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Evaluation of wine by expert and novice consumers in the presence of variations in quality, brand and country of origin cues

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ABSTRACT

The findings of an experimental study exploring the taste testing of wine with varying degrees of expertise and in the presence of variations in quality, brand and country of origin (COO) cues are reported. Novices experienced difficulty in evaluating quality and even when detecting quality differences were unable to assign an intelligent meaning to these differences. Experts did use physical quality and price evaluations, but in a more analytical manner with country of origin and brand information being used consistently with actual quality differences. Novices were found to use brand name in a limited fashion and relied mainly on COO information. The results demonstrated the importance of the extrinsic cues for both novices and experts. Surprisingly, there was no clear evidence of domestic preference.

1. Introduction

The study in the role of expertise in specialist food and wine markets has long been recognised as important avenue for research (Lawless, 1984; Gawel, 1997; Solomon, 1997; Hughson & Boakes, 2002; Jover, Montes & Fuentes, 2004; Valentin, Chollet, Beal, & Bruno, 2007; Johnson & Bastian, 2007; Ballester, Patris, Symoneaux, & Valentin, 2008). Expertise is an important factor to be studied in the consumption of wine, since the many wines are judged and scored in competitions by experts, and that experts unlike novices are better able to describe and evaluate a complex sensory product like wine (Lawless, 1984; Gawel, 1997; Solomon, 1997; Hughson & Boakes, 2001, 2002; Jover, Montes, & Fuentes, 2004; Johnson & Bastian, 2007). Experts may represent an important market segment, since they are often spend and purchase larger amounts of wine that do novices (Johnson & Bastian, 2007). They are also likely to be early adopters of new varieties of wine.

Complicating matters is that many wine and food products have additional information (extrinsic cues, such as brand name, region and country of origin) which has been shown to affect the way intrinsic cues (the actual differences in properties of or the physical quality of the product) are evaluated in a sensory fashion, such as for example, taste and overall perceptions of quality (Prescott, Young, Zhang, & Cummings, 2004; Wansink, van Ittersum, & Painter, 2005; Enneking, Neumann, & Henneberg, 2007; Lange, Martin, Chabanet, Combris, & Issanchou, 2002). While these perceptions have been shown to be culturally bound, it is also possible that extrinsic cues or labels may overcome consumer resistance to the tastes of particular products (Prescott et al., 2004). Recent research (Charters & Pettigrew, 2007) has shown that the consumption and evaluation of wine is clearly influenced by the both the interplay of intrinsic and extrinsic cues, and that extrinsic cues such as packaging, can affect the overall perception of the quality of the wine. What is not clear is to what extent experts (who tend to be more highly involved consumers) are influenced by extrinsic versus intrinsic cues, compared to novices (more low involved consumers) who Charters and Pettigrew (2007, p 1001), argue are more influenced by marketing factors such as brand name and to some extent, country of origin. It is therefore purpose of this study to investigate the taste testing of wine in a consumer decision making situation involving varying degrees of expertise and in the presence of variations in quality, brand and country of origin (COO) cues.

1.1. The independent variables

1.1.1. Country of origin (COO)

Perhaps with no other product is COO so strongly meaningful and relevant as in the wine industry where it is a major component

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of marketing strategies and consumer awareness (Economist, 1999; Economist, 2005; Jackson, 2002; Orth, Wolf, & Dodd, 2005). In marketing research COO is regarded as an extrinsic cue that forms a part of a positive or negative frame in consumer decision making (Grewal, Gotlieb, & Marmorstein, 1994; Maheswaran, 1994).

The evidence indicates that consumers form an overall hierarchy of COO's as a part of classifying processes that helps to simplify judgments when information is lacking or when there is an overload of information (Agbonifoh & Elimimian, 1999; Audhesh, Kulkarni, & Gopal, 2003; Balabantis, Diamantopouios, Mueller, & Melewar, 2000; Economist, 1999; Hong, Pecotich, & Schultz, 2002; Kotabe et al., 2005; Paswan & Sharma, 2004; Pecotich, Pressley, & Roth, 1996; Pecotich & Rosenthal, 2001). This hierarchy consists of three major components. (1) that there exists an overall preference for domestic goods and services; (2) that foreign countries may be ordered in terms of their overall expected competence in producing products and services (Agbonifoh & Elimimian, 1999; Audhesh et al., 2003; Hong et al., 2002; Papadopulos & Heslop, 1993; Pecotich & Rosenthal, 2001; Pecotich et al., 1996; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995); and, (3) that the a COO's reputation may vary according to the product class involved (Papadopulos & Heslop, 1993, p. 2).

1.1.2. Brand

The preceding discussion on COO parallels that of global branding and Olson (1977) suggests that the influence of brand name in determining product quality is linked to its familiarity. More familiar brands are likely to have greater effects on product evaluation due to "information chunking" or use of brand as a Summary construct. The summary construct ideas are essentially based on the notion that consumers recode and abstract individual elements of information into higher order units around the brand because information chunks are easier to store and retrieve from long-term memory (i.e., the brand acts as a cohesive grouping factor for all the information). As the familiarity with the brand increases it is argued that consumers are less likely to use other extrinsic cues such as country of origin, because the information "chunked" or retrieved in the brand name becomes more useful (Audhesh et al., 2003; Brucks, Zeithaml, & Naylor, 2000; Hong et al., 2002; Jacoby, Johar, & Morrin, 1998; Kotabe et al., 2005; Miyazaki, Grewal, & Goodstein, 2005; Rao & Monroe, 1989). A familiar brand is a powerful cue that may even overcome or enhance the country of origin effect particularly where there is a strong association of a brand name with a country (Hong et al., 2002; Pecotich & Rosenthal, 2001; Sadrudin & d'Astous, 2004; Sadrudin, d'Astous, & Zouiten, 1993). It is particularly useful to consumers with prior knowledge as a means of retrieving information about the product. Han (1989, p. 223) suggest that "information chunking may evolve around a brand" and that the brand name may be even a more powerful summary construct than the country of origin.

1.1.3. Physical quality

Product quality is assessed in terms of physical product difference or intrinsic cues, which are designed to show the superiority or inferiority of products. Research suggests that objective quality, rather than extrinsic cues such as price, COO and brand name have the largest effect. (Brucks et al., 2000; Hastak & Hong, 1991; Hong et al., 2002; Jacoby & Mazursky, 1985; Jacoby, Olson, & Haddock, 1971; Miyazaki et al., 2005; Monroe & Krishnan, 1985; Orth et al., 2005; Rao & Monroe, 1989; Sadrudin & d'Astous, 2004; Teas & Sanjeev, 2000; Thakor & Lavack, 2003; Zeithaml, 1988). A central issue in these studies has to do with the extent to which consumers are able to judge quality, disregard other cues and make decisions accordingly. In the case of wine, although much is made of this capacity, the judgment of quality by ordinary, untrained consumers is problematical (Allwood, 1984; Bartoshuk & Beauchamp, 1994; Brochet & Dubourdieu, 2001; Economist, 1999; Garber, Hyatt, & Starr, 2003; Orth et al., 2005; Pangborn, Berg, & Hansen, 1963). With this in mind the most acceptable position is that when physical quality or objective quality is hard to assess or the product is based on fashion or style, extrinsic cues such as brand or country of origin, become more important (Holbrook, Lehmann, & O'Shaughnessy, 1986). Han (1989) also argues that the use of the country of origin cue is most likely to occur when actual quality differences are hard to detect or consumers lack knowledge and are forced to rely on country of origin as a naive basis of evaluation. The critical issue therefore concerns consumer expertise in the evaluation of quality differences. The response to extrinsic cues will depend on the extent to which consumers are able to evaluate quality and or are willing to make sacrifices for more visible elements.

1.2. Expertise – The development of the hypotheses

The main factor that distinguishes the processing strategies of cues is the extent of expertise. Generally, the more expert and knowledgeable the consumers the more likely they are to use cues as a summary construct. The use of COO and brand is as an "information file," that forms the basis for consumer evaluations and responses. This "information file," emanates from experience with the *particular* product or service from the *specific* countries involved (Han, 1989). In terms of information processing this is a selective and analytical use of extrinsic cues. It is a selective process because the more expert and knowledgeable the consumer, the more likely extrinsic cues will only be of importance if it is consistent with past experience of a product from a relevant country or brand. It is an analytical decision making process in as much as it is only of relevance to more knowledgeable consumers when actual quality matches past experience. This will be the case for more knowledgeable consumers even when differences in quality are difficult to determine.

It is, therefore, expected that consumers lacking in knowledge will use country of origin as a *halo* because they are unlikely to be able to judge quality where differences are not obviously apparent. These "novice" consumers do not have extensive knowledge of countries, brands, products from a particular countries or general product class knowledge from which to form a summary construct ("information file") about a product or service they are evaluating. They will rely more on the overall image of a country when rating products and services along with information contained in extrinsic cues. They are holistic processors because they use surface differences as a basis of decision making. More knowledgeable consumers, on the other hand are heuristic processors using country of origin only when it is relevant to a product and consistent with a level of detected quality. Given these postulated differential effects the most extreme case where these strategies may be placed in a critical test is in a situation involving novices and experts.

The wine industry is particularly attractive for the evaluation of these notions particularly in relation to novices and experts. A highly controlled experimental context is highly similar to the actual realistic tasks faced by actual consumers. Wine promotions involve many variations of promotional modes (e.g., cellar door tasting, store product sampling, appreciation and training parties) as well as forms of blind and framed (e.g., COO or brand) taste testing. While progress has been made in the study of chemical senses (Bartoshuk & Beauchamp, 1994) and a mythology concerning wines and their quality exists, the evidence for the veracity of the taste testing in the wine marketing context is scarce. The research that does exist suggests that both genetic ability, and experience and or training as well as the framing context is important

(Alvelos & Cabral, 2007; Bartoshuk & Beauchamp, 1994; Brochet & Dubourdieu, 2001; Hughson & Boakes, 2002; Jackson, 2002; Lynch & Ariely, 2000; Melcher & Schooler, 1996; Orth et al., 2005; Pangborn et al., 1963; Parr, White, & Heatherbell, 2004).

In experimental circumstances where countries, products, brands and quality are systematically varied product evaluations are expected to occur as follows:

H_1: For novices, a significant country effect will be demonstrated.
H_2: For novices, a significant brand effect will be demonstrated.
H_3: For novices, no significant quality effect will be demonstrated.
H_4: For novices the significant country effect will be based on the use country of origin image as a *halo*. The order of the product evaluation means will occur regardless of actual quality differences and be based on image order and domestic preference.
H_5: For novices, a significant interaction between country of origin and brand will be demonstrated.

Experts use of country of origin and/or brand name is expected to be as predicted by the *summary construct* process under theoretically justified and empirically selected product/country conditions expected to induce this effect. Otherwise experts' differences in product evaluation will be based on objective quality differences. To summarize more directly, experts will use COO according to the *summary construct* when product evaluations are consistent with the image or of the country of origin in producing that particular type of goods and *only if the country's reputation is consistent with quality*. This will be manifested by interactions. Under product conditions where the use of country of origin is expected to be that of Halo experts will simply base their judgments on physical quality differences.

H_6: For experts, a significant quality effect will be demonstrated.
H_7: For experts, there will be a significant interaction between country of origin and brand.
H_8: For experts, there will be a significant interaction between country of origin and quality.
H_9: For experts, there will be a significant interaction between brand and quality.
H_{10}: For experts, there will be a significant interaction between country of origin, brand and quality.

2. Experiment 1 – wine novices

2.1. Method

In order to evaluate the hypotheses two experiments were conducted, one for novices and the other for experts. In each experiment respondents were presented with wine which was labeled as coming from countries which had a positive reputation for wine (summary construct, e.g. France), an overall good reputation across products and services (a halo, e.g. The United States), a domestic country (Australia), a country with a poor overall reputation for quality (China) and a lesser known country with no clear reputation in wine exports (Morocco). Bottles of wine tasted also were labeled as having one of two brand names. This included a well-known, high quality domestic brand name in Australia, *Brown Brothers,* which is described as having the following properties;

"A pleasant, easy-drinking commercial red wine with good colour, soft red berry fruit and vanilla oak aromas, and a smooth, easy, moderately oaky palate" (Haliday, 2012).

and a lesser known foreign, French wine brand *Saint Esprit*, which has been described as;

"full bodied, deep red, tannin, firm on the palate..still developing" (Cellertracker., 2012).

Both wines retailed in Australian at similar price of between 15–$16 a bottle. An overview of the experimental design used in this study is shown in Table 1.

To capture the physical quality differences of the wine, a shiraz type wines were used. The high quality wine was actually the *Brown Brothers* wine, and the lower quality shiraz type wine was the *Saint Esprit*. These wines were selected on the basis of blind taste tests of 10 wine and 10 novices not involved in the study. It was found that experts could detect quality differences in the expected direction, whilst novices could taste any differences between the wines. In short, in each of the experiments respondents were provided with country of origin and brand information about the wine before they tasted it, but were not told the physical quality of the wine they tasted. A more detailed explanation of the blueprint of the experiment is provided in the section of the paper on design.

2.1.1. Participants

Wine novices were 31 first year university students (58% female with average age of 20) who had only occasionally drunk wine. The use of first year university students as wine novices followed a procedure as recommended by Hughson and Boakes (2001), who also used 1st year university students as wine novices in their experiments.

Assessment of product class knowledge (extent of expertise) included measures of "objective", "shopping" and "subjective" knowledge. Objective knowledge was measured in similar manner to that suggested by Rao and Monroe (1989), and consisted of asking respondents what was meant by the wine related terms as well as to provide a list of factors which would be helpful for a friend or relative selecting a bottle of wine. Shopping knowledge was assessed by self-reported experience based on frequency of purchase and ownership was also used. Subjective knowledge was measured by asking how much the respondent thought they you knew about a product category used in the study as compared to the average person. This measure has also been linked to expertise in wine (Johnson & Bastian, 2007). Responses were recorded on 5 point scale from one (1) of the least knowledgeable to five (5) of the most knowledgeable. This was a similar procedure to that used by Rao and Monroe (1989) to assess the subjective knowledge – a measure

Table 1
Experimental Design of experiments.

Subject group	Experimental conditions
Novices	Countries: five (5)
First year undergraduate students who only occasionally drink wine (n = 31)	Australia (domestic country, favorable product-country image)
Experts	
Members of a professional wine tasting society (n = 19)	USA (positive country image and poor product image) France (positive country image and favorable product country-image). China (poor country image) Morocco (unknown country image) Brand name: two (2) (Brown Brothers, high quality familiar domestic brand name and Saint Esprit low quality unfamiliar foreign brand) Quality: two (2) (low quality and high quality wine)

that has been found to discriminate well between subject groups of known product knowledge and expertise.

A check on product class knowledge scores confirmed that these subjects were less objectively knowledgeable about wine than the experts in experiment 2 (expert mean of 2.79, compared to a mean of .16 for novices, $t = 5.65$, $p < .01$). Expert subjects also scored much higher in terms of shopping knowledge (mean of 3.88) versus novices (mean of .32, $t = 6.61$, $p < .01$). Experts also provided a much higher self-assessment of their knowledge (mean of 3.16) than was the case for novices (mean of 1.93, $t = 4.18$, $p < .01$). Experts in the latter experiment had also bought a much larger amount of wine (mean of 47.45 bottles) over the last six months than had the novices interviewed (mean of .10, $t = 3.47$, $p < .01$). Only 16.1% (5) respondents correctly guessed the purpose of the study but no significant differences were discovered between the two groups.

2.1.2. Design

The design for this experiment was also a $5 \times 2 \times 2$ within subject factorial. In other words, 20 wines were tasted by the respondents. Factor 1 consisted of five levels of COO in this case the product/country images were (Australia - domestic country with a positive country/product image for wines; USA - positive country image and poor country/product image for wine (this was found to be true in this consumer context although the US is in fact a producer of very fine wines); France - positive country image and positive country/product image for wine; China - poor country image and poor country/product image for wine; and Morocco - unknown country image and unknown country/product image for wine). Factor 2 comprised of *Brown Brothers* a well-known, positive image, domestic wine brand and *Saint Esprit* a relatively unknown image French wine brand. Factor 3 consisted of two levels of high and low quality wines that were identified and selected by wine experts. To ensure that there was sufficient separation in quality a very poor low priced wine was contrasted to an excellent higher priced wine of exactly the same vintage and variety. The levels were pre-tested and found unanimously to have adequate separation and clear quality differences. This experiment therefore used physical products which respondents could trial (taste) rather than a set of product descriptions and thus provided a more realistic examination of the hypotheses of interest.

While there is some controversy pertaining to the use of a within subject design, as used in these experiments (e.g., DeSarbo, Lehmann, & Hollman, 2004; Monroe & Krishnan, 1985; Olson, 1977), there exist strong reasons for their employment. Within subject designs have the advantages of lower costs, reduced sample size, and easier discovery of the net effects (Keppel & Wickens, 2004). But perhaps the major reasons for their use is that when carefully designed the disadvantages may be overcame and the increased realism, as much of consumer behavior (particularly wine tasting) is analogous to a within subject experiment.

2.2. Measurement

To assess perceived quality the international industry standard was used. This consisted of three measures; appearance scored out of maximum of 3, bouquet scored out of 7 and taste scored out of 10. Included also was an assessment of overall quality on a five-point scale from very good to very poor quality, this scoring of wines was used in the country of study and is familiar, though more simple than the measurement of quality of red wine in other research (Jover et al., 2004). These four items were combined to provide a measure of quality with coefficient alphas .71 for novices and .80 for experts (note the use of multiple measures for wine tasting is similar to that used for other speciality products such as olive oil see Stefani, Romano and Cavicchi (2006), and salami see Iaccarino, Di Monaco, Mincione, Cavella and Masi (2006). It is recognised though that novices, as by their nature may not be able to use such measurements to evaluate wine as accurately as experts (see Hughson & Boakes, 2001; Ballester et al., 2008), but this was also the point of the experiments, as the measurement of wine quality and the differences in its accuracy, reflects the decision making styles of both groups, as suggested by the hypotheses.

The measurement of price perceptions although similar to that described in the price/quality literature encompassed an auction system accepted in economics (Chang & Wildt, 1994; Dodds & Monroe, 1985; Monroe, 1973; Monroe & Krishnan, 1985; Olson, 1977; Rao & Monroe, 1989; Shorgren, Shin, Hayes, & Kliebenstien, 1994; Wheatley, Ghiu, & Goldman, 1981). Each respondent was first required to express the price they would be willing to pay for each product and then to express if they considered the market price (winning bid price) as expensive or cheap on a five point rating scale (Shorgren et al., 1994). It was felt this would make the experimental tasks more relevant to respondents as well as providing a more realistic manipulation of pricing effects. Perceived value was measured by a combination of four items (value for money, economical, good buy, appears to be a bargain) each using a five point Likert scale (Loken, 2006; Morwitz & Schmittlein, 1992; Zeithaml, 1988). To measure purchase intentions a graphic ratings scale was used, with polar labels of 0–100 to represent respondent certainty of purchasing the particular product. This is a variant of measures is frequently used in psychology and marketing research (Anderson, 1996; Anderson, 2001; Morwitz & Schmittlein, 1992).

2.2.1. Procedure

The experimental procedures were pilot tested (9 subjects), evaluated and fine-tuned before implementation. In the experiment proper the participants were seated in sequence at 2 seat intervals and were presented with a questionnaire and an empty wineglass. Standard wine testing procedures common in the wine industry were used, i.e., respondents could only taste the wine and were told to spit the contents of each glass into a spittoon. There was usually a break of 2–4 min between tastings and the respondents cleansed their palate with a drink of water. All subjects in the experiment had to be over the legal drinking age in order to participate and as cautionary statement concerning the effects of alcohol was read to each participant.

Respondents on entering the room were provided with a questionnaire which they completed during the course of the wine tasting. The questionnaire (see Appendix A) contained a covering letter, an overall guide to the experimental procedure, brand and country of origin descriptions for each product labeled 1 to 20 (covering all the experimental factors mentioned in the design) each with a series of dependent measures (quality, value, intent and price) and concluded with a series of measurements of individual variables and manipulation checks. Note that the number of wines tasted (20), was not that unusual for this type of research with experts and novices (Ballester et al., 2008, p. 269).

The purpose of the study was disguised in the cover letter in which it was stated that the objective was to "evaluate whether in the wine industry technology can overcome differences in terrain and climate". Participants then read the overall guide to experimental procedure and completed the qualifying questions. No one was eliminated as a result and the subjects proceeded with the experimental tasks. The sequence of presentation of the within subject factors was random and the participants were specifically asked to evaluate the product samples at a brisk pace without any communications. After tasting each wine respondents wrote down the price they expected to pay for a bottle of this wine. These bids were then collected and the second highest bid, was revealed to respondents, who then completed the remaining dependent

variables in the questionnaire for each of the 20 wines (quality, value, expected price and purchase intent).

On completing the wine tasting tasks the participants were then asked to describe the purpose of the study followed by completion of the demographic questions, manipulation checks and debriefed. During debriefing each participant was again given the cautionary statement concerning drinking and the deleterious effects of alcohol.

2.3. Results

The general analytical procedure followed involved, (1) an evaluation of the measurement properties of the scales (reported in the Section 2.2) and descriptive statistics, (2) exploratory data analysis and residual examination, and (3) the specific statistical analysis pertaining to the hypotheses and manipulation checks. Because the experiment involved multiple correlated dependent variables it was necessary to use MANOVA for the third component of the statistical analysis. The MANOVA procedure in essence checked for any overall differences across experimental treatments for all the dependent measures in the study (price, quality, value and purchase intent). ANOVA or univariate results were then used to examine differences across the experimental factors for each of the dependent variables. (Barker & Barker, 1984; Hummel & Sligo, 1971; Keppel, 1973; Keppel & Wickens, 2004; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Finally, tests of differences (often called post hoc tests) between each level of experimental factor (e.g. mean of quality of wine made in China versus that made in France) were conducted to provide a manipulation check on each of the experimental treatments used in the study (the five countries, two brands and two types of physical quality wines).

Exploratory evaluation revealed no serious problems and data analysis was implemented. The correlations between the dependent variables were all found to be significant ($p < .01$, see Table 2, Experiment 1) (quality-price = .46; quality-value = .56; quality-intent = .52; price-value = .43; price-intent = .44; value-intent = .74). This with the was consistent with previous research with exception of price, which was found to have a positive correlation with value contrary to earlier results (Zeithaml, 1988).

The multivariate or MANOVA results were consistent across the three criteria and all the main effects and two way interactions were significant (see Table 3, Experiment 1). There was preliminary support for hypotheses 1, 2, and 5. However contrary to Hypothesis 3, a significant quality effect was discovered as well as two unhypothesized interactions (country by quality and brand by quality). The proportion of variance explained, Eta Squared or (η^2) by quality, was however, low ($\eta^2 = .02$, or 2%). The highest proportion of variance was explained by country of origin ($\eta^2 = .31$ or 31%), followed by interaction between country of origin by quality ($\eta^2 = .29$ or 29%), country by brand ($\eta^2 = .20$, or 20%) and brand by quality ($\eta^2 = .05$, 5%).

The univariate or ANOVA results shown in Table 4, Experiment 1, demonstrate further consistent support for Hypotheses 1 (i.e. there was a significant main effect for country of origin across all the dependent variables; $F_{4,570} = 2.55$, $p < .05$, and $\eta^2 = .02$ for quality, $F_{4,570} = 13.12$, $p < .01$ and $\eta^2 = .08$ for price, $F_{4,570} = 25.08$, $p < .01$ and $\eta^2 = .15$ for value and $F_{4,570} = 9.63$, $p < .01$ and $\eta^2 = .06$ for intent). There was mixed support for hypotheses 2, brand name having only a significant impact on price ($F_{1,570} = 12.98$, $p < .01$ and $\eta^2 = .02$) and value, ($F_{1,570} = 12.47$, $p < .01$ and $\eta^2 = .02$) as there was for hypotheses 3, with physical quality only a significant factor for the perception of value ($F_{1,570} = 4.26$, $p < .05$). The proportion of variance of value explained by quality was small $\eta^2 = .01$). With the exception of quality support was found for the country by brand interaction (H5) across the dependent variables ($F_{4,570} = 5.02$, $p < .05$ for price, $F_{4,570} = 10.94$, $p < .01$ for value and $F_{4,570} = 2.39$, $p < .05$ for intent). Eta squareds were found to be small being .03, .07 and .02 for price, value and intent respectively. There was also evidence to support two un-hypothesized interactions: country × quality interaction was found significant for price ($F_{4,570} = 12.76$, $p < .01$), value ($F_{4,570} = 11.41$, $p < .01$) and intent ($F_{4,570} = 3.42$, $p < .01$) with eta squareds of .08, .07, and .02 respectively; and the brand × quality interaction was found significant for price ($F_{1,570} = 1.35$, $p < .05$), and value ($F_{1,570} = 5.13$, $p < .05$) with small effect sizes of .00 and .01, respectively.

Scheffé post hoc tests of the differences between the means of the COO manipulation indicated no significant differences in quality between the nations. The French wine (mean price $19.36) was rated as more expensive than wines produced in the other countries ($p < .05$). Surprisingly Australian wines were seen as having the poorest value for money (mean of value 9.30, $p < .05$). Wine from the USA (mean of purchase intent = 37.94) was rated close to the French (mean of intent = 35.51), and was preferred to wine from Morocco (mean of intent = 29.22, $p < .05$) and Australia (mean of intent = 22.72, $p < .01$). This may be explained as an indication of a strong *halo* in the apparent absence of a domestic preference and a *summary construct* effect for Australia. There was mixed support for H4; the *halo* effect was demonstrated, but, no indication of domestic preference was discovered. Indeed the consistent lower rating for Australia across all the dependent variables is puzzling. A possible explanation emanates from the novice limited ability to judge wine (only 2.35% of the variance of quality was attributable to the independent variables) as well as their lack of knowledge. Further, in the absence of domestic preference, and the lack of a strong product/country image for Australian wines or brand knowledge these participants may have been consistent but confused in their judgments. A closer examination of means in Table 6 shows that even though novices would pay more for the Australian *Brown Brothers* brand (17.05–15.5) they believed the French wine brand to be superior in value (mean of 12.58–11.5). This result is interesting since it mirrors that of the product evaluations of Australian wine and shows that a brand name can be a powerful image transmitter. Similarly to Leclerc, Schmitt, and Dubé (1994) this study suggests that a French sounding brand name will be linked to France (68% of or 21 novices believed that *Saint Esprit* is a French wine) so allowing access to the positive country image of France. For value only the means of quality were in the reverse direction so suggesting that despite the detection of a quality difference novices were not able to use this information in a consistently meaningful manner.

The plots for the significant interaction for experiment on Wine Novices are shown in Fig. 1. The patterns of the COO × brand interactions were not consistent across the dependent variables (Fig. 1, Panels A, B and C); it was not significant for quality, and it was caused by the crossover for Australia (apparently due to the

Table 2
Correlations between dependent variables (wine, novice and expert experiments).

	Quality	Price	Value	Intent
Experiment 1 wine novice				
Quality				
Price	.46**	–		–
Value	.56**	.43**	–	
Intent	.52**	.44**	.74**	–
Experiment 2 Wine expert				
Quality	–			
Price	.67**	–		
Value	.62**	.75**	–	
Intent	.63**	.72**	.71**	–

$p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.

Table 3
Manova results for wine, novice and expert experiments.

Variable	d.f	Wilks Lambda	Pillai trace	Hotelling – Lawley
Experiment 1 – wine novice				
Country (C)	1732	.69**	.33**	.40**
Brand (B)	567	.90**	.10**	.11**
Quality (Q)	567	.98*	.02*	.02*
Country × brand	1732	.80**	.21**	.26**
Country × quality	1732	.71**	.29**	.38**
Brand × quality	339	.95**	.05**	.06**
Country X Brand × quality	1036	.95	.05	.05
Experiment 2 – wine expert				
Country (C)	1036	.76**	.28**	.29**
Brand (B)	339	.98	.02	.01**
Quality (Q)	339	.93**	.07**	.08**
Country × brand	1036	.82**	.19**	.22**
Country × quality	1036	.83**	.17**	.19**
Brand × quality	339	.95**	.05**	.06**
Country × brand × quality	339	.95	.05	.05

Note: degrees of freedom varied slightly but are not included so as to avoid clutter.
* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.

Table 4
Univariate anova results for the wine, novice and expert experiments.

		Quality	Price	Value	Intent
Experiment 1 – wine novice					
Main Effects					
Country	4	2.55*	13.12**	25.08**	9.63**
Brand	1	.39	12.98**	12.47**	1.05
Quality	1	1.31	2.92	4.26*	.01
2 Way interactions					
Country × brand	4	.79	5.02*	10.94**	2.39*
Country × quality	4	2.21	12.76**	11.41**	3.42**
Brand × quality	1	.93	1.35*	5.13*	.25
3 Way interactions					
Country X Brand X Quality	4	1.15	2.22	.85	.24
Experiment 2 – wine expert					
Main effects					
Country	4	11.32**	7.01**	11.48**	15.79**
Brand	1	1.22	.19	.08	.24
Quality	1	14.55**	9.66**	.55	2.68
2 Way interactions					
Country × brand	4	2.55*	1.76	2.33	2.50*
Country × quality	4	2.96*	5.97**	3.92**	9.65**
Brand × quality	1	11.11**	10.86**	3.83	11.43**
3 Way interactions					
Country × brand × quality	4	.71	.17	1.03	.90

* $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.

enhancement by the brand name *Brown Brothers* for price judgments), but by the change of slopes for value and intent. These findings appear to suggest that stronger brand names enhance the price but have a detrimental effect on value and intent. The COO × Quality interactions display both crossover and slope changes (Fig. 1, Panels D, E and F) that suggests that novices had some difficulty in assigning consistent meaning to the perceived improvement in quality. The French wine plot for example, showed a downward slope with improvement in quality for price. In terms of intent, there was evidence that novices used a broad country hierarchy as a basis of selecting a wine. Across both levels of quality American wine was the most likely to be chosen followed by that of France, and for higher quality wine China, Morocco and Australia. This result is surprising since the USA was not considered to have a positive reputation as wine producer and provides evidence of the use of the use of USA as a Halo. The low ranking of Australia further supports the lack of domestic preference and the failure of the *summary construct* explanation for novices. The two significant quality × brand interactions (Fig. 1, Panels G and H) appear to be caused by slope changes that further reiterate the novice problems with the judgment of quality (high quality is rated lower) and the belief that the positive image domestic brand is more expensive but poorer value.

2.4. Conclusions

The data provided some support for H1 (a significant country effect), H2 (a significant brand effect limited to price and value), H3 (contrary significant evidence for value only), H4 (support for *halo* effect but none for domestic preference) and H5 (a significant

Table 5
Experiment 1 – wine novice: descriptive statistics.

	Quality Mean (std. dev.)	Price Mean (std. dev.)	Value Mean (std. dev.)	Intent Mean (std. dev.)
Country				
Australia	14.11 (3.53)	14.81 (7.28)	9.30 (4.26)	22.72 (24.52)
U.S.	15.24 (3.36)	16.20 (5.82)	13.67 (4.28)	37.94 (24.82)
France	15.19 (3.80)	19.36 (8.95)	12.00 (4.58)	35.51 (26.87)
China	14.65 (3.68)	15.35 (6.00)	13.20 (4.25)	33.84 (24.57)
Morocco	14.67 (3.62)	15.67 (7.03)	12.94 (5.27)	29.09 (25.18)
Brand				
Saint esprit (low)	14.69 (3.51)	15.50 (7.18)	12.58 (4.48)	32.71 (25.56)
Brown Brothers (high)	14.85 (3.72)	17.05 (7.27)	11.50 (4.74)	30.93 (25.84)
Quality				
Low	14.92 (3.42)	16.66 (7.64)	12.35 (4.43)	31.75 (23.52)
High	14.62 (3.80)	15.90 (6.86)	11.73 (4.83)	31.89 (27.74)

COO × Brand interaction except for quality). Despite detecting a quality difference (which occurred only for value and was in the wrong direction), novices judged the wine sampled as homogenous in quality, price and intent. The results thus provided further evidence on their reliance on extrinsic cues and some support for the use of country of origin as a *halo*. The differential findings across the dependent variables further emphasize the necessity to exercise care in the choice of dependent variables for market research.

3. Experiment 2 – wine experts

3.1. Method

3.1.1. Participants

There were 19 participants (50% were male with average age 48) members of wine tasting society recognized as experts within the industry. The selection of experts by this manner mirrored that in past research (Solomon, 1997).

The differences between them and novices were described in the previous experiment. While the sample size of experts and novices may seem low it is in line with other country of origin experiments and with other studies dealing with expert decision making (Liefeld, 1993; Solomon, 1997, p. 46; Valentin et al., 2007). The use of different subject groups in these experiments and type of treatments used maximised the effect size of the experimental results (see Lipsey, 1990).

3.2. Results

The procedure and the analysis duplicated Experiment 1. Exploratory analysis revealed no serious problems. The correlations between the dependent variables were all found to be significantly greater than zero ($p < .01$, see Table 1, Experiment 2) (quality-price = .67; quality-value = .62; quality-intent = .63; price-value = .75; price-intent = .72; value-intent = .71) and the pattern was similar to the previous experiments although in absolute terms larger. The multivariate results (Table 2, Experiment 2) are with the exception of those for brand name consistent across all the three criteria. There were significant main effects for country of origin and physical quality and for one multivariate criterion the Hotelling–Lawley test, brand name. All two way interactions were significant across each of multivariate tests. At this stage, there was, therefore, support for H6, H7, H8 and H9 but not for H10. The results also revealed an un-hypothesized a significant main effect of country of origin and brand name. The highest proportion of the variance was explained by country of origin ($\eta^2 = .24$), followed by the interaction between country of origin and brand name ($\eta^2 = .18$), country by quality ($\eta^2 = .17$), quality ($\eta^2 = .07$) brand by quality ($\eta^2 = .05$) and brand name ($\eta^2 = .02$).

The univariate or ANOVA results as presented in Table 5, Experiment 2, showed some support for H6 (i.e., there was a significant main effect for quality), which was significant only for perceived quality ($F_{1,342} = 14.55$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .04$), and price ($F_{1,342} = 9.66$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .03$). There was further evidence for the interaction of country of origin and brand name (H7). This was significant for quality ($F_{4,342} = 2.55$, $p < .05$) and intent ($F_{4,342} = 2.50$, $p < .05$, Eta squared being .03 for both). Stronger evidence was found for H8, the interaction of country of origin and quality being significant across all the dependent variables ($F_{4,342} = 2.96$, $p < .05$, for quality, $F_{4,342} = 5.97$, $p < .01$ for price, $F_{4,342} = 3.92$, $p < .01$ for value and $F_{4,342} = 9.65$, $p < .01$ for intent). Eta squareds were found to be .03, .03, .04 and .10 for quality, price value and intent respectively. There was support for H9, the interaction between brand name and quality being significant for quality ($F_{1,342} = 11.11$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .03$),

Table 6
Experiment 2 – wine expert: descriptive statistics.

	Quality Mean (std. dev.)	Price Mean (std. dev.)	Value Mean (std. dev.)	Intent Mean (std. dev.)
Country				
Australia	14.98 (2.89)	9.67 (2.33)	13.39 (2.73)	39.65 (16.97)
US	14.26 (3.56)	8.76 (3.21)	12.89 (3.83)	33.21 (19.90)
France	12.43 (3.96)	7.62 (3.80)	10.66 (3.97)	23.40 (19.83)
China	14.12 (4.20)	8.28 (3.80)	11.07 (3.89)	25.67 (19.79)
Morocco	15.01 (3.16)	9.39 (2.65)	13.37 (3.51)	38.21 (18.14)
Brand				
Saint esprit (low)	14.31 (3.81)	8.81 (3.61)	12.23 (3.85)	31.63 (19.95)
Brown Brothers (high)	14.00 (3.57)	8.68 (2.92)	12.33 (3.72)	32.43 (20.02)
Quality				
Low	13.69 (3.27)	8.31 (2.98)	12.15 (3.72)	30.68 (20.13)
High	14.69 (4.00)	9.18 (3.51)	12.41 (3.85)	33.37 (19.76)

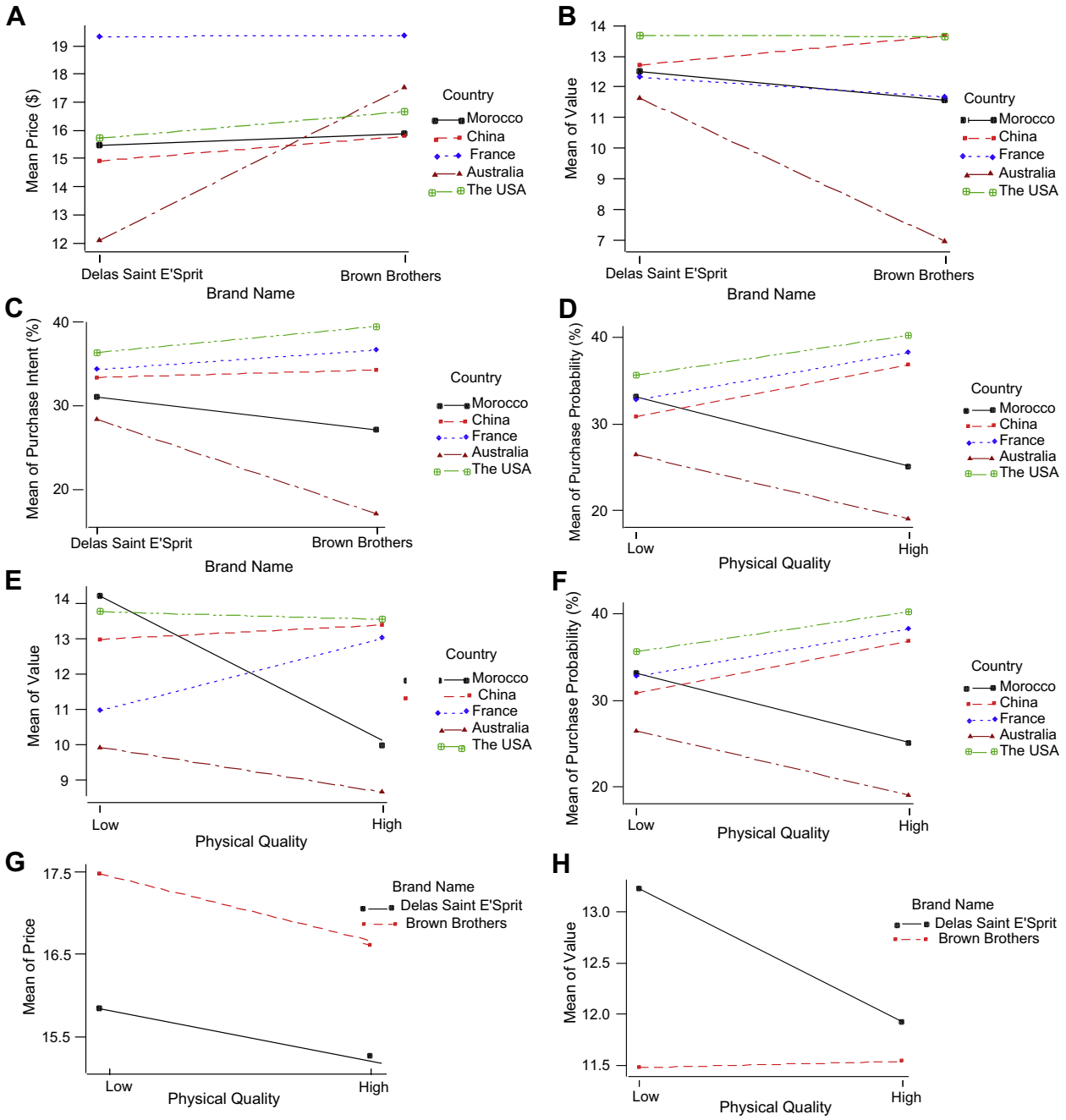

Fig. 1. The interactions for experiment 1a – wine novices. (A) Country of origin by brand name for price. (B) Country of origin by brand name for value. (C). Country of origin by brand name for intent. (D). Country of origin by quality for price. (E). Country of Origin by quality for value. (F). Country of origin by quality for intent. (G) Brand by quality for price. (H) Brand by quality for value.

price ($F_{1,342} = 10.86$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .03$) and intent $F_{1,342} = 11.43$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .00$). There was no further support for the un-hypothesised main effect of brand name. The main effect of country of origin though was significant across all the dependent variables ($F_{4,342} = 11.32$, $p < .01$, for quality, $F_{4,342} = 7.01$, $p < .01$ for price, $F_{4,342} = 11.48$, $p < .01$ for value and $F_{4,342} = 15.79$, $p < .01$ for intent). Eta squared being .12, .08, .12 and .16 for quality, price value and intent respectively. Experts in this study thus saw country of origin as more valuable than brand name which was the opposite case to that in past research (Amend, d'Astous, & Zouiten, 1993; Leclerc, Schmitt & Dubé, 1994).

In Table 6 are shown the surprising results in relation to the unhypothesized COO effect. Experts did not appear to distinguish between wines with exception of the wine produced in France (mean of quality of 12.43, $p < .05$) which was rated as the lowest quality across all the dependent variables ($p < .05$). Given that France was specifically selected because it had a positive image (*halo*) as well as a positive country/product image (*summary construct*) this result is puzzling. However, there is the possibility that experts were able to accurately assess the quality market range within which both types of wine fell (i.e. the lower mid-range of the market) and that, therefore, the evaluation was influenced by the experts knowledge that French wine in this price range was liable to be worse than that produced by the other countries. This possible explanation is supported by the bid prices of wines that for experts were close to that of the actual prices of the two quality samples of around $13.00 for the high quality and $11.00 for the low quality wine. There was no significant brand effect for experts

so supporting our theoretical position contrary to past research (Leclerc, Schmitt, & Dubé, 1994) that suggested that a French sounding brand name should be easily linked to France.

The results provided support for H7 (although the country by brand interaction was significant only for quality ($p < .05$) and intent ($p < .05$). The crossover and the slope changes (Fig. 2, Panels A and B) suggesting that the *Brown Brothers* brand name enhanced the quality of Australian and French wines while decreasing that of Morocco and China. This finding is consistent with past research (Ahmed, d'Astous, & Zouiten, 1993; Johansson & Nebenzahl, 1986), and provides some evidence that the use of a positive brand name may have an interactive effect even for experts. Support was also discovered for H8 and the interaction between country of origin and quality was significant for all the dependent variables (Fig. 2, Panels C, D, E, and F).

The crossover and the changes of slope provide a puzzling picture as the quality increase appeared to have an enhancing effect on all nations except for France in which case it appeared to have a detrimental effect. Across all the dependent variables high quality wine from France was given the lowest evaluation (mean of quality being 12.04, mean price = $8.36 and mean of value = 9.71) and was the least likely wine to be chosen (mean of intent = 17.39%). Given that experts were able to detect quality, it would appear that the poor reputation of French wines in this market niche has influenced the creditability of any improvement in quality, reversing the effect on product evaluations and choice. H9 also received support and the interaction between brand name and quality was significant for quality, price and intent respectively (Fig. 2, Panels G, H and I). The significance appeared to be due to the crossover because higher rating of the higher quality wine when associated with the French name. This seems consistent with the earlier explanation that experts use of a *summary construct* has an enhancing effect only when it is accompanied by higher quality. There was no support for H10.

3.3. Conclusions

Surprisingly both sets of experiments demonstrated the importance of country of origin information to novices and experts when choosing, judging and pricing wine. These results suggest that the type of use of country of origin information for products such as wine may be more complex than the simple *halo/summary construct* duality as proposed by Han (1989). In some cases, the use of country of origin as a *summary construct* to differentially weight physical quality may be relevant for knowledgeable consumers, i.e. it is not creditable that the French can make a good quality and reasonably priced wine. These expert product inferences were also based on a greater ability to detect actual quality differences.

4. Discussion and conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of country of origin and global branding in conjunction with a quality manipulation in a complex multi cue context involving novices and experts on multiple dependent variables. The results demonstrated the importance of the country of origin cue for both novice and experts. Although it appears that country of origin information may have greater relevance for price and quality evaluations rather than as a determinant of value or purchase intent. Other cues were also found to have varying degrees of influence on the dependent variables and the importance of these cues differed. This further highlighted that different decision making processes (and therefore different uses of cues) occurred for different dependent variables. This should be of concern for consumer researchers because choice of a dependent variable is an important research decision both in the theoretical and applied context.

Experts did appear to use physical quality as a guide to quality and price evaluations but apparently in a quite complex and unexpected manner. Novices were found to use brand name in a limited fashion and relied mainly on country of origin information. There was no clear evidence of domestic preference; a finding that was particularly surprising given the powerful strongly positive country/product image of Australia as a winemaker. For novices, country of origin was only used as a limited halo, with French wines enjoying superior prices, Australian wines being seen as poor value for money and the least likely to be purchased. The results also showed that novices may have used France as a naive *summary construct*. They were even prepared to discard quality improvements of wines from Australia, Morocco and China in favor of low quality wine from France. When selecting a wine, it also appears that novices used country of origin again as a limited *halo*. For example, the intentions ratings were highest for wine from the USA; a country with a positive image but not a strong reputation as a wine producer. Wine experts appeared to use country of origin as *summary construct*; that is, they considered country/product image along with physical quality. This though did not occur in the manner as expected. France because of its superior *terrain* and has a reputation as a producer of expensive (but not affordable), fine wines. Experts appeared to limit their evaluations to a market segment range within which the country/product image of France as a producer of affordable fine wines was not strong and therefore negatively weighted their judgments in that range. This finding presents interesting possibilities for future research as it suggests that COO effects may be differential according to the market segment within which the evaluations take place.

Novices thus appeared to use country of origin as a *halo* while experts used this information as a *summary construct* to weight physical quality. This study suggests that the use of country of origin may be more complex than previously theorized. The use of product descriptions and the difficulties associated with quality and brand manipulations leads to relatively simple even cross-sectional designs that although convenient and efficient preclude the drawing of powerful generalizations. This has not only been recognised in country of origin research but in the price -quality literature as well (Monroe & Krishnan, 1985; Olson, 1977). This study presents an attempt at complex, considered manipulations that should encourage future more finely honed research to resolve the enigmas associated with this important area of research.

There are a number of important implications for exporters, domestic companies and government of these results. When marketing to novices, country of origin labeling could be stressed if the country image is favorable or a well-known global brand could be used to counter an unfavorable country image. When marketing wine to experts, the types of product country image and brand associations need to be carefully considered. In terms of the physical quality of their products, exporters can be less concerned with novices than experts. Even if they detect quality novices will still mainly rely on country image and to a less extent brand name. Greater attention to physical quality needs to be made for experts, since there is some evidence that physical quality has a greater role in their decision making. The consistency of quality standards and a country's reputation in wine needs to also be considered by exporters when marketing products to experts.

For this study to have significant value to both theory and practice, future research should be directed at replicating these results using a different types of wine in a different cultural and nationally settings. For example, contrary to past research, no strong domestic preference was found for the realistic wine experiments. The methodology used in this study could easily be replicated to a number of other wines from different countries in different markets. It is also possible that the region of origin may also be

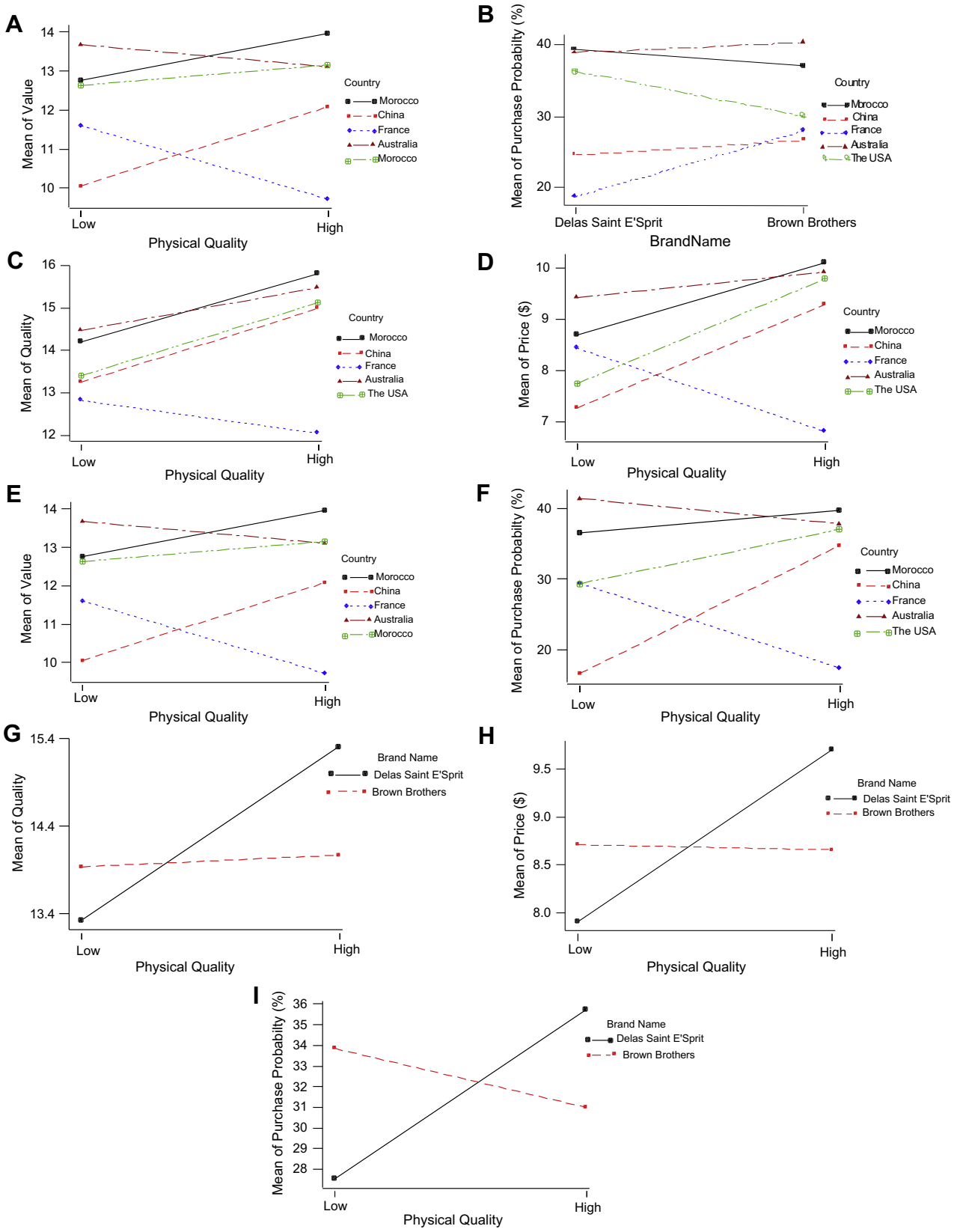

Fig. 2. The interaction foe experiment 2a – Wine experts. (A). Country of origin by brand for quality. (B). Country of origin by brand for intent. (C). Country of origin by quality for quality. (D) Country of origin by quality for price. (E) Country of origin by quality for Value. (F) Country of origin by quality for Intent. (G) Brand by quality for quality. (H) Brand by quality for value. (I) Brand by quality for intent.

important cue for consumers that influences quality judgments as is the case with speciality foods (Caporale Policastro, Carlucci, & Monteleine, 2006; Iaccarino et al., 2006; Stefani et al., 2006 and van der Lans, van Ittersum, De Cicco, & Loseby, 2001), although here the relationship appears to be influenced by regional familiarity and the locality of respondents (see Iaccarino et al., 2006).

Appendix A. Questionnaire used in experiments

Experiment Number
1.

This wine was made by in.
Please taste the Wine and record your opinion using the scoring system as listed below.
If you like you may include comments.

Q1. In assessing the overall standard of this wine how would you rate the following.		
Sight (appearance)	Score (maximum of 3)	Comments
Clarity cloudy, bitty, clear brilliant		
Depth of colour watery, pale, medium, deep, dark (white wines) green tinge, pale yellow, gold, brown (red wines) purple/red, red/brown		
Viscosity slight sparkle, watery, normal oily		
Smell (Bouquet or Aroma)	Score (maximum of 7)	
General appeal neutral, attractive, outstanding off (yeasty, acetic, oxidized, woody etc.)		
Fruit aroma none, slight, positive, identifiable e.g. Riesling		
Bouquet none, pleasant, complex, powerful		
Taste (palate)	Score (maximum of 10)	
Sweetness (white wines) bone dry, medium dry, medium sweet, sweet very sweet		
Tannin (red wines) astringent, hard, dry, soft		
Length short, acceptable, extended, lingering		
Balance unbalanced, good, very well balanced perfect		
Scoring (final assessment)	Total (out of 20)	

Now that you have tasted this wine please complete the following:

Auction Bids

If you were to purchase a bottle of this wine what would be the price that you would be willing to accept?
(Write price on bidding card, along with your id number then record price here).
Q2. $_____.
Wait till the announcement of the Winning bid before proceeding.
Thinking now about this type of wine and given its market value (successful bid value) what would be your opinion of the following.
At this current market price (successful bid value) I would consider product to be....(circle one).

	Very cheap	Cheap	Neither cheap nor expensive	Expensive	Very expensive
Q3.	1	2	3	4	5

I would say this is a ..... wine (circle one).

	Very Poor quality	Poor quality	Neither Poor nor good quality	Good quality	Very good quality
Q4.	1	2	3	4	5

In terms of value for money how would you rate this wine? (circle one).

	Very poor value for money	Poor value for money	Neither poor nor good value for money	Good value for money	Excellent value for money
Q5.	1	2	3	4	5

Would you consider the purchase of this wine given its market value (successful bid value) to be... (circle one).

	Very uneconomical	Uneconomical	Neither economical or uneconomical	Economical	Very economical
Q6.	1	2	3	4	5

Overall, would you say that this wine appears to be a..... (circle one).

	Very good buy	Good buy	Neither a good or bad buy	Bad buy	Very bad buy
Q7.	1	2	3	4	5

Would you say that this wine is a good bargain? (circle one).

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q8.	1	2	3	4	5

Should you ever need to purchase a bottle of this wine, how likely would you be to do so. Please place a cross (X) according to the degree of likelihood that you would purchase this product.

Q9. 0_____100.

Only complete this section at the end of the experiment.

Q10. In your opinion, what do you think was the purpose of this experiment?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Manipulation checks.

What level of quality) would you expect generally from products and services generally provided by the following countries ? For products and services that are produced in would you expect them to be of {Read scale values}? (circle one).

	Very poor quality	Poor quality	Average quality	Good quality	Very good quality
Q11. Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Q12. United States of America	1	2	3	4	5
Q13. China	1	2	3	4	5
Q14. France	1	2	3	4	5
Q15. Morocco	1	2	3	4	5

What level of quality would you expect in red wine produced by the following countries ? For red wine that is produced in would you expect them to be of {Read scale values}? (circle one).

	Very poor quality	Poor quality	Average quality	Good quality	Very good quality
Q16. Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Q17. United States of America	1	2	3	4	5
Q18. China	1	2	3	4	5
Q19. France	1	2	3	4	5
Q20. Morocco	1	2	3	4	5

How much do you think you know about the following brands of wine? (circle one).

	Know nothing at all about	Know a little about	Know something about	Know quite a bit about	Know all about
Q21. Brown Brothers	1	2	3	4	5
Q22. Delas Saint Esprit	1	2	3	4	5

What level of quality would you generally expect in red wines made by the following companies ? For red wines that are produced by _____would you expect them to be of {Read scale values}? (circle one).

	Very poor quality	Poor quality	Average quality	Good quality	Very good quality
Q23. Delas Saint Esprit	1	2	3	4	5
Q24. Brown Brothers	1	2	3	4	5

Q25. What country would you associate the following brands with?
Delas Saint Esprit _____ (write country here).
Brown Brothers _____ (write country here).

Similarity of countries

How similar do you think the following countries are compared with Australia? Do you think _____is Exactly the same as Australia labels? (circle one).

	Exactly the same as Australia	Almost the same as Australia	A bit different to Australia	Quite different to Australia	Completely different to Australia
Q26 USA	1	2	3	4	5
Q27. France	1	2	3	4	5
Q28. China	1	2	3	4	5
Q29. Morocco	1	2	3	4	5

Knowledge of countries

These following questions are designed to assess how much you know about each of the following countries.
How much would you say that you know about the following countries? Would you say for _____you know nothing at all about,...etc., {read out scale labels} (circle one).

	Know nothing at all about	Know a little about	Know something about	Know quite a bit about	Know all about
Q30. Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Q31. USA	1	2	3	4	5
Q32. France	1	2	3	4	5
Q33. China	1	2	3	4	5
Q34. Morocco	1	2	3	4	5

Product/country knowledge

How much would you say that you know about products and services that are made in (circle one).

	Know nothing at all about	Know a little about	Know something about	Know quite a bit about	Know all about
Q35. Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Q36. USA	1	2	3	4	5
Q37. France	1	2	3	4	5
Q38. China	1	2	3	4	5
Q39. Morocco	1	2	3	4	5

How familiar are you with Red wines that are produced in..... (circle one).

	Not at all familiar	Not familiar	Neither familiar or unfamiliar	Familiar	Very familiar
Q40. Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Q41. USA	1	2	3	4	5
Q42. France	1	2	3	4	5
Q43. China	1	2	3	4	5
Q44. Morocco	1	2	3	4	5

Product class knowledge

Please indicate how much you think you know about wine as compared to the average person on the on the following five point scale (circle one).

One of the most knowledgeable				One of the least knowledgeable	
Q45 wine	1	2	3	4	5

Can you tell me how long since your last purchase of

Q46. A bottle of Red Wine (months) (days).

Q47. Can you tell me how many times over the last 6 months how many bottles of Red bottle of wine you have purchased _____(number).

Q48. Do you own a bottle of Red wine that was.....

Made in Australia?	Yes/no	(Cross out which does not apply)
Made in USA?	Yes/no	(Cross out which does not apply)
Made in France?	Yes/no	(Cross out which does not apply)
Made in China?	Yes/no	(Cross out which does not apply)
Made in Morocco	Yes/no	(Cross out which does not apply)

Q49. Over the last six months have you purchased a bottle of Red wine that was.....

Made in Australia?	Yes/no	(Cross out which does not apply)
Made in USA ?	Yes/no	(Cross out which does not apply)
Made in France ?	Yes/no	(Cross out which does not apply)
Made in China?	Yes/no	(Cross out which does not apply)
Made in Morocco	Yes/NO	(Cross out which does not apply)

Q50. Can please write down what is meant by the following Wine Terms.

Robe
Noble Rot
Brut
Ulage
Terrior
En primeur

Q51. Image you had a friend or relative who was buying a bottle of wine and new nothing about it. Write down five things they should look for, *in order of importance* so that they might make a good choice.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Ethnocentrism

For each of the following statements, we would like to get your ideas on Australian products. Please read each statement and answer how much you agree or disagree with the statement. {Read Statement} Would you say you Strongly Disagree, Disagree, etc... with this opinion? (circle one).

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Q52. Australian people should always buy Australian made products instead of imports.	1	2	3	4	5
Q53. Only those products unavailable in Australia should be imported.	1	2	3	4	5
Q54. Buy Australian Made Products. Keep Australia working.	1	2	3	4	5
Q55. Australia Products, first, last and foremost.	1	2	3	4	5
Q56. Purchasing foreign made products is un-Australian.	1	2	3	4	5
Q57. It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Australians out jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
Q58. A real Australian should always buy Australian-made products.	1	2	3	4	5
Q59. We should purchase products manufactured in Australia instead of letting other countries get rich of us.	1	2	3	4	5
Q60. It is always best to purchase Australian products.	1	2	3	4	5
Q61. There should be little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries except out of necessity.	1	2	3	4	5
Q62. Australians should not buy foreign products, because this causes unemployment.	1	2	3	4	5
Q63. Curbs should be put on all imports.	1	2	3	4	5
Q64. It may cost me in the long run but I prefer to support Australian products.	1	2	3	4	5
Q65. Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets.	1	2	3	4	5
Q66. Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry into Australia	1	2	3	4	5
Q67. We should buy from foreign countries only those products which we cannot obtain within our own country	1	2	3	4	5
Q68. Australian consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Australians out of work	1	2	3	4	5
Q69. I frequently boycott French products because of Nuclear testing in the Pacific	1	2	3	4	5

Other information about yourself

To finish off some questions about yourself.
Q70. Sex: Male/Female (cross out which ever does not apply).
Q71. What is your highest level of education? (circle one).

1. Post Graduate or Professional Training.
2. University or College Degree. Year _____.
3. TAFE Qualification.
4. Some University or college degree.
5. High School Graduate, leaving or equivalent.
6. Partial High School, attend year 11 and 12 but did not complete leaving.
7. Completed Year 11.
8. Completed Year 10.
9. Less than Year 10.

Q72. What is your occupation ? (circle one).

1. Executive of Large Corporation.
2. Professional (doctors, lawyers, engineers, lecturers).
3. Proprietors of own business.
4. Manager of large organisation.
5. Manager of Medium sized business.

6. Manager of smaller business.
7. Administrative, clerical or other white collar.
8. Skilled Manual worker.
9. Machine Operator or semi-skilled employee.
10. Home Duties.
11. Unemployed.
12. Retired.
13. Student.
14. Other_____.

Q73. How old are you ? ___ (years).
Q74. In which country were you born?_____.
Q75. How many years / months have you lived in Australia? ____years _____months.
Q76. To which country do your primary loyalties lie?_____.
Q77. What is your approximate level of pre-tax income? (circle one).

1. 0-$4999.
2. 5000-$9999.
3. 3.10000-$14999.
4. 15000-$19999.
5. 20000-$24999.
6. 25000-$29999.
7. 30000-$34999.
8. 35000-$39999.
9. 40000-$44999.
10. 45000–49999.
11. >$50000.

In order to validate this questionnaire, I was wondering if I could record.
Your Name _____.
Your Telephone Number _____..

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