

The effects of country of origin signalling misdirection on consumers' willingness to purchase goods

A study of the Danish wine market

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Abstract

Key words: Country of origin, provenance, misdirection, misleading, signalling, wine, affinity, vengeance, fairness

This thesis aims to investigate the psychological effect country of origin signalling has on consumers' willingness to purchase a particular product (wine, in this case) when faced with misdirection over the product's true origin, or provenance.

Psychological signalling can disrupt the rationality with which both amateurs and experts utilise cognitive information cues in their evaluation of a product. This thesis aims to explore the validity of provenance as one such disruptive force, and offers further investigation into the degree to which three specific moderators, namely specific-country affinity, perceived fairness of the consumer, and the likelihood with which the consumer is to seek vengeance, impact upon consumer behaviour in light of provenance misdirection. In addition, this thesis will contain anecdotal evidence of real-life instances in which misleading information cues have caused outrage among consumers.

This thesis will make use of a pragmatic, deductive experiment approach, with data collated in the form of two quantitative control questionnaires and one quantitative experiment questionnaire distributed to around 300 respondents in total.

The data collated was able to support that there was a country of origin effect taking place, as well as to determine the degree to which the misdirection impacted upon consumers' willingness to purchase the product. Additionally, the thesis was able to support a hypothesis that specific-country affinity is a driver of post-misdirection product re-evaluations, whereas there was no general link between the consumer's likelihood to seek vengeance and their re-evaluation of the product. The degree to which the consumer perceived themselves to be fair, or the degree to which their re-evaluation of the product having being misled is borne of rationality, produced mixed results. It appears that while no consumer was willing to call their own fairness or morality into question when re-evaluating a product which has caused them a degree of service harm, their level of generosity to a third party was heavily impacted. This suggests that while their perceived degree of morality may not have affected their product evaluation, the misdirection itself may have wider implications on their immediate consumer behaviour.

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“The country of origin is nine tenths of the magic”.

Edwin Colyer, 2005ⁱ

1) INTRODUCTION

There exists a great deal of literature surrounding the effect that products' country of associations and country origin image have on their target markets' willingness to purchase those products. However, one area which is left underexposed is that concerning products which aim not just to benefit from positive associations stemming from countries other than that of origin, but those which can be argued as tapping so much into 'foreign branding' that the result can be argued to have left their target market confused, and in some cases misled, about the product's origin. This thesis aims to study the effect of image misdirection upon consumers' willingness to purchase a product which, it can be argued, relies heavily upon country image to sell units – wine – while also investigating the psychological moderating drivers behind such purchase decisions. In keeping with a common angle of research, the wine-producing countries involved in this thesis (France and China) have been specifically chosen in order to offer the best possible chance of identifying both the effect of origin misdirection upon willingness to purchase a given bottle of wine, but also the degree to which three specific moderators can explain the results, namely consumers' perceived levels of fairness, specific-country affinity, and the degree to which they ruminate and 'take vengeance' on the seller's decision to potentially mislead.

As this thesis will investigate whether or not psychological signalling can affect product value evaluations of both amateurs and experts alike. Outlined in this thesis are anecdotal examples of how cognitive input, and input from certain sensory areas can bypass logical reasoning when it comes to evaluating wines, as well as a famous case of how this rationale avoidance, when twinned with a lack of product knowledge, can be exploited by unscrupulous individuals in order to intentionally mislead the buyer.

While the above examples take into account various forms of priming or psychological signalling, none cover the area of misdirection when it comes to country of origin. This exemption formed the motivation to investigate the area of country of origin when it comes to wine and, in particular, when the reality of the contents does not match the input, or *perceptive expectation*, of the evaluator, in this case a set of hypothetical, mass-market consumers.

2) RESEARCH PROPOSAL

On the basis of my thoughts on perceived misleading country of origin (COO) in products affecting consumers' willingness to purchase (WTP), and possible post-purchase evaluations, the following focus areas have been chosen in order to investigate the causes, effects and implications of perceived misleading COO in products:

- What is the moderating effect of consumers' specific-country (pro-French) affinity on WTP?
- What is the moderating effect of consumers' fairness on WTP?
- What is the moderating effect of consumers' vengeance on WTP?

2.1) Hypotheses

$$H_1 - WTP_F > WTP_C$$

$$H_2 - WTP_F > WTP_{(F \rightarrow C)}$$

$$H_3 - WTP_{(C)} > WTP_{(F \rightarrow C)}$$

$$H_{4A} - \uparrow FA > WTP\Delta$$

$$H_{4B} - \uparrow V > WTP\Delta$$

$$H_{4C} - \uparrow F < WTP\Delta$$

Whereby:

- WTP_F = willingness to purchase a French wine
- WTP_C = willingness to purchase a Chinese wine
- $WTP_{(F \rightarrow C)}$ = willingness to purchase a Chinese wine after initially believing it to be French
- FA = pro-French affinity
- $WTP\Delta$ = change in WTP post-reveal vs. pre-reveal
- V = likelihood to seek vengeance
- F = degree of perceived fairness

H_1 proposes that more people will be willing to purchase a bottle of wine knowing it to be French rather than one they know to be Chinese. H_1 is based on my personal belief that consumers will value a French wine over a Chinese wine due to the popular perception of a French wine being equivalent to a quality wine.

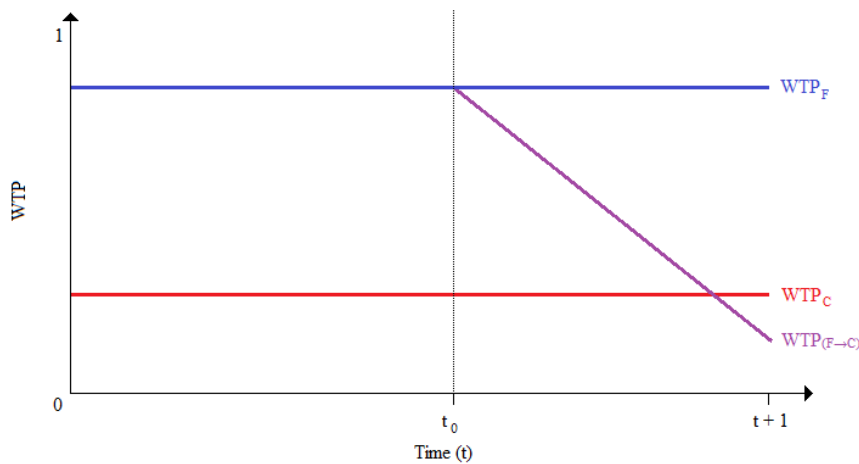


Fig. 1 - Hypotheses graphed

H₂ proposes that more people will be willing to purchase wine in the belief that it is French than those who are willing to purchase a wine later revealed to be Chinese, after having initially believed it to be a French wine. While this hypothesis appears to be a logical extension of H₁, H₂ is useful in determining the hypothetical leaning of H₃ and the H₄ hypotheses, in addition to the theoretical framework, outlined in detail in the 3) LITERATURE REVIEW, suggesting that the consumer will not react positively to being misled.

H₃ proposes that fewer people will be willing to buy a wine initially believed to be Chinese (and having all along believed it to be Chinese) than those who are willing to buy a Chinese wine, after initially believing it to be French. Essentially, H₃ rejects the effects of priming on the overall purchase decision, stating instead that consumers will be adversely affected by feeling misled. H₃ directly tests the effect of the misdirection of the product like-for-like. H₁ suggest that French wine is more popular than Chinese wine, so (as in H₂) we may well expect a wine which initially masqueraded as being French, but then was later revealed to be Chinese to experience some downturn in WTP. The salience of H₃ is in directly comparing a transparent Chinese wine with a misleading Chinese wine, essentially, to investigate what extent this misdirection damages the consumer's WTP. Should WTP_C be shown to be more or less the same as WTP_(F→C) (and should H₂ be accepted), we would neither be able to accept or unable to reject H₃, meaning that the effect of misdirection is negligible. Should WTP_(F→C), be shown to be more than WTP_C (and should H₂ be accepted), we would be looking at evidence that the connotation with French wine has primed the consumer or, in other words, the very mention of French wine has boosted the consumer's appreciation for the Chinese wine.

Using Fig. 1, we can see that WTP is displayed along the x-axis, running from 0-1, so it may well be expressed as a scale. The y-axis displays the passing of time, from the beginning of the data collection period through to the analysis of the results section. The lineal nature of the graphed hypotheses is to be taken figuratively, rather than to express a lineal correlation. There are two distinct points on the y-axis after the beginning of the data collection period, t_0 and $t+1$, whereby t is the entire amount of time taken to run the data collection process. Time t_0 is a critical point in the hypothesis-testing stage, as it is at this point the 'reveal' occurs to the experiment group of the data-collection participants, where participants will be made aware of the true origin of the wine during the single test which tests this variable (WTP_(F→C)). Time $t+1$ is the point at which the results of the data collection are recorded, at which point the hypotheses can be confirmed or rejected.

The testing of H₄ requires the establishment of adaptable scales by which we can determine the pro-French affinity'(H_{4A}), 'vengefulness'(H_{4B}), and 'fairness' (H_{4C}) of the participant as an additional part of the experiment questionnaire required to examine H₂.

H_{4A} proposes that those who exhibit a higher degree of pro-French affinity will show a greater difference between their pre- and post-reveal WTP evaluations than those exhibiting a lesser degree of pro-French affinity. In accordance with H₂, it is expected that difference between pre-and post-reveal WTP evaluations will be negative, so should H₂ be accepted, it is expected that those who originally exhibit higher degrees will react more negatively in their post-reveal WTP evaluation than those with lower pro-French affinity.

H_{4B} proposes that those who exhibit a higher propensity to exact revenge will downgrade their post-reveal WTP of the wine to a greater extent than those exhibiting a lesser degree of pro-French affinity.

H_{4C} hypothesises that those with a higher degree of self-perceived fairness will not be as negatively affected by being misled as those with a lower degree of self-perceived fairness.

3) LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to investigate the research proposal, it is helpful to view any subsequent research through the lens of considered theoretical frameworks. The areas of positive affinity towards origin-specific consumer products, vengeance and fairness are well-documented, so this thesis will be able to draw its theoretical perspectives from a wealth of established research, models and concepts. However, as this study will focus specifically on pro-French affinity (which is considerably less-documented), the founding theoretical principles of origin-specific consumer affinity will be used as a rough guideline in creating a bespoke pro-French measure for this thesis.

The choice of drivers was made to ensure a broad basis from which to analyse the results, and to offer the opportunity for deeper research into one or several of these three drivers. Pro-French affinity seemed a natural choice in trying to understand the finer points of how a consumer would react to a product aiming to recreate a French-style image while ultimately covering the reality of the contents. Vengeance was selected as an area for investigation to determine whether the consumer's (hypothesised) negative reaction to being misled could be seen as an act of vengeance against the fictitious or un-named wine producer on the part of the consumer, or whether the reaction, if identified, came from another cognitive or subconscious origin. As we will see, the area of consumer revenge is not particularly well documented. Finally, the concept of fairness was chosen as a potential driver of downgraded WTP for this study because I believed it was necessary and interesting to establish whether a consumer's perception of themselves had an impact on how negative their reaction to the misdirection was. In other words, did a consumer who considered herself fair apply a more rational approach and react nearer to (or even above) WTP_C than a consumer who considers themselves less fair? For reasons of scope, these three drivers alone were chosen as areas of analysis in this thesis.

To begin the literature review, I will aim to set the scene specifically with regard to wine, both in terms of how evaluating a wine is open to interference from cognitive and sensory input as well as offering a brief overview of Denmark's status as both a wine producer and wine consumer.

3.1) Impact of perceptive expectation on evaluation of wines

To demonstrate the power of psychological signalling on consumers' analyses of product value, this thesis will detail several anecdotes now infamous in the world of the sommelier. Frédéric Brochet was a Ph. D. student in oenology at the University of Bordeaux when, in 2001, he conducted a series of experiments which embarrassed the international wine community (Pomeroy, 2014). In one study, Brochet dyed a white wine with red colouring before offering a glass of the original white wine and the dyed "red wine", plus a glass of real red wine to 54 of his expert oenology peers for a taste evaluation of the three glasses (Lehrer, 2012). In Brochet's words "the real red wine was described from an olfactory and gustative point of view in classical red wine terms (and) the white wine was described in usual white wine terms...". The subjects described the two red-coloured wines "in identical fashion, whereas one of them presented the aromas of a white wine", surmising "the perception of fragrance and taste conformed therefore to colour" (Brochet, 2001). In a similar experiment, Brochet served 57 participants a medium-priced Bordeaux from a bottle describing the contents as a *vin de table*, generally a lower quality wine (Radden Keefe, 2007). A week later, he served the same wine to the same subjects only this time the label described the contents as a normally far superior grand cru (Radden Keefe, 2007). The former was described as "simple, unbalanced, and weak" while the latter was flattered as "complex, balanced, and full" (Radden Keefe, 2007). Brochet explained the difference in evaluation as being the result of *perceptive expectation*, concluding that, in essence, the cognitive and visual sensory inputs (in these examples from the description or the colour of the wine itself) served to override the olfactory and gustative senses in providing a reliable basis from which to effectively evaluate the wine (Pomeroy, 2014) (Radden Keefe, 2007).

The art of wine tasting is challenging even for experts, and, as demonstrated, open to disparities in taste and susceptible to the effects of psycho-chemical signalling, and other cognitive interference (Lehrer, 2012). Brochet even posited that experts are, in fact, more susceptible than less experienced wine drinkers to interference from their presumptions and previous experiences (Radden Keefe, 2007). When even the perceptive expectations of experts, with the best of intentions, experience and knowledge, can be bypassed so arises the possibility that less-scrupulous sellers may seek to take advantage of somewhat of a Wild West area in a market which, in recent years has seen a huge rise in the value of rare wines, either by tampering with the wine's contents or label, or by taking liberties with the truth of a famous former owner. According to Raddon Keefe, in his 2007 article in The New Yorker, "the forger's great advantage is that many buyers wait years before opening their fraudulent bottles, if they open them at all", and "when collectors do open fraudulent bottles they often lack the experience

and acute sense of taste to know that they have been defrauded” (Radden Keefe, 2007). A final and related case study is that of “The Jefferson Bottles”. In 1985, at Christie’s Auction House, London, a bottle of 1787 Lafite, a dry white Bordeaux, was among the items on sale. Alongside the rarity of the vintage and age of the bottle was the information that the previous owner of the bottle was former US president, Thomas Jefferson, due to the “Th. J.” engraving (Radden Keefe, 2007). The wine’s list value on the day of the auction was “inestimable”, and the rare wine eventually sold for £105,000 (Radden Keefe, 2007), remaining the most expensive bottle of wine ever sold until 2010 (Eads, 2014). Reviews of similar- and same-vintage wines included sommelier notes praising the “feminine fragrance of roses” and the “autumnal aromas of burnt sugar and undergrowth”, while the Auctioneer’s *Master of Wine* (a highly-esteemed certification and position in the wine world) at the time of the auction described the wine as “perfect in every sense: colour, bouquet, taste” (Radden Keefe, 2007). Subsequent investigations, many of which are ongoing to this day, called into question the veracity of the claims made by the original owner of the Th. J. wine in a series of events which has called into question decades of notes made by the twentieth centuries top sommeliers and wine historians, and with it cast a near-inestimable doubt over the value of millions of dollars’ worth of fine wines from which the industry is still not exculpated (Radden Keefe, 2007).

3.2) Denmark as a wine-producing and wine-consuming nation

The majority of this study’s data collation takes place in Denmark, so it stands to reason that the Danish wine market come under scrutiny in order to form a useful conceptual window through which to view, among others, the findings, recommendations, and conclusion of this study.

In terms of data held by the United Nations’ Food and Agriculture Organization on average national wine production for the four years between 2010 and 2013, Denmark does not feature in the top 73 countries (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2014). Denmark’s mild, northerly climate and small size offer sufficient reasoning, and perhaps less obviously, due to European Union (EU) restrictions, the production of wine in Denmark was prohibited until as recently as 2001, when the ban was lifted (Brabant, 2002). Reliable recent sources are few and far between, but a 2008 estimate suggested that Denmark’s then 26 vineyards produced roughly 40,000 bottles (34 tonnes) of wine that year (Skærsøgaard vin, 2008). To put this into perspective, this is roughly 0.3% of the production of Luxembourg that same year, a country around sixteen times smaller, albeit with an arguably more agreeable wine-producing climate (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, 2014).

In terms of the amount of alcohol consumed per capita, Denmark ranks 27th in the world, with the average Dane drinking the equivalent of 11.4 litres of pure alcohol per annum (World Health Organization, 2014). It stands to reason, then, that given the diminutive size and limited historical and recent culture of wine production,

as well as the dominance of the region's beer and spirit players (Denmark-based Carlsberg is the world's fourth-largest brewery (Jones, 2012), while neighbouring Sweden is home to two of the world's ten largest vodka companies (Hopkins, 2015)) that Denmark's per-capita wine consumption would be comparable to the country's low production. According to the same WHO report, however, wine accounted for 48% of all alcohol consumed in Denmark in the analysis year of 2010, 11th in the world in this regard, while beer accounted for 38% and spirits just 14% (World Health Organization, 2014).

While Denmark is by no means a large producer of wine, the Danes themselves are sufficiently well accustomed to consuming it, and as such Denmark offers ample grounds within which to analyse the nature of the wine market on the basis of consumption.

3.3) Vengeance

The third hypothesis proposes that the cause of a devaluation in WTP is related to the likelihood with which the consumer will seek revenge. For the purposes of this thesis, this drop in WTP will be assumed to be the disgruntled consumer seeking to hurt the source of the misdirection for one of several reasons. As a result of this, it was seen apt to attempt to measure the propensity of each participant's ability to either harbour vengeful feelings, or forgive the transgression. Some people are more vengeful than others, so we might also expect the particular portion of disruption to WTP attributable to the misdirection to also vary accordingly from participant to participant (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001).

The area of vengeance is relatively broad, and its relation to consumer psychology may initially seem to be rather abstract. It is worth mentioning that the overwhelming majority of the research conducted on the topic of vengeance is not conducted with consumer psychology in mind, instead focusing on the significance of vengeance in a variety of often serious human actions or conditions. However, despite this, scholars interested in the area of vengeance are in agreement of the relevance of a significant enough amount of key foundations of the topic from which to draw parallels with consumer psychology.

One of the most commonly-used definitions of vengeance proffers that it is an attempt to redress an interpersonal offense by voluntarily committing an aggressive action against the perceived offender (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001). From this definition, it is possible to draw parallels with aspects of consumer psychology relevant to this study. It can be argued, should a consumer's willingness to purchase a product deteriorate as a direct result of the test product's misdirection, that this demonstrates a visible manifestation of the same consumer seeking vengeance against the seller of the product. Although the transgression is less interpersonal, a consumer who experiences abnormally negative WTP as a result of feeling misled has chosen to

voluntarily redress the transgression via the most appropriate means available to them, by being less likely to purchase the offending item.

Continuing on this theme, Zourrig et al. (2009) write on the topic of consumer revenge from a cross-cultural perspective. As one of a very limited pool of sources in the consumer vengeance field, they view revenge as a coping mechanism and examine motivational patterns evident in consumers originating from countries found at extreme ends of the collectivist-individualist spectrum (Zourrig, Chebat, & Toffoli, 2009).

Outraged customers are the most aggressive actors in the workplace (Diamond, 1997), and to comfort themselves psychologically, angry customers often engage in some type of vengeful action against the firm (Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003). The organisation, Customer Care Measurement and Consulting, periodically produce extensive studies into a topic they class *customer rage*, and the findings of the most recent study suggest that the issue of customer rage, due to failed service encounters, is actually on the rise. Consumers in the United States are registering more complaints, and finding their complaints more futile than ever before, as around two thirds of American consumers had experienced some form of customer rage in the previous twelve months, the majority of whom did not receive a satisfactory outcome to their case (CCMC, 2015). The 2005 National Customer Rage Survey found that 15% of shoppers surveyed who had received unsatisfactory service considered taking revenge for their suffering (CCMC, 2005). Zourrig et al.'s (2009) study found that such consumer revenge was more common in individualist, ideocentric countries like the United States or Canada than in collectivist, allocentric countries like China or South Korea (Zourrig, Chebat, & Toffoli, 2009). In addition, there is also evidence to suggest that allocentric consumers see less justice in complaining and the complaints-handling process than ideocentric consumers. Ideocentric consumers feel that to complain they are getting something back from the failed service encounter as the service provider is in control of the failure, whereas an allocentric consumer would see complaining as a loss of face, a product of poor luck, and not at all redressing the balance (Hui & Au, 2001) (Poon, Hui, & Au, 2003). As of 2015, more than 30% of disgruntled American consumers registered a public complaint on the internet in some way, up from 19% just four years prior, indicating that consumers are now more likely than ever to seek retribution in the public arena as a means of taking vengeance or redressing the balance (CCMC, 2015).

According to McCullough et al. (2001), people seek revenge in order to attain one or more of three subsidiary goals, all of which are also transferable to the field of consumer psychology (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001). Firstly, a consumer may seek to balance the scale or settle the score. In this instance, we would expect the participant to react negatively towards feeling misled in order that the transgressor is also hurt as payback for the negative emotions experienced by the consumer, in an *eye-for-an-eye* mentality. Alternatively,

the misled consumer may choose to hurt the transgressor in order to deal out moral instruction. In the face of being misled in the same way in which this thesis aims to investigate, Rabin (1993) suggests that a motivation for taking revenge following a failed service transaction could be with a sense of protecting the collectivistic goals of the group of consumers also likely to be misled by the product (Rabin, 1993). A consumer experiencing this particular motivation would be less likely to purchase a product they felt to be misleading because they wish to demonstrate to the transgressor and to the collective that they deem the misdirection to be unacceptable. Despite striving for the same end result (a reduction in the likelihood that they would purchase the product in order to hurt the transgressor) the motivations behind scale-balancing vengeance and the motivation for morally-instructive vengeance are two distinct constructs. Consumers who wish to offer moral instruction, by the very nature of the emotion, offer guidance to an individual, organisation or industry in the hope that either themselves or others do not experience such misleading practices in the future. Those who seek vengeance to settle a score would not necessarily manifest such long-term desires, and may well be seeking shorter-term satisfaction (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001). The final, and more distinct, subsidiary motivation for revenge is to save face. The action of being misled involves a breakdown of the consumer's originally intact trust emanating from the actions of the transgressor. The consumer may see the misdirection as embarrassing, lacking in respect, audacious, and insulting, among others, and may well react in such a manner to lessen their emotional attachment to the product or transgressor, or to convince themselves or others that to have misled them must be worthy of punitive action (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001).

Vengeance is often conceptualised as a lack of forgiveness, and vice versa, yet neither of these two constructs should be viewed simply as the absence of the other (Brown, 2004). In contrast to forgiveness, vengeance has generally been associated with emotion-focused coping styles, and with greater rumination (Bradfield & Aquino, 1999). Ysseldyk et al. (2007) assert that rumination focuses on the distress associated with dwelling on negative events, rather than their solution (Ysseldyk, Matheson, & Anisman, 2007). Rumination actually perpetuates the service of the goal of seeking vengeance, as the rumination itself causes emotional distress, and ruminative behaviour seems to be a key measureable concept linked to vengefulness (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001). Those who display ruminative tendencies often have lower life satisfaction (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001), as well as a number of stress-related psychological disturbances, such as depressive affect, PTSD (Cardozo, Kaiser, Gotway, & Agani, 2003). This may be because rumination repeatedly exposes the victim (in this case portrayed by the misled questionnaire respondent) to the stressor (in this case portrayed by the offending wine purveyor), be it directly or indirectly, thereby creating conditions similar to chronic stress (Worthington, Berry, & Parrot, 2001). Vengeance might intensify this negative affect (Ysseldyk,

Matheson, & Anisman, 2007). It is also possible that, despite forgiving, the victim often sees the offender as having behaved unjustly, and therefore ruminates (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001).

While it cannot be denied that COO-led effects are sufficiently long-term to facilitate ruminative behaviour (Oberecker, Riefler, & Diamantopoulos, 2008), whether these effects are a conscious part of a consumer's purchase decision may either align or distinguish the two constructs of consumer vengeance and COO theories. Vengeance and rumination are conscious parts of the consumer's psyche. Ysseldyk et al. (2007) state that vengefulness involves both a tendency to harbour feelings of revenge and a greater propensity to carry out these desires across time, situations, and relationships (Ysseldyk, Matheson, & Anisman, 2007). McCullough et al. (2001) hypothesised that vengefulness maintained ruminative processes and interfered with forgiveness and subjective well-being following an interpersonal offense. As predicted, vengeful people reported more intense rumination about the offense, and had higher motivations to avoid and seek revenge against their offenders. Subsequently, people with higher levels of vengefulness tended to be less satisfied with their lives and more prone to Negative Affect (NA) and ruminative thinking (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001).

McCullough et al. (2001) cannot explain the vengefulness-forgiving relationship in terms of rumination and suppression. One possible alternative explanation that deserves greater attention is the possibility that the link of vengefulness to interpersonal forgiving has less to do with the lack of control over ruminative thoughts than it does with principles moral action. Vengeful people's motivations to see harm come to their offenders might not be due to an inability to suppress ruminative thoughts effectively but rather to an abiding belief that seeking vengeance and harbouring ill will is a morally correct response when one has been offended by another person (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001).

Finally, McCullough et al.'s (2001) tests found no difference between men and women in for any variable (including vengeance) (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001). As a result, it was not deemed necessary to define the questionnaire participants in this study by gender.

What this study will test, in essence, is the applicability of general guiding constructs of vengeance to retributive consumer action in the face of a failed service encounter – a misleading product. As such, when this thesis hereafter refers to vengeance, what is meant by the term is retributive consumer action, against the perceived perpetrator of the wrongdoing – in this case the purveyor of the misleading wine.

3.3.1) Measure of vengeance

As previously discussed, vengeance is not simply a lack of forgiveness. While there are several notable scales of forgiveness, I found no existing scale for revenge tendencies in general. Several existing scales do, however,

focus on rumination – a bi-product and signifier of a likelihood to seek vengeance – and are able to determine a respondent's motivational state after a transgression, and the ruminative effect caused by the transgression.

McCullough et al. (1998) created the Transgression-Related Interpersonal Motivation (TRIM) Inventory, which makes use of a rumination subscale which consists of five items that assess respondents' desire to ruminate over someone who committed a specific transgression against them (McCullough, et al., 1998). The Rumination Responses Scale is a 22-item measure that assesses each of the ruminative reflection-, brooding-, and depression-related components of rumination, whereby participants rated each item in terms of what they generally do when they feel down, sad, or depressed (Nolen-Hoeksema & Morrow, 1991).

Berry et al.'s (2000) Big Five Personality Inventory makes use of a Likert-type scale according to how descriptive the phrases are of the respondent (Berry, Parrott, O'Connor, & Wade, 2000), while Horowitz et al (1979) created a 15-item self-report which indicates the extent to which the respondent both experiences intrusiveness (rumination) and attempts to avoid ruminative thoughts (suppression), effects and imagery, and is mapped out in the form of two subscales (Horowitz, Wilner, & Alvarez, 1979). Rasch scaling is used to estimate a person's probable response to a test item, taking into account both the degree to which the person possesses the trait being measured, and the position of the test item, from 'easy to endorse' to 'hard to endorse', on a linear continuum (Rasch, 1960).

From a slightly more abstract perspective, Watson et al.'s PANAS (Positive and Negative Affect Schedule) consists of ten positive and ten negative affect adjectives that participants completed to indicate the extent to which they "generally (feel) each feeling, that is how (they feel) on average" (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The 10 NA items are on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1= very slightly, 5= extremely) (McCullough, Bellah, Kilpatrick, & Johnson, 2001). Among other observations, people with high levels of NA tended to maintain higher ruminative motivations toward their offenders, which would signify an enhanced likelihood of those participants seeking revenge over the offender (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) (Ysseldyk, Matheson, & Anisman, 2007). Despite being able to spot potential signs of vengefulness and rumination, Watson et al.'s PANAS would be better suited to a wider-ranging assessment of the respondent's attitudes towards a given product, rather than a more specific test for vengefulness in consumers.

The aforementioned scales do not cover the likelihood of a particular respondent having acted in a vengeful way as opposed to one who has not. Given the apparent scarcity of a direct test for vengeance instead of surrounding moderators and effects, this thesis will adapt one of the existing forgiveness scales, with the major underlying caveat that, while heavily linked, and despite it being originally designed to test for forgiveness, the scale this study will utilise will test for tendencies of consumer vengeance using an adapted scale.

This thesis will make use of an adapted version of Mauger's Forgiveness of Others Scale. Mauger et al. (1992) tested 237 outpatients of Christian counselling sessions to determine numerous behavioural subsets. These subsets were then rated against separate analysis conducted by peers and counsellors in order to determine correlations and, thus, practical scales against which to measure a person's level of forgiveness (Mauger, et al., 1992). The Forgiveness of Others Scale can be used to determine the degree to which consumers take *revenge* against a product they may have deemed to have wronged them, to which they may hold a longer-term grudge against the product, and to which they justify the above. Mauger et al. (1992) found that there exists sufficient evidence for forgiveness of others to be considered a distinct construct from forgiveness of self, and as such forgiveness in general (Mauger, et al., 1992). Far from being a trivial observation as far as this study is concerned, this means it is important to highlight that the results obtained to measure each participant's propensity to seek revenge are likening revenge taken against another to revenge taken against the offending product, as per Zourrig et al.'s (2009) evidence of the effect of consumer revenge (Zourrig, Chebat, & Toffoli, 2009). Participants in Mauger et al.'s (1992) study indicated whether they believed each statement to be true or false of their tendencies across situations, such that higher scores reflected a greater inclination toward vengeance (Ysseldyk, Matheson, & Anisman, 2007). The resulting subsets achieving higher correlations were sorted and converted into a scale, The Forgiveness of Others Scale, which was found to be an effective indicator of a person's extrapunitive predisposition to take and justify revenge (Mauger, et al., 1992). Upon peer and professional rating of the numerous behavioural subsets utilised to determine the Forgiveness of Others Scale, 20 achieved more than a .25 correlation, and 10 more than a .3 correlation (Mauger, et al., 1992).

Brown (2004) concluded that the Forgiveness of Others scale is a better measure of vengeance than forgiveness (Brown, 2004). Due to this face validity as a measure of vengeance, ten subsets from Mauger et al.'s (1992) scale were used to assess a vengeance-seeking disposition. These ten subsets are presented by Mauger et al. (1992) in the form of ten statements, appropriate for a 7-point Likert-type analysis in this study in the form of asking participants to rate their degree of agreement with the statements.

The 10 statements, modified slightly in order that the article of the statement is appropriate for surveying participants, are as follows:

Statement	Correlation Group 1	Correlation Group 2	Correlation Group 3	Mean correlation
I often find it hard to forgive when hurt by others.	.41	N/A	N/A	.41
I will usually try to get even if wronged.	N/A	.41	N/A	.41
I usually try to do what is right*	.41	N/A	N/A	.41
I am willing to do things most other people would consider wrong.	.39	.32	N/A	.355
I have little concern over the effect of my actions.	N/A	.35	N/A	.35
I do things my own way, despite the likelihood that this may sometimes get me in trouble.	N/A	.35	N/A	.35
I participate in activities which may be considered dangerous or reckless.	N/A	.35	N/A	.35
I often fail to consider the consequences of my actions.	.33	N/A	N/A	.33
I often reflect upon old grudges.	.32	N/A	N/A	.32
I frequently start conversations with others*	N/A	N/A	.31	.31

(Mauger, et al., 1992)

Group 1 is after rating by counsellors, Group 2 is after rating by peers, and Group 3 is after rating by close friends. Participants would be asked to what extent they agree with each of the ten statements on a 7-point scale, with 1 representing *disagree entirely*, and 7 representing *agree entirely*. Eight of the ten statements are deemed to be *negative*, inasmuch as a participant registering a high score would find it difficult to forgive the transgressor. Only two of the statements, the third and tenth (marked “*”), can be seen as *positive*, that is, those in which a higher score would suggest higher levels of forgiveness. As such, for the purpose of analysing the results generated by this thesis, the scales for the received responses of these two statements will be *flipped*, so that 1 represents *agree entirely*, and 7 represents *disagree entirely*. This way, a high score on the test overall can be taken as indicative of a participant who struggles to forgive transgressions of others, and may well ruminate, take revenge, and hold grudges from a consumer perspective against a product they believe to have wronged them.

3.4) Fairness

There exists a wealth of academic literature discussing the definitions of different types of fairness as well as varying definitions of fairness when viewed through different frameworks.

Central to several definitions of fairness is the concept of *substantive desert*, which can generally be thought of as what the recipient of the outcome deserves, or believes they deserve. Following substantive desert as a core guiding principle, Hooker (2005) arrives at his definition of substantive fairness, whereby people “get what they deserve or need”, while he defines *formal fairness* as “applying the same rules impartially and equally to everyone” (Hooker, 2005). Both of the above definitions of fairness are pertinent to this study. Formal fairness follows a pragmatic way of thinking, and is often just as conspicuous in its absence as by its presence. As with the majority of the definitions of fairness, formal fairness is open to subjective and arbitrary analysis, which can lead to it being situationally unfair in its pragmatic approach to fairness and due to its acceptance of *bad rules*. Before the twentieth century, it was widely accepted that it was fair that the majority of women around the world were unable to vote. Formal fairness dictates that if a woman’s mother couldn’t vote, nor could she, and nor her daughter after, and so on. The soft underbelly of formal fairness is chronicity, and the issue comes to light today when changes to accepted rights, particularly to public goods fluctuate over time. An example of the latter in recent times is the United Kingdom’s attitude towards tuition fees for further education. Before 1998, undergraduate education in the United Kingdom was free (BBC, 2011). Between 1998 and 2004, undergraduate students were charged up to £1000 per academic year, while an undergraduate student entering further education in 2012 or after would have to pay up to £9000 per academic year (Alley & Smith, 2004) (BBC, 2011). Societal changes since have brought about what is (currently) deemed to be the substantively *fair* thing to do, but in terms of formal fairness these changes are definitively *unfair*. By accepting institutionalised bad rules, formal fairness is often at risk of being unfair. According to Hooker (2005), formal fairness alone is insufficient in creating a fair environment, and there is ultimately a need for justified rules (Hooker, 2005).

In order to alleviate the issue of constitutionalised formal fairness not fitting the demands of the contemporary society who require fairness, Hooker (2005) discusses another type of fairness – *diachronic formal fairness* (Hooker, 2005). This defines the type of allocation of fair judgement which permits changes over time. Hooker (2005) uses the example of the English legal system to illustrate the application of formal substantive diachronical unfairness, in that what is considered law is actually in flux, and thus changes with the demands of society. By contrast, the Iranian legal system is the application of formal un-diachronical fairness, whereby fewer legal and un-diachronical fairness changes are instigated over time (Hooker, 2005).

Clemmer and Schneider's (1996) concept of fairness provides a theoretical framework for the study of (dissatisfied customers') postcomplaint behaviours. They identified three distinct dimensions of justice experienced by consumers when assessing their postcomplaint experiences: *distributive justice* (assessing the perceived fairness of the outcome of postcomplaint resolution); *procedural justice* (assessing the perceived fairness of the policies and procedures encountered in postcomplaint resolution; and *interactional justice* (which assesses the perceived appropriateness of the interpersonal communication during postcomplaint resolution) (Clemmer & Schneider, 1996) (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997). In reference to this study, the satisfactory handling of complaints leads to an *enhanced likelihood of repurchase* (Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993).

Blodgett et al. (1997) discuss the benefits to a company in ensuring their customers consider their treatment to be fair. In increasingly competitive markets, preserving loyalty by treating your customers fairly can be the difference between retaining customers and seeing them shop elsewhere (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997). In addition, Reichheld and Sasser (1990) attest that more loyal, longer-term customers spend more and do so more frequently than new customers (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990). Furthermore, Blodgett et al. (1997) state that successful complaint handling allows the firm an opportunity to influence subsequent customer behaviour (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997).

Stahl (1972) utilised game theory to further analysis into bargaining experiments by defining them as "finite horizon, two-person, alternate offer games" in which players take turns in making offers until the final offer is either accepted or rejected in a process known as an *ultimatum game* (Stahl, 1972). From a game theory perspective, if player 1 is always destined to make the final offer, and all player 2 can do is accept or reject the offer, the logical move for player 1 is to propose the situation which provides himself with the highest reward, which is also the Nash equilibrium in the game's extensive form. The final round becomes, in effect, a single-player decision-making process, and as such, this particular type of game is termed a *dictator game* (Stahl, 1972) (Forsythe, Horowitz, & Savin, 1994). Forsythe et al. (1994) aimed to investigate whether the payoff allocation with human players would result in a fairer payoff for a humanised player 2, and whether humans are equally logical in their dictatorism (Forsythe, Horowitz, & Savin, 1994). The results showed numerous points relevant to the notion of fairness in this thesis. In their experiment, the participants could keep their portion of a pie (as such the participant was paid) and in two they could not (unpaid). Forsythe et al. (1994) split the paid and unpaid games further by having two sizes of prize pool, one for \$5 and one for \$10 (Forsythe, Horowitz, & Savin, 1994). Being paid was found to have no significant impact on the bargaining strategy of the participants, so the results of each game were pooled (Forsythe, Horowitz, & Savin, 1994). In the \$5 dictator game, 36% of the respondents are what Forsythe et al. (1994) class as *pure gamesmen*, following the logical conclusion of the Nash equilibrium, and for the \$10 prize pool this number was 22%. Interestingly, as far as fairness is concerned,

22% and 21% of the dictators gave player 2 an equal or better share than themselves in the \$5 and \$10 games respectively. Additionally, the number of pure gamesmen dropped to 0% for both prize pools when played instead as an ultimatum game, while 65% and 75% gave player 2 an equal or better share. Despite this, Forsythe et al. (1994) were unable to dedicate this evident deviation from the Nash equilibrium to fairness of the participants alone (Forsythe, Horowitz, & Savin, 1994).

3.4.1) Measure of fairness

The varying degrees to which individual, and often very personal, experience-borne feelings affected perceptions of fairness, coupled with issues in standardising and equating how fair something actually was, rather than how fair it was perceived to be, makes it difficult for a scale or measure of fairness to be formulated. However, and when viewed through the lens of the branch of consumer psychology associated with this study, it was possible to identify a few theories which lent themselves to adaptation for this thesis.

Blodgett et al. (1997) asked respondents to read through and empathise with two customer service interactions, and then answer 20 questions relating to their hypothetical repatronage intentions. Answers were recorded in the form of a 7-point Likert-type scale, and showed that in particular those who experience higher levels of distributive and interactional justice are more likely to repurchase from a perceived offending retailer, and are less likely to attempt to dissuade others from purchasing from the same retailer via word of mouth, while inadequacies in procedural justice were found to have little effect on the above (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997).

Similar to the experiment conducted by Forsythe et al. (1994), Batson et al. (2002) tested a couple of simple, single-person, single-round dictator games which focused on the issue of the fair allocation of two tasks – one with a (mutually-agreed) positive payoff (outcome), the other with a neutral payoff (Batson, Thompson, & Chen, 2002). In this particular case, at least one of the authors was a university lecturer, and as such has the capability and authority to allocate tasks to participants, in this case, their students. During both tests, the participant (player 1) is asked to allocate a task to either themselves or a fictitious second player. Player 1 is unaware that player 2 is fictitious, and the game is dictatorial as player 1 is the only player with any power to allocate tasks. In one of the studies, player 1 is informed before the experiment that the majority of previous player 1s have chosen to flip a coin to determine who should be allocated which task. This serves the purpose of making the moral practice of procedural justice more salient, and serves as a *moral prompt* to the game's dictator, which they can subsequently choose to adhere to or ignore. Even if player 1 chooses to flip a coin, they are under no obligation to adhere to the results of the coin flip. Finally, player 1 is informed that player 2 will only be made aware of the ultimate allocation of the tasks, and not the method by which the tasks were allocated. Subsequently, participants were asked a small number of questions to test, among other constructs, the perception of player 1's morality,

and the relative importance to player 1 of being fair, and of player 2's welfare and wellbeing (Batson, Thompson, & Chen, 2002).

Batson et al. (2002)'s experiment was designed to investigate how fairly player 1 would behave given this dictatorial status, and how fair they considered themselves and their intended process to be in relation to how fairly they behaved in practice. A discrepancy between these two constructs will be due either to *moral hypocrisy* (being motivated to appear outwardly moral while avoiding the associated costs of actually being moral) or *moral weakness* (whereby self-interest overpowers any inclination to act morally) (Batson, Thompson, & Chen, 2002). In either case, player 1 has the ability to behave fairly or unfairly towards player 2, and subsequently appraise the morality of their decision. Despite the different scope of this research to that of Batson et al.'s (2002) (being university lecturers able to dole out particular positive and neutral tasks to their students), it was still possible to devise a situation whereby a participant in this study was able to allocate a better situation to themselves rather than another player, fictional or non-fictional. Being able to offer a neutral reward to a participant in this study was, unfortunately, out of the scope of this research, so instead of a neutral reward being on offer, a payoff of zero (thus, no reward) was instead substituted, to be compared against the provision of a positive payoff (thus, a reward).

In order to collect similar data for the purpose of this study, the participant and dictator (player 1) will be asked to allocate a reward (in this case the option to enter into a prize draw to win a 500 Danish kroner (DKK)/£50 gift card) to either themselves or another person (player 2). Due to the scope of this research, it was not possible to offer a reward to all participants, not least supply and select a reward which all participants would find mutually desirable, so a prize draw for a substantial enough reward was deemed the best compromise to this limitation. While it is, of course necessary for player 2 to exist, it is not necessary that player 2 is even aware of the game, nor that there was ever a reward being allocated, which mirrors the experiment conducted by Batson et al. (2002). What is more important is that player 1 knows there is a positive payoff to be achieved based solely on their decision. As in Batson et al.'s (2002) study, an identical moral prompt will advise each participant (howsoever true) that previous player 1s have chosen to flip a coin to allocate whose name shall be written on the gift card, be it their own or player 2's. As a further moral prompt, and to further humanise player 2, participants were advised that a name was needed. Results of the coin flip, if any, need not be observed. This is due, firstly, to the need to reinforce player 1's belief that player 2 will never be made aware of the reward-allocation process, secondly, to reduce the likelihood that the interviewer's presence will sway the decision-making process of player 1, and, finally, because we know the probability of a fair coin flip to be 0.5, and we will later discover the result of the reward allocation. A positive reward allocation of greater than 0.5 in favour of player 1 is evidence of moral hypocrisy or moral weakness, and in both cases unfair towards player 2.

After the reward allocation exercise, participants will be asked the six questions (listed below) derived from Batson et al.'s (2002) study. Responses will be in the form of a 7-point Likert-type scale, with 1 representing *not at all* and 7 representing *entirely*.

Participants will be asked the following questions:

- 1) To what extent do you believe the decision you made was morally right?
- 2) How highly to do rate your concern for your own welfare?
- 3) How highly to do rate your concern for player 2's welfare?
- 4) How highly to do rate your concern to be fair or just?
- 5) How highly to do rate your concern for treating both yourself and player 2 equally?
- 6) How highly to do rate your concern to give both yourself and player 2 an equal opportunity to receive the gift card?

3.5) Pro-French affinity

As consumers, the information we absorb from a product comes from a variety of sources, known as *information cues*, and these information cues are ultimately responsible for our purchase decisions. Information cues can be categorised into *intrinsic* cues (related to how the product matches the consumer's personal tastes and needs) and *extrinsic* cues (related to how the product's price, brand quality and service positions itself to the consumer) (Bilkey & Nes, 1982). Such cues can also purvey information to be perceived by the consumer as indicative of a good's quality, both from intrinsic and extrinsic sources, and, as Ayrosa (2000) suggests, COO can more-closely be classed as an extrinsic cue than an intrinsic one (Ayrosa, 2000).

Venkatesh (1995) states that "one cannot assume that the same set of values will influence two different groups of consumers" (Venkatesh, 1995). Similarly, consumers do not always react the same in their approach to purchasing foreign goods as they do with domestic goods, and neither will they always hold the products of one cultural subset in as high regard as they do another, as the information cues which appeal to one consumer may not necessarily appeal to another (Venkatesh, 1995) (Bilkey & Nes, 1982). Pappu et al. (2007) suggest that consumers attribute an *equity* to brands or products from a certain country based on the origin country alone (Pappu, Quester, & Ray, 2007). This idea of equity and its origin forms the basis of this part of the thesis.

Within academia, however, there remains a degree of confusion or disagreement in terms of what defines origin image. It is, therefore, important to decipher the nature of consumers' perceptions of a good, or rather to determine exactly towards or against what perception is the consumer basing their purchasing decision. In their 2013 paper, Josiassen et al. outline the three ways in which they believe origin image to have been interpreted

(Josiassen, Lukas, Whitwell, & Assaf, 2013). Schooler (1965) was an early researcher into the area of country origin (Josiassen, Lukas, Whitwell, & Assaf, 2013), and believed that origin image stems from an image attached to the origin in general (Schooler, 1965), otherwise termed the *basic-origin image*. According to Josiassen et al. (2013), “the central assumption from the basic-origin perspective is that the image attached to a country or to its people enables consumers to make inferences about products from that origin” (Josiassen, Lukas, Whitwell, & Assaf, 2013). In parallel with the 2.1) Hypotheses of this study, Bilkey and Nes (1982) attest that products from “more-developed¹” countries (as the wine image of France is hypothesised to be compared to that of China) will enjoy a more positive basic origin image than those of lesser-developed countries (Bilkey & Nes, 1982). Josiassen et al. (2013) add that “generalisations based on impressions of an origin’s people, the level of industrial..., technological..., and socio-economic development, as well as the consumer’s (hypothetical) desire to interact with the origin country and its people are typical of a basic-origin perspective” (Josiassen, Lukas, Whitwell, & Assaf, 2013). A contextual example of basic-origin image in action would be if a consumer decided that as he disliked America or the American people (for whatever reason), he will therefore choose not to buy any product listed as, or associated with being American.

Another type of country image, and that which is most commonly referred to (as per Josiassen et al. (2013)) is that of perceptions based specifically on the products of a specific country. Nagashima (1970) classified *product-origin image* as “the picture, the reputation, and the stereotype that...consumers attach to the products of a specific country” (Nagashima, 1970). Product-origin image differs slightly from basic-origin image inasmuch as the product-origin image stems from one which is attached to the perceived qualities of the products of the country in question (or the abilities its people bestow upon the products), rather than the country itself. Josiassen et al. (2013) add the caveat that the term ‘product’ in ‘product-origin image’ refers to “any product from an origin and not just one individual product” (Josiassen, Lukas, Whitwell, & Assaf, 2013). An example of a consumer being swayed by product-origin image perceptions would be that while she feels little to no positive perception of Germany or its people on a fundamental, basic level, she does believe that German products are, in general, of good quality.

Finally, Josiassen et al. (2013) identify *category-origin image* as stemming from the perceptions consumers hold over a specific group of products produced by a country or its people (Josiassen, Lukas, Whitwell, & Assaf, 2013). An example of a consumer being led by a category-origin image would be if that consumer had no

¹ Bilkey and Nes (1982) do not go into detail in their definition of a “more developed” country, but I interpret this to be a socio-economic reference, and perhaps more relevant in 1982 than it is today. For the purpose of this thesis, therefore, and at the risk of making an equally vague assumption, I have assumed peoples’ perceptions of the French wine market to be more developed than that of the Chinese wine market.

particular opinion of Cuba or the Cuban people, and even held a negative opinion on the general quality of Cuban products, yet was still of the belief that a Cuban cigar is likely to be of high quality.

In addition to defining the type of origin image the consumer holds towards a specific country, product or category, it is also necessary to identify the type of consumer in question. As stated, the COO phenomenon is manifest in consumers making purchase evaluations based on either positive or negative extrinsic perceptions of either one or several domestic or foreign goods. Josiassen (2011) arranges these perceptions in the form of a matrix (Fig. 2), attesting that perceptions of goods can be broken into either attraction or repulsion of foreign or domestic goods (Josiassen A. , 2011).

	Attraction	Repulsion
Domestic Country	Consumer Ethnocentrism Shimp & Sharma (1987)	Consumer Disidentification
Foreign	Consumer Affinity Oberecker, Riefler & Dimantopoulos (2008)	Animosity Klein, Ettenson & Morris (1998)

Fig. 2 - The Consumer Attraction-Repulsion Matrix (Josiassen 2011)

As is shown in the matrix, a positive perception of a domestic good is termed *consumer ethnocentrism* (CET), whereas holding a negative perception of a domestic good comes under the umbrella of consumer disidentification (Josiassen A. , 2011).

CET can be defined as a “general proclivity of buyers to shun all imported products irrespective of price or quality considerations due to nationalistic reasons. It can be institutionalized in the form of an informal government procurement policy that unduly favours domestic companies” (Kotabe & Helsen, 1998).

Shimp and Sharma (1987) wrote extensively on the subject of CET as early as 1987. They explained that CET is apparent as a “general societal tendency”, and can be measured using their Consumer Ethnocentrism Tendencies Scale (CETSCALE), a 17-item list of propositions rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale (Shimp & Sharma, 1987).

Respondents with lower CETSCALE scores tend to exhibit lower commitment to domestic goods. While Shimp and Sharma's CETSCALE was not the first attempt to measure CET (Curtis Rierson did so more than two decades prior to the publication of CETSCALE (Rierson, 1966)), Shankarmahesh (2006) claimed that CETSCALE is the "predominant scale used in marketing to measure ethnocentric tendencies among consumers in various nations" (Shankarmahesh, 2006). A major criticism of CETSCALE is that it is overly focussed on contemporary American society, and as such is not so applicable to consumers outside of the United States (Festervand & Sokoya, 1994). As far as this study is concerned, another downside of applying CETSCALE is that while it is possible to identify lower levels of willingness to purchase goods of domestic origin, this does not always necessarily indicate an adversarial viewpoint, but can instead mean that "aspects of the national category are not strongly connected to or important to (the consumer)" (Josiassen A. , 2011), that is, whatever assets or qualities a particular country image tends to invoke may not always be of importance to the particular consumer.

Consumer disidentification (CDI) differs from CET in several ways. CDI is concerned with a consumer's repulsion of products made within their own domestic country (Josiassen A. , 2011). Firstly, a lower CET score is not equal to a higher CDI score. As described, a low CET score may indicate that the consumer is not interested in the perceived qualities of products from their domestic country, but does not imply this to be true, whereas a high CDI score requires a disconnection between the consumer and the importance of national category (Josiassen A. , 2011). As such, CDI affects WTP, whereas CET does not. As a rule, those displaying lower levels of CDI will avoid domestic products, while those recording lower levels of CET will not necessarily avoid domestic products.

3.5.1) Measure of pro-French affinity

As this study is dealing with consumers' perceptions of French and Chinese goods, and since the majority of the respondents are Danish, and many respondents were surveyed in Denmark, we can conclude that it is not goods of domestic origin which are of interest here. As such, any feelings towards the product based purely on the country of origin alone are toward foreign goods, thus eliminating the effects of CET and CDI and focussing instead on the lower half of Josiassen's (2011) matrix. When concerning consumers' feelings towards foreign goods, Josiassen (2011) split these feelings into two distinct categories. When a consumer harbours positive connotations with a foreign good, we term this consumer affinity. Inversely, when a consumer harbours negative associations with a foreign good, we know this as consumer animosity (Josiassen A. , 2011). For the purposes of this study, it was necessary to establish whether it would be pro-French affinity or anti-Chinese animosity that was being measured. In this thesis, I am interested in the degree to which a consumer attributes equity to a French wine, and then how the same consumer reacts when this turns out not to be the case. As such, it seems far

more appropriate to assess the strength of the pro-French equity in order to try and quantify the degree of disappointment in relation to the degree to which the misdirection has affected their WTP.

In support of this, Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006) state that “consumer affinity is considered a favourable and primarily affectively based attitude toward a foreign country that might affect behavioural consequences, such as intentions to consume products, brands, and services from the affinity country” (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006).

Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006), define consumer affinity as “a consumer attitude related to foreign countries and their products”, segmenting consumers along two dimensions – their attitudes towards imports in general, and the specific originating country (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006). Segregating consumers over their attitude towards imports discriminates among *ethnocentric* consumers, those who experience reluctance to purchase goods made abroad (Shimp & Sharma, 1987); *cosmopolitan* consumers, who are neutral towards the origin of a good or service (Cannon, Sung-Joon, McGowan, & Yaprak, 1994); and *other-centric* consumers, who value imports over domestically-produced goods or services (Kent & Burnight, 1951). On the other hand, continue Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2006), those segregated over their views on the specific originating country of the good or service distinguish country-specific attitudes which can be favourable, such as consumer affinity, or unfavourable, such as consumer animosity (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2006).

Hartz et al. (2005) identified *normative* and *idiosyncratic* country affinities. Idiosyncratic affinities, they attest, “depend on the perceiver’s unique experience, (and) psychology”, and are therefore felt on a personal level. Normative affinities, manifest on a national level, are those which “affect large numbers of people”, and depend to a far greater degree on cultural influences (Hartz, Watson, & Noyes Jr., 2005). The concept of defining affinity drivers into idiosyncratic and normative seems appropriate for this thesis, as it bears a strong similarity with Bilkey and Nes’ (1982) intrinsic and extrinsic categorisation, and with Pappu et al.’s (2007) *micro* and *macro* country images (Bilkey & Nes, 1982) (Pappu, Quester, & Ray, 2007).

Continuing this theme, Oberecker et al. (2008) define consumer affinity as “a feeling of liking, sympathy, and even attachment toward a specific foreign country...as a result of the consumer’s direct personal experience and/or normative exposure and that positively affects the consumer’s decision-making associated with products and services originating from the affinity country” (Oberecker, Riefler, & Diamantopoulos, 2008).

In their study, Oberecker et al. (2008) interviewed, recorded and transcribed physical interviews with eleven respondents in order to identify reasons for displaying affinities towards specific foreign countries. The resulting underlying reasons for affinity, using a literature-based content-analysis method, yielded seven overall categories of macro drivers of affinity – four of which were normative, while the remaining three were idiosyncratic (Oberecker, Riefler, & Diamantopoulos, 2008). These normative and idiosyncratic macro drivers are as follows:

Normative drivers of affinity: *lifestyle, scenery, culture, and politics and economics.*

Idiosyncratic drivers of affinity: *stay abroad, travel, and contacts.*

Oberecker et al. (2008) posed their eleven respondents with a total of 21 statements, each fitting into one of the seven previous macro driver categories, and asked the respondents the degree to which they agreed with the statement on a 7-point Likert-type scale. This enabled Oberecker et al. (2008) to identify affinity in general, rather than towards a specific country (Oberecker, Riefler, & Diamantopoulos, 2008).

For the purposes of this study, I am interested purely in any identifiable affinity towards France, French culture, French people, and French goods and services from a consumer perspective which may lead consumers to attribute higher equity to a bottle of French wine than a Chinese wine. Oberecker et al. (2008) stated that the effect of affinity on WTP is stronger for hedonic goods than for utilitarian products (Oberecker, Riefler, & Diamantopoulos, 2008). It may then be expected that wine, often the epitome of hedonic goods as its consumption is heavily based on experience rather than necessity, is strongly susceptible to the effects of consumer affinity (Dahr & Wertenbroch, 2000).

To test specifically for pro-French affinity, Oberecker et al.'s (2008) 21 original statements have been modified slightly to the following:

Statement 1) The French are friendly, helpful people.

Statement 2) French people are less stressed/enjoy life.

Statement 3) I like the French language.

Statement 4) French cuisine and drink is good.

Statement 5) French scenery is different and diverse.

Statement 6) French scenery contributes to their well-being.

Statement 7) French scenery is relaxing.

Statement 8) French culture, history, and customs are interesting.

Statement 9) French culture is a significant part of why I would like to visit, or have visited France.

Statement 10) French people stick to their traditions.

Statement 11) I agree with the French politically.

Statement 12) I have lived in France (Y/N).

Statement 13) Living in France has reinforced, or would probably reinforce my positive feelings of France.

Statement 14) The French climate was, or would be a positive motivator in deciding to live in France.

Statement 15) I have visited France (Y/N).

Statement 16) A visit to France has reinforced, or would probably reinforce my positive feelings of France.

Statement 17) France is a good country for taking relaxing holidays.

Statement 18) The French climate would persuade me to visit France.

Statement 19) I have many friends or relatives from or living in France.

Statement 20) I hold, or have held a French person in high regard.

Statement 21) Friends of mine have spoken positively about France.

In accordance with Oberecker et al.'s (2008) study, participants in this study were also asked to indicate their agreement with the above statements on a 7-point Likert-type scale, with the exception of statements 12 and 15, which were instead given as *Yes/No* answers. The statements fit into the two distinct affinity types and seven distinct affinity driver model as follows:

Type of affinity	Macro-driver	Statement no.
Normative	Lifestyle	1
		2
		3
		4
	Scenery	5
		6
		7
	Culture	8
		9
		10
	Politics and economics	11
Idiosyncratic	Stay abroad	12
		13
		14
	Travel	15
		16
		17
		18
		19
	Contact	20
		21

Framed within the context of this thesis, it is the effect of basic-origin image on the consumer's choice of wine which will be tested, as it is the basic origin perspective which is tested by Oberecker et al.'s (2008) study.

As an external factor, it is worth mentioning that very shortly after beginning the participant-surveying process, which involved asking the degree of agreement with the above statements, Paris experienced terrorist attacks on

a scale never before seen in Western Europe (BBC, 2015). Pappu et al. (2007) attest that “unfavourable events” could have an effect on affinity feelings and purchase intentions (Pappu, Quester, & Ray, 2007). Only around 5% of the questionnaire responses had been received at the moment of the attacks. The shock was felt around the world, and resulted in wide-scale media coverage, public outpouring, and international condemnation. While the original definition offered in this thesis by Oberecker et al. (2008) suggested that affinity incorporates (among others) sympathy for the country in question, I believe it is worth taking the real-world events into consideration, especially when analysing the results to the following statements:

Statement 11) I agree with the French politically.

Statement 13) Living in France has reinforced, or would probably reinforce my positive feelings of France.

Statement 16) A visit to France has reinforced, or would probably reinforce my positive feelings of France.

Statement 17) France is a good country for taking relaxing holidays.

As has already been said, the scale used in this study was based on Oberecker et al.’s (2008) division of affinity into normative and idiosyncratic types. While the events in Paris constitute a normative event, the level of media coverage and public outcry over the events may very well have affected more personal, idiosyncratic feelings relating to the latter part of the affinity test.

While impossible to judge the effect of these real-world events on participants’ responses, I believe it is not beyond the scope of possibility that the current events of the time played some part in affecting the results in some way.

3.6) Wine-labelling regulations

Regulations on wine-labelling within an EU member state must follow laws laid down by both the EU as well as local laws of the member state in question (European Commission, 2007). Where local laws and EU laws are not in agreement, the regulations stated by the EU supersede the local legislation (European Commission, 2007). As such, any bottle of wine on a supermarket shelf has to have sufficiently satisfied both local and EU regulations in order to be legal for sale.

It should be pointed out, particularly in the political climate at the time of writing (Prime Ministers Office, 10 Downing Street, and Cabinet Office, 2016), that this thesis is in no way intended to constitute an argument either in support or in opposition of the set of political circumstances mentioned.

3.6.1) EU wine-labelling regulations

EU laws on wine-labelling regulation are not overly complicated at first glance. However, the implications of these regulations are wide-reaching, and as such go into a vast amount of detail, without taking into consideration those regulations concerning wine production, distribution and sale, nor domestic laws in place in each EU member state. As such, covering most of the regulation in detail is beyond the scope of this thesis.

EU laws aim to ensure, among many other reasons, a common standard of consumer protection (European Commission, 2007), including which information can and cannot be detailed on a wine bottle label (or that of any other wine container) for general retail sale and consumer purchasing (European Council, 2008). These regulations are split into four distinct categories:

- 1) Governing bodies
- 2) Provenance
- 3) Wine label content
- 4) Wine label fair practice

EU regulators, for reasons of logistics, economics, and politics, among others, are often reluctant to involve themselves with domestic affairs unless it is necessary (Biondi, Eeckhout, & Ripley, 2012). As such, the EU stipulate that each member state has, under its direct jurisdiction, a governing body and legal process to ensure that all claims against all EU regulations are dealt with fairly and effectively (European Council, 2008).

The issue of provenance, or origin, of a wine is a sensitive one for several reasons. Firstly, not all wine-producing territories are easy to define (Court of Justice of the European Union, 2014). Additionally, there are disputes over tariffs charged on wines sold outside of the EU (World Trade Organization, 2008), and further disagreement over *planting rights schemes*, a system by which the EU controls which member states can legally produce for sale certain varieties of wine (Parliament of Great Britain: House of Lords, 2007). However, the research aims to ask respondents to evaluate the likelihood with which they would purchase a wine which is, theoretically, legal to sell within the EU. As such, an assumption is made that a consumer resident within the EU could realistically expect any wine included in the thesis for research to be legally available on the shelves of a supermarket within the EU. Attention must therefore be paid to the grape vine variety used in the research, in order to ensure as plausible and factually accurate experiment as possible, but no further considerations will be given with regards to provenance in this particular respect.

Considering the content of the wine label itself, the EU requires certain details to be visible on the label, categorising information as either compulsory or optional. Compulsory information includes (unless the level of national production is below a very small threshold (European Council, 2008)) the grape vine variety (with

resonance to the above-mentioned planting rights schemes), the ABV at 20°C, the provenance of the wine, and an indication of the bottling and importing firm (if applicable) (European Commission, 1987) (European Commission, 2007) (European Council, 2008). Optional information includes details such as the vintage year, the sugar content, and any relevant information pertaining to the production methods used (European Council, 2008). If a type of information is neither listed in the most recent compulsory nor optional sections of EU legislation, this information may not be on the bottle (European Commission, 2002). Anything failing to live up to these regulations must be withdrawn from the market (European Council, 2008).

Finally, the EU regulates the issue of fair practice in labelling regulations which, very briefly, stipulates that a member state may draw up its own regulations governing the sale of domestically-produced wines if, for example, the grape vine variety “forms an integral part of an existing protected designation of origin or geographical indication”, or “the relevant controls would not be cost-effective due to the fact that the given grape variety represents a very small part” of the Member State’s total production (European Council, 2008). Any wine failing to live up to these regulations must be withdrawn from the market (European Council, 2008).

3.6.2) UK wine-labelling regulations

Due to my inability to read Danish at a sufficiently high level, it was deemed out of the scope of this thesis to pore over the Danish regulations concerning wine-labelling affecting the sale of wine in the country in which the majority of the data collection took place. However, it is important to have an idea of what requirements Local Authorities might set before distributors, so the regulations governing wine sold to the UK market was instead consulted, purely as an example of local legislation.

Many EU member states have their own set of rules which supplement (but do not overrule) the aforementioned EU regulations on wine-labelling and fair practice when it comes to selling wine to consumers within that specific member state (European Council, 2012). More specifically, UK regulations, many of which overlap the EU regulations, stipulate that, and *in addition to* the EU compulsory regulations, one *must* be able to see, without having to rotate the bottle, the wine’s nominal volume, the number of standard (UK) units of alcohol contained, details of the bottling firm, the category of the product (specifically that the product is wine), and other nutritional information on additives such as sulphites, legibly, and in British English (Food Standards Agency, 2016).

Additionally, and with reference to the theme of misdirection in this study, the (UK) Consumer Protection from Unfair Trading Regulations Act 2008, Section 5, states that a commercial practice is misleading if it “contains false information” regarding the above compulsory labelling information, or if its “overall presentation in any way deceives or is likely to deceive the average consumer... even if the information is factually correct”, and if

“it causes or is likely to cause the average consumer to take a transactional decision he would not have taken otherwise”, or “it concerns any marketing of a product (including comparative advertising) which creates confusion” (Parliament of the United Kingdom: House of Lords, 2008). Finally, the seller or manufacturing firm must be established within the EU (Parliament of the United Kingdom: House of Lords, 1996).

The pertinence of both EU and local legislation to this thesis is several-fold. Firstly, it provided the framework within which a bottle of wine as plausible and as factually accurate as possible could be evaluated by the questionnaire respondents in the absence of a real, physically present example. Secondly, knowledge of what does and does not constitute compulsory information on wine labelling purely from a content perspective was of great help in distinguishing between what was legal but potentially misleading and downright illegal. This proved invaluable in the research design. Finally, a knowledge of the compulsory EU regulations was used as the basis for the reveal point in the experiment - the point at which the respondents of the experiment questionnaire became aware of the deception. The wine in question in the experiment stated that despite its outward French appearance, the wine was, firstly, Chinese in provenance, and secondly abiding by all compulsory EU regulations.

Once again, I would like to express that this is not, in any way, meant to express an opinion on the regulations, nor on the legitimacy of the various regulatory bodies. Such an opinion is outside the scope of this thesis. Additionally, it must also be stated, that while every attempt was made to be as factually accurate as possible in drawing together known regulation both in the EU and in the UK in terms of wine-labelling conventions, I am not a legal expert in this area. Expecting legal clarity in this area is wholly outside the scope of this thesis, and the inclusion of the regulation is purely intended to provide a backdrop from which to set a plausible experiment, as described above. Similarly, the inclusion of the EU regulations as the reveal point in the experiment was aimed to analyse the opinions of the respondent with regards to the seller of the wine aiming to deceive, rather than any beliefs they may hold about the governing bodies tolerance of the deceit.

4) METHODOLOGY

Saunders et al. (2009) advocate the use of a *research onion* (Appendix 1 – The research onion), whereby the researcher narrows down a range of research method alternatives on several incremental levels to reach a justified and appropriate data collection method (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The research onion is a useful tool in structuring the methodology of a thesis, as it orders the various research methodology decisions an author must make in order to arrive at rationalised data collection and analysis processes. The decisions made will shape (in the following order) the research study by defining necessary criteria along the way, which, in turn, defines the philosophy, approach, strategy, data collection method, and procedures such as time frames. As

a result, selection of an appropriate research philosophy is, to some degree, a two-way process. On the one hand, selecting one research philosophy over another, as previously stated, will impact the way in which data is collected. On the other hand, as some research philosophies are more appropriate than others at deriving meaningful results, the author must also keep in mind the data he or she wishes to collate when it comes to selecting the research philosophy for a given research project. For this thesis, I will consider this two-way approach when selecting the most effective means to answer the research proposal.

Further to this concept of a research onion, Saunders et al. (2009) offer guidance on the most appropriate ontological, epistemological, axiological and data-collection approaches for a chosen research philosophy (Appendix 2 – Fit of four research theories in management research). This table can be used to cross examine the available options for each layer of the research onion to ensure the research methodology remains on target for answering the research proposition.

In the following, I will cover the selection of the appropriate philosophy, and subsequently provide a detailed explanation of the research approach, strategy, choice and data-collection decisions made.

4.1) Research philosophy

When selecting a research philosophy, the author makes several assumptions which underpin and influence the research strategy and methods, in particular the way in which knowledge is viewed and processed. For example, Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2009) use the example of a particular research project into the same firm being simultaneously conducted by both a hard-side and a soft-side manager. They assert that their research strategies and methods are likely to be different, as will their filtering process governing which information is important and which is to be cast aside, and ultimately their results may also be widely disparate (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Additionally, Johnson & Clark (2006) argue that the important issue is not so much whether research should be philosophically informed, but it is how well you are able to reflect upon philosophical choices and defend them in relation to the alternatives (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill's (2009) research onion lists four different philosophical approaches – positivism, realism, interpretivism, pragmatism. In this section, these four research philosophies will be appraised, with one guiding philosophy rationalised in the end.

4.1.1) Positivism

Positivism works within “an observable social reality and ... the end product of such research can be law-like generalisations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientists” (Remenyi, Williams, Money, Swartz, & E., 1998). Only observable data has any use to a positivist, who will use existing theories with which

to derive hypotheses and later facts by which to test further hypotheses. By inference, then, a positivist approach would discount *feelings* and *notions*, as these cannot easily or at all be proven. Further to this, the positivist approach hinges on the ideal that the researcher is neither a part of nor able or liable to influence the outcome of the results in any way. Given the potentially subjective nature of the feedback generated by the data, as well as my belief that it is difficult to avoid subjectivity in questions involving any kind of quantitative response, the positivist approach can be deemed inapplicable for this research thesis.

4.1.2) Realism

The philosophy of realism hinges around the ideal that all that is real exists independently outside of human consciousness (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Similar to positivism, realism is attached with the concept of scientific, fact-based data collection, arguing either that what our senses dictate to be real is real (direct realism), or that what our senses dictate to be real is put through a mental filter before we determine it to be real (critical realism) accounting for the possibility of our senses being deceived (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). While this philosophy could offer an interesting take on the research proposition from the angle of differentiating whether something that was deemed to be misleading had merely deceived the senses or actually broken the regulations in place, the rigid fact-based demands of realism conflict with the potentially subjective constraints of the research question. As such, I will not use the realist philosophical approach when defining and constructing the research structure or data collection.

4.1.3) Interpretivism

Critical to understanding an interpretivist philosophy is to view humans as social actors, and as such, appreciate the likelihood of different results when collecting data about human activities to those of machines or computers (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The difficulties of making use of this approach is that the researcher needs to play an empathetic role, being able to understand the internal opinions of any human data source from their own perspective in order to successfully interpret the results they give the research. As such, an interpretivist approach is often appropriate when conducting research on human resources, marketing and management, due to the nature of the research subjects' situation being complex and unique (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Analysing the research proposal will require interpretation of a set of collated data and results, and the subject area of this thesis, namely marketing in its broader sense with a view to offering managerial insights into the proposal, offer hints that an interpretivist approach to the research methodology will generate some relevant and useful results. However, the table in Appendix 2 – Fit of four research theories in management research advises that the interpretivist philosophy is best used when the required data collation is to be qualitative by nature. While it may be interesting to investigate deeper into the internal insights of a group of interview respondents to attain more information on their feelings towards a certain product based on its COO,

the aim of this study is more focused on mass-market data, and the wider implications on a firm's long term survivability when it comes to a macro effect on sales due to potentially misled consumers. As such, the interpretivist philosophy will be rejected at this level due to a suspected incongruence between the data required to answer the research proposal and the data best-ascertained via this philosophy. However, I concede that there may potentially be a demand for future research into the more *innate* and internal psychological effect of misleading COO on a firm's long term cash flow projections.

4.1.4) Pragmatism

The final research philosophy is that of the pragmatist. As already stated, selection of different research philosophies can derive different results. However, it is also possible that more than one philosophy may be appropriate in answering particular research proposals. If the research proposal does not suggest, either implicitly or explicitly, that a specific research philosophy must be used, then pragmatism is a perfectly valid means by which to attack a subsequent ontology, epistemology and axiology, and be used in conjunction with any combination of qualitative, quantitative or mixed research methods within a single thesis (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). This stance is supported by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), who state that a researcher should “study what interests (them) and is of value to (them), study in the different ways in which (they) deem appropriate, and use the results in ways that can bring about positive consequences within (their) value system” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, *Mixed Methodology: Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, 1998). In this way, according to Saunders et al. (2009), the researcher is not necessarily required to debate over the finer points of the previous three philosophies, as that of the pragmatist allows the researcher to decide for themselves which information is important and how they wish to obtain it (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

This research aims to make use of mostly quantitative data, for reasons which will be explained later in this section. As such, it would appear that the scientific philosophies, which view the researcher as an external and non-influencing actor in the collection of data would be the best fit, given the more objective nature of quantitative data. However, Saunders et al. (2009) state that it is perfectly possible that while a data set may be objective in its appearance, there is sometimes a high level of subjectivity inherent in the manner in which a question is asked (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Due to the above arguments, and the potential for discrepancies when it comes to whether or not the quantitative data collected will be able to remain purely objective, or will be influenced by subjective questioning, a more bespoke pragmatic approach appears to be the best fit with the overall research question. I will therefore make use of a pragmatic approach, and reject the positivist, realist and interpretivist philosophies.

4.2) Research approaches

Saunders et al. (2009) state that all research projects should make use of a theory (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Some research projects initiate with data collection, and then a theory is developed as a result of the data analysis, in a method known as an inductive approach. For other kinds of research projects, it is more appropriate to use a theoretical lens by which to develop hypotheses, and then design an appropriate research methodology to test these hypotheses (a deductive approach) (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Each approach has its own merits, and this section will assess and justify which approach is the most appropriate for this thesis.

4.2.1) Inductive approach

As previously stated, an inductive approach would commence with data collection, and the analysis of this data will result in the formulation of a new theory. The foundations of inductive methods come from a perceived fallacy in the appropriateness of endeavouring to define rigid causal links when observing human and social behaviour without the necessary understanding of how people interpret their environment (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The inductive approach was championed to bolster this understanding, by first analysing collated data and subsequently drawing theories on these social suppositions.

While an inductive approach is a good means of testing purely subjective, more qualitative data, it is not appropriate in creating a working methodology dealing with large amounts of quantitative data, which, as will be explained later, will be the basis of this thesis' analysis. In addition, inductive methods are insufficient in answering the research proposal here, as it is in the form of hypotheses, and as such, inductive methods will therefore not be utilised in this thesis.

4.2.2) Deductive approach

The basis of a deductive approach is scientific research, as it constitutes the outlining of a theory to generate predictions, hypotheses or propositions, which are then onerously tested by way of data analysis (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Collis and Hussey (2003) explain that deduction is congruent with research in natural sciences, whereby existing natural laws and widely-accepted theories offer the foundation of common understanding, upon which further hypothetical testing can take place (Collis & Hussey, 2003).

As per Saunders et al. (2009), deduction is best suited for testing causal relationships between variables (hypotheses), and via the collection of quantitative data (although deduction is also possible when using qualitative data) (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The scientific observation nature of deductive methods means that the researcher should ideally be seen as external to the subject, thus drawing connections with realist and positivist research philosophies. However, as a pragmatic philosophy is also capable of working, in its bespoke fashion, with any research method, and given the problems described earlier when relying on objective

quantitative data to be collected to test what is primarily a personal and subjective area of data, the use of deductive methods is also congruent with a pragmatic research philosophy.

According to Saunders et al. (2009), an important aspect of deduction is that of generalisation. So that a hypothesis can be statistically proven or rejected, sample data must be of sufficient size. As will be described later, the testing of the research proposal presented in this thesis will require large sample sizes, and as such, a deductive research method is a good fit for this study. Finally, Saunders et al. (2009) assert that deduction is a more appropriate method if there is an already-existing wealth of theoretical literature surrounding the research topic (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Due to the above arguments to do with the link between deduction and hypothesis-testing, the abundance of available literature, and the congruence between deduction and large quantitative sample sizes, deduction seems to be the best possible fit as the guiding research method for this study. It is also highly possible, however, and sometimes beneficial, to use a mixture of deductive and inductive methods (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Saunders et al. (2009) align a table (Appendix 4 – Differences between deductive and inductive research approaches) in which the major differences are set out between the two different research approaches. Given the overwhelming appearance of appropriate emphases congruent with the data collation of this research appearing on the side of deductive approach (rather than more of a mix between the two), I will not be applying both inductive and combined research methods in favour of using deductive research methods.

When engaging in the scientifically rigorous nature of data collection using deductive methods, a researcher must follow a highly structured methodology to ensure reliable data replication (Gill & Johnson, 2002). In order to satisfy this rigid and methodical process, Robson (2002) describes five incremental steps a researcher can take when undertaking deductive research (Robson, 2002). In order to be sure that this thesis successfully fulfils the requirements of the deductive approach, I will follow these five stages, to be found in Appendix 3 – Robson's (2002) five sequential stages of deductive research methods.

4.3) Research strategies

The remaining layers of the research onion are focused on the process of research design, or, as Robson (2002) put it, turning a research question into a research project (Robson, 2002). Although some strategies are more appropriate than others to both a deductive approach, as well as to this thesis, there are no fixed boundaries, and it may be appropriate to bend these guidelines as part of the research design (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Similarly, it is also pertinent to define the purpose of the research. Saunders et al. (2009) state "the classification of research purpose most often used in the research methods' literature is the threefold one of exploratory,

descriptive and explanatory” (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). This thesis will be primarily an explanatory study, as these are those which establish causal relationships between variables (that is, they test hypotheses), and as such is the most appropriate method in order to test the research 2.1) Hypotheses. However, it is perfectly valid to employ a different kind of study to answer subsequent questions after the hypotheses have been tested (Robson, 2002). Any of the threefold study types can be argued as appropriate for any of the following research strategies, and a study may make use of more than one strategy (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

4.3.1) Exploratory research

According to Saunders et al. (2009), exploratory research has a high level of congruence with both experimental and survey research strategies, and both display a significant degree of appropriateness in testing the research 2.1) Hypotheses, with one major difference. Experiments are designed to test causal links between two variables; more specifically whether this change in an independent variable induces a change in another dependent variable (Hakim, 2000). As has already been covered, this thesis aims to test just such causal links in order to test the research hypotheses, and as such an experimental strategy appears to have high validity for this thesis. In support of this, Saunders et al. (2009) state that experimental studies are an apt fit for scientific research, as does using a deductive approach.

Classic experiments, as per Saunders et al. (2009), feature two groups identical in all aspects with the distinction that only one of the groups (the experimental group) will be exposed to a planned manipulation, such as the insertion or removal of the variable, which the other group (the control group) will not (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). A diagram of a classic experiment strategy can be found in Appendix 5 – A classic experiment strategy.

In keeping with the classic experiment strategy, the experiment design for this thesis could resemble the following, which builds upon the hypotheses graph in Fig. 1:

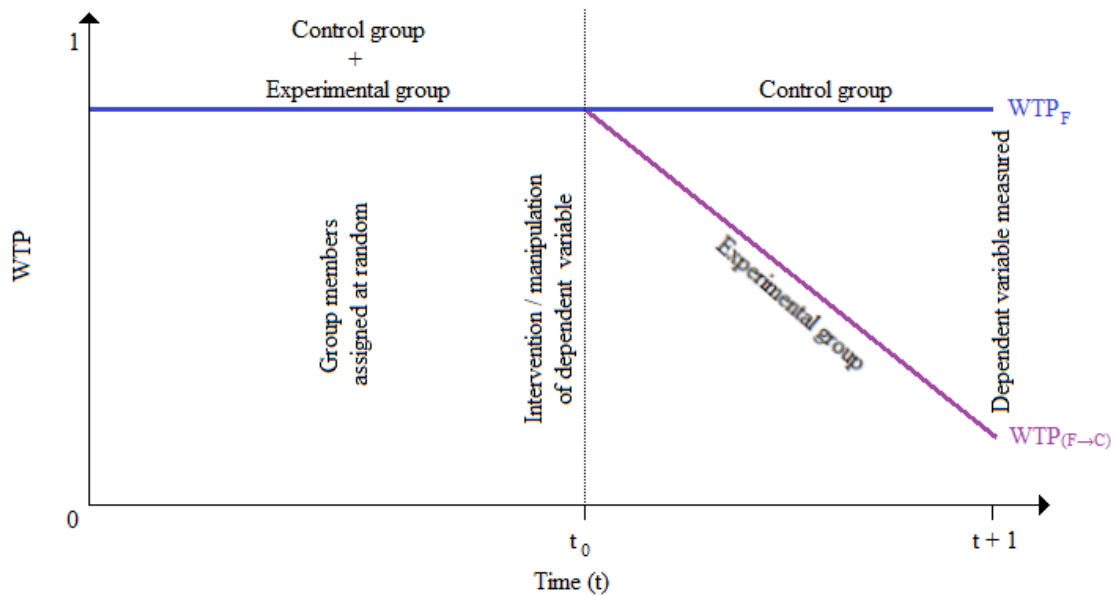


Fig. 2 - Hypotheses graphed with classic experiment strategy overlay

In contrast to Fig. 1, the mixture of Appendix 5 – A classic experiment strategy and Fig.1 used to derive Fig. 2 simplifies the graph by not showing the line signifying WTP_C , as the angle of focus of the hypotheses does not require that a wine be initially presented as Chinese and later revealed to be French. The other modification made is the slight repositioning of the labels denominating both the manipulation and measurement of the dependent variable. There is no variable introduced when simply gauging $WTP_{(C→C)}$ as there is no ‘reveal’, and is, as such, the control group. Rather than measuring a dependent variable at t_0 , such measurements can take place at any stage, so the label on t_0 signifies when the dependent variable is introduced for the experimental group.

However, an important aspect of Appendix 5 – A classic experiment strategy is the necessity to assign participants to groups at random. Integrity of results through random group assignment will be more difficult to maintain, and outliers will distort the overall analysis more when smaller groups are utilised, whereas the random group assignment will be more in keeping with the quirks of the target population in larger groups, but the process ensuring this randomness will be more time-consuming. It is my viewpoint that a larger volume of data is required to test the research 2.1) Hypotheses, for which a questionnaire strategy will be of more use.

4.3.2) Surveys

Like with experiments, a survey or questionnaire facilitates the collection and statistical analysis of quantitative data, but in larger volumes (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Questionnaires offer a similar fit with

deductive, exploratory studies (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). From a practical perspective, and given the time, financial and logistical constraints of this thesis, a questionnaire is an effective way of collating a large amount of data from a sizeable population in a highly economical way, as per Saunders et al. (2009), who go on to add that questionnaires are attractive to researchers due to their perception as authoritative and the ease with which their findings can be explained and understood.

Crucially for this thesis, questionnaires can also be used to identify and help to explain causal links between variables in much the same manner as would an experimental strategy, allowing also for the creating of explanatory models (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

As with experiments, time must be invested in ensuring the randomness of the selection process governing the control and experimental groups. In the case of questionnaires, the sample must be representative of the population being studied, and an increased response rate (within the appropriate population) will increase the reliability of the results and the validity of any causal conclusions drawn, and, of course, provided the questionnaire is adequately constructed (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

I believe that a survey in the form of a questionnaire will offer all the benefits of an experimental research strategy, but with an appropriate emphasis on collecting large amounts of data. As such, a survey questionnaire approach will be the primary data collection method in order to adequately answer the research 2.1) Hypotheses, and the method described in Fig. 2 will also be applied.

4.4) Research choices

Following the research onion (Appendix 1 – The research onion) procedure outlined in Saunders et al. (2009), the next stage of the research design is to justify a research choice (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). A research thesis makes use of both a data collection process (which can be qualitative or quantitative) and a data analysis process (which can also be qualitative or quantitative) in order to confirm or reject the research 2.1) Hypotheses. One does not exist without the other in isolation, as data which must be collected should be analysed, and data for analysis had to have been collected (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The research choice must utilise either a mono-method (single data collection and analysis process) or multi-method (more than one data collection and analysis process) research choice (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009), a diagram of which can be found in Appendix 6 – Research choices. Curran & Blackburn (2001) highlight the particular need to define and justify this distinction when writing business and management thesis (Curran & Blackburn, 2001). As such, I justify whether this study will require a mono-method or multiple method research choice collection approach.

4.4.1) Mono-method research

Mono-methods of research choice combine either one single quantitative data collection approach with one single quantitative data analysis techniques, or one single qualitative data collection processes with one single qualitative data analysis techniques (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). As we can see in Appendix 6 – Research choices, multiple methods arise in two distinct varieties – multi-method and mixed-methods.

4.4.2) Multi-method research

Multi-method techniques are those in which more than one data collection technique is used, but can only come from a quantitative or qualitative approach (Tashakkori & Teddlie, Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research, 2003). For example, a multi-method research may contain more than one type of qualitative data collection technique (interviews and focus groups, for example), but then the data analysis procedure must also be qualitative in nature. As such, multi-method researches can be qualitative or quantitative, but the two can never be mixed.

A multiple method approach is when a research design combines both qualitative and quantitative data collection or analysis techniques to derive a result (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009), and as we can see from Appendix 6 – Research choices, comes in two varieties – mixed-method research and mixed-model research.

Mixed-method research uses both qualitative and quantitative data collection and data analysis techniques either in parallel or in series, but never at the same time (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Although both data types are utilised, the results exposed by qualitative data collection methods are analysed using qualitative analysis methods, and the results exposed by quantitative data collection methods are analysed using quantitative analysis methods. Mixed-model research allows for the qualification of quantitative data, and the quantification of qualitative data in terms of the applied analysis process (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Saunders et al. (2009) argue the use of the multiple-method approach, as it carries major advantages over mono method research, advocating the usefulness in the flexibility which arises from being able to use both qualitative and quantitative means or collecting and analysing data (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). They support this advantage with an example, suggesting it may be beneficial to first undertake qualitative interviews in order to assess the sense in pursuing a certain aspect of the derived feedback quantitatively.

However, in line with the pragmatic-deductive approach employed by this thesis, and in order to properly address the research 2.1) Hypotheses, this thesis will employ a mono-method research approach, whereby only quantitative data collection and data analysis techniques is allowed, yet the appropriateness of their analysis methods should be respected. The scientific nature of this this thesis will likely lend itself to a situation whereby quantitative data predominates over qualitative data, as per Bryman (2006), but the potential future relevance of

in-depth qualitative data collection methods in establishing consumers' innate feelings during the post-purchase stage should not be overlooked (Bryman, 2006) in future studies.

4.5) Validity and reliability

Validity can be defined as the degree to which “a measurement accomplishes its claims”, and Bloomberg et al. (2001) split the question of validity into two types – internal validity and external validity – each with their own pitfalls or ‘threats’ (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). Saunders et al. (2009) support this definition, but highlight that validity serves as an indicator as to the degree to which the causal relationship between variables is to be trusted (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

4.5.1) Internal validity

Internal validity asks whether drawn conclusions based upon a demonstrated relationship imply cause. Internal validity is at most risk to threats caused by conditions under the researcher's control. Bloomberg et al. (2011) list the following as threats to internal validity – history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, selection, statistical regression and experiment mortality, among others (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011).

4.5.1.1) Historical threats

The research design of this thesis requires the use of a control group, and a test group to whom will be introduced a manipulation. Bloomberg et al. (2011) warn that events can occur between the recording of data of the two groups which subsequently contaminate the data validity (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011).

4.5.1.2) Maturation threats

A participant in an experiment or interview may also change throughout the duration of the study. While this thesis aims to measure the degree of maturation in purchase intentions, it will have to ensure that any possible maturations are regulated and understood in order to preserve validity (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011).

4.5.1.3) Testing threats

Similarly, the effects of testing are pertinent to this thesis. The ‘reveal’ aspect of this thesis may lead to frustration on the side of the participant. While this thesis aims to record and analyse certain feelings related to the research 2.1) Hypotheses, the aim is that all recorded repurchase intentions are due solely to emotions brought about for the right reasons. This thesis will need to ensure that all potential feelings of a change in WTP are due to the ‘reveal’ from a COO perspective, rather than through a sense of participant frustration. In other words, the deceit must be seen to stem from the wine label itself, rather than the data collection process.

4.5.1.4) Instrumentation threats

The threat from instrumentation is concerned with minimising changes in observation practices (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). I aim to use the methods of research and recording for each group, in an effort to maximise instrumentation validity.

4.5.1.5) Selection threats

The selection of control and test group subjects is also a threat to overall validity, as the groups must be equivalent in every respect (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). In this thesis, I will consider the distribution method and any factor affecting the target participant among others to ensure each group can be relied upon to deliver valid results, and thus support the hypotheses. This thesis aims to answer a broadly mass-market issue, so as such it is desirable to receive feedback from a variety of different people, and as such, aspire that the selective validity is preserved by the nature of randomness. This thesis will require a large number of respondents in order to add more weight to selective validity and subsequent analysis (Barrow, 2009). This issue will be dealt with in more detail in 4.6) Data collection and analysis.

4.5.1.6) Statistical regression threats

Statistical regression deals with the concept of random fluctuations over time (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). The threat of statistical regression, similarly with selective validity, advocates the recording of many results, thereby reducing the effect of a single random fluctuation on the overall data and analysis. As previously stated, this thesis will combat the negative effects of statistical regression by recording a large data set.

4.5.1.7) Experiment mortality threats

Validity can be threatened by experiment mortality, that is, a change in the composition of the study group over time (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). This can be an effect of maturation, in that if a respondent wishes to drop out of the study due to a decrease in their willingness to participate this will also affect the dynamic of the remaining group (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). This thesis will conduct surveys on a large number of people making an assumption that each respondent is answering the questionnaire independently and in isolation from the other respondents. As such, this kind of threat to validity ought to be entirely neutralised.

Bloomberg et al. (2011) state that many of the listed threats to validity can be overcome by exploiting the nature of randomness, something this thesis will do by normalising the results using a large data set to improve the validity and representativeness of the conclusions (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011).

4.5.2) External validity

In contrast, external validity focuses on the threats to a study's validity from sources generally considered outside the researcher's control. Bloomberg et al. (2011) define external validity as being "concerned with the interactions of the experimental treatment with other factors and the resulting impact on the ability to generalize

to (and across) times, settings or persons” (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). As with factors affecting internal validity, in order to neutralise or account for factors affecting external validity the researcher must first account for what these factors may be. Bloomberg et al. (2011) attest that these threats can be split into two categories – reactivity and selection (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011).

Threats caused by reactivity are particularly pertinent to this thesis. These factors are concerned with the conditioning of the subjects either prior to testing or prior to analysis, and requires that a ‘before’ measurement be taken (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). The relevance to this thesis is apparent in the testing of the respondent’s level of fairness to evaluate H_4 as a pre-measure before attempting to conclude H_1 through H_3 . As a result, this thesis aims to take a pre-reading of the questionnaire participants before and as part of testing, so it will not seek to neutralise the threat of reactivity, but will instead need to remain aware of other potential contaminators to the data.

Similar to the threat caused by internal validity by selection of control and test groups, that affecting external validity by selection is also concerned with how much the researcher can trust the results based on selection criteria. The external focus is more outward-looking, and is concerned with the degree to which the selection of groups can be said to affect a potential extrapolation of the implications formed in the conclusion stage of the research (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). In other words, the threat to external validity caused by selection is concerned with ensuring the extent to which the results created by the sample population can be generalised and expected of the total population. This thesis will aim to benefit from a large sample set and the nature of randomness in order to neutralise this threat, and increase the external validity in this respect.

4.5.3) Reliability

According to Bloomberg et al. (2011), reliability is “a necessary contributor to validity but is not a sufficient condition for validity”, or in other words, “if a measurement is not valid, it hardly matters whether it is reliable” (Bloomberg, Cooper, & Schindler, 2011). Saunders et al. (2009) add more to the definition, stating that reliability is “the extent to which data collection techniques will yield consistent findings (and to which) similar observations would be made...by other researchers” (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Once again, this thesis will utilise a large sample size and the nature of randomness to ensure the maximum possible reliability of results.

4.6) Data collection and analysis

Based on the above research hypotheses and variable tests, a questionnaire was distributed, and valid responses were received from 296 participants in order to gather sufficient data from which to draw the conclusions needed to accept or reject the hypotheses and offer valid findings. Due to the nature of the hypotheses, it was necessary

to create separate questionnaires – two control questionnaires and one more detailed experiment. The first control would aim to evaluate the likelihood with which the participant would at some point purchase a particular (and wholly fictitious) bottle of Chinese wine, while the second control would aim to assess the WTP of a particular (almost identical, and equally fictitious) bottle of French wine. Finally, an experiment was carried out to assess the participant's WTP of the Chinese bottle of wine, having initially been led to believe the bottle was in fact French. Importantly, the description of the French wine evaluated by the control group was identical to that evaluated by the experiment group before they were informed that the wine was (within the boundaries of EU legislation) utilising loopholes which made the in fact Chinese wine appear to be of French origin. The description of the French wine initially appears to make it very clear that the wine in question is French, but on a subsequent read it is never explicitly stated that the wine is French – instead this is only heavily inferred. Herein lies the deception part of the experiment. It is also important to note that the description of the Chinese wine is *almost identical* to that of the French wine, with the crucial distinction that this description of the wine *does* explicitly state that the wine is of Chinese origin.

In a nod to the anecdotal report outlined in “The Jefferson Bottles”, the wine used in the experiment and French control questionnaires is inferred to be a Bordeaux, as was the fraudulent “trophy wine” bottle in the case. From a plausibility perspective, it was necessary to describe a variety of grape which could in real life be grown both in the Bordeaux region of France as well as in China. Cabernet Sauvignon grapes, deeply associated with Bordeaux wines (Vinepair, 2016), were seen as a perfect candidate as not only has the grape variety been grown in China for centuries, with Ningxia constituting (as used in the wine description for the Chinese control questionnaire) a key region in Chinese wine production (Coonan, 2012). Furthermore, a 1996 DNA test conducted by the UC Davis Department of Viticulture and Ecology traced the origin of Cabernet Sauvignon grapes to the Bordeaux region of France (Clarke, 2001), and the very name “Cabernet Sauvignon” simply sounds traditionally French. All of the above serves to lend credence to the wine's French origin, especially in the absence of being explicitly informed of the origin of the wine in the experiment and French control questionnaires.

The questionnaires used in this study asked respondents to evaluate two different bottles of wine - one French (implicitly), and one Chinese (explicitly). These formed the basis of the two controls. The implicit French wine description was also used in the experiment, in which respondents were asked to evaluate the wine based on the same implicit description as for the French control, before subsequently being informed the wine is actually Chinese, thus forming the critical misdirection of the experiment, making three types of questionnaire in total – two controls and one experiment. The questionnaires were distributed to respondents in public places such as bars and cafés, inside Copenhagen Airport's arrivals terminal, in several workplaces in Copenhagen, among my

personal network (and their network), at a charity fundraising event, and at a volunteer fair. Each type of questionnaire was translated into Danish by a translator, under instruction to keep the translation as faithful as possible to the theme of the questionnaire, most importantly in ensuring implicit and explicit persuasions of the wine’s provenance remain as intended.

The questionnaires were distributed in the following manner:

Name of questionnaire	No. distributed	Wine name/provenance
Experiment	100	Chateau de Chavannes/France (later told wine is Chinese)
French control	99	Chateau de Chavannes/France (implied French, not misled)
Chinese control	97	Yellow River/Chinese (explicitly Chinese)

All three types of questionnaire used in this study show three images – an image of the label of the wine in question, an image of the bottle, complete with label, and finally an image of the blurb on the reverse of the bottle. All three images were fabricated for the use of this study, and bear no intentional resemblance to an existing real bottle of wine or label.

In accordance with the 3.6.1) EU wine-labelling regulations detailed above, the label image depicts the vintage year of the wine, the nominal volume, and the wine’s ABV, grape variety and the name of the grower for all three types of questionnaire used in this study, as well as featuring the name of the wine and an image of a crest. The nominal volume, crest image, grape variety, vintage and ABV were identical for all three types of questionnaire used in this study.

The name of the wine was chosen in keeping with the wine’s intended provenance image. Yellow River was chosen as the name of the Chinese control wine, as it is a purely geographical reference of where the wine is described as originating. Chateau de Chavannes was chosen as the name of the French wine, due to its French sound and origin, and is specifically named after the street on which I resided while living in Paris. Pierre Puvis de Chavannes was a French artist and painter in the 19th century (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2016), and the “chateau” reference is purely in keeping with common wine labelling convention (311 of the 7610 French wines found on one list were named after a “chateau” or several “chateaux”) (Wine-searcher, n.d.).

As with the wine’s name, the name of the producer was tailored to fit the wine’s provenance. “M.Lim”, a typically Chinese name, was chosen as the producer of “Yellow River”, while “S.Valadon” (the name of a model, artist, and former lover of Puvis de Chavannes (Carwin, 2015)) was chosen as the name of the producer of “Chateau de Chavannes”, the French wine.

The crest used on both wine descriptions was identical, and is based on (one of several) crests attributed to the Chavanne or Chavannes family (Geoghegan, 2009).

The questionnaire also detailed the blurb (promotional description) of the two types of wine. Again, the French control and experiment descriptions of the wine were identical. The blurb is fabricated, but based on several real-world examples. Importantly, only the name of the wine is different in the two blurbs, which are otherwise identical.

Finally, the respondent is informed that the bottle's nominal volume is 750ml (an industry standard), and the price is £20 sterling or 200 Danish kroner (DKK). The price was chosen to be contentious, as this is roughly the price of the most expensive bottle of red wine a Danish (or British) supermarket is likely to sell at the time of writing.

Examples of the three questionnaires can be found in their entirety in Appendices Appendix 9A – Experiment questionnaire, Appendix 9B – French control questionnaire, and Appendix 9C – Chinese control questionnaire.

4.7) Sampling

In order that generalisations can be made, and thus increasing the reliability of any managerial implications made, the sample size needs to be based on statistical probability, with larger sample sizes lowering the degree of error in the findings (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Sample size is determined by the confidence required in the data and the degree to which it represents the entire population, the tolerable margin of error, the specificities of data subdivision, and the size of the population as a whole (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

As has already been explained, I have made use of questionnaires as my primary means of collating the data necessary to sufficiently accept or reject the research 2.1) Hypotheses. However, the aim of the thesis is to offer a generalised and extrapolated commentary on the effects of perceived fairness, likelihood to seek revenge, and pro-French affinity on WTP relevant for use on an entire population. A questionnaire covering everyone in the target population would be impractical, costly, and time-exhaustive (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

Inversely, a smaller sample size would be more time-efficient and less costly, but would likely lead to less reliable and less valid results (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). This questionnaire aimed to sample a sufficiently large number of respondents to so as to be reliable and proportional of the population as a whole, yet small enough to be manageable within the scope of this study. 100 respondents for each of the three questionnaire types was the target, and while this exact number was not reached (100:99:97 responses were received in the experiment, French control and Chinese control questionnaire respectively), it is sufficiently close from which to draw firm conclusions of statistical significance. 100 was deemed an appropriate sample

number, as it is sufficient to satisfactorily nullify threats associated with validity and provide reliable results, while fulfilling the time constraints of the thesis, and posing as few logistical and financial hurdles as possible.

5) LIMITATIONS

During the data collection phase of the project, it became apparent that there were several areas in which the thesis questionnaire could have been better designed, and as such the validity of the results obtained was not, perhaps, as high as originally intended.

Firstly, and due to the scope of the study, it was a challenge to obtain a sufficient number of questionnaire responses from solely within Denmark while still adhering to the time frame of the project. Thus, respondents were sought outside of Denmark in order to ensure that a reliable number of responses was achieved, albeit somewhat to the detriment of the validity of the results. The questionnaire did not distinguish between, for example, a British person living in Denmark and a British person living in the United Kingdom, so the results show the nationality of the respondent, rather than their country of residence. It is not possible, with the limited amount of data collated, to draw a conclusion over which is more important a factor in the area of willingness to purchase under the given experiment conditions – the nationality of the respondent or their country of residence. The decision to record the respondents' nationality rather than their country of residence does, unfortunately, mean that there is an insufficient number of Danish respondents (122) to use this study as a reliable barometer of the Danish wine market, as the responses of these 121 Danish respondents are broken up over the experiment, Chinese control and French control questionnaires in a 31:37:54 ratio. However, I believe that a large enough proportion of the respondents do in fact reside in Denmark to lend weight to a more precise study within the parameters of this particular study – that is, the conclusions arrived to in terms of hypothesis-confirmation (and otherwise) should still offer a reasonable guiderail in designing future studies. Copenhagen (where the thesis was written), as with many capital cities, is a multicultural residence and meeting point of people of many nationalities (University of Copenhagen, 2011), and while to have respondents of 28 nationalities (as in this study) would by no means be unlikely in a subsequent similar study, you would expect more than 41% of the respondents to a study conducted in Denmark to be Danish. Additionally, a large amount of the data collection process occurred in locations which are particularly open to both Danes and non-Danes alike, such as Copenhagen Airport's arrivals terminal, Copenhagen Business School, and (in particular) among the employees of a large multinational intergovernmental organisation based in Copenhagen. It is likely that while there is little guarantee of the country of residence of all questionnaire respondents, those employed in Copenhagen and frequenting Copenhagen Business School are most likely resident in Copenhagen. That said, the limited information over the country of residence of the participants does offer, perhaps, a more overarching,

international validity to the results and conclusions derived, and still provides ample base from which to plan future studies.

Secondly, around 7% of the 199 questionnaire respondents who believed the wine to be French (some only initially), and 20% of the 97 respondents who believed the wine to be Chinese all along stated that they were “not at all” likely to purchase the bottle of wine in question at some point. The reasons for such an evaluation of the wine are numerous, and this causes a problem when it comes to the validity of the results. What the questionnaire did not ask was the regularity with which the respondent consumes alcohol at all, or in other words, the likelihood that they would buy any bottle of wine. A respondent who, for whatever reason, does not drink alcohol under any circumstance (and thus states they are “not at all” likely to purchase the wine in question) shows up just the same in the results as a respondent who regularly purchases wine but was not at all likely to buy this particular bottle of wine, for whatever reason. From a marketing perspective these are two very different people! One consumer can be appealed to, while the other cannot, and as such by appearing the same in the results this oversight on my part causes a lower than anticipated degree of validity, and as such this area would be an interesting avenue for further investigation.

Similar to the above, the price of the wine can cause irregularities in the results. As previously outlined, the price of the wine was chosen to be contentious. Supermarkets in Denmark and the United Kingdom usually stock wine valued between £4 (40 DKK) and £20 (200 DKK) (Tesco, 2016) (Foetex.dk, 2016). Neither Foetex (a part of Denmark’s largest supermarket conglomerate, Dansk Supermarked Group) nor Tesco (the United Kingdom’s largest supermarket (Tesco UK, 2016)) stock Chinese wine (Foetex.dk, 2016) (Tesco, 2016). This point was chosen to ensure, in my opinion, that respondents neither believed the product to be a luxury wine of exceptional quality (otherwise it would be significantly more expensive), nor a low quality bottle of wine cheap enough that most consumers would take a gamble just to see what the wine in question would be like (otherwise it would have been significantly cheaper). However, this particular issue is entirely ironed out in that the wine was the same price for all respondents regardless of whether the wine was French or Chinese, and as such this particular comparison and confirmed hypothesis still holds firm. What is a little difficult to ascertain, given the extension of the questionnaire to a non-recorded number of respondents outside of the Danish market is the overall perception of the price chosen. Naturally, it is to be expected (and was intended) that one consumer may respond very differently to another when it comes to the issue of evaluating the likelihood that the consumer would purchase a bottle of wine set at this particular price. However, what was overlooked is the possibility that while the average Danish consumer may very well look upon the price of 200 DKK as being relatively expensive for this bottle of wine (particularly when choosing a bottle they have never heard of, or from a country whose wine they have never tried before) that the average consumer from a different country may look upon this price as

being either totally extortionate and in no way in sync with the normal market price for such a wine, or actually relatively inexpensive, depending mostly on macroeconomic or political factors. One particular example of this is highlighted when one considers that around 8% of the respondents are Norwegian. Again, we cannot tell from the results how many of these are resident in Copenhagen. In Norway, the sale of the bottle of wine in question would only be permitted through government-controlled stores (Vinmonopol). This situation, plus the macroeconomic effects of Norway being a generally more expensive country than most when it comes to the purchasing of many consumer goods, means that a Norwegian resident in Norway may view this bottle of wine as being significantly better value at the given price than a Norwegian resident of Copenhagen, where wine is generally cheaper. A study of 21 75cl bottles of similar French Cabernet Sauvignon or Bordeaux in Danish supermarkets versus 457 similar bottles sold via Norway's Vinmonopol revealed that the average price per bottle was 136 DKK and 485 DKK for Denmark and Norway respectively (see Appendix 8 – Study of 75cl Bordeaux/French Cabernet Sauvignon prices in Denmark and Norway). Alternatively, 18% of the bottles similar to that utilised in this study were 199 DKK or above in Danish supermarkets, versus 80% through the Norwegian state-owned stores (see Appendix 8 – Study of 75cl Bordeaux/French Cabernet Sauvignon prices in Denmark and Norway). 199 DKK was chosen as the parameter of this particular to allow for a degree of psychological pricing, as the bottle of wine evaluated in this study's questionnaire, the respondent was informed, retails at 200 DKK, and after a 1997 Marketing Bulletin report found that around 87% of retail prices utilised a degree of psychological pricing (Holdershaw, Gendall, & Garland, 1997). The effect of this difference cannot be known from the results obtained in this thesis, although it is worth stressing again that the price was always the same for all bottles of wine in the study. What is not certain is the individual respondent's attitude to "taking a gamble" on an unknown bottle of wine because of the price alone. This thesis focuses on the effects of misdirection in medium-high-priced supermarket wines, and as such an investigation into the effects of misdirection at other perceived price points would constitute interesting ground for future research.

The questionnaire also depicts an image of the wine, complete with the relevant label. This image was simply an open-source, freely available image of a red wine bottle, doctored to show the label. However, despite inferring the wine to be a Bordeaux two questionnaire respondents pointed out that the bottle shape was not correct for a Bordeaux. Subsequent research has shown the respondents to be correct, as the bottle image used more closely resembles that of a Burgundy wine (Kissack, 2011). I do not believe this oversight will have affected the results to too severe a degree, although it may have possibly dissuaded the respondents in question from purchasing the wine to some degree.

As is often the problem with questionnaires of this type, asking respondents to evaluate the likelihood they would at some time purchase the given bottle of wine, or the degree to which they (in broader terms) show an

affinity for France or French products, demonstrate a propensity for vengeance, or envisage themselves as morally right, it is almost impossible to determine the veracity of their answers, due to issues with internal and external validity. It is entirely possible that when completing the questionnaire used in this study, the respondent provided answers which serve to portray an idealised version of themselves. There is no way employed by this study to determine whether this is the case for any individual respondent, or the respondents as a group, so the results will have to be regarded as a true representation of the feelings held by the respondent, and the conclusions understood to have been derived knowing the possibility for wishing to record an idealised version of the respondent. An interesting area of future study would be to roll out a real-world version of H_1 , that is, to 'bring to market' a sufficient number (likely several thousand) bottles of wine, half French, half Chinese, identical in all ways but provenance, and compare the sales results with those indicated in the data collated by this thesis. While considerably out of the scope of this study, or most, it remains still a more failsafe measure by which to determine the actual behavioural habits of consumers against those evidenced in this thesis.

Finally, as the data collection phase continued, it became apparent that the WTP evaluation for both the French pre-reveal and control wines resembled a normal distribution curve, with one major distinction. When it came to those who had rated their likelihood to purchase the French wine, both distributions showed a heavy indentation around the middle of the curve, effectively resulting in a two-peaked distribution curve. Around 24% of all 199 respondents who provided a rating of the likelihood of them purchasing the French wine gave a "3" on the 7-point scale, and around 23% gave this likelihood a rating of "5". Only 15% rated this same likelihood a "4" on the scale. I believe this is due to the scale determining the middle score of the 7-point scale (in this case a "4") to be equivalent to "don't know", when in fact it is entirely possible that a middle score could mean something other than the respondent cannot decide whether they would purchase the wine in the future. It is possible to be very informed about wine yet still be unsure, just as it is possible to have very little experience in purchasing wine and still give the same evaluation. It is also possible that respondents would rather not answer "don't know" which would skew the results one way or another around the 4-grade, as can be seen in the results. The above particularly represents part of the learning process I, as a student and thesis author, have experienced and learned from. For the purpose of investigating the repeatability of this study, it would be interesting to see the study conducted again both with and without "4" on the 7-point Likert type scale.

In a broader sense, and as such somewhat less-related to this particular study, Verlegh (2001) states that, as part of attitude theory, a consumer's affinity towards goods and services from a particular country can be based on a history of normative political, economic and historical cooperation between the countries concerned, as well as (among others) the idiosyncratic and normative drivers discussed and utilised in this study (Verlegh, 2001). While possibly affecting the (largely Danish) respondents' WTP in this study it is impossible to judge the

degree, if any, to which this factor has impacted the findings of this thesis. However, a study of normative cooperation between both Denmark and China and Denmark and France would offer the framework for conducting this study again in light of new information.

6) RESULTS

6.1) Test for H_1

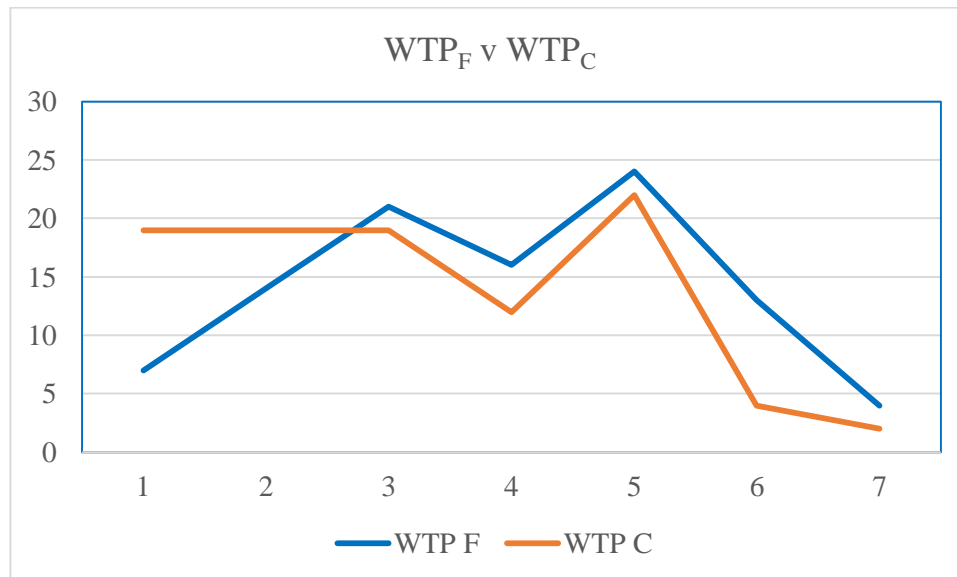
$H_1: WTP_F > WTP_C$

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
WTP _F	99	3.92	1.602	.161
WTP _C	97	3.20	1.643	.167

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
WTP _F	24.349	98	.000	3.919	3.60	4.24
WTP _C	19.153	96	.000	3.196	2.86	3.53



6.2) Test for H₂

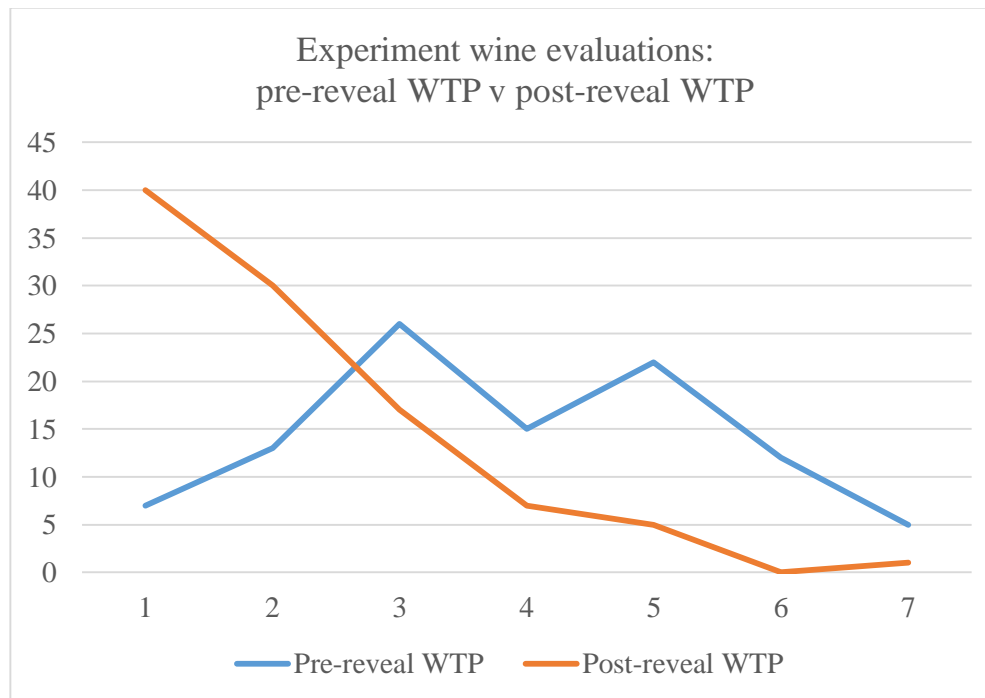
H₂: WTP_F > WTP_{F→C}

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
WTP _F	99	3.92	1.602	.161
WTP _{F→C}	100	2.11	1.246	.125

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
WTP _F	24.349	98	.000	3.919	3.60	4.24
WTP _{F→C}	16.929	99	.000	2.110	1.86	2.36



6.3) Test for H₃

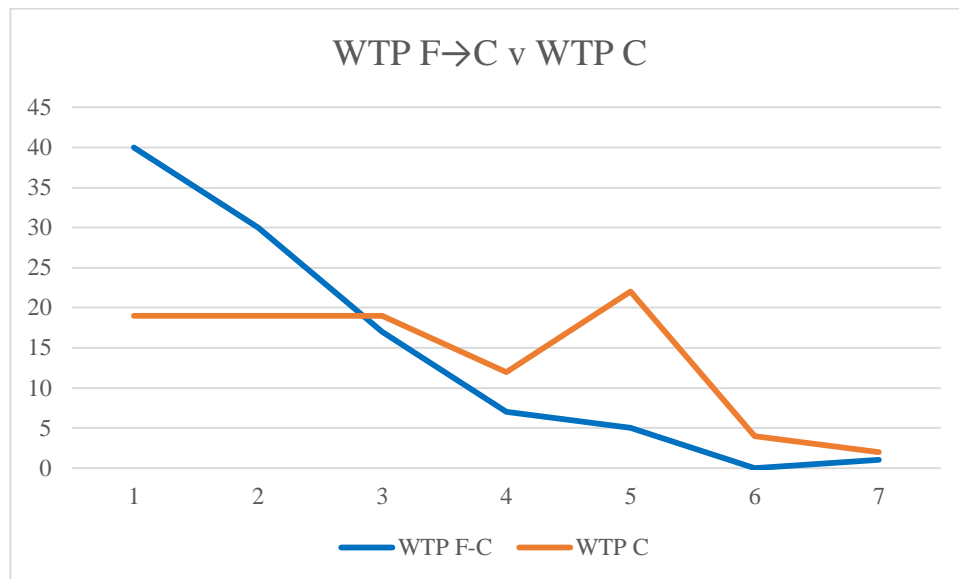
H₃: WTP_(C) > WTP_(F→C)

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
WTP _C	97	3.20	1.643	.167
WTP _{F→C}	100	2.11	1.246	.125

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
WTP _C	19.153	96	.000	3.196	2.86	3.53
WTP _{F→C}	16.929	99	.000	2.110	1.86	2.36



6.4) Test for H₄

H₄ deals with the effects of the three chosen drivers, and as such the hypotheses that:

H_{4A}: a higher degree of pro-French affinity will result in a higher degree of post-reveal downgrading of the initial WTP evaluation

H_{4B}: a higher likelihood to seek vengeance will result in a higher degree of post-reveal downgrading of the initial WTP evaluation

H_{4C}: a lower degree of morality will result in a higher degree of post-reveal downgrading of the initial WTP evaluation

6.4.1) Test for H_{4A}

H_{4A}: Higher pro-French Affinity > higher post-reveal Δ

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Mean overall pro-French affinity	100	4.9658824	.69702203	.06970220

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Mean overall pro-French affinity	71.244	99	.000	4.96588235	4.8275781	5.1041866

Mean of WTP evaluations, categorised by whether the respondent has lived in or visited France:

	Lived in France²		Visited France³	
	Yes⁴	No⁵	Yes⁶	No⁷
Pre-reveal WTP	4.41 ⁸	3.77 ⁹	3.86 ¹⁰	4.13 ¹¹
Post-reveal WTP	1.65 ¹²	2.20 ¹³	2.10 ¹⁴	2.25 ¹⁵
Δ	-2.76 ¹⁶	-1.57 ¹⁷	-1.76 ¹⁸	-1.88 ¹⁹

² Sig. (2-tailed) =.000

³ Sig. (2-tailed) =.000 (excl. Δ)

⁴ N=17

⁵ N=83

⁶ N=92

⁷ N=8

⁸ 95% confidence interval lower=3.78, upper=5.04

⁹ 95% confidence interval lower=3.41, upper=4.13

¹⁰ 95% confidence interval lower=3.53, upper=4.19

¹¹ 95% confidence interval lower=2.61, upper=5.64

¹² 95% confidence interval lower=1.29, upper=2.01

¹³ 95% confidence interval lower=1.92, upper=2.49

¹⁴ 95% confidence interval lower=1.84, upper=2.36

¹⁵ 95% confidence interval lower=1.38, upper=3.12

¹⁶ 95% confidence interval lower=-3.43, upper=-2.10

¹⁷ 95% confidence interval lower=-1.94, upper=-1.19

¹⁸ 95% confidence interval lower=-2.11, upper=-1.41

¹⁹ Sig. (2-tailed) = .030, 95% confidence interval lower=-3.51, upper=-.24

Correlation coefficients (β) of affinity macro-driver statements with WTP Δ and pre-reveal WTP, sorted by WTP Δ correlation coefficient. In each instance, WTP Δ /pre-reveal is the dependent variable, while the predictor is the individual statement:

Statement	WTP Δ (β)	Pre-reveal WTP (β)	Macro-driver	Affinity type
French culture, history, and customs are interesting	-.296	.284	Culture	Normative
The French climate was/would be a good motivator in deciding to move to France	-.260	.193	Stay abroad	Idiosyncratic
French cuisine and drink is good	-.247	.350	Lifestyle	Normative
I hold/have previously held a French person in high regard	-.218	.143	Contact	Idiosyncratic
French culture is a significant part of why I have/would like to visit France	-.215	.189	Culture	Normative
I have many friends or relatives from or living in France	-.189	.115	Contact	Idiosyncratic
France is a good country for taking a relaxing holiday	-.184	.234	Travel	Idiosyncratic
A visit to France has/would probably reinforce my positive feelings of France	-.147	.296	Travel	Idiosyncratic
French scenery contributes to their wellbeing	-.142	.150	Scenery	Normative
French scenery is diverse	-.132	.166	Scenery	Normative
French people stick to their traditions	-.130	.168	Culture	Normative
The French climate would/has persuaded me to visit France	-.126	.091	Travel	Idiosyncratic
I like the French language	-.097	.151	Lifestyle	Normative
The French are friendly, helpful people	.088	.064	Lifestyle	Normative
I usually agree with the French politically	.059	.067	Politics & economics	Normative
French people are less stressed	.036	.048	Lifestyle	Normative
Living in France has/would probably reinforce my positive feelings of France	.009	.059	Stay abroad	Idiosyncratic
Overall average degree of French affinity	-.268²⁰	.306²¹	N/A	N/A

²⁰ Sig. (2-tailed) = .007

²¹ Sig. (2-tailed) = .002

6.4.2) Test for H_{4B}

H_{4B}: Higher likelihood to seek vengeance > higher post-reveal Δ

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Overall likelihood to seek revenge	100	2.9720	.74061	.07406

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Overall likelihood to seek revenge	40.129	99	.000	2.97200	2.8250	3.1190

Agreement of vengeance-driver statements with WTP Δ , sorted by correlation coefficient. In each instance, WTP Δ is the dependent variable, while the predicator is the individual statement.

Statement	β
I participate in activities which may considered dangerous or reckless	-.198
I frequently start conversations with others	.177
I have little concern over the effect of my actions	-.144
I often fail to consider the consequence of my actions	-.131
I do things my own way, even if it may sometimes get me in trouble	-.129
I often reflect on old grudges	.104
I am sometimes willing to do things most people would consider wrong	-.087
I will usually try to get even when wronged	-.065
I will usually try to do what is right	-.027
I often find it hard to forgive when wronged by others	.015
Overall likelihood to seek revenge²²	-.096

²² Sig. (2-tailed) = .342

6.4.3) Test for H_{4c}

H_{4c}: Lower degree of fairness > higher post-reveal Δ

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FairnessAVG	100	5.5216667	.68191937	.06819194

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
FairnessAVG	80.972	99	.000	5.52166667	5.3863591	5.6569743

Agreement of fairness-driver statements with WTP Δ , sorted by correlation coefficient. In each instance, WTP Δ is the dependent variable, while the predicator is the individual statement.

Statement	β
I participate in activities which may considered dangerous or reckless ²³	.184
I frequently start conversations with others ²⁴	.089
I have little concern over the effect of my actions ²⁵	-.056
I often fail to consider the consequence of my actions ²⁶	-.028
I do things my own way, even if it may sometimes get me in trouble ²⁷	.024
I often reflect on old grudges ²⁸	.007
Overall degree of fairness²⁹	.042

Reward allocation across the three different questionnaire types:

	Experiment	French control	Chinese control
% respondents who allocated reward to themselves	61%	36.67%	36.84%

²³ Sig. (2-tailed) = .067

²⁴ Sig. (2-tailed) = .379

²⁵ Sig. (2-tailed) = .581

²⁶ Sig. (2-tailed) = .784

²⁷ Sig. (2-tailed) = .831

²⁸ Sig. (2-tailed) = .946

²⁹ Sig. (2-tailed) = .677

7) ANALYSIS

H₁, that consumers have a greater willingness to purchase a wine described as being French than a wine that is Chinese, can be accepted as $p < .001$. Therefore, under the same set of circumstances, people are more willing to purchase a wine which outwardly appears French than an identical wine which appears outwardly to be Chinese.

H₂, that consumers have a greater willingness to purchase a wine described as being French than an otherwise identical wine which was initially thought to be French, but is later revealed to be Chinese, can be accepted as $p < .001$. From this, it is evident that there is a large difference in the ratings between the purchase evaluations of the two wines, as the mean of the two WTP scores are quite different.

The previous hypotheses tests were able to conclude that respondents were more willing to purchase a bottle of French wine than a Chinese wine, as well as a wine they initially believed to be French but were then later told it was Chinese. H₃ is a test to determine whether, if at all, respondents reacted to being misled when the final result in both cases was an evaluation of a Chinese bottle of wine. H₃ compares the WTP of the bottle respondents knew was Chinese all along versus that of the Chinese bottle the respondents initially believed to be French.

From the results, this study can accept H₃, as $p < .001$, meaning therefore that respondents reacted negatively to the misdirection, or in other words they would have been considerably more likely to purchase a bottle of wine they knew to be Chinese all along, compared with a bottle of Chinese wine which initially appeared outwardly to be French.

The results of H_{4A} show statistically significant relationships between the overall mean degree of pro-French affinity with both WTP Δ , and the pre-reveal WTP, as $p > .1$ and $p > .005$ respectively. H_{4A} is therefore accepted.

8) DISCUSSION

H₁ hypothesised that people would be more willing to purchase a wine that is French compared with an identical wine that is Chinese. As the hypothesis was accepted, this can be said to be true. I believe the reasons for this to be several-fold. In the following, I'd like to point out some of the factors that may have affected the answers, and I'd like to question whether or not this has had an important impact of the outcome.

Firstly, it is possible that the price of the Chinese wine (identical to that of the French wine in this study) needs to be more in line with the perceived quality of a Chinese wine rather than the wine's actual quality. That is, people may have been willing to give the wine a better evaluation of WTP than the French wine if the Chinese wine had been cheaper. As this hypothesis was tested using only the two control questionnaires, the issue of comparing a wine from France with one from China was never directly raised.

It may instead be that the respondents are buying into a positive connotation of French wine due to aspects of their intended perceived self-image. A part of the reason for the French wine being rated higher than the Chinese wine could be that the respondent is visualising themselves being assessed by their peers as a result of the wine choice they have made. Part of human nature is to avoid uncertainty. As such, the respondent may perceive a French wine as a more certain choice in terms of gaining their peers' acceptance, and the respondent may even be envisaging a moment when this assessment would take place. An example could be a dinner party, to which it is expected that all guests arrive with a bottle of wine. The respondent may feel more comfortable explaining to his fellow guests or the hosts why they brought a bottle of French wine over a bottle of Chinese wine. The above area of self-image would be a very interesting area for future studies, particularly those of a qualitative nature.

From the results, it is not possible to determine whether any of the participants *would have* been more willing to purchase the Chinese wine than the French wine, so this in itself could constitute a future study area. It is possible that some participants, had they been offered the choice, may have been more willing to purchase a Chinese wine on the grounds that it is a little interesting, and they would be curious to try a wine from China (based on an assumption that most people who are willing to purchase wine have likely already purchased a French wine).

Regarding H₂, it was also possible to accept that people are more willing to purchase a French wine than one they initially believed to be French but were later informed was actually a Chinese wine. Although this may appear to be merely an extension of H₁, it also serves to show that the participants were not happy to have been misled over the wine's COO. To reiterate the point made under the discussion of the above hypothesis, it is not possible to conclude how many of those who stated their WTP of the Chinese wine would have rated it higher than the French wine from the results of the Chinese or French control experiments alone. What H₂ shows, however, is that when faced with a chance to directly compare what they thought they were purchasing with what they were actually purchasing, the vast majority responded negatively. The results show that of 100 respondents to the experiment questionnaire, five responded positively to the misdirection (were pleasantly surprised with the wine being Chinese rather than French), 18 did not change their WTP evaluation (so displayed a neutral reaction when prompted), and 77 lowered their WTP evaluation.

The intention behind H₃ was to investigate the WTP of two bottles of Chinese wine, identical apart from the crucial fact that one test group had known the wine to have been Chinese all along, while the second only found out the wine was Chinese after initially believing the wine to be French. If the control questionnaire wine's WTP had been found to equal to that of the experiment questionnaire wine's WTP, we would be able to conclude that consumers are not at all affected by the misdirection, and that they are capable of pragmatically seeing like for

like. Had the control questionnaire wine's WTP been lower than the experiment questionnaire wine's WTP, it would be possible to conclude that the initial belief that the wine was French had positively manipulated the consumers' perceptions of a subsequent bottle of Chinese wine. This study, however, was able to accept H₃ in that consumers' WTP of the control wine was significantly higher than that of the experiment wine after the misdirection, that is, consumers were less willing to buy a bottle of Chinese wine after being misled than if they had been informed of its true origin all along. This study into the misalignment of perception versus eventual reality could be explored further with a blind taste test conducted in a similar fashion. If the same result was achieved it would be possible to conclude that consumers respond extremely negatively to being misled. However, it is also possible that the opposite result might appear, in which case perhaps consumers had decided that actually the wine tastes quite good for a Chinese wine, in which case their curiosity had been triggered. The latter scenario would go against H₂ and H₃ in this study, but would be a relevant study into the difference between real-world drivers (taste, smell, touch) and those based on internalised drivers (normatively- and idiosyncratically-driven ideas of one's self).

H₄ deals with the relative importance of the three chosen drivers (pro-French affinity, likelihood to seek vengeance, and perception of morality) on the WTP decision.

H_{4A} suggests that consumers with a more positive image of France and French products were more negatively affected when they were deceived by the wine's country of origin in terms of their WTP evaluation. This evidently turned out to be the case, and as such the hypothesis is accepted. There is a near statistical significance ($p=.007$) and a moderately strong negative correlation of .286. The reason for this may be that by buying a French wine, the consumer is effectively buying into the image or story behind the wine based on their previous experiences with French products or wines specifically. Neither the French control questionnaire nor the French-sounding wine used in the experiment questionnaire explicitly stated that the wine was French. Despite this, the gap between what the respondent wanted to read and what the respondent actually read seems to have been bridged. It is possible that the respondent, on their way to associating the wine used in the French control questionnaire or in the initial part of the experiment questionnaire is being led to create linkages that simply are not there due largely to the familiarity of a French wine being a good wine, or to put it another way, the gaps between what the respondent actually read and wants to read is being filled by a positive experience with or connotation of French wine.

Ayrosa (2000) categorised COO as an extrinsic source of information cues rather than an intrinsic one. However, Oberecker et al. (2008) states that idiosyncratic drivers (rather than normative ones) have the greatest influence on affinity. There is an obvious degree of similarity between an intrinsic source of information cue and an

idiosyncratic driver of affinity, so these two assertions appear to be conflicting. From the results of this study, we can see that of the affinity statements, it was the idiosyncratic drivers which have overall the greatest correlation with WTP Δ . As a result, this study agrees with Oberecker et al. (2008) in that the drivers of affinity appear to be intrinsically-linked. The statement with the greatest correlation to a downgrading of WTP evaluation was that French culture, history, and customs are interesting ($\beta = -.296$). Those who agreed with the previous statement (despite its normative roots) were the most likely to downgrade their evaluation of the wine when learning it was Chinese rather than French. In general, those who held positive images of France in terms of travel, culture, personal contacts and living in France were the most negatively affected by the misdirection.

In connection to the above assertions on idiosyncratic drivers having the most influence, the WTP evaluations of experiment questionnaire participants who had either lived or visited France was compared with those who had not. From the results, we can see that those who lived in France attributed the highest mean WTP evaluation to the pre-reveal wine (4.41), compared with 3.77 for those who had not lived in France. This is in line with Oberecker et al.'s (2008) observation that idiosyncratic drivers have the most affect, and as such could be linked to H_{4A}. The post-reveal WTP evaluation shows that those who had lived in France responded far more negatively to the misdirection, attributing a post-reveal equity of 1.65 on the now-revealed Chinese wine, compared with 2.20 among those who had not lived in France. Of those who had visited France, interestingly, their pre-reveal evaluation was actually *lower* than that of the small group who had not visited France (3.86 vs. 4.13 respectively). The group who had not visited France actually downgraded their post-reveal WTP evaluation ($\Delta = -1.88$) marginally more than those who had visited France ($\Delta = -1.76$).

H_{4B} asserts that those who were more likely to seek revenge were more negatively affected when they were deceived by the experiment questionnaire wine's country of origin. While this study was able to support that there is both an effect of being misled, as well as a COO impact, and that country-specific affinity is a driver of motivations to downgrade a product's equity in light of this misdirection, what it was not able to do was to prove that the downgrading of the wine's equity was a product of vengefulness. This study is not able to accept this hypothesis, as the significance ($p = .342$) and correlation coefficient ($\beta = -.096$) of the calculated mean rating of the respondent's likelihood to seek vengeance are too low from which to draw a conclusion when vengefulness is aggregated across all statements. However, several of the individual statements do indicate that there may be a relation between WTP Δ and revenge. There is evidence of a minor degree of correlation between respondents who have little concern over the effect of their actions, who participate in dangerous or reckless activities, and those who frequently start conversation with others. It appears that those who are less interested in their own reputation and safety are more likely to react negatively to consumer misdirection. Interestingly, despite a

definition of revenge being concerned with seeking to redress a balance, the statement “I will usually try to get even when wronged” had only a small negative correlation with WTP Δ ($\beta = -.065$).

Additionally, from a revenge-self-image perspective, it is interesting to consider how many consumers choose to communicate a grievance with a producer in an open channel, given that it is very often more appropriate to solve the issue privately. Other studies have shown that consumers are today more likely to take to the internet to air a grievance, and this may be because they have a need to protect themselves or a group, or they may feel themselves peer-reviewed. This demonstrates that there is also an attached importance to the visibility of being seen to complain, and that by unnecessarily doing this could be construed as visible vengeance in some cases, as a visible warning to others considering using or purchasing the product. It might well be argued that when a consumer downgrades a product in their estimations, they are taking personal revenge against the product, and by making this information transaction public they are seeking some kind of peer acceptance in knowing they have attempted to redress the perceived imbalance. The visible need to seek vengeance may come from either a personal or social perception of the consumer, David, taking on the producer, Goliath, regardless of whether that is really a fair way of looking at the situation. Such speculation would require further research to determine, but it could offer an interesting insight into consumer revenge as a concept.

The final hypothesis, H_{4C}, was rejected, showing that there is little-to-no correlation between a consumer’s perceived degree of fairness and whether or not they reacted more negatively when they were deceived by the wine’s country of origin. All participants in the experiment questionnaire were asked six questions based on Batson et al.’s 2002 study, and a mean average “fairness score” was calculable for each respondent. This fairness score did not correlate strongly with WTP Δ ($\beta = .42$). However, in line with H_{4B}, while the aggregated fairness score showed little correlation with WTP Δ , one particular statement stood out in having at least a weak correlation ($\beta = .184$), concerning how highly the respondent rated their concern for their own welfare. The earlier part of the experiment questionnaire related to the allocation of a reward, in this case whose name would be on a gift card. 61% of the respondents of the experiment questionnaire (those who had, by the time of asking, been misled) allocated the gift card to themselves. As H₃ is accepted, it is possible that the wine was downgraded in terms of its equity to consumers as they were looking out for their own welfare. Despite the high proportion of respondent’s looking out for their own welfare in terms of their rewards allocation, the overwhelming majority of the respondents, when asked questions both on the subject of their general perceived fairness or morality and their perceived fairness or morality specifically regarding the means by which they had allocated the reward, judged their degree of morality to be very high. If (as the survey insinuated) we take a rating of “4” on the 7-point Likert-type scale to be indicative of either “neither moral or immoral” or “amoral”, then every single one of the 100 respondents categorised themselves as somewhere between “4” and “fair” or “moral”. Because of this,

the concept of investigating the responses of those who displayed lower fairness is severely skewed, which in turn contributed to a lack of correlation between the respondent's perceived level of fairness and WTP Δ . It is evident that consumers will respond negatively to being misled. However, it is interesting, given the degree to which those who were misled allocated the reward to themselves, and the high overall average fairness scores, that consumers still believed, overwhelmingly, that they had acted fairly. This indicates, perhaps, that as the product has been deemed misleading, to downgrade it is justified, and requires, therefore, little or no calling into question one's morality or fairness for making neither that decision, nor the one to allocate the reward to themselves.

In the initial stages of data collection, all respondents to each type of questionnaire were asked the questions relating to the three H₄ drivers. However, in line with the hypotheses of this study, it was not necessary to ask those answering the control questionnaires questions surrounding their French affinity, likelihood to seek vengeance or perceived fairness or morality, as these control questionnaire respondents had not experienced the misdirection relating to H_{4C}. As a result, 38 and 60 respondents were asked to assess their degree of morality when answering the Chinese and French control questionnaires respectively. Although this sample size is hardly sufficient from which to draw conclusions, I mention it here because the result of the reward allocation (61% in the experiment questionnaire) was only 37% in both the Chinese and French control questionnaires, despite all three sets of respondents displaying near identical results in terms of each set's mean perceived fairness or morality. In effect, this essentially shows that those who were misled were 61% more likely to reward themselves than those who were not. The reason for this may relate to the idea of those taking vengeance doing so to redress a perceived imbalance or injustice. In this situation, having being made aware of the injustice, the majority of respondents in the experiment questionnaire perhaps sought to lower their personal exposure by ensuring they were on the receiving end of a reward. On the other hand, it may be that, and this whole area is an interesting one for future study, in general the respondent truly believed this to be a "fair" allocation of the reward, as the other person (the other reward allocation option) did not have to endure the injustice.

One thing does seem to be apparent regarding the fairness/morality results, and that is that it seems unlikely (given how fair or moral the participants believed themselves to be) that they would call their own fairness or morality into question. The aim of this study was to deliberately force injustice onto the experiment questionnaire participants, who, perhaps rightly, decided (as per H₂) that this injustice needed to be punished and the balance redressed. The study took a product and showed it to be misleading, but never went as far as to say whether it was the fictitious wine producer's intention to mislead. It seems that either the consumers mostly presumed the intention was to mislead, or that the intention was irrelevant next to the result.

9) MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

As H_1 has shown, people are more willing to purchase a French wine compared with an identical wine that is Chinese in provenance. However, particularly with reference to the confrontational price point, the evaluation of the Chinese wine was sufficiently close to that of the French wine to suggest that there may be a retail market opportunity for it above what is currently available, given that neither the largest retailer in the United Kingdom nor Denmark appear to stock Chinese wine.

As a result of H_1 being accepted, it is advised that retailers interested in selling Chinese wine should not aim to compete directly with French wines on the market, but consider selling at a lower price to pique the interest of the consumer. The lower number of participants prepared to pay 200 DKK for the Chinese wine indicates that rather than consumers, on the whole, being intrigued to try the Chinese wine as perhaps something new or novel, they made a more conservative choice. A lower price would bring the Chinese wine more in line with its perceived quality than its actual quality.

Alternatively, a prospective wine retailer may wish to work on improving the image of Chinese wine in order to aim to sell at a similar price to the French alternative. While this may be a seemingly insurmountable challenge, attempting to attribute the same level of consumer equity to a Chinese wine as exists for French wine, there may be a niche interest in the product, supported by the fact that over 40% of the respondents to the Chinese control questionnaire evaluated the Chinese wine more highly than the average WTP evaluation from the French control. Making the Chinese wine less of a gamble and more of a quirky, interesting choice, and attributing a story to the wine which makes the consumer less risk averse, and as such less liable to consumer or peer scrutiny would be a possibility for potential purveyors of Chinese wine. This thesis distorted the provenance of the wine under false pretences in order to provoke a reaction from the participant similar to that experienced in a failed service encounter. While removing information cues with the aim to mislead is either illegal from a regulatory perspective, or unwise given the acceptance of H_3 , a prospective seller of Chinese wine may wish to (with the consumer's consent) remove all but olfactory and gustative senses in the form of a blind taste test, in order to level the playing field against French wines, and others of more prestigious wine-origin connotations, and to level the playing field between French and Chinese wines in terms of perceptive expectation.

Those interested solely in the implications of the findings of this thesis upon the sale of French wine may wish to alter the way in which the wine is sold by appealing to idiosyncratic signalling cues such as an appreciation of French culture, history and customs in particular. In general, as demonstrated by this thesis, the subjects of travelling in France, French culture, reminiscing over French contacts, and a desire to live in France were all areas which could be considered when branding the wine, in order to emphasise the esteem of French wine many

consumers hold, be it consciously or subconsciously, and were quite happy in this experiment to apply to a product which only appeared to be French.

Ultimately, this thesis aimed to investigate consumers' response to a failed service encounter in the form of misleading provenance. 77% of respondents reacted negatively when faced with the misdirection over the COO, and when allowed the opportunity to evaluate what they believed they were making a purchasing decision over with what they were actually appraising. Respondents evaluated the misleading Chinese wine significantly lower than a wine they had known to be Chinese all along, which suggests that above all, whether selling French or Chinese wine, or products of any other specific and explicit provenance, it is highly recommended to avoid situations in which the consumer may feel misled. This is especially true, as in this situation, it appears that while consumers significantly downgraded their post-misdirection evaluation, not a single respondent judged themselves to be lacking in morality or fairness, meaning they will deem this action justified, and as such, deem the misdirection as wrong.

An interesting development external to this thesis' research hypotheses, yet supported by various academics writing on fairness, is that those who were misled were 61% more likely to reward themselves than those who were not. The implication of this is that consumers who feel misled by a product may well be less likely to act generously from a consumer behaviour perspective. As such, this should be an area of consideration to retailers selling goods which require a degree of consumer generosity (for example, birthday cards or children's toys), or perhaps more hedonic goods in general in the vicinity of any good which may be deemed misleading, in that the immediate effect upon the consumer was one of redressing the balance and ensuring that they themselves were not in a vulnerable consumer position.

10) CONCLUSION

The objective of the thesis was to investigate the psychological effect country of origin signalling has on consumers' willingness to purchase a bottle of country-explicit wine both before and after a failed service encounter, in this case caused by misdirection over the wine's true provenance. In addition, this thesis aimed to identify the strength of three major drivers behind a consumer's post-misdirection product re-evaluation in order to identify whether pro-French affinity, a likelihood that the consumer will seek revenge or the consumer's self-perceived degree of fairness were behind any hypothesised post-misdirection product equity devaluation.

In order to do this, this study asked respondents to an experiment questionnaire to evaluate a seemingly French bottle of wine, and then again after the respondents had been informed that the bottle was actually a Chinese wine, with packaging providing information cues legal within the parameters of EU wine-labelling regulations. Subsequently, the research design of a particular study related to each of the three major drivers under scrutiny

was adapted, and each respondent to the experiment questionnaire was asked a series of questions to ascertain their degree of pro-French affinity, the likelihood with which they would seek revenge following the failed service encounter, and the degree to which they might perceive any disparity between their pre- and post-misdirection product evaluations as being fair. In parallel, a different group of respondents were asked to evaluate two bottles of wine, one the same as used in the experiment (so, implicitly French) and the other explicitly Chinese, to act as a control.

The results of the three types of questionnaire indicated that consumers were, (as hypothesised) more likely to purchase a French wine than a Chinese wine, as well as a wine which had misled them. In addition, the thesis was also able to determine that the respondents placed more product equity with the wine which they had known to be Chinese all along than in the wine which was Chinese, but had seemingly attempted to tap into more positive French COO connotations. The results of this was an evident and significant devaluation of willingness to purchase in the event of a misleading service interaction.

A fourth set of hypotheses were charged with identifying the composite cognitive elements of such a product equity devaluation. This study was able to prove that a consumer with a higher affinity for France and French people, products and services would react more negatively when it was revealed that the product was not French, than those with a lower esteem of French goods or services. In other words, those who held an affinity for French goods let their affinity bypass rational consumer decision-making more so than those who did not hold such an affinity. Despite the theoretical background, this thesis was not able to support a connection between the likelihood with which a consumer will seek vengeance and the degree to which this likelihood affected their post-misdirection service failure. The degree to which the consumer perceived themselves to be fair, or the degree to which their re-evaluation of the product having being misled is borne of rationality, produced mixed results. It appears that while no consumer was willing to call their own fairness or morality into question when re-evaluating a product which has caused them a degree of service harm, their level of generosity to a third party was heavily impacted, suggesting that while their degree of morality may not have affected their product evaluation, the misdirection itself may have wider implications on their immediate consumer behaviour.

11) FUTURE RESEARCH

It would be an interesting area for future study to determine both whether WTP of a French wine will always be above WTP of a Chinese wine at various price points, and also to investigate at what price point the Chinese wine would have experienced an equal WTP-rating as the French wine in this study.

In connection with the above, it would be highly interesting to further investigate a real-life study into H₁, in a study of considerably greater scope, to actually determine whether the results in this study are representative of

the actual consumer purchase decision in terms of sales figures. It would be highly relevant to anyone interested in the area of effect of COO on wine purchasing to attempt a real-world study, rolled out in several similar stores at the same time to see if the Chinese WTP was lower than the WTP of a French wine.

Alternatively, it would be interesting to learn in more detail why exactly the WTP of a Chinese wine is below that of a French wine. It is possible that consumers automatically attribute certain positive characteristics not stated on the label to a French wine that they do not a Chinese wine, or it is also possible that consumers automatically attribute certain negative non-stated characteristics to a Chinese wine that they do not a French wine. It seems likely, given the acceptance of the hypothesis, that at least one of the above is true, but which would require future research. Similarly, it might be that consumers have an almost innate ability to be able to recall that French wine is of high quality, whereas it may be more difficult or time-consuming for exporters of Chinese wine to impart this same near-innate perception. This study focused its data collection methods on entirely quantitative means, but to acquire some understanding of the above issues would require a more qualitative approach. A focus group or series of qualitative interviews might be a good means to learning more about the reason why consumers, on average, are happier to part with 200 DKK or £20 to purchase a bottle of French wine than an identical Chinese wine.

It would be an interesting topic for a future study to investigate whether misleading consumers in the opposite direction would show the same results. If it did show the same result (so consumers initially believed the wine to be Chinese and later found it was French, and thus still reacted more negatively than positively) it would be possible to conclude that the driving factor behind H_2 is the misdirection itself. If it showed the opposite result (so consumers initially believed the wine to be Chinese and later found it was French, and reacted more positively) it would be possible to conclude that the thinking in line with H_1 is the driving factor.

How the consumer responds to the misdirection would also be an interesting area for future analysis. Whether the consumer would modify their cognitive or subconscious learning process about wine to ensure that next time they are aware of the signs of misdirection, be it be private research, consulting friends or experts, anything the consumer would actively or unknowingly attempt so as to avoid similar consumer pains again would be a possible avenue for further research.

Regarding H_{4A} , and a comparison of the results of $WTP\Delta$ between those who had and had not lived in France, and those who had and had not visited France, a sample size of 17 who had lived in France and 8 who had not visited France is insufficient from which to draw too much of a conclusion, but it would be an interesting area of future study to determine exactly why the four groups responded the way they did, as the “lived in France”

analysis concluded as per the theory outlined in the literature review, but the “visited France” group analysis did not.

An interesting future study area would be that of assessing the importance of pro-French affinity on wine-purchasing habits in a country which, as has been demonstrated with France, itself has a strong positive connotation when it comes to wine – Italy or Chile, for example - or even to see how this same study would conclude if undertaken in France itself.

While there is no evidence that aggregate of the vengeance-driver statements was related to a negative downgrading of the experiment questionnaire wine’s WTP, taken individually, certain elements of Mauger et al.’s (1992) study seem to provide a base for potential future study, particularly across several different cultures, as per the findings of the Customer Rage Studies.

As mentioned in the discussion of H_{4C} , it appears that consumers either presumed the intention of the experiment questionnaire wine was to mislead, or that the intention was irrelevant next to the result. Considering this, and in light of the results of the fairness/morality part of the study, it would be a possible avenue of future study to investigate H_{4C} in a study in which it could be proven that the consumer was in some way more responsible for the misdirection, and to then reassess the degree to which the consumer reacted, knowing that they were somewhat to blame for the imbalance.

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13) APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – The research onion

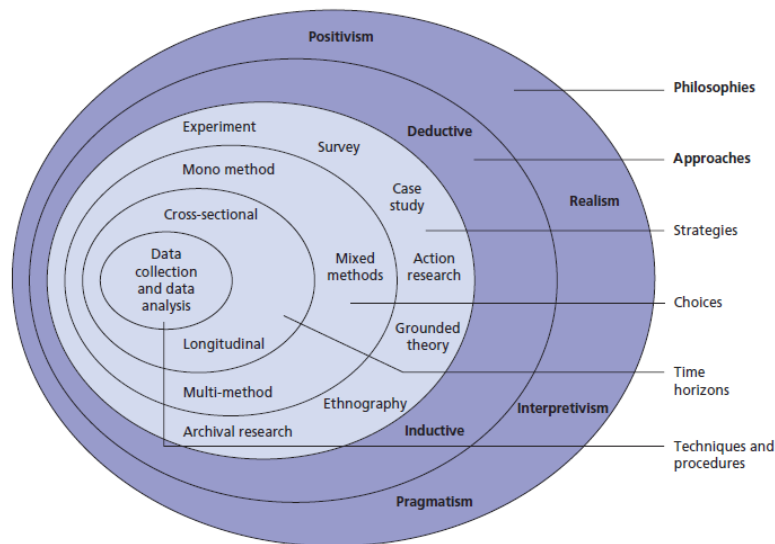


Figure 4.1
The research 'onion'
Source: © Mark Saunders, Philip Lewis and Adrian Thornhill 2008

(Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009)

Appendix 2 – Fit of four research theories in management research

Table 4.1 Comparison of four research philosophies in management research

	Positivism	Realism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
Ontology: the researcher's view of the nature of reality or being	External, objective and independent of social actors	Is objective. Exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence (realist), but is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist)	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple	External, multiple, view chosen to best enable answering of research question
Epistemology: the researcher's view regarding what constitutes acceptable knowledge	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law like generalisations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements	Observable phenomena provide credible data, facts. Insufficient data means inaccuracies in sensations (direct realism). Alternatively, phenomena create sensations which are open to misinterpretation (critical realism). Focus on explaining within a context or contexts	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon the details of situation, a reality behind these details, subjective meanings motivating actions	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data
Axiology: the researcher's view of the role of values in research	Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance	Research is value laden; the researcher is biased by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing. These will impact on the research	Research is value bound, the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective	Values play a large role in interpreting results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view
Data collection techniques most often used	Highly structured, large samples, measurement, quantitative, but can use qualitative	Methods chosen must fit the subject matter, quantitative or qualitative	Small samples, in-depth investigations, qualitative	Mixed or multiple method designs, quantitative and qualitative

(Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009)

Appendix 3 – Robson’s (2002) five sequential stages of deductive research methods

- 1) Deduce a hypothesis from the theory.
- 2) Express the hypothesis in operational terms which propose a relationship between two specific concepts or variables.
- 3) Test the operational hypothesis
- 4) Examine the specific outcome of the inquiry – confirm the theory or suggest necessary modifications.
- 5) Modify the theory in light of the findings, if necessary.

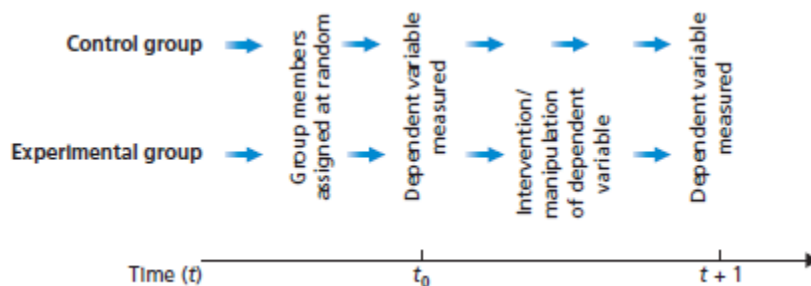
(Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009)

Appendix 4 – Differences between deductive and inductive research approaches

Deduction emphasises	Induction emphasises
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> scientific principles moving from theory to data the need to explain causal relationships between variables the collection of quantitative data the application of controls to ensure validity of data the operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition a highly structured approach researcher independence of what is being researched the necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events a close understanding of the research context the collection of qualitative data a more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses a realisation that the researcher is part of the research process less concern with the need to generalise

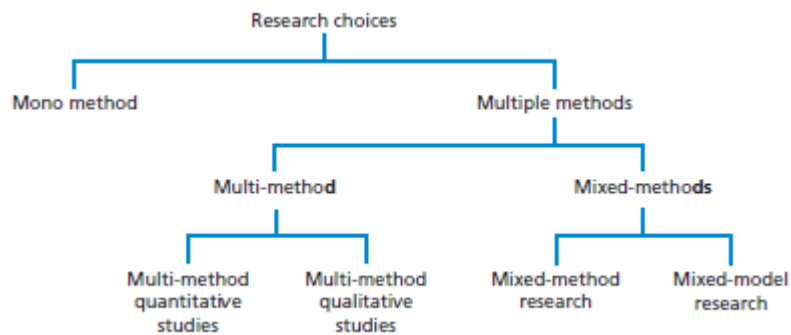
(Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009)

Appendix 5 – A classic experiment strategy



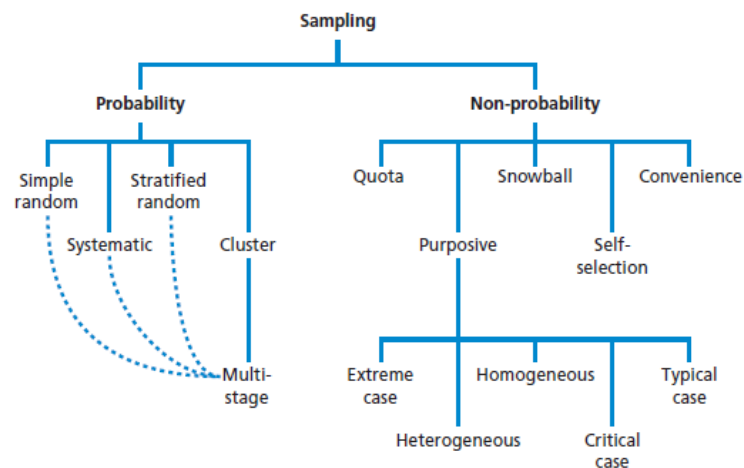
(Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009)

Appendix 6 – Research choices



(Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009)

Appendix 7 – Sampling techniques



(Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009)

Appendix 8 – Study of 75cl Bordeaux/French Cabernet Sauvignon prices in Denmark and Norway

Danish Supermarkets

Sources: Føtex (Foetex.dk, 2016), COOP (coop.dk, n.d.), Bilka (bilka.dk, n.d.), Løgismose (løgismose.dk, n.d.)

Retailer	Price (DKK)
Føtex	199.00
Føtex	75.00
Føtex	149.00
Føtex	149.00
Føtex	275.00
Føtex	99.00
COOP	90.00
COOP	129.00
COOP	139.00
COOP	149.00
COOP	65.00
COOP	100.00
Bilka	199.00
Bilka	109.00
Bilka	149.00
Bilka	115.00
Bilka	65.00
Bilka	139.00
Bilka	139.00
Bilka	199.00
Bilka	75.00
Løgismose	175.00

Norwegian Vinmonopol (all prices in Norwegian kroner (NOK))

Source: Vinmonopolet (vinmonopolet.no, n.d.), XE.com (XE.com, n.d.)

174.1		964.9	398.9	1215	539
199.9	399.9	798.9	182	279.9	491.8
209.9	609.8	759.4	499.9	349.9	249.7
219.9	649	824.9	129.9	1050	269.9
169.9	494.9	593.9	899.8	988.8	255.9
129.9	449.5	539.8	164.6	2650	249.9
149	269.9	624.9	299.8	1399	749.8
147.5	265.3	594.8	249.9	1020	997.8
319.9	285	496	1050	465	749
397.9	979.8	484.9	1155	335	589
348.9	699.7	194.9	2326	369.7	1450
496	599.8	212.1	1155	329.8	974.9
349.4	1194.8	649.8	775	699.8	172.9
209.9	1026.5	649.6	1135	399.8	424.9
397.7	774.9	609.3	1090	395.9	379.9
398	339.9	625	1484.8	729.8	415.3
169.9	1650	738.8	1589	724.9	229.9
399.8	259.9	647.9	994.8	499.8	149.9
339.8	399.9	289.9	767	265	179.9
544.9	249.9	698.8	495	749.9	157.5
249.9	394.9	259.9	250	259	599.8
1099.9	349.7	4017	114.9	219.6	315
589.9	728.9	3999.9	294.9	211	399
479.9	319.9	515	279.9	825	802.7
699.9	139.9	124.9	199.9	525	279.8
699.9	249.9	575	134.6	540	348.9
539.9	282	134.1	1349.8	594.9	460
499.8	389	690	1945	350	643.8
390	399.9	898.9	499.9	259	634.9
999	339.9	785	569.9	249	549.1
572.9	199.4	139.9	658.9	239	435
318	279.9	498.9	259.9	289.9	285
390.9	174.9	497.8	409	819.9	425
1429	299.9	3200	261.7	1089	465
1124.9	159	239.9	699.9	534.9	475
1025	169.9	229.9	189	424.8	489
934.9	559.9	974.9	6505	235	499.9
	658.7				

219	389.9	229.9	3200	838.8	119.9
229.9	389.9	255	444	584.9	364.9
159.9	225	399.9	189.9	174.9	1299
449	599.7	234.9	139.9	184.5	398
674.9	489.8	645	549.9	207.7	319.8
568	554.9	665	435	196.5	124.9
866	249.9	169.9	385	889.9	199.8
399.8	1999	299.9	185	789.9	435
449.8	150	399.9	319.9	819.8	1678
449.7	684.8	2346	223.9	269.9	424.8
548.9	849.8	139.9	779.7	214.9	295
217	739.9	544.9	679.6	149.9	148.7
249.9	674.9	199.9	582.5	589.8	544.9
1050	634.9	489.9	419.7	589.8	298
354.9	619.8	489.9	398.9	499.8	565
544.8	575	489	2594.9	639.1	175.9
359.8	497.9	466	2154.9	288.1	275
439.9	424.9	489.9	3309.9	179.9	469.9
869.7	488.9	189.9	2852.1	449.3	394.8
199.9	424.9	209.9	229.9	319.9	189.9
768.9	488.9	635.9	237	799.9	196.5
748.9	424.9	224.9	489.9	429.5	255.5
478.9	339.8	4990	448.9	528	149.9
544.9	314.8	568	898.9	130	197.9
478.9	314.9	669.9	747.9	189	1449
579.7	298.9	769.3	228.9	525	259.7
579.7	299.8	279.9	184.9	549	289.7
339	284.8	324.9	179.9	249.9	129.9
542.4	672	235	249.4	369.9	139.9
689	784.9	799.9	215	729.9	490
299.9	159	730	539.8	655.8	487
214.1	445	194.9	489.4	669.7	349.8
299.9	497.8	319.9	594.8	548.9	619.9
259.8	497.8	469	468	934.9	184.9
469.9	315	792.1	1294.9	998.8	349
331.3	235	5225	1998	890	489.9
189.9	139.8	379.9	1999	399.9	249.9
952.1	150	398	2215	431.9	
328.9	964.9	799.9	2099.7	459	
299	798.9	430	1290	681.9	

Appendix 9A – Experiment questionnaire

Thesis questionnaire:

Nationality*: _____

Email*: _____

Completing this survey and sharing your email address allows you to enter into a prize draw to win one of two £50 gift vouchers.

I wish to be contacted by email in the event that I win a prize* Yes /
No

Age*: 15-25 26-35 36-45 46-55 56-65 66+ Prefer not to say

* All information will be used solely for research purposes in connection with this Master Thesis, and will be held in accordance with the Agreement on Confidentiality and will not be disclosed to third parties without your consent. Your email address will only ever be used in order to inform you should you win a prize, and its submission is entirely optional.

Part 1 – Château de Chavannes

When purchasing wine, we either buy something we have drank previously, or we buy something we have not yet tasted. In the case of trying a new wine, we have to rely on what we see and read on the bottle or in other promotional material.



I would like to present Château de Chavannes. The producers of this wine have been making wine since 1998, but only now has distribution to shelves outside of France become possible. This particular bottle is a 2010 Cabernet Sauvignon, and the year is widely considered to have been an excellent one for wines of this type and from this region. Production is entirely organic, and makes use of methods used by growers in the Bordeaux region for centuries, who hand-harvest the grapes from the steep granite slopes overlooking the Garonne River.

Here is the label more closely:



On the reverse of the bottle, we read:

Château de Chavannes is an elegant wine, with a powerful and lively structure of fruits, spices, and minerality from the granitic soils. Gentle tannins combine perfectly with the freshness and fullness of the bouquet.

This quality wine best complements chargrilled steak, roast lamb, or other full-flavoured red meat dishes.

The bottle is 750ml, and the recommended retail price is 200kr.

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 representing “not at all” and 7 representing “very likely”, what is the likelihood you would at some point purchase a bottle of Château de Chavannes?

Not at all	Unlikely	Probably not	Don’t know	Probably	Likely	Very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Under European Union regulations, it is perfectly legal for of Château de Chavannes to have been made outside of Europe, for example in China, shipped to France and then sold as a product of the European Union. If the label declares that the wine is “bottled in France”, the product would *appear* even more to be a product of France. The earlier description could be perfectly valid for a Chinese wine.

Château de Chavannes is, in fact, a Chinese wine from the Ningxia region in central China, and is grown in vineyards overlooking the Yellow River.

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 representing “not at all” and 7 representing “very likely”, what is the likelihood you would now at some point purchase a bottle of Château de Chavannes, knowing it is a Chinese wine?

Not at all	Unlikely	Probably not	Don’t know	Probably	Likely	Very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 2

Please answer the following questions:

- | | | |
|---------------------------|-----|----|
| 1) I have lived in France | Yes | No |
| 2) I have visited France | Yes | No |

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 representing “disagree entirely” and 7 representing “agree entirely”, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Disagree entirely	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Don't know	Somewhat agree	Agree	Agree entirely
3) The French are friendly, helpful people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) French people are less stressed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) I like the French language.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) French cuisine and drink is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7) French scenery is diverse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) French scenery contributes to their wellbeing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) The French climate would/has persuaded me to visit France.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Disagree entirely	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Don't know	Somewhat agree	Agree	Agree entirely
10) French culture is a significant part of why I have/would like to visit France.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11) French people stick to their traditions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12) I usually agree with the French politically.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13) Living in France has/would probably reinforce my positive feelings of France.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14) The French climate was/would be a positive motivator in deciding to live in France.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15) A visit to France has/would probably reinforce my positive feelings of France.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16) France is a good country for taking a relaxing holiday.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17) I have many friends or relatives from or living in France.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18) I hold/have previously held a French person in high regard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 3

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 representing “disagree entirely and 7 representing “agree entirely”, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Disagree entirely	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Don't know	Somewhat agree	Agree	Agree entirely
1) I often find it hard to forgive when wronged by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) I will usually try to get even if wronged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) I usually try to do what is right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) I am sometimes willing to do things most people would consider wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) I have little concern over the effect of my actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) I do things my own way, even if it may sometimes get me in trouble.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7) I participate in activities which may be considered dangerous or reckless.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) I often fail to consider the consequences of my actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) I often reflect on old grudges.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10) I frequently start conversations with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 4

Part 4A

You will now play a very quick and simple game!

In this game, all you have to do is decide if it will be yourself or a friend or family member who gets entered into a free prize draw.

The prize draw will select two winners, each receiving a gift card to the value of 500kr to be used at gavekort.dk*. Gavekort.dk allows the winner to choose a 500kr gift card redeemable at over 150 well-known Danish retailers.

Most others to have played this game have flipped a coin to allocate the reward.

Whose name will enter into the prize draw and write on the gift card?

Myself? (tick/cross/mark) _____

A friend/family member* (write name) _____

Part 4B

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 representing “not at all” and 7 representing “entirely”, please answer the following questions. Consider the way in which you answered Part 4A and how much you considered yourself and another person when deciding whose name should be on the gift card.

	Not at all	Very little	Not really	Don't know	Mostly	A lot	Entirely
1) To what extent do you believe the decision you made was morally right?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) How highly do you rate your concern for your own welfare?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) How highly do you rate your concern for the other person?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4) How highly do you rate your concern to be fair or just?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) How highly do you rate your concern to treat yourself and the other person fairly?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) How highly do you rate your concern to give both yourself and the other person a fair chance of receiving the reward?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix 9B – French control questionnaire

Thesis questionnaire:

Nationality*: _____

Age*: 15-25 26-35 36-45 46-55 56-65 66+ Prefer not to say

* All information will be used solely for research purposes in connection with this Master Thesis, and will be held in accordance with the Agreement on Confidentiality and will not be disclosed to third parties without your consent.

Château de Chavannes

When purchasing wine, we either buy something we have drank previously, or we buy something we have not yet tasted. In the case of trying a new wine, we have to rely on what we see and read on the bottle or in other promotional material.



I would like to present Château de Chavannes. The producers of this wine have been making wine since 1998, but only now has distribution to shelves outside of France become possible. This particular bottle is a 2010 Cabernet Sauvignon, and the year is widely considered to have been an excellent one for wines of this type and from this region. Production is entirely organic, and makes use of methods used by growers in the Bordeaux region for centuries, who hand-harvest the grapes from the steep granite slopes overlooking the Garonne River.

Here is the label more closely:



On the reverse of the bottle, we read:

Château de Chavannes is an elegant wine, with a powerful and lively structure of fruits, spices, and minerality from the granitic soils. Gentle tannins combine perfectly with the freshness and fullness of the bouquet.

This quality wine best complements chargrilled steak, roast lamb, or other full-flavoured red meat dishes.

The bottle is 750ml, and the recommended retail price is 200kr.

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 representing “not at all” and 7 representing “very likely”, what is the likelihood you would at some point purchase a bottle of Château de Chavannes?

Not at all	Unlikely	Probably not	Don’t know	Probably	Likely	Very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix 9C – Chinese control questionnaire

Thesis questionnaire:

Nationality*: _____

Age*: 15-25 26-35 36-45 46-55 56-65 66+ Prefer not to say

* All information will be used solely for research purposes in connection with this Master Thesis, and will be held in accordance with the Agreement on Confidentiality and will not be disclosed to third parties without your consent.

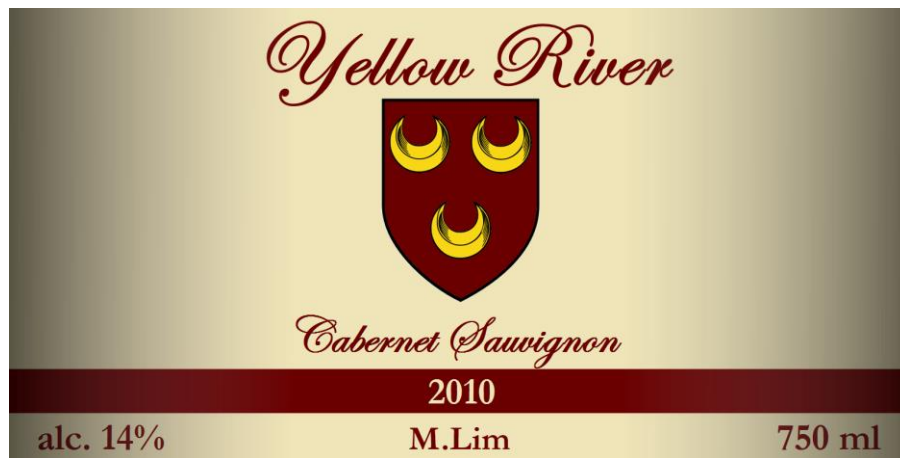
Yellow River

When purchasing wine, we either buy something we have drank previously, or we buy something we have not yet tasted. In the case of trying a new wine, we have to rely on what we see and read on the bottle or in other promotional material.



I would like to present Yellow River. The producers of this wine have been making Chinese wine since 1998, but only now has distribution to shelves outside of China become possible. This particular bottle is a 2010 Cabernet Sauvignon, and the year is widely considered to have been an excellent one for wines of this type and from this region. Production is entirely organic, and makes use of methods used by growers in the Ningxia region for centuries, who hand-harvest the grapes from the steep granite slopes overlooking the Yellow River.

Here is the label more closely:



On the reverse of the bottle, we read:

Yellow River is an elegant wine, with a powerful and lively structure of fruits, spices, and minerality from the granitic soils. Gentle tannins combine perfectly with the freshness and fullness of the bouquet.

This quality wine best complements chargrilled steak, roast lamb, or other full-flavoured red meat dishes.

The bottle is 750ml, and the recommended retail price is 200kr.

On a scale of 1 to 7, with 1 representing “not at all” and 7 representing “very likely”, what is the likelihood you would at some point purchase a bottle of Yellow River?

Not at all	Unlikely	Probably not	Don’t know	Probably	Likely	Very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for your participation!

ⁱ http://www.rightbrainstudio.com/newsandevents/articles/021405_beerbrands_homeland.html accessed April 23 2016