August. Also, a majority of the U.S. public considered the emergence of China as a world power to represent a critical threat to the United States. Over the ten years from 1989 to 1999 American attitudes had tended to remain more unfavorable than favorable. The graph showed that overall valence of China's image has lent toward unfavorable since 1989.

China's favorability rating fluctuated over the next several years, and achieved an intermediate high point after President Bill Clinton's 1998 visit to the country, but still more people's image of China was unfavorable (47%) than favorable (44%). The Gallup noted that it was undertaken at the time Republican leaders in the Senate had initiated an investigation into possible illegal Chinese activities in the United States. This was cited as a main reason Clinton's visit might not have had a positive impact on American publics' opinions.

More recent polls about perceptions of China showed changes in American publics' awareness of China. In 2009, 39% of 1,022 and in 2008, 40% of 4,383 replied that China becomes the world's leading economic power but its education and healthcare systems are of poorer quality (Brown & Wu, 2009; Saad, 2009). In 2000 65 % of respondents thought of the United States as the leading economic power and only 10% pointed to China (Saad, 2008).

A review of past Gallup Polls about China suggested that the U.S. public has mixed positive and negative views of China in that a fifth of Americans consider China to be an "enemy" of the United States while about 30% perceive it as friendly and 50% have little idea



how to characterize relations between the two countries. By contrast the polls in 2000 and 2006 concerning the relationship between the two countries illustrates that in 2000 China was perceived as “an ally” while 4% of 1,024 American respondents as “close ally” and 24% as “friendly but an ally.” In 2006, 12% of 1,003 respondents thought of China as “close ally” and 48% as “friendly” (US relations with China, 2006). Moore (2001) pointed out that the American public had positive views of increased trade with China but at the same time they expressed negative views concerning issues of human rights in China. Also, Americans have recently considered that what happens in China is crucially important to the U.S. (Newport, 2011). This implies that the importance of China from the Americans’ views likely reflects continuing awareness of the economic influence of China on the U.S. and world economy at large.

### **Image of China/Chinese People in the South Korean News Media**

The image of China that South Korean people hold has been grounded in a long historical relationship along with North Korea and Japan. As China has emerged as a new economic power, most Koreans have been aware of the impact that the Chinese market has had on Korea’s future economy, as well as the Chinese government’s crucial role in inter-Korean relations. The Koreans’ image of Chinese people on the whole is unfavorable because of the country’s involvement in negative issues, such as the recent issues of defective foods such as dumplings and cooking oil that Chinese corporations have distributed. A poll says that 88% of 700 Koreans responded that China’s image became worse due to Chinese students’ involvement in violence, which happened throughout the course of the Olympic torch ceremony (“Korean public,” May 2, 2008). In one news article, Min (2010) noted that “China as a nation tends to be overestimated while Chinese people tend to be underestimated in Korea.”

In particular, the negative news of China and its people covered in the Korean news

media has led Korean publics to mistrust Chinese products and perceive its standard of morality and sense of citizenship as immature (Min, 2010). Park and others (2008) analyzed the mutual images presented in Korean-Chinese history textbooks and noted that Korean high school students' negative national images of China reflect the images presented in TV documentaries and historical drama rather than those learned through school class lessons. Kim's study (2008) showed that Korean college students recognize China as one of the most powerful countries in the future but seem to have unfavorable images about the Chinese. The study indicated that the most influential factors leading to this perception are the internet and other media. Also, H. Kim (2009) applied the concept of social distance to national image, which describes the distance between groups differentiated by class, race, and gender to images of foreigners. The study pointed out that social distance and image presented in TV and film dramas have effects on the actual social distance to which the Korean youth responded.

### **China's Public Relations Efforts**

More recently, the most crucial issue of Chinese development in the future is one of a distorted national image in the sense that maintaining a favorable image should dominate diplomatic efforts (Hiebert, 2005; Wang, 2006). Hiebert (2005) noted that nations' image could be rehabilitated in the media through public relations efforts.

Chinese government has expended efforts to improve its national image. These efforts have included: conducting two extensive public relations campaigns in France in 1999 and the United States in 2000; hosting international sporting games such as the Beijing 1990 and the Guangzhou 2010 Asian games and the Beijing 2008 Olympic Games; and organizing other major international events such as the Shanghai 2010 World Expo and the 2010 Fortune 500 Forum. Such efforts are based on an assumption that hosting worldwide mega events draws international

news media and contributes to elevating the national image as well as gaining economic benefits.

Chen and Culbertson (1992) highlighted China's public relations strategy of hosting the eleventh annual Asian Games, one of the biggest international sporting events, in Beijing to improve its damaged image following the crackdown on the student movement in Tiananmen Square in 1989. The authors argued that such efforts ultimately helped "win back international respect and domestic support" due to the wide coverage in most Chinese media of activities related to this event, which focused on "internal harmony and high morale" (p. 40). A case study of Chinese PR campaigns in the U.S. during the 1990s illustrated that the *wai xuan* campaign, which emphasized a "beautiful, lovable, and peaceful" image of China, was a successful initiative in remedying negative impressions of China and enhancing bilateral relations between the two countries (Chen, 2008, p. 348)

Giffard and Rivenburgh (2000) noted that Western news agencies still tend to emphasize more negative images of developing nations that host UN summit meetings, such as China and Egypt, more so than Western host nations. The researchers argued that even when the same event is hosted in different countries to improve the host country's national image through event-related publicity, there is a difference in news coverage between developed and developing host countries. Zhang and Cameron's study (2003) examined the impact of an international public relations campaign the Chinese government undertook in the United States. The researchers found that, although temporary, the Chinese government's campaign contributed to reducing the negative coverage of China in American newspapers.

Recently, the Chinese government and corporations have struggled with negative images resulting from the "Made in China" crises, human rights abuses, and Beijing's control of Tibet. Thus, the public relations practices have highlighted favorable images, such as harmony and

safety.

For example, the national “Patriotic Health Campaign” was launched so as to improve public hygiene and personal health (“China to advance,” 2005). The national branding campaign, “Brand China,” highlighted a harmonious image of a peacefully-rising nation (Martinsen, 2005; Ramo, 2007). The Chinese government recently produced the commercials along with short films using 50 celebrities, such as Yao Ming and movie director John Woo, in a bid to boost and raise China’s image abroad (Chang, 2010; “China taps celebs,” 2010). The 2008 Beijing Olympics contributed to improving national brand values with its emphasis on harmony, confidence, and tolerance as well as its influence on Chinese civilization (Bu, 2009). Chinese corporations, such as China Dongxiang Group and mining companies, have also tackled China’s unfavorable image by launching a campaign with the slogan “We Are One?” (“China Dongxiang launches,” 2010) and addressing public safety and environmental issues (Horn, 2007).

As reviewed hitherto, most PR practices for national image management seem to focus on transmitting positive and favorable images, while putting negative images out of sight and overlooking the possibility that people’s pre-existing images of China might stimulate or evoke negative images and stereotypes. In this light, the present study pays attention to more proactive management of national image.

### **Research Questions and Hypotheses**

The literature review generated a number of research questions and suggested relevant hypotheses as follows.

An experimental design (referred as Study 1 henceforth) examined the possibility of applying national stereotypes to implicit stereotypes, which are operationalized as differences in the reaction times (RTs) between stereotypes consistent and stereotypes inconsistent with

existing national images, expecting significant differences in RTs. This would indicate the possibility that national stereotypes are automatically activated as other stereotypes, such as race and gender, are in other studies.

RQ1. Are U.S. college students' national stereotypes applicable to implicit stereotypes?

H1.1. There will be a significant difference in the participants' responses to stereotypes consistent and inconsistent with existing national stereotypes.

Also, the study examined possible differences in implicit national stereotypes of the three countries. These days China and Chinese people have been described negatively in U.S. news media and perceived unfavorably by American and Korean publics as revealed in nationwide polls in comparison to the other two countries.

H1.2. There will be significant differences in the participants' implicit stereotypes of China/Chinese people, those of Japan/ Japanese people, and those of Germany/German people.

An online survey (referred to as Study 2 henceforth) focused on possible differences in valences (favorable or unfavorable) of participants' stereotypes of the three countries and its people.

RQ2. Do U.S. college students and S. Korean students' stereotypes of China, Japan, Germany, and their people differ?

Based on the literature review about China's image in U.S. media and polls and S. Korean media, the researcher hypothesized that U.S. and S. Korean students might have a more favorable image of Germany/German people in contrast to their images of China/Chinese people. Also, U.S. students might have a more favorable image of Japan/Japanese people contrary to their image of China/Chinese people.

H2.1. There will be significant differences in valences of the three national stereotypes.

For example, national stereotypes of China and its people would be less favorable than those of Germany/German people and Japan/Japanese people.

Also, considering national stereotypes determined by the interaction between participants' and targeted countries (Stephan & Rosenfield, 1982), participants' images of the three countries might be different in the sense that the relationships between countries that have had a history of warfare, such as Japan and S. Korea, or a form of cooperation, such as China and the United States, strongly influence the content of the stereotypes their publics hold of each other. In this vein, S. Korean students might have a less favorable image of Japan and Japanese people than U.S. students. For example, political issues between the two countries since the Japanese colonial period, such as territorial issues and compensation for S. Korean women drafted to Japan for military sexual slavery during WWII, have been ongoing and unsolved.

H2.2. There will be significant differences in valences of the three national stereotypes in U.S. and S. Korean college students.

The Study 1 and 2 examined that national stereotypes affect people's evaluations of corporations' products and performances, referred to as country of origin (COO) effect, in the three countries by presenting news stories covering new product releases made in the three countries: a story about a Chinese corporation and its product and two stories about Japanese and German corporation and their products. Of the two stories, which presented Chinese corporations' performances and their products, the research counted only a news story which has no counter-stereotypical cues to make a news story covering the Chinese identical to news stories of the two countries.

RQ3. Do country-of-origin (COO) effects of the three countries' corporations and their products differ? And are favorable national images of the three countries related to favorable

evaluations of corporate performance and products made in each country?

H3.1. Significant differences will be found in COO effects of the Chinese, Japanese, and German corporation and its product.

H3.2. Significantly positive correlations will be found in the national stereotypes of the three countries and the COO effects. It means that the more favorable the national stereotypes, the more favorable the evaluations of corporations' performances and products will be.

H3.3. Significant differences in the COO effect on the three countries' products and corporate performances will be found between U.S. and Korean students.

Also, by including counter-stereotypical messages in a news story of a Chinese corporation and its product, the researcher explored whether the strategy to promote counter-stereotypes in order to moderate negative national stereotypes is applicable or if it has a negative effect unlike the research expected.

RQ4. Do COO effects differ according to counter national stereotype cues? And if the effect of counter-national stereotype cues is found, do the COO effects differ between U.S. and Korean students?

H4.1. There will be a significant difference in the COO effect on Chinese corporations with counter national stereotype cues and those without counter national stereotype cues.

H4.2. There will be significant differences in the COO effect of counter national stereotype cues between U.S. and Korean students.

The study examined extra-personal factors, such as ethnocentrism, patriotism, internet use, reliance on news media for foreign news and information, favorite topics of foreign news and information, favorite foreign areas about which participants are most interested, personal experience related to foreign countries, and demographics, all of which might affect national

stereotypes and COO effect.

RQ5. Do the degree of ethnocentrism and patriotism, of interest in foreign news and information, internet use, and reliance on news media for foreign news and information, favorite topics of foreign news and information, favorite foreign areas, personal experience, and demographics influence the national stereotypes and COO effect?

H5.1. There will be significant correlations in the levels of ethnocentrism and patriotism and national stereotype and country-of-origin effect.

H5.2. There will be significant differences in implicit, national stereotype, and country-of-origin effect according to internet use, the level of interest in foreign news and information and reliance on news media for foreign news and information.

H5.3. There will be significant differences in implicit, national stereotype, and country-of-origin effect according to demographics, personal experience, favorite topics of foreign news and information, and favorite foreign areas.

H5.4. There will be significant differences in ethnocentrism and patriotism according to internet use, the level of interest in foreign news and information and reliance on news media for foreign news and information.

H5.5. There will be significant differences in ethnocentrism and patriotism according to demographics, personal experience, favorite topics of foreign news and information, and favorite foreign areas.



## **RESEARCH METHODS**

This study employed two methods to explore the research questions. The use of two research designs is expected to improve the reliability and validity of the findings.

An experimental design aimed to examine the applicability of implicit stereotypes to national stereotypes as seen in other stereotypes such as those of race and gender by using reaction times (RTs) in that there are currently few studies with this concern. The experimental design has four conditions: For implicit national stereotypes, stereotype-consistent vs. stereotype-inconsistent; for national stereotypes, China/Chinese people vs. Japan/Japanese people vs. Germany/German people; and for mental imagery message, counter-stereotype imagery vs. no counter-stereotype imagery. The study expected main effects and interaction effects which will be found across the levels of other independent variables, such as cultural variables including ethnocentrism and patriotism, personal experiences, and demographics.

Also, an online survey was used for the comparative study on national stereotype and the influence of COO between the U.S. and South Koreans. The online survey is most feasible to reach overseas subjects. Also, respondents are more likely to report a range of embarrassing behaviors in self-reported online surveys, presumably because self-administration reduces social desirability concerns.

### **Sampling and Unit of Observation**

The study collected data using convenience sampling, one non-probability sampling method. The unit of observation is individual university students. There are two reasons the study employs the sampling, though it delimits the power of external validity. First, the experimental design is conducted at the Media Effect Lab available on campus of Louisiana State University. Second, to compare findings of two research methods, the sampling for the

online survey should be compatible with the sampling in the experiment design.

Moreover, in terms of the online survey, the study expected a higher response rate from college students with full access to the internet. University students are considered to be an acceptable sample to remain as homogeneous as possible in samples (Cook & Campbell, 1975). On the other hand, Terracciano, and McCrae (2006) argued that the age of the respondents did not influence the outcome, indicating that national stereotype ratings by adults agreed with those of students.

Both studies were submitted to the LSU Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval. For the experimental study, undergraduate students of Louisiana State University, available on Media Effect Lab (MEL), were participants. In terms of the online survey for comparative study, U.S. students studying in state universities of Idaho, Louisiana, and California were participants, and South Korean students studying at universities located in Seoul, Incheon, and Kyungi Provinces were participants.

### **Study Period**

A pilot study of Study 1 was conducted for a week from November 15 to 18, 2010 to check the manipulation of materials and 121 undergraduate students granted extra credit were participants in the study. After refining the experimental design based on results of the pilot study, Study 1 was performed for three weeks from February 14 to March 3, 2011. The time commitment from each subject was around 25-30 minutes. A total of 131 undergraduate students were participants.

For Study 2 using Survey Monkey, the researcher utilized the subject pool which the Media Effect Lab provides and contacted instructors of colleges in the United States and S. Korea to ask the online survey to their students. After receiving the authorizations from the MEL

and the instructors, the researcher sent the link for the questionnaire to the instructors or directly to their students, or placed the link on the spaces allowed. The online survey to S. Korean students was maintained for two weeks from December 9 to 22, 2010. For the U.S. students of state universities at Idaho and California, the survey link was maintained for two weeks from February 14 to 28, 2011 and for the students in Louisiana, the link was available for two weeks from March 4 to 15, 2011. It took about 25-30 minutes to complete the survey. Study 2 collected data from 321 S. Korean college students and 254 from U.S. college students.

### **Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Variables**

The two research designs consisted of five parts; 1) national stereotypes; 2) evaluations about three foreign corporations' performances and products; 3) media use for foreign news and information; 4) personal experience; and 5) demographics. The questionnaire for Korean students was translated into Korean to help them to understand the questions. The reliability of the translation was double-checked by a Korean professor who has been teaching at another state university.

The research has two dependent variables: implicit stereotypes and evaluations of corporate performances and product, which is called country-of-origin (COO) effect. There are eleven independent variables: 1) counter-national stereotype cue; 2) ethnocentrism and patriotism; 3) interest in foreign country news and information; 4) media use; 5) reliance on online news media for foreign news and information; 6) favorite topics of foreign news and information; 7) favorite foreign areas; 8) personal experience related to foreign country; 9) gender; 10) ethnic backgrounds of American subjects; and 11) citizenship (the U.S. vs. Korean). The content of the online survey questionnaire was the same as the experimental materials, except for two things: 1) questions about ethnocentrism/Patriotism were not included in the

experimental materials; 2) participants of the online survey were asked to click instead of pressing the number of keys along the keyboard at the lab after each news story. The operational definitions and measurements of the variables were adapted from the previous studies. The definitions and questions employed were provided in APPENDIX A.

- *National Stereotypes/ Implicit National Stereotypes.* A total of forty seven attributes associated with stereotypes of the three countries were based on existing studies (Madon et al, 2001; McGrath & Goldberg, 2006; Koomen & Bähler, 1994): There were twenty for China/Chinese people, including eight attributes-consistent and twelve attributes-inconsistent; seventeen for Japan/Japanese people, including eight attributes-consistent and nine attributes-inconsistent; and ten for Germany/German people, including five attributes-consistent and five attributes-inconsistent. The questions asking the images of Germany and German people were included to confirm whether implicit stereotypes are applied to overall national stereotypes, not just to Asian countries and their peoples, and also to lessen participants' awareness of the purpose of the study by only focusing on images of China and its people.

Implicit national stereotype is operationalized as the differences in direct reaction time (RT) of attributes-consistent and attributes-inconsistent with stereotypes. This assumes that increasing the accessibility of attributes-consistent with stereotypes implies a decrease in attributes-inconsistent with stereotypes as a result of cognitive consistency and efficiency pressures (Blair et al., 2001; Dijksterhuis & van Knippenber, 1996). In other words, an implicit national stereotype is expected to be revealed by the differences in the response time to the stereotype-consistent attributes and the stereotype-inconsistent attributes.

Participants were instructed to judge as quickly and honestly as possible about the statements addressing attributes associated with the target country and its people (e.g.,

China/Chinese people are likely to be insecure; Japan/Japanese people are likely to be unreliable; and Germany/German people are likely to be disorganized).

- *Country of Origin (COO) Effect.* The study applied COO effect to public relations practices by constructing four news stories covering new product releases and corporation performances. Research of COO effect has been done in the field of international marketing. Early studies noted that the country in which a product is manufactured has a stronger effect on consumers' evaluation of the product than the country of a brand (Han & Terpstra, 1988; Tse & Gorn, 1993). Based on COO-related literature, the study applied a single information cue of COO in news stories as a signal by presenting information "with a factory in China," "manufactured in China," and "manufactured in Japan" in order to compare the COO effect on respondents' evaluations between cues associated with "Made in China" and "Made in Japan." The researcher's expectation was that the cues would be used to make inference concerning imperceptible attributes associated with product quality because the earliest studies of COO indicated that a single cue of COO affects consumers' evaluation of products (Schooler, 1965; Nagshima, 1970), whilst simultaneous presence of multiple information cues lessened the COO effect (Johansson, Douglas, & Nonaka, 1985; Agrawal & Kamakura, 1999).

In terms of the COO effect, the questions, which asked evaluations of the product and corporation mentioned in the news story, were asked after respondents read each news story. The questions were adapted with consideration of the national stereotypes selected in the study and "competence" traits and "warmth" traits used in previous studies (Chattalas, Kramer, & Takada, 2008; Fiske et al., 2002; Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993). The questions were presented with a five point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5), indicating the higher the score, the more positively respondents evaluate the company and the product (Jaffe &

Nebenzahol, 2001).

- *Counter-Stereotype Cues in News Stories.* Stereotypes might not be applicable for judgment if the stereotypes have not been activated by situational cues, such as a certain label or the targeted group's color (Blair & Banaji, 1996). Research of consumer behaviors has also indicated that consumers based their purchase decisions on extrinsic variables, such as brand name, price and other factors, which affect the consumers' perception of a product but not the product's physical information cues (Samiee, 1994). A cue is defined as all informational stimuli available to the consumer before consumption (Monroe & Krishnan, 1985).

The study used informational cues of counter-stereotype, which is operationalized as references opposite to existing national stereotypes, which have been identified from secondary research, such as previous studies and national polls of three countries. The counter-stereotypic attributes were determined by selecting the semantic opposites for the stereotypes chosen based on the former studies (Gilbert, 1951; Wittenbrink, Judd, & Park, 1997). These included "safe," "trustworthy," and "competent," which contradict "insecure," "unreliable," and "inefficient."

The news stories were presented in the online news format of the *Wall Street Journal*, one of the main financial and business newspapers in the United States, and in that of *Seoul Kyungje Daily Newspapers*, one of the main financial and business newspapers in South Korea, in order to seem like real news stories. Considering the effect of story structure, possible differences in the stories are minimized by presenting as similar story structures. The stories included only text without any visual modalities, such as pictures, considering that adding extra modalities to text degrades memory for content and text-only presentations are more effective (DeFleur, M., Davenport, Cronin, & DeFleur, M., 1992; Sundar, 2000).

The four news stories about new products made in China, Japan and Germany were

constructed: two Chinese corporations and products, *Desay* Group and *Blueway* and *Fenda Technology* Group and *Twin-Fi*; a Japanese corporation and product, *Shimoki* Group and *Skysonic*; and a German corporation and product, *Acoustic Arts* Group and *Audio500*. Each story covered the release of a new product, two stories with the “Made in China” and two stories covering the “Made in Japan” and “Made in Germany.” One of the two stories with the “Made in China,” the news story about *Fenda Technology* Group and *Twin-Fi*, had counter-stereotype cues to make reference to existing negative images of China, such as “unreliable” and “low quality” of product and “insecure” working environment. Thus, the counter-stereotypic attributes used in the present study were “reliable,” “high quality,” “safe” and simultaneously emphasized the corporation’s long efforts to improve the negative images of “unreliable.” The attributes were intended to counter the existing national stereotypes of China and were integrated into a news story covering a Chinese corporation and its product as seen in APPENDIX E.

To minimize extraneous variables, such as the quality of product itself and price, each story included a stereo expert’s comment with citation marks, which recommends young consumers buy the product by highlighting its high quality and reasonable price. The three products’ brand names and two corporations’ names were invented and others were used from actual local brand and corporations in order to avoid the effect of subject’s awareness of the existing brand names. Also, considering the effect of product types, the researcher selected car stereo products and manufactures that college students might be interested in, according to previous studies (Saqib & Manchanda, 2008).

- *Ethnocentrism/ Patriotism.* Studies pointed out that some consumers tend to care more about local corporations and products rather than foreign in favor of supporting the domestic market (Olsen, Kent, & Abhijit, 1993). Ethnocentrism represents the beliefs held by

consumers about the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign-made products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Patriotism is defined as a feeling of love for one's country and attachment to national values (Han, 1988). Ethnocentric or patriotic consumers tend to rate foreign products more negatively and to be less willing to purchase them. The study examined respondent's level of ethnocentrism and patriotism in expectation of correlation between the levels of the two variables and evaluations of products and corporate performances. In other words, highly ethnocentric and patriotic respondents might use country cues when evaluating or forming attitudes towards foreign corporations and products (Chattalas & Takada, 2008; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Based on previous studies, the questions were asked with a five point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5), indicating the higher the score, the stronger the levels of ethnocentrism and patriotism. For patriotism, in order to avoid a third person effect, "I," rather than "one," was used as the subject in all statements.

- *Media Use.* Studies of stereotypes noted exposure to stereotypical descriptions via mass media affects people's stereotypes of gender and race (McGee & Frueh, 1980). For example, Power and others (1996) noted that exposure to stereotypical information in a newsletter about either African Americans or women influences judgments of later unrelated media events regarding the target group. In this light, the study asked six questions: 1) the level of interest in foreign news and information; 2) topics of foreign news and information in which one is most interested (political; economic; cultural; sports; and other); 3) areas of most interest (Europe; East Asia; Middle-East Asia; Africa; South America; and other); 4) level of daily internet use; 5) level of daily internet use for news and information; and 6) level of reliance on media for foreign news and information.

- *Personal Experience.* Participants were asked about personal experiences with



foreign friends including Chinese or Japanese friends. This is deemed important in that interpersonal communications as well as the media play key roles in shaping and maintaining stereotypical beliefs (McGee & Frueh, 1980; Schaller, Conway, & Tanchuk, 2002).

For Study 1, a total of 131 responses and for Study 2, 575 responses from 254 U.S. and 321 S. Korean students were collected. Incomplete data, 5 responses in Study 1 and 24 responses in Study 2, were not considered. In terms of Study 2, 5 incomplete responses of U.S. students and 19 of S. Korean students were not included. Thus, the researcher analyzed 126 data for Study 1 and 551 data consisting of 249 U.S. students and 302 Korean students. T-test and ANOVA were applied to compare variables.

The values of Cronbach's alpha for all variables were greater than 0.70, suggesting good internal consistency: for Study 1, national stereotypes ( $\alpha=.90$ ), reaction time ( $\alpha=.92$ ), and country-of-origin effect ( $\alpha=.92$ ); and for Study 2, national stereotypes ( $\alpha=.87$ ), country-of-origin effect ( $\alpha=.93$ ), ethnocentrism ( $\alpha=.94$ ), and patriotism ( $\alpha=.76$ ).

## **RESULTS**

### **Pilot Study**

A pilot study of the experimental design was conducted to examine the effect of manipulation as well as to help refine the experimental design. In other words, the pilot tested whether materials can stimulate participants' immediate reactions in terms of implicit national stereotypes. It also examined whether the participants could be aware of different "Made in" and counter-stereotypical cues described in a news story by evaluating four corporations' performances and their products, and more specially two Chinese corporations' performances and products. For the pilot study, 116 of 121 participants were analyzed. Five respondents' data were excluded due to incompleteness. Out of the 116 subjects, 46 were male (40%) and 70 female (60%). Fifty eight were white (50%), 36 African American (31%), and 22 Asian or Pacific Islander (19%).

Regarding the COO effect, significant differences were found between the COO effect of the Chinese and Japanese corporations' performances ( $t=5.245$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and their products ( $t=3.376$ ,  $p<.001$ ), while no significant differences were between that of the Japanese and German corporations' performances and their products. Also, the effects of counter-stereotypical cues on the COO effect were evident, such as in corporate performances ( $t=-6.965$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and products ( $t=2.897$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

On the other hand, in terms of the application of implicit stereotypes, the results of the pilot study showed differences in reaction time to national stereotypes that were consistent with existing national stereotypes (ACNS) and those inconsistent with existing stereotypes (AICNS) but significant ( $t=6.12$ ;  $p>.05$ ). Thus, the researcher had to make a few changes so as to measure implicit national stereotypes as accurately as possible using reaction time (RT).

First of all, the statements about implicit national stereotypes, which described three similar attributes in one statement, such as “Chinese people are likely to be reliable, dependable, and trustworthy,” were divided into three statements with only one attribute in each statement. For example, the aforementioned statement was modified to read “Chinese people are likely to be reliable,” in order to prevent the effect of double-barreled questions and to promote more immediate reactions to a simpler statement. Thus, participants were asked to respond to a total of 47 statements with 47 attributes in Study 1: twenty attributes relating to China/Chinese people, consisting of 8 ACNS and 12 AICNS; seventeen attributes relating to Japan/Japanese people, consisting of 8 ACNS and 9 AICNS; and ten attributes relating to Germany/German people, consisting of 5 ACNS and 5 AICNS.

Next, the 47 attributes used in the statements were highlighted in a bright yellow color and italicized to draw participants’ attention to the adjectives that depict national stereotypes of the countries and their people.

The pilot study which participants were instructed to relate an attribute that appeared on the computer screen to each country and its people by pressing the key 1 or 2, indicating “Yes” or “No” respectively. However, in the main study, the participants were instructed to indicate agreement between attribute and the country and its citizen on a five point scale, where 1 indicates “strongly disagree” and 5 indicates “strongly agree.” The scale corresponds to the degree of agreement about the statements used in Study 2. The change was intended to improve reliability and validity of the results by comparing the results obtained in the two different research designs: the experiment and the online survey.

### **Manipulation Check**

For Study1, participants participated in the experimental study with an individual

computer at the lab during a session that accommodated a maximum of twelve participants at a time. All instructions were presented on the computer screen. To reduce the possibility that participants would respond self-consciously in order to conform to socially-acceptable values of race and nationality, they were not allowed to return to the previous questions to alter their answers.

The participants' main task was to reply to the statements appearing on the screen by pressing one of five number keys from 1 to 5. The time it took a participant to respond to the statements by pressing the number keys was recorded in milliseconds. The participants were asked to respond to questions as quickly and honestly as possible in terms of the questions associated with news stories as well as those of implicit national stereotypes. After completing the questions concerning news stories, the task of national stereotypes was given in order to measure reaction time as exactly as possible by giving the participants time to adjust the task to press the number keys while conducting the former task and to prevent their awareness of the researcher's intention to question the news stories.

To minimize the possible effects of extraneous variables, such as participants responding to the order of presented stimuli and questions, the study offered two different orders of the four news stories and randomized the order of questions following each news story. In terms of the effect of news backgrounds on participants' evaluations of the four corporations and products, such as designs, colors, margins, and placements, the news stories were presented with backgrounds of the same color as seen in APPENDIX E.

The researcher constructed two conditions for presenting the four news stories to minimize the ordering effect. One condition was to locate the Japanese and German news stories in the middle of the two Chinese news stories with the news story of one Chinese corporation

without counter-stereotypical cues first and the other Chinese corporation with counter-stereotypical cues last. In the other condition, the order of the two news stories covering the two Chinese corporations was changed. Also, the randomized ordering was applied in all statements of the experimental and online survey in order to ensure that the order did not affect participants' responses.

## **Findings of Research Questions**

### **Descriptive Statistics of Study 1**

A total of 126 participants in Study 1 consisted of 43 male (34%) and 83 female (66%) subjects. Eighty six (68%) of these participants were between the ages of 18 to 21-years-old, and 38 (30%) were between 22 to 25-years-old. Ninety five (75%) were white, 13 (10%) were African American, 10(9%) were Hispanic, and 4(3%) were Asian participants as reported in Table 1.1.1.

According to Table 1.1.2, in terms of general Internet use on a daily base, 106 of the participants (80%) used the Internet for longer than 3 hours, and 76 (60%) used the Internet to read news for one to 2 hours daily. The participants identified the news topics in which they are most interested as foreign news and information about cultural issues (51%) and political issues (22%). The area of foreign news in which the participants are most interested was Europe (47%) while 11% of the participants are interested in Asia. Regarding the participants' personal experience of the subjects, many participants reported having friends from China (78%), Japan (67%), Germany (67%), and other Asian countries (80%).

Table1.1.3 presents descriptive information about the level of participants' interest in foreign news and information, their reliance on online news, national stereotypes, and the country-of-origin (COO) effect. At first, the participants' level of interest in foreign news was not

high ( $M=3.10$ ,  $SD=1.12$ ) and reliance on mainstream news ( $M=3.37$ ;  $SD=1.16$ ) was relatively higher than that on portals ( $M=3.13$ ;  $SD=1.28$ ) and blogs ( $M=1.42$ ;  $SD=.69$ ).

Table 1.1.1. Descriptive statistics of Study 1

	Study 1 (Total N=126 )
Gender	
Male	43 (34%)
Female	83 (66%)
Age	
18-21 years	86 (68%)
22-25 years	38 (30%)
26-29 years	2 (2%)
Ethnicity	
African American (non-Hispanic)	13 (10%)
White (non-Hispanic)	95 (75%)
Hispanic	10 (9%)
Asian or Pacific Islander	4 (3%)
Other	4 (3%)

The participants' reaction times (RTs) to national stereotypes was recorded in milliseconds: RTs of attributes consistent with existing national stereotypes (ACNS) ( $M=3056.15$ ,  $SD=1068.90$ ); and RTs of attributes inconsistent with existing national stereotypes (AICNS) ( $M=3100.52$ ,  $SD=1004.64$ ).

In terms of valences shown in national stereotypes of the three countries, the participants' overall national stereotypes of the three countries was at average degrees of favorableness; national stereotypes of China and Chinese people ( $M=3.60$ ,  $SD=.41$ ); national stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people ( $M=3.83$ ,  $SD=.37$ ); and national stereotypes of Germany and German people ( $M=3.62$ ,  $SD=.37$ ). The national stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people were more favorable compared to the other countries and their people.

Table 1.1.2. Descriptive statistics of Study 1

Study 1 (Total N=126 )	
Use of Internet	
less than 1 hour	2 (2%)
1-2 hours	18 (14%)
3-4 hours	62 (49%)
5-6 hours	33 (26%)
7 or more hours	11 (9%)
Internet Use for News	
less than 30 minutes	30 (32%)
1hour	50 (40%)
2 hours	26 (20%)
3 hours	5 (4%)
4 or more hours	5 (4%)
Favorite news topics	
cultural issues	65 (51%)
political issues	28 (22%)
economic issues	19 (15%)
sports issues	12 (12%)
technology issues	2 (2%)
Areas most interested	
Europe	59 (47%)
Middle-East Asia (e.g., Iran and Egypt)	32 (25%)
East Asia (e.g., China, Japan)	14 (11%)
North America (Canada)	15(12%)
Africa	3 (3%)
South America	2 (2%)
Personal experience: Friend(s)	
Chinese friend(s)	98 (78%)
Japanese friend(s)	82 (65%)
German friend(s)	84 (67%)
Other Asian friend(s)	101 (80%)

Table 1.1.3. Descriptive statistics of Study 1

	Study 1 (Total N=126)	
	M	SD
Level of interest in Foreign news and information	3.10	1.12
Level of reliance on online news		
Mainstream news sites	3.37	1.16
Portal (e.g., Yahoo, MSN)	3.13	1.28
Blog	1.42	.69
Reaction Times (RTs) of national stereotypes*		
China/Chinese people	2957.71	875.28
Japan/Japanese people	3030.80	1065.06
Germany/German people	2992.11	922.83
Reaction Times (RTs) of attributes consistent with existing national stereotypes (ACNS)	3056.15	1068.90
China/Chinese people	2888.96	991.44
Japan/Japanese people	2640.42	896.28
Germany/German people	2865.48	954.51
Reaction Times (RTs) of attributes inconsistent with existing national stereotypes (AICNS)	3100.52	1004.64
China/Chinese people	3060.84	926.34
Japan/Japanese people	4067.39	1557.53
Germany/German people	3118.74	1169.64
Valences of national stereotypes (NS)		
China/Chinese people	3.60	.41
Japan/Japanese people	3.83	.37
Germany/German people	3.62	.39
Country-of-Origin (COO) effect		
<i>Desay</i> group and <i>Blueway</i>	3.75	.39
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and <i>Skysonic</i>	3.96	.50
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and <i>Audio500</i>	3.91	.29
<i>Fenda Technology</i> Group and <i>Twin-Fi</i>	3.94	.41

Note. \*Entries are mean scores and standard deviation of RTs in milliseconds.



Country-of-origin (COO) effect showed relatively higher than average degrees of favorableness toward the four corporations and their product: *Desay* Group and *Blueway*, the Chinese corporation and its product without counter-stereotypical cues ( $M=3.75$ ,  $SD=.39$ ); *Shimoki* Group and *Skysonic*, the Japanese corporation and its product ( $M=3.96$ ,  $SD=.50$ ); *Acoustic Arts* Group and *Audio500*, the German corporation and its product ( $M=3.91$ ,  $SD=.29$ ); and *Fenda Technology* Group and *Twin-Fi*, the Chinese corporation and its product, with counter-stereotypical cues ( $M=3.94$ ,  $SD=.41$ ). Out of the four corporations, the participants evaluated the most favorably the Japanese corporation and its product.

## **Descriptive Statistics of Study 2**

A total of 551 college students participated in the online survey. The total consisted of 249 U.S. participants (45%) and 302 Korean participants (55%). In terms of demographic data as seen in Table 2.1.1, the U.S. participants consisted of 176 (71%) female and 73 (29%) male students. The gender proportion of Korean participants was relatively more balanced compared to the U.S. participants in terms of half of the participants being male. One hundred thirty nine (56%) of the U.S. participants were college students 18 to 21-years-old, and 82 (33%) were between the ages of 22 to 25-years-old. The age of the Korean participants varied more than the U.S. sample: 77 (26%) were between the ages of 18 to 21-years-old; 94 (31%) between the ages of 22 and 25-years-old; and 131 (43%) between the ages of 26 and 39-years-old. Also, 192 (77%) of the U.S. participants were White, 26 (11%) were African American, 15 (6%) were Asian, and 12 (5%) were Hispanic, though not presented in Table 2.1.1.

Table 2.1.1. Descriptive statistics of Study 2

Study 2 (Total N=551)		
	U.S. participants (N=249)	Korean participants (N=302)
Gender		
Male	73 (29%)	150 (50%)
Female	176 (71%)	152 (50%)
Age		
18-21 years	139 (56%)	77 (26%)
22-25 years	82 (33%)	94 (31%)
26-29 years	28 (11%)	131 (43%)

*Note.* Entries are the number of subjects; Percentages in parentheses.

As seen in Table 2.1.2, regarding daily Internet use, 205 (89%) of the U.S. participants reported generally they use the Internet for more than 3 hours a day, and 67 (27%) of the total use the Internet to read news for more than 2 hours a day. On the other hand, 238 Korean participants (79%) generally use the Internet for 3 to 6 hours, and 264 (87%) use the Internet to read news for 1 to 2 hours.

The foreign news topics in which the U.S. participants are most interested are cultural issues (39%) and political issues (22%). The foreign areas in which they are most interested include Europe (40%) and Asia (24%). The Korean participants are most interested in the topics of foreign news and information about cultural issues (28%) and political issues (28%). The area in which they are most interested is the United States (53%) rather than neighboring Asian countries, such as China and Japan (22%).

Table 2.1.2. Descriptive statistics of Study 2

	Study 2 (Total N=551)	
	U.S. subjects (N=249)	Korean subjects (N=302)
Use of Internet		
less than 1 hour	3 (1%)	-
1-2 hours	41 (17%)	53 (17%)
3-4 hours	108 (43%)	147 (49%)
5-6 hours	70 (28%)	91 (30%)
7 or more hours	27 (11%)	11 (4%)
Internet Use for News		
less than 30 minutes	84 (34%)	31 (10%)
1 hour	98 (39%)	144 (47%)
2 hours	50 (20%)	120 (40%)
3 hours	8 (3%)	5 (2%)
4 or more hours	9 (4%)	2 (1%)
Favorite news topics		
cultural issues	96 (39%)	84 (28%)
political issues	55 (22%)	84 (28%)
economic issues	20 (8%)	72 (24%)
sports issues	21 (8%)	37 (12%)
technology issues	41 (17%)	10 (3%)
Other	16 (6%)	15 (5%)
Areas most interested		
Europe	99 (40%)	41 (14%)
Middle-East Asia (e.g. Iran and Egypt)	51 (31%)	20 (6%)
East Asia (e.g. China, Japan)	60 (24%)	67 (22%)
North America	12 (5%)	161 (53%)
Africa	13 (5%)	2 (1%)
South America	14 (5%)	11 (4%)
Personal experience: Friend(s)		
Chinese friend(s)	181 (73%)	59 (20%)
Japanese friend(s)	158 (64%)	25 (8%)
German friend(s)	159 (64%)	18 (6%)
Other Asian friend(s)	181 (73%)	32 (11%)

*Note.* Entries are the number of subjects; Percentages is in parentheses.

In terms of the participants' personal experience, more U.S. participants have made friends with people from the three countries, China (73%), Japan (64%), Germany (64%), and other Asian countries (73%), than the Korean participants who have made friends with people from China (20%), Japan (8%), Germany (6%), and other Asian countries (11%).

Table 2.1.3 shows the participants' level of interest in foreign news and information, reliance on online news, national stereotypes, and country-of-origin (COO) effect. The Korean participants' interest in foreign news was moderate ( $M=3.45$ ,  $SD=.98$ ), and they relied more heavily on portal news ( $M=3.72$ ,  $SD=1.10$ ), mainstream news ( $M=3.42$ ,  $SD=.99$ ), and blogs ( $M=2.12$ ,  $SD=1.65$ ). Whereas, the U.S. students indicated less interest in foreign news ( $M=2.82$ ,  $SD=1.04$ ), and they also relied more on portal news, for example, Yahoo and MSN, ( $M=3.00$ ,  $SD=1.23$ ) than mainstream news ( $M=2.89$ ,  $SD=1.15$ ) and blogs ( $M=1.51$ ,  $SD=.93$ ).

Concerning national stereotype valences of the three countries, the U.S. participants' national stereotype valences were on the whole moderate ( $M=3.46$ ,  $SD=.78$ ); China and Chinese people ( $M=3.46$ ,  $SD=.38$ ); Japan and Japanese people ( $M=3.54$ ,  $SD=.34$ ); and Germany and German people ( $M=3.40$ ,  $SD=.46$ ). On the other hand, the Korean participants' overall national stereotypes of the three countries was lower than moderate ( $M=3.16$ ,  $SD=.38$ ); China and Chinese people ( $M=3.02$ ,  $SD=.45$ ); Japan and Japanese people ( $M=3.38$ ,  $SD=.32$ ); and Germany and German people ( $M=3.33$ ,  $SD=.51$ ). The Korean participants' national stereotypes were less favorable compared to the U.S. participants'.

The U.S. participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect showed average degrees of favorableness toward the four corporations and their products: the *Desay* Group and *Blueway*, which were used as the names for the Chinese corporation and its product without counter-stereotypical cues ( $M=3.46$ ,  $SD=.52$ ); the *Shimoki* Group and *Skysonic*, the Japanese corporation

and its product ( $M=3.56$ ,  $SD=.43$ ); the *Acoustic Arts* Group and *Audio500*, the German corporation and its product ( $M=3.42$ ,  $SD=.52$ ); and the *Fenda Technology* Group and *Twin-Fi*, the Chinese corporation and its product, with counter-stereotypical cues ( $M=3.60$ ,  $SD=.59$ ). Out of the four corporations, the U.S. participants evaluated the most favorably the Chinese corporation and its product presented with counter-stereotypical cues.

Table 2.1.3. Descriptive statistics of Study 2

	Study 2 (Total N=551)	
	U.S. subjects (N=249)	Korean subjects (N=302)
Level of interest in foreign news	2.82 (1.04)	3.45 ( .98)
Level of reliance on online news		
Mainstream news sites	2.89 (1.15)	3.42 (.99)
Portal (e.g., Yahoo, MSN)	3.00 (1.23)	3.72 (1.10)
Blog	1.51 (.93)	2.12 (1.65)
Valences of national stereotypes (NS)		
China/Chinese people	3.46 (.38)	3.02 (.45)
Japan/Japanese people	3.54 (.34)	3.38 (.32)
Germany/German people	3.40 (.46)	3.33 (.51)
Country-of-Origin (COO) effect		
<i>Desay</i> group and <i>Blueway</i>	3.46 (.52)	3.12 (.46)
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and <i>Skysonic</i>	3.56 (.43)	3.21 (.37)
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and <i>Audio500</i>	3.42 (.52)	3.19 (.35)
<i>Fenda Technology</i> Group and <i>Twin-Fi</i>	3.60 (.59)	3.29 (.37)
Ethnocentrism	2.57 (.64)	3.22 (.65)
Patriotism	3.54 (.51)	3.29 (.51)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses.

The Korean participants' COO effect toward the four corporations and their products showed less than average degrees of favorableness: for the *Desay* Group and *Blueway*, which were used as the names for the Chinese corporation and its product without counter-stereotypical cues ( $M=3.12$ ,  $SD=.46$ ); the *Shimoki* Group and *Skysonic*, the Japanese corporation and its product ( $M=3.21$ ,  $SD=.37$ ); the *Acoustic Arts* Group and *Audio500*, the German corporation and its product ( $M=3.19$ ,  $SD=.35$ ); and the *Fenda Technology* Group and *Twin-Fi* stereo sets, the Chinese corporation and its product, with counter-stereotypical cues ( $M=3.29$ ,  $SD=.37$ ). The Korean participants also evaluated the most favorably the Chinese corporation and its product presented with counter-stereotypical cues.

The levels of ethnocentrism and patriotism among U.S. participants were lower than average, with the following degree of ethnocentrism ( $M=2.57$ ,  $SD=.64$ ) and degree of patriotism ( $M=3.54$ ,  $SD=.51$ ). The Korean participants also showed lower than average degrees of ethnocentrism ( $M=3.22$ ,  $SD=.65$ ) and patriotism ( $M=3.29$ ,  $SD=.51$ ).

Study 1 was designed to examine the application of national stereotypes to implicit stereotypes, as well as the effect of counter-stereotypical cues in news stories based on the assumption that news media and national polls' framing of images of China and Chinese people might influence participants' perception of national stereotypes of China and Chinese people, though the influence might be indirect. In Study 1, ethnocentrism and patriotism were not examined. Nor were comparisons of variables between U.S. and Korean students.

Study 2 did not examine implicit national stereotypes (RQ1). On the other hand, Study 2 conducted a comparative study between the U.S. and Korean subjects.

### **Research Question 1: Implicit National Stereotypes**

Study 1 examined if national stereotypes are applicable to implicit stereotypes such as

stereotypes of gender and race, by measuring the participants' reaction times (RTs). The concept of implicit stereotypes was operationalized as differences in reaction times between attributes consistent with existing national stereotypes (ACNS) and attributes inconsistent with existing national stereotypes (AICNS). On the whole, Study 1's results demonstrated whether participants actually responded differently to attributes consistent with stereotypes and those inconsistent with stereotypes as assumed in H1.1 but the difference was negligible. Table 1.2.1 showed no significant difference between RT to attributes consistent with existing national stereotypes (ACNS) and that to attributes inconsistent with existing national stereotypes (AICNS).

Table 1.2.1. Reaction times (RTs) to attributes consistent with existing national stereotypes (ACNS) and inconsistent with existing national stereotypes (AICNS) in Study 1

	RT		Implicit Stereotypes (reaction time difference)	<i>t</i>
	M	SD (SE)		
ACNS	3056.15	1068.90 (.22)	44.37	.873
AICNS	3100.52	1004.64 (.31)		

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation of RT in milliseconds.

However, the results showed significant differences in the participants' reaction time response to attributes of each country. In other words, the participants responded faster to attributes consistent with existing national stereotypes (ACNS) than to those inconsistent with existing national stereotypes (AICNS) as seen in Table 1.2.2: China and Chinese people ( $t = -2.315$ ,  $p < .05$ ); Japan and Japanese people ( $t = 15.095$ ,  $p < .001$ ); and Germany and German people ( $t = 2.645$ ,  $p < .01$ ). In particular, differences in reaction times of attributes associated with Japan and Japanese people were more significant than those of the two other countries. Thus, the results partly supported the hypothesis H1.1, though overall differences in reaction times of

attributes consistent and inconsistent with existing national images were not significant.

Table 1.2.2. Reaction times (RTs) to attributes consistent with existing national stereotypes (ACNS) and inconsistent with existing national stereotypes (AICNS) of the each country and its people in Study 1

	RTs		Implicit Stereotypes (reaction time difference)	<i>t</i>
	M	SD (SE)		
China/Chinese people			171.88	-2.315*
ACNS	2888.96	926.03 (.04)		
AICNS	3060.84	991.43 (.04)		
Japan/Japanese people			1426.68	15.095***
ACNS	2640.42	89.28 (.04)		
AICNS	4067.09	1557.53 (.03)		
Germany/ German people			253.27	2.645**
ACNS	2865.47	954.51 (.05)		
AICNS	3118.74	1169.64 (.03)		

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation of RTs in milliseconds.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$

On the other hand, the findings demonstrated significant differences between the participants' implicit stereotypes of China/Chinese people, those of Japan/Japanese people, and those of Germany and German people [ $F(2, 126) = 86.519, p < .001$ ], as seen in Table 1.2.3.

The participants responded faster to attributes consistent with existing stereotypes of Japan than to those of China and slower to national stereotypes inconsistent with existing stereotypes of Japan than those of China. Also, in terms of comparison between Japan and Germany, the participants responded faster to attributes consistent with existing stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people than to those of Germany and German people and slower to attributes inconsistent with existing stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people than to those of Germany and German people. However, concerning implicit stereotypes between China and Chinese people and Germany and German people, the results showed that differences in reaction time



between the two countries and its people were not significant.

The results showed that the participants' stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people are more compatible with existing stereotypes and more resistant to inconsistent stereotypes compared to their responses to national stereotypes of China, Germany, and these countries' people.

Table 1.2.3. Difference in implicit stereotypes about China/Chinese people, Japan/Japanese people, and Germany/German people in Study 1

	RTs		Implicit Stereotypes (reaction time difference)	<i>F</i>
	ACNS	AICNS		
China/Chinese people <sup>a</sup>	2888.96	3060.84	171.88	86.519***
Japan/Japanese people	2640.42	4067.39	1426.68	
Germany/German people <sup>a</sup>	2865.48	3118.74	253.26	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores of RTs in milliseconds. Means with matching *a* did not differ significantly at the  $p < .05$ . \*\*\*  $p < .001$

## Research Question 2: National Stereotypes

Both Study 1 and 2 examined national stereotype valences of the three countries by using a five-point scale, which means the higher, the more favorable. In the results, the researcher presented positive attributes that negatively stated in the questions and reverse coded in order to show that the higher score, the more favorable. In other words, the attributes, such as “insecure,” “unsafe,” and “vulnerable,” were changed into “secure,” “safe,” and “not vulnerable.”

The study hypothesized that significant differences in valences of the three national stereotypes would be found (H2.1). For example, national stereotypes of China and its people would be less favorable than those of Germany and German people and Japan and Japanese

people, based on previous research and polls noting that Americans and S. Korean mass media have presented negative images of China and Chinese people.

### **Study 1**

The participants of Study 1 showed relatively moderate degrees of valence for the three countries: China and Chinese people ( $M=3.60$ ,  $SD=.41$ ); Japan and Japanese people ( $M=3.83$ ,  $SD=.37$ ); and Germany and German people ( $M=3.62$ ,  $SD=.39$ ).

According to Table 1.3.1, concerning national stereotypes of China and Chinese people, the participants showed less favorable valences on attributes associated with confidence, such as “reliable” ( $M=3.23$ ,  $SD=.84$ ), “trustworthy” ( $M=3.33$ ,  $SD=.80$ ), “dependable” ( $M=3.28$ ,  $SD=.87$ ), as well as with the country’s safety, such as “secure” ( $M=3.26$ ,  $SD=.86$ ), “safe” ( $M=3.20$ ,  $SD=.88$ ), and “not vulnerable” ( $M=3.39$ ,  $SD=.92$ ). The participants strongly agreed on attributes that have been considered typical characteristics of Asian countries, such as “group-oriented” ( $M=3.89$ ,  $SD=.95$ ), “collectivism-oriented” ( $M=3.93$ ,  $SD=.85$ ), “conservative” ( $M=3.83$ ,  $SD=1.01$ ), and “traditional” ( $M=3.99$ ,  $SD=.91$ ).

In terms of national stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people as seen Table 1.3.2, the participants showed less favorable valences on attributes, such as “liberal” ( $M=3.02$ ,  $SD=.87$ ) and “free-thinking” ( $M=3.23$ ,  $SD=.91$ ), while more favorable valences on attributes associated with competence, such as “capable” ( $M=4.09$ ,  $SD=.59$ ), “efficient” ( $M=4.18$ ,  $SD=.62$ ), and “competent” ( $M=3.94$ ,  $SD=.65$ ). The participants’ responses also demonstrated mainstream stereotypes of China, such as “group-oriented” ( $M=3.71$ ,  $SD=.79$ ), “collectivism-oriented” ( $M=3.94$ ,  $SD=.79$ ) and “conservative” ( $M=3.83$ ,  $SD=1.01$ ). However, compared to national stereotypes about China and Chinese people, the participants replied more favorably to the attributes of confidence, such as “reliable” ( $M=3.85$ ,  $SD=.68$ ) and “dependable” ( $M=3.85$ ,

SD=.68), as well as to those of safety, such as “secure” (M=3.63, SD=.71), “safe” (M=3.75, SD=.77), and “not vulnerable” (M=3.92, SD=.78).

Table 1.3.1. National stereotypes (NS) of China/Chinese people in Study 1

	M	SD
Chinese people are likely to be group-oriented.	3.89	.95
Chinese people are likely to be collectivism-oriented.	3.93	.85
China is likely to be insecure.*	3.26	.86
China is likely to be unsafe.*	3.20	.88
China is likely to be vulnerable.*	3.39	.92
Chinese people are likely to be dogmatic.	3.81	.65
Chinese people are likely to be traditional.	3.99	.91
Chinese people are likely to be conservative.	3.83	1.01
Chinese people are likely to be capable.	3.76	.78
Chinese people are likely to be efficient.	3.51	.75
Chinese people are likely to be competent.	3.67	.79
Chinese people are likely to be trustworthy.	3.33	.80
Chinese people are likely to be reliable.	3.23	.84
Chinese people are likely to be dependable.	3.28	.87
Chinese people are likely to be organized.	3.60	.73
Chinese people are likely to be neat.	3.22	.81
Chinese people are likely to be methodical.	3.83	.85
China is likely to be advanced.	3.76	.86
China is likely to be developed.	3.72	.89
China is likely to be innovative.	3.79	.88

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1= very unlikely; 2= unlikely; 3= equally likely; 4= likely; 5= very likely)

\*These statements were reverse coded.

Table 1.3.2. National stereotypes (NS) of Japan/Japanese people in Study 1

	M	SD
Japanese people are likely to be capable.	4.09	.59
Japanese people are likely to be efficient.	4.18	.62
Japanese people are likely to be competent.	3.94	.65
Japanese people are likely to be group-oriented.	3.71	.79
Japanese people are likely to be collectivism-oriented.	3.94	.79
Japan is likely to be advanced.	4.24	.66
Japan is likely to be developed.	4.17	.75
Japan is likely to be innovative.	3.79	.75
Japanese people are likely to be unreliable.*	3.85	.68
Japanese people are likely to be undependable.*	3.85	.68
Japanese people are likely to be disorganized.*	3.98	.71
Japanese people are likely to be sloppy.*	3.82	.77
Japan is likely to be insecure.*	3.63	.71
Japan is likely to be unsafe.*	3.75	.77
Japan is likely to be vulnerable.*	3.92	.78
Japanese people are likely to be liberal.	3.02	.87
Japanese people are likely to be free-thinking.	3.23	.91

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1= very unlikely; 2= unlikely; 3= equally likely; 4= likely; 5= very likely)

\*These statements were reverse coded.

Regarding national stereotypes of Germany and German people in Table 1.3.3, the participants showed less favorable valences on attributes adapted from the previous studies, such as “not workaholic” (M=3.17, SD=.70), while more favorable valences on attributes associated with competence, such as “capable” (M=3.82, SD=.69), “efficient” (M=3.71, SD=.75), and “not lazy” (M=3.77, SD=.78) and neutral valences on attributes, such as “ambitious” (M=3.56, SD=.79) and “organized” (M=3.59, SD=.78).

Table 1.3.3. National stereotypes (NS) of Germany/German people in Study 1

	M	SD
German people are likely to be capable.	3.82	.69
German people are likely to be efficient.	3.71	.75
German people are likely to be competent.	3.68	.78
German people are likely to be ambitious.	3.56	.79
German people are likely to be workaholic.	3.17	.70
German people are likely to be disorganized.*	3.59	.78
German people are likely to be sloppy.*	3.40	.77
German people are likely to be lazy.*	3.77	.78
German people are likely to be unambitious.*	3.80	.75
German people are likely to be aimless.*	3.70	.74

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1= very unlikely; 2= unlikely; 3= equally likely; 4= likely; 5= very likely);

\*These statements were reverse coded.

In terms of possible differences in valences of the three national stereotypes (H2.1), the results showed significant differences in the three countries' national stereotype valences ( $F = 11.903$ ,  $p < .001$ ) as seen in Table 1.3.4.

The noticeable difference between China/Chinese people and Japan/Japanese people seems to be ascribed to the attributes associated with confidence and safety, such as “reliable,” “dependable,” “secure,” “safe,” and “not vulnerable.” On the other hand, a difference between Japan/Japanese people and Germany/German people seems based on contrast between attributes of existing national stereotypes such as “capable,” “efficient,” “competent,” “not workaholic,” and “not sloppy.” However, taking a closer look at a difference in national stereotypes between the two countries, there was no significant difference in the degree of favorableness between China/Chinese people and Germany/German people, as shown in Table 1.3.5. This means that national stereotypes of Japan and its people are more favorable than those of China/Chinese people and of Germany/German people.

Table 1.3.4. Difference in national stereotypes (NS) between China/Chinese people, Japan/Japanese people, and Germany/German people in Study 1

	Valences of NS		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
China/Chinese people <sup>a</sup>	3.60	.41 (.04)	11.903***
Japan/Japanese people	3.83	.37 (.03)	
Germany/German people <sup>a</sup>	3.62	.39 (.03)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Means with matching *a* did not differ significantly at the  $p < .05$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

## **Study 2**

The results of Study 2 showed relatively lower average degrees of national stereotype valences about the three countries: China and Chinese people ( $M=3.02$ ,  $SD=.45$ ); Japan and Japanese people ( $M=3.38$ ,  $SD=.32$ ); and Germany and German people ( $M=3.03$ ,  $SD=.51$ ).

Table 2.2.1, which concerns national stereotypes of China and Chinese people, indicates that the U.S. participants participating in the online survey showed less favorable valences on attributes associated with safety issues, such as “secure” ( $M=3.13$ ,  $SD=.71$ ), “safe” ( $M=3.05$ ,  $SD=.71$ ), and “not vulnerable” ( $M=3.07$ ,  $SD=.72$ ), as well as with confidence issues, such as “reliable” ( $M=3.12$ ,  $SD=.76$ ), “trustworthy” ( $M=3.11$ ,  $SD=.86$ ), “dependable” ( $M=3.04$ ,  $SD=.68$ ). Meanwhile, the U.S. participants more strongly agreed on attributes that have been considered typical characteristics of Asian countries, such as “group-oriented” ( $M=3.82$ ,  $SD=.81$ ), “collectivism-oriented” ( $M=3.83$ ,  $SD=.75$ ), and “traditional” ( $M=3.63$ ,  $SD=.80$ ).

On the other hand, the Korean participants’ valences of national stereotypes were less favorable on attributes associated with confidence, such as “reliable” ( $M=1.97$ ,  $SD=1.33$ ), “trustworthy” ( $M=2.01$ ,  $SD=.62$ ), “dependable” ( $M=2.15$ ,  $SD=1.04$ ), those associated with

safety, such as “secure” ( $M=2.03$ ,  $SD=1.36$ ), “safe” ( $M=1.97$ ,  $SD=1.14$ ), and “not vulnerable” ( $M=2.02$ ,  $SD=1.19$ ), and those associated with competence, such as “capable” ( $M=2.41$ ,  $SD=1.07$ ), “efficient” ( $M=2.56$ ,  $SD=1.31$ ), and “competent” ( $M=2.67$ ,  $SD=1.51$ ). The Korean participants also strongly agreed on attributes that have been considered typical characteristics of Asian countries, such as “group-oriented” ( $M=4.25$ ,  $SD=1.05$ ), “collectivism-oriented” ( $M=4.64$ ,  $SD=.64$ ), “conservative” ( $M=4.38$ ,  $SD=1.01$ ), “dogmatic” ( $M=4.15$ ,  $SD=.83$ ), and “traditional” ( $M=4.21$ ,  $SD=.85$ ).

According to Table 2.2.2, concerning Japan/Japanese people, the U.S. participants showed stronger agreement with characteristics associated with Asian countries as seen in national stereotypes of China and its people, such as “group-oriented” ( $M=4.08$ ,  $SD=.73$ ) and “collectivism-oriented” ( $M=4.01$ ,  $SD=.89$ ), as well as with attributes associated with competence, such as “capable” ( $M=3.82$ ,  $SD=.72$ ), “efficient” ( $M=3.86$ ,  $SD=.74$ ), and “competent” ( $M=3.72$ ,  $SD=.73$ ). In terms of attributes related to safety and confidence, the U.S. participants showed average degrees of agreements, such as that the country were “safe” ( $M=3.55$ ,  $SD=.81$ ), “secure” ( $M=3.41$ ,  $SD=.79$ ), “not vulnerable” ( $M=3.37$ ,  $SD=.73$ ), “reliable” ( $M=3.32$ ,  $SD=.76$ ), and “dependable” ( $M=3.27$ ,  $SD=.76$ ). Also, the U.S. participants showed lower degrees of agreement to the attributes, “liberal” ( $M=3.01$ ,  $SD=.77$ ) and “free-thinking” ( $M=2.85$ ,  $SD=.81$ ).

Table 2.2.1. National stereotypes (NS) of China/Chinese people in Study 2

	Valences of NS	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
Chinese people are likely to be group-oriented.	3.82 (.81)	4.25 (1.05)
Chinese people are likely to be collectivism-oriented.	3.83 (.75)	4.64 (.64)
China is likely to be insecure.*	3.13 (.71)	2.03 (1.36)
China is likely to be unsafe.*	3.05 (.71)	1.97 (1.14)
China is likely to be vulnerable.*	3.07 (.72)	2.02 (1.19)
Chinese people are likely to be dogmatic.	3.64 (.72)	4.15 (.83)
Chinese people are likely to be traditional.	3.63 (.80)	4.21 (.85)
Chinese people are likely to be conservative.	3.45 (.79)	4.38 (1.01)
Chinese people are likely to be capable.	3.57 (.89)	2.41(1.07)
Chinese people are likely to be efficient.	3.43 (.79)	2.56 (1.31)
Chinese people are likely to be competent.	3.41 (.76)	2.67(1.51)
Chinese people are likely to be trustworthy.	3.11 (.86)	2.01 (.62)
Chinese people are likely to be reliable.	3.12 (.76)	1.97 (1.33)
Chinese people are likely to be dependable.	3.04 (.68)	2.15 (1.04)
Chinese people are likely to be organized.	3.08 (.76)	2.60 (.95)
Chinese people are likely to be neat.	3.21 (.92)	2.64 (1.12)
Chinese people are likely to be methodical.	3.38 (.91)	4.38 (1.01)
China is likely to be advanced.	3.71 (.92)	2.97 (1.0)
China is likely to be developed.	3.56 (.88)	2.82 (1.15)
China is likely to be innovative.	3.56 (.89)	3.57 (1.05)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1= very unlikely; 2= unlikely; 3= equally likely; 4= likely; 5= very likely).

\*These statements were reverse coded.

The Korean participants' national stereotype valences of Japan and Japanese people also showed lower degrees of agreement to the attributes of "liberal" (M=1.73, SD=1.22) and "free-thinking" (M=1.75, SD=1.08). The attributes of confidence, such as "reliable" (M=2.69, SD=1.06) and "dependable" (M=2.59, SD=1.07), were assigned relatively lower degrees of agreement. Instead, the Korean participants relied more favorably to the attributes of safety, such as "secure" (M=4.16, SD=.62), "safe" (M=4.14, SD=.65), and "not vulnerable" (M=4.10,



SD=.64). The Korean participants highly agreed with common attributes associated with most Asian countries, such as “group-oriented” (M=4.00, SD=.54) and “collectivism-oriented” (M=4.10, SD=.58).

Table 2.2.2. National stereotypes (NS) of Japan/Japanese people in Study 2

	Valences of NS	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
Japanese people are likely to be capable.	3.82 (.72)	2.90 (1.26)
Japanese people are likely to be efficient.	3.86 (.74)	3.14 (1.13)
Japanese people are likely to be competent.	3.72 (.73)	3.76 (.57)
Japanese people are likely to be group-oriented.	4.08 (.73)	4.00 (.54)
Japanese people are likely to be collectivism-oriented.	4.01 (.89)	4.10 (.58)
Japan is likely to be advanced.	3.54 (.92)	3.72 (1.03)
Japan is likely to be developed.	3.95 (.91)	4.00 (.56)
Japan is likely to be innovative.	3.40 (.77)	3.27 (.91)
Japanese people are likely to be unreliable.*	3.32 (.76)	2.69 (1.06)
Japanese people are likely to be undependable.*	3.27 (.76)	2.59 (1.07)
Japanese people are likely to be disorganized.*	3.61 (.67)	3.41 (1.02)
Japanese people are likely to be sloppy.*	3.40 (.63)	4.00 (1.34)
Japan is likely to be insecure.*	3.41 (.79)	4.16 (.62)
Japan is likely to be unsafe.*	3.55 (.81)	4.14 (.65)
Japan is likely to be vulnerable.*	3.37 (.73)	4.10 (.64)
Japanese people are likely to be liberal.	3.01 (.77)	1.73 (1.22)
Japanese people are likely to be free-thinking.	2.85 (.81)	1.75 (1.08)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1= very unlikely; 2= unlikely; 3= equally likely; 4= likely; 5= very likely)

\*These statements were reverse coded.

As reported in Table 2.2.3, U.S. participants showed less than favorable national stereotype valences regarding Germany and German people, such as “not workaholic” (M=3.16, SD=.84), while more favorable valences on attributes associated with competence, such as “capable” (M=3.61, SD=.68), “efficient” (M=3.64, SD=.75), and “competent” (M=3.68,

SD=.73). They showed relatively neutral valences on attributes such as “ambitious” (M=3.49, SD=.66), “organized” (M=3.43, SD=.85), and “not lazy” (M=3.41, SD=.86).

The Korean participants demonstrated less favorable valences on attributes of Germany and German people, such as “not workaholic” (M=2.53, SD=.84), “organized ” (M=2.79, SD=1.08), and “not sloppy” (M=2.37, SD=1.04), while more favorable valences on attributes associated with competence, such as “efficient” (M=4.05, SD=.67), “capable” (M=3.88, SD=.59), and “competent” (M=3.94, SD=.93).

Table 2.2.3. National stereotypes (NS) of Germany/German people in Study 2

	Valences of NS	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
German people are likely to be capable.	3.61 (.68)	3.88 (.59)
German people are likely to be efficient.	3.64 (.71)	4.05 (.67)
German people are likely to be competent.	3.68 (.73)	3.94 (.93)
German people are likely to be ambitious.	3.49 (.66)	3.63 (.69)
German people are likely to be workaholic.	3.16 (.84)	2.53 (.84)
German people are likely to be disorganized.*	3.43 (.85)	2.79 (1.08)
German people are likely to be sloppy.*	3.43 (.87)	2.37 (1.06)
German people are likely to be lazy.*	3.41 (.86)	2.51 (1.09)
German people are likely to be unambitious.*	3.37 (.84)	2.39 (1.16)
German people are likely to be aimless.*	3.40 (.79)	2.41 (1.18)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1= very unlikely; 2= unlikely; 3= equally likely; 4= likely; 5= very likely).

\*These statements were reverse coded.

Regarding differences in valences of the three national stereotypes (H2.1), the U.S. participants' responses showed significant differences in national stereotypes valences ( $F=8.558$ ,  $p<.001$ ) as seen in Table 2.2.4. A significant difference between China/Chinese people and Japan/Japanese people seems to be attributed to confidence and safety issues, such as “reliable”

and “dependable,” “secure,” “safe,” and “not vulnerable.” In terms of the competence-related attributes, such as “capable” and “efficient,” Japan/Japanese people were given higher degrees of agreements. Also, the U.S. participants considered Japan/Japanese people more group and collectivism-oriented than China/Chinese people.

On the other hand, a difference between Japan/Japanese people and Germany/German people and that between China/Chinese people and Germany/German people seem based on contrasts between competence attributes such as “capable,” “efficient,” and “competent.”

Table 2.2.4. Difference in U.S. participants’ national stereotypes (NS) of China/Chinese people, Japan/Japanese people, and Germany/German people in Study 2

	Valences of NS		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
China/Chinese people	3.39	.46 (.02)	8.558***
Japan/Japanese people	3.53	.34 (.02)	
Germany/German people	3.46	.38 (.03)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

The Korean participants’ valences of national stereotypes of China/Chinese people, Japan/Japanese people, and Germany/German people were significantly different as seen in Table 2.2.5 ( $F = 65.442$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The significant differences the Korean participants showed in national stereotype valences between China/Chinese people and Japan/Japanese people seem to be ascribed to higher degrees of agreements to the attributes associated with confidence and safety, such as “reliable,” and “dependable,” “secure,” “safe,” and “not vulnerable.” However, in comparison between national stereotypes of the two countries, a significant difference was not found between Japan/Japanese people and Germany/German people. The results showed that the

Korean participants tend to have more negative images of China/Chinese than Japan/Japanese and Germany/Germans.

Table 2.2.5. Difference in Korean participants' national stereotypes (NS) of China/Chinese people, Japan/Japanese people, and Germany/German people in Study 2

	Valences of NS		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
China/Chinese people <sup>a</sup>	3.02	.45 (.03)	65.442***
Japan/Japanese people	3.38	.32 (.02)	
Germany/German people <sup>a</sup>	3.33	.51 (.03)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Means with matching *a* did not differ significantly at the  $p < .05$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Study 2 examined differences in the variables between U.S. participants and South Korean subjects. In other words, Study 2 examined whether differences in valences of the three national stereotypes between the two countries' participants would be significant or not (H2.2). The study expected in particular that historical relations between the two Asian countries and South Korea might contribute to differences in Korean and U.S. participants' national stereotypes.

The results in Table 2.2.7 showed that there were significant differences in the U.S. and Korean participants' national stereotypes about the three countries: China/Chinese people ( $t = 12.076$ ,  $p < .001$ ); Japan/Japanese people ( $t = 5.485$ ,  $p < .001$ ); and Germany/German people ( $t = 8.507$ ,  $p < .001$ ). These results showed that on the whole the Korean participants' national stereotype valences toward the three countries were less favorable than those of the U.S. subjects, in particular concerning China and Chinese people.

Table 2.2.6. Comparison of differences in U.S. and Korean participants' national stereotypes (NS) of three countries in Study 2

	Valences of NS		<i>t</i>
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects	
China/Chinese people	3.39 (.46)	3.02 (.45)	12.076***
Japan/Japanese people	3.53 (.34)	3.38 (.32)	5.485***
Germany/German people	3.46 (.38)	3.33 (.51)	8.507***

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

As Table 2.2.1 shows, the Korean participants displayed less favorable valences about safety and confidence related attributes compared to the U.S. subjects. Also the degrees of agreement to group-oriented cultural characteristics of China/Chinese people were higher than those of the U.S. subjects. The U.S. participants showed higher degrees of agreement to China/Chinese people's competence than the Korean participants did.

Also, the main differences between the U.S. and Korean participants' national stereotypes of Japan/Japanese people were in agreements on safety-related attributes. Table 2.2.2 notes the Korean participants showed more favorable national stereotypes about Japan/Japanese people in terms of safety while less favorable on confidence related attributes. The U.S. participants showed less favorable valences for the competence-related attributes, such as "capable" and "efficient" than those of the Korean participants while showing more favorable valences on the other attributes than those of the Korean respondents as seen in Table 2.2.3.

### **Research Question 3: Country-of-Origin (COO) Effect**

The third research question sought to examine the participants' evaluations of the three corporations and their products, in other words, this measure of the country-of-origin (COO) effect occurred after reading news articles about new car stereo products made in China, Japan,

and Germany. In the news stories, sentences that referred to countries manufacturing each product were presented. Statements that described unfavorable traits were reverse coded. Thus, the higher score meant the more favorable evaluations of the corporation and its product. In the results, the researcher presented positive attributes that negatively stated in the questions and reverse coded in order to show that the higher score, the more favorable. In other words, the attributes, such as “unsafe” and “unreliable,” were changed into “safe” and “reliable.” Also, concerning evaluations of products, for example, “person who buys *Blueway* is a lower class person” was addressed as “person who buys *Blueway* is [not] a lower class person.”

For the RQ3, the news story that included counter-stereotypical cues on the Chinese corporation, *Fenda Technology* Group, and its *Twin-Fi* product was not considered because the two news stories about the Japanese and German corporations and their products did not refer to counter-stereotype cues, which were presented to examine the effect of counter-stereotype cue in the RQ4.

### **Study 1**

On the whole, the participants showed more favorable evaluations of the Japanese corporation (*Shimoki* Group) and its *Skysonic* product made in Japan and the German corporation (*Acoustic Arts* Group) and its *Audio500* product made in Germany when compared to the Chinese corporation (*Desay* Group) and its *Blueway* product made in China.

Taking a closer look at evaluations of each corporation and its product, the participants replied to the Chinese corporation’s performances and made-in-China product as seen in Table 1.4.1 and showed relatively less favorable evaluations of safety and confidence in the Chinese corporation, such as “safe” ( $M=3.69$ ,  $SD=.70$ ), “trustworthy” ( $M=3.72$ ,  $SD=.71$ ), and “reliable” ( $M=3.76$ ,  $SD=.66$ ). The participants also evaluated the quality of made-in-China product less

than favorably in terms of low agreement to statements such as “ a person who buys *Blueway* is [not] a lower class person” (M=3.46, SD=.81) and “ a person who buys *Blueway* is [not] mistaken in choosing the product” (M=3.45, SD=.81).

The participants did, however, give more favorable evaluations on the potential satisfaction of purchasing the product made in China in terms of high agreement to statements such as “a person who buys *Blueway* is getting a good deal” (M=3.82, SD=.78) and “a person who buys *Blueway* will be [dis]satisfied” (M=4.05, SD=.70). The results seem to reflect the participants’ negative perceptions of Chinese corporations’ performances and products as the literature review suggests.

On the other hand, in terms of evaluations of the Japanese corporation, the *Shimoki* Group, and its *Skysonic* product, the participants gave relatively favorable evaluations on both as seen in Table 1.4.2. For corporate performances, there was relatively high agreement to statements such as “*Shimoki* Group and its members are likely to be reliable” (M=3.97, SD=.61) and “*Shimoki* Group and its members are likely to be safe” (M=3.93, SD=.63). As for the *Skysonic* product, there was relatively high agreement to statements such as “a person who buys *Skysonic* is [not] mistaken in choosing the product” (M=4.18, SD=.70), “a person who buys *Skysonic* is making the best choice” (M=4.07, SD=.71), and “a person who buys *Skysonic* is [not] a lower class person” (M=4.06, SD=.74).

The participants’ evaluations of the German corporation, the *Acoustic Arts* Group, and its *Audio500* product showed overall average degrees of favorableness for its corporate performances. For example, in terms of corporation’s safety precautions, there was average agreement to the statement, “*Acoustic Arts* Group and its members are likely to be safe” (M=3.65, SD=.62), as seen in Table 1.4.3.

Table 1.4.1. Country-of-origin (COO) effect on Chinese corporation (*Desay Group*) and made-in-China product (*Blueway*) in Study 1

	M	SD
Evaluation of Corporate performance		
<i>Desay group and its members are likely to be trustworthy.</i>	3.72	.71
<i>Desay group and its members are likely to be unsafe.*</i>	3.69	.70
<i>Desay group and its members are likely to competent.</i>	3.89	.67
<i>Desay group and its members are likely to unreliable.*</i>	3.76	.66
<i>Desay group and its members are likely to secure.</i>	3.79	.68
Evaluation of Corporate product		
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is making the best choice.	3.60	.72
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is getting a good deal.	3.82	.78
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is a lower class person.*	3.46	.81
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> will be satisfied.	3.77	.78
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is correct in choosing the product.	3.93	.73
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> doesn't care about quality.*	3.75	.86
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is mistaken in choosing the product.*	3.45	.81
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> demands high quality.	3.74	.62
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> will be dissatisfied.*	4.05	.70

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree).

\*These statements were reverse coded.

However, in terms of the product made in Germany, the participants evaluated it highly favorably in terms of high agreement to statements such as “a person who buys *Audio500* is not mistaken in choosing the product” (M=4.08, SD=.71), “a person who buys *Audio500* is [not] a lower class person” (M=4.07, SD=.72), and “a person who buys *Audio500* is making the best choice” (M=4.06, SD=.63).



Table 1.4.2. Country-of-origin (COO) effect on Japanese corporation (*Shimoki* Group) and made-in-Japan product (*Skysonic*) in Study 1

	M	SD
Evaluation of Corporate performance		
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to be trustworthy.	3.87	.68
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to be unsafe.*	3.93	.63
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to competent.	3.88	.76
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to unreliable.*	3.97	.61
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to secure.	3.85	.70
Evaluation of Corporate product		
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is making the best choice.	4.07	.71
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is getting a good deal.	3.95	.61
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is a lower class person.*	4.06	.74
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> will be satisfied.	4.04	.66
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is correct in choosing the product.	3.95	.71
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> doesn't care about quality.*	3.98	.70
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is mistaken in choosing the product.*	4.18	.70
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> demands high quality.	3.97	.75
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> will be dissatisfied.*	3.98	.70

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree).

\*These statements were reverse coded.

In comparing the COO effects of the three Chinese, Japanese, and German corporations and their products (H3.1), significant differences were found showing that participants' overall evaluations of the Japanese corporation and made-in-Japan product ( $M=3.96$ ,  $SD=.50$ ) and the German corporation and made-in-Germany product ( $M=3.91$ ,  $SD=.29$ ) were more favorable than those of the Chinese corporation and made-in-China product ( $M=3.75$ ,  $SD=.39$ ).

Table 1.4.4 indicates that the COO effect of the three corporations countries and their products differed significantly [ $F(2, 126) = 5.232$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. However, in terms of the difference in the COO effect between the Japanese corporation and made-in-Japan product and the German corporation and made-in-Germany product was not significant ( $t=.128$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Table 1.4.3. Country-of-origin (COO) effect on German corporation (*Acoustic Arts* Group) and made-in-Germany product (*Audio500*) in Study 1

	M	SD
Evaluation of Corporate performance		
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to be trustworthy.	3.78	.71
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to be unsafe.*	3.65	.62
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to competent.	3.88	.74
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to unreliable.*	3.79	.70
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to secure.	3.85	.61
Evaluation of Corporate product		
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is making the best choice.	4.06	.63
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is getting a good deal.	4.05	.66
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is a lower class person.*	4.07	.72
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> will be satisfied.	4.04	.61
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is correct in choosing the product.	3.99	.70
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> doesn't care about quality.*	4.04	.72
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is mistaken in choosing the product.*	4.08	.71
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> demands high quality.	4.05	.69
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> will be dissatisfied.*	3.98	.67

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from A 5-point scale 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree).

\*These statements were reverse coded.

A closer look at the COO effect of corporate performances and products of the three respective countries also showed significant differences in the participants' evaluations of the corporations and products. Table 1.4.5 and 1.4.6 show that significant differences were found in terms of corporate performances [ $F(2,126) = .529$ ,  $p < .001$ ] and product [ $F(2, 126) = .514$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. The Japanese corporation and its products were evaluated more favorably than the Chinese corporation and its product. However, differences in evaluations of the Japanese corporation's corporate performance and the German corporation's corporate performance ( $t = .204$ ,  $p > .05$ ) and those of made-in-Japan product and made-in-Germany product ( $t = .157$ ,  $p > .05$ ) were not significant.

Table 1.4.4. Differences in country-of-origin (COO) effect in Study 1

	COO		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Chinese corporation and its product	3.75	.39 (.04)	5.232***
Japanese corporation and its product <sup>a</sup>	3.96	.50 (.04)	
German corporation and its product <sup>a</sup>	3.91	.29 (.05)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Means with matching *a* did not differ significantly at the  $p < .05$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table 1.4.5. Differences in country-of-origin (COO) effect on corporate performances of three corporations in Study 1

	COO		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Chinese corporation	3.77	.45 (.04)	.514***
Japanese corporation <sup>a</sup>	3.90	.44 (.04)	
German corporation <sup>a</sup>	3.91	.29 (.05)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Means with matching *a* did not differ significantly at the  $p < .05$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

In terms of correlations between the national stereotypes about the three countries and the COO effects (H3.2), overall national stereotypes were positively associated with the country-of-origin (COO) effect ( $r = .250$ ,  $p < .01$ ). This means that the more favorable participants' national stereotypes of a country are, the more favorable the participants' evaluations of a corporation located in and product made in that country.

Table 1.4.6. Differences in country-of-origin (COO) effect on products made in three countries in Study 1

	COO		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Made-in-China product	3.73	.59 (.04)	.512***
Made-in-Japan product <sup>a</sup>	4.02	.38 (.04)	
Made-in-Germany product <sup>a</sup>	4.04	.31(.04)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Means with matching *a* did not differ significantly at the  $p < .05$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Taking a closer look at national stereotype and COO effect, Table 1.4.7 shows that national stereotypes (NS) of the three countries were significantly correlated with the country-of-origin (COO) effect of the three corporations and their products: NS of China/Chinese people and COO of the Chinese corporation and its product ( $r = .230$ ,  $p < .01$ ); NS of Japan/Japanese people and COO of the Japanese corporation and its product ( $r = .279$ ,  $p < .01$ ); and NS of Germany/German people and COO of the German corporation and its product ( $r = .177$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

In addition, significant correlations were found between national stereotypes about Japan/Japanese people and country-of-origin effect of the Chinese corporation and its product ( $r = .185$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and between national stereotypes about China/Chinese people and country-of-origin effect of the Japanese corporation and its product ( $r = .197$ ,  $p < .05$ ), while not correlating with national stereotypes about Germany/German people and country-of-origin effect of the German corporation and its product. The results showed that the participants with more favorable national stereotypes of the two Asian countries tend to more favorably evaluate corporate performances of and products made in the two Asian countries.

Table 1.4.7. Correlations between national stereotypes (NS) and country-of-origin (COO) effect in Study 1

COO	NS		
	China/ Chinese people	Japan/ Japanese people	Germany/German people
Chinese corp. and its product	.230**	.185*	.102
Japanese corp. and its product	.197*	.279**	.080
German corp. and its product	.094	.081	.177*

*Note.* Entries are correlation coefficient ( $r$  value)

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$

## **Study 2**

In terms of COO effect in Table 2.3.1, the U.S. participants showed on the whole more favorable evaluations of the Japanese corporation and its product than the Chinese corporation and its product and the German corporation and its product.

Concerning the evaluations of the Chinese corporation's performance and its product, the U.S. participants reported relatively less favorable evaluations of safety and confidence, such as in low agreement with terms such as "safe" ( $M=3.23$ ,  $SD=.77$ ), "trustworthy" ( $M=3.20$ ,  $SD=.82$ ), and "reliable" ( $M=3.38$ ,  $SD=.79$ ), as well as on price-related attributes of the made-in-China product in terms of agreement with statements, such as "a person who buys *Blueway* is not a lower class person" ( $M=3.34$ ,  $SD=.81$ ) and "a person who buys *Blueway* demands high quality" ( $M=3.33$ ,  $SD=.89$ ). The U.S. participants did report more favorable evaluations in terms of the prospective satisfaction of purchasing the made-in-China product in terms of higher agreement to statements such as "a person who buys *Blueway* is getting a good deal" ( $M=3.79$ ,  $SD=.71$ ) and "a person who buys *Blueway* will be [dis]satisfied" ( $M=3.75$ ,  $SD=.72$ ).

The Korean participants' evaluations of the Chinese corporation and its product were less

than favorable in terms of the corporation's safe performance showing low agreement to statements, such as "secure" ( $M=2.77$ ,  $SD=.95$ ) and "safe" ( $M=2.65$ ,  $SD=.70$ ), as well as less than favorable evaluations in terms of confidence in the corporation in terms of low agreement to adjectives about the corporation, such as "reliable" ( $M=2.79$ ,  $SD=.91$ ) and "trustworthy" ( $M=2.68$ ,  $SD=.85$ ). Nonetheless the corporation's competence was relatively highly evaluated ( $M=3.79$ ,  $SD=.79$ ). In terms of evaluations of the made-in-China product, statements related to intention to purchase it, such as "a person who buys *Blueway* is correct in choosing the product" ( $M=3.89$ ,  $SD=.69$ ) and "a person who buys *Blueway* is making the best choice" ( $M=3.84$ ,  $SD=.70$ ) received overall average degrees of agreement. However, the product's quality was less favorably evaluated, as reflected in low agreement to statements: "a person who buys *Blueway* is [not] a lower class person" ( $M=2.58$ ,  $SD=.80$ ); "a person who buys *Blueway* cares about quality" ( $M=2.79$ ,  $SD=.44$ ); and "a person who buys *Blueway* demands high quality" ( $M=2.61$ ,  $SD=.96$ ). The Korean participants' evaluations seem to be associated with Korean news media's negative coverage about products made in China products. Furthermore, impressions of the low-price and low-quality of products made in China products were also revealed.

As for the Japanese corporation (*Shimoki* Group) and its product, the U.S. participants gave relatively favorable evaluations of its corporate performance than its product, as seen in Table 2.3.2. In terms of corporate performance, the U.S. participants agree that the "*Shimoki* Group and its members are likely to be safe" ( $M=3.76$ ,  $SD=.67$ ) and the "*Shimoki* Group and its members are likely to reliable" ( $M=3.60$ ,  $SD=.75$ ). They assigned relative less agreement to statements about its product, for example "a person who buys *Skysonic* is making the best choice" ( $M=3.38$ ,  $SD=.64$ ) and "a person who buys *Skysonic* is [not] mistaken in choosing the product" ( $M=3.38$ ,  $SD=.82$ ). On the other hand, the product's price and quality-related attributes

were favorably evaluated in terms of agreement to statements such as “a person who buys *Skysonic* is [not] a lower class person” (M=3.70, SD=.69) and “a person who buys *Skysonic* demands high quality” (M=3.74, SD=.72).

Table 2.3.1. Country-of-origin (COO) effect on Chinese corporation (*Desay Group*) and made-in-China product (*Blueway*) in Study 2

	COO	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
Evaluation of Corporate performance		
<i>Desay</i> group and its members are likely to be trustworthy.	3.20 (.82)	2.68 (.85)
<i>Desay</i> group and its members are likely to be unsafe.*	3.23 (.77)	2.65 (.70)
<i>Desay</i> group and its members are likely to competent.	3.23 (.72)	3.79 (.79)
<i>Desay</i> group and its members are likely to unreliable.*	3.38 (.79)	2.79 (.91)
<i>Desay</i> group and its members are likely to secure.	3.11 (.77)	2.77 (.95)
Evaluation of Corporate product		
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is making the best choice.	3.59 (.74)	3.84 (.70)
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is getting a good deal.	3.79 (.71)	2.90 (.81)
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is a lower class person.*	3.34 (.81)	2.58 (.80)
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> will be satisfied.	3.58 (.75)	3.51 (.84)
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is correct in choosing the product.	3.54 (.74)	3.89 (.69)
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> doesn't care about quality.*	3.36 (.77)	2.79 (.44)
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> is mistaken in choosing the product.*	3.53 (.75)	3.50 (.61)
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> demands high quality.	3.33 (.89)	2.61 (.96)
A person who buys <i>Blueway</i> will be dissatisfied.*	3.75 (.72)	3.29 (.65)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree). \*These statements were reverse coded.

The Korean participants evaluated the made-in-Japan product relatively more favorably. Statements about the Japanese corporation's corporate performances such as “*Shimoki* Group and its members are likely to be safe” (M=3.58, SD=.63) and “*Shimoki* Group and its members are likely to be secure” (M=3.74, SD=.53) received high agreement, while those of confidence, such

as “*Shimoki* Group and its members are likely to reliable” (M=2.34, SD=.81) and “*Shimoki* Group and its members are likely to trustworthy” (M=2.33, SD=.84), received relatively less agreement. In terms of the product, the Korean participants gave favorable evaluations of its quality, such as “a person who buys *Skysonic* is [not] a lower class person” (M=3.68, SD=.55), “a person who buys *Skysonic* cares about quality” (M=3.50, SD=.64), and “a person who buys *Skysonic* demands high quality” (M=3.43, SD=.74). However, statements about satisfaction with

Table 2.3.2. Country-of-origin (COO) effect on Japanese corporation (*Shimoki* Group) and made-in-Japan product (*Skysonic*) in Study 2

	COO	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
Evaluation of Corporate performance		
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to be trustworthy.	3.58 (.77)	2.33 (.84)
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to be unsafe.*	3.76 (.67)	3.58 (.63)
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to competent.	3.70 (.66)	3.71 (.56)
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to unreliable.*	3.60 (.75)	2.34 (.81)
<i>Shimoki</i> Group and its members are likely to secure.	3.61 (.71)	3.74 (.53)
Evaluation of Corporate product		
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is making the best choice.	3.38 (.64)	3.33 (.75)
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is getting a good deal.	3.35 (.64)	3.58 (.61)
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is a lower class person.*	3.70 (.69)	3.68 (.55)
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> will be satisfied.	3.46 (.69)	2.95 (.91)
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is correct in choosing the product.	3.61 (.68)	3.58 (.89)
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> doesn't care about quality.*	3.49 (.94)	3.50 (.64)
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> is mistaken in choosing the product.*	3.38 (.82)	2.92 (.83)
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> demands high quality.	3.74 (.72)	3.43 (.74)
A person who buys <i>Skysonic</i> will be dissatisfied.*	3.48 (.78)	2.92 (.89)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree). \*These statements were reverse coded.



the product received less than moderate levels of agreement, while the participants gave moderate degrees of agreement to the choice of purchasing the product.

For the German corporation (*Acoustic Arts* Group) and its product (*Audio500*), the U.S. participants evaluated the product more favorable, particularly in terms of satisfaction when purchasing the product. This was indicated by agreement to statements such as “a person who buys *Audio500* is getting a good deal” ( $M=3.85$ ,  $SD=.81$ ) and “a person who buys *Audio500* cares about quality” ( $M=3.76$ ,  $SD=.67$ ) as shown in Table 2.3.3. In terms of its corporate performance, less favorable evaluations were given as indicated by the level of agreement to statements such as “*Acoustic Arts* Group and its members are likely to trustworthy” ( $M=3.10$ ,  $SD=.72$ ) and “*Acoustic Arts* Group and its members are likely to secure” ( $M=3.11$ ,  $SD=.73$ ).

The Korean participants showed relatively favorable evaluations of the German product compared to its corporate performance. They evaluated the product highly favorably in terms of agreement to statements such as: “a person who buys *Audio500* cares about quality” ( $M=3.85$ ,  $SD=.62$ ); “a person who buys *Audio500* is [not] a lower class person” ( $M=3.78$ ,  $SD=.55$ ); and “a person who buys *Audio500* demands high quality” ( $M=3.53$ ,  $SD=.52$ ). Concerning corporate performance, the participants showed higher degrees of agreement toward the corporation’s competence and safety precaution in terms of agreement to the statements: “*Acoustic Arts* Group and its members are likely to be competent” ( $M=3.33$ ,  $SD=.76$ ); “*Acoustic Arts* Group and its members are likely to be secure” ( $M=3.14$ ,  $SD=.63$ ); and “*Acoustic Arts* Group and its members are likely to be safe” ( $M=2.98$ ,  $SD=.42$ ).

Table 2.3.3. Country-of-origin (COO) effect on German corporation (*Acoustic Arts* Group) and made-in-Germany product (*Audio500*) in Study 2

	COO	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
Evaluation of Corporate performance		
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to be trustworthy.	3.10 (.72)	2.83 (.84)
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to be unsafe.*	3.23 (.67)	2.98 (.42)
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to competent.	3.20 (.73)	3.33 (.76)
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to unreliable.*	3.38 (.69)	2.78 (.61)
<i>Acoustic Arts</i> Group and its members are likely to secure.	3.11 (.73)	3.14 (.63)
Evaluation of Corporate product		
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is making the best choice.	3.62 (.64)	2.94 (.55)
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is getting a good deal.	3.85 (.81)	3.38 (.84)
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is a lower class person.*	3.74 (.71)	3.78 (.55)
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> will be satisfied.	3.68 (.65)	2.85 (.72)
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is correct in choosing the product.	3.64 (.84)	3.05 (.59)
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> doesn't care about quality.*	3.76 (.67)	3.85 (.62)
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> is mistaken in choosing the product.*	3.63 (.75)	2.95 (.63)
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> demands high quality.	3.55 (.69)	3.53 (.52)
A person who buys <i>Audio500</i> will be dissatisfied.*	3.65 (.70)	2.99 (.49)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses. Mean score from A 5-point scale 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree).

\*These statements were reverse coded.

The study hypothesized significant differences in the COO effects of the three corporations and their products (H3.1). In Study 2, the U.S. participants' overall evaluations of the Japanese corporation and made-in-Japan product ( $M=3.56$ ,  $SD=.43$ ) was more favorable than those of the Chinese corporation and made-in-China product ( $M=3.46$ ,  $SD=.52$ ) and those of the German corporation and made-in-Germany product ( $M=3.45$ ,  $SD=.52$ ).

Table 2.3.4 shows that the COO effect of corporations in the three countries, namely the Chinese *Desay* Group and its *Blueway* product, the Japanese *Shimoki* Group and its *Skysonic* product, the German *Acoustic Arts* Group and its *Audio500* product, differed significantly [ $F$  (2,

249)= 18.256,  $p < .001$ ].

The Korean participants on the whole more favorably evaluated the Japanese corporation and its product ( $M=3.21$ ,  $SD=.37$ ) and the German corporation and its product ( $M=3.29$ ,  $SD=.37$ ) than the Chinese corporation and its product ( $M=3.12$ ,  $SD=.46$ ). Table 2.3.5 shows that the COO effect of corporations in the two Asian countries, the Chinese corporation and its product and the Japanese corporation and its product differed significantly [ $F(2, 302) = 6.447$ ,  $p < .01$ ]. However, a difference in the COO effect between the Japanese corporation and its product and the German corporation and its product was not significant ( $t=-1.211$ ,  $p > .05$ ).

Table 2.3.4. Differences in U.S. participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect in Study 2

	COO		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Chinese corporation and its product	3.46	.52 (.03)	18.256***
Japanese corporation and its product	3.56	.43 (.03)	
German corporation and its product	3.45	.52 (.04)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table 2.3.5. Differences in Korean participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect in Study 2

	COO		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Chinese corporation and its product <sup>a</sup>	3.12	.46 (.03)	6.447**
Japanese corporation and its product	3.21	.37 (.02)	
German corporation and its product <sup>a</sup>	3.29	.37 (.05)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Means with matching *a* did not differ significantly at the  $p < .05$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Taking a closer look at the COO effect, according to each corporation's performance [ $F(2, 249)=12.394, p<.001$ ] and its product [ $F(2,249)=11.2518, p<.001$ ] significant differences in the U.S. participants' evaluations were found. Table 2.3.6 and 2.3.7 show that in terms of corporate performances, the Japanese corporation was evaluated more favorably than the Chinese corporation, and the product made in Japan was evaluated more favorably than that made in China. Also, in Study 2, differences in evaluations of the Japanese corporation and its product and the German corporation and its product were significant.

Table 2.3.6. Differences in U.S. participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect on corporate performances of three corporations in Study 2

	COO		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Chinese corporation's performance	3.33	.72 (.04)	12.394***
Japanese corporation's performance	3.65	.74 (.04)	
German corporation's performance	3.02	.69 (.05)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p<.001$

Table 2.3.7. Difference in U.S. participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect on products made in three countries in Study 2

	COO		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Made in China product	3.39	.81 (.03)	11.251***
Made in Japan product	3.51	.68 (.03)	
Made in Germany product	3.68	.61 (.04)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p<.001$

In terms of the Korean subjects, as seen in Table 2.3.8 and Table 2.3.9, significant differences were found in the evaluations of three corporations' corporate performances [ $F(2, 302)=37.994, p<.001$ ] and their products [ $F(2, 302)=8.067, p<.01$ ]. The Japanese corporation was evaluated more favorably than a Chinese corporation in terms of corporate performance. Also, the product made in Japan was more favorably evaluated than the product made in China. However, concerning differences in evaluations of the Japanese and the German, corporate performance of the Japanese corporation was more favorably evaluated than that of the German corporation, while a difference in evaluations of the made-in-Japan product and the made-in-Germany product was not significant ( $t=-.821, p>.05$ ).

Table 2.3.8. Differences in Korean participants' Country-of-origin (COO) effect on corporate performances of three corporations in Study 2

	COO		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Chinese corporation	2.91	.57 (.03)	37.994***
Japanese corporation	3.14	.41 (.02)	
German corporation	3.02	.54 (.03)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Standard errors are reported in parentheses.

\*\*\*  $p<.001$ ; \*  $p<.05$

The study's third research question examined whether significantly positive correlations would be found in the national stereotypes of the three countries and the COO effects (H.3.2), assuming that the more favorable the national stereotypes, the more favorable the evaluations of corporations' performances and products would be.

Table 2.3.9. Differences in Korean participants' Country-of-origin (COO) effect on products made in three countries in Study 2

	COO		<i>F</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Made in China product	3.21	.61 (.02)	8.067**
Made in Japan product <sup>a</sup>	3.32	.58 (.02)	
Made in Germany product <sup>a</sup>	3.28	.39 (.04)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Means with matching *a* did not differ significantly at the  $p < .05$ .

\*  $p < .01$

According to Table 2.3.10, Study 2 showed that the U.S. participants' national stereotypes about the three countries were significantly correlated with evaluations of the country's corporation and products made in the country: NS of China/Chinese people and COO of the Chinese corporation and its product ( $r = .317$ ,  $p < .01$ ); NS of Japan/Japanese people and COO of the Japanese corporation and its product ( $r = .484$ ,  $p < .01$ ); and NS of Germany/German people and COO of the German corporation and its product ( $r = .131$ ,  $p < .05$ ).

In addition, significant correlations were also found between national stereotypes of Japan/Japanese people and country-of-origin effect of the Chinese corporation and its product ( $r = .194$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and between national stereotypes of China/Chinese people and country-of-origin effect of the Japanese corporation and its product ( $r = .197$ ,  $p < .05$ ). However, national stereotypes of Germany/German people and COO effects of the two Asian corporations and their products were not associated.

The Korean students' national stereotypes were also positively associated with the country-of- origin (COO) effect. Table 2.3.11 shows that national stereotypes of the two Asian countries were significantly correlated with the country-of-origin effect of the corporations and

their products: NS of China/Chinese people and COO of the Chinese corporation and its product ( $r=.599$ ,  $p<.01$ ); and NS of Japan/Japanese people and COO of the Japanese corporation and its product ( $r=.492$ ,  $p<.01$ ). However, national stereotypes of Germany/German people were not associated with its COO effect.

Table 2.3.10. Correlations between U.S. participants' national stereotypes (NS) and country-of-origin (COO) effect in Study 2

	NS		
	China/ Chinese people	Japan/ Japanese people	Germany/ German people
COO			
Chinese corp. and its product	.317**	.194**	.110
Japanese corp. and its product	.197*	.484**	.063
German corp. and its product	.091	.102	.131*

Note. Entries are correlation coefficient ( $r$  value).

\*\*\*  $p<.001$ ; \*\*  $p<.01$ ; \*  $p<.05$

Also, significant correlations existed between national stereotypes of Japan/Japanese people and COO of the Chinese corporation and its product ( $r=.394$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and between national stereotypes of China/Chinese and COO of the Japanese corporation and its product ( $r=.378$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Stereotypes about Germany/Germans and COO of the other Asian countries were not significantly correlated.

Study 2 examined the third hypothesis in RQ3 assuming that U.S. and Korean college students would demonstrate significant differences in the COO effect on the three countries' corporate performances and their products. Indeed, the results showed that there were significant differences in COO effect between the U.S. and Korean participants: the Chinese corporation and

its product ( $t=10.702$ ,  $p<.001$ ); the Japanese corporation and its product ( $t=7.380$ ,  $p<.001$ ); and the German corporation and its product ( $t=8.822$ ,  $p<.001$ ) as shown in Table 2.3.12.

Table 2.3.11. Correlations between Korean participants' national stereotypes (NS) and country-of-origin (COO) effect in Study 2

	NS		
	China/ Chinese people	Japan/ Japanese people	Germany/ German people
COO			
Chinese corp. and its product	.599**	.394**	.094
Japanese corp. and its product	.378**	.492**	.107
German corp. and its product	.072	.116	.126

Note. Entries are correlation coefficient ( $r$  value)

\*\*\*  $p<.001$ ; \*\*  $p<.01$ ; \*  $p<.05$

Table 2.3.12. Differences in U.S. and Korean participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect on the three corporations and their products in Study 2

	COO		$t$
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects	
Chinese corporation and its product	3.46 (.52)	3.12 (.46)	10.702***
Japanese corporation and its product	3.56 (.43)	3.21 (.37)	7.380***
German corporation and its product	3.45 (.52)	3.19 (.35)	8.822***

Note. Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses.

\*\*\*  $p<.001$

The Korean participants less favorably evaluated the Chinese corporation and its product than the U.S. participants. In particular, the differences were more significant in corporate performances concerning confidence and safety related issues as seen in Table 2.3.1. As for evaluations of the Chinese product, the Korean participants less favorably evaluated price and



quality-related attributes. In terms of different evaluations of the Japanese corporation and its product, the main difference between U.S. and Korean participants was found in agreements to statements about confidence issues. Table 2.3.2 shows that the Korean participants replied lower degrees of agreement to descriptors such as “trustworthy” and “reliable.” Also, for the German corporation and its product, the Korean participants showed less favorable country-of-origin effects, particularly in terms of confidence as measured by agreement to descriptors such as “trustworthy” and “reliable,” than the U.S. subjects. Also, concerning evaluations of the product made in Germany, issues related to its quality and satisfaction of purchasing it were less favorably evaluated by the Korean participants as seen in Table 2.3.3.

#### **Research Question 4: Effect of Counter-Stereotypes on COO Effect**

The study examined whether presenting counter-stereotypical cues influences the country-of-origin effect by comparing the participants’ evaluations of the two Chinese corporate performances and their products, namely the *Desay* Group and its *Blueway* product, whose news story did not contain counter-stereotypical cues, and the *Fenda Technology* Group and its *Twin-Fi* product, whose news story contained counter-stereotypical cues. The study hypothesized that there would be a significant difference in the COO effect between the Chinese corporation presented with counter national stereotype cues and that without counter national stereotype cues (H4.1).

##### **Study 1**

The results of Study 1 showed that the difference in the COO effect of the *Desay* Group and *Blueway* and that of the *Fenda Technology* Group and *Twin-Fi* was significant ( $t=4.650$ ,  $p<.001$ ), as seen in Table 1.5.1.

Table 1.5.1. Difference in country-of-origin (COO) effect according to counter-stereotype (CS) cues in Study 1

	COO		<i>t</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Chinese corporation and its product (No CS cue)	3.75	.39 (.03)	4.650***
Chinese corporation and its product (CS cues)	3.94	.41 (.04)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table 1.5.2. Country-of-origin (COO) effect on Chinese corporation (*Fenda Technology Group*) and made-in-China product (*Twin-Fi*) with Counter stereotypes cues in Study 1

	M	SD
Evaluation of Corporate performance		
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to be trustworthy.	4.17	.78
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to be unsafe.*	4.10	.66
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to competent.	4.06	.70
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to unreliable.*	4.15	.66
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to secure.	3.97	.80
Evaluation of Corporate product		
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is making the best choice.	3.79	.74
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is getting a good deal.	3.96	.72
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is a lower class person.*	3.78	.83
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> will be satisfied.	3.90	.77
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is correct in choosing the product.	3.93	.72
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> doesn't care about quality.*	3.94	.83
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is mistaken in choosing the product.*	3.83	.77
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> demands high quality.	3.74	.72
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> will be dissatisfied.*	3.96	.66

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree).

\*These statements were reverse coded.

The participants' evaluations of the *Fenda Technology Group* and *Twin-Fi* ( $M=3.94$ ,  $SD=.41$ ) were more favorable than those on the *Desay Group* and *Blueway* ( $M=3.75$ ,  $SD=.39$ ). In

particular, compared to the COO effect of the *Desay* group and *Blueway* as shown in Table 1.4.1, the participants more favorably evaluated the *Fenda Technology* Group's corporate performance, in terms of agreement to descriptors such as "trustworthy" ( $M=4.17$ ,  $SD=.78$ ), "reliable" ( $M=4.15$ ,  $SD=.78$ ), and "safe" ( $M=4.10$ ,  $SD=.66$ ) in Table 1.5.2.

According to Table 1.5.3, the participants' evaluations of corporate performance were more strongly significant ( $t=-4.320$ ,  $p<.001$ ) than those of its product ( $t=-3.114$ ,  $p<.01$ ). As such, counter-stereotypical cues, which described the corporation's efforts to alter negative images of Chinese corporations and products made in China, might influence the country-of-origin effect.

Table 1.5.3. Differences in country-of-origin (COO) effect on two Chinese corporations' corporate performances and their products according to counter-stereotype (CS) cues in Study 1

	COO		<i>t</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Corporate Performance			-4.320***
No CS cue	3.77	.45 (.04)	
CS cues	4.09	.54 (.05)	
Product			
No CS cue	3.73	.59 (.04)	-3.114**
CS cues	3.87	.48 (.05)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p<.001$ ; \*\*  $p<.01$

## **Study 2**

The results of Study 2 showed that the U.S. participants' COO effect on evaluations off the *Desay* Group and its *Blueway* product and those of the *Fenda Technology* Group and its

*Twin-Fi* product was significantly different ( $t = -4.064$ ,  $p < .001$ ) as seen in Table 2.4.1. The Korean participants' COO effect on evaluations of the *Desay* Group and its *Blueway* product and those of the *Fenda Technology* Group and its *Twin-Fi* product was also significantly different ( $t = -7.845$ ,  $p < .001$ ), as shown in Table 2.4.2. In other words, the U.S. and Korean participants did more favorably evaluate the *Fenda Technology* Group and its *Twin-Fi* product that was presented using counter-stereotypical cues in the news story than they did the *Desay* group and its *Blueway* product.

Taking a closer look at evaluations on the *Fenda Technology* Group and its *Twin-Fi* product in Table 2.4.3, the U.S. participants more favorably evaluated its corporate performance in agreement to descriptors such as “reliable” ( $M = 3.81$ ,  $SD = .79$ ), “trustworthy” ( $M = 3.73$ ,  $SD = .82$ ), and “competent” ( $M = 3.73$ ,  $SD = .80$ ). The Korean participants also gave relatively favorable evaluations of its corporate performances in agreement to descriptors such as “trustworthy” ( $M = 3.83$ ,  $SD = .51$ ), “reliable” ( $M = 3.46$ ,  $SD = .56$ ), and “competent” ( $M = 3.39$ ,  $SD = .56$ ).

Table 2.4.1. Difference in U.S. participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect according to counter-stereotype (CS) cues in Study 2

	COO		<i>t</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Chinese corporation and its product (No CS cue)	3.46	.52 (.03)	-4.064***
Chinese corporation and its product (CS cues)	3.60	.59 (.04)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table 2.4.2. Difference in Korean participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect according to counter-stereotype (CS) cues in Study 2

	COO		<i>t</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Chinese corporation and its product (No CS cue)	3.12	.46 (.03)	-7.845**
Chinese corporation and its product (CS cues)	3.29	.37 (.02)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*  $p < .01$

For *Twin-Fi*, the product of *Fenda Technology* Group, the U.S. participants showed higher than moderate degrees of COO effect in agreement to statement such as “a person who buys *Twin-Fi* cares about quality” ( $M=3.80$ ,  $SD=.76$ ) and “a person who buys *Twin-Fi* is [not] a lower class person” ( $M=3.71$ ,  $SD=.74$ ). The Korean participants likewise more favorably evaluated in terms of agreement to the two statements: “a person who buys *Twin-Fi* is [not] a lower class person” ( $M=3.62$ ,  $SD=.61$ ); and “a person who buys *Twin-Fi* cares about quality” ( $M=3.56$ ,  $SD=.60$ ). However, the Korean participants' evaluations on other items indicated lower than moderate degrees of agreement.

As hypothesized (H4.1), a significant difference in country-of-origin effect was demonstrated between the corporate performances of the two Chinese corporations, the *Fenda Technology* Group, which was presented with counter-stereotypical cues, and the *Desay* Group, that lacked the counter-stereotypical cues. However, no significant difference was found in evaluations of the two products.

The U.S. participants' evaluations of the *Fenda Technology* Group's corporate performance were more favorable than those of the *Desay* Group ( $t=-4825$ ,  $p<.001$ ) as seen in Table 2.4.4. A significant difference was also found in the Korean participants' evaluations of the

two Chinese corporations' performances ( $t = -10.864$ ,  $p < .001$ ) while not found in the evaluations of the products as seen in Table 2.4.5.

Table 2.4.3. Country-of-origin (COO) effect on Chinese corporation (*Fenda Technology Group*) and made-in-China product (*Twin-Fi*) with Counter stereotype cues in Study 2

	COO	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
Evaluation of Corporate performance		
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to be trustworthy.	3.73 (.82)	3.83 (.51)
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to be unsafe.*	3.65 (.96)	3.12 (.99)
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to competent.	3.73 (.80)	3.39 (.58)
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to unreliable.*	3.81 (.79)	3.46 (.56)
<i>Fenda Technology Group</i> and its members are likely to secure.	3.66 (.78)	2.90 (.97)
Evaluation of Corporate product		
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is making the best choice.	3.26 (.75)	3.12 (.47)
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is getting a good deal.	3.39 (.75)	3.15 (.54)
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is a lower class person.*	3.71 (.74)	3.62 (.61)
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> will be satisfied.	3.57 (.76)	3.52 (.49)
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is correct in choosing the product.	3.37 (.71)	3.53 (.56)
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> doesn't care about quality.*	3.80 (.76)	3.56 (.60)
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> is mistaken in choosing the product.*	3.67 (.77)	3.07 (.79)
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> demands high quality.	3.43 (.89)	2.78 (.90)
A person who buys <i>Twin-Fi</i> will be dissatisfied.*	3.58 (.77)	3.01 (.75)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree).

\*These statements were reverse coded

As hypothesized in H 4.2, a difference in the U.S. and Korean participants' evaluation of the *Fenda Technology Group* and its *Twin-Fi* product was significant ( $t = 4.958$ ,  $p < .001$ ), as there was a significant difference in evaluations of the *Desay Group* and its product ( $t = 10.702$ ,  $p < .001$ ) as shown in Table 2.4.6.

Table 2.4.4. Differences in U.S. participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect on two Chinese corporations' corporate performances and their products according to counter-stereotype (CS) cues in Study 2

	COO		<i>t</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Corporate Performance			-4.825***
No CS cue	3.23	.72 (.04)	
CS cues	3.71	.67 (.04)	
Product			
No CS cue	3.59	.81 (.03)	-1.611
CS cues	3.53	.59 (.04)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

Table 2.4.5. Differences in Korean participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect on the two Chinese corporations' corporate performances and their products according to counter-stereotype (CS) cues in Study 2

	COO		<i>t</i>
	M	SD (SE)	
Corporate Performance			-10.864***
No CS cue	2.91	.57 (.03)	
CS cues	3.34	.50 (.03)	
Product			-1.002
No CS cue	3.21	.61 (.02)	
CS cues	3.26	.38 (.02)	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

The Korean participants evaluated less favorably than the U.S. subjects. In particular, the difference was found in terms of the *Fenda Technology* Group's corporate performance,

particularly in the corporation's safety precautions and confidence in the corporation as seen Table 2.4.3 ( $t=4.958$ ,  $p<.001$ ). This also applied to the difference in evaluations of the *Desay* Group's corporate performance.

Table 2.4.6. Differences in U.S. and Korean participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect on two Chinese corporations and their products according to counter-stereotype (CS) cues in Study 2

	COO		<i>t</i>
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects	
Chinese corporation and its product (No CS cue)	3.46 (.52)	3.12 (.46)	10.702***
Chinese corporation and its product (CS cues)	3.60 (.59)	3.29 (.37)	4.958***

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses.

\*\*\*  $p<.001$

### Research Question 5: Interaction among Variables

The study examined whether three dependent variables, implicit national stereotypes, national stereotype valences, and country-of-origin effect, were influenced by independent variables. Study 1 focused on implicit national stereotypes and country-of-effect and did not include ethnocentrism and patriotism, which were examined in Study 2.

#### **Study 1**

The study expected significant differences in three dependent variables, implicit national stereotypes, national stereotype valences, and country-of-origin effect on, the level of interest in foreign news and information, general use of the Internet, Internet use for news, and reliance on online news media for foreign news and information (H5.2). The study also expected significant differences in the three dependent variables according to favorite topics of foreign news and information as well as and favorite foreign areas (H5.3).



In terms of differences according to use of the Internet, significant differences were found in overall national stereotypes [ $F(4, 126) = 2.500, p < .05$ ]. In particular, national stereotypes about Japan and Japanese people were significantly different [ $F(4, 126) = 3.685, p < .01$ ]. Table 1.6.1 shows 84% of the participants spent more than 3 hours on the internet on daily base. The participants possessed more favorable national stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people than light users, while significant differences were not found in those who use the Internet for reading news.

Table 1.6.1. Differences in national stereotypes (NS) according to general internet use hours in Study 1

		NS					
		China/Chinese people		Japan/Japanese people		Germany/German people	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
Less than 1hr.	2 (2%)	3.38	.53 (.07)	3.47	.54 (.07)	3.40	.42 (.09)
1-2 hrs.	18 (14%)	3.43	.30 (.06)	3.64	.29 (.05)	3.58	.38 (.11)
3-4 hrs.	62 (49%)	3.78	.39 (.05)	3.96	.37 (.07)	3.68	.40 (.08)
5-6 hrs.	33 (26%)	3.67	.40 (.11)	3.89	.32 (.18)	3.57	.32 (.10)
7 or more	11 (9%)	3.74	.58 (.27)	4.20	.47 (.13)	3.87	.43(.15)
		$F = 1.505$		$F = 3.685^{**}$		$F = 1.364$	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

However, differences in implicit national stereotypes and the COO effect were not significant. Also, concerning Internet use for reading news and level of reliance on online news media for foreign news and information, there were no significant associations, differences or correlations with the three dependent variables.

Regarding interaction of favorite topics of foreign news and information, there were no

significant differences in the three dependent variables. At first, national stereotype valences were not different according to the independent variable: China/Chinese people [ $F(5, 126) = 1.736, p > .05$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(5, 126) = 1.305, p > .05$ ]; and Germany/German people [ $F(5, 126) = .736, p > .05$ ]. Between implicit national stereotypes and favorite topics of foreign news and information significant differences were not found: China/Chinese people [ $F(5, 126) = .546, p > .05$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(5, 126) = 1.324, p > .05$ ]; and Germany/German people [ $F(5, 126) = .852, p > .05$ ]. Also, in terms of the COO effect, there were no significant differences according to favorite topics of foreign news and information: the Chinese corporations and its products [ $F(5, 126) = 1.476, p > .05$ ]; the Japanese corporation and its product [ $F(5, 126) = 1.360, p > .05$ ]; and the German corporation and its products [ $F(5, 126) = 1.301, p > .05$ ].

On the other hand, significant differences in national stereotype valences according to the area in which the participants are most interested as shown in Table 1.6.2. Overall national stereotype valences were different in the area of most interested [ $F(5, 126) = 3.689, p < .01$ ]: China/ Chinese people [ $F(5, 126) = 3.379, p < .05$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(5, 126) = 4.195, p < .01$ ]; and Germany/ German people [ $F(5, 126) = 3.105, p < .05$ ]. This showed that the foreign area in which the participants are interested was significantly associated with valences of national stereotypes. For example, the participants interested in East Asian countries, such as China and Japan, tend to have more favorable stereotypes of China/Chinese people and Japan/Japanese people.

Interactions of the participants' favorite foreign area with the other dependent variables were not significant: with implicit national stereotypes, China/Chinese people [ $F(5, 126) = .635, p < .05$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(5, 126) = 1.764, p > .05$ ]; and Germany/German people [ $F(5, 126) = .649, p > .05$ ]; with COO effect, the Chinese corporations and their products [ $F(5, 126)$

=1.500,  $p>.05$ ]; the Japanese corporation and its product [ $F(5, 126) = 2.077$ ,  $p>.05$ ]; and the German corporation and its products [ $F(5, 126) = 1.237$ ,  $p>.05$ ].

The results of Study 1 did not show interactions between gender and other variables, implicit stereotypes, national stereotypes, and country-of- origin: for implicit stereotypes, China/Chinese people ( $t=.388$ ,  $p>.05$ ), Japan/Japanese people ( $t=.436$ ,  $p>.05$ ), and Germany/German people ( $t=.717$ ,  $p>.05$ ); for national stereotypes, China/Chinese people ( $t=-.668$ ,  $p>.05$ ), Japan/Japanese people ( $t=-1.105$ ,  $p>.05$ ), and Germany/German people ( $t=-.867$ ,  $p>.05$ ); and for COO effect, the Chinese ( $t=-.456$ ,  $p>.05$ ), the Japanese ( $t=.560$ ,  $p>.05$ ), and the German ( $t=-.327$ ,  $p>.05$ ).

Table 1.6.2. Differences in national stereotypes (NS) according to favorite foreign area in Study 1

		NS					
		China/Chinese people		Japan/Japanese people		Germany/German people	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
Europe	59 (47%)	3.66	.34 (.05)	3.84	.29 (.04)	3.87	.54 (.03)
Middle Asia	32 (25%)	3.49	.34 (.06)	3.79	.30 (.05)	3.49	.33 (.08)
East Asia	14 (11%)	3.84	.63 (.16)	4.08	.52 (.14)	3.64	.42 (.11)
Canada	15(12%)	3.67	.50 (.12)	3.71	.49 (.11)	3.50	.33 (.09)
Africa	3 (3%)	3.75	.29 (.13)	3.84	.32 (.13)	3.63	.35 (.10)
South America	2 (2%)	3.55	.31 (.12)	3.72	.38 (.10)	3.59	.32 (.08)
		$F = 3.379^*$		$F = 4.195^{**}$		$F = 3.105^*$	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p<.05$ ; \*\*  $p<.01$ ; \*\*\*  $p<.001$ .

Regarding interaction between age and the three variables, significant differences according to age were not found: for implicit stereotypes, China/Chinese people ( $t=.343$ ,  $p>.05$ ),

Japan/Japanese people ( $t=.416$ ,  $p>.05$ ), and Germany/German people ( $t=.618$ ,  $p>.05$ ); for national stereotypes, China/Chinese people ( $t=-.258$ ,  $p>.05$ ), Japan/Japanese people ( $t=-.825$ ,  $p>.05$ ), and Germany/German people ( $t=-.741$ ,  $p>.05$ ); and for COO effect, the Chinese ( $t=-.325$ ,  $p>.05$ ), the Japanese ( $t=.485$ ,  $p>.05$ ), and the German ( $t=-.283$ ,  $p>.05$ ). In terms of possible influence of personal experiences via friends from the three countries, on national stereotypes and country-of-origin of the country, there were no significant differences in terms of stereotypes of each country and country-of-origin effect.

Table 1.6.3. Differences in national stereotypes (NS) according to ethnicity in Study 1

		NS					
		China/Chinese people		Japan/Japanese people		Germany/German people	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
Africans	13 (10%)	4.01	.50 (.09)	3.97	.48 (.13)	3.77	.44 (.11)
Whites	95 (75%)	3.66	.34 (.04)	3.64	.32 (.03)	3.46	.34 (.03)
Hispanics	10 (8%)	3.92	.49 (.09)	4.03	.37 (.12)	3.77	.45 (.09)
Asians	4 (3%)	3.41	.84 (.12)	4.07	.45 (.15)	3.75	.57 (.13)
Other	4 (3%)	3.00	.52 (.26)	3.44	.33 (.10)	3.35	.14 (.19)
		$F=2.848^*$		$F=5.846^{***}$		$F=4.481^{**}$	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p<.05$ ; \*\*  $p<.01$ ; \*\*\*  $p<.001$

Interactions were not significant between ethnicity and the two dependent variables, implicit stereotypes and COO effect. Meanwhile a significant interaction between ethnicity and national stereotypes was found: China/Chinese people [ $F(4, 126) = 2.848$ ,  $p<.05$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(4, 126) = 5.846$ ,  $p<.001$ ]; and Germany/German people [ $F(4, 126) = 4.481$ ,  $p<.01$ ]. On the whole, white participants showed less favorable stereotypes of the three countries

than the others. Table 1.6.3 shows that more favorable national stereotypes of China/Chinese people were found among African American ( $M=4.01$ ,  $SD=.50$ ) and Hispanics ( $M=3.92$ ,  $SD=.49$ ) when compared to whites ( $M=3.66$ ,  $SD=.34$ ) or Asians and Pacific Islanders ( $M=3.41$ ,  $SD=.84$ ). For Japan/Japanese people, white participants also showed less favorable stereotypes ( $M=3.64$ ,  $SD=.32$ ) than Asians or Pacific Islanders ( $M=4.07$ ,  $SD=.45$ ), Hispanics ( $M=4.03$ ,  $SD=.37$ ), and African Americans ( $M=3.97$ ,  $SD=.48$ ). Hispanics ( $M=3.77$ ,  $SD=.44$ ), African Americans ( $M=3.77$ ,  $SD=.44$ ), and Asians or Pacific Islanders ( $M=3.75$ ,  $SD=.57$ ) also showed more favorable stereotypes of Germany/German people than the white participants ( $M=3.46$ ,  $SD=.34$ ).

## **Study 2**

Study 2 examined ethnocentrism and patriotism in Table 2.5.1 and 2.5.2. The U.S. participants' ethnocentrism ( $M=2.57$ ,  $SD=.64$ ) were lower than moderate and patriotism ( $M=3.58$ ,  $SD=.51$ ) was moderate. The Korean participants' levels of ethnocentrism ( $M=3.22$ ,  $SD=.65$ ) and patriotism ( $M=3.29$ ,  $SD=.51$ ) were a little lower than moderate. The U.S. and Korean participants showed significantly different degrees of ethnocentrism ( $t=-11.719$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and patriotism ( $t=5.572$ ,  $p<.001$ ) as seen in Table 2.5.3.

The study 2 also examined the correlation between the two dependent variables, national stereotype and country-of-origin effect, and the level of ethnocentrism and patriotism (H5.1. and H5.4.). Concerning the U.S. participants' national stereotypes, there was a significantly negative correlation between ethnocentrism ( $r=-.125$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and patriotism ( $r=-.175$ ,  $p<.01$ ). However no significant correlation was found between the two variables and the COO effect.

Table 2.5.1. Ethnocentrism in Study 2

	Ethnocentrism	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
Americans (Koreans) should only buy American (Korean)-made products.	2.23 (.89)	2.49 (.71)
Only those products that are unavailable in the U.S. (Korea) should be imported.	2.76 (.98)	2.61 (.90)
Buy American (Korean) products. Keep Americans (Koreans) working.	3.45 (.92)	4.13 (.83)
American (Korean) products first, last, and foremost.	2.60 (.76)	3.42 (.96)
It is not right to buy foreign-made products.	1.94 (.92)	3.15 (.98)
A real American (Korean) always buys American (Korean)-made products.	2.15 (.96)	3.25 (1.12)
We should purchase products manufactured in America (Korea) instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.	2.86 (.99)	3.63 (.91)
It is always best to purchase American (Korean) products.	2.76 (.92)	3.61 (.84)
There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries, unless out of necessity.	2.30 (1.02)	3.26 (.89)
Americans (Koreans) should not buy foreign products because this hurts American (Korean) business and causes unemployment.	2.62 (.82)	3.10 (.89)
Curbs should be put on all imports.	2.64 (.92)	2.76 (.73)
It may cost me more, but I prefer to buy American (Korean) products.	2.91 (.82)	2.89 (.77)
Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in the U.S.	2.40 (.92)	3.31 (.98)
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	2.86 (.89)	3.53 (.81)
American (Korean) consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans (Koreans) out of work.	2.14 (.78)	3.23 (.98)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree).

Table 2.5.2. Patriotism in Study 2

	Patriotism	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
I love my country.	4.24 (.77)	3.56 (.67)
I am not proud to be an American (Korean)*.	2.75 (1.01)	2.97 (.90)
I feel great pride in the land that is America (Korea).	3.99 (.85)	3.58 (.93)
Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to America (Korea) always remains strong.	3.94 (.79)	3.75 (.74)
When I see the American (Korean) flag flying, I do not feel great.*	3.65 (.98)	2.87 (1.07)
I do not have to buy American (Korean) products because I am American (Korean).*	2.92 (.96)	2.54 (.94)
The fact that I am an American (Korean) is an important part of my identity.	3.92 (1.04)	3.85 (.86)
I do not feel guilty when I buy foreign products instead of American (Korean) products.*	2.78 (.91)	2.74 (.78)
I am emotionally attached to my country.	3.65 (.98)	3.77 (.84)

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses. Mean score from A 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree).

\*These statements were reverse coded

Table 2.5.3. Differences in U.S. and Korean participants' ethnocentrism and patriotism in Study 2

	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects	<i>t</i>
Ethnocentrism	2.57 (.64)	3.22 (.65)	-11.719***
Patriotism	3.54 (.51)	3.29 (.51)	5.572***

*Note.* Entries are mean; Standard deviation is in parentheses.

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

According to Table 2.5.4 and 2.5.5, for the Korean subjects, significantly negative correlations were found between ethnocentrism and national stereotypes ( $r = -.403$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and the COO effect ( $r = -.474$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Also, a significant negative correlation between national stereotypes and patriotism was found ( $r = -.169$ ,  $p < .01$ ) but no significant correlation was found with the COO effect.

Table 2.5.4. Correlations between Korean participants' ethnocentrism and patriotism and national stereotypes (NS) and country-of-origin (COO) in Study 2

	Ethnocentrism		Patriotism	
	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects	U.S. subjects	Korean subjects
NS	-.125*	-.403**	-.175**	-.169**
COO	-.057	-.474**	-.007	-.040

*Note.* Entries are correlation coefficient (*r* value)

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$

Additionally, Study 2 examined differences in the two dependent variables, national stereotype valences and country-of-origin effect, according to hours of Internet use, the level of interest in foreign news and information, and reliance on online news media for foreign news and information (H5.2), favorite topics of foreign news and information, and favorite foreign areas (H5.3).

According to general use of the Internet and its use for news, no significant difference was found in the U.S. participants' national stereotypes and COO effect or ethnocentrism and patriotism [ $F(3, 302) = 2.500, p > .05$ ]. However, the Korean participants on the whole showed different degrees of national stereotype valences according to hours of general Internet use [ $F(3, 302) = 7.415, p < .001$ ]: China/Chinese people [ $F(3, 302) = 8.598, p < .001$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(3, 302) = 12.951, p < .001$ ]; and Germany/German people [ $F(3, 302) = 5.949, p < .001$ ]. Table 2.5.5 shows interesting results that 79% of the Korean participants who use generally the Internet for 3 to 6 hours a day revealed less favorable national stereotypes about China/Chinese people while revealing more favorable national stereotypes of Japan/Japanese people and Germany/German people than lighter Internet users, such as those who used the internet for 1 to 2 hours daily.



Table 2.5.5. Differences in Korean participants' national stereotypes (NS) according to hours of general Internet use and use for reading news in Study 2

		NS					
		China/Chinese people		Japan/Japanese people		Germany/German people	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
General use							
1-2 hrs.	53 (17%)	3.33	.32 (.07)	3.12	.30 (.07)	2.92	.57 (.08)
3-4 hrs.	147 (49%)	2.98	.49 (.05)	3.13	.31 (.05)	3.48	.46 (.05)
5-6 hrs.	91 (30%)	2.94	.37 (.07)	3.44	.32 (.06)	3.34	.56 (.08)
7 or more	11 (4%)	3.13	.60 (.18)	3.83	.16 (.14)	3.55	.17 (.13)
		<i>F</i> =8.598***		<i>F</i> =12.951***		<i>F</i> =5.949***	
Use for News							
less than 30m.	31 (10%)	3.45	.31 (.06)	2.79	.27 (.07)	3.02	.38 (.05)
1hour	144 (47%)	2.49	.49 (.05)	3.23	.32 (.04)	3.48	.51 (.06)
2 hours	120 (40%)	2.51	.31 (.05)	3.26	.30 (.04)	3.17	.49 (.06)
3 hours	5 (2%)	2.65	.41 (.08)	3.72	.10 (.06)	3.38	.44 (.05)
4 or more	2 (1%)	4.00	.00 (.00)	4.00	.00 (.00)	3.60	.00 (.00)
		<i>F</i> =18.275***		<i>F</i> =11.316***		<i>F</i> =9.857***	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p<.05$ ; \*\*  $p<.01$ ; \*\*\*  $p<.001$

According to Internet use for reading news, significant differences were also found in the Korean participants' responses [ $F(4, 302) = 16.093, p<.001$ ]: China/Chinese people [ $F(4, 302) = 18.275, p<.001$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(4, 302) = 11.316, p<.001$ ]; and Germany/German people [ $F(4, 302) = 9.857, p<.001$ ]. The results showed that heavy Internet users for reading news also tend to have less favorable national stereotypes of China/Chinese people than light users compared to the more favorable national stereotypes of Japan/Japanese people and Germany/German people they possessed.

Also regarding to the COO effect, evaluations of the Japanese corporation and its product

did significantly differ according to hours of Internet use [ $F(3, 302) = 6.101, p < .001$ ]. According to Table 2.5.6, 79% of the Korean participants who use generally the Internet for 3 to 6 hours a day revealed more favorable evaluations of the Japanese corporation and its product than lighter internet users.

In terms of the COO effect, evaluations of the Chinese corporation and its product [ $F(4, 302) = 5.188, p < .001$ ] and those of the Japanese corporation and its product [ $F(4, 302) = 6.408, p < .001$ ] did significantly differ according to hours of daily Internet use for reading news. The differences also revealed that heavy users that use the Internet to read news tend to have less favorable evaluations of the Chinese corporation and the made-in-China product as well as more favorable evaluations of the Japanese corporation and the made-in-Japan product compared to light internet users for news.

Concerning degrees of reliance on online news media for foreign news and information, there were no significant associations with national stereotypes and COO for either the U.S. or Korean subjects. According to favorite topics of foreign news and information and favorite foreign areas (H5.3), the U.S. students' national stereotypes did not differ according to news topics in which they are most interested.

On the other hand, for the Korean subjects, Table 2.5.7 shows that according to favorite news topics, differences were significant in terms of the participants' national stereotypes of the three countries: China/Chinese [ $F(5, 302) = 19.565, p < .001$ ], Japan/Japanese people [ $F(5, 302) = 17.250, p < .001$ ], and Germany/German [ $F(5, 302) = 16.318, p < .001$ ]. The Korean participants interested in political issues had more favorable national stereotypes of China/Chinese people, those interested in economic and technology topics had more favorable national stereotypes about Japan/Japanese people, and those interested in cultural and sports topics had more

favorable national stereotypes about Germany/German people.

Table 2.5.6. Differences in Korean participants' country-of-origin (COO) according to the level of general internet use and use for news in Study 2

		COO					
		Chinese corp. its product (no CS cues)		Japanese corp. /its product		German corp. /its product	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
General use							
1-2 hrs.	53 (17%)	3.08	.41 (.06)	3.07	.38 (.08)	3.18	.38 (.04)
3-4 hrs.	147 (49%)	3.08	.49 (.09)	3.13	.37 (.05)	3.18	.42 (.06)
5-6 hrs.	91 (30%)	3.17	.38 (.05)	3.24	.33 (.08)	3.13	.34 (.07)
7 or more	11 (4%)	3.11	.75 (.11)	3.47	.30 (.15)	3.27	.42 (.11)
		<i>F</i> =2.203		<i>F</i> =6.101***		<i>F</i> =.951	
Use for News							
less than 30m.	31 (10%)	3.07	.47 (.06)	3.12	.51 (.03)	3.11	.36 (.08)
1hour	144 (47%)	2.82	.49 (.05)	3.21	.35 (.02)	3.19	.39 (.05)
2 hours	120 (40%)	2.74	.38 (.04)	3.14	.31 (.04)	3.08	.30 (.06)
3 hours	5 (2%)	3.14	.19 (.06)	3.31	.35 (.09)	3.32	.08 (.03)
4 or more	2 (1%)	3.83	.00 (.00)	3.72	.00 (.00)	3.25	.00 (.00)
		<i>F</i> =5.188***		<i>F</i> =6.408***		<i>F</i> =2.111	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

According to the foreign area in which the participants expressed most interested, the U.S. participants' national stereotypes were not different. However, the Korean participants' national stereotype valences were different in terms of the foreign area: China/Chinese people [ $F(5, 302) = 40.566, p < .001$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(5, 302) = 37.443, p < .001$ ]; and Germany/German people [ $F(5, 302) = 96.118, p < .001$ ] as seen in Table 2.5.8.

Table 2.5.7. Differences in Korean participants' national stereotypes (NS) according to favorite news topics in Study 2

		NS					
		China/Chinese people		Japan/Japanese people		Germany/German people	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
Cultural	84 (28%)	2.83	.42 (.06)	3.19	.20 (.04)	3.22	.48 (.07)
Political	84 (28%)	3.19	.51 (.05)	3.24	.30 (.03)	2.63	.65 (.02)
Economic	72 (24%)	2.95	.32 (.04)	3.68	.32 (.04)	2.81	.18 (.06)
Sports	37 (12%)	2.71	.20 (.04)	2.96	.21 (.03)	3.44	.42 (.05)
Technology	10 (3%)	2.83	.22 (.06)	3.73	.23 (.04)	3.07	.30 (.05)
Other	15 (5%)	3.63	.22 (.07)	3.48	.47 (.04)	3.56	.29 (.04)
		$F=19.565^{***}$		$F=17.250^{***}$		$F=16.318^{***}$	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p<.05$ ; \*\*  $p<.01$ ; \*\*\*  $p<.001$

The foreign area in which the participants are most interested was significantly associated with valences of national stereotypes. For example, the Korean participants most interested in East Asian countries such as China and Japan showed more favorable stereotypes of China/Chinese people and Japan/Japanese people.

The study examined differences in national stereotypes, COO effect, ethnocentrism, and patriotism according to participants' demographics and personal experience through relationship with friends from the three countries.

Table 2.5.8. Differences in Korean participants' national stereotypes (NS) according to favorite foreign area in Study 2

		NS					
		China/Chinese people		Japan/Japanese people		Germany/German people	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
Europe	41 (14%)	2.57	.42 (.07)	3.48	.31 (.05)	3.77	.56 (.06)
Middle Asia	20 (6%)	3.02	.43 (.05)	3.05	.33 (.04)	3.29	.30 (.04)
East Asia	67 (22%)	3.45	.42 (.09)	3.73	.31 (.07)	3.26	.45 (.05)
N. America	161 (53%)	2.77	.28 (.02)	3.02	.17 (.01)	3.35	.21 (.03)
Africa	2 (1%)	3.21	.12 (.00)	3.47	.00 (.00)	2.67	.03 (.00)
S. America	11 (4%)	3.00	.30 (.09)	3.51	.31 (.09)	3.60	.31 (.09)
		$F = 40.565^{***}$		$F = 37.443^{***}$		$F = 96.118^{***}$	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

At first, the U.S. participants' ethnic backgrounds interacted with the variables. At first, significant differences in the interaction between ethnic background and national stereotypes were found: China and Chinese people [ $F(3, 249) = 4.073, p < .001$ ]; and Germany and German people [ $F(3, 249) = 3.021, p < .05$ ]. Table 2.5.9 shows that more favorable national stereotypes of China/Chinese people were found in Hispanics ( $M = 3.81, SD = .37$ ) and African Americans ( $M = 3.58, SD = .44$ ) than among white ( $M = 3.44, SD = .34$ ) and Asian participants ( $M = 3.21, SD = .33$ ). For Germany/German people, the white participants showed more favorable stereotype ( $M = 3.44, SD = .48$ ) than the African American participants ( $M = 3.30, SD = .38$ ) and Hispanic participants ( $M = 3.06, SD = .28$ ). However, there was no significant difference in national stereotypes of Japan/Japanese people.

Table 2.5.9. Differences in U.S. participants' national stereotype valences according to ethnicity in Study 2

		China/Chinese people		Japan/Japanese people		Germany/German people	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
White	192 (77%)	3.44	.44 (.03)	3.54	.37 (.02)	3.44	.38 (.03)
Black	26 (10%)	3.58	.37 (.09)	3.60	.34 (.07)	3.30	.48 (.07)
Hispanic	12 (5%)	3.81	.37 (.07)	3.47	.22 (.06)	3.06	.28 (.08)
Asian	15 (6%)	3.32	.33 (.07)	3.53	.38 (.08)	3.29	.35 (.00)
		$F = 4.073^{***}$		$F = .564$		$F = 3.021^*$	

*Note.* Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

An interaction between ethnic background and the COO effect was not significant. On the other hand, significant differences in ethnocentrism [ $F(3, 249) = 2.898, p < .05$ ] and patriotism [ $F(3, 249) = 2.727, p < .05$ ] were found in terms of ethnicity. Table 2.5.10 shows that the white participants' ethnocentrism ( $M = 2.63, SD = .63$ ) and patriotism ( $M = 3.57, SD = .52$ ) were stronger than African Americans' ( $M = 2.041, SD = .65; M = 3.30, SD = .45$ ) and Hispanics' ( $M = 2.44, SD = .67; M = 3.43, SD = .21$ ).

The U.S. participants' gender did not show significant interactions with the variables. A difference according to age in ethnocentrism was found as seen in Table 2.5.10, which notes that the older U.S. participants' ethnocentrism was stronger than the younger participants' [ $F(2, 249) = 8.454, p < .001$ ] but in terms of patriotism the difference was not significant.

Personal experience with friends from the three countries and other Asian countries showed no interaction with national stereotype, COO effect, or patriotism. However, a significant interaction was found with the degrees of the U.S. participants' ethnocentrism, though not presented in Table 10. The ethnocentrism degrees of 158 U.S. participants with Japanese friends

( $M=2.51$ ,  $SD=.62$ ) and 181 with Chinese friends ( $M=2.52$ ,  $SD=.62$ ) were lower than that of the other participants who had no Japanese friends ( $M=2.69$ ,  $SD=.65$ ) and no Chinese friends ( $M=2.71$ ,  $SD=.65$ ). The differences were significant ( $t=-2.113$ ,  $p<.05$ ;  $t=-2.029$ ,  $p<.05$ ). Ninety U.S. participants who had no German friends ( $M=2.74$ ,  $SD=.66$ ) showed stronger ethnocentrism than the other participants with German friends ( $M=2.47$ ,  $SD=.60$ ). The difference was also significant ( $t=-3.326$ ,  $p<.001$ ).

Table 2.5.10. Differences in U.S. participants' ethnocentrism and patriotism according to demographics in Study 2

		Ethnocentrism		Patriotism	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
Age					
18-21	139 (56%)	2.43	.61(.05)	3.52	.52 (.04)
22-25	82 (33%)	2.74	.65 (.07)	3.53	.50 (.05)
26-29	28 (11%)	2.80	.55(.10)	3.64	.47 (.09)
		<i>F</i> =8.454***		<i>F</i> =.631	
Ethnicity					
Whites	192 (77%)	2.63	.63 (.05)	3.57	.52 (.04)
Blacks	26 (10%)	2.41	.65 (.12)	3.30	.45 (.09)
Hispanics	12 (5%)	2.44	.67 (.19)	3.43	.21 (.06)
Asians	15 (6%)	2.45	.58 (.15)	3.52	.54 (.14)
		<i>F</i> =2.898*		<i>F</i> =2.727*	

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*\*\*  $p<.001$ ; \*  $p<.05$

As for the Korean participants' overall national stereotypes, a significant difference in gender was found [ $F(1, 302) = 75.382$ ,  $p<.001$ ]: China/Chinese people [ $F(1, 302) = 52.984$ ,  $p<.001$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(1, 302) = 72.634$ ,  $p<.001$ ]; and Germany/German people [ $F(1, 302) = 59.950$ ,  $p<.001$ ]. Table 2.5.11 shows that the male Korean participants tended to have

less favorable national stereotypes about the three countries compared to the female subjects.

The Korean participants' age was also associated with national stereotypes [ $F(2, 302) = 5.346$ ,  $p < .001$ ]: China/Chinese people [ $F(2, 302) = 6.620$ ,  $p < .01$ ]; Japan/Japanese people [ $F(2, 302) = 6.374$ ,  $p < .01$ ]; and Germany/German people [ $F(2, 302) = 4.378$ ,  $p < .05$ ]. The older Korean participants showed less favorable national stereotypes of the three countries than the younger subjects.

Table 2.5.11. Differences in Korean participants' national stereotype valences according to demographics in Study 2

		China/Chinese people		Japan/Japanese people		Germany/German people	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
Gender							
Male	150 (50%)	2.85	.34 (.03)	3.24	.29 (.03)	2.82	.52 (.03)
Female	152 (50%)	3.23	.48 (.04)	3.52	.28 (.02)	3.23	.42 (.04)
		$F = 52.984^{***}$		$F = 72.634^{***}$		$F = 59.950^{***}$	
Age							
18-21	77 (26%)	3.14	.50 (.06)	3.48	.33 (.04)	3.17	.47 (.07)
22-25	94 (31%)	3.07	.39 (.04)	3.38	.38 (.04)	3.00	.57 (.09)
26-29	131 (43%)	2.94	.44 (.04)	3.30	.25 (.03)	2.76	.48 (.08)
		$F = 6.620^{**}$		$F = 6.374^{**}$		$F = 4.378^*$	

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

For differences in the COO effect according to gender in Table 2.5.12, compared to the female Korean subjects, the male participants less favorably evaluated the Chinese corporation



and its product [ $F(1, 302) = 50.083, p < .001$ ] and the German corporation and its products [ $F(1, 302) = 59.412, p < .001$ ] but their evaluations of the Japanese corporation and its product did not differ from the female subjects. Also, according to age, the younger participants evaluated the three corporations and their products more favorably than the older students: the Chinese corporation and its product [ $F(2, 302) = 4.637, p < .001$ ]; the Japanese corporation and its product [ $F(2, 302) = 4.425, p < .01$ ]; and the German corporation and its product [ $F(2, 302) = 4.127, p < .05$ ].

Table 2.5.12. Differences in Korean participants' country-of-origin (COO) effect according to demographics in Study 2

		Chinese Corp. and its product (no CS cue)		Japanese Corp. and its product		German Corp. and its product	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
Gender							
Male	150 (50%)	2.94	.31 (.03)	3.19	.22 (.02)	2.95	.27 (.03)
Female	152 (50%)	3.29	.52 (.04)	3.21	.47 (.04)	3.19	.31 (.05)
		$F = 50.083^{***}$		$F = .269$		$F = 59.412^{***}$	
Age							
18-21	77 (26%)	3.25	.55 (.06)	3.31	.46 (.05)	3.29	.31 (.06)
22-25	94 (31%)	3.09	.42 (.04)	3.20	.29 (.03)	3.21	.54 (.05)
26-29	131 (43%)	3.06	.41 (.04)	3.11	.34 (.03)	3.07	.37 (.03)
		$F = 4.637^{**}$		$F = 4.425^{**}$		$F = 4.127^*$	

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

The Korean participants' degrees of ethnocentrism differed according to gender and age as shown in Table 2.5.13. The male students showed stronger ethnocentrism than the female did [ $F(1, 302) = 37.755, p < .001$ ]. Age also significantly influenced the degree of ethnocentrism [ $F(2, 302) = 54.541, p < .001$ ] showing that the older participants' ethnocentrism was stronger than that of the younger subjects. However, the degrees of patriotism did not differ significantly according to gender or age.

Table 2.5.13. Differences in Korean participants' ethnocentrism and patriotism according to demographics in Study 2

		Ethnocentrism		Patriotism	
		M	SD (SE)	M	SD (SE)
Gender					
Male	150 (50%)	3.44	.46 (.04)	3.29	.43 (.04)
Female	152 (50%)	3.01	.75 (.06)	3.28	3.58 (.05)
		<i>F</i> =37.755***		<i>F</i> =.021	
Age					
18-21	77 (26%)	2.66	.48 (.06)	3.21	.58 (.06)
22-25	94 (31%)	3.30	.52 (.05)	3.30	.54 (.06)
26-29	131 (43%)	3.49	.63 (.05)	3.36	.44 (.04)
		<i>F</i> =54.541***		<i>F</i> =1.809	

Note. Entries are mean scores and standard deviation.

\*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$

## **CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS**

National image management has been a challenging task for public relations practitioners despite continuous public relations efforts. In particular, the Chinese government and its leading corporations have prioritized changing a national image that has been repeatedly and unfavorably presented in foreign news media. A series of made-in-China product scandals have tainted the image of China and Chinese people as well as damaged Chinese business' reputation.

China's negative national image has also been a major problem for partner countries with which it has a trading relationship, such as the United States and South Korea. These countries have increased trade with the Chinese government and corporations. As such, multinational corporations, typified by Procter & Gamble, must view China as an attractive emerging market because they have enjoyed the benefits from outsourcing to reduce manufacturing expenses and hiring lower-paid manpower in China. Trading with China and its corporations could also be seen as beneficial considering its massive potential as a consumer market. In view of these benefits of partnering with China and Chinese corporations investigated not only whether the national images of China and its people repeatedly presented in news media might influence foreign publics' impression of the country, but also whether national images can be implicitly stereotyped. From a practical viewpoint, the study sought to explore the effect of national stereotypes on products and corporations in the country, which is referred to as country-of-origin, and to suggest a more effective strategy of national image management.

Focusing on themes such as implicit national stereotypes, national stereotype valences, country-of-origin (COO) effect, and counter national stereotype, the study presented six research questions. The first research question explored whether national stereotypes can be applicable to

implicit stereotypes by measuring possible differences in participants' reaction times (RTs). The second and third research questions compared valences of national stereotypes and country-of-origin effect. The fourth research question examined the effect of counter national stereotypical cues on COO effect. The fifth research question identified interactions of the three variables, namely implicit stereotypes, national stereotypes, and COO effect, with independent variables. The final research question analyzed which variable(s) could most contribute to predicting COO effect.

Furthermore, the researcher has been concerned with national stereotypes and COO effect between U.S. and South Korean consumers. The assumption is that national stereotypes and COO effect might differ between U.S. and Korean citizens. This premise is grounded in cultural differences between the two countries, such as individualism in the U.S. verses collectivism in South Korea. Moreover, unlike the United States' characteristically diverse society, South Korea has maintained its racial homogeneity and anti-foreign sentiment stemming from thousands of years of continuous invasions from adjacent nations (Choi, 1997). The researcher predicted that South Koreans' national stereotypes of foreign countries, in particular China and Japan, would reflect its historical experiences with other countries' armed aggression, including those with China and Japan, its status as one of the few divided countries in the world, and its current political relationship with China and Japan in inter-Korean relations. The results of the comparative study on the whole supported these assumptions, indicating noticeable differences in national stereotypes and COO effect between the U.S. and Korean respondents.

The researcher identified three findings noteworthy to scholars of public relations and social psychology as well as overseas practitioners. Of most interest is the possibility that people's perception of a national image could be implicitly stereotyped if exposed to repetition of

negative information and news about the country. The finding indicates that uncovering unfavorable existing national images, such as insecure and unreliable, and emphasizing the antitheses of these images could be a more convincing strategy rather than denying or hiding negative images. Also, citizenship contributes to noteworthy differences in national stereotypes and COO effect.

The discussions about the results, especially implicit stereotypes and national stereotypes, focused on the findings from the two Asian countries and their people rather than those of Germany and Germans because, as aforementioned, the researcher included the traits of the country and its people in the statements of implicit stereotypes and national stereotype valences to examine correlations between national stereotype valences and COO effect. More detailed conclusions and implications of the results from Study 1 and 2 are presented according to the six research questions, including comparing the U.S. students' responses to the Korean students' responses in the online survey.

### **Implicit National Stereotypes**

The study examined the possibility of applying national stereotypes to implicit stereotypes. The use of reaction times (RTs) was determined by considering the gray area in which people tend to hesitate displaying stereotypes. The stereotype can nonetheless be exposed as previous studies in gender and race stereotypes have revealed in slow reaction times in response to attributes not conforming to existing stereotypes of women and African Americans (Blair et al., 2001; Bodenhausen, Schwarz, Bless, & Wanke, 1995).

A key assumption of the first research question was that the repeated negative images of China and its people in the news media can, though not directly demonstrated in the study, prime the participants' image of the country and its publics. In this light, people more slowly respond to

attributes inconsistent with national images that might be repeatedly presented in news media. The difference in reaction times to traits consistent with national images presented in news media and existing stereotypes identified in former studies, compared to images that defy those in the news media and former studies, considered an implicit stereotype. People tend to unconsciously resist when interacting with national stereotypes that are not consistent with the existing national images they hold. Thus, in terms of China and its publics, the existing images presented in the news have been slanted to be unfavorable, and a series of occurrences in which products made in China were involved could reinforce its negative national stereotypes.

The findings of Study 1 indicate overall differences in reaction times between attributes consistent and inconsistent with existing stereotypes of all three countries were not significant. In other words, a comparison of the reaction times to attributes of all three countries was not a statistically meaningful result. However, the differences in reaction times for each country reveal the potential that national stereotype can be implicit if considering national stereotypes of each country. The findings note that implicit national stereotypes need to be comprehended by country rather than considering the overall national stereotypes of countries in general.

Moreover, the differences in reaction times of the three countries captured the researcher's attention. In terms of consistent attributes, the participants' responses were faster to traits of Japan and its publics than those of China and Germany. However, the reaction times to inconsistent attributes of Japan and its publics were slower than those of China and Germany. The findings show that the U.S. college students' national stereotypes of Japan and its publics seem more implicit than those of the other two countries.

The discrepancy of reaction time implies that the national images the U.S. students hold toward Japan and its people seem to be stable and consistent as well as favorable compared to

China and its publics, for whom images have fluctuated and mixed. For instance, Kunczik (1997) noted Americans' combined image of China as positive, in terms of "intelligent, hard-working, peace-loving, strong family ties" when linking to the image of the great old Chinese civilization, and as negative, in terms of such as "cruel, barbarian, and inhuman" when referring to the era of Mao Tse Tung (Kunczik, 1997, p. 53).

On the other hand, negative stereotypes of Japan, such as sly, treacherous, and extremely nationalistic were perpetuated during and after World War II (Katz & Braly, 1958). These included images of Japan business practices and personnel as "unscrupulous, clever, and mysterious who care only about their own interests" (Kunczik, 1997, p. 137). A study noted that news of Japan in the U.S. news media has mainly focused on economic news (Atwood, 1987). For example, the U.S. press has emphasized the trade imbalance with Japan using metaphors such as "new enemy" or "economic enemy," in covering Japan (Luther, 2002, p. 157).

Nonetheless, the national images of Japan that Americans tend to hold seem more consistent and favorable compared to those toward China. As military allies and increasingly interdependent economic partners, Japan and the United States have cooperated closely to build a close relationship since in the mid-1970s, when Japan emerged as the second largest economic power in the world (Finn, 1986). Japan's rise to the position of the world's most competitive trading nation and the largest creditor nation of the United States has basically altered the relationship between the two countries.

The findings are worthy of notice showing the potential of applying national stereotypes to implicit stereotypes if utilized for a certain country for which images are relatively stable and consistent, such as of those of Japan, as many of the former studies on implicit stereotypes have focused on a certain gender (female) and race (African American), which are stereotyped in

media. However, the results obtained from using the reaction time (RT) technique to measure implicit stereotypes should be understood as an implication to shed light on the possibility that national stereotypes can be implicit because the use of the technique cannot guarantee participants' unawareness of their attitudes toward foreign countries. Thus, it points to the need for demonstrating the applicability of national stereotypes to implicit stereotypes in follow-up studies employing other measurement techniques including the implicit association test (IAT). RT's limitation as a measurement technique for implicit attitudes is just as significant as other techniques' limitations as discussed in the field of social psychology. Social psychologists have noted that researchers need "not to equate an implicitly measured construct with an unconscious one" in that the techniques provide estimates of individuals' attitudes and without asking participants for relevant information (Fazio & Olson, 2002, p.303).

Moreover, taking flexibility of national image and stereotypes into consideration, the results need to be interpreted with extreme caution because national stereotypes seem more complex and dynamic than those of gender and race. For example, the March 11, 2011 earthquake in Japan occurring after this study might influence the foreign publics' national image and stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people either favorably or unfavorably. In this vein, the application of national stereotype as an implicit stereotype has limitations. It also shows the need to improve the study's validity and the need for further studies to examine a possible change in Japan's national image since the disaster.

Nevertheless, public relations practitioners will find national image management challenging in that the results infer the possibility that repeatedly negative national images can inspire stereotypes. Practitioners should be aware that the exposure to information (e.g., through the media) can affect one's judgment of a certain country and its people without a person's



knowledge of the influence. In other words, foreign publics' national stereotypes can be implicit in the case of a country for which images have been relatively stable and consistent. In this vein, overseas practitioners need to implement different strategies in managing national image considering whether existing national images have been stable and consistent. For example, if national images have been fluctuated and mixed and its current images seem overwhelmingly unfavorable as seen in those of China and its people, practitioners could alter unfavorable national image by utilizing counter-stereotype strategy, which the present study suggests afterward.

### **National Stereotypes**

U.S. students' national stereotype valences of the three countries in Study 1 and 2 are not much different in that they both show more favorable valences toward Japan and its publics compared to the Chinese and German. In particular, the differences in valences of the two Asian countries and their people were noticeable in comparing the attributes related to safety and confidence. U.S. students tended to regard Japan and its publics as more trustworthy, secure, and competent than China and its people.

The findings seem to reflect the argument that the vast majority of Americans viewed Japanese accomplishments with high respect and supported the United States' defense commitment to Japan (Finn, 1986). The United States increasingly considers Japan as a leading partner to shoulder international aid and economic responsibilities that in the past were discharged by the United States and other Western countries (Library of Congress, 1994). In this vein, the study upholds that national image of Japan has changed to being progressive, peaceful, and friendly since WWII (Wilkinson, 1981). The differences in national stereotypes of the three countries were also found in the Korean college students' responses. They consider Japan and its

people more capable, dependable, and secure compared to the other two countries and their publics.

The researcher also found that both U.S. and Korean students tend to consider the two Asian countries and their people to have a collectivism-based culture. They thought of Japan and Japanese people as more group-oriented than China and Chinese people. Of particular interest is that Korean students regarded the two Asian countries and their people with higher degrees of collectivism-orientation than U.S. students did. The view that Chinese and Japanese culture is collectivist seems to be consistent and stereotypical over time, though some studies note that there has been no support for this notion in recent psychology research (Matsumoto, Kudoh, & Takeuchi, 1996).

The U.S. and Korean students' favorable national stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people imply that national stereotypes of a certain country also seem to be more influenced by economic links rather than political or cultural links. The discussion seems to be in line with studies of determinants that decide newsworthiness in foreign news in former studies (Mohamed, 1991; Wu, 2000). The studies have suggested three dimensions of the determinants: political links (diplomatic relations, cooperation in military affairs, etc.); economic links (trade, foreign investment, etc.); and cultural links (race, religion, values, language, etc.). Wu (2000) pointed out that economic interactions between nations are crucial predictors because economic interest drives people to seek news about another country to which it is economically tied.

The U.S. students showed less favorable national stereotypes of Germany and German people, both of which have been considered to have higher commonality with the United States in terms of cultural links than the two Asian countries. Korean students showed more favorable national stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people, with whom Koreans have experienced

uncomfortable political relations when compared to the two other countries. The results imply that economic relationships can be a determinant that influences a foreign country's image as well as newsworthiness of foreign news (Luther, 2002; Wu, 2000). Finn (1986) noted the partnership between the United States and Japan is mainly shown in the economic sector. The perceptions of Japan as a small and therefore a weak country with uncertain prospects faded since the mid-1970s when Japan emerged as the second largest economic power in the world, increasingly emphasizing benefits of close Japan-United States security ties.

On the other hand, one difference between Korean and U.S. students was that Korean students showed less favorable national stereotypes of Japan and Japanese people, particularly in terms of confidence related attributes such as reliability and dependability than the U.S. students, while also more favorably evaluating safety related attributes. The findings imply that people tend to interpret images of a certain foreign country differently in line with individual experiences and viewpoints accumulated through historical relations with the country (Boulding, 1956; Winfield & Yoon, 2002). Japan's relations with South Korea have a legacy of bitterness rooting in harsh Japanese colonial rule over Korea from 1910 to 1945 when "the people of each nation had a profound dislike of the other country and people" (The Library of Congress, 1994). The heritage of older generation's colonists might be reflected in the Korean students' national stereotypes, though the valence was more favorable than that of China and its publics. Thus, overseas public relations practices of Asian countries should be implemented based on understanding historical and current international relations with other Asian countries.

Practitioners on behalf of the Chinese organizations need to pay attention to the national stereotype attributes about China and its publics with low degrees of favorableness. In particular, the unfavorable attributes related to lack of security and credibility seem compatible with the

negative perceptions of China and its business portrayed in the U.S. news and public opinion as well as Korean news as aforementioned in the literature review. Though directly examined in this study, the dominant issues and attributes that were identified in the news coverage of the Chinese could shape public's perceptions of China, its organizations, and its publics. The findings uphold the former studies that the international image of nations can be defiled by continuous negative news reporting (Lason & Rivenburgh, 1991).

Moreover, the study suggests that practitioners working with the Chinese government and its corporations should make effort to offset negative images concerning reliability and security. Trust and safety are important factors in mobilizing resources from other countries not only in political sectors but also in business. The findings note that overseas practices should focus on the issues related to safety and reliability so as to build China's national and corporate reputation. For example, practitioners working for multinational corporations outsourcing their manufacture to China could highlight stricter standards for the manufacturing process and safer workplace environments.

### **Country-of-Origin (COO) Effect**

The Country-of-origin (COO) was one of the key variables of this study and was compared to the three countries' corporations and products. COO was also used to estimate the effects of the counter-stereotype strategy on peoples' evaluations of corporate performance and products as discussed in the next part. To compare the effect of COO on corporate performances and products of China and that those of different countries, the researcher chose the two countries, Japan and Germany, for which products have enjoyed a relatively long favorable COO effect. Furthermore, Germany was included to examine the difference in COO effect on Japan by comparing evaluations of corporate performances and products made there. Japan was selected

with the intention of examining differences in national stereotypes as well as COO effect between the two Asian countries.

The U.S. students reported more favorable evaluations of the Japanese corporation and its product than the Chinese corporation and its product in both Studies. On the other hand, the COO effect of the German corporation and its product in Study 1 was not similar to that in Study 2. The students participating in Study 1 more favorably evaluated the German corporation's performance and its product over the Chinese corporation and its product while their evaluations of Japanese and German made products and their performances were similar. However, the U.S. students' COO effect on the German corporation and product was not different from that of the Chinese. Thus, COO effect on the German corporation's performance and its products might have been influenced by extraneous variables caused by experimental settings and online designs. Demographics of the U.S. students such as gender, ethnic background, and age, seem very similar in Study 1 and Study 2.

The COO effect that the Korean students showed was not different from U.S. students' responses in that the Japanese corporation and its product were evaluated more favorably than the Chinese and German. Of interest is that the Korean students' evaluations on the made in China products were less favorable in terms of COO attributes associated with quality and price of the product. This result was found among the U.S. students as well but the level that the Korean students conveyed was lower than that of the U.S. students. In this light, it can be inferred that the news media's negative presentation of low-priced and low-quality products made in China might be reflected in the COO effect.

The results suggest that public relations practitioners in aid of Chinese corporations need to highlight trustworthy and safe images as discussed in national stereotypes. The negative

evaluations seem to generate from controversy surrounding issues of the recall scandals of made-in-China products and Chinese labor practices. For example, practitioners can focus on the growing corporate social responsibility trend in China and business conduct that incorporates Western-style corporate responsibility initiatives (Mullich, 2010). Corporate social responsibility appears to be an effective point of leverage to show that China is committed to instilling reliable and safe business operations on a nationwide level.

The findings demonstrated that COO effect among the U.S. and Korean students was significant in Study 1 and 2. The practical implication is that public relations practitioners need to be aware of it when constructing news messages, though there have been controversies on COO effect (Kim, 2006). The present study implies that presenting a corporation and product made in a certain country to promote the corporation's image or sale of the product can influence consumers' evaluations of corporate performance and product. ? In particular, negative national image and stereotypes can damage corporate reputation and product evaluation.

In this light, as discussed afterward, the results that analyzed the effect of counter stereotypical (CS) cues on COO evaluation can be more beneficial to public relations practitioners in that CS cues might contribute to reducing the influence of negative national image on COO effect.

### **Counter-National Stereotype Strategy**

The researcher explored if country-of-origin effect on product made in China that is presented with counter-stereotypical cues in news stories would be different. The assumption is that when interacting with messages that public relations practitioners construct so as to mend deficient images of their clients, according to the mental imagery model, people tend to bring not only positive images but also negative images to mind. In other words, people who read a news

story about a new product made in China can recall other information and news stories, either positive or negative, that are relevant to the product made in China beyond that stated in the news story.

The results in both Study 1 and 2 reveal that the U.S. and Korean students more favorably evaluated the COO effect of the Chinese corporation referring to counter-stereotypical cues in the news story than that of the other Chinese corporation without the cues. The counter-stereotypical cues emphasized the corporation's corporate performances to enhance safety and confidence as well as referred to existing negative images of made in China products, such as "unsafe" and "unreliable." In particular, the evaluation of its corporate performances associated with safety and confidence issues were more favorable than its product. Also, the students' relatively more favorable evaluations of corporate performances were of the items associated with safety and confidence.

The results note that use of counter-stereotypical cues, which described the corporation's efforts to alter negative images of Chinese corporations and products made in China, might influence overall COO effect and in particular contribute to favorable evaluation of the corporate performance. However, the cues did not affect participants' favorable evaluations of the product. It is worthy of note that public relations practitioners can utilize a counter-stereotype strategy in long-term management of negative national image by displaying the existing negative images and emphasizing responsible and dependable corporate performances that offset the negative image concurrently.

### **Correlation between National Stereotypes and Country-of-Origin Effect**

The study examined the interaction between national stereotypes and COO effect. The results of Study 1 and 2 showed that national stereotypes and COO effect were positively

correlated, noting that students with favorable national stereotypes of a certain country tended to favorably evaluate the corporate performance and product made in that country as noted in former studies (Chattalas, Kramer, & Takada, 2008; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 1989). The attributes of COO effect that were evaluated highly favorably, such as students' expectations that the Japanese corporations' performances were reliable and secure, and that its product was of high quality. The results seem to be compatible with national stereotype attributes with highly favorable valence referring to confidence and safety of Japan and Japanese people. Moreover, the findings show that favorable national stereotypes of an Asian country can influence COO effect on another Asian country. However, the national stereotype of Germany and German people did not affect COO effect of the two other Asian countries, and national stereotypes of the two Asian countries were also not associated with the COO effect of Germany.

The association between national stereotype and COO effect of the two Asian countries suggests that practitioners could utilize positive images of not only China but also common images of Asian countries, such as common characteristics of Asian culture, which contribute to good national and corporate reputation.

### **Correlations in National Stereotypes and Country-of-Origin Effect and Ethnocentrism and Patriotism**

According to the results of Study 2, concerning ethnocentrism and patriotism, which were considered influential factors of national stereotypes and COO effect, ethnocentrism among U.S. college students was not stronger than that of the Korean college students whilst their patriotism was stronger than the Korean students'. In particular, there was a high degree of ethnocentrism among South Koreans, though the younger Korean generation's ethnocentrism has been considered to be weaker than that of the older generation (Choi, 1997).

According to the findings of correlations between ethnocentrism and national stereotypes,



both U.S. and Korean students with relatively higher degrees of ethnocentrism and patriotism tended to show less favorable national stereotypes. COO effect also tends to be influenced by ethnocentrism but not by patriotism. This meant that the stronger one's ethnocentrism and patriotism, the less favorable national stereotypes he or she possessed. In particular, Korean participants with stronger ethnocentrism than the U.S. participants tended to more unfavorably evaluate corporate performances and products of foreign corporations. The tendency was found in the attitudes of Chinese consumers toward Japan and Japanese products (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Thus, practitioners need to be aware that ethnocentrism would negatively affect the evaluations of foreign corporations and products.

The public relations case studies of multinational corporations, such as the General Motor GM Daewoo campaign, which showed a successful launching of GM in South Korea, emphasized that public relations practitioners working for Korean publics should acknowledge the anti-foreign sentiment of Koreans, which might be a kind of an instinct of self-preservation caused by historical experiences of other countries' armed aggression (Sung, 2006). The GM Daewoo campaign was "the most remarkable case of attracting foreign investment to resuscitate a failed South Korean Company" (Choe, 2006). As such, public relations practitioners that work for Chinese corporations should recognize the difference in ethnocentrism and patriotism and apply it to practices in foreign markets.

In particular, overseas practices for other Asian countries should be implemented considering international relations with the country to reposition its troubled image. For example, with tourism in China, a pivotal industry, practitioners employing a large-scale international campaign to target tourists neighboring counties, South Korea and Japan, should consider applying different strategies with respect to the unique culture of each country and emphasizing

closeness and links to the country.

### **Interactions with Internet Use, Personal Experience, and Demographics**

In terms of Internet use, the U.S. students in Study 1 and Study 2 showed different results. The students that use the Internet more than 3 hours daily in Study1 showed more favorable stereotypes of Japan/Japanese people but this result was not found in Study 2. However, the Korean students' difference was more significant compared to the U.S. students, noting that relatively heavier Internet users who stay online for 3 to 6 hours daily tend to show less favorable stereotypes of China and Chinese people and more favorable ones of Japan and Japanese people. In addition, the amount of time Korean students used the Internet for news was also associated with national stereotypes.

This result can be inferred due to the fact that people tend to pay more attention to deviant topics. Many former studies have noted that what the news media define as newsworthy in foreign news has a direct relationship to the deviance of those events from existing norms (Ericson, Baranek, & Chan, 1987; Shoemaker, Daniellian, & Brendlinger, 1991). As a result, the media have reinforced certain images of other countries, focusing on deviance or bad news, such as news of crisis or conflict-laden events. In this light, the influence of hours spent using the Internet on national stereotypes needs to be discussed in line with Internet users' tendency to pay more attention to deviant foreign news, which consists of news values such as novelty, prominence, sensationalism, and conflict or controversy (Shoemaker, etc., 1991).

Moreover, the results imply the possibility that the Internet could be the main medium that draws attention to foreign news and information and influences national stereotypes of foreign countries as well as evaluations of foreign corporations. The findings points to the need for practitioners' understanding of the tremendous influence the Internet can have on national

image management and corporate practices.

The Internet brings new challenges to international relations as with the nearly unlimited sources of foreign countries available online (Seib, 2003). The information revolution triggered by the Internet has reshaped international news coverage and changed relations between countries. To take advantage of the Internet, governments use the Web to acquire and disseminate information. However, the likelihood of individuals gathering information from the same sources such as mainstream news has been lessening. Publics gather information on their own, instead of waiting for news organizations to filter and then deliver it. People tend to expose themselves to information which conforms to their perspectives and other predispositions. Current research on the relationship between internet use and knowledge development also indicates the effect of the Internet have increased as people gain experience with the medium (Eveland, Marton, & Seo, 2004).

Practitioners should implement more efficient strategy in terms of media relations based on understanding the media environment. For example, the role of bloggers as opinion leaders who set agendas is underlined with reference to foreign countries. According to Drezner and Farrell (2004), bloggers serves “both as an amplifier and as remixer of media coverage” (p.38) because they count on established media outlets but provide feedback on news of the mainstream media. In this light, overseas practitioners should pay attention to expert bloggers who has authoritative knowledge and source about the country monitoring sources presented on their blogs and other bloggers’ comments about the sources and responding more promptly and clearly to comments that presented the country in a negative way.

On the other hand, practitioners may mistakenly try to fix the country’s image without fixing the problems that gave rise to it. If applied, for example, in the tourism market, to attract

foreign tourists to the place without fixing problems particularly related to insecurity might lead tourists to state the country in unfavorable way and worsen its image. Practitioners should keep in mind no advertising or public relations will make an unsafe place safer. Thus, if the Chinese government and business do not make effort to fix current negative images, such as insecurity and unreliability, foreign tourists might be unwilling to visit China due to a potential safety hazard, though tourism market in China is expect as potential gold mine.

Concerning COO effect and hours spent using the Internet, the Korean Internet users that stay online for 3 to 6 hours daily tended to evaluate the Japanese corporation and its product more favorably than the lighter users. This implies that in South Korea the Internet might be the main channel through which one can find news and information about foreign corporations and their products. This shows that international PR practitioners need to comprehend the current media environment when implementing overseas public relations, including national image management. For example, the influence of the Internet in South Korea, which has a high broadband penetration rate, ranked 10<sup>th</sup> among worldwide internet users (*World Fact Book*, 2007), has been considerable, and its impact on South Korean publics has been emphasized in many studies (Kim & Johnson, 2006; Kang & Kim, 2010). As of November 2008, there were more than 35 million Internet users in South Korea, representing about 70 percent of the total population (48 million). Due to the Internet's prominence, practitioners need to recognize the role of the Internet in Korea as a significant tool of information dissemination as well as a medium of national image management.

Personal experience through foreign friends influenced the U.S. students' ethnocentrism, but this was not true for the Korean students. The results imply that ethnocentrism among U.S. college students, who have much more opportunities to study with foreign friends, might not be

as strong as ethnocentrism is among other U.S. and Korean college students, who have less opportunities to make foreign friends.

Relating to demographics, the Korean students' age influenced ethnocentrism. The older students showed stronger ethnocentrism than the younger students. Age seems to be a more influential factor of national image and COO effect for Korean students in that the older Korean students tend to show less favorable national stereotypes and evaluate foreign corporations and their products less favorably than the younger. The U.S. students' ethnic backgrounds influenced ethnocentrism and patriotism, showing that the white students tended to have stronger ethnocentrism and patriotism than others.

The study did not count the influence of the U.S. students' gender because of the overwhelming proportion of female subjects. However, for the Korean students, gender's influence seems significant in participants' national stereotypes and ethnocentrism. Compared to female students, the male Korean students' national stereotypes tended to be less favorable, and their ethnocentrism tended to be stronger as well. However, in terms of gender's interaction with COO effect, its influence was not found. It can be inferred that most Korean younger generations tend to prefer Japanese products in terms of more sophisticated products, such as electronics and gaming products, than the products made in other countries (Zhang, 1996).

The influences of age and gender on national stereotypes, COO effect, and ethnocentrism found in the Korean students need to be comprehended in the Korean students' different social and cultural backgrounds from that of the U.S. students. For example, most Korean male students at the age of 26 to 29 years old comprising 43% of the Korean participants are obligated to enlist for military service in their college years. Compared to the U.S. students, more group-oriented cultural tendencies also seemed to affect their responses, though it is noted that the

Korean youth are different from the older generation, which puts collective interests such as of family or group before the individual (Choi, 1997). This implies that when dealing with the overseas clients and public, the PR practitioners should approach their culture with considerations of foreign publics' different social and cultural backgrounds.

The findings of the comparative study between U.S. and Korean participants appear to be noteworthy. Korean students' cultural and social backgrounds, which differ from the U.S. students' seem to affect COO effect as well as national stereotypes. Especially in terms of oversea practices targeting Asian publics, practitioners should comprehensively recognize international relations with other Asian countries as well as western countries. The failure of Procter & Gamble in launching the SK-II to the Chinese market is a good example of how a lack of knowledge about the local country's political, cultural, and social backgrounds leads to losing credibility, which takes a long time to gain in foreign markets (Hung & Farmer, 2008). P&G China might believe that the successes in other Asian markets such as Japan warranted success in Chinese markets. This case implies that for success in emerging Asian markets, multinational corporations need to understand historical relations and current political climates among Asian countries, which have exerted influence on the publics' sentiment to a host country in that the public's negative sentiment to a host country plays a negative role in building a relationship with local consumers. In this light, practitioners must keep in mind the cultural differences of each country within purportedly similar cultures, such as Asian cultures.

### **Limitations**

The study has a few limitations. First off, the small number of participants participating in the experiment and sampling of college students, chosen so as to compare results between the two research designs, appears to limit the generalization of the results. Thus, random sampling

must reinforce its validity in further studies. Employing the online survey can be considered another limitation, though it is the most efficient way to reach overseas respondents. Also, the four news stories used to examine effect of country-of-origin and counter-stereotypical cues were also not representative of PR practices, though the manipulations in the pilot test were checked and acceptable reliability of the materials was calculated.

Nevertheless, the study's results seem to be noteworthy. The study first demonstrates the potential of measuring implicit national stereotypes using reaction times. This seems to contribute to practitioners' awareness of understanding cognitive psychology in practicing national image management. The study's overall results found in both the experiment and online survey appear to be reliable in that the research designs of each showed internal consistency as seen in acceptable degrees of reliability, and the U.S. students' responses in the two studies concerning national stereotypes and COO effect were also compatible. Ultimately the study is expected to contribute to overseas practitioners' understanding about the significance of comprehending cognitive psychology, the association between national stereotypes and country-of-origin effects, the potential of a counter-stereotype strategy, and differences in foreign publics when designing and implementing national image management.

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## APPENDIX A: CONCEPTUAL AND OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF VARIABLES

Variable	Conceptual Definitions	Operational Definitions
Implicit national stereotypes	National stereotype which participants hold without awareness and consciousness and influence their judgment and behavior	<p>Differences in participants' reaction times (RTs) to attributes consistent with national stereotypes (ACNS) and attributes inconsistent with existing national stereotypes (AICNS)</p> <p>1) 20 attributes of China/Chinese people: 8 ACNS of China/Chinese people</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• group-oriented</li> <li>• collectivism-oriented</li> <li>• insecure</li> <li>• unsafe</li> <li>• vulnerable</li> <li>• dogmatic</li> <li>• traditional</li> <li>• conservative</li> </ul> <p>12 AICNS of China/Chinese people</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• capable</li> <li>• efficient</li> <li>• competent</li> <li>• trustworthy</li> <li>• reliable</li> <li>• dependable</li> <li>• organized</li> <li>• neat</li> <li>• methodical</li> <li>• advanced</li> <li>• developed</li> <li>• innovative</li> </ul> <p>2) 17 attributes of Japan/Japanese people: 8 ACNS of Japan/Japanese people</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• capable</li> <li>• efficient</li> <li>• competent</li> <li>• group-oriented</li> <li>• collectivism-oriented</li> <li>• advanced</li> <li>• developed</li> </ul>



		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• innovative</li> </ul> <p>9 AICNS of Japan/Japanese people</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• disorganized</li> <li>• sloppy</li> <li>• unreliable</li> <li>• undependable</li> <li>• insecure</li> <li>• unsafe</li> <li>• vulnerable</li> <li>• liberal</li> <li>• free-thinking</li> </ul> <p>3) 10 attributes of Germany/German people:</p> <p>5 ACNS of Germany/German people</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• capable</li> <li>• efficient</li> <li>• competent</li> <li>• ambitious</li> <li>• workaholic</li> </ul> <p>5 AICNS of Germany/German people</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• disorganized</li> <li>• sloppy</li> <li>• lazy</li> <li>• unambitious</li> <li>• aimless</li> </ul>
National stereotype (NS)	Attributes which participants hold of a certain country and its people	<p>Following eighteen statements on a 5-point scale (1= very unlikely ; 2=unlikely; 3= equally likely; 4=likely; 5=very likely)</p> <p>1) 20 NS of China/Chinese people: China/Chinese people are likely to be</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• capable.</li> <li>• efficient.</li> <li>• competent.</li> <li>• trustworthy.</li> <li>• reliable.</li> <li>• dependable.</li> <li>• organized.</li> <li>• neat.</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• methodical.</li> <li>• group-oriented.</li> <li>• collectivism-oriented.</li> <li>• insecure.*</li> <li>• unsafe.*</li> <li>• vulnerable.*</li> <li>• dogmatic.</li> <li>• traditional.</li> <li>• conservative.</li> <li>• advanced.</li> <li>• developed.</li> <li>• innovative.</li> </ul> <p>2) 17 NS of Japan/Japanese people: Japanese people are likely to be</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• disorganized.*</li> <li>• sloppy.*</li> <li>• unreliable.*</li> <li>• undependable.*</li> <li>• capable.</li> <li>• efficient.</li> <li>• competent.</li> <li>• group-oriented.</li> <li>• collectivism-oriented.</li> <li>• insecure.*</li> <li>• unsafe.*</li> <li>• vulnerable.*</li> <li>• liberal.</li> <li>• free-thinking.</li> <li>• advanced.</li> <li>• developed.</li> <li>• innovative.</li> </ul> <p>3) 10 NS of Germany/German people: Germany/German people are likely to be</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• capable.</li> <li>• efficient.</li> <li>• competent.</li> <li>• ambitious.</li> <li>• workaholic.</li> <li>• disorganized.*</li> <li>• sloppy.*</li> <li>• lazy.*</li> </ul>
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		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• unambitious.*</li> <li>• aimless.*</li> </ul>
Country of Origin (COO) Effect	<p>Effect of information cues that refers to phrase “Made in” and the country name</p> <p>Evaluations of Corporation’s Performance</p> <p>Evaluations of Corporation’s Product</p>	<p>Following fourteen statements on a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= neutral; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree)</p> <p>A company and its members are likely to be</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• trustworthy.</li> <li>• unsafe.*</li> <li>• competent.</li> <li>• unreliable.*</li> <li>• secure.</li> </ul> <p>A person who buys A product</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• is making the best choice.</li> <li>• is getting a good deal.</li> <li>• is a lower class person.*</li> <li>• will be satisfied.</li> <li>• is correct in choosing the product.</li> <li>• doesn’t care about quality.*</li> <li>• is mistaken in choosing the product.*</li> <li>• demands high quality.</li> <li>• will be dissatisfied.*</li> </ul>
Ethnocentrism	Belief on the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign-made products	<p>Following eleven statements on a 5-point scale (1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= neutral; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Americans should only buy American-made products.</li> <li>• Only those products that are unavailable in the U.S. should be imported.</li> <li>• Buy American products. Keep Americans working</li> <li>• American products first, last, and foremost.</li> <li>• A real American always buys</li> </ul>

		<p>American-made products.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.</li> <li>• It is always best to purchase American products.</li> <li>• There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries, unless out of necessity.</li> <li>• Americans should not buy foreign products because this hurts American business and causes unemployment.</li> <li>• It may cost me more, but I prefer to buy American products.</li> <li>• American consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work.</li> </ul>
Patriotism	Feeling for one's country and attachment to national values	<p>Following nine statements on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I love my country.</li> <li>• I am not proud to be an American.</li> <li>• I feel great pride in the land that is America.</li> <li>• Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to America always remains strong.</li> <li>• When I see the American flag flying I do not feel great.*</li> <li>• I do not have to buy American products because I am American.*</li> <li>• The fact that I am an American is an important part of my identity.</li> <li>• I do not feel guilty when I buy foreign products instead of American products.*</li> <li>• I am emotionally attached to my</li> </ul>

		country.
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\*These statements were reverse coded.

## APPENDIX B: APPLICATION OF IRB AND CONSENT FORMS IN ENGLISH AND KOREAN

### Application for Exemption from Institutional Oversight

Unless qualified as meeting the specific criteria for exemption from Institutional Review Board (IRB) oversight, ALL LSU research/projects using living humans as subjects, or samples or data obtained from humans, directly or indirectly, with or without their consent, must be approved or exempted in advance by the LSU IRB. This Form helps the PI determine if a project may be exempted, and is used to request an exemption.



Institutional Review Board  
Dr. Robert Mathews, Chair  
203 B-1 David Boyd Hall  
Baton Rouge, LA 70803  
P: 225.578.8692  
F: 225.578.6792  
irb@lsu.edu | lsu.edu/irb

- Applicant, Please fill out the application in its entirety and include the completed application as well as parts A-E, listed below, when submitting to the IRB. Once the application is completed, please submit two copies of the completed application to the IRB Office or to a member of the Human Subjects Screening Committee. Members of this committee can be found at [http://appl003.lsu.edu/osp/osp.nsf/\\$Content/Humans+Subject+Committee?OpenDocument](http://appl003.lsu.edu/osp/osp.nsf/$Content/Humans+Subject+Committee?OpenDocument)
- A Complete Application Includes All of the Following:
  - (A) Two copies of this completed form and two copies of parts B thru E.
  - (B) A brief project description (adequate to evaluate risks to subjects and to explain your responses to Parts 1 & 2)
  - (C) Copies of all instruments to be used.
    - If this proposal is part of a grant proposal, include a copy of the proposal and all recruitment material.
  - (D) The consent form that you will use in the study (see part 3 for more information.)
  - (E) Certificate of Completion of Human Subjects Protection Training for all personnel involved in the project, including students who are involved with testing or handling data, unless already on file with the IRB.  
Training link: ( <http://cme.cancer.gov/clinicaltrials/learning/humanparticipant-protections.asp>.)

1) Principal Investigator: <u>HyunMee Kang</u> Rank: <u>Doctoral Student</u> Student? Y/N <u>Y</u>		Study Exempted By: Dr. Robert C. Mathews, Chairman Institutional Review Board Louisiana State University 203 B-1 David Boyd Hall 225-578-8692   <a href="http://www.lsu.edu/irb">www.lsu.edu/irb</a> Exemption Expires: <u>10-27-2013</u>
Dept.: <u>Mass Communication</u> Ph: <u>225.578.7095</u> E-mail: <u>hkang2@tigerslsu.edu</u>		
2) Co Investigator(s): please include department, rank and e-mail for each If student, please identify and name supervising professor in this space <u>Dr. Richard A. Nelson, Professor of Manship College of Mass Communication; Tel (225) 578-6686; rnelson@lsu.edu</u>		
3) Project Country image management: Application of counter-stereotype Title: _____		
4) LSU Proposal?(yes or no) <u>N</u> If Yes, LSU Proposal Number _____ Also, if YES, either <input type="radio"/> This application completely matches the scope of work in the grant OR <input type="radio"/> More IRB Applications will be filed later		
5) Subject pool (e.g. Psychology Students) <u>U.S. and Korean college students</u> • Circle any "vulnerable populations" to be used: (children <18; the mentally impaired, pregnant women, the aged, other). Projects with incarcerated persons cannot be exempted.		
6) PI Signature <u>HyunMee Kang</u> ** Date <u>10-24-2010</u> (no per signatures) "I certify my responses are accurate and complete. If the project scope or design is later changed I will resubmit for review. I will obtain written approval from the Authorized Representative of all non-LSU institutions in which the study is conducted. I also understand that it is my responsibility to maintain copies of all consent forms at LSU for three years after completion of the study. If I leave LSU before that time the consent forms should be preserved in the Departmental Office. ***Effective August 1, 2007, all Exemptions will expire three years from date of approval, unless a continuation report, found on our website, is filed prior to expiration date***		
Screening Committee Action: Exempted <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Not Exempted <input type="checkbox"/> Category/Paragraph <u>2</u> Reviewer <u>Lisa Lundy</u> Signature <u>Lisa Lundy</u> Date <u>10/28/10</u>		

CONSENT FORM

Study Exempted By:  
Dr. Robert C. Mathews, Chairman  
Institutional Review Board  
Louisiana State University  
203 B-1 David Boyd Hall  
225-578-8692 | [www.lsu.edu/irb](http://www.lsu.edu/irb)  
Exemption Expires: 10-27-2013

I agree to participate in the study "*country image management*" which is being conducted by HyunMee Kang (Ph. D student) and Dr. Richard A. Nelson (professor) at the Manship School of Mass Communication, Louisiana State University (01-225-578-7095). I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary, therefore I can refuse to participate or withdraw my consent at any time without penalty and have the results of the participation, to the extent that it can be identified as mine, returned to me, removed from the research records, or destroyed.

It has been explained to me that the goal of this research is to examine image of foreign country and its people college students have. I understand that my part in the study will last approximately 20 to 25 minutes and that my responses will be kept confidential. I have been told that neither discomfort nor stress is foreseen, that no risk exists, and that this may be an enjoyable experience. I further understand that my participation in this research is completely confidential and that results will not be released in any individually identifiable form without my prior consent, unless otherwise required by law.

Participating in this research will give me a good chance to reflect on image of foreign country and its people. Through answering each question, I will have an opportunity to analyze my own situations and hopefully to think about the possible ways to more effectively deal with the related issues.

The researcher will answer any further questions about the research, now or during the course of the project, and can be reached at (01-225-578-7095).

I understand the procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Do you agree with the statements above?    Yes \_\_\_\_\_    No \_\_\_\_\_

Research at the Louisiana State University involves human participants is overseen by the Institutional Review Board. Questions or problems regarding your rights as a participant should be addressed to the IRB Chairperson, IRB office, Louisiana State University, 203 B-1 David Boyd Hall, Baton Rouge, LA 70803; Telephone (225) 578-8692; e-mail address [IRB@tigers.lsu.edu](mailto:IRB@tigers.lsu.edu).

## LSU IRB CONSENT FROM

**Study Exempted By:**  
Dr. Robert C. Mathews, Chairman  
Institutional Review Board  
Louisiana State University  
203 B-1 David Boyd Hall  
225-578-8692 | [www.lsu.edu/irb](http://www.lsu.edu/irb)  
Exemption Expires: 10-27-2013

1. Title of Project: College students' image of foreign country and its people
2. Performance Sites: Media Effect Lab/ Online Survey
3. Principal Investigator: HyunMee Kang, Graduate Student  
Manship College of Mass Communication  
211 Journalism Building, LSU  
Baton Rouge, LA 70803  
(225) 578-7095; [hkang2@tigers.lsu.edu](mailto:hkang2@tigers.lsu.edu)
- Advisor: Dr. Richard A. Nelson  
Manship College of Mass Communication  
246 Hodge Hall, LSU  
Baton Rouge, LA 70803  
(225) 578-2125; [melson@lsu.edu](mailto:melson@lsu.edu)
4. Purpose of the Study: The purpose of this research study is to investigate college students' image of foreign country.
5. Subjects: The college students
6. Number of Subjects: 150 U.S. college students for experimental and 400 college students (200 U.S. and 200 Korean) for online survey
7. Procedures to be followed: If you agree with taking part in this research, you will be asked to complete the experimental task available at the Media Effect Lab of Manship School or complete the questionnaire online. The responses in the study will be collected via experimental design and online survey.
8. Benefits:
  - a. You might have a better understanding of what images you have toward foreign country. Also you might learn more about yourself by participating in this study.
  - b. This information could help aid researchers who study the country image and its effects on corporate performances.
9. Risks/Discomforts: There are no risks in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life.
10. Right to Refuse: The study is voluntary and respondents may stop participating in the study at any time if you feel uncomfortable.



11. Privacy: Subjects' confidentiality will be safe to the degree permitted by the technology used. Only the person in charge, and his/her assistants, will know your identity. If this research is published, no information that would identify you will be written. All data will be kept confidential unless release is legally compelled.
12. Financial Information: Any compensation for participation and any uncompensated costs incurred by subjects are specified.
13. Agreement of participants: You can choose whether you voluntarily participate in the survey or not by clicking yes or no before you start the experimental task and online survey.

## 동의서 (Consent Form)

본인은 미국 루이지애나 주립대학교 (Louisiana State University) 매스 커뮤니케이션학과 (Department of Mass Communication)에서 박사과정에 재학중인 강현미(HyunMee Kang)와 넬슨 박사 (Dr. Richardson A. Nelson)가 공동으로 진행하는 “국가 이미지와 그 응용 전략에 대한 연구” (National Image and Its application)에 참여하는데 동의하는 바입니다. 본인의 참여는 자발적인 것이므로 참여를 원하지 않을 때는 어떠한 불이익도 없이 거부할 수 있음을 인지하는 바입니다. 만일 본 연구가 별도의 목적으로 사용될 시 본인의 참여로 인한 기록들을 연구에서 제외시키거나 파기해줄 것을 요구할 수 있음 또한 인지하는 바입니다.

본 연구의 목적이 국가 이미지들을 통해 그 전략적 응용방안을 모색하고자 하는데 있음을 이미 숙지하고 있습니다. 20-25분이라는 예상 소요 시간 또한 숙지하고 있습니다. 본인의 정보는 철저하게 보호받을 것이며 설문 결과 또한 오직 학문적인 목적으로만 사용될 것이라고 들었습니다.

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본격적인 설문을 시작하기에 앞서 아래 질문에 예 혹은 아니오로 답해주시기 바랍니다.

귀하는 위에 적힌 사항들에 대해 동의하십니까?

예, 동의합니다 \_\_\_\_\_ 아니오, 동의하지 않습니다 \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX C: EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN MATERIALS

### Experimental Design

#### Part I

Now you will be asked a series of questions about short news stories from *Wall Street Journal* covering car stereo product releases.

For the following questions after reading each news story, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with the statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

This is a timed sorting task. Please respond to the questions ***AS QUICKLY AND HONESTLY AS POSSIBLE.***

***Press “Space Bar” to begin***

#### News story 1

##### *Believe Blueway, Believe Yourself*

By Lisa Movius

The Desay group is a leading stereo manufacturer with a factory in China. It produces such items as home theaters, iPhone/iPod Speakers, Hi-Fi Speakers, etc. Today, the Desay group announced a new product, the *Blueway* series of car stereos. Stereo experts give *Blueway* made in China a five-star rating for easy installation, a stylish design, USB access, and its reasonable price when compared to other leading stereo brands. Steve Richardson, a stereo expert, says “if you are looking for a modern car stereo that will accept your iPod, iPhone or other USB device, this brand is highly recommended by teens and adults alike.”

Since 1983, the Desay group has set up over 50 joint ventures and wholly owned subsidiaries whilst also establishing branches in the USA and Hong Kong. The Desay group has earned

the reputation of high-quality stereo products in China in line with the slogan “*Believe Blueway, Believe Yourself.*”

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

*Desay group and its members*

- are likely to be trustworthy. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be unsafe. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to competent. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to unreliable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to secure. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

*A person who buys Blueway stereo sets*

- is making the best choice. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is getting a good deal. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is a lower class person. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be satisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is correct in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- doesn't care about quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is mistaken in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- demands high quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be dissatisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

## News story 2

### *Launching Skysonic in the U.S. market*

By Lisa Movius

Today, Shimoki group, an emerging supplier and exporter of stereo that is manufactured in Japan launches its series of car stereo brands, *Skysonic*, in overseas markets including the United States. Experts have given the *Skysonic* made in Japan a five-star rating due to its many convenient features. “*Skysonic* provides flexible connection and convenient features that enable you to take full control for a more enjoyable experience and the teens and adults must be attracted,” says Tom Johnson, a stereo expert.

Shimoki began to spread its business into worldwide markets in 2009. It has established more than 40 subsidiaries since it was incorporated in 1984 and has a great domestic reputation for high-quality stereo products including home theaters, iPhone/iPod Speakers, and Hi-Fi Speakers.

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

#### *Shimoki Group and its members*

- are likely to be trustworthy. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be unsafe. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to competent. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to unreliable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to secure. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

*A person who buys Skysonic stereo sets*

- |  |                                 |
|--|---------------------------------|
| •is making the best choice.            | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • is getting a good deal.              | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • is a lower class person.             | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • will be satisfied.                   | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • is correct in choosing the product.  | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • doesn't care about quality.          | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • is mistaken in choosing the product. | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • demands high quality.                | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • will be dissatisfied.                | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |

News story 3

*Acoustic Art's Audio 500 series kick off launching to the US market*

By Lisa Movius

*Audio500*, a car stereo product series of Acoustic Arts, began its sale in the U.S. and Asian markets in January 2010. Acoustic Arts is a speaker company which has been best known for their car audio products in the European market since 1997 they successfully sold mid-priced audio speakers. Experts have given the product made in Germany a five-star rating. Donald Mulford, an audio expert, highlights *Audio500*'s convenient operation and outstanding compatibility with all high-tech audio products such as iPod, iPhone, and others as well as its high quality.

Based in the German town of Lauffen am Neckar, Acoustic Arts offers a complete range of a wide variety of end audio including car stereos and home theater products from electronics to cables to loudspeakers, all made from the ground up in Germany.

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

*Acoustic Arts and its members*

- are likely to be trustworthy. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be unsafe. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to competent. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to unreliable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to secure. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

*A person who buys Audio500 stereo sets*

- is making the best choice. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is getting a good deal. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is a lower class person. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be satisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is correct in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- doesn't care about quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is mistaken in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- demands high quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be dissatisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

*Environmental-friendly and Energy-saving Twin-Fi*

By Lisa Movius

Today, the Fenda Technology Group, a renowned supplier and exporter of speakers that are manufactured in China, releases a new line of car stereos, *Twin-Fi*. *Twin-Fi*'s versatility and features lead stereo experts to give this product made in China a five-star rating. John Ward, a stereo expert, says "the sound quality, reasonable price, and the ability to interact with an iPhone or iPod are the reasons that attract teens and adults to *Twin-Fi*."

Fenda Technology Group has been professionally researching and marketing home theaters, super-mini audio systems, iPhone/iPod Speakers, Hi-Fi Speakers, etc. since 1985. The company is committed to manufacturing environment-friendly and energy-saving products. It has taken on corporate social responsibility in that it manufactures products that are safe for humans and the environment.

Fenda Technology Group has also made efforts to improve the image of China which has recently been overshadowed by unsafe working conditions and low quality products associated with the "Made in China" label. The company has performed various acts of corporate social responsibility in line with the slogan "*Environmental-friendly and Energy-saving Twin-Fi*." Under this mantra, the company has also directed programs, such as hosting annual conferences with themes of corporate social responsibility and business transparency in China, that highlight *Twin-Fi*'s high quality, safe, and trustworthy products.

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)



*Fenda Technology Group and its members*

- are likely to be trustworthy. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be unsafe. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be competent. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be unreliable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be secure. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

*A person who buys Twin-Fi stereo sets*

- is making the best choice. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is getting a good deal. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is a lower class person. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be satisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is correct in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- doesn't care about quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is mistaken in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- demands high quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be dissatisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

Part II

You will be asked about your impression on country and its people. For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with attributes of the country and its people.

(1= Very unlikely; 2= Unlikely; 3= Equally likely; 4= Likely; 5= Very likely)

This is a timed sorting task. Please respond to the questions ***AS QUICKLY AND HONESTLY AS POSSIBLE.***

***Press "Space Bar" to begin***

• Chinese people are likely to be capable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be efficient.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be competent.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be capable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be efficient.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be competent.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be capable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be efficient.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be competent.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be trustworthy.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be reliable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be dependable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be unreliable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be undependable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be organized.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be neat.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be methodical.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be ambitious.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be workaholic.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be disorganized.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be sloppy.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be disorganized.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be sloppy.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be group-oriented.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be collectivism-oriented.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be group-oriented.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be collectivism-oriented.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China is likely to be insecure.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China is likely to be unsafe.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China is likely to be vulnerable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japan is likely to be insecure.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

- Japan is likely to be unsafe. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan is likely to be vulnerable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Chinese people are likely to be dogmatic. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Chinese people are likely to be traditional. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Chinese people are likely to be conservative. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japanese people are likely to be liberal. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japanese people are likely to be free-thinking. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- China is likely to be advanced. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- China is likely to be developed. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- China is likely to be innovative. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan is likely to be advanced. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan is likely to be developed. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan is likely to be innovative. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- German people are likely to be lazy. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- German people are likely to be unambitious. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- German people are likely to be aimless. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

### Part III

Now you will be asked about media use related to news and information of foreign country and its people.

1. How much are you interested in foreign country news and information?
  - 1) very little 2) little 3) neutral 4) much 5) very much
2. What kind of issues related to foreign country news and information are you most interested in?
  - 1) political issues 2) economic issues 3) cultural issues 4) sports issues
  - 5) technology issues 6) other
3. What area related to foreign country news and information are you most interested in?
  - 1) Europe 2) East Asia (For example, China, Japan, and India)
  - 3) Middle-East Asia (For example, Iran and Egypt) 4) Africa
  - 5) North America (Canada) 6) South America 7) Other

4. As closely as you can estimate, approximately how many hours per day on average do you spend using the internet?

1) less than 1 hour   2) 1-2 hour   3) 3-4 hours   4) 5-6 hours   5) 7 or more hours

5. As closely as you can estimate, approximately how many hours per day on average do you spend using the Internet for news and information?

1) less than 30 minutes   2) 1 hour   3) 2 hours   4) 3 hours   5) 4 or more hours

6. How much do you rely on each of the following online news sites for foreign country news and information?

• Mainstream news sites (ABC.com, NYTimes.com, CNN.com, Times.com, etc)

1) do not rely on at all   2) rarely rely on   3) sometimes rely on   4) rely on  
5) heavily rely on

• Portal news sites (Yahoo.com, MSN.com, and AOL.com)

1) do not rely on at all   2) rarely rely on   3) sometimes rely on   4) rely on  
5) heavily rely on

• Weblogs (Instapundit.com, Dailykos.com, Poliblogger.com etc.)

1) do not rely on at all   2) rarely rely on   3) sometimes rely on   4) rely on  
5) heavily rely on

7. Now you will be asked your personal experience.

• Have you ever made or had a Japanese friend(s)?                      (1) Yes                      (2) No

• Have you ever made or had a Chinese friend(s)?                      (1) Yes                      (2) No

• Have you ever made or had a German friend(s)?                      (1) Yes                      (2) No

• Have you made or had Asian friend(s) from other countries?                      (1) Yes                      (2) No

## Part VI

1. What is your gender?

1) Male

2) Female

2. What is your ethnicity?

- 1) African American (non-Hispanic)      2) White (non-Hispanic)      3) Hispanic
- 4) Asian or Pacific Islander      5) Native American or Alaskan Native
- 6) Other or Unknown

3. What is your age on your last birthday?

- 1) 18-21 Years old
- 2) 22-25 years old
- 3) 26-29 years old
- 4) 30-35 years old
- 5) Older than 36 years old

*Thank you for your time!*

## Examples of stimuli materials used in Study 1 (experimental design)

Example 1) Effect of Country-of-origin and Counter-stereotype cues



Example 2) Effect of Country-of-origin and Counter-stereotype cues



### Example 3) Effect of Country-of-origin and Counter-stereotype cues

The screenshot shows the WSJ website interface. The article title is "Believe Believe Blueway, Believe Yourself" by Lisa Movius. The article text discusses the Desay group, a leading stereo manufacturer with a factory in China, which has announced a new product, the Blueway series of car stereos. The article mentions that stereo experts give Blueway made in China a five-star rating for easy installation, a stylish design, USB access, and its reasonable price when compared to other leading stereo brands. Steve Richardson, a stereo expert, says "if you are looking for a modern car stereo that will accept your iPod, iPhone or other USB device, this brand is highly recommended by teens and adults alike."

Since 1983, the Desay group has set up over 50 joint ventures and wholly owned subsidiaries whilst also establishing branches in the USA and Hong Kong. The Desay group has earned the reputation of high-quality stereo products in China in line with the slogan "Believe Blueway, Believe Yourself."

\*Ms. Movius is a writer based in Shanghai

On the right side of the article, there is an advertisement for GTAI with the text "It all adds up to one thing. Smarter business. www.gtai.com" and a WSJ.com advertisement with the text "Expand your access to WSJ.com. It only takes a moment. Click here to unlock your FREE access to more newsletters, alerts and key analysis."

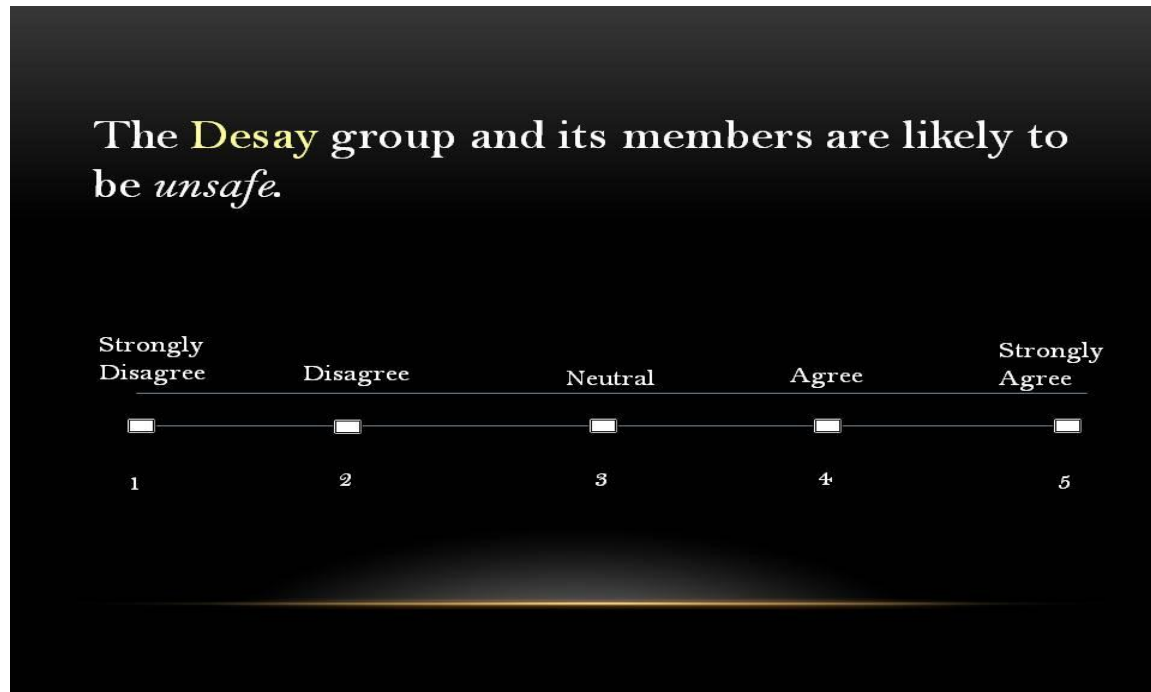
### Example 4) Effect of Country-of-origin and Counter-stereotype cues

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

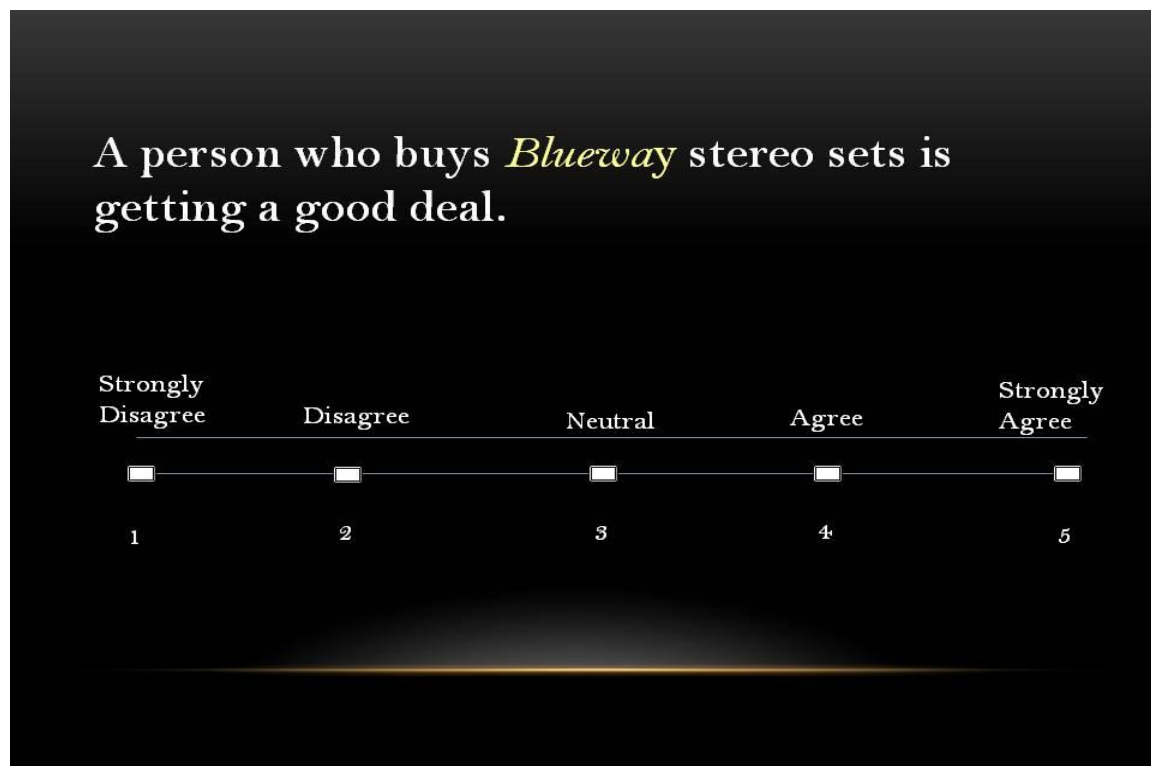
Please respond to the questions **AS QUICKLY AND HONESTLY AS POSSIBLE.**

Press "Space Bar" to begin.

Example 5) Effect of Country-of-origin and Counter-stereotype cues



Example 6) Effect of Country-of-origin and Counter-stereotype cues





Example 7) National stereotypes

You will be asked a series of questions about your images on *country and its people*. Please read carefully and follow the instructions correctly.

**Press “Space Bar” to turn to next.**

Example 8) National stereotypes

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with attributes of the country and its people.

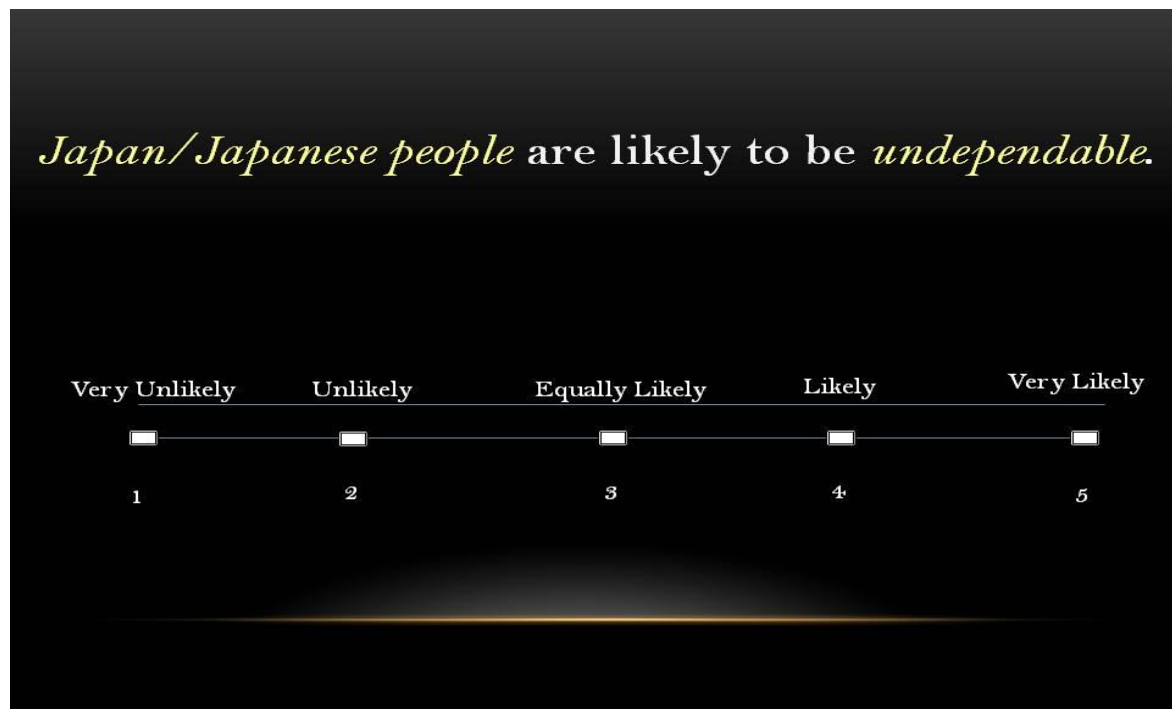
Please respond to the questions **AS QUICKLY AND HONESTLY AS POSSIBLE.**

**Press “Space Bar” to begin.**

Example 9) National stereotypes

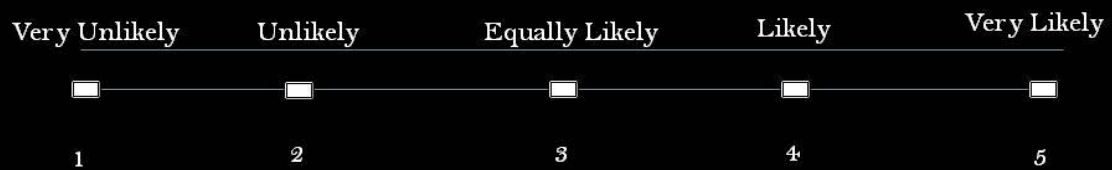


Example 10) National stereotypes



Example 11) National stereotypes

*Germany/German people are likely to be competent.*



## APPENDIX D: QUESTIONNAIRE OF ONLINE SURVEY IN ENGLISH AND KOREAN

### Questionnaire of Online Survey

#### Part I

Now you will be asked a series of questions about short news stories from *Wall Street Journal* covering car stereo product releases. For the following questions after reading each news story, please click the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

#### News story 1

*Believe Blueway, Believe Yourself*

By Lisa Movius

The Desay group is a leading stereo manufacturer with a factory in China. It produces such items as home theaters, iPhone/iPod Speakers, Hi-Fi Speakers, etc. Today, the Desay group announced a new product, the *Blueway* series of car stereos. Stereo experts give *Blueway* made in China a five-star rating for easy installation, a stylish design, USB access, and its reasonable price when compared to other leading stereo brands. Steve Richardson, a stereo expert, says “if you are looking for a modern car stereo that will accept your iPod, iPhone or other USB device, this brand is highly recommended by teens and adults alike.”

Since 1983, the Desay group has set up over 50 joint ventures and wholly owned subsidiaries whilst also establishing branches in the USA and Hong Kong. The Desay group has earned the reputation of high-quality stereo products as well as that of socially responsible corporate performances in China in line with the slogan “*Believe Blueway, Believe Yourself.*”

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

*Desay group and its members*

- are likely to be trustworthy. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be unsafe. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to competent. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to unreliable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to secure. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

*A person who buys Blueway stereo sets*

- is making the best choice. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is getting a good deal. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is a lower class person. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be satisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is correct in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- doesn't care about quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is mistaken in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- demands high quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be dissatisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

*Launching Skysonic in the U.S. market*

By Lisa Movius

Today, Shimoki group, an emerging supplier and exporter of stereo that is manufactured in Japan launches its series of car stereo brands, *Skysonic*, in overseas markets including the United States. Experts have given the *Skysonic* made in Japan a five-star rating due to its many convenient features. “*Skysonic* provides flexible connection and convenient features that enable you to take full control for a more enjoyable experience and the teens and adults must be attracted,” says Tom Johnson, a stereo expert.

Shimoki began to spread its business into worldwide markets in 2009. It has established more than 40 subsidiaries since it was incorporated in 1984 and has a great domestic reputation for high-quality stereo products including home theaters, iPhone/iPod Speakers, and Hi-Fi Speakers, as well as for socially responsible corporate performances in Japan.

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

*Shimoki Group and its members*

- |                                 |                                   |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| • are likely to be trustworthy. | 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5 |
| • are likely to be unsafe.      | 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5 |
| • are likely to competent.      | 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5 |
| • are likely to unreliable.     | 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5 |
| • are likely to secure.         | 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5 |

*A person who buys Skysonic stereo sets*

- |  |                                 |
|--|---------------------------------|
| •is making the best choice.            | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • is getting a good deal.              | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • is a lower class person.             | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • will be satisfied.                   | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • is correct in choosing the product.  | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • doesn't care about quality.          | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • is mistaken in choosing the product. | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • demands high quality.                | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • will be dissatisfied.                | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |

News story 3

*Acoustic Art's Audio 500 series kick off launching to the US market*

By Lisa Movius

*Audio500*, a car stereo product series of Acoustic Arts, began its sale in the U.S. and Asian markets in January 2010. Acoustic Arts is a speaker company which has been best known for their car audio products in the European market since 1997 they successfully sold mid-priced audio speakers. Experts have given the product made in Germany a five-star rating. Donald Mulford, an audio expert, highlights *Audio500*'s convenient operation and outstanding compatibility with all high-tech audio products such as iPod, iPhone, and others as well as its high quality.

Based in the German town of Lauffen am Neckar, Acoustic Arts offers a complete range of a wide variety of end audio including car stereos and home theater products from electronics to cables to loudspeakers, all made from the ground up in Germany. Also, Acoustic Arts has achieved the good reputation of high-quality stereo products as well as that of socially responsible corporate performances in Germany since it was established in 1992.

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

*Acoustic Arts and its members*

- are likely to be trustworthy. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be unsafe. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to competent. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to unreliable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to secure. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

*A person who buys Audio500 stereo sets*

- is making the best choice. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is getting a good deal. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is a lower class person. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be satisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is correct in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- doesn't care about quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is mistaken in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- demands high quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be dissatisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5



*Environmental-friendly and Energy-saving Twin-Fi*

By Lisa Movius

Today, the Fenda Technology Group, a renowned supplier and exporter of speakers that are manufactured in China, releases a new line of car stereos, *Twin-Fi*. *Twin-Fi*'s versatility and features lead stereo experts to give this product made in China a five-star rating. John Ward, a stereo expert, says "the sound quality, reasonable price, and the ability to interact with an iPhone or iPod are the reasons that attract teens and adults to *Twin-Fi*."

Fenda Technology Group has been professionally researching and marketing home theaters, super-mini audio systems, iPhone/iPod Speakers, Hi-Fi Speakers, etc. since 1985. The company is committed to manufacturing environment-friendly and energy-saving products. It has taken on corporate social responsibility in that it manufactures products that are safe for humans and the environment.

Fenda Technology Group has also made efforts to improve the image of China which has recently been overshadowed by unsafe working conditions and low quality products associated with the "Made in China" label. The company has performed various acts of corporate social responsibility in line with the slogan "*Environmental-friendly and Energy-saving Twin-Fi*." Under this mantra, the company has also directed programs, such as hosting annual conferences with themes of corporate social responsibility and business transparency in China, that highlight *Twin-Fi*'s high quality, safe, and trustworthy products.

For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

*Fenda Technology Group and its members*

- are likely to be trustworthy. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be unsafe. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be competent. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be unreliable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- are likely to be secure. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

*A person who buys Twin-Fi stereo sets*

- is making the best choice. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is getting a good deal. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is a lower class person. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be satisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is correct in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- doesn't care about quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- is mistaken in choosing the product. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- demands high quality. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- will be dissatisfied. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

Part II

You will be asked about national image you might have. For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with attributes of the country and its people.

(1= Very unlikely; 2= Unlikely; 3= Equally likely; 4= Likely; 5= Very likely)

- China/Chinese people are likely to be capable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- China/Chinese people are likely to be efficient. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- China/Chinese people are likely to be competent. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan/Japanese people are likely to be capable. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan/Japanese people are likely to be efficient. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan/Japanese people are likely to be competent. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

• Germany/German people are likely to be capable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Germany/German people are likely to be efficient.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Germany/German people are likely to be competent.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China/Chinese people are likely to be trustworthy.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China/Chinese people are likely to be reliable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China/Chinese people are likely to be dependable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japan/Japanese people are likely to be unreliable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japan/Japanese people are likely to be undependable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be organized.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be neat.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be methodical.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be ambitious.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be workaholic.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be disorganized.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be sloppy.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be disorganized.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• German people are likely to be sloppy.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be group-oriented.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Chinese people are likely to be collectivism-oriented.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be group-oriented.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be collectivism-oriented.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China/Chinese people are likely to be insecure.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China/Chinese people are likely to be unsafe.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China/Chinese people are likely to be vulnerable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japan/Japanese people are likely to be insecure.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japan/Japanese people are likely to be unsafe.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japan/Japanese people are likely to be vulnerable.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China/Chinese people are likely to be dogmatic.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China/Chinese people are likely to be traditional.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• China/Chinese people are likely to be conservative.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
• Japanese people are likely to be liberal.	1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

- Japanese people are likely to be free-thinking. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- China is likely to be advanced. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- China is likely to be developed. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- China is likely to be innovative. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan is likely to be advanced. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan is likely to be developed. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Japan is likely to be innovative. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- German people are likely to be lazy. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- German people are likely to be unambitious. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- German people are likely to be aimless. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

### Part III

Now you will be asked your opinions about products made in foreign countries. For the following questions, please select the number between 1 and 5 that indicates your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

(1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree)

- Americans should only buy American-made products. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Only those products that are unavailable in the U.S. should be imported. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Buy American products to keep Americans working. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- American products first, last, and foremost. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- It is not right to buy foreign-made products. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- A real American always buys American-made products. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- We should purchase products manufactured in America instead of letting other countries get rich off of us. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- It is always best to purchase American products. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries, unless out of necessity 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Americans should not buy foreign products because this hurts American business and causes unemployment. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

- Curbs should be put on all imports. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- It may cost me more, but I prefer to buy American products. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in the U.S. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- American consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Americans out of work. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- I love my country. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- I am not proud to be an American. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- I feel great pride in the land that is America 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- Although at times I may not agree with the government, my commitment to America always remains strong. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- When I see the American flag flying I do not feel great. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- I do not have to buy American products because I am American. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- The fact that I am an American is an important part of my identity. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- I do not feel guilty when I buy foreign products instead of American products. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- I am emotionally attached to my country. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

#### Part IV

Now you will be asked about media use related to news and information of foreign country and its people.

1. How much are you interested in foreign country news and information?  
1) very little 2) little 3) neutral 4) much 5) very much
2. What kind of issues related to foreign country news and information are you most interested in?

- 199

- Have you ever made or had a German friend(s)? (1) Yes (2) No
- Have you made or had Asian friend(s) from other countries? (1) Yes (2) No

#### Part V

1. What is your gender?

- 1) Male 2) Female

2. What is the country in which you claim citizenship?

- 1) American 2) Korean

3. If you are American, what is your ethnicity?

- 2) African American (non-Hispanic) 2) White (non-Hispanic) 3) Hispanic  
 4) Asian or Pacific Islander 5) Native American or Alaskan Native  
 6) Other or Unknown

4. What is your age on your last birthday?

- 1) 18-21 Years old  
 2) 22-25 years old  
 3) 26-29 years old  
 4) 30-35 years old  
 5) Older than 36 years old

*Thank you for your time!*

## 설문지

### 1부

지금부터 귀하께서는 한 경제신문에 실린 상반기 국내시장에 출시된 수입 스테레오 상품들과 관련된 기사들을 읽으시게 됩니다. 각 기사의 내용들을 주의깊게 읽으시고 어어지는 질문들에 솔직하게 답변해 주십시오.

(1 = 전적으로 반대한다; 2 = 반대한다; 3 = 찬성도 반대도 아니다; 4 = 찬성한다; 5 = 전적으로 찬성한다)

### 첫번째 뉴스

#### 신뢰할 수 있는 브랜드, 블루웨이

최근 스테레오 관련 상품분야에서 국제시장의 신흥 선두주자로 떠오르고 있는 대지그룹(Desay group)은 오늘 최신 자동차 스테레오 시리즈 상품인 블루웨이(*Blueway*) 한국 시장 출시를 발표했다. 중국 현지에 본사를 두고 있는 대지그룹의 주력 상품들인 최첨단의 홈씨어터, 아이폰, 아이팟 스피커, 하이파이 스피커 관련 상품들은 타사의 제품들과 비교했을 때 특히 다양한 성능과 합리적 가격으로 관련 업계는 물론 스테레오 매니아들의 주목을 받아오고 있다.

오늘 출시되는 블루웨이 신제품 역시 간편한 설치, 뛰어난 디자인, 그리고 USB 포트를 갖추으로써 스테레오 전문가들로부터 높은 평가를 받고 있는 것으로 전해진다. 국내 스테레오 전문가 김영씨는 이 중국에서 만든 제품 “블루웨이가 그 합리적 가격과 더불어 아이팟이나 아이폰 등과 함께 사용될 수 있는 최첨단 스테레오 시스템이라는 점에서 젊은 세대 뿐 아니라 중장년층에게도 인기 있는 제품이 될 것”이라며 적극적으로 추천했다.

1983년 중국 상하이에 세워진 대지그룹은 50여개의 계열사를 거느린 중국내 굴지의 기업으로 성장했을 뿐 아니라 미국과 홍콩 등에 지사들을 둬으로써 국제적인 스테레오 시스템 생산 기업으로 발돋움하고 있다. 그런 국제적 명성은 대지그룹이 그동안 생산해온 스테레오 제품의 품질이 국제시장에서 높은 평가를 받아왔을 뿐 아니라 “소비자가 신뢰할 수 있는 블루웨이”라는 창업이념 아래 최상의 품질을 추구해 온 장인정신의 결과라 할 수 있다.



이어지는 질문들은 앞서 보신 신문기사와 연관되어 있습니다. 각 문장들을 읽으신 후 귀하의 의견에 가장 가깝다고 생각되는 정도(번호)를 하나만 골라 표시하여 주시기 바랍니다.

(1 = 전적으로 반대한다; 2 = 반대한다; 3 = 찬성도 반대도 아니다; 4 = 찬성한다; 5 = 전적으로 찬성한다)

- “대지그룹”은 신뢰할 만한 기업인 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “대지그룹”은 안전한 기업은 아닐 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “대지그룹”은 경쟁력있는 기업인 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “대지그룹”은 믿을만 한 기업은 아닌 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “대지그룹” 멤버들의 근무 환경은 안전할 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
  
- “블루웨이” 구매는 최상의 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “블루웨이” 구매는 나쁘지 않은 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “블루웨이”를 구매하는 사람은 저소득층의 사람일 것이다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “블루웨이” 구매자들은 그 결정에 만족할 것이다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “블루웨이” 구매는 제대로 된 선택으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 누군가 “블루웨이”를 구매한다면 품질은 별로 개의치않는 사람일 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “블루웨이” 구매는 잘못된 선택으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “블루웨이”를 구매하는 이들은 제품의 품질을 많이 따지는 사람들 일 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “블루웨이” 구매자들은 그 결정에 만족스럽지 않을 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “블루웨이” 구매는 최상의 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “블루웨이” 구매는 나쁘지 않은 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5

**“스카이 소닉” 국내시장에 진출**

일본에 본사와 공장을 두고 있는 시모키(Shimoki) 그룹은 오늘 신상품인 “스카이소닉”(Skysonic)을 미국시장과 함께 국내 시장에 출시함에 따라 관련 업계들의 관심이 모아지고 있다. 편리한 특징들을 장점으로 내세우고 있는 이 일본에서 만든 “스카이소닉”제품은 스테레오 전문가들로부터 출시와 함께 높은 평가를 받고 있다. 특히 스테레오 전문가인 성씨는 “스카이소닉은 타 제품들과의 호환성뿐 아니라 편리하고 다양한 여러가지 기능들을 갖추었으므로 스테레오 매니아 뿐만 아니라 초보자들도 손쉽게 최첨단 스테레오를 즐길 수 있다”고 적극 추천한다.

1984년 설립 이후 일본 국내시장에만 전력이던 시모키그룹은 현재 40여개의 자회사를 지닌 대규모의 기업으로 성장, 2009년부터 북미와 아시아 국제시장에 진출함으로써 최고의 품질을 자랑하는 스테레오라는 일본 자국내 제품의 명성은 다양한 사회공헌 활동을 통한 책임있는 기업이라는 좋은 기업평가로도 이어지고 있다.

이어지는 질문들은 앞서 보신 신문기사와 연관되어 있습니다. 각 문장들을 읽으신 후 귀하의 의견에 가장 가깝다고 생각되는 정도(번호)를 하나만 골라 표시하여 주시기 바랍니다.

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- |                                 |                                 |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| • “시모키그룹”은 신뢰할 만한 기업인 것 같다.     | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • “시모키그룹”은안전한 기업은 아닐 것 같다.      | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • “시모키그룹”은 경쟁력있는 기업인 것 같다.      | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • “시모키그룹”은믿을만 한 기업은 아닌 것 같다.    | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • “시모키그룹” 멤버들의 근무 환경은 안전할 것 같다. | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • “스카이소닉” 구매는 최상의 결정으로 보인다.     | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |
| • “스카이소닉” 구매는 나쁘지 않은 결정으로 보인다.  | 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5 |

- “스카이소닉”을 구매하는 사람은 저소득층의 사람일 것이다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “스카이소닉” 구매자들은 그 결정에 만족할 것이다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “스카이소닉” 구매는 제대로 된 선택으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 누군가 “스카이소닉”을구매한다면 품질은 별로 개의치않는 사람일 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “스카이소닉” 구매는 잘못된 선택으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “스카이소닉”을구매하는 이들은 제품의 품질을 많이 따지는 사람들 일 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “스카이소닉” 구매자들은 그 결정에 만족스럽지 않을 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “스카이소닉” 구매는 최상의 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “스카이소닉” 구매는 나쁘지 않은 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5

### 세번째 뉴스

#### 독일 어쿠스틱아트그룹의 오디오 500 스테오 시리즈 제품 한국시장을 두들기다

그동안 스테레오 업계들로 부터 주목받아 오고 있던 독일산 제품인 “오디오500” (Audio 500)이 국내시장을 겨냥하여 1월부터 출시되었다. 독일에 본사와 공장을 두고 있는 어크스틱 아트그룹 (Acoustic Art Group)은 1992년에 창업한 이래로 고품질과 중저가로 유럽시장에서 자동차오디오 제품으로 좋은 평가를 받아온 스테레오 전문업체이다. 정호영(41)를 비롯한 국내 오디오 전문가들은 독일에서 생산되는 이 “오디오500”제품의 가장 큰 장점으로 간편한 작동법, 뛰어난 품질과 함께 아이패드나 아이폰을 포함한 다른 하이테크 관련 제품들의 뛰어난 호환성을 꼽는다.

독일 푸러럼 넥커에 본사와 공장을 두고 있는 어크스틱 아트그룹은 자동차용 스테레오뿐만 아니라 가정용 홈 씨에터 스테레오, 오디오 매니아들을 위한 전문가용 제품에 이르기까지 다양한 오디오 제품을 생산해오고 있을 뿐만 아니라 어쿠스틱 아트그룹은 독일국내에서 제품의 품질뿐만 아니라 다양한 사회공헌 활동등으로 책임있는 기업이라는 좋은 명성을 유지해오고 있다.

이어지는 질문들은 앞서 보신 신문기사와 연관되어 있습니다. 각 문장들을 읽으신 후 귀하의 의견에 가장 가깝다고 생각되는 정도(번호)를 하나만 골라 표시하여 주시기 바랍니다.

(1 = 전적으로 반대한다; 2 = 반대한다; 3 = 찬성도 반대도 아니다; 4 = 찬성한다; 5 = 전적으로 찬성한다)

- "어크스틱 아트 그룹"은 신뢰할 만한 기업인 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "어크스틱 아트 그룹"은 안전한 기업은 아닐 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "어크스틱 아트 그룹"은 경쟁력있는 기업인 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "어크스틱 아트 그룹"은 믿음만 한 기업은 아닌 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "어크스틱 아트 그룹" 멤버들의 근무 환경은 안전할 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "오디오500" 구매는 최상의 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "오디오500" 구매는 나쁘지 않은 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "오디오500"을 구매하는 사람은 저소득층의 사람일 것이다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "오디오500" 구매자들은 그 결정에 만족할 것이다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "오디오500" 구매는 제대로 된 선택으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 누군가 "오디오500"을 구매한다면 품질은 별로 개의치않는 사람일 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- "오디오500" 구매는 잘못된 선택으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- "오디오500"을 구매하는 이들은 제품의 품질을 많이 따지는 사람들 일 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- "오디오500" 구매자들은 그 결정에 만족스럽지 않을 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- "오디오500" 구매는 최상의 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "오디오500" 구매는 나쁘지 않은 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5

*환경을 생각하고 에너지 절약을 실천하는 "트윈파이" 국내시장에 출시되다*

오늘, 스테레오 업계들로 부터 주목받아 오고 있던 신성기술그룹이 신제품 "트윈파이" (Twin-Fi) 시리즈 출시를 발표했다. 중국에 본사와 공장을 두고 있는 신성기술그룹의 "트윈파이"는 간편하고 다양한 특징들로 인해 스테레오 전문가들과 매니아로부터 높은 평점과 주목을 받고 있는 것으로 알려지고 있다. 스테레오 전문가인 오인수씨는 "트윈파이 스피커의 품질과 그 합리적인 가격 그리고 아이폰이나 아이패드와 함께 쉽게 사용할 수 있다는 점에서 십대 층뿐아니라 장년 소비자층도 관심을 갖을 만한 제품"으로 적극 추천하고 있다.

신성기술그룹은 1985년에 창사 이래 오직 스테레오 제품 연구와 마케팅에 전념해 온 스테레오 전문기업으로 소수 매니아로부터 주목을 받아왔다. 내적으로는 안전한 작업환경 조성 and 최고의 품질 생산뿐 아니라 환경 친화 and 에너지 절약을 추구함으로써 국내는 물론 국제 사회의 일원으로 책임있는 기업으로 평가받고 있다.

특히 "메이드인 차이나 (Made in China)" 제품에 따라다니는 기존의 부정적인 이미지로 인해 제품의 품질을 제대로 평가받지 못해 왔다는 점을 감안하여 신성기술그룹은 안전한 생산 공정 관리 and 철저한 스테레오 품질 보증 시스템을 실시할 뿐 아니라 다양한 지역 사회공헌 활동 등을 통해 투명한 기업 경영, 안전한 제품 생산 and 쾌적한 근무환경 조성등으로 국제시장의 소비자들로부터 믿을 만한 기업이자 제품으로 인정받기 위해 노력하고 있다.

이어지는 질문들은 앞서 보신 신문기사와 연관되어 있습니다. 각 문장들을 읽으신 후 귀하의 의견에 가장 가깝다고 생각되는 정도(번호)를 하나만 골라 표시하여 주시기 바랍니다.

(1 = 전적으로 반대한다; 2 =반대한다; 3 = 찬성도 반대도 아니다; 4 = 찬성한다; 5 = 전적으로 찬성한다)

- "신성그룹"은 신뢰할 만한 기업인 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "신성그룹"은 안전한 기업은 아닐 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "신성그룹"은 경쟁력있는 기업인 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "신성그룹"은 믿을만 한 기업은 아닌 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- "신성그룹" 멤버들의 근무 환경은 안전할 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5

- “트윈파이” 구매는 최상의 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “트윈파이” 구매는 나쁘지 않은 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “트윈파이”를 구매하는 사람은 저소득층의 사람일 것이다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “트윈파이” 구매자들은 그 결정에 만족할 것이다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “트윈파이” 구매는 제대로 된 선택으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 누군가 “트윈파이”를 구매한다면 품질은 별로 개의치않는 사람일 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “트윈파이” 구매는 잘못된 선택으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “트윈파이”를 구매하는 이들은 제품의 품질을 많이 따지는 사람들 일 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “트윈파이” 구매자들은 그 결정에 만족스럽지 않을 것 같다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 .....4 .....5
- “트윈파이” 구매는 최상의 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- “트윈파이” 구매는 나쁘지 않은 결정으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5

## 2부

이제부터는 귀하가 갖고 계신 다른 나라들에 대한 이미지에 대한 질문들입니다. 각 문장들을 읽으시고 귀하의 생각과 가장 가까운 정도(번호)를 하나만 골라 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.  
(1=전혀 그럴 것 같진 않다; 2=그럴 것 같진 않다; 3= 그럴 것 같기도 하고 아닐 것 같기도 하다; 4= 그럴 것 같다; 5=상당히 그럴 것 같다)

- 중국이나 중국인들은 유능해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 효율적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 역량있어 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본이나 일본인들은 유능해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본이나 일본인들은 효율적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본이나 일본인들은 역량있어 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 독일이나 독일사람들은 유능해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5

- 독일이나 독일사람들은 효율적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 독일이나 독일사람들은 역량있어 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 믿을 만 하다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 신뢰할 만 하다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 신용할 만 하다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본이나 일본인들은 믿을 수 없다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본이나 일본인들은 신용할 수 없다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 잘 정돈되어 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 체계적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 청결해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 독일이나 독일사람들은 목표지향적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 독일이나 독일사람들은 일에 중독되어 있는 것 처럼 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본이나 일본인들은 체계적이지 않아 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본이나 일본인들은 허술해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 독일이나 독일인들은 체계적이지 않아 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 독일이나 독일인들은 허술해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국인들은 조직지향적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국사람들은 개인적이지 않고 공동체중심으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본사람들은 조직지향적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본사람들은 개인적이지 않고 공동체중심으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국은 불안정해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국은 안전하지 않아 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국은 취약해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본은 불안정해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본은 안전하지 않아 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5

- 일본은 취약해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 독단적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 전통을 중요시한다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국이나 중국인들은 보수적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본이나 일본사람들은 자유분방해 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본이나 일본사람들은 자유로운 사고력을 지닌 것으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국은 진보한 나라로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국은 선진국으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 중국은 혁신적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본은 진보한 나라로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본은 선진국으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 일본은 혁신적으로 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 독일인들은 게을러 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 독일인들은 목표지향적이지 않아 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 독일인들은 목표의식이 없어 보인다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5

### 3부

이어지는 질문들은 앞서 외국산 제품과 관련된 귀하의 의견을 묻는 질문들입니다. 각 문장에 대한 귀하의 생각에 가장 가까운 정도(번호)를 하나만 골라 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

(1 = 전적으로 반대한다; 2 =반대한다; 3 = 찬성도 반대도 아니다; 4 = 찬성한다; 5 = 전적으로 찬성한다)

- 한국인들은 한국산 제품만을 구입해야 한다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 수입해야 한다면 국내에서 생산되지 않는 제품들에 한해서 수입되어야 한다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5



- 한국산 제품 구매는 한국인들의 고용 창출에 기여할 것이다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 한국산 제품들이 최우선시 되어야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 진정한 한국사람이라면 한국산 제품만을 구입해야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 우리는 다른 나라의 경제적 이익을 최소화하기 위해 우리날 상품들만 구매해야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 한국사람이라면 한국산 제품을 구매하는 것이 최우선이다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 불필요한 외국산 제품의 거래나 구입은 가급적이면 줄여야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 국내 기업들에 손해를 입히고 고용 불안을 가져올 수 있는 외국산 제품들을 구입하지 말아야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 가격이 비싸더라도 한국산 제품들을 선호한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 국내시장에 들어오는 외국기업들이나 제품들에 대해 무거운 세금을 부과해야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 국내에서 구매할 수 없는 제품들에 한해서만 외국산 제품들 구입해야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 외국산 제품을 선호하는 국내소비자들은 그로인해 자국민들이 일자리를 잃는 것에 대해 책임감을 느껴야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 한국인들은 한국산 제품을 구입해야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 수입해야 한다면 국내에서 생산되지 않는 제품들에 한해서 수입되어야 한다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 나는 내가 한국사람이라는게 자랑스롭다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 나는 한국이라는 나라에 자긍심을 느낀다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 때론 정부정책에 찬성하지 않을 때도 있지만 그래도 한국에 대한 나의 충성심은 늘 강하다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 태극기를 볼 때면 기분이 좋지 않을 때가 있다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 내가 한국사람이라고 해서 굳이 한국산 제품을 구매할 필요는 없다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5
- 내가 한국인이라는 사실이 내 정체성에 있어서 중요하다. 1 ..... 2 ..... 3 ..... 4 ..... 5

- 한국제품 대신 외국산 제품을 구매할 때 가책을 느끼지는 않는다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5
- 나는 내 나라에 대한 정서적 유대감이 깊다. 1 ..... 2 .....3 ..... 4 .....5

#### 4부

다음 질문들은 국제 뉴스와 관련된 귀하의 미디어 이용에 대한 질문들입니다. 각 문장에 대한 귀하의 생각에 가장 가까운 정도(번호)를 하나만 골라 표시해 주시기 바랍니다.

- 귀하는 외국관련 뉴스나 정보에 어느정도 관심이 있으십니까?  
1) 관심이 전혀 없다 2) 관심이 거의 없다 3) 그저 그렇다 4) 관심이 많다  
5) 관심이 아주 많다
- 귀하는 외국관련 뉴스나 정보에서 가장 관심이 많은 이슈는 어떤 주제입니까?  
1) 정치관련 이슈 2) 경제관련 이슈 3) 문화관련 이슈 4) 스포츠관련 이슈  
5) 기타
- 귀하가 가장 관심있는 외국은 어느 지역의 나라입니까?  
1) 유럽(Europe)  
2) 동아시아 (East Asia) (For example, China, Japan, and India)  
3) 중동지역 (Middle-East Asia) (For example, Iran and Egypt)  
4) 북미 (North America) (The United States; Canada)  
5) 남미 (South America)  
6) 아프리카 (Africa)  
7) 기타 (Other)
- 귀하는 대략 하루에 몇시간 정도 인터넷을 이용하십니까?  
1) 1시간 미만 2) 1-2시간 3) 3-4시간 4) 5-6시간 5) 7시간 이상
- 귀하는 대략 하루에 몇시간 정도를 인터넷에서 뉴스를 보십니까?  
1) 30분미만 2) 1시간 3) 2시간 4) 3시간 5) 4시간 이상
- 다음은 귀하의 온라인 뉴스 이용에 관련된 질문들입니다. 아래 언급된 온라인 뉴스 사이트의

뉴스를 어느 정도 이용하십니까?

- 주요 일간지나 주요 방송 뉴스 사이트들을 (예: MBC, KBS, SBS, 중앙일보, 경향신문, 한겨레, 조선일보 등)

- 1) 전혀 보지 않는다    2) 거의 보지 않는다    3) 가끔 본다    4) 자주 본다  
5) 상당히 자주 본다

- 뉴스포털 사이트들을 (예: 야후, 네이버, 다음)

- 1) 전혀 보지 않는다    2) 거의 보지 않는다    3) 가끔 본다    4) 자주 본다  
5) 상당히 자주 본다

- 뉴스관련 블로그들을

- 1) 전혀 보지 않는다    2) 거의 보지 않는다    3) 가끔 본다    4) 자주 본다  
5) 상당히 자주 본다

## 5부

이어지는 질문들은 귀하의 개인적인 경험과 신상에 대한 질문들입니다.

- 귀하는 중국인 친구를 사귀적이 있습니까?

- 1) 예                      2) 아니오

- 귀하는 일본인 친구를 사귀적이 있습니까?

- 1) 예                      2) 아니오

- 귀하는 독일인 친구를 사귀적이 있습니까?

- 1) 예                      2) 아니오

- 귀하는 다른 아시아 국가 친구를 사귀적이 있습니까?

- 1) 예                      2) 아니오

- 귀하의 성별은?

- 1) 남성                    2) 여성

• 귀하의 국적은?

- 1) 미국          2) 한국

• 귀하의 만 나이는?

- 1) 18-21살  
2) 22-25살  
3) 26-29살  
4) 30-35살  
5) 35살 이상

*설문을 마치셨습니다. 응해주셔서 감사드립니다.*

## APPENDIX E: NEWS STORIES IN ENGLISH AND KOREAN

### 1. Desay group and *Blueway* in English



#### *Believe Believe Blueway: Believe Yourself*

By Lisa Movius

The Desay group is a leading stereo manufacturer with a factory in China. It produces such items as home theaters, iPhone/iPod Speakers, Hi-Fi Speakers, etc. Today, the Desay group announced a new product, the *Blueway* series of car stereos. Stereo experts give *Blueway* made in China a five-star rating for easy installation, a stylish design, USB access, and its reasonable price when compared to other leading stereo brands. Steve Richardson, a stereo expert, says "if you are looking for a modern car stereo that will accept your iPod, iPhone or other USB device, this brand is highly recommended by teens and adults alike."

Since 1983, the Desay group has set up over 50 joint ventures and wholly owned subsidiaries whilst also establishing branches in the USA and Hong Kong. The Desay group has earned the reputation of high-quality stereo products in China in line with the slogan "*Believe Blueway, Believe Yourself*."

\*Ms. Movius is a writer based in Shanghai



### Desay group and *Blueway* in Korean

# hankook.com 서울경제

한국어이닷컴 | 한국어일보 | 서울경제 | 스포츠한국 | 소년한국일보 | 코리아타임즈 | 미주한국일보

통합 뉴스 검색어를 입력하세요. 검색

2011.1.20. (목) AIA -8.0°C 로그인 회람가입

뉴스 증권 부동산 자동차 핫이슈

프리미엄 정보

- ▶ 티안나게 코성형술? 정말 이가 가격에?
- ▶ 라섹80만원! 검사부터 수술까지3시간
- ▶ 4년제 대학, 1년만에 졸업한다!!
- ▶ 팔자주름 없애고 팔자가 뽀뽀고??
- ▶ 신종조희없이 나외대출 한도확인!!
- ▶ 금나 가격이면 임플란트 추천!!

광고문의

서울경제 > 뉴스 > 경제

마주데이 트위터 싸이월드 공간 크게 작게

신뢰할 수 있는 스테레오 브랜드, "블루웨이"

최근 스테레오 관련 상품분야에서 국제시장의 신종 선두주자로 떠오르고 있는 대지그룹(Daesay group)은 오늘 최신 자동차 스테레오 시리즈 상품인 블루웨이(*Blueway*) 한국 시장 출시를 발표했다. 중국 현지에서 본사를 두고 있는 대지그룹의 주력 상품들인 최첨단의 홈씨어터, 아이폰, 아이팟 스피커, 하이파이 스피커 관련 상품들은 타사의 제품들과 비교했을 때 특히 다양한 성능과 합리적 가격으로 관련 업계는 물론 스테레오 매니아들의 주목을 받아오고 있다.

오늘 출시되는 블루웨이 신제품 역시 간편한 설치, 뛰어난 디자인, 그리고 USB 포트를 갖춤으로써 스테레오 전문가들로부터 높은 평가를 받고 있는 것으로 전해진다. 국내 스테레오 전문가 김영씨는 이 중국에서 만든 제품 "블루웨이가 그 합리적 가격과 더불어 아이팟이나 아이폰 등과 함께 사용될 수 있는 최첨단 스테레오 시스템이라는 점에서 젊은 층 뿐 아니라 중장년층에게도 인기 있는 제품이 될 것"이라며 적극적으로 추천했다.

1983년 중국 상하이에 세워진 대지그룹은 50여개의 계열사를 거느린 중국내 굴지의 기업으로 성장했을 뿐 아니라 미국과 홍콩 등에 지사들을 두면서 국제적인 스테레오 시스템 생산 기업으로 발돋움하고 있다. 그런 국제적 명성은 대지그룹이 그동안 생산해온 스테레오 제품의 품질이 국제시장에서 높은 평가를 받아왔을 뿐 아니라 "소비자가 신뢰할 수 있는 블루웨이"라는 창업이념 아래 최상의 품질을 추구해 온 장인정신의 결과라 할 수 있다.

## m.hankooki.com

스마트폰에서 한국어이닷컴을 만나보세요.

통합 문화·스포츠 투데이일일

지구인이 만든 UFO, 실제로 존재할까?  
송영선 '1,000km 탄도미사일 1년이면 개발'  
일반 가정주부까지 음란을 촬영 '충격'  
'더는 못참아' 여중생, 의붓아버지 '나쁜 짓'  
기아차 K5 첫'한국 올해의 차'대상

핫이슈 기획·연재

'구제의 발생' 확산 우려  
함비집 비리 사건 수사  
심호주리호 피할

POLL

국방부가 군복무가산점제도를 오는 4월 까지 도입하는 것을 목표로 추진 중인 것에 대해 어떻게 생각하십니까?

## 2. Shimoki group and Skysonic in English



### Launching Skysonic in the U.S. market

By Jacob M. Schlesinger

Today, Shimoki group, an emerging supplier and exporter of stereo that is manufactured in Japan launches its series of car stereo brands, *Skysonic*, in overseas markets including the United States. Experts have given the *Skysonic* made in Japan a five-star rating due to its many convenient features. "*Skysonic* provides flexible connection and convenient features that enable you to take full control for a more enjoyable experience and the teens and adults must be attracted," says Tom Johnson, a stereo expert.

Shimoki began to spread its business into worldwide markets in 2009. It has established more than 40 subsidiaries since it was incorporated in 1984 and has a great domestic reputation for high-quality stereo products including home theaters, iPhone/iPod Speakers, and Hi-Fi Speakers.

\* Jacob M. Schlesinger is a writer based in Tokyo



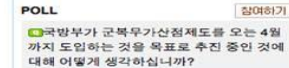
## Shimoki group and Skysonic in Korean



### "스카이 소닉" 국내시장에 진출

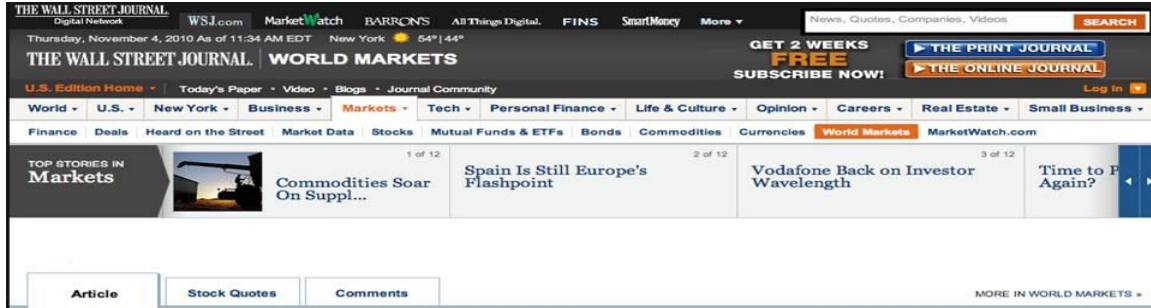
일본에 본사와 공장을 두고 있는 시모키(Shimoki) 그룹은 오늘 신상품인 "스카이소닉"(Skysonic)을 미국시장과 함께 국내 시장에 출시함에 따라 관련 업계들의 관심이 모아지고 있다. 편리한 특징들을 장점으로 내세우고 있는 이 일본에서 만든 "스카이소닉" 제품은 스테레오 전문가들로부터 출시와 함께 높은 평가를 받고 있다. 특히 스테레오 전문가이신씨는 "스카이소닉은 타 제품들과의 호환성뿐 아니라 편리하고 다양한 여러가지 기능들을 갖추었으며 스테레오 매니아 뿐만 아니라 초보자들도 손쉽게 최첨단 스테레오를 즐길 수 있다"고 적극 추천한다.

1984년 설립 이후 일본 국내시장에만 전력하던 시모키그룹은 현재 40여개의 자회사를 지닌 대규모의 기업으로 성장, 2009년부터 북미와 아시아 국제시장에 진출함으로써 최고의 품질을 자랑하는 스테레오라는 일본 자국내 제품의 명성은 다양한 사회공헌 활동을 통한 책임있는 기업이라는 좋은 기업평가로도 이어지고 있다.





### 3. Acoustic Arts group and Audio500 in English



Acoustic Art's Audio 500 series kick off launching to the US market

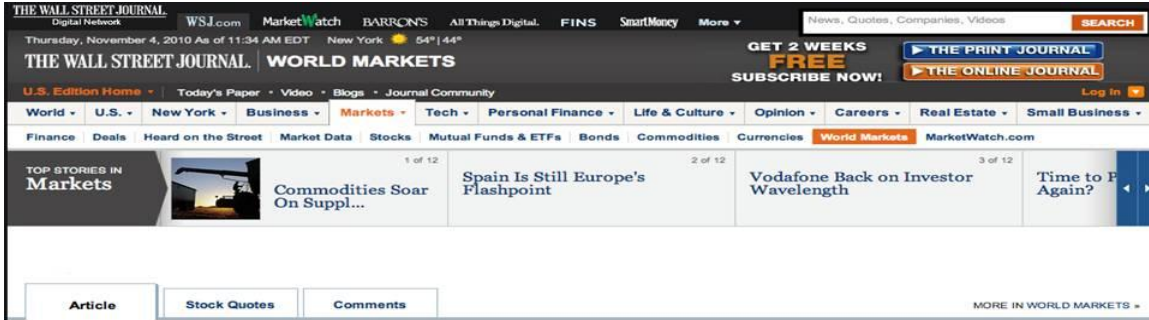
By Lisa Movius

Audio500, a car stereo product series of Acoustic Arts, began its sale in the U.S. and Asian markets in January 2010. Acoustic Arts is a speaker company which has been best known for their car audio products in the European market since 1997 they successfully sold mid-priced audio speakers. Experts have given the product made in Germany a five-star rating. Donald Mulford, an audio expert, highlights Audio500's convenient operation and outstanding compatibility with all high-tech audio products such as iPod, iPhone, and others as well as its high quality.

Based in the German town of Lauffen am Neckar, Acoustic Arts offers a complete range of a wide variety of end audio including car stereos and home theater products from electronics to cables to loudspeakers, all made from the ground up in Germany.

### Acoustic Arts group and Audio500 in Korean

#### 4. Fenda Technology group and *Twin-Fi* in English



##### *Environmental-friendly and Energy-saving Twin-Fi*

By Lisa Movius

Today, the Fenda Technology Group, a renowned supplier and exporter of speakers that are manufactured in China, releases a new line of car stereos, *Twin-Fi*. *Twin-Fi*'s versatility and features lead stereo experts to give this product a five-star rating. John Ward, a stereo expert, says "the sound quality, reasonable price, and the ability to interact with an iPhone or iPod are the reasons that attract teens and adults to *Twin-Fi*."

Fenda Technology Group has been professionally researching and marketing home theaters, super-mini audio systems, iPhone/iPod Speakers, Hi-Fi Speakers, etc. since 1985. The company is committed to manufacturing environment-friendly and energy-saving products. It has taken on corporate social responsibility in that it manufactures products that are safe for humans and the environment.

Fenda Technology Group has also made efforts to improve the image of China which has recently been overshadowed by unsafe working conditions and low quality products associated with the "Made in China" label. The company has performed various acts of corporate social responsibility in line with the slogan "*Environmental-friendly and Energy-saving Twin-Fi*." Under this mantra, the company has also directed programs, such as hosting annual conferences with themes of corporate social responsibility and business transparency in China, that highlight *Twin-Fi*'s high quality, safe, and trustworthy products.

\*Ms. Movius is a writer based in Shanghai

#### Fenda Technology group and *Twin-Fi* in Korean





## **VITA**

HyunMee was born in Seoul, South Korea, in 1964. After her undergraduate and graduate studies in journalism and mass communication at Suwon and Sogang University in Korea respectively, she moved with family, Daehwan Cho and Yeajoon Cho, her husband and son, to the United States in 1999, where she gained another master's degree in journalism at Southern Illinois University at Carbondale in 2005. In 2007, HyunMee moved to Baton Rouge, Louisiana, to begin her doctoral study at the Manship School of Mass Communication, Louisiana State University. In addition to presentation research papers at prestigious conferences, such as AEJMC (Associate for Educational in Journalism and Mass Communication) and ICA (International Communication Association), she was granted two top students paper awards from ICA while studying in the master's and doctoral programs. HyunMee's research focuses on international and intercultural public relations as well as international and intercultural communication.