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**The role of Porto wine's country of origin: in Portugal,
Brazil and China market**

**Dissertação de Mestrado em Marketing, apresentada à
Faculdade de Economia da Universidade de Coimbra para
obtenção do grau de Mestre**

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Dedication

I DEDICATE THIS WORK TO MY PARENTS FOR THEIR PAITIENCE,
ENCOURAGEMENT AND LOVE.

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Abstract

Purpose: The main purpose of this study is to explore the factors that affect the country of origin of Port wine. Take Portugal, China and Brazil as examples to discuss how the COO influence consumer behavior of Port wine. The results provide evidence of how consumers make consumer behaviors under the country of origin effect.

Design/methodology/methodology: The author selected 10 variables based on previous research literature to study how Porto wine's COO affects consumer behavior. And establish related research models. In this study, 719 respondents were tested through an online questionnaire, and the collected data were tested using SPSS statistical software and AMOS.

Result: Results: The results show that the factors that have a significant impact on Porto wine's COO include: Ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, affinity. At the same time, it has also determined that COO influence factors include: brand equity, willingness to buy, memorability, brand identification and brand affect.

Practical significance: It can help Porto wine company to understand whether the target customer has established a sense of intimacy with Portugal. At the same time, marketer can also understand how Brazilian and Chinese ethnocentrism and cosmopolitan consumers have an impact on COO. These factors have great significance to Port wine's international marketing strategy. If the impact of COO is ignored, it may lead to a failed strategy. It is also important to understand Brazilian and Chinese people's needs and preferences and how they treat Port wine.

Creativity/Value: In this case, a thorough analysis of the impact of COO on specific consumer groups can enable marketers to better understand consumers.

Keywords: Country of origin, ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, affinity, brand equity, willingness to buy, memorability, brand identification, brand affect.

Acronyms

COO	Country of origin
COE	Country of origin effect
CET	Customer ethnocentrism
COS	Cosmopolitanism
AF	Affinity
ABB	Attitude toward brand of wine
BE	Brand equity
WTB	Willingness to buy
MM	Memorability
BI	Brand identification
BA	Brand affect

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1. Introduction

With the development of globalization, consumers have different attitudes and beliefs about products or brands from different countries. The image of the country also sometimes affects the image of local brands. These perceptions also influence consumer decision-making process. For example, Coca-Cola successfully defeated Chinese local brand Jianlibao when marketing in China, one of the key factor is that Coca-Cola is a symbol of American modernization and wealth. Product's country of origin more and more play an important role in international business. As Laroche, Papadopoulos, Heslop & Murali (2005, p.97) point out, "The origin of the product is very important to consumers. This fact has important strategic significance for companies engaged in domestic and international business."

Wine brands are trying to expand the Chinese wine market share. The wine world in China is an expanding industry. Up until now, most of China's growth has sprouted to Shanghai, Beijing, Shenzhen and other metropolises. However, the wine market is making a shift to smaller cities such as Chengdu, Xi'an etc. With China's economic growth, people in small cities have become interested in drinking and exploring the world of wine. The latest report shows that the global wine market will reach US\$402 billion by 2022. Although the market is growing worldwide, Asia, with China being the largest contributor, is growing at a far more rapid rate.

On the other hands, as a marketer, we need to consider product's country of origin from domestic and foreign perspectives. In the domestic market, people's impressions for product's country-of-origin can inspire consumer patriotism or remind them of past memories. As international trade grows, consumers may consider some brands are symbolically important in their cultural identity or to play an important role in employment. More than three-quarters of U.S. consumers believe if they must choose between similar domestic and foreign products, they will choose domestic products.

Diamantopoulos et al. (2018) claimed that from Dichter's 1962 article that the country of origin of a product may have a huge impact on the success of its products and

consumer behavior, to now COO has become the one of the most studied topic in the international marketing field. The influence of the country of origin (COO) is widely seen in the marketing literature (Nagashima 1970; Aichner, 2017; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Balabanis et al., 2017; Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Han and Terpstra, 1988; Han, 1989; Schooler, 1971; Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Barbarossa et al., 2017; Diamantopoulos et al., 2018; etc.). The country of origin of a product or brand proved to be an essential part of consumer decision-making (Le et al., 2017).

1.1 Wine Market in China

Overall, China's wine imports in 2018 were 796.8 million liters, an increase of about 80% compared with 2013. In 2018, China's wine imports reached 3.91 billion US dollars, an increase of approximately 6.50% compared to 2017 (China Research and Intelligence Co., Ltd., 2019).

France was the largest importer of Chinese wine. In 2018, China's wine imports from France were worth about US\$1 billion. Australia was the second largest importer of Chinese wine. In 2018, the value of China's wine imports from Australia was approximately US\$700 million. Chile was the third largest importer of Chinese wine. China's wine imports from Chile are worth about US\$340 million. In 2018, the average import price of Chinese wine was less than US\$6 per liter, which shows that China mainly imports middle and low-end wine. (China Research and Intelligence Co., Ltd., 2019). Vinexpo and International Wine & Spirits Research show that 88.8% of wines consumed are red, while white wines account for 10.6%. Pink wines account for 0.6% and have a small market share (IWSR, 2016).

According to CRI's market research, Chinese consumers do not understand the developed wine culture and wine brands. It is difficult for most Chinese consumers to understand the type and grade of wine. Therefore, low-end imported wine is popular in China. Many low-end and mid-range wines are turned into high-end products through marketing in China. As consumers mature and better regulate the market, China's wine market will become standardized. But it may take 5 to 10 years or more. It is very important for wine importers to choose brands and products suitable for the

Chinese market (China Research and Intelligence Co., Ltd., 2019).

Wine Consumer in China

The culture, history, and values of Chinese consumers are completely different from those of Western consumers (Taylor, 2014). But with the improvement of living standards and globalization, Chinese consumers are more and more receptive to wine culture. China's wine consumer group is becoming more and more extensive, and many of the young people have begun to drink wine. As described by Capitello et al. (2015) and Gómez et al. (2015), China's wine consumption has undergone major changes, based on modern Chinese consumers who adopt Western lifestyles and prefer foreign products (Zhao and Belk, 2007; Liet et al., 2011; Bi et al., 2012). At the same time, the elderly in China believe that wine is good for health. At formal banquets and business dinners, the consumption of Chinese spirits far exceeds the consumption of wine, but the market share gap is narrowing (China Research and Intelligence Co., Ltd., 2019).

In 2013, China surpassed France to become the world's largest wine consumer. China has sold more than 1.8 billion bottles of red wine, and in 2015, China was listed as the fifth largest red wine market in the world. The total consumption of wine is 16 million liters (OIV, 2018).

The development of e-commerce boosts wine sales in China. And client teams vary greatly in preference and buying power. The output volume and quality of domestic wine will hardly be improved, and wine making price a lot of in China than in alternative countries, that pushes up the import volume of wine in China. A lot of Chinese wine producers repackage foreign bulk wine to supply a wine of their own brands. As the Chinese government has no special restrictions on wine import, the amount of wine importers in China stays higher than 5,000 in recent years (China Research and Intelligence Co., Ltd., 2019).

In China, wine represents wealth and social status, and wine means a charming and elegant social image. (Liu and Murphy, 2007; Hu et al., 2008; Banks and Overton, 2010; Li et al., 2011). Wine plays an important role in social activities. The use of

wine as a drink in the banquet can reflect the owner's Generosity and wealth cater to the "face" of traditional Chinese culture (Liu and Murphy, 2007; Yu et al., 2009; Somogyi et al., 2011). At the same time, red means luck in China, when the New Year and Mid-Autumn Festival come, Red wines indicate health and luck and are well received in China (Liu and Murphy, 2007; Yu et al., 2009; Somogyi et al., 2011). Chinese do drink wines for the celebration of vital occasions such as the Chinese New Year and also the Mid-autumn festival when the Chinese lucky color red and the health advantage of wines are appreciated (Liu and Murphy, 2007; Muhammad et al., 2013). It is conferred on vital occasions or is employed as a present for parents or aged relatives (Knight et al., 2008; Li et al., 2011). If, additionally, Wines from overseas are considered high-quality luxury goods (Agnoli et al., 2014). Origin, brand, label (name, design, color, and image) are important when consumers purchase wines and French wines are thought-about in China as good wines with top quality (Wilson and Huang, 2003; Yu et al., 2009; Liu and Murphy, 2014; Xu et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2015). Since Chinese consumers are getting wine knowledgeable, intrinsic cues corresponding to style, quality, and value-for-money are additional valued for normal consumption (Liu et al., 2014). Besides wines from Bordeaux, Chinese consumers are a lot of inclined to travel for wonderful wines from alternative wine regions of the planet and obtaining more information from wine courses and websites (Masset et al., 2016). As a response to the interest of wine and the desire of leisure, wine tourism has also developed in China (Zhang et al., 2013). China has also begun to carry out wine festivals and tourism activities, bringing people's leisure and entertainment needs (Zhang et al., 2013). Consumers' increased knowledge and emotional attachment to the country of origin of wine will also promote wine ethnocentrism (Yang and Paladino, 2015).

Through this analysis, several wine corporations will higher perceive the consumption motivation and consumption preferences of Chinese customers. the corporate can formulate new market strategies more clearly and accurately to draw in Chinese consumers. At an equivalent time, this study conjointly explores consumers' wine

consumption psychology, which might facilitate customers perceive their purchasing factors and demand for wine.

1.2 Customer Attitude

This section is to describe the attitude in two parts: (1) attitude toward wine (2) attitude towards the Porto wine.

1.2.1 Attitude Towards Wine

Chinese consumers have a positive attitude towards wine, mainly due to its good social image and health benefits (Liu and Murphy 2007). According to the consumption habits of Chinese consumers and their attitudes towards wine, marketer divided them into Frugal Occasionals, Health Sippers, social newbies, fanatics, Prestige-seeking Traditionalists and Developing Drinkers. In China, wine is widely regarded as an “image product”, conveying the high-class status and admiration to the Western lifestyle (Liu and Murphy 2007). Overall, Western wine brands are favored by Chinese consumers, especially in important social and cultural occasions, such as gift giving (Li and Su 2007; Shi et al. 2011). Western brands are more likely to be recognized by gift recipients or related third parties, and to ensure quality and reputation (Hu et al. 2008).

Wine brings a pleasant experience to guests or friends through cultural celebrations (Charters and Pettigrew 2008; Lockshin and Hall 2003). The benefits of wine can make wine a popular beverage for business and cultural celebrations, allowing the host to show a good impression to the guests (Camillo 2012).

1.2.2 Attitude Towards Porto Wine

The total number of guests visiting northern Portugal is 4.89 million, about half of them from overseas. 36,800 Chinese guests spent 60,400 nights in northern Portugal. Although the number is still small, compared with the previous year, the consumption of Chinese tourists has increased by 79.9%, it is the highest among all inbound.

According to a survey about the profile of tourists coming to Porto and the north of Portugal, 40.9% were leisure travelers. 9% of these travelers were coming to the region mostly because of the gastronomy and wines. Wine tourism was considered an important attraction in the region. markets. 15% of the tourists reported feeling ‘dazzled’ by the gastronomy and wines, 13% by the Port wine specifically and 9% by the Douro Valley. (IPDT, ERTPNP, & Aeroporto Sá Carneiro, 2017).

28% of the interviewees cited the “attractiveness of landscape, history and culture of wine regions”, 22% cited “reputation and quality of Portuguese wines” and 20% cited “history and tradition of the wines”. (Turismo de Portugal,2019). Lopes and Soares (2017) concluded that food and Porto wine are one of the main tourism products in northern Portugal.

Port wine has a long history of export, in fact, most of the wine is exported to all parts of the world. Portugal accounted for 19.4% and 17.7% of Port wine sales by value and by volume respectively (IVDP, 2018). France, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands are the most important markets for port wine exports. The Chinese market ranks 20th in port wine sales, accounting for less than 0.5% of total port sales in 2018. Karhunen and Kunc (2016) suggested that Port wine can follow Bordeaux's successful experience and enter the mature Chinese high-end wine market.

The Chinese have a very positive attitude towards wine. Port wine, as one of the most famous wines, is little known in China. This research investigates the potential market of port wine in China by investigating people's attitude towards port wine and their country of origin, and provides assistance for port wine promotion and sales in China.

1.3 Gaps and Objective

As the effect of COO is more importance in the international market, international researchers' interest in COO has also greatly increased. For gaining a competitive advantage, global trading companies need to consider customer's attitudes and perceptions of the origin of the products they consume, and need to understand how COO has an impact on customer's motivation and behavior (Fischer and Zeugner-Roth 2016). Although the influence of COO has been widely discussed in the

literature for many years, there are few reports on how Portugal, as the country of origin of Porto wine, affects the purchasing decisions of consumers in Brazil and China. Chinese consumers are the most force of wine consumption. Therefore, the motivation and the COO affecting their motivation of Chinese consumers buy Porto wine are worth studying.

After discovering gaps, this research will further explore the practical application of COO in the international market by comparing consumers in Brazil, Portugal, China and the customer's purchase behavior of Port wine in Portugal as a country of origin.

Main Research Objective

Many Portuguese wines (such as port wines) have good quality, but are low sells, and their popularity is lower than wines of other countries. As the marketer, we need to consider why this situation happened. This study focus on what factors can influence the product's country of origin and how country of origin influences consumer attitude toward Portugal wine brands.

- Explore what factors can influence the product's country of origin.
- Explore how country of origin influences consumer behavior and Porto wine brand.
- A conceptual model is proposed to clarify the COO and other variables relationships on Porto wine, representative factors: ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, affinity, attitude toward brand of wine, brand equity, willingness to buy, memorability, brand identification, brand affect.

Quantitative research through online research survey is used for data collection. This study uses data collected from online research participants and then the data is analyzed by SPSS and Amos. The data obtained from the questionnaire is to calculate descriptive statistics of the questionnaire sample.

2. Literature Review

This section is to describe the literature in ten parts: (1) Nation brand (2) Ethnocentrism (3) Cosmopolitanism (4) Affinity (5) Attitude toward brand of wine (6) Brand equity (7) Willingness to buy (8) Memorability (9) Brand identification (10) Brand affects.

2.1 Nation Brand

National brands are designed to measure, build and manage national reputation (closely related to place branding). Kerr, Pauline, Wiseman & Geoffrey (2013) define the nation brand as "the application of corporate marketing concepts and techniques to countries, in the interests of enhancing their reputation in international relations." True & Jacqui (2006) pointed out that the brand and image of a nation-state have been successfully transferred to their exports, as important as the goods they actually produce and sell. Fan (2010, p. 2) identified four sources that led to national brand research, namely "country of origin (COO) (Papadoplous & Heslop, 2002), national identity (Smith, 1991; Bond, et al, 2001), place or destination branding (Kotler & Gertner, 2002), and more recently, public diplomacy (van Ham, 2001; Fan, 2008; Szondi, 2007, 2008)."

Fan (2010, p. 2-6) believes that "the national brands can create or change, monitor, evaluate and proactively manage nation's images to increase the country's reputation among the target international audience." National brand is the sum of all concepts of a nation In the minds of international stakeholders, it may contain the following elements: people, places, culture / language, food, history, global brands, fashion, celebrities (celebrities), and more. (Fan 2010) Nation brands can be explored in the fields of social sciences, political sciences, humanities, communications, marketing and international relations.

2.1.1 Country of Origin and COO Effect

The country of origin (COO) represents the country of origin of one or more of the manufacturing, production, design or brands from which the goods or products originate (Journal of Brand Management, 2016). For multinational brands, COO may include multiple countries in the value creation process. Since 1965, many scholars have conducted extensive research on the country of origin (COO), the country of origin effect (COE), and the image of the country of origin (CI). Although they are mainly related to products and often referred to as one of the main origins of nation brand research. Studies have shown that consumers' broad overall views of a country, including its national characteristics, economic and political background, history, tradition, and representative products, together constitute the overall image of the country's products (Journal of Brand Management, 2016). For example, a global survey conducted by Nielsen reported that country of origin image have a significant impact on consumer's perceptions and behaviors, and in situations in which additional information is unavailable or difficult to get can be the sole determinant of whether or not someone buys a product (Nielsen, 2016). Scholars have demonstrated how a country's positive or negative image affects consumer's evaluation of products and proved that COE has significant price-related consequences (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Fan, 2006; Saridakis & Baltas, 2016). The effects that result from using the COO as a decision facilitator are referred to as COE (Abraham, 2014, p. 310).

Many studies have documented the importance of region of origin for New World wines in consumers' wine purchase decisions (eg, Quester and Smart, 1998; Tustin and Lockshin, 2001). Although for New World wines, the region of origin was originally affixed to the wine label, only to indicate the geographical origin of the grapes, more and more regions are being used to convey unique brand benefits to consumers in order to achieve product differentiation (Rasmussen, 2001). In the New World, the country of origin of wine is still an important source of competitive

advantage (Thode & Maskulka, 1998). At the same time, COO can also become a brand equity to control the price of a product (eg, Spawton & Lockshin, 2001; Rao & Monroe, 1996; Dawar, 2004). Omitting the origin of the wine on the wine label may reduce the sense of quality and thus have a negative impact on consumers' purchasing choices, especially for those with higher participation (Tustin & Lockshin, 2001).

In the minds of many consumers, wine varieties from famous regions such as Marlborough Sauvignon Blanc may exceed the brand's reputation (Ben son-Rea, Brodie and Cartwright, 2003; Wilson, 2002). Consumers are more loyal to certain wine regions, especially well-known regions, compared to certain wine brands (Jarvis, Rungie and Lockshin, 2003; Sanjuan and Albisu, 2004). Therefore, Spawton and Lock shin (2001) pointed out that the origin can be used for the development of brand equity, especially for the wider wine consumers of the target group. Wine tends to be perceived as a national product with companies from a single country sometimes cooperating in generic advertising campaigns (referring to the UK market) (Chaney 2000, p. 11). This reflects that wine has a fairly strong COO effect and can readily be promoted in this way (Brookes 1993).

2.2 Ethnocentrism and Country of Origin

Definition Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism is used in social sciences and anthropology to describe a behavior that judges another culture and believes that its own cultural values and standards are superior, especially in language, behavior, customs, and religion. (McCornack, Steven; Ortiz, Joseph 2017). These aspects or categories define the unique cultural identity of each race. In Adorno's *The Authoritarian Personality*, he and his colleagues of the Frankfurt School established a broader definition of the term as a result of "in group-out group differentiation", stating that ethnocentrism "combines a positive attitude toward one's own ethnic/cultural group (the in-group) with a negative attitude toward the other ethnic/cultural group (the out-group)". Both of these juxtaposing attitudes are also a result of a process known as social identification and social counter-identification (Motyl, Alexander J. 2000).

Consumer ethnocentrism (CET) is defined as consumers' belief in the appropriateness and morality of purchasing homemade products and rejecting foreign-made products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280). CET is rooted in three elements of consumer behavior: cognitive, affective, and normative (Dimitrovic and Vida, 2010). Highly ethnocentric consumers refuse to purchase products and services imported from abroad. According to this definition, it can be concluded that CET may be contrasted with COS (Cleveland et al., 2009; Vida and Reardon, 2008). However, other research in developing countries has suggested that the relationship is non-significant and that the two constructs are distinct (Suh and Kwon, 2002, Vida and Reardon, 2008). According to these findings, it is possible for consumers in developing countries to be both patriotic about the home country and curious about foreign cultures (Strizhakova et al., 2008). By definition, consumers with higher CET tend to feel better about domestic products than foreign products (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001; Kipnis et al., 2012; Samiee, 1994; Wang and Chen, 2004).

Relationship between Ethnocentrism and COO

A study has shown that consumer patriotism plays an important role in domestic product selection and foreign product selection, and shows that advertisements designed to evoke patriotic sentiment among consumers may successfully produce responses that favor domestic products (Han & Terpstra, 1988). In addition, research on consumer ethnocentrism has found that consumer ethnocentrists have poor views and evaluations of foreign products. They are considered to be important reference objects for buying foreign products. Compared with non-ethnocentrists, they are less likely to own or plan to purchase foreign products. (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). A study of consumers in South Korea and the United States found that level of CE reduces the effect of COO on product quality perception (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

In developed country, compared with foreign products, consumers in developed countries are often more satisfied with domestic products (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001; Samiee, 1994; Wang and Chen, 2004). There is evidence that in developed countries, those who believe that they are threatened by foreign competitors of import

competitors weaken their employability and destroy their culture (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Vida and Reardon, 2008).

In developing countries where consumer ethnocentrism exists, consumers may also be similarly threatened by large multinational companies that disrupt corporate culture (Alden et al., 2013). There is some evidence that the level of CET in developing countries will difference according to the degree of impact of globalization on such consumers (Reardon et al., 2005; Strizhakova et al., 2008; Wang and Chen, 2004), People do not necessarily have the same degree of attachment to domestic products (for example, Batra et al., 2000; Li et al., 1997; Ueltschy, 1998). For example, Wang and Chen (2004) showed that if ethnocentric consumers in developing countries are considered to be associated with a highly industrialized or economically developed country, they may make a positive assessment of import quality. Consumers in developing countries will prefer foreign products because of quality and novelty, but as the economy develops, this benign effect will weaken (Shankarmahesh, 2006), thus indicating that CET in developing countries at an early stage of economic development will be lower than developed countries.

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development will be lower than developed countries.

Thus, it is hypothesized:

H1. There is a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and the country of origin on product (foreign) .

2.3 Cosmopolitanism and Country of Origin

Defined Cosmopolitanism

COS is used to describe the tendency of individuals to regard themselves as citizens of the world rather than as citizens of specific countries (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009). It is also described as "a conscious opening to the world and its cultural differences" (Skrbis et al., 2004, p. 117). This study adopts the latter definition in this article, which resolves the important difference between COS and globalization (Riefler et al., 2012). World communications and the culture-shaping values of world media support COS in both developed and developing countries (Cannon and Yaprak, 2002, Craig and Douglas, 2006, Hannerz, 1990).

Relationship between COS and COO

Consumers with an cosmopolitan perspective in developed markets may consider such products as being domestic brands, or, because they may carry domestic brand names or associations, foreign products are also considered favorable brands (Cannon and Yaprak, 2002 ; Steenkamp and de Jong, 2010). Consumers in developed countries with cosmopolitan awareness will consider their domestic brands as part of their range of products for buy: they may distinguish between foreign and domestic brands, but will engage both with "a conscious openness to the world and to cultural differences" with regard to both home country and foreign products (Skrbis et al., 2004, p. 117). In this sense, consumers in developed countries with a cosmopolitan perspective will have a stronger relationship with their national image than consumers in developing countries (Alden et al., 2013).

There is evidence that consumers in developing countries with an international perspective prefer products produced in developed countries (Kinra, 2006; Strizhakova et al., 2008). But it is not necessarily that they will not like domestic

brands. Some people believe that (Batra, 1997), the past history of monopoly of state-owned manufacturers in developing countries means that domestic products of developing countries will not be as highly valued as developed countries. However, there are three reasons for changing this view over the past decade: lower trade barriers, more global brands and more manufacturing outsourcing to developing markets (Sharma, Mathur and Dhawan, 2008).

From a cosmopolitan perspective, consumers in developing country may not consider their domestic brands as delivering high status or wealth (Jaffe and Nebenzahl, 2006, Strizhakova et al., 2008). However, this does not mean that they have a bad impression of their domestic brands, especially if they have been consuming domestic products for many years and provide a higher price-performance ratio (Kinra, 2006), or domestic products are considered to be global and local (Alden, Kelly, Rifler, Lee & Sutar, 2013). Conversely, consumers in developing countries may buy cheap local brands for private consumption, while buying more expensive foreign brands for public consumption (Hu et al., 2008). Therefore, the relationship between the COS of consumers in developing countries and the national image of domestic products may contain two relative aspects. In this sense, the relationship between the COS of consumers in developing countries and the national image of their domestic products may be less clear, and their understanding of the national image of foreign products is clearer and simpler (Chen, 2009).

Cosmopolitan consumers not only are open to the culture of other countries, they also appreciate and treat the availability of products from different countries with an absolutely positive attitude, and prefer foreign products (Riefler, Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2012). Consumer cosmopolitanism has the ability to anticipate consumers' intentions in purchasing and favoring foreign products and brands (Zeighner-Roth et al., 2015). Consumer cosmopolitanism as a variable has the ability to anticipate consumers' intentions in purchasing and favoring foreign products and brands (Zeighner-Roth et al., 2015). Zeighner-Roth pointed out that consumer cosmopolitanism can be seen as a preference for foreign products because they are

more open to imported products. Laroche et al. (2017) pointed out that existing research shows the cosmopolitan consumers' attitudes and positions on foreign products and brands are often more favorable, and research reports that their consumption is higher than that of non-cosmopolitan consumers. Consumer cosmopolitanism has a positive influence on Portugal's image as a country of origin (Pâmela Martini, 2019). Cosmopolitan consumers have a greater tendency to positively evaluate foreign products (Riefler, Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2012; Diamantopoulos and Riefler 2009; Cannon and Yaprak 2002; Diamantopoulos and Riefler 2011).

Thus, it is hypothesized:

H2. there's a positive relationship between Cosmopolitanism and country of origin.

2.4 Affinity and Country of Origin

Defined Affinity

Affinity is the personal or emotional connection established between consumers and specific brands or companies. A successful online business can win the affinity that helps brands achieve fast-growing customers. Transforming negative attitudes and behaviors can be a major challenge for marketing when it comes to foreign products and brands (Asseraf and Shoham 2016a). Before entering and positioning new products on the global stage, companies need to understand and evaluate the perceptions that consumers have with the country of origin and affinity. It was revealed that a country's lifestyle is the fundamental basis for building consumer affinity and that people often describe the citizens of the country of affinity in a favorable way (Oberecker et al., 2008).

This study define affinity as “a taste, sympathy, or even attachment to a specific country that results from a consumer’s personal experience or direct contact, and positively influences consumer decisions related to products and services in the country of affinity (Oberecker et al., 2008)

Relationship between Affinity and COO

Consumer affinity is a favorable attitude towards a country, essentially affective and can influence the behavior of consumers, influencing them with the increase in consumer intention for products, brands and services in the affinity country (Elliot and Nebengahl 2006). Halim (2017) indicates that previous studies have already been able to prove that consumer affinity significantly affects people's willingness to buy and consume foreign products. Behavioral intentions vary depending on the level of affinity with the country of origin of the product: the greater the affinity with the COO, the greater the behavioral change in relation to products and brands in this country (Cakici and Shukla, 2017). When there is a person's affinity for a particular country, the tendency to evaluate products from this country in a positive way increases, contributing also positively in the purchase intention in relation to products from this country (Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011; Diamantopoulos et. al., 2008; Jaffe & Nebengahl, 2006; Nes, Silkoset & Yelkun, 2013).

Thus, it is hypothesized:

H3. there's a positive relationship between affinity and country of origin.

2.5 Country of Origin and Attitude toward the Brand of Wine

In psychology, attitude is a psychological construct, a psychological and emotional entity that exists in the human body or characterizes the person. They are very complex and are obtained states through experiences. It is a person's susceptible state of mind about value, which is precipitated through the reactive expression of himself, a person, a place, a thing or an event (attitude object), which in turn affects the person's thinking and behavior.

An attitude can be defined as 'a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object' (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975, p. 6). Attitude research reveals several aspects of attitude. People are not born with attitudes. On the contrary, they learn or develop feelings of good or bad through their own experience or available information.

Attitude is critical to the study of consumer behavior. Marketer usually seeks to determine and modify methods of attitude to products, brands, and services. The main

focus on understanding attitudes, market research can better predict consumer behavior, thereby changing consumer attitudes to trigger appropriate behavior (Nelson Barber, Christopher Taylor and Sandy Strick, 2009). Personal experience with products, brands or issues can help consumers develop attitudes. For example, trying a new wine brand can help consumers develop an attitude towards the wine.

Knowing attitudes, marketers can try to create or modify attitudes to their brand by using marketing communication tools (such as advertising or product sampling). Consumer attitude awareness is a very important issue for marketers, so it is difficult to imagine any consumer research project that does not measure certain aspects of consumer attitude (Biehal et al., 1992).

Brand Attitude

Brand attitude is an important concept related to consumer behavior (Lee and Kang, 2013), which can be defined as "a relatively long-lasting, one-dimensional summary assessment that can stimulate behavioral brand summary" (Spears and Singh, 2004). BAtt represents the degree of gratification of the brand, and the degree of consumer favorability to the brand (DePelsmacker et al., 2007). In addition, if consumers are positive about the brand and less satisfied with competing brands, it will affect their willingness to buy the brand (Voester et al., 2016). Building a brand that can receive good customer reviews is a key factor for brand success (Ansary and Nik Hashim, 2017).

Relationship between COO and ABB

According to the literature, consumers established a positive relationship with the country of origin of the product, which ultimately led to a positive attitude towards the country of origin of the product (Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, 2008). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) proposed the rational action theory (TRA). According to TRA, it is actually affected by two factors:

- (1) The attitude towards behavior is a person's perception of the positive or consequences of the execution of the behavior (evaluative influence),
- (2) The subjective norm is a person's feeling that most people who are important to

him or her think that he or she should or refuse to perform the behavior.

The figure below is a graphical representation of the theory.

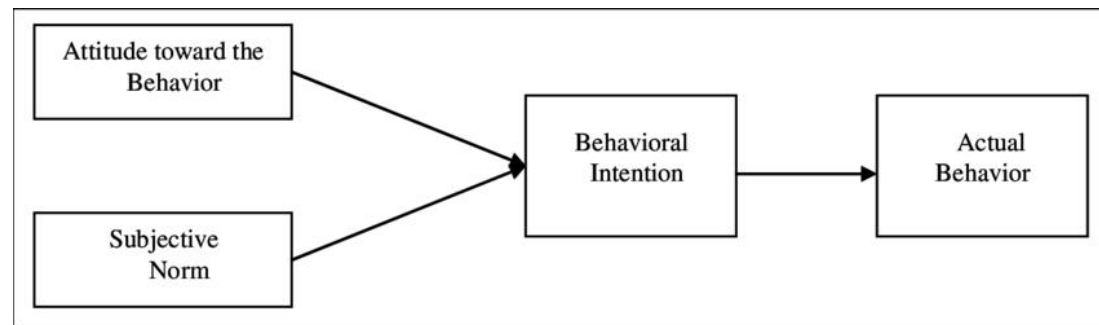


Figure 1 - Reasoned Action Model (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

The impact of the image of the country of origin on attitudes towards products is particularly strong in situations where it is known or there is a belief in a certain knowledge about the country, than in fact the knowledge itself about its products. In 1977, Darling and Kraft found that consumer's knowledge of the country of origin of products affected consumers attitudes towards products. The consumers know about more foreign products, the they are more willing to buy these products (Le et al., 2017). Compared with the country of origin, general foreign countries and specific foreign countries, consumers show different attitudes towards purchasing behavior (Diamantopoulos and Rifler 2009). The results of the studies by Le et al., (2017), are consistent in relation to the positive effects of the country of origin on consumers 'attitudes towards products, as well as the positive effects of consumers' attitudes towards the country of origin.

Thus, it is hypothesized:

H4. there's a positive relationship between country of origin and attitude toward the brand of wine.

2.6 Country of Origin and Brand Equity

Defined Brand Equity

Since its introduction in the 1980s, brand equity has become a core concept and key research area of marketing (Ambler, 2003; Samli & Fevrier, 2008; Buil et al., 2013). It has even been strengthened due to the intensification of globalization and competition (Pinar et al., 2014).

Brand equity is a phrase used in the marketing industry, referring to the brand itself and its perceived value, that is, the social value of well-known brand names. This is based on the idea that owners of well-known brands can generate more revenue through brand recognition, because consumers believe that products of well-known brands are better than those of unknown brands (Aaker & David A, 1991; Keller & Kevin Lane, 2003; Leuthesser, L. & Kohli, C.S. & Harich, K.R. 1995; Ailawadi & Kusum L. & Donald R. Lehmann, and Scott A Neslin 2003). Brand equity describes the value of a brand. This value depends on consumers' perception and experience of the brand. If people highly value a brand, then it has positive brand equity. When a brand's continuous delivery is insufficient and disappointing, so that people advise others to avoid using the brand, it has negative brand equity. Recently, Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2010) defined CBBE as "a set of concepts, attitudes, knowledge, and behaviors on the consumer side that can increase utility and allow brands to obtain greater sales or greater profits. This study follows Aaker's (1991) consumer-based brand equity definition, which has been widely accepted, widely adopted, and cited by many researchers (eg, Yoo et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2003; Pappuet et al., 2005; Chen and Tseng , 2010; Smutkupt et al., 2012; Buil et al., 2013). Hence, this study follows Aaker's (1991) consumer-based brand equity definition, which has been broadly accepted and commonly employed and cited by many researchers (e.g., Yoo et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2003; Pappu et al., 2005; Chen and Tseng, 2010; Smutkupt et al., 2012; Buil et al., 2013).

Relationship between COO and BE

Brand equity is regarded as a key indicator of consumers' perception of the brand (Keller, 2003). COO is considered to be an important variable that affects consumers' brand perception (Hulland, 1999). COO may become the second brand association affecting brand equity. When companies introduce brands to other countries, it is important for them to understand the relationship between their national image and consumer-based brand equity (Pappu, R., Quester, P.G and Cooksey, R.W., 2006). For example, consumers may have different views on France and Spain in terms of

reliability and durability. It has also been suggested and recently demonstrated (Pappu, Quester, and Cooksey, 2006; Paswan, Kulkarni, & Ganesh, 2003). That consumers can develop national loyalty based on their preference and loyalty to brands from that country. Consumers may develop loyalty to certain countries and lead to continued purchasing preferences from these countries.

Pappu et al. (2007) studied the relationship between CBBE and national macro and micro images. The results show that, compared with other CBBE dimensions, the perceived quality makes the greatest contribution. COO has the greatest impact on perceived quality (Shahin et al., 2013). Brand awareness plays a huge role in the consumer's decision-making process (Liu, 2012). there is a positive relationship between brand awareness and COO among Malaysian consumers and Iranian households respectively (Yasin et al., 2007; Shahin et al., 2013). Similarly, Murtiasih et al. (2014) emphasized that, COO effect on brand equity was greater through brand loyalty than perceived quality in the Indonesian car market, in addition to a significant positive association between COO and CBBE dimensions. Nervik et al. (2018) confirmed through his research that the higher the level of image in the country of origin, the higher the level of brand equity. For him, the image of the country of origin is an explanatory variable that can drive brand equity growth. Chiang and Yang (2017) believe that the image of COO can play an important role in increasing brand equity and provide consumers with "experimental and symbolic" benefits when making purchase decisions. Finally, similarly, Murtiasih et al. (2014) emphasized that, in addition to the significant positive correlation between the COO and CBBE, through brand loyalty, COO's impact on brand equity is greater than the perceived quality in the Indonesian automotive market.

Thus, it is hypothesized:

H5. there's a positive relationship between country of origin and brand equity.

2.7 Country of Origin and Customer Willingness to Buy

Purchase Intention

Purchase intention is still an important concept in marketing. Intention is a state of

mind that represents a commitment to perform one or more actions in the future. Intention involves psychological activities such as planning and anticipation (Bratman, 1987). Purchase intention refers to sincerity the customer's willingness to buy a certain product. Le et al. (2017) pointed out that purchase intention is regarded as the personal motivation for each consumer to purchase a specific product or brand. This also means that consumers tend to repeat purchase behavior after evaluating the purchase behavior and realizing that the purchase is worthwhile.

Relationship between COO and WPB

Against this background, the current study investigates the link between the COO of Porto wine and consumers' willingness to buy (WTB) for it. Cordell (1993) and Tse and Gorn (1993) pointed out that the image of the country of origin of the product and the brand image may have a very influential and possibly satisfactory meaning in the consumer's purchase intention. From a consumer's point of view, by referring to the mark of product quality, a good impression of the country of origin usually has a positive effect on the purchase intention (Aichner et al., 2016). Although the willingness to buy is affected by other variables, a country of origin with a good image can compensate and offset the impact on brands with a weaker consumer image (Tse and Gorn 1993). Consumers' perception of the country of origin greatly influences their willingness to purchase (Wang et al., 2012; Aichner et al., 2016). The country of origin influences attitudes towards foreign products, which is a good indicator of purchase intention (Le et al., 2017).

Thus, it is hypothesized:

H6. there's a positive relationship between country of origin and customer willingness to buy.

2.8 Country of Origin and Memorability

We can find memorability descriptions in the literature. "Oxford English Dictionary" (Oxford English Dictionary, 1998) defines memorability as a easy to remember or worth remembering object, event or character quality, thus proposing an objective point of view on memorability. This position has also been found in the psychology

and neuroscience literature: memorability is an intrinsic attribute of things (for example, images, scenes or faces, Khosla, Bainbridge, Torralba & Oliva, 2013) that makes them easy to be recalled in detail, in the short or long term and across individuals (Anderson & Shimizu, 2007; Khosla et al., 2013; Khosla, Xiao, Torralba and Oliva, 2012; Huh, Kim, Bobba, Bashir and Beznosov, 2015; Mancas & Le Meur, 2013; Reisberg, Heuer, McLean and O'Shaughnessy, 1988; Saket, Endert and Staso, 2016; Schraagen and Van Dongen, 2005).

However, in other studies, memorability is considered relative to the subjects. From the point of view of subjectivists, it refers to (i) the ability of an individual to maintain and recall information (Saket et al., 2016) or (ii) "the subjective feeling one will remember in the future" (Zimmerman & Kelley, 2010), Confidently and accurately (Rimmele, Davachi, Petrov, Dougal and Phelps, 2011). Therefore, from this perspective, memorability has two feelings: on the one hand, memorability is the performance of memory itself, and the accuracy of memory performance (Bless, Strack and Walther, 2001; Rimmel et al., 2011), on the other hand, memorability is how people's feel, judge, and predict unforgettable events. These are related to people's external assumptions about phenomena and memory processes, such as the contribution of saliency to memory, perception of their memory coding conditions or personal memory ability (Bless et al., 2001). For example, in the latter sense, if an individual believes that experience, event, or thing is unique or distinctive (Bless et al., 2001; Hosie & Milne, 1995), and may be depicted through vivid and detailed reports, then These experiences, events or things are considered memorable. (Anderson & Shimizu, 2007; Reisberg et al., 1988). This is called subjective memory in the literature, and it is considered important to monitor the behavior of individuals for memory monitoring (Zimmerman & Kelley, 2010) or to explain how sensitive individuals are to others (Bless et al., 2001).

Thus, it is hypothesized:

H7. there's a positive relationship between country of origin and memorability.

2.9 Country of Origin and Brand Identification

Defined Brand Identification

As we all know, brands have the ability to reflect, communicate and convey the ideal consumer identity (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Escalas, 2004; Escalas and Bettman, 2003; Escalas and Bettman, 2009; Fournier, 1998; Fournier, 2009, Lam et al., 2010, Levy, 1959, Strizhakova et al., 2008, Tsai, 2005). Therefore, it is not surprising that more and more research focuses on the significance of consumer brand identification and the impact of this consumer-brand identification (CBI) on consumer behavior and effective brand management (eg, Chernev et al., 2011; Escalas and Bettman, 2003, Escalas and Bettman, 2009, Lam et al., 2010).

Much less is understood, however, about the drivers of CBI—what factors cause it, when, and why. While a comprehensive sense for what produces CBI is of considerable importance to both marketing academics and practitioners, these issues have been examined from many diverse perspectives, causing our understanding to be rather fragmented. As a symbolic carrier (Levy, 1959), brands can help consumers achieve their basic identity goals and projects (Belk, 1988; Escalas and Bettman, 2009; Fournier, 2009; Holt, 2005; Huffman et al., 2000). Therefore, consumer brand identification defined as the consumer's overall state of the brand that is an effective and powerful expression of our pursuit of identity in the market. This definition is consistent with the organizational behavior literature, in which identification is usually defined as the integrity or belonging to certain human groups, such as employees and company or alma mater students (Ashforth and Mael, 1989, Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Bhattacharya et al., 1995; Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Stuart, 2002). This study defines brand recognition as the customer's perception, feeling, and assessment of their psychological state of belonging to the brand (Lam et al. 2010).

Social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1979) has been considered appropriate for investigating customer brand relationships, and the effects of identification can complement other important research streams, such as brand equity research (Lam et al., 2010). Brands can promote the creation and expression of social identities (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012). The brand can be regarded as a relationship partner,

and individual customers can use the brand to define their identity (Albert et al., 2013; Lam et al., 2010). In addition, brands can help build social selves because individuals may view themselves as part of a group of customers who identify the same brand (Lam et al., 2010). CBI can be defined as “a consumer's psychological state of perceiving, feeling, and valuing his or her level of belonging with a brand” (Lam et al., 2013, p. 235), and identification with an organization is regarded as the foundation of “deep, committed, and meaningful relationships” (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003, p. 76).

Relationship between COO and BI

Consumers tend to identify brands that they think match their concepts (Wolter et al., 2016). When a consumer identifies a brand, he or she has a positive feeling for the brand (Harrison-Walker, 2001), and this emotional attachment to the brand heralds the consumer's willingness to buy (Thompson et al., 2005). A higher CBI can strengthen the relationship with the customer, and if this relationship is strengthened, it can increase the ability to charge a price premium (Keh and Xie, 2009). Some authors believe that identity is an evolving process (for example, Gioia et al., 2000). This process has a significant impact on consumer behavior, including willingness to purchase (Del Rio et al., 2001).

In addition, international marketing literature often emphasizes the role played by global brands in identifying global consumer groups (Holt et al., 2004; Strizhakova et al., 2008). For example, Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price (2012) evaluated global youth groups and concluded that there is indeed a use of global brands as their identification. Therefore, it is consistent with the latest research by Stokburger-Sauer et al. (2012) showed that several aspects of positive brand evaluation (for example, consumer perceptions of brand warmth, its social benefits or prestige) have a positive impact on consumer-brand identification. Consumers are positive about all aspects of globalization. They also deliberately treat their attitudes towards global brands (Reed et al., 2012). Therefore, they are more likely to positively evaluate whether global brands are related to their own identity as part of their self-concept.

Given that global brands often serve as identification symbols for desired group

identities (Strizhakova et al., 2011; Strizhakova et al., 2012), such brands can be considered particularly relevant for identification purposes. More specifically, global brands are often associated with positive attributes such as quality, reputation, and status-enhancing characteristics, and eventually become "passports" for global citizenship (Holt et al., 2004; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Strizhakova et al. 2008). Therefore, this study believes that consumers are more likely to own such a brand as a form of identity guarantee if they have a positive recognition of the product in their country. Compared with certain wine brands, consumers have a better understanding and identification of certain wine regions, especially well-known regions (Jarvis, Rungie and Lockshin, 2003; Sanjuan and Albisu, 2004). Therefore, Spawton and Lock shin (2001) pointed out that country of origin can be used for the development of brand identification.

Thus, it is hypothesized:

H8. there's a positive relationship between country of origin and brand identification.

2.10 Country of Origin and Brand Affect

Defined Brand Affect

In this study, brand affect follows the definition of Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001): "The potential of a brand to elicit a positive emotional response among ordinary consumers due to its use" (p. 82). Literature on the mental representation of social episodes shows that people's mental representations can be mainly formed by the affective characteristics of episode stimuli, rather than by their actual descriptive features (Bower & Forgas, 2001). Bower and Forgas's (2001) and Zajonc's (1980) findings point out that affect can play an important role in consumer brand recall and recognition.

Relationship between COO and BA

Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2002) believes that brand affect is derived from the positive reactions of consumers after use product. Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2001) believe that the main difference between brand trust and brand affect is that brand trust is

considered to be a long process that can occur by thinking and considering the consumer's experience with the store, while brand affect is caused by composed of impulse can form spontaneously. Brand affect can be described as the consumer's emotional response to the brand after the experience of the brand (nischay K. upamannyu & garima mathur, 2013). Therefore, we suggest that brand affect occurs under favor of close relationship with brand. Likewise, literature suggests that favorable and positive emotions are associated with high level of brand loyalty (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2002).

Ringberg & Gupta (2003) pointed out that building brand loyalty is due to brand affect. Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) proposed that the strong value of classified products is directly related to brand affect, and is one of the independent but major factors in establishing brand loyalty. But at the same time, brand affect is considered to be the main variable influence brand loyalty (Ringberg and Gupta, 2003). Chaudhuri & Holbrook (2002) found that brand affect occurs under the support of a close relationship with the brand. Similarly, the literature shows that good and positive emotions are associated with higher brand loyalty. Berry & Parasuraman (1991) found that consumer brand affect plays an important role in the relationship between companies and consumers. Jahangir et al. (2009) found that brand influence significantly affected brand extension attitudes.

In addition, Yasin et al. (2007) Established a positive relationship between the COO of Malaysian consumers and brand loyalty. Among them, the good image of COO has led to higher loyalty. Moreover, Shahin et al. (2013) found that the COO has the most influence on brand loyalty, not brand image and brand awareness. The place of origin was originally affixed on the wine label to indicate the geographic origin of the grapes, but more and more regions are used to convey unique brand affect to consumers, thereby achieving product differentiation (Rasmussen, 2001).

Thus, it is hypothesized:

H9. there's a positive relationship between country of origin and brand affect.

3. Conceptual model and hypotheses

In this study, Porto wine's country of origin is the primary variable of our research. Therefore, attitude toward the brand of wine, brand equity, willing to buy, memorability, brand identification and brand affect are the dependent variables. And Ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism and affinity are the independent variables that influence the dependent variable in either a positive or negative way.

3.1 Conceptual Model

This section aims to establish the theoretical framework about how COO affects customer on Porto wine which is going to be investigated in the following study. Based on the exploration and findings of the literature review, we have established the following model

Figure 1 is the framework about country of origin on Porto wine.

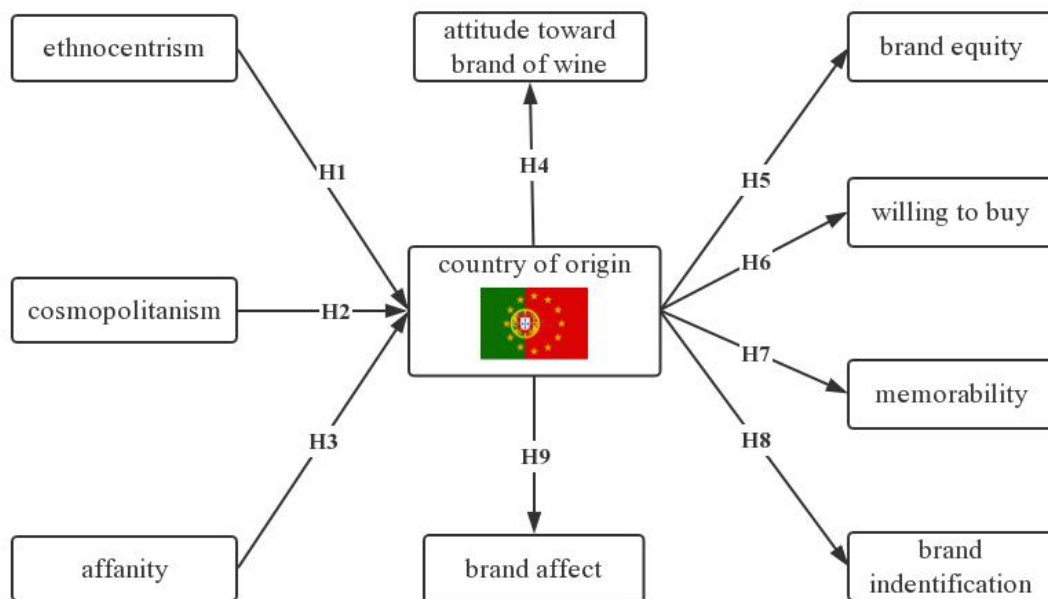


Figure 1 - Country of Origin Model

3.2 Hypotheses

Through the reading and research of different viewpoints of different authors, as well as the in-depth analysis of the content contained in the literature and the theoretical

contributions supporting this research, Certain variables that may influence the image of the country of origin of consumers in Portugal, China and Brazil were identified.

Based on the above theoretical framework, This study establishes nine hypotheses.

H1. There's a negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and country of origin on product.

H2. There's a positive relationship between Cosmopolitanism and country of origin.

H3. There's a positive relationship between affinity and country of origin.

H4. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and attitude toward the brand of wine.

H5. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and brand equity.

H6. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and customer willingness to buy.

H7. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and memorability.

H8. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and brand identification.

H9. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and brand affect.

4. Research Design and Methodology

The purpose of this study was to investigate three independent variables (ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, affinity) and six dependent variables (attitude towards wine, brand equity, willingness to buy, memorability, brand identification and Brand affect) with Country of origin's relationship. The study presented 8 research hypotheses based on literature review and established research models. This study used structured questionnaires to collect key data. The main sources of secondary data are journals, books, articles and website resources. All data has been checked.

4.1 Population and Sample Selection

Collecting data from a complete population is practically impossible. The subject of the study is the attitude of Chinese, Portuguese and Brazilian consumers towards the country of origin of port wine. Due to resource constraints, it is impossible to collect and analyze the entire Chinese, Portuguese and Brazilian consumer groups. It should be emphasized that the people who are interested in this study are: Chinese, Portuguese and Brazilian consumers who have been drinking port wine and are over 18 years old. Respondents come from different genders, education levels and occupations.

If it is impossible to cover all the components of the research, only a part of the relevant population, ie the sample, needs to be surveyed. Select a part of the population (or sample) as a representative part of the whole, and draw conclusions as reasonably as possible based on the results obtained. For this study, we used non-probability sampling methods to obtain non-probability samples. Given the above situation, the requirement for the sample is that the sample should include Chinese, Portuguese and Brazilian consumers over 18 years of age who have had Porto wine. The research was conducted through social networks, which included people from different regions of these countries, because the research was conducted in groups that included different social networks used by people from these countries. Therefore, it is believed that the sample can represent the target population.

4.2 Data Collection Method

Quantitative research through online research survey is used for data collection. This study uses data collected from online research participants and then the data is analyzed by SPSS Modeler. The data obtained from the questionnaire is to calculate descriptive statistics of the questionnaire sample. Moreover, the regression analysis as techniques to extract patterns from collected data are used as tools for analysis.

The questionnaire was created and distributed on the Internet through the Google Forms platform and questionnaire star (<https://www.wjx.cn/>, Chinese company). because they are free, fast, and easy-to-manage tools with remote capabilities. After completing the construction of the questionnaire, in order to obtain as many responses as possible, pre-test and reliability analysis were conducted. Initially, a questionnaire survey was conducted to a few people through WhatsApp for pre-testing. After completing the pre-test, the questionnaires were distributed via WhatsApp, Facebook, Instagram, WeChat, Weibo and QQ.

The data collection for this study began in February 2020. The first question of the questionnaire asked people have you drunk Porto wine. In order to screen out the target population who has consumed Porto wine. Those who choose Yes can continue to answer the questionnaire, and those who choose No mean already completed the questionnaire. Finally, 719 valid questionnaires were obtained, including 190 from China, 197 from Brazil, and 321 from Portugal.

4.3 Pre-test

The pre-test was completed in February 2020. A total of 30 people from all ages and different levels were invited to fill out the questionnaire by online. In order to make the language description of the scale clear and easy to understand and no ambiguity or the answer is not as expected, according to the feedback and evaluation of the interviewees, we have slightly adjusted and modified the statement of the question. The final result shows that the items in the questionnaire have no major errors in translation and language statements. The survey data collected during the pre-test is sufficient to support the current survey analysis.

4.4 Questionnaire Design

This section is to describe some questions which may be included in the questionnaire survey. Moreover, this section is to describe some scales to measure the variables which are mentioned in the theoretical framework. Some questions may be handled in the past study, while they are going to be used to design the questionnaire in this study. This study uses online questionnaires which are originally prepared in Chinese, Portuguese, and English.

Questionnaire is designed by scales use level of agreement on eleven Likert scale of ranging from zero (0) with “strongly disagree” to seven (7) with “strongly agree”.

Table 1: Ethnocentrism

ET1. To buy imported products is not a good citizen.	Shimp and Sharma, 1987
ET2. It is not right to buy imported products because this leaves the home country people without jobs.	
ET3. We should buy products made in home country instead of letting other countries get rich with us.	
ET4. We should not buy imported products because this damages home country trade and causes unemployment.	
ET5. I will buy only from my home country .	

Table 2: Cosmopolitanism

COS1. I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.	Cleveland, Laroche and Papadopoul, 2009
COS2. I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.	
COS3. I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their views and approaches.	
COS4. I like to watch people from other countries, to see what I can learn from them.	
COS5. I like to learn about other ways of life.	

COS6. I find people from other cultures stimulating.	
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Table 3: Affinity

AF1. I have a pleasant feeling about Portugal. AF2. I like Portugal. AF3. I have feelings of sympathy towards Portugal. AF4. I feel captivated by Portugal. AF5. I feel attached to Portugal. AF6. I feel good in Portugal. AF7. I feel inspired by Portugal.	Oberecker and Diamantopoulos, 2011
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Table 4: Country of origin (four dimensions)

Thinking about the main product line of the company offered abroad and point out the level of agreement of the company with the following statements.

<p>COONR1. It is good to highlight typical natural resources from the Porto wine's country of origin - Portugal. (NatR.2)</p> <p>COONR2. It is good to use biodiversity resources from the Porto wine's country of origin - Portugal. (NatR3)</p> <p>COONR3. It is good to use natural resources from the Porto wine's country of origin - Portugal. (NatR.1)</p> <p>COOCR1. It is good to use aspects related to people from Portugal the Porto wine's country of origin. (CultR.3)</p> <p>COOCR2. It is good to use aspects related to people's habits and customs from the Porto wine's country of origin - Portugal. (CultR.1)</p> <p>COOCR3. It is good to use the diversity of cultural manifestations from the Porto wine's country of origin - Portugal. (CultR.2)</p> <p>COOS1. It is good to use music from the Porto wine's country of origin in international advertisement. (Sen.2)</p> <p>COOS2. It is good to use music from the Porto wine's country of origin on the international website. (Sen.1)</p> <p>COOS3. It is good to use music from the Porto wine's country of origin at sites of contact with the client. (Sen.3).</p> <p>COOVTE1. It is good to use the flag design from the porto wine's country of origin. (TexVis.2)</p> <p>COOVTE2. It is good to use the flag colour from the Porto wine's country of origin in contact points with customers. (TexVis.3)</p> <p>COOVTE3. It is good to use acronyms or names related to the Porto wine's country of origin. (TexVis.1)</p>	<p>Nathalie Georgia Carina Johnston, 2019</p>
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Table 5: Attitude toward brand of wine

ABB1. Porto wine has a long-lasting head.	Homer, Pamela M. (2006), “Relationships Among Ad-Induced Affect, Beliefs, and Attitudes: Another Look,” .
ABB2. It is a good buy for the quality/price of the Porto wine.	
ABB3. Porto wine is made of the finest ingredients.	
ABB4. Porto wine is not bitter.	
ABB5. Porto wine has few calories.	
ABB6. Porto wine is thirst-quenching.	
ABB7. Porto wine is nutritious.	
ABB8. Porto wine is healthy.	
ABB9. Porto wine has a strong taste.	
ABB10. Porto wine all natural.	
ABB11. Porto wine has fruit flavoring.	
ABB12. Porto wine has a fair price.	

Table 6: Brand equity

BE1. Porto wine is typically of excellent quality.	Sanyal, Shamindra Nath ; Datta, Saroj Kumar, 2011
BE2. Porto wine is considered by most people to be superior compared to other wine.	
BE3. Porto wine is associated with positive characteristics.	

Table 7: willingness to buy

WTB1. Compared with my friends, I plan to buy more Porto wint of Portuguese origin.	Le, Nguyen, Dinh and Dang, 2017
WTB2. I am going to buy Porto wine this year.	
WTB3. I feel happy buying Porto wine.	
WTB4. For me, there is a certain enthusiasm in buying Porto wine.	
WTB5. I am pleasantly surprised when I see Porto wine being sold in remote places.	

Table 8: Memorability

MM1. drinking Porto wine is something unforgettable.	m Campos et al. (2016), Oh et al. (2007) Reisberg et al. (1988)
MM2. I have strong images of my own behaviors associated with the drinking of Porto Wine that will persist.	
MM3. The experience with the Porto wine will remain in my memory.	
MM4. I can describe in detail my bodily sensations and the sensory stimuli when I drink Porto wine.	
MM5. I'll always remember my own emotions and thoughts.	
MM6. The overall experience setting will be an everlasting memory.	

Table 9: brand identification

BI1. If I talk about Porto wine, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'.	Nam, Ekinci, & Whyatt, 2011
BI2. If a story in the media criticizes Porto wine, I don't like.	Handbook of scales in tourism and hospitality research
BI3. When someone criticizes Porto wine, it feels like a personal insult.	

Table 10: brand affect

BA1: Porto wine gives me pleasure.	Yongjun Sung, Jooyoung Kim, Psychology & Marketing, Vol. 27(7): 639–661 (July 2010)
BA2: Porto wine makes me happy.	
BA3: I feel good when I drink Porto wine.	

4.5 Sample Characterization

After the data collection is completed, these data are introduced into the statistical software IBM SPSS to form a database for statistical analysis. Use acronyms to identify variables in the database. In the end, a total of 719 answers were used for

analysis, and once completed, the samples were characterized.

The sample characteristics are gender, income level, occupation, education, current working status, age, marital status and Country of Citizenship. The following is a description of each item corresponding to the characteristics of the sample and the respondent's personal data.

Gender of Respondents

Among the 719 respondents, 225 were male (31.3%) and 494 were female (68.7%).

The survey results show that more women participated in the survey than men.

Table 11 shows the gender percentage of respondents in the sample population.

gender	Frequency	Percent
female	494	68.7
male	225	31.3
Total	719	100.0

Table 11 - Gender of Respondents

Nationality of Respondents

Among the 719 respondents, there were 196 Chinese citizens (27.2%), Portuguese citizens 322 (44.8%), Brazilian citizens 197 (27.4%), and other countries 4 (0.6%).

Table 12 shows the nationality distribution of the respondents.

Nationality	Frequency	Percent
Portugal	322	44.8
Brazil	197	27.4
Hong Kong, China	1	0.1
Macau, China	4	0.6
Taiwan, China	1	0.1
China continental	190	26.4
other	4	0.6
Total	719	100.0

Table 12 - nationality of respondents

Age of Respondents

More than half of the 719 respondents were young people between 18 and 20 years old (31 respondents, 4.3%) and 21 to 30 years old (356 respondents, 49.5%). Respondents between 31 and 40 years old accounted for 14.6% (105 respondents) of the sampler , 15% of the total were 41 to 50 years old (108 respondents), and respondents aged 51 or over accounted for 16.6% of the total sample (119 respondents). It is worth emphasizing that except for young people, the age distribution of other respondents is more even.

Table 13 shows the age of the respondents.

Age	Frequency	Percent
18 - 20	31	4.3
21 - 30	356	49.5
31 - 40	105	14.6
41 - 50	108	15.0
Over 51 years old	119	16.6
Total	719	100.0

Table 13 - age of respondents

Marital Status of Respondents

Regarding the marital status of the participants, we offer 4 options of choice: single, married, divorced and other.

Regarding the marital status of the interviewees, 411 people (57.2%) were reported to be single, with the highest frequency of records. Then, 268 (37.3%) reported as Married; 34 of them reported divorce (4.7%). The lowest recording frequency is 6, which is the other interviewee (0.8%).

Table 14 shows the marital status of the respondents.

Marital status	Frequency	Percent
single	411	57.2
Married	268	37.3
Divorced	34	4.7
other	6	0.8
Total	719	100.0

Table 14 - marital status of respondents

Occupation of Respondents

To describe the respondent's current occupation, eight options are provided in the survey.

As far as the current interviewee's occupation is concerned, 43.4% of the sample (312 respondents) is a full-time employee with the highest frequency of recording. Then 24.3% were students, with a total frequency of 175. 12.4% were currently self-employed, and the registration frequency was 89. 8.8% of the respondents were work-study programs, and the registration frequency was 63. 4.6% were unemployed, the frequency is 33. 3.8% of respondents were retired, with a frequency of 27. The lowest rate were: 0.8% (6 respondents) and 1.9% (14 respondents) for housewives and others. Table 15 shows the occupation of the respondents.

	Frequency	Percent
student	175	24.3
Self-employed	89	12.4
full time staff	312	43.4
work-study program	63	8.8
Unemployed	33	4.6
Retired	27	3.8
housewife	6	.8
other	14	1.9
Total	719	100.0

Table 15 - Occupation of respondents

Education of Respondents

To describe the respondent's current education, four options are provided in the survey.

With regard to education level, Bachelor degree has 334 respondents with 46.5%, High school degree has 143 respondents with 19.9%, junior high school or below degree has 20 respondents with 2.8% and the Master or above degree has 222 respondents with 30.9%.

Table 16 shows the education of the respondents.

Education	Frequency	Percent
Junior high school or below	20	2.8
high school	143	19.9
bachelor	334	46.5
master or higher	222	30.9
Total	719	100.0

Table 16 - education of respondents

Income of Respondents

With regard to income of monthly, 130 respondents have income less than or equal to 500 € with 18.1%, 170 respondents have income between 500 and 999 € with 23.6%, 144 respondents have income between 1000 and 1499€with 20%, 146 respondents have income between 1500 and 2499€ with 20.3%, 107 respondents have income between 2500 and 4499€with 14.9%, 22 respondents have 5000 € or more income with 3.1%. Table 17 shows the income of the respondents.

Income	Frequency	Percent
Less than or equal to 500 €	130	18.1
Between 500 and 999 €	170	23.6
between 1000 and 1499€	144	20.0
between 1500 and 2499€	146	20.3
between 2500€ and 4999€	107	14.9
5000 € or more	22	3.1
Total	719	100.0

Table 17 - income of respondents

The following table is a description of the population data by nationality.

	Brazil	Portugal	China
Country of origin	27.4%	44.8%	27.3%
Age			
18 - 20 years old	0%	3.8%	11.2%
21 - 30 years old	20.8%	56.2%	67.3%
31 - 40 years old	22.3%	11.5%	11.2%
41 - 50 years old	18.3%	18.9%	5.6%
+ 51 years old	38.6%	10.6%	4.6%
Gender			
Female	68.5%	66.5%	73.5%
Male	31.5%	33.5%	26.5%
Marital Status			
Single	28.9%	62.7%	75.5%
Married	61.9%	31.4%	23%
Divorced	7.6%	5.6%	0.5%
Other	1.5%	0.3%	1%
Educational Level			
Junior high school or below	0.5%	5%	1.5%
High school	23.9%	23.3%	10.2%
Bachelor	23.4%	55.6%	54.6%
Master Degree or higher	52.3%	16.1%	33.7%
Work Conditions			
Student	6.6%	20.8%	48.5%
Self - employed	20.3%	9.6%	9.2%
Full time staff	50.8%	48.8%	26.5%
Work - study program	10.7%	10.2%	4.1%
Unemployed	3%	6.2%	3.6%

Retired	7.1%	1.9%	3.6%
Housewife	0.5%	0.3%	2%
Other	1%	2.2%	2.6%
Monthly income			
Less than or equal 500€	6.1%	6.5%	49%
500€ - 999€	16.2%	35.1%	11.7%
1.000€ - 1.499€	19.8%	20.5%	19.9%
1.500€ - 2.499€	18.8%	24.8%	14.8%
2.500€ - 4.999€	33.5%	10.9%	2.6%
5.000€ or more	5.6%	2.2%	2%

Table 18 – Total Sample description

4.6 Statistical Analysis

In order to evaluate the correlation between the variables in the model constructed by the study, we conducted data analysis in four steps.

1. Use descriptive statistics to test the characteristics of the sample.
2. Conduct reliability testing.
3. Conduct factor analysis.
4. Structural equation modeling (SEM).

4.6.1 Reliability analysis

The reliability analysis is aim to analyze questionnaire reliability. The Cronbach's Alpha is adopted to analyze questionnaire reliability in order to provide more reliable and standard in the study.

The level of reliability is determined according to the following table (Source: George, D., & Mallery, P., 2003).

Cronbach's Alpha	Internal Consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.9$	Excellent
$0.9 > \alpha \geq 0.8$	Good
$0.8 > \alpha \geq 0.7$	Acceptable
$0.7 > \alpha \geq 0.6$	Questionable
$0.6 > \alpha \geq 0.5$	Poor
$0.5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable

Table 19 - Reliability of Determining Reliability of Cronbach's Alpha

From the exploratory factor analysis conducted, the reliability of the data was verified based on the Cronbach's alpha. The results are satisfactory because all variables are greater than 0.8. The alpha of brand equity and brand identification is greater than 0.8, and the alpha of other variables are greater than 0.9, which means a good consistency of the items that make up the scales.

Reliability Statistics					
Scale		Cronbach's Alpha		N of Items	Internal Consistency
Ethnocentrism		0.941		5	Excellent
Cosmopolitanism		0.979		6	Excellent
Affinity		0.968		7	Excellent
Country of Origin Dimension	Natural Resources	0.952	0.968	3	Excellent
	Cultural Resources	0.939		3	
	Senses	0.965		3	
	Visual and Textual Elements	0.930		3	
Total Country of Origin		0.967		18	Excellent
Attitude Toward the Brand of Wine		0.911		12	Excellent
Brand Equity		0.866		3	Good
Willingness to Buy		0.926		5	Excellent
Memorability		0.957		6	Excellent
Brand Identification		0.811		3	Good
Brand Affect		0.961		3	Excellent

Table 20 - Summary of the Reliability Statistics

4.6.2 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test

Factor analysis is one of the statistical methods used to describe the variability between observed variables. The basic purpose of factor analysis is to use a few factors to describe the relationship between many indicators or factors. The variables belong to the same class, and each type of variable becomes a factor, which reflects most of the information of the original data with a few factors. Before conducting factor analysis, we need to determine whether the data can be factored. To this end,

there are two most commonly used evaluation methods: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy is a statistic that indicates the proportion of variance in your variables that might be caused by underlying factors. High values (close to 1.0) generally indicate that a factor analysis may be useful with data. If the value is less than 0.50, the results of the factor analysis probably won't be very useful. Bartlett's test of sphericity tests the hypothesis that your correlation matrix is an identity matrix, which would indicate that your variables are unrelated and therefore unsuitable for structure detection. Small values (less than 0.05) of the significance level indicate that a factor analysis may be useful with your data.

KMO values typically vary from 0 to 1. The significant level of the Bartlett test ($p < 0.05$) was used as a minimum to prove the number of samples the foot bath satisfies the number of items in the scale.

Table 21 explains the KMO worthy evaluation criteria (Pestana & Gageiro, 2003).

KMO	Degree of Common Variance
1 - 0.9	Excellent
0.9 - 0.8	Good
0.8 - 0.7	Average
0.7 - 0.6	Reasonable
0.6 - 0.5	Poor
< 0.5	Unacceptable

Table 21 - Standard of KMO

In addition, values of Bartlett's sphericity test with significance levels $p < 0.05$ indicate that the matrix rejecting the null hypothesis that the data matrix is similar to an identity matrix is feasible. If the overall correlation matrix is similar to the identity matrix, it means that each variable has poor correlation with all other variables (that is,

all correlation coefficients are close to zero), which means that all variables are completely independent (all the correlation coefficients would be zero).

In this research, all value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) are above 0.6. The test results show that the KMO value of brand identification is greater than 0.6, which is reasonable. The KMO values of brand equity and brand affect are great than 0.7, which are average. The KMO values of ethnocentrism, attitude toward the brand of wine and willingness to buy are greater than 0.8, which are good. The KMO values of cosmopolitanism, affinity, COO and memorability are greater than 0.9, which are excellent. All variables for the Bartlett test are equal to 0.00, indicating that they are at an optimal level.

In relation to the values presented for the variance explained, all variables showed significant indices in the explanation of the data.

This result means that the analysis can be further continued. Table 22 shows the data for the relevant tests.

.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test					
Scale	Dimension	Bartlett's Test	% of Variance	KMO	Internal Consistency
Ethnocentrism	1	0.000	81.166	0.867	Good
Cosmopolitanism	1	0.000	90.640	0.932	Excellent
Affinity	1	0.000	84.782	0.930	Excellent
Country of Origin: Natural Resources; Cultural Resources ; Senses Visual; Textual Elements.	4	0.000	91.332	0.769	Average
		0.000	89.239	0.763	
		0.000	93.484	0.768	
		0.000	87.678	0.750	
Attitude Toward the Brand of Wine	1	0.000	65.732	0.899	Good
Brand Equity	1	0.000	79.225	0.726	Average
Willingness to Buy	1	0.000	77.519	0.872	Good
Memorability	1	0.000	82.369	0.917	Excellent
Brand Identification	1	0.000	72.675	0.697	Reasonable
Brand Affect	1	0.000	92.808	0.781	Average

Table 22 - Final Output of Exploratory Factor Analysis

4.6.3 Confirmatory factor analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis, EFA

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test showed good data, which means we can perform factor analysis. First of all, we have to conduct exploratory factor analysis. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is a technique used to find out the essential structure of multivariate observational variables and to process dimensionality reduction. Therefore, EFA can integrate variables with intricate relationships into a few core factors.

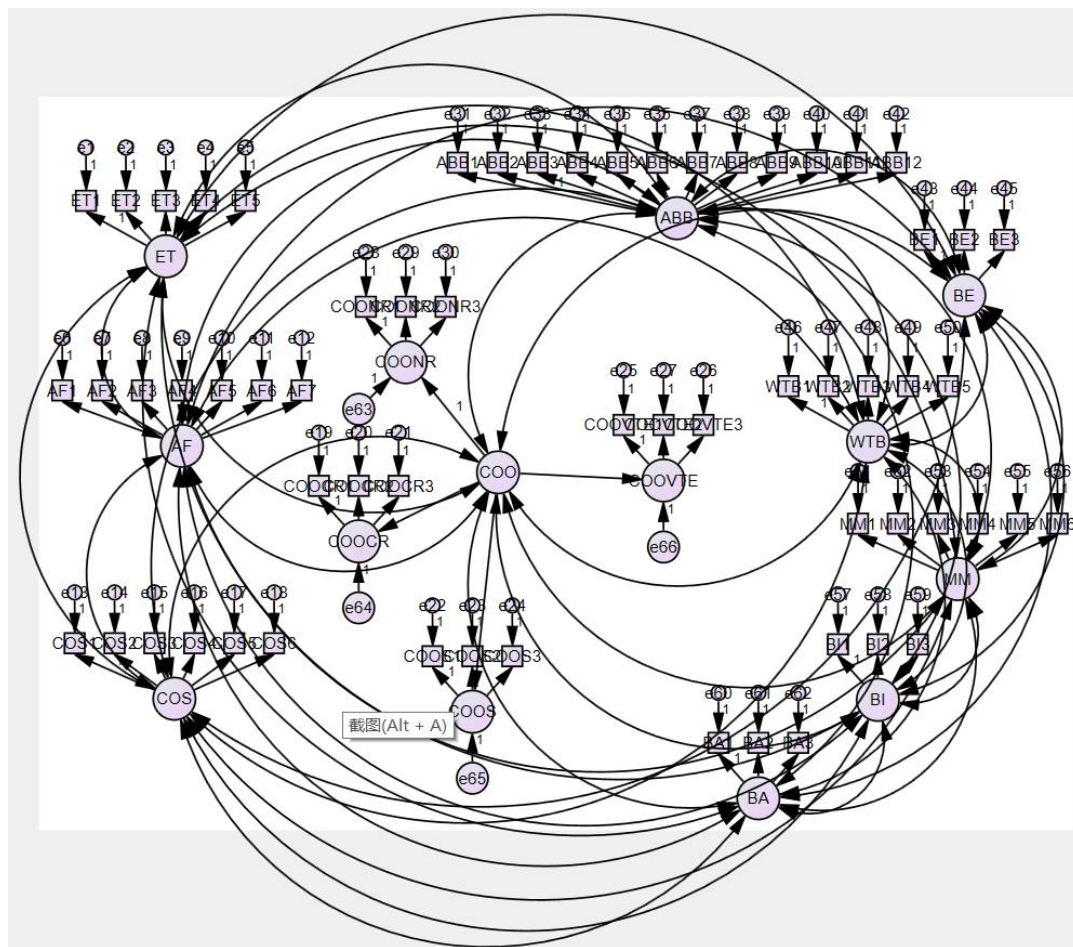


Figure 2 - Initial Measurement Model

At the beginning we tested the following results using all variables.

Index	Model Measure
χ^2	7102.537
gl	1780.000
IFI	0.899
TLI	0.891
CFI	0.898
RMSEA	0.065
χ^2 / gl	3.990

Table 23 - Summary of Initial Table 17-Exploratory Model Index

In the model quality assessment, the goal is to verify that the theoretical model can

show the structure of the correlation between the variables observed in the research sample (March 2010). The measures most used to assess the quality of the model's fit are: Chi-Square χ^2 ; Comparative Fit Index (CFI); Tucker-Lewis Fit Index (TLI); Incremental Fit Index (IFI) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). The following table presents the statistics and quality indexes of adjustment of the model, with their respective reference values.

Types of	Statistical measures	Interpretation	Source reference
χ^2/df	>5	Bad fit	Marôco (2014)
	[2;5]	Fit	
	[1;2]	Good fit	
	<1	Very good fit	
CFI TLI IFI	<0,8	Bad fit	
	[0,8;0,90]	Poor adjustment	
	[0,9;0,95]	Good fit	
	$\geq 0,95$	Very good fit	
RMSEQ	>0.10	Unacceptable adjustment	
	[0,05-0,10]	Good fit	
	≤ 0.05	Very good fit	

Table 24 - Statistics and Reference Values

By comparing the two tables (Table X and table X), we found that the values of IFI, TFI, and CLI are not good, and the model needs to be adjusted. At the same time, we checked the covariances table and recorded the values greater than 100 and the corresponding variables (as shown in the table below). We found that the covariance MI value of the variable attitude toward brand of wine is too large, and the performance is not good. In order to make the model fit better while reducing measurement errors and troubles, we decided to delete the variable ABB. Therefore, the subsequent measurement will not consider the variable of ABB.

Variable	M.I.
----------	------

e37	<-->	e38	ABB7, ABB8	262.906
e35	<-->	e37	ABB6, ABB7	221.838
e31	<-->	e32	ABB1, ABB2	203.016
e36	<-->	e35	ABB5, ABB6	197.783
e32	<-->	e33	ABB2, ABB3	141.055
e35	<-->	e38	ABB6, ABB8	133.091

Table 25 - Covariances of Attitude Toward Brand of Wine

After deleting the variable of A, we finally got a more ideal model index, as shown in the following table:

Index	Model measure
χ^2	3936.265
gl	1135
IFI	0.938
TLI	0.933
CFI	0.938
RMSEA	0.059
χ^2 / gl	3.468

Table 26 - Summary of Final Table 17-Exploratory Model Index

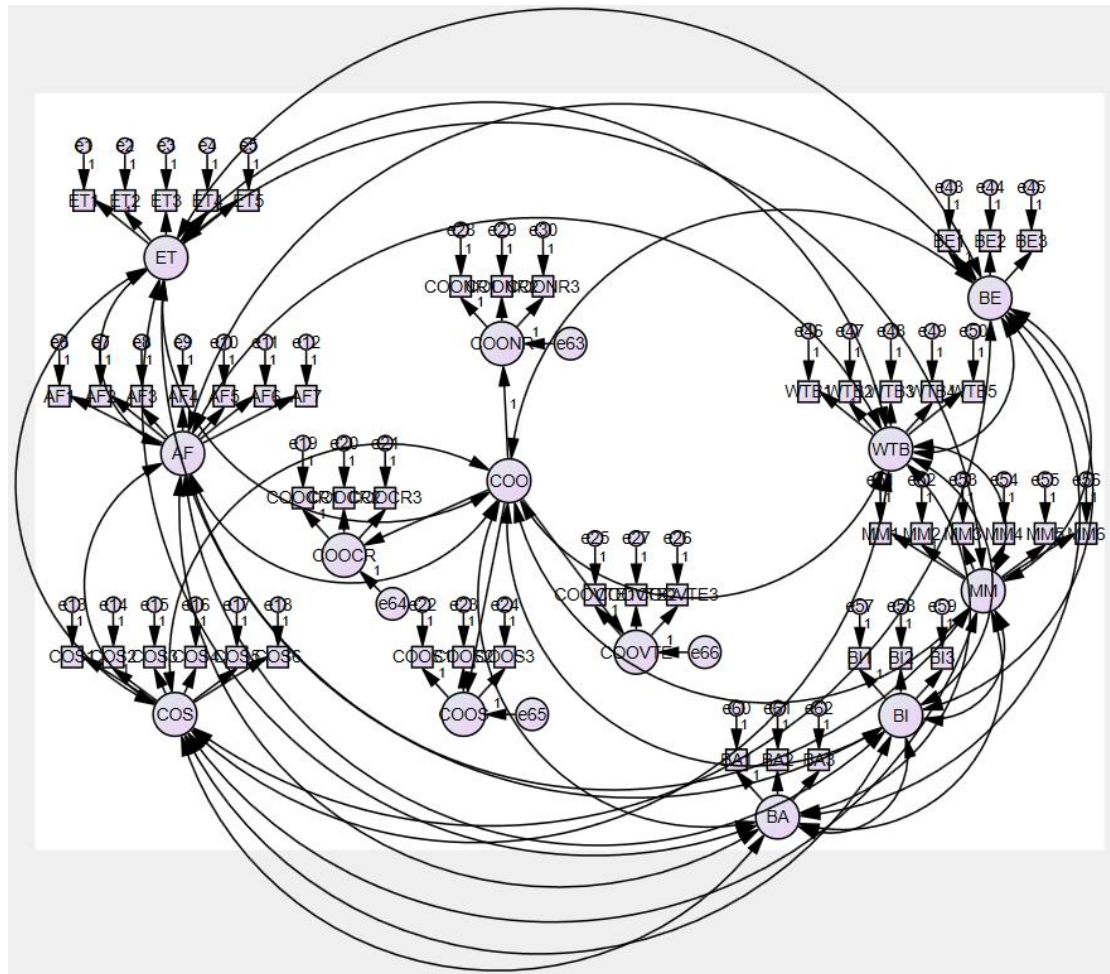


Figure 3 - Final Measurement Model

Confirmatory Factor Analysis, CFA

Confirmatory factor analysis (CAF) is used to evaluate the quality of the theoretical measurement model and the related structure observed between items. The purpose of confirmatory factor analysis is to test whether the data conforms to the hypothetical measurement model.

Confirmatory factor analysis requires the following indicators:

1. Standardized regression weight (SRW). Standard factor loading, $\lambda \geq 0.5$. The AMOS program supports this analysis through standardized regression weights.
2. Squared multiple correlation, R^2 .
3. Measurement error, $\theta = 1 - R^2$.
4. AVE: average variance extracted; this value should be ≥ 0.5 . To estimate the

discriminant validity of the variables, it is necessary to compare the extracted average variance (AVE) with the correlation between the latent variables (Lisboa et al., 2012).

5.CR: Composite reliability: (sometimes called construct reliability) is a measure of internal consistency in scale items. (Netemeyer, 2003). It can be thought of as being equal to the total amount of true score variance relative to the total scale score variance (Brunner & Süß, 2005). Smaller numbers of scale items tend to result in lower reliability levels, while larger numbers of scale items tend to have higher levels. In this study, in order to properly construct a good indicator of reliability, the value should be ≥ 0.7 .

In this study, all of standard regression weight (SRW) values are above 0.5. The data are presented below table:

item	SRW	C.R.	item	SRW	C.R.
Country of Origin			Cosmopolitanism		
Natural Resources			COS1	0.927	
COONR1	0.910		COS2	0.935	47.66
COONR2	0.940	44.286	COS3	0.967	54.653
COONR3	0.951	45.774	COS4	0.969	55.177
Textual Element			COS5	0.939	48.458
COOVTE1	0.921		COS6	0.917	44.492
COOVTE2	0.933	42.66	Brand Equity		
COOVTE3	0.860	34.928	BE1	0.849	
Cultural Resources			BE2	0.746	22.742
COOCR1	0.909		BE3	0.894	28.967
COOCR2	0.923	41.381	Willingness to Buy		
COOCR3	0.916	40.547	WTB1	0.824	
Senses Visual;			WTB2	0.824	26.96
COOS1	0.937		WTB3	0.959	34.809
COOS2	0.970	56.922	WTB4	0.949	34.157

COOS3	0.945	51.221	WTB5	0.674	20.303
Ethnocentrism			Brand Affect		
ET1	0.896		BA1	0.937	
ET2	0.912	37.962	BA2	0.952	52.098
ET3	0.846	32.081	BA3	0.944	50.589
ET4	0.896	36.446	Memorability		
ET5	0.822	30.261	MM1	0.838	
Affinity			MM2	0.889	31.524
AF1	0.917		MM3	0.902	32.347
AF2	0.952	48.696	MM4	0.879	30.881
AF3	0.947	47.837	MM5	0.902	32.372
AF4	0.917	42.825	MM6	0.921	33.659
AF5	0.838	33.726	Brand Identification		
AF6	0.909	41.796	BI1	0.685	
AF7	0.849	34.755	BI2	0.827	18.484
			BI3	0.801	18.148

Table 27 - Individual-Item Reliability

In this study, the composite reliability values of all variables are greater than 0.7, which is a very ideal state. The AVE value of all variables is greater than 0.5.

Variable	COS	ET	AF	COO	BA	BI	MM	WTB	BE
AVE	0.888	0.766	0.819	0.859	0.892	0.598	0.790	0.727	0.692
CR	0.979	0.942	0.969	0.993	0.961	0.816	0.958	0.929	0.870

Table 28- Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted

Discriminant Validity: refers to the low correlation or significant difference between the dimensions of the same potential trait. Items that measure a certain dimension should not have cross-load phenomena. The value of the squared correlation between

the latent variables must be less than the value of the extracted average variance. After analyzing the indices, the existence of discriminant validity was concluded. In the following table, the bold letters represent the square root of AVE. Through comparison, the model has good validity.

Variable	BI	MM	BA	COO	WTB	BE	COS	AF	ET
BI	0.773								
MM	0.443	0.889							
BA	0.424	0.744	0.944						
COO	0.534	0.277	0.311	0.927					
WTB	0.471	0.750	0.806	0.225	0.853				
BE	0.553	0.317	0.449	0.756	0.317	0.832			
COS	0.208	0.330	0.439	0.376	0.364	0.405	0.942		
AF	0.275	0.330	0.414	0.343	0.313	0.416	0.686	0.905	
ET	0.417	0.049	-0.012	0.224	-0.019	0.233	0.086	0.208	0.875

Table 29 - Discriminant Validity (Fornell-Larcker Criterion, 1981)

4.6.3 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

After all the tests conducted by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's are considered feasible, next we use IBM SPSS AMOS statistical software to analyze structural equations.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a method of establishing, estimating and testing causality models. It can replace multiple regression, path analysis, factor analysis and other methods to clearly analyze the effect of individual variables on the overall and the relationship between individual variables. The reasons for using the structural equation model are as follows:

1. Can handle multiple sets of dependent variables at the same time
2. Allow independent and dependent variables to contain measurement errors
3. Able to simultaneously estimate the structure of factors and the relationship

between factors

4. Allow more flexible measurement models
5. Able to estimate the fit of the entire model

5. Analysis of Results

This part introduces the relationship and hypothesis of variables and the analysis of the main information of the sample.

5.1 Descriptive Analysis of Variables

From the descriptive analysis of the variables, it is possible to identify their behavior in relation to the sample, as well as the mean value of the responses and their standard deviations. Through the descriptive analysis of the variables, it becomes possible to characterize the sample's behavior. This analysis is presented below:

Variable	N	Minimum (1=strongly disagree)	Maximum (7=strongly agree)	Mean	Std. Deviation
Ethnocentrism	719	1	7	2.876	1.969
Cosmopolitanism	719	1	7	6.195	1.252
Affinity	719	1	7	5.834	1.485
Country of Origin	719	1	7	5.245	1.647
Brand Equity	719	1	7	5.213	1.639
Willingness to Buy	719	1	7	5.050	1.835
Memorability	719	1	7	4.860	1.762
Brand Identification	719	1	7	5.041	1.745
Brand Affect	719	1	7	5.520	1.510

Table 30 - Descriptive Analysis of Variables

	Portugal N=322				Brazil N=197				China N=196			
Variable	Min	Max	Mean	S. D.	Min	Max	Mean	S. D.	Min	Max	Mean	S. D.
Ethnocentrism	1	7	3.784	1.925	1	7	2.160	1.616	1	7	2.110	1.713
Cosmopolitanism	1	7	6.220	1.286	1	7	6.565	1.058	2	7	5.800	1.248
Affinity	1	7	6.060	1.406	1	7	6.120	1.399	1	7	5.194	1.480
Country of Origin	1	7	5.419	1.565	1	7	4.643	1.926	1	7	5.578	1.239
Brand Equity	1	7	5.550	1.456	1	7	4.750	1.926	1	7	5.153	1.449
Willingness to Buy	1	7	5.407	1.528	1	7	5.418	1.832	1	7	5.568	1.417
Memorability	1	7	4.427	1.801	1	7	5.112	1.873	1	7	5.320	1.376
Brand Identification	1	7	4.267	1.894	1	7	3.397	1.869	1	7	4.290	1.745
Brand Affect	1	7	4.700	1.741	1	7	5.907	1.568	2	7	5.703	1.194

Table 31 - Different Country Descriptive Analysis of Variables

5.2 Results of Adjustment of The Structural Model

After ensuring the quality of the measurement model, at this stage, it is intended to analyze the plausibility of the structural model. Based on the previously proposed assumptions, we constructed a structural model. The following table shows the results obtained from the estimated structural model. Although the adjustment value of the structural model is reduced compared to the measurement model, they are: $\chi^2 = 5521.548$; $gl = 1160$ $IFI = 0,903$; $TLI = 0,900$; $CFI = 0,903$; $RMSEA = 0,072$ and $\chi^2/gl = 4.760$. It can be said that the structural model has sufficient adjustment indicators.

Index	Model Measure
χ^2	5521.548
gl	1160
IFI	0.903
TLI	0.900
CFI	0.903
RMSEA	0.072
χ^2 / gl	4.760

Table 32 - Structural Model Adjustment Indexes

The figure below is the structural model of this study.

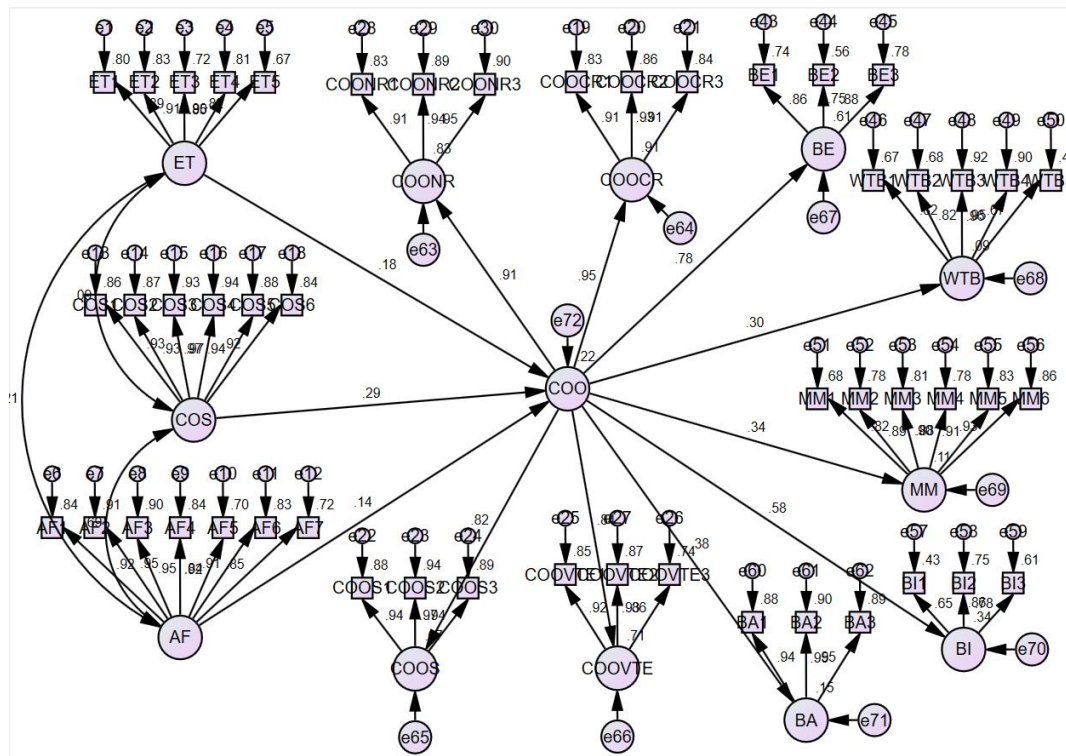


Figure 4 - Structural Model

5.3 Hypothesis Testing

Next, the content introduces the results of testing the hypotheses proposed in this

study. Use SRW and P values to support the hypothesis to be tested to confirm its statistical significance.

Table 33 - Hypothesis Test Results

		Total			Portugal			Brazil			China		
	Variable	Estimate	P	S/nsup	Estimate	P	S/nsup		P	S/nsup	SWR	P	S/nsup
H1	ET→COO (negative)	0.183	***	nsup	0.224	***	S	0.261	***	nsup	-0.025	0.678	nsup
H2	COS→COO	0.292	***	S	0.392	***	S	0.182	0.057	S	0.389	***	S
H3	AF→COO	0.141	0.005	S	0.249	***	S	0.069	0.469	nsup	0.366	***	S
H4	COO→ABB	No longer considered in the model											
H5	COO→BE	0.781	***	S	0.761	***	S	0.806	***	S	0.773	***	S
H6	COO→WTB	0.298	***	S	0.555	***	S	0.078	0.293	nsup	0.792	***	S
H7	COO→MM	0.338	***	S	0.596	***	S	0.067	0.369	nsup	0.778	***	S
H8	COO→BI	0.582	***	S	0.618	***	S	0.592	***	S	0.583	***	S
H9	COO→BA	0.382	***	S	0.635	***	S	0.168	0.022	S	0.802	***	S
Note: (***) = $p < 0,001$; NS: not support = $p > 0,1$; S = support.													

5.3.1 Results Discussion

H1. There's a negative relationship between Ethnocentrism and country of origin on product.

According to Table 33, SWR = 0.183, $n p < 0.001$, which indicates that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a statistically significant correlation between cosmopolitanism and country of origin (Portugal, SWR = 0.224, $p < 0.001$; Brazil, SWR = 0.261, $P < 0.001$). The statistical results were not sufficient to support on China (China, SWR = -0.025, $P = 0.678$).

From the descriptive analysis, we can see that Portuguese consumers are more nationalistic than Brazilian and Chinese consumers. The hypothesis of this study is

that there is a negative correlation between Eth and coo, but the conclusions we reached and the hypothesis do not hold. Next, we will analyze this reason from the perspective of different countries.

This research focuses on consumer behavior towards Portugal, the country of origin of Port wine. For Portuguese consumers, Port wine is a product of their own country, so the higher the nationalism of consumers, the higher the coo.

In developed country, compared with foreign products, consumers in developed countries are often more satisfied with domestic products (Ahmed and d'Astous, 2001; Samiee, 1994; Wang and Chen, 2004). There is evidence that in developed countries, those who believe that they are threatened by foreign competitors of import competitors weaken their employ ability and destroy their culture (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Vida and Reardon, 2008). Customer ET is positively related to home product country image. This is consistent with findings from existing literature (Kaynak & Kara, 2002; Spillan& Harcar, 2012).

For Chinese consumers, ET does have a negative impact on COO, but it is not statistically significant. This is compounded with existing literature. Leet. al., (2017), also point out that consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism stop buying foreign products to protect the domestic market, thus decreasing the interest and purchase intention for imported products.

Because Brazil and Portugal have highly similar cultural backgrounds and some historical factors. Therefore, even consumers with high nationalism may make positive comments on Port. Developing countries, do not necessarily have the same degree of attachment toward domestic products (e.g., Batra, Venkatram, Alden, Steenkamp, & Ramachander, 2000; Li et al., 1997; Ueltschy, 1998). For example, Wang and Chen (2004) showed that if ethnocentric consumers in developing countries are considered to be associated with a highly industrialized or economically developed country, they may make a positive assessment of import quality.

H2. There's a positive relationship between Cosmopolitanism and country of origin.

According to Table 33, $SWR = 0.292$, $n p < 0.001$, which indicates that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a statistically significant correlation between cosmopolitanism and country of origin (Portugal, $SWR = 0.392$, $p < 0.001$; Brazil, $SWR = 0.182$, $P=0.057$; China, $SWR = 0.389$, $P < 0.001$).

From the data, we can see that COS has a positive correlation with a Portuguese COO as the country of origin, and it is statistically significant. And in Portugal, Brazil and China also support this conclusion. This is consistent with the results of the existing literature. Cosmopolitan consumers have a greater tendency to positively evaluate foreign products (Riefler, Diamantopoulos and Siguaw, 2012; Diamantopoulos and Riefler 2009; Cannon and Yaprak 2002; Diamantopoulos and Riefler 2011).

From the descriptive analysis, we can see that Portuguese consumers are more cosmopolitan than Chinese consumers. At the same time, the data shows that the influence of cos on Port wine whose country of origin is Portugal is higher than that of China. This shows that for developed countries, consumer with high cosmopolitanism_also have a high degree of recognition for their own products. Consumers in developed countries with cosmopolitan awareness will consider their domestic brands as part of their range of products for buy: they may distinguish between foreign and domestic brands, but will engage both with “a conscious openness to the world and to cultural differences” with regard to both home country and foreign products (Skrbis et al., 2004, p. 117).

By comparing Chinese and Brazilian consumers, we can see that the average COS of Chinese consumers is lower than that of Brazilian consumers, but the impact of COS on COO is higher than that of Brazilian consumers. This shows that Chinese consumer with cosmopolitan awareness is more likely to recognize some of the characteristics of Portugal as the country of origin in Porto wine advertisements, such as the music of Porto in the advertisement and the packaging design with the Portuguese flag. This also shows that in the promotion of Porto wine to expand the Chinese market, Marketer can show the country of origin as a prominent point in the

advertisement. At the same time, by educating Chinese consumers on the COS awareness, the result of increasing the sales of Port wine will be better than educating Brazilian consumers.

H3. There's a positive relationship between affinity and country of origin.

According to Table 33, $SWR = 0.141$, $n p = 0.005$, which indicates that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a statistically significant correlation between affinity and country of origin (Portugal, $SWR = 0.249$, $p < 0.001$; China, $SWR = 0.366$, $P < 0.001$). The statistical results were not sufficient to support on Brazil (Brazil, $SWR = 0.069$, $P=0.469$).

From the descriptive statistics, we can see that Brazilian consumers have the highest affinity for Portugal, and Chinese consumers have the lowest affinity for Portugal. However, from the impact of affinity on COO, we can see that Brazilian consumers are the lowest, and Chinese consumers are higher than Portuguese consumers. When there is a person's affinity for a particular country, the tendency to evaluate products from this country in a positive way increases, contributing also positively in the purchase intention in relation to products from this country (Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011; Diamantopoulos et. al., 2008; Jaffe & Nebengahl, 2006; Nes, Silkoset & Yelkun, 2013). This shows that increasing the affinity of Chinese consumers for Portugal will be of great help in increasing the intention of Chinese consumers to buy Port wine, and the effect will be more obvious than Brazil.

H5. there's a positive relationship between country of origin and brand equity.

According to Table 33, $SWR = 0.781$, $p < 0.001$, which indicates that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a statistically significant correlation between country of origin and brand equity (Portugal, $SWR = 0.761$, $p < 0.001$; China, $SWR = 0.773$, $P < 0.001$; Brazil, $SWR = 0.906$, $p < 0.001$).

It can be seen from the descriptive statistics that Portuguese consumers have the

highest brand equity for Port wine, while Brazilian consumers have the lowest brand equity for Port wine. The country of origin has the highest impact on brand equity among Brazilian consumers. It can be concluded that in all three countries, coo has a significant statistical impact on brand equity. In other words, when Port wine producers introduce Port wine to other countries, understanding Portugal's image in the minds of consumers is very important to improve the brand effect and continue the branding process. Improving the image of the country of origin and using advertising strategies related to the country of origin to increase consumer loyalty are also beneficial to the sales of Port. When there is a person's affinity for a particular country, the tendency to evaluate products from this country in a positive way increases, contributing also positively in the purchase intention in relation to products from this country (Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011; Diamantopoulos et. al., 2008; Jaffe & Nebengahl, 2006; Nes, Silkoset & Yelkun, 2013).

H6. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and customer willingness to buy.

According to Table 33, $SWR = 0.298$, $p < 0.001$, which indicates that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a statistically significant correlation between country of origin and willingness to buy (Portugal, $SWR = 0.555$, $p < 0.001$; China, $SWR = 0.792$, $P < 0.001$). The statistical results were not sufficient to support on Brazil (Brazil, $SWR = 0.078$, $p = 0.293$).

Based on the above data, we can see that the country of origin effect has a significant impact on consumers in China and Portugal, and it has a greater impact on the purchase intention of Chinese consumers. This is consistent with the existing literature. Consumers' perception of the country of origin greatly influences their willingness to purchase (Wang et al., 2012; Aichner et al., 2016). It can be seen that improving the country of origin effect of Port wine can effectively increase the purchase intention of Chinese and Portuguese Port wine consumers, thereby increasing sales. For Brazilian consumers, the country-of-origin effect cannot

effectively increase customers' purchase intentions (the statistical results are not significant). Brazil's Port wine distributors should improve customers' willingness to buy from other angles.

H7. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and memorability.

According to Table 33, $SWR = 0.338$, $p < 0.001$, which indicates that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a statistically significant correlation between country of origin and memorability (Portugal, $SWR = 0.596$, $p < 0.001$; China, $SWR = 0.778$, $P < 0.001$). The statistical results were not sufficient to support on Brazil (Brazil, $SWR = 0.067$, $p = 0.369$).

According to the descriptive analysis, we can see that the memoryability of Chinese consumers for drinking Port wine is higher than that of the other two countries. Moreover, we can see that the country of origin effect has a significant impact on consumers in China and Portugal, and the memory effect on Chinese consumers is even greater. With the emergence of globalization, wine slowly appeared in the Chinese market. It can be seen that improving the country of origin effect of Port wine can effectively improve the memory of Chinese and Portuguese Port wine consumers, thereby strengthening brand awareness and increasing Customer stickiness.

H8. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and brand identification.

According to Table 33, $SWR = 0.582$, $p < 0.001$, which indicates that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a statistically significant correlation between country of origin and brand identification (Portugal, $SWR = 0.618$, $p < 0.001$; China, $SWR = 0.592$, $P < 0.001$; Brazil, $SWR = 0.583$, $p < 0.001$).

It can be concluded that in all three countries, coo has a significant statistical impact on brand recognition. In other words, Port wine producers can increase their coo, strengthen brand recognition and win customer loyalty. A higher CBI can strengthen

the relationship with the customer, and if this relationship is strengthened, it can increase the ability to charge a price premium (Keh and Xie, 2009). Western wine brands are favored by Chinese consumers, especially in important social and cultural occasions, such as gift giving (Li and Su 2007; Shi et al. 2011). Strengthening brand recognition also means that the Port wine brand can be luxurious and enter the Chinese market, thereby occupying China's market share.

H9. There's a positive relationship between country of origin and brand affect.

According to Table 33, $SWR = 0.382$, $p < 0.001$, which indicates that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a statistically significant correlation between country of origin and brand affect (Portugal, $SWR = 0.635$, $p < 0.001$; China, $SWR = 0.802$, $P < 0.001$; Brazil, $SWR = 0.168$, $p = 0.022$).

We can see that the country of origin effect has a significant impact on consumers in China and Portugal, and it has a greater impact on the brand effect of Chinese consumers. It can be seen that improving the country of origin effect of Port can effectively increase the brand influence of Sino-Portuguese Port wine. But for Brazilian consumers, increasing the country of origin effect of Port wine can also effectively increase the brand influence of Port wine, but the impact is not as great as that of China and Portugal. Brand affect can be described as the consumer's emotional response to the brand after the experience of the brand (nischay K. upamannyu & garima mathur, 2013). Brazilian Port wine marketers need other ways to improve the Port wine brand effect.

6. Conclusions

In this chapter, we summarized the theoretical and practical contributions of this article, the limitations of the article, and future research directions.

6.1 Theoretical and Practical Contributions

With the increasing globalization and internationalization, Port wine is also facing the

challenge of expanding the international market. It is essential to understand the behavior and attitudes of international consumers, as well as foreigners' attitudes towards the image of Port wine whose country of origin is Portugal. COO has also become one of the most researched topics in recent years (Le, Nguyen, Dinh & Dang 2017; Nagashima 1970; Aichner 2014; Shankarmahesh 2006; Balabanis et al. 2017; Bilkey & Nes 1982; Han & Terpstra 1988; Han 1989; Schooler 1971; Anderson & Cunningham 1972; Aichner et al. 2017; Erickson et al. 1984; Han 1989; Huber and McCann 1982; Johansson 1989; Reiersen 1966; Pappu, Quester, Cooskey 2006; Bilkey & Nes 1987; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2011; Samiee 2011; Bloemer, Brijs & Kasper 2009; Hong & Wyer 1989; Johansson et al., 1985).

As important emerging economies, China and Brazil have huge market potential. Through these two countries' research on the COO as Portugal, it can help Porto wine company to understand whether the target customer has established a sense of intimacy with Portugal. At the same time, we can also understand how Brazilian and Chinese ethnocentrism and cosmopolitan consumers have an impact on COO. These factors have great significance to Port wine's international marketing strategy. If the impact of COO is ignored, it may lead to a failed strategy. It is also important to understand Brazilian and Chinese people's needs and preferences and how they treat Port wine. In this case, a thorough analysis of the impact of COO on specific consumer groups can enable marketers to better understand consumers. At the same time, this is also a necessary part of international company research and analysis.

For Port wine brands intending to enter the Brazilian or Chinese market, according to the proposed model, we can find out how Portugal's image as a country of origin can help product sales and consumer loyalty. Ensure that Portugal's image as a country of origin is positive. This is an important sign of success for companies intending to enter China or Brazil as a market.

From another point of view, the country of origin is very important to consumers' purchase intentions. For Port wine, which is named after the place of origin, the image of the country of origin is also very obvious in affecting consumers' purchase

intentions. Through this research, we can learn that Port wine has a good image of the country of origin in front of Chinese consumers, which can directly affect good purchase intention and brand loyalty. Brazilian consumers need to consider other factors. The survey results show that Brazilian and Chinese consumers have a low degree of ethnocentrism, indicating that they are internationalists and open to foreign products. These common roles are conducive to the company's strategy for internationalization.

For Portuguese consumers, independent market plans can also be developed through this research to increase market share.

6.2 Limitation

This research provides some valuable information about Portuguese, Brazilian, and Chinese consumers' perceptions of Port wine as the original nationality. But at the same time there are some limitations as follows.

There are some limitations in this study which one of the limitations is small-scale. This study only included those customers who have drunk Porto wine. Therefore, it is difficult for us to understand those who have not drunk Porto wine and why they are in Haven't drunk it, what is their attitude towards Portugal, the country of origin? Since there are no people who have never drunk Port wine, it is difficult for researchers to carry out international market expansion work if they do not understand such people.

The use of sampling methods also implies important limitations. For example, the samples from China and Brazil are more international students and young people. Such a sample may bias the total population. This also means that we are not sure whether they are well represented.

At the same time, Port wine is a very niche wine in China and Brazil, so when conducting a questionnaire survey, most interviewees did not drink much Port wine. This leads to the sample size is not large enough, not necessarily representative. And the questionnaire is too long, which may cause errors in the answers. For the limitations of the research, the study should not include some demographic data. The

gender doesn't influence the variables. Moreover, the study does not indicate whether the age, occupation and other demographic data are influence the variables. This study to use as a reference to Porto wine country of origin model is set up. However, based on country of origin, this model is not complete and the study does not consider other variables that affect country of origin.

6.3 Future Research Direction

Because the two variables of ethnocentrism and attitude toward brand of wine are different from the predicted results. We should consider other factors.

For consumers in Brazil and China, we can consider the attitude of developing countries towards products from developed countries. It is also possible to formulate an international strategy by comparing the status and influence of Port wine and French or Australian wine in the minds of Chinese and Brazilian consumers. Brazil and China are both very large countries. Different regions have different living habits and cultures. Through analysis and comparison of population samples in different regions, the international share of Port wine will be further expanded. Regional, family, and cultural factors may all be important factors affecting consumers of original nationality.

At the same time, as a major luxury consumer country, China, will Port wine be regarded as luxury consumption, will it increase the sales and popularity of Port wine in China? This also plays an important role in the positioning of Port wine in China.

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Appendixes

Questionnaire

The role of country of origin in Chinese marketing on Porto wine brands 波特酒品牌原产国是葡萄牙在中国营销中的角色

You are hereby invited to participate in a survey conducted as part of a research of the Master's Dissertation in Marketing, University of Coimbra Studies regarding the marketing effects of Portugal wine brand. All the information gathered in the survey shall be used solely for academic research purposes. Your contribution to this study is valuable and your information will be treated in strictest confidence. Please feel free to state your own opinion as a tourist when responding to the statements below as there is no "right" or "wrong" answer for the question. Thank you (in anticipation of your favorable response to this request).

现诚邀阁下参加一项调查,该调查是对科英布拉大学的市场营销硕士论文进行的研究,该调查涉及葡萄牙葡萄酒品牌的营销影响。调查中收集的所有信息应仅用于学术研究目的。您对这项研究的贡献是宝贵的,我们将严格保密您的信息。在回答以下声明时,请随意发表自己的看法,因为该问题没有“正确”或“错误”的答案。谢谢(期待您对此请求的满意答复)。

For further information, please contact: 如有任何询问, 请与研究人员联系:
Ms zhou(lily) e-mail: xiaolili009@gmail.com

Part 1

The following statements refer to the Portugal's wine or Porto wine . Indicate your level of agreement / disagreement with each of the following statements.

以下陈述是指葡萄牙葡萄酒或波特酒酒品牌。表示您对以下每个陈述的同意/不同意程度。

(1=strongly disagree 非常不同意,7= strongly agree 非常同意)。

Factor 1 Ethnocentrism

E1. To buy imported products is not to be Chinese/Portuguese.

购买进口产品不是中国人。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

E2. It is not right to buy imported products because this leaves the Chinese/Portuguese people without jobs.

购买进口产品是不对的,因为这使本国人民失去了工作。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

E3. We should buy products made in China instead of letting other countries get rich with us.

我们应该购买本国制造的产品,而不是让其他国家变得富有。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

E4. Chinese should not buy imported products because this damages china trade and causes unemployment.

中国人不应购买进口产品，因为这会损害中国的贸易并导致失业。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

E5. I will buy only china products.

我将只购买中国产品。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 2 Country Image

CI1. The Portuguese are well educated.

葡萄牙人受过良好的教育。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

CI2. The Portuguese are hard working people.

葡萄牙人是努力的人。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

CI3. The Portuguese are creative.

葡萄牙人很有创造力。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

CI4. The Portuguese are friendly and nice.

葡萄牙人友好而友善。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

CI5. The Portuguese have high technical skills.

葡萄牙具有很高的技术水平。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

CI6. The Portuguese are proud to achieve high standards.

葡萄牙人为达到高标准而感到自豪。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

CI7. The Portuguese are motivated to raise their living standards.

葡萄牙人有动力提高生活水平。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 3 Affinity

A1. I feel captivated by Portugal.

我被葡萄牙迷住了。 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

A2. I feel attached to Portugal.

我感到对葡萄牙的依恋。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

A3. I love Portugal.

我爱葡萄牙 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

A4 I feel inspired by Portugal

我感到受到葡萄牙的启发 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

A3. I love Portugal.

我爱葡萄牙 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 4 Cosmopolitanism

C1. I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their views and approaches.

我喜欢和其他国家的人在一起，了解他们的观点和方法。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

C2. I like to watch people from other countries, to see what I can learn from them.

我喜欢看其他国家的人，看看我能从他们那里学到什么。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

C3. I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.

我喜欢与其他文化或国家的人们交流思想。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

C4. I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.

我有兴趣了解更多有关居住在其他国家/地区的人的信息。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

C5. I like to learn about other ways of life.

我喜欢学习其他生活方式。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

C6. I find people from other cultures stimulating.

我发现来自其他文化的人令人振奋。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 5 Country-of-origin

COO1. I prefer wine from Portugal compared to wine from another country.
与来自其他国家的葡萄酒相比，我更喜欢来自葡萄牙的葡萄酒 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COO2. I feel wine from Portugal has higher quality than wine from another country
我觉得来自葡萄牙的葡萄酒比来自其他国家的葡萄酒质量更高 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COO3. The quality of wine from Portugal is high
葡萄牙的葡萄酒质量很高 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COO4. I feel better when buying wine from Portugal than buying from other countries
从葡萄牙购买葡萄酒比从其他国家购买葡萄酒感觉更好 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COO5. Portugal is reliable in its manufacturing of wine
葡萄牙的葡萄酒生产可靠 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COO6. I am loyal to wine from Portugal
我忠于葡萄牙的葡萄酒 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COO6. I am loyal to wine from Portugal
我忠于葡萄牙的葡萄酒 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COO6. I am loyal to wine from Portugal
我忠于葡萄牙的葡萄酒 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COO6. I am loyal to wine from Portugal
我忠于葡萄牙的葡萄酒 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 5.1 Country-of-origin

Porto wine's strategy in international business in China: Thinking about the main product line of the Porto wine offered abroad and point out the level of agreement of the Porto wine with the following statements.波特酒在中国的国际业务策略：对波特酒在国外提供的主要产品线的思考，并指出波特酒对以下陈述的同意程度（1-强烈不同意并 7-完全同意）。

Dimension: Natural Resources 维度：自然资源

COONR1. It is important to highlight typical natural resources from the Porto wine's country of origin - Portugal (NatR.2)

突出显示波特酒的原产国（葡萄牙）的典型自然资源是很重要的 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COONR2. It is important to use biodiversity resources from the Porto wine 's country of origin - Portugal (NatR3)

使用波特酒的原产国（葡萄牙）的生物多样性资源是很重要的 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COONR3. It is important to use natural resources from the Porto wine's country of origin - Portugal (NatR.1)

使用波特酒原产国（葡萄牙）的自然资源是很重要的 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Dimension: Cultural Resources

维度：文化资源

COOCR1. It is important to use aspects related to people from Portugal the Porto wine's country of origin (CultR.3)

使用与波特酒原产国（葡萄牙）有关的方面很重要 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COOCR2. It is important to use aspects related to people's habits and customs from the Porto wine's country of origin - Portugal (CultR.1)

使用与波特酒原产国（葡萄牙）人们的习惯和习俗有关的方面很重要 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COOCR3. It is important to use the diversity of cultural manifestations from the Porto wine's country of origin - Portugal (CultR.2)

使用波特酒原产国（葡萄牙）的文化表现形式的多样性很重要 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Dimension: Senses

维度：感官

COOS1. It is important to use music from the Porto wine's country of origin in international advertisement (Sen.2)

在国际广告中使用原产国葡萄牙的音乐很重要 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COOS2. It is important to use music from the Porto wine's country of origin on the international website (Sen.1)

在国际网站上使用原产国葡萄牙的音乐很重要 [单选题] *
非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COOS3. It is important to use music from the Porto wine's country of origin at sites of contact with the client (Sen.3).

在与客户联系的站点上使用原产国葡萄牙的音乐很重要 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Dimension: Visual and Textual Elements

维度：视觉和文字元素

COOVTE1. It is important to use the flag design from the porto wine's country of origin (TexVis.2)

文字元素使用波特酒的原产国(葡萄牙)的标志设计很重要 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COOVTE2. Use the flag colour from the Porto wine's country of origin in contact points with customers (TexVis.3)

在与客户的联系点中使用原产国（葡萄牙）的国旗颜色很重要 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

COOVTE3. Use acronyms or names related to the Porto wine's country of origin. (TexVis.1)

使用与波特酒原产国（葡萄牙）相关的首字母缩写词或名称很重要 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 6 Brand Identification

BI1. If I talk about Porto wine, I usually say 'we' rather than 'they'

如果我谈论的是波尔图的波特酒，我通常会说“我们”而不是“他们” [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BI2. If a story in the media criticizes Porto wine, I would feel embarrassed

如果媒体上的一个故事批评波尔图的波特酒，我会感到尴尬 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BI3. When someone criticizes Porto wine, it feels like a personal insult

当有人批评波尔图的波特酒时，感觉就象是个人侮辱 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BI3. When someone criticizes Porto wine, it feels like a personal insult

当有人批评波尔图的波特酒时，感觉就象是个人侮辱 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 7 General Country Attitudes

In your eyes people from Portugal are

在你眼中葡萄牙是[矩阵量表题] *

非常不同意 2 3 4 5 6 非常同意

GCA1. Friendly & likable 友好和讨人喜欢	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
GCA2. Artistic & creative 艺术与创意	○	○	○	○	○	○	
GCA3. Well educated 受过良好教育	○	○	○	○	○	○	
GCA4. Hard-working 努力工作	○	○	○	○	○	○	
GCA5. Technical educated 技术教育	○	○	○	○	○	○	
GCA6. Achieving high standards 实现高标准	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
GCA7. Raised standards of living 生活水平提高	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
GCA8. Technical skills 技术技能	○	○	○	○	○	○	
GCA9. Similar political views 类似的政治观点	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
GCA10. Economically similar 经济上相似	○	○	○	○	○	○	
GCA11. Culturally similar 文化相似	○	○	○	○	○	○	
GCA12. Participates in international affairs 参加国际事务	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
	○						

Factor 8 Attitude Toward the Brand of wine (Cognitive)

In your eyes, Porto wine is/has

在你眼中波特酒是/有[矩阵量表题] *

非常不同意 2 3 4 5 6 非常同意

ABB1. a long-lasting head 具有持久的生命力	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB2. a good buy for the money 物超所值	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB3. made of the finest ingredients 由最优质的原料制成	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
	○						
ABB4. not bitter 不苦	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB5. few calories 卡路里很少	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB6. thirst-quenching 止渴	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB7. nutritious 营养丰富	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB8. healthy 健康	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB9. a strong taste 味道浓郁	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB10. all natural 全天然	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB11. fruit flavoring 具有水果风味	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
ABB12. cheap 便宜	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Factor 9 Product Evaluation

In you opinion, Porto wine is

在你眼里波尔图的波特酒是[矩阵量表题] *

非常不同意 2 3 4 5 6 非常同意

PE1. good taste 好味道	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
PE2. pleasant taste 令人愉快的味道	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
PE3. great taste 太美味了	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
PE4. good aroma 好香气	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
PE5. pleasant aroma 宜人的香气	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
PE6. great aroma 很大的香气	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
PE7. flavorsome 美味的	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
PE8. great flavor 好风味	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Factor 10 Brand Affect

BA1: Porto wine gives me pleasure.

波尔图的波特酒给我带来快乐。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BA2: Porto wine makes me happy.

波尔图的波特酒让我很高兴 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BA3: I feel good when I drink Porto wine.

饮用波尔图的波特酒时感觉很好。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 11 Memorability

MM1. drinking Porto wine is something unforgettable

喝波尔图的波特酒令人难忘 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

MM2. I have strong images of my own behaviors and drinking that will persist

我对自己的行为 and 饮酒有强烈的印象, 这种印象将持续下去 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

MM3. The experience with the Porto wine will remain in my memory

喝波特酒经验将留在我的记忆中 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

MM4. I can describe in detail my bodily sensations and the sensory stimuli when I drink Porto wine.

喝波尔图的波特酒时, 我可以详细描述我的身体感觉和感觉刺激 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

MM5. I'll always remember my own emotions and thoughts

我会永远记住自己的情感和想法 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

MM6. The overall experience setting will be an everlasting memory

整体体验设置将是永恒的回忆 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 12 Brand Familiarity

BF1. Porto wine is very familiar to me

波尔图的波特酒对我非常熟悉 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BF2. Everybody here has heard of Porto wine

这里的每个人都听说过波尔图的波特酒 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BF3. I'm not at all knowledgeable about Porto wine (r)

我对波尔图的波特酒一无所知 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BF4. I have seen many advertisements for it in (specific nationality) magazines, radio, or TV.

我在（特定国籍）杂志，广播或电视上看到过很多关于它的广告。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 13 Brand as icon of local culture

BLC1. I associate Porto wine with things that are Portugal.

我将波尔图的波特酒与葡萄牙联系在一起。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BLC2. To me, Porto wine represents what Portugal is all about.

对我而言，波尔图的波特酒代表了葡萄牙的一切。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BLC3. To me, Porto wine is a very good symbol of Portugal.

对我而言，波尔图的波特酒是葡萄牙的一个很好的象征。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 14 Brand Equity

BE1. It makes sense to buy Porto wine instead of products from other countries, even if they are the same

购买葡萄牙波尔图的波特酒而不是其他国家的产品是有意义的，即使它们是相同的 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BE2. Even if another wine from another country has the same characteristics as port wine from Portugal, I would prefer to buy Porto wine.

即使来自另一个国家的葡萄酒具有与来自葡萄牙的波特酒相同的特性，我还是更愿意购买波特酒。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BE3. If there is another wine as good as Portugal's wine, I prefer to buy Portugal's wine.

如果还有其他葡萄酒与葡萄牙的葡萄酒一样好，我宁愿购买葡萄牙产品。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

BE4. If another wine is not different from Portugal's wine, it seems to me to be smarter to buy "made in Portugal"

如果其他葡萄酒与葡萄牙的葡萄酒完全没有不同，那么在我看来，购买“葡萄牙制造”产品会更明智 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 15 Willingness to buy

WTB1. Compared with my friends, I plan to buy more Porto wine of Portuguese origin.

与我的朋友们相比，我计划购买更多的葡萄牙产的波特酒。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

WTB2. I am going to buy Porto wine this year.

我今年要购买波特酒。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

WTB3. I feel happy buying Porto wine

我很高兴购买波特酒 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

WTB4. For me, there is a certain enthusiasm in buying Porto wine .

对我来说，购买波特酒有一定的热情。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

WTB5. I am pleasantly surprised when I see Porto wine being sold in remote places.

当我看到波特酒在偏远地区出售时，我感到非常惊喜。 [单选题] *

非常不同意 ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7 非常同意

Factor 16 Perceived Value

Based on your experience, you consider, in general, Portuguese products:

根据你的经验，你通常考虑葡萄牙产品：[矩阵量表题] *

非常不同意 2 3 4 5 6 非常同意

PV1. They are of excellent quality. 它们的质量极好。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

PV2. They are very reliable. 它们非常可靠。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

PV3. They are very safe. 它们非常安全。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

PV4. They are very consistent. 它们非常一致。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

PV5. They make me feel good. 它们使我感觉良好。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

PV6. They give me pleasure. 它们使我感到高兴。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

PV7. They give me a feeling of joy. 它们给我一种快乐的感觉。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

☐ ☐ ☐

PV8. They make me feel delighted. 他们让我感到高兴。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

☐

- PV9. Give me happiness. 给我幸福。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV10. Are a good buy. 很好买。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV11. Worth the money invested. 值得投资。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV12. Have a fair price. 价格公道。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV13. Have a reasonable price. 价格合理。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV14. They are economical. 它们很经济。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV15. Seems like a good deal. 似乎很划算。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV16. Are easy to buy. 易于购买。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV17. Requires little energy to buy. 需要很少的能量来购买。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- ☐ ☐
- PV18. It is easy to buy them. 购买它们很容易。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV19. Requires little effort to buy. 几乎不需要购买。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV20. Are easily purchased. 很容易购买。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV21. Have a good reputation. 具有良好的声誉。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV22. They are well respected. 他们受到尊重。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV23. They are well thought out. 他们经过深思熟虑。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV24. Has status. 具有状态。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- PV25. They are well regarded. 他们受到高度重视。 ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Part 2: Personal Information 【第2部分 个人资料】

The following personal information will be used to classify your responses. Please tick the appropriate box for following items: (✓).

这一部分将会问您一些个人及家庭资料, 这些资料将会有助于分析不同组别的被访者。

请 (✓) 以下项目的相关方格。

GE1. Gender 性别 [单选题] *

- ☐ Male 男性
☐ Female 女性

GE2. Age group 年龄组别 [单选题] *

- ☐ 18 岁以下
☐ 18~25
☐ 26~30
☐ 31~40
☐ 41~50
☐ 51~60
☐ 60 以上

GE3. Your highest education level is: 您的最高教育程度为: [单选题] *

- ☐ Junior high school or below 初中或以下
☐ High school 高中
☐ Bachelor 本科/大学

- Master 硕士
- PhD 博士

GE4. Region 地区 [单选题] *

- Hong Kong 香港
- Macau 澳门
- Taiwan 台湾
- Mainland China 中国大陆
- Portugal 葡萄牙
- Brasil 巴西
- Others 其他 _____ *

GE5. Your family monthly income is: 您的个人月薪是：以欧元为单位 (1€欧元=8.7 港币=7.7 人民币=33.3 新台币) [单选题] *

- No income 无收入
- 1€-600€
- 600€-999€
- 1,000€-1,999€
- 2,000€-2,999€
- 3,000 €or above 或以上

GE6. Marital Status 您的婚姻状况 [单选题] *

- Single 未婚
- Married 已婚
- Divorced 离婚
- others 其他

GE7. Occupation 职业 [单选题] *

- Businessman 商人
- Full time staff 全职上班人员
- Student 学生
- Retired 退休
- Others 其他 _____ *