NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY

FACULTY OF ECONOMICS AND ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

RESEARCH METHODS IN ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES

(MAN 400)

GRADUATION PROJECT

"COUNTRY OF ORIGIN EFFECT"

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FEBRUARY, 2007

NICOSIA

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am forever thankful to people who helped me for four years of my university life. I would like to thank all of my teachers who gave me valuable knowledge and advise for my future life; especially my superviser Assist. Prof. Dr. Figen YEŞİLADA gave me valuable guidance and encouragement in my lectures, and social life. I am very thankful for her advices. I would also like to extend my appreciation Dr. Ahmet ERTUGAN for his support and helpfulness. I would also like to thank my family, who gave me emotional and economic support either good or bad times. I also want to thank my friends Serhat YILDIZ, Gül AĞGÜL, and Sevil SIRTMAÇ for their support and helpfulness.

ABSTRACT

The firms want to work with different sources of supply and they are likely to have different ways of thinking about obtaining these. This study furthers an understanding of how COO affects industrial buyers' perceptions approaches to decision making. The research used Turnbull's (1985) on a sample of 125 Turkish firms. The results supported the factors which are "Quality of Marketing", "Customer Oriented", "Working Together", and "Price" included in the original study. The results imply that the survey has construct validity for Turkish firms.

Keywords: COO Effects, Country of origin, Industrial Buyers' Perceptions, Agents, Aksaray, Turkey.

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SECTION I

TERMS OF REFERENCE

1.1 Introduction

This section introduces the broad problem area, problem definition, purpose of study and its questions.

1.2 Statement of the topic

The place of manufacture of products and its effect on consumer preferences has long been discussed in the marketing and international business literature as "country affiliation", but more generally under the rubric of the "country-of-origin effects" (COE). COO effects simply as "information pertaining to where a product is made." It is operationalized and communicated with the phrase "Made in" and the country name. Perceptions of a COO "effect" are measured by means of a continuum from favourable and unfavourable, and a more positive COO effect is routinely linked to greater market acceptance.

1.3 Problem Definition

As more and more firms around the world, large and small, embrace global marketing as a viable business expansion strategy, consumers around the world are facing an increasing array of choices for product and services from many different countries. When firm expand into the global marketplace they face several critical decision alternatives, including production locations, entry modes, advertising and promotions, which have significant ramifications for corporate global performance. The choices of specific strategic alternatives that are made may also have significant impact on consumer product evaluations.

The more international markets become, the greater the salience of country-of-origin (COO) effects on sellers' and buyers' decisions (Bilkey 1993). Rising global integration is forcing firms to reexamine their global strategies from raw material sourcing and manufacturing to distribution channels and worldwide advertising. Marketers and researchers have been drawn to the question of how consumers respond to products from other countries. Past research has shown that the image associated with country of origin plays a significant role in consumers' perceptions of products (Heslop & Popadopoulos, 1993). However, with increased globalization, foreign-produced goods have become an integral part of the typical consumers' life.

1.4 Problem statement

The marketers and researchers have been drawn to the question of how consumers respond to products from other countries. Past research has shown that the image associated with country of origin plays a significant role in consumers' perceptions of products (Heslop & Popadopoulos, 1993). However, with increased globalization, foreign-produced goods have become an integral part of the typical consumer's life. Companies are constantly seeking any competitive edge that will give them an advantage over their competitors. Country of origin is an underdeveloped area in regards to using consumers' and industrial buyers' perceptions of COO to help formulate foreign direct investment (FDI), production, sourcing, advertising, and other strategies.

Although industrial buyers' decisions are influenced by numerous variables including after sales service, proximity of suppliers or their warehouses, conformance to design specifications, etc. (Hutt / Speh 1989, Thorelli / Glowacka 1995).

1.5 Purpose

The purpose of this study is to understand the effect of foreign products' countries of origin on purchasing agents' perceptions.

1.6 The Organisation of the Project

The organisation of this project is as follows:

- Chapter Two summarises the two main streams of literature, country of origin (COO) effect, which are central to the research topic.
- Chapter Three describes the research methodology employed in this study, which includes research design, data collection procedures, questionnaire development, measures used, data preparation procedures, and the proposed statistical analysis.
- Chapter Four Research Findings and Discussion
- Chapter Five Conclusions and Recommendations

1.7 Conclusion

This first section depicted the topic area, the problem situation, the purpose, and the questions set for the project. The next section will reveal the literature review carried out.

SECTION II

COUNTRY-OF-ORIGIN EFFECT: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This section gives a review of the literature carried out in order to identify the variables effect on country-of-origin effect.

2.2 Country of Origin Effect

During the decade of the 1990's, the percentage of global production moving in world trade increased by half, so that by 2000; the ratio of world trade to world gross domestic production reached about 30% (WTO, 2001).

Today, foreign products are typically designated as such, but country-of-origin marks were not a major issue until after World War I. the victors in the war imposed country-of-origin marks on German products to enable consumers in other countries to avoid products from the former enemy (Morello, 1984). Thus, the introduction of systematic country-of-origin labelling could hardly have carried a more negative connotation. The stigma, however, proved to be neither universal nor lasting. As the Made-in label raised Consumers' awareness of sourcing, it also came to stand for attractive features of products from certain countries. Even Made-in Germany became a sign of high quality not long after World War I, and in today's marketplace, Japanese workmanship, Swedish design and French fashion have become world famous.

The approach that we advocate focuses on the examination of contingencies in the environment. Change results from chance, sociopolitical events, and decisions made in the business world, all of which may cause shifts in perceptions of a given country. As time passes, governments strive to improve their nation's standard of living, manufacturing capacity, and product quality; companies build more valuable brand reputations (or they may lose them); and consumers' perceptions of countries, companies, and products change (Brunner, Flaschner, and Lou 1993; Damanpour 1993). As evidence of the contingent nature of the COO effect, consider the vast change in perceptions over the past 50 years of the label "Made in Japan," which has gone from highly negative to highly positive. This change in COO effect reflects improvements in product quality, design, and value (Dornoff, Tankersley, and White 1974; Nagashima 1977; Reierson 1967), as well as more sophisticated marketing strategies and price–quality symbolism.

Given these numerous approaches to researching the COO construct and the impact of a continuously changing environment in international business, it is not surprising that researchers have chosen to simplify their work by focusing on only a few selected components of the COO construct at one time.

Jaworski and Fosher's (2003) concept of a national brand equity cycle captures a nation's essence and core values, which, as they argue, give rise to a national brand identity. National brand effect, which is similar in conception to country image effect, offers benefits to the nation, both internally and externally. Enhanced national brand effect leads to improved COO effects, which in turn help local companies succeed in global markets. Success breeds success, reinforcing the "ingredients" that generated the initial essence and core value development of the nation. Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003) explore three pathways

higher perceived quality, higher prestige and psychological benefits—through which perceived brand globalness influences the likelihood of brand purchase. They find that perceived quality produces the strongest effect.

Although consumer animosity accumulates as a core of negative feelings in a buyer's mind and cannot easily be forgotten or forgiven, this does not mean that companies or governments are powerless to act. During the 1970s and 1980s, many people in the United States perceived Japan negatively because U.S. car makers struggled to prevent domestic job losses resulting from the importation of large numbers of cheaper, more fuel-efficient, compact cars into the United States from Japan. To change U.S. consumers' negative attitudes toward Japan (and subsequently to satisfy North American Free Trade Agreement requirements for local content), the three major Japanese car makers—Toyota, Honda, and Nissan—established manufacturing plants in the United States. Through the use of extensive advertising campaigns, these companies have consistently demonstrated how they have created jobs for people in the United States and increased demand for components made within the North American Free Trade Agreement area (Young, Sauer, and Unnava 1996). This repeated message of being a "good citizen," along with an unbeatable reputation for zero defects and high resale car values, brought about the success that the Japanese car companies enjoy in the United States today.

The country-of-origin effect on consumer evaluation has been found to differ between industrialized and less developed countries. Preferences are more products specific for industrialized countries than for developing countries. Also, the country-of-origin effect is moderated by performance risk and brand. Consumers' quality perceptions of a specific

country's product vary with the country's level of industrial development (Khachaturian & Morganosky, 1990).

Also, the country-of-origin effect may be relatively uniform within a country, suggesting some form of cultural forces may be active in the forming of images about products originating from a certain country. A study of the New Zealand new automobile market showed that country-of-origin stereotyping was present in the New Zealand new car market and that it was often a determining factor in the buying process (Lawrence, Marr, & Prendergast, 1992). However, as Parameswaran and Yaprak (1987) have shown, the reliability of scale ratings of product attributes may differ among different countries. The implication of this for a multi-country study is the need to take into account national differences in response sets before data analysis.

Country-of-origin effect refers to consumers perceive products emanating from a particular country (Roth & Romeo, 1992). Country-of-origin information in many cases has been found to be more important in affecting product quality assessments than price and brand information (Wall, Liefeld, & Heslop, 1991). The importance of country of origin in product evaluation cannot be ignored. How often do we hear people talk about Japanese cars, Swiss watches, and French wines? In fact, the marketers recognize this fact and often use verbal allusion to a product's country o origin as a selling point in their advertisement.

For example, German automobile manufacturers have been known to capitalize on Germany's reputation for engineering in their advertising messages (Head, 1988). Another example would be the increasing presence of hybrid products, which are produced in one country, and branded in another. Such binominal products are often intended to either bolster or inhibit the

country-of-origin information, depending on whether the country-of-origin information is perceived positively or negatively by the potential market (Ettenson & Gaeth, 1991). In fact, Han and Terpstra (1988) have shown that sourcing country image (country of origin) has a more powerful effect than brand name on consumer evaluations of national products. It has also been shown that consumers may frequently display a bias toward products made in countries other than their own (Halfhill, 1980; Schooler, 1971). This kind of phenomenon is also common in the industrial buying context. Asian companies trying to export face market resistance due to national stereotypes. Existing country image as perceived by the importer affects the import decision. As a result, Asian companies have to make special promotional efforts to overcome market resistance based on country-of-origin image (Khanna, 1986). Multinational firms manufacturing abroad may also face the risk of potential loss in brand name value depending upon the image of the country of origin (Johansson & Nebenzahl, 1986).

What causes this country-of-origin effect? Different researchers have suggested different explanations for this phenomenon. Most, however, are of the opinion that the country of origin is a form of image variable that influences the customer's perception of the quality of the product under consideration, to the extent that evaluation of the other salient attributes in the consideration set may be affected. This image variable has also been widely accepted as a surrogate for evaluation when other information is in short supply.

The market prices paid by consumers are empirically and managerially important, because they can contribute more directly than more traditional measures of consumer behaviour to the estimation of potential sales revenues of alternative choices in international production location decisions.

COO has often been examined from an information theoretic perspective or as an information cue (Peter / Olson 1987). Products may be conceived as consisting of an array of information cues both intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic cues involve the physical composition of the product such as flavor, colour, texture, fit, etc. Intrinsic cues cannot be fully appreciated until they are actually experienced by the buyer, e.g., the sound from the stereo speakers. Extrinsic cues are external to the product itself but related to it such as price, brand, warranties, country of design, country of manufacture, etc. (Liefeld 1993). Buyers use extrinsic cues particularly when buyers are less familiar with foreign products (Han / Terpstra 1988) and / or intrinsic cues are not available (Huber / McCann 1982, Olson 1977).

Industrial buyers use essentially the same cognitive processes in determining product choices as consumers. Indeed, although industrial buyers may follow more formalized purchasing procedures, industrial buyers are no more rational in making purchase decisions than consumers (Fern / Brown 1984, Wilson 2000). Specifially, Wilson (2000) argued that "the arganizational buyer behaviour theory is based largely on research into exceptional examples of purchasing (e.g., expensive or strategic purchases) whereas the vast bulk of routine purchasing occasions suggest a more typical pattern of purchasing agents acting with delegated discretion, virtually as individuals".

Moreover, most industrial buyer behaviour theory has historically been "dominated by a default paradigm of large manufacturing organizations operating primarily in the context of western markets" (Wilson 2000). In other words, many industrial buyers are not members of large complex organizations but are employed in family organizations, small business enterprises, not-for-profits, etc. The assumption that industrial buyers operate in a more complex decision-making process may no longer be valid. Wilson (2000) concluded "a

greater emphasis should be placed on the personal and social aspects of the buying process and on the effect of pre-existing influences such as experience, personal paradigms, cultural preferences and habituation".

The basic premise of consumer choice models generally involves an attempt to maximize utility. In the industrial purchasing setting, utility maximization is often related to the cost / quality tradeoff, i.e., purchasing agents try to obtain the highest quality at the lowest price. Furthermore, despite the various additional variables (organizational and interpersonal) in the industrial buying process, the fundamental base of industrial buyers' COO perceptions is formed through the consumer processing cognitive system. Utility is influenced by buyer tastes, product attributes and psycho-social clues.

Psycho-social cues (marketing messages) and the physical features of the product (the COO constructs) directly affect the buyer's perceptions. This is the essential beginning of the process to final product purchase. However, it should be noted that COO cues are rather unique in that in addition to being a physical feature of the product, they can also be considered as a psycho-social cue because of the often strong biases that COO cues can create in buyers. How buyers' perceptions are formed is critical to COO research as this is the starting point for final product choice.

Zeithaml's (1988) means-end model demonstrated the direct influence of extrinsic cues on perceived quality and perceived value. The means-ends chain approach to understanding the cognitive structure of consumers posits that product information is retained in memory at several levels of abstraction. Evaluations of quality generally are performed in a comparative context, and a product is rated high or low depending on its relative excellence among

products or services that are viewed as substitutes for the buyer. Hence, to understand the underlying concepts of COO effects, it is important to analyze and comprehend this "set of products" or, more importantly, the perceived quality associations of the countries that are included in the buyer's comparative (evoked) set when country-of –origin becomes an important information cue.

Zeithaml's perceived quality model posits that price, extrinsic attributes and intrinsic attributes directly impact perceived quality. Intrinsic and extrinsic cues are the dichotomous attributes that signal quality (Olson 1977). Intrinsic cues are by definition product-specific and therefore not generalizable as indicators of quality across all types of products. Extrinsic cues, on the other hand, are not product-specific and can serve as general indicators of quality across all types of products (Zeithaml 1988). It is this generalizability that makes the study of extrinsic cues appealing to industrial marketing researchers.

In addition to the consumer models, a better understanding of industrial buyer search behaviour may also be useful. Liang and Parkhe (1997) argued that industrial buyers will optimize decision choice within the bounds of rationality, but beyond the bound, they will choose a more simplified decision process and satisfice (Cyert/March 1963, Simon 1978). Moreover, they suggest that industrial buyers follow different search approaches in domestic versus international vendor decisions because international vender decisions are more complex and more likely to exceed the bounds of human rationality. Consequently, "buyers are more likely to adopt a cognitively less demanding, non-compensatory approach by taking shortcuts in their search and evaluation efforts" (Liang / Parkhe 1997). Instead of selecting the best choice among "known alternatives" based on a rational weighing of various vendor or product criteria, purchasing agents engage in more of a "search" process, rather than a

"choice" process because the information processing load that includes international products will most likely exceed the bound of human rationality.

Therefore, international industrial buyers probably angage in satisficing behaviours because a systematic rational choice process is often prohibitively expensive and cognitively overwhelming (Liang / Parkhe 1997). Hence, instead of collecting information according to a product's marginal returns and costs, industrial buyers of international products may follow the "availability heuristic" (Liang / Stump 1996) and "rely on information that is easily recalled and readily accessible, such as vendor reputation, country-of-origin stereotype, and word-of-mouth recommendations" (Liang / Parkhe 1997).

Early COO studies used a simple "Made in ..."cue. However, as COO research matured, the country of origin cue began to be decomposed into more specific pieces such as country of assembly (COA), country of design (COD) and/or country of manufacture (Chao 1993, Johansson / Nebenzahl 1986). Chao (1993) and Ahmed and d'Astous (1996) recognized the need to measure the "parts" dimension and recommended that future researchers should attempt to assess the impact of this component. Tse and Lee (1993) specifically examined the country of assembly and country of components and found that the component (parts) origin was significant in both "long-term attributes" and "overall evaluations".

Just as the previous "Made in" construct became too general to analyze cleanly, increased global rationalization has diminished the usefulness of solely examining the country of manufacture or contry of assembly component in defining overall country of origin effects. Indeed, as previous researchers have claimed that MNCs may want to shift design or assembly operations to take advantage of COO perceptions (Chao 1993, 1998), similar logic

applies to the parts manufacturing process. Therefore, the next step in COO research is dividing the country of origin construct into three separate components – country of design, country of parts (COP) and country of assembly (Insch / McBride 1998). Thus, collecting data on the "country of parts" component and indeed all three COO constructs will aid in determining the value of COO cues for strategic production planning, industrial purchasing and potential marketing benefits.

In response to global competitive pressure, many corporations have engaged in multinational production. Cheaper imports have forced corporations to take different measures to strengthen their competitive position including offshore manufacturing, global sourcing and global strategic alliances where two or more partners decide to collaborate in order to take advantage of each other's strengths. As a result of such rapid changes and developments in the global business strategic environment, product-country association is no longer a single-country phenomenon. As a result of these processes, both household and organizational buyers face a more complex and more varied array of products.

Many corporations are manufacturing and assembling and sometimes even conceiving, designing and engineering products abroad, in newly industrialized countries. However, past and recent studies have shown that products made in newly industrialized countries are evaluated negatively. Workers in such countries are perceived to be technologically unsophisticated. In the context of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) which now includes Mexico, a newly industrializing country, it seems important for international household and organizational marketers to examine the reactions of Canadian and US buyers towards made-in-Mexico products. This may also prove interesting for those firms in other developed countries that manufacture products in newly industrialized countries for export to

North American markets. For example, Japanese companies planning to manufacture products in Mexico, to take advantage of the gradual elimination of US and Canadian trade barriers coming out of NAFTA, should take into consideration buyers' reactions to the made-in-Mexico label. Although because of lower labour costs, lax environmental regulations, and tax concessions, it may appear advantageous for developed country firms to implement manufacturing facilities in newly industrializing countries, negative attitudes towards a country of origin can adversely affect the perceived quality and purchase value of products made there.

For many firms the design and assembly operations associated with the making of a product may not take place in the same country. According to Chao (1998), hybrid products will be more and more present in the global marketplace because of the changing strategies of global corporations. Research must therefore adopt a multidimensional concept perspective on country of origin by distinguishing between country of design and country of assembly.

Does country-of-origin affect the prices that resellers charge for their products? Hullond, Todino, and Lecraw investigated how the country-of-origin influences prices set by resellers in the Philippines' highly competitive market, while controlling for the potential influences of brand name and product size. The results suggest that CO effects on resellers' prices can be substantial. They also indicate the importance of building and maintaining strong brand names.

CO effects were found to have a significant impact on the prices consumers appeared to be willing to pay. In particular, manufacturers producing superior products appeared able to establish and maintain substantial price premiums for products sold in less industrialized

countries (LICs). Conversely, products made in LICs for sale in the domestic markets appeared able to survive only if priced at a substantial discount to regional and global competitors.

The results also indicate that the development of strong brand equity should be a high priority for all marketers, particularly since brand was found to partially offset negative country-of-origin effects. This was found to be true whether brand was distributed and marketed globally (e.g., Coca-Cola) or locally (e.g., Sarsi, a Philippine soft drink).

The study done by Hulland et al. suggests that managers of multinational corporations (MNEs) need to consider the effects of country-of-origin in making their product sourcing and pricing decisions. For example, the evidence here suggests that the location of manufacturing facilities in the Philippines is likely to have a strong and negative impact on product pricing. In this case, the MNE managers might be better advised to locate their production in a different country, and to import the product to the Philippines, assuming, of course, that import duties are lower than the price premium that can be obtained in the market.

Links among firms, institutions and infrastructure within a region give rise to localization economies that are external to individual firms. Alfred Marshall pointed to the pooling of markets for specialised skilled labour, the development of subsidiary trade and suppliers of intermediate inputs, and the easy flowof information between firms as forces, which drive industrial concentration (Krugman 1991). The accumulation and sharing of knowledge among firms in an industry is enhanced by a local legacy of specialisation in the products and processes of a particular industry (Henderson 1997). Jacob (1969), however, argues that the most important knowledge spillovers are those across industries. That is, diversified industries

stimulate the geographic concentration of loosely related industrial activities. There is systematic evidence to suggest that multinationals are attracted to clusters of economic activities and to closely-related industries (Wheeler and Mody 1992; Smith and Florida 1994; Head and Ries 1996; ´O hUallach´ain and Reid 1996; Devereux and Griffith 1998; Dunning 1998; Ford and Strange 1999; Coughlin and Segev 2000; Guimaraes et al. 2000).

Recent research proposes that interactions between scale economies and transportation costs facilitate the concentration of manufacturing activities in a few large markets (Krugman 1991). Scale economies encourage firms to choose only a few locations for production, while the presence of transportation costs forces them to locate in large markets. Cost and demand linkages create strong interdependence between firms through input-output structures, which leads to spatial industrial concentrations (Venables 1996). Empirical studies confirm that foreign firms are drawn to locations with good market accessibility (Friedman et al. 1992; Gong 1995; Devereux and Griffith 1998). Foreign investors in particular appear to benefit from locating in existing clusters of foreign enterprises (Dunning 1998). Due to a lack of local knowledge, foreign firms are expected to encounter so-called "disadvantage of alien status" in host economies. Information spillovers among foreign firms can, however, attenuate these disadvantages (Kinoshita and Mody 2001). Foreign investors from a particular country are more likely to exchange business information and experience of doing business in host economies with each other. Their strong business connections, shared language and culture may facilitate closer relationships. Such information spillovers stimulate potential investors to follow their fellow pioneers. If foreign producers disproportionately supply other foreign firms, there might be incentives to locate in proximity to their customers (Smith and Florida 1994). Inter-firm linkages within Japanese business groups, for example, encourage members to establish affiliates to locate nearby one another (Ford and Strange 1999; Urata and Kawai

2000). Smith and Florida (1994) and ´O hUallach´ain and Reid (1997) report that Japanese automobile component parts are more likely to locate in proximity to Japanese automobile assemblers. Head et al. (1995, 1999) and Kogut and Chang (1996) find that Japanese firms often open new plants in U.S. states that house a large number of Japanese establishments and members of their business groups. Members of these Japanese corporate groups may overcome their lack of overseas experience by grouping together to share information regarding market trends, recruitment and suppliers. In summary, FDI locations within a host country may be driven by a variety of agglomeration economies.

Theoretically, the prospective benefits accrued from FDI arecommonto all investors regardless of origin. These benefits include market access, cost reduction, efficiency improvement, and internalisation advantages (Dunning 1993). Locational patterns of FDI, however, may vary by origin due to myriad economic, cultural and geographical factors (Dunning 1988). Different investment strategies of multinationals in China have been well documented (Sun 1998; Shi 2001; Luo 1998, 1999). Two dominant motivations driving firms to invest in China are to use relatively cheap production factors, and to seek access to the large domestic market. These motivations, however, are not necessarily mutually exclusive.

Economic structural transformations in HongKong andTaiwan have spurred the transfer of labour-intensive export-oriented industries to the Mainland China (Sun 1998). Investors from Hong Kong and Taiwan are ethnic Chinese, benefiting from advantages in language, cultural traits, ethnic links, and access to social networks in China. In the 1980s a large share of firms based in Hong Kong and Taiwan tended to serve their existing international markets rather than the Chinese market. As the Chinese economy became increasingly open and integrated into the global economy, Hong Kong and Taiwanese firms began changing their FDI

destinations. More manufacturing firms based in HongKong andTaiwan, especially those located outside Guangdong and Fujian, are increasingly emphasising China's domestic market.

Multinationals from the United States possess strong ownership-specific advantages and their investments are often capital and technology-intensive. Access to China's huge population is their principal motivation (Sun 1998; Shi 2001). Dunning (1993) points out four reasons for market-seeking FDI: (1) to maintain business linkages with their main suppliers and customers; (2) to adapt more precisely their products to local needs and tastes; (3) to reduce of shipment; and (4) to maintain a present position in the world market. With a fast growing large market, combined with culturally unique traits and geographical distance from the United States, China attracts market-oriented American multinationals.

Japanese investments in Asia are traditionally trade-creating. Kojima (1978) emphasises that Japanese FDI is undertaken to acquire comparative advantages. As such, Japanese FDI represents international backward integration or the dispersal of vertically integrated firms' activities. Moreover, it is trade-creating because host countries are not regarded primarily as markets, but as locations for lower cost production of intermediate or finished goods for intra-firm trade or home and third country exports (Thompson and Poon 1998). Hellvin (1997), for example, finds that Japan has the highest level of intra-industry trade with China among OECD countries. The Japanese understand Chinese culture fairly well, but the historical and political mistrust undermines the advantages derived from geographical proximity and cultural familiarity. In addition, Japanese investors are often risk-averse (Rong 1999).

Earlier studies dealing with the country of origin effects in FDI locations in China include Leung (1990) and Schroath et al. (1993). They pointed out that investors from HongKong, the United States, Japan and Europe responded differently to major business centres, geo-cultural factors, and tax and economic incentives. Qu and Green (1997) report that city size, consumption level and infrastructure are the most important locational factors for American, Japanese and European investments, while cultural and geographical distance plays a prominent role in Hong Kong investments. Singaporean investors mainly value the favourable treatment granted to foreign investors. Zhao and Zhu (2000) provide more evidence to support the country of origin effects in FDI locations. According to their research, Hong Kong and Taiwan investors actively seek locations with vigourous market demands, large export potentials and high profit ratios, while Japanese investments are resource seeking. The U.S. and European investors generally prefer to have their ventures located in the regions with higher labour productivity and better overall economic fundamentals.

Previous studies fail to highlight the advantages accrued to firms located in close proximity to one another, thereby ignoring the sectoral variations of the country of origin effects in FDI locations. This article attempts to test the importance of agglomeration economies in directing foreign manufacturing enterprises within a host country. The study also aims to test the country of origin effects in FDI locations at the sectoral level.

2.3 COO and Marketing Strategies

Although COO research is well documented in the international marketing literature, few studies have explored either the use of marketing strategies and country image effects among multinational corporations of different nationalities (Niss 1996) or COO effects in developing

countries (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999). Questions remain about how, where, and when a country image strategy can be successfully implemented in international marketing.

Empirical research suggests that COO can be better used at the beginning of a product's life cycle. Appelbaum and Halliburton (1993) claim that the positioning of a product tends to be informative in the introductory stage and becomes increasingly abstract and emotional in the growth stage. Niss (1996) and Balabanis and colleagues (2001) argue that firms may need to consider localizing brand names or promoting an international brand image of their products if target consumers perceive their COO negatively. A well-known example of the first option is the long-standing use of the company and brand name Vauxhall in Britain rather than the U.S. parent company name of General Motors (Samiee 1994).

Hulland, Todino, and Lecraw (1996) conclude that COO information can influence multinational corporations' pricing strategy. They find that imported products manufactured in more industrialized countries command price premiums in the Philippines compared with the same product produced by the same company with COO cues that indicate that the product was manufactured in less industrialized countries.

2.4 Conclusion

This section has conducted a review of literature on country of origin effect. Main variables identified and their correlations are discussed in the next section.

SECTION III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to describe the methods by which the stated research questions, mentioned in the previous chapter, are tested using a survey of Turkish purchasing agents. The chapter involves the overall research design, including research design, sampling frame, sampling method, sample size, unit of analysis and survey instruments, including all measures used.

3.2 Research Design

3.2.1 Research Approach

The cross-sectional study design was used in this research, because a study can be done in which data gathered just once, perhaps over a period of days or weeks or months, in order to answer research question (Sekaran, 2003). Cross-sectional design involves the collection of information from any given sample of population elements only once (Malhotra 2006). Kumar (2006) explained that this design is suitable for studies that aim to analyse a phenomenon, situation, problem, attitude or issue by considering a cross-section of the population at one point in time. The advantage of this method is that it is cheaper and less time consuming than a longitudinal design. This study is related in the natural environment of the consumers with minimum interference. A correlational study is conducted in the natural environment of the organization with minimum interference by the researcher with the normal flow of work (Sekaran, 2003). This investigation is done in firm's own place so that study is

focused field study. Correlational studies done in organizations are called field studies (Sekaran, 2003). And finally, the time horizon of this study was one-shot design (Sekaran, 2003).

3.2.2 Sampling Frame

In this project, purchasing executives of the firms are the sample group. It aimed to measure their behaviours against sources of supply.

3.2.3 Sampling Method

Due to limitation of time and in order to collect data with questionnaire as quickly as possible, in which an initial group of respondents is selected, usually at random. The questionnaire was submitted to Aksaray Chamber of Commerce; the questionnaires were delivered to all of the small and medium sized firms in Aksaray. (n=123) Thus, sampling technique was census. The lists of small sized firms were so huge that the questionnaire was delivered to 31 conveniently selected small firms. The firms were chosen randomly and delivered by hand to firms' purchasing executives by them. Later, the questionnaires were collected back by the Aksaray Chamber of Commerce and submitted to the resender.

3.2.4 Sample Size

Data for this study were collected during fall 2006 from a sample of 125 firms in the city of Aksaray, TURKEY.

3.2.5 Unit of Analysis

Unit of analysis in this study is the individual purchasing agents, because this study was tried to identify the effect of foreign products' countries of origin on purchasing agents' perceptions in Aksaray, Turkey.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

In this section, the development of the questionnaire is discussed. This includes issues such as translation, back translation of the questionnaire. The section also describes the data collection procedure in detail.

3.3.1 Questionnaire and Back Translation

Data were collected by using the questionnaire developed by Turnbull (1985). The questionnaire was used by Güdüm (1993), therefore it was already translated to Turkish and implemented before.

3.3.2 Data Collection Procedure

In this research, it was aimed to reach 150 samples, and 150 questionnaires were distributed in Aksaray, Turkey as mentioned in section 3.2.3, but 125 of them were collected, so 125 of them were useful for our investigation. Thus its response rate was 83,3 %.

3.4 The Survey Instrument

A structured questionnaire developed by Turnbull (1985) was used in this research. The actual survey questionnaire is included in Appendix. The questionnaire was divided into three (3) sections. The first section of the survey, the sources of supply evaluating criteria take place from the four countries point of views. Which are Germany, Japan, China and Turkey. The section II has three questions, in the first question, it was supposed that four (4) countries have the equal industrial product from all aspect, and asked the respondents to arrange it according to preference; in the second question, respondents were asked to state three factors which are

important on choice of local and foreign source of supply ; the third questions, aimed to occur the recognition level of a country's source of supply and purchased product type by asking how many years they are working together and the product type who purchase. And the section III aimed to determine demographic profiles of the respondent. The instrument contained 27 Likert-scaled items scored from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), and the analysis employed statistical procedures equivalent to those used by Turnbull (1985).

3.4.1 Data Analysis of Questionnaire

Descriptive statistics identified characteristics of the sample. Following Turnbull (1985), similar analytical methods were used in this replication study. SPSS statistical computer program was used to analyse the data handled from questionnaires. Analysis of the first section was made by using the average values. Analyses of the second and third sections were made by using the frequency method.

3.4.2 Data Analysis of Demographic Traits

Table 1 shows the profile of the respondents included in the study. Of the respondents, 35.2 % are in the 31-40-age bracket and 33.6 % are 41-50-age bracket; 91.2 % are men; 68.8 % are graduate from University; 36.0 % are specialized in business and economy and 39.2 % are specialized in engineering; 53.4 % have at least are foreign language, 38.4 % of them speak English; 58.4 % are owners of the company and 41.6 % are manager/staff within firm.

Table 1: Demographic Profile of the Respondents (n=125)

Demographic factors	n	%
Age		
20 and below	0	0
21-30	33	26.4
31-40	44	35.2
41-50	42	33.6
51 and above	6	4.8
Gender		
Woman	11	8.8
Man	114	91.2
Education		
Elementary School	0	0
Secondary School	0	0
High School	32	25.6
University	86	68.8
Master / PhD	7	5.6
Specialization		
Business / Economy	45	36
Engineering	49	39.2
Foreign Languages		
English	48	38.4
French	6	4.8
German	13	10.4
Non	58	46.4
Position within Firm		
Owner	73	58.4
Manager / Staff	52	41.6

Table 2 shows the profile of the firms included in the study. Of the firms, 19.2 % are in the automotive sector; 27.2 % were established in or after 2000 year and later; 98.4 % are local investments; 86,4 % are between 1 and 50 full-time employed people within the firm.

Table 2: Profile of the Contributors to the Study (n=125)

Demographic factors	n	%
Industry		
Weave	16	12.8
Food	18	14.4
Mining	18	14.4
Automotive	24	19.2
Construction	18	14.4
Furniture	11	8.8
Chemical Materials	10	8
Machine Industry	10	8
Establishment Year		
1980 and before	14	11.2
Between 1981 – 1989	12	9.6
Between 1990 – 1999	65	52
2000 and later	34	27.2
Capital Structure		
100 % Local Investment	123	98.4
100 % Foreign Investment	2	1.6
Number of Full–Time Employees		
Between 1 and 50	108	86.4
Between 51 and 250	15	12.0
251 and above	2	1.6

3.5 Conclusion

This section has described the methodology followed during the investigations of this project.

SECTION IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This section includes research findings and its discussion by using results of the questionnaires.

4.2 Findings and Discussion

Of the respondents, 14.4 % stayed in Germany; 4 % stayed in Japan; 5.6 % stayed in China; 6.4 % stayed in England; 3.2 % stayed in USA. (Table 3)

Table 3: Being position and time of the respondents in countries as below

Being Position and Time			Countries				
			Germany	Japan	China	England	USA
Being Position	n		18	5	7	8	4
	%		14,4	4	5,6	6,4	3,2
Time	Less than 1 month	n	5	5	7	4	4
		%	4	4	5,6	3,2	3,2
	Between 1-12 months	n	9	-	-	2	-
		%	7,2	-	-	1,6	-
	More than 1 year	n	4	-	-	2	-
		%	3,2	-	-	1,6	-

Of the respondents, 19.2 % were the automotive sector; 14.4 % were the food sector, 14,4 were the mining sector, and 14,4 were the construction sector; as can be seen on Table 4.

Table 4: Distribution of the Respondents according to Sectoral Process

Sector	n	%
Weave	16	12,8
Food	18	14,4
Mining	18	14,4
Automotive	24	19,2
Construction	18	14,4
Furniture	11	8,8
Chemical Materials	10	8
Machine Industry	10	8
Total	**125**	**100**

The analysis of the second question in the second put of the questionnaire indicated that price (1), delivery time (2) and transportation (3). Use the most important three factors companies in decide on the local supplier on the other quality (1), reliance (2) and technical service (3) use the three most important factors to companies in decide which forcing supplier to work with.

This is interested in second part of the questionnaire, the price is perceived at first level, the reaching time is perceived second level and the transportation is perceived third level by the respondents on local source of supply; the quality is perceived at first level, the reliance is perceived second level and the technical service is perceived third level by the respondents on foreign source of supply.

Regardless of price, quality, style, service and distance each other of the countries, data about the preference level of source of supply. Most preferred COO source of supply is Germany. Least preferred COO source of supply is China. Weighted average of this distribution is Germany, Japan, Turkey and China respectively.

In the first instance, mean scores and standard variations were calculated for all countries involved in our survey. Table 5 shows the results of this initial analysis for these countries. This section handled the results of the questionnaires that were analyzed and the researh findings were discussed.

In the result of analysis some factors were gotten which are "quality of marketing", "being customer oriented", "working together", and "price". Quality of marketing includes 15 of them, being customer oriented includes 5 of them, working together includes 4 them, and price includes only 1 of them.

The most important factor is quality of marketing inside of the four (4) factors. Germany and Japan have the highest values on quality of marketing factor. Germany is perceived well according to other countries' source of supply on providing technical knowledge to the customer; informing advancements concerned with product and market to the customer, produce a product in accordance with International Quality Standards (IQS), and reliance on transportation. Japan is perceived the best on informing important development concerned with order to the customer, following the product after sales and searching solution existing problems, being sensitive toward problems concerned with order.

All features features about the "customer oriented" exclude ability of export staffs on trade and necessary informations are given on appropriate foreign language to the customer German source of supply were evaluated higher in respect of other three (3) countries source of supply; for instance, when the being respectful trait toward customer analyzed the Germany has the highest average (x= 4,568) according to other three (3) countries; so the Germany is perceived as a most most respectful country source of supply to the customer. The

China has the second highest average (x= 4,096), so the China is perceived as a most respectful country source of supply after the Germany. After that the Japan has average (x= 4,096), so the Japan third one and the last one is Turkey has average (x= 2,224), so the Turkey is perceived as a least respectful country source of supply toward customer.

The generalizability could not be made under dimension of "working together" trait. In work relations least problems occured on cultural differences in Turkey. To work with German source of supply is more pleasure according to other three (3) countries source of supply; and the Turkish source of supply is perceived the best on cooperation and the Chinese source of supply is perceived the best on establish friendship.

In fourth and last factor is dimension of "price", the Chinese source of supply demands the least price in respect of other three (3) countries source of supply.

Table 5: Average values concerned with evaluating of four (4) countries sources of supply of the respondents

STATEMENT	GERMANY x	JAPAN x	CHINA x	TURKEY x
Dimension of "Quality of Marketing"				
They sell in accordance with customers' needs	4,176	3,848	**2,48**	**4,272**
They deal with the orders very fast.	**4,448**	2,696	**1,688**	3,64
They are sensitive to customer complaints.	**4,312**	3,584	**1,96**	3,056
Their products are generally high-quality.	**4,736**	4,176	**1,448**	3,28
They constantly offer products based on advanced-technology to their customers.	**4,832**	4,688	**1,552**	1,992
They are able to offer products with the same quality for each order.	**4,448**	4,176	1,552	**1,464**
They provide product information to the customers.	**4,44**	3,92	**1,448**	4,304
They are a reliable source of supply in terms of delivery.	**4,736**	2,056	**1,56**	3,128
They give information about the developments concerning the order made.	4,016	4,272	2,032	**4,304**
They follow the product they sold after-sale.	**4,48**	3,584	**1,568**	2,528
They inform the customers on the developments concerning the product and the market	4,448	3,336	**2,216**	**4,568**
They try to solve the problems arising after-sale immediately.	**4,696**	2,848	**2,088**	3,392
They inform the customers about important developments.	**4,568**	4,096	**1,944**	4,272
Their manufacturing activities are at international quality standards.	4,432	**4,68**	**1,568**	3,808
They are sensitive to the issues concerning the orders.	**4,568**	4,096	4,232	**2,224**
Dimension of "Customer Oriented"				
They are closely concerned with the manners of working and shop practices of the countries with which they have	**1,488**	**3,816**	2,104	2,896
They work for adapting their products in line with customers' needs.	**4,488**	4,176	**1,432**	3,736
They give the necessary information to the customers in the relevant foreign language.	1,552	1,816	**1,512**	**2,8**
Importation marketing staff is competent in terms of commerce.	**4,448**	**2,752**	3,056	3,488
They respect the customers.	**4,568**	4,512	4,304	**4,264**
Dimension of "Working Together"				
Cultural problems cause no problems.	4,448	3,336	**1,976**	**4,72**
It is easy to cooperate.	4,696	4,08	**3,384**	**4,72**
It is rather easy to make friends	**1,368**	2,48	**4,568**	3,112
I would be pleased to work with them.	**4,568**	2,4	**1,832**	4,512
Dimension of "Price"				
They generally demand lower prices.	**1,448**	1,656	**4,448**	1,832
"Non-Grouped"				
They can harmonize the customer's manufacturing (or commercial sales) plan with their own delivery date.	**4,528**	4,104	**2,848**	3,736
The business relations with them are based on mutual trust, instead of legal agreements.	**1,184**	2,432	2,528	**3,512**

4.3 Conclusion

This section handled the results of the questionnaires that were analyzed and the researh findings were discussed.

SECTION V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This section aims to provide research conclusions, recommendations to further research, *limitations of the investigation, and implications for marketers, researchers, and etc.*

5.2 Conclusions, Recommendations, Limitations, and Implications

The results presented in this article must be examined in light of a number of limitations. Several issues must be addressed in future investigations of purchasing agents' perceptions. The implications concern international sourcing, branding, pricing, warranty and promotion policies. Our results show that country of design is a very important extrinsic cue used by buyers. Moreover, country of design has more impact than country of assembly on organizational buyers' perceptions. Thus, a marketer selling a technologically complex product designed in a prestigious country will be well advised to promote this information to his/her customers in order to influence their decision-making process, especially when dealing with organizational buyers.

The study might have some implications for marketers, companies, business owners, and researchers. From a managerial perspective, we expect that appropriate marketing strategies can be identified for each sector. It may be appropriate to conduct business through a local partner; to localize the company or brand name; to emphasize direct product benefits and product value. Further research of this type may provide useful insights and guidelines for global marketing managers.

The results of this study clearly indicate that there exist firms who are differentially sensitive to the influence of COO. This is contrary to much of the empirical research to date in the COO literature which either implicitly or explicitly assumed that all consumers sought and responded to COO information in a similar fashion (Samiee, 1994). Such an assumption may have led to mixed findings and a neglect of other pertinent factors in COO research, such as consumers' product familiarity, ownership/usage patterns, and the number of available, competing brands in the market. Despite some evidence which suggests that a large percentage of the samples studied neither cared nor actively sought out and utilized COO information in their product evaluation or purchase decision making (e.g. Hester and Yuen, 1987; Hugstad and Durr, 1986), little research has attempted to address why it was the case and to explore systematic differences that might distinguish one segment of sector from another. This study illustrated one out of many possible underlying factors accounting for the differences across market segments.

The results of this study have implications for marketing foreign-sourced products. Like attribute arguments, COO cues may also lead to attitude change for certain firms, although the attitude change may not be as persistent. Knowledge of the unplanned market segmentation owing to differences among consumers may enable managers to judiciously employ promotional techniques that may either play up or play down the COO image of a product.

Countries of origin such as Germany and Japan hold great prestige among North American household an organizational buyers. However, if a European corporation based in a less prestigious country is able to reassure its customers by improving the quality of its products and communicating this information, especially to its household buyers, through brand name, promotion, and warranty programmes, it should be able to counter the prestigious image of

some countries of origin. As mentioned above, in the case of organizational buyers, pricing may perhaps be a more effective weapon. During the 1980s, the quality of European products has improved considerably. European corporations having undertaken programmes of quality improvement should be heartened by our results which indicate that all North American buyers appear to treat developed countries equally when presented with multiple cues.

European firms are facing enormous price competition from foreign firms in Asian markets. Shifting manufacturing facilities to a newly industrializing country such as Chinese in order to reduce production costs is an interesting competitive strategy. As this study has shown, organizational and organizational buyers in Turkey appear to have somewhat different reactions to country-of-origin cues. Given the small number of studies carried out with organizational buyers. Such studies would be of great interest to marketing researchers and practitioners alike.

Yet the country of origin will not always provide systems and practices that senior managers in MNCs seek to deploy on an international basis. Where the domestic business system is perceived as being weak, the firm may look abroad for new practices. Its own international operations mean that it is partially embedded in other business systems, of course, giving the firm the mechanisms to draw on a different set of practices. In this way, "reverse diffusion" may occur in those areas where the home country does not provide an attractive model.

As with any cross-sectional design, causal relationships are difficult to establish. However, the focus of this research was to clarify that a relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables. Generalizability is another common concern of survey research and has proven to be particularly troublesome for COO studies. Consequently, many COO scholars

are reexamining the moderating variables, specific product attributes and contextual variables associated with COO effects to establish a wider base of COO theory from which to generalize.

After 30 years of research, COO scholars, frustrated by their inability to establish generalizable theory for the COO phenomenon, are returning to the study of the moderating and contextual variables that influence consumer and industrial buyer behavior. Numerous moderating variables provide a vast array of potential areas for further research, e.g., product familiarity, industry experience, demographic variables, international experience, etc.

Longitudinal studies of these variables would be valuable; particularly the identification of the critical variables that determine product country image (COO images) and understanding what countries can do to change their country image. Moreover, the results of this study confirm previous claims that COO needs to be examined on a product-by-product basis as an overall generalizable theory for all products and all countries may not be feasible (Insch/McBride 1998, Nebenzahl/Jaffee/Lampert 1997).

Global integration is likely to increase in strength and importance and the growth of business-to-business communication through the internet will continue to highlight the use of extrinsic cues among purchasing agents. Ignoring the impact of COO cues in this setting is a mistake. Indeed, now more than ever, continued research on the impact of COO cues on industrial purchasing behavior is needed.

In conclusion, the survey is useful for such investigations. This measurement system provides a foundation for standardized testing of industrial buyers' perceptions, and it has many

practical applications. Further application and validation of the survey across populations is encouraged.

5.3 Conclusion

This section handled the main points to be investigated, the significance and contribution to business, limitations, implications, and recommendations to further research.

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APPENDIX

COO IMAGE ON INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTS

Dear respondent,
In international trade, the Turkey is an important importer. The purpose of this study to measure how the Turkish buyers on industrial products such as (machine, equipment, raw material etc.) evaluate the countries in general as a foreign source of supply.

This survey questionnaire will be filled by responsible people working on import department.

Thank you very much for your co-operation.

Near East University
Business Department

I. SECTION

In this section, some expressions take place to measure general behaviours against the countries who sell industrial products. We want you to evaluate each of these expressions aspect of Germany, Japan, Chinese, and Turkey which should show us the general behaviours. Please answer the each question to exhibit your views, even not commercial relations with stated countries.

Please indicate your degree of agreement-disagreement with each the following statements by putting (X) mark in the appropriate box.

1 = Strongly Disagree	4 = Agree
2 = Disagree	5 = Strongly Agree
3 = Neutral	

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	GERMANY	JAPAN	CHINA	TURKEY
1 They try to sell the product they have in hand, rather than selling products that are convenient to the customers' needs	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2 They are closely concerned with the manners of working and shop practices in the countries with which they have commercial relations	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3 They are quite slow in dealing with the orders	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4 They are sensitive to customer complaints	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5 Their product quality is generally poor	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6 They constantly offer products based on advanced-technology to their customers	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7 They are able to offer products with the same quality for each order	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8 They fail to supply adequate technical information to the customers	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9 They work for adapting their products in line with customers' needs	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10 They are a reliable source of supply in terms of delivery	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11 Cultural differences (such as shop practices) cause problems in relationships	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12 They give information about the developments concerning the order made	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
13 They do not follow how the product they sold is used after-sale	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
14 They do not provide adequate information on the product and the market to the customers	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

	GERMANY	JAPAN	CHINA	TURKEY
15 They give the necessary information to the customers in the relevant foreign language	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
16 Exportation marketing staff is competent in terms of commerce	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
17 Cooperation is hard to be established	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
18 They try to solve the problems arising after-sale immediately	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
19 It is rather difficult to make friends of the staff members of the seller firm	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
20 They can harmonize the customer's manufacturing (or commercial sales) plan with their own delivery date	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
21 I would be pleased to work with them	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
22 They generally demand lower prices	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
23 The business relations with them are based on mutual trust, instead of legal agreements	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
24 They do not inform the customers about important developments	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
25 Their manufacturing activities are at international quality standards	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
26 They respect the customers	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
27 They are insensitive to the problems that arise in relation to orders	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

2. SECTION

1) Suppose that below countries have the equal on price, quality, style, design, and service; which market the equal industrial product each other. Regardless of geographic distance factor, in this case which country source of supply you preferred? Please give the number from 1 to 4 respectively toward most preference and least preference.

.....GERMANY .....JAPAN .....CHINESE .....TURKEY

2) Please indicate the most important three (3) factors in your firm on preference of local and foreign source of supply from the most important to least important?

LOCAL SOURCE OF SUPPLY	FOREIGN SOURCE OF SUPPLY
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

3) Please indicate how many years have your firm been working with below countries and which products does your firm import?

COUNTRY	YEAR	PRODUCT
GERMANY Interval products	_____	☐ Investment Goods ☐ Raw material and
JAPAN Interval products	_____	☐ Investment Goods ☐ Raw material and
CHINESE Interval products	_____	☐ Investment Goods ☐ Raw material and
Other		
_____ Interval products	_____	☐ Investment Goods ☐ Raw material and
_____ Interval products	_____	☐ Investment Goods ☐ Raw material and

3. SECTION

This section includes your demographic profiles and the questions about your firm. Please do not pass no answer one question to another.

1) Age: ☐ 20 age and below ☐ 41-51

☐ 21-30 ☐ 51 and above

☐ 31-40

2) Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male

3) Educational Level: ☐ Primary ☐ Secondary ☐ High School

☐ University ☐ Master / PhD

4) Your branch in education: _____

5) Foreign Languages you speak: ☐ English ☐ French

☐ German ☐ Other _____

6) Have you ever been to abroad ? ☐ Yes ☐ No

7) Do not answer this question, if your answer is no.

GERMANY ☐ below 1 month ☐ between 1-12 months ☐ above 1 year

JAPAN ☐ below 1 month ☐ between 1-12 months ☐ above 1 year

CHINESE. ☐ below 1 month ☐ between 1-12 months ☐ above 1 year

OTHER

_____ ☐ below 1 month ☐ between 1-12 months ☐ above 1 year

_____ ☐ below 1 month ☐ between 1-12 months ☐ above 1 year

What is your mission / position in firm? _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

How many years have you been working on a position interested in foreign trade?

_ _

) What is sectoral process area of your firm? _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

) Establishment year of your firm _ _ _ _ _ _

) Please indicate the capital structure of your firm.
a) 100 % local investment
b) Joint - Venture (ratio of local investment is 100 ratio of foreign investment is 100)
c) 100 % foreign investment
d) Other (indicate)

) How many full-time employee are working in your firm? _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

ENDÜSTRİYEL ÜRÜNLERDE ÜLKE ORİJİNİ İMAJI

Sayın katılımcı,
Uluslar arası ticarette Türkiye önemli bir ithalatçı konumundadır. Bu çalışmada Türk alıcıların endüstriyel ürünlerde (makine, teçhizat, hammadde ve ara mamül, vs,) dış tedarik kaynağı olarak ülkeleri genel olarak nasıl değerlendirdikleri ölçülmeye çalışılacaktır.

Bu anket formu, dış satın alma bölümünde çalışan sorumlular tarafından doldurulacaktır.

Katkılarımızdan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi
İ.İ.B.F. İşletme Bölümü

I. BÖLÜM
Bu bölümde endüstriyel ürün satan ülkelere karşı genel tutumları ölçmek üzere ifadeler yer almaktadır. Bu ifadelerin her birini Japonya, Almanya, Türkiye ve A.B.D. yönünden genel tutumu yansıtacak şekilde değerlendirmenizi istiyoruz. Belirtilen ülkelerle hiçbir ticari ilişkiniz olmasa dahi görüşlerinizi sergilemek amacıyla her bir ifadeye lütfen yanıt veriniz.

Her bir ifadeyi okuduktan sonra, bu ifadeye katılma derecenize göre aşağıda gösterilen değerlerin numarasını ifadenin sol tarafında verilen kutucuğa yazınız.

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	ALMANYA	JAPONYA	ÇİN	TÜRKİYE
1 Müşteri ihtiyacına uygun ürün satmaktansa ellerindeki ürünü satmaya çalışırlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2 Ticari ilişkide bulundukları ülkelerdeki çalışma şekilleri ve iş adetleri ile yakından ilgilenirler.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3 Siparişi karşılama hızları çok yavaştır.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4 Müşteri şikayetlerine karşı duyarlıdırlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5 Ürünlerinin kalitesi genelde kötüdür.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6 Müşterilerine sürekli gelişmiş teknolojiye dayalı ürünler sunarlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7 Her siparişte aynı kalitede ürün sunabilmektedirler.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8 Müşteriye yeterli teknik bilgi sağlayamazlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9 Ürünlerini müşteri ihtiyaçları doğrultusunda adapte etmeye çalışırlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10 Sevkiyat açısından güvenilir bir tedarik kaynağıdırlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11 İlişkilerde kültürel farklılıklar (iş adetleri gibi) sorun yaratır.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12 Verilen siparişle ilgili gelişmeler hakkında bilgi verirler.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
13 Sattıkları ürünün, satış sonrasında nasıl kullanıldığını takip etmezler.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
14 Müşteriye ürün ve pazar hakkında yeterli bilgi sağlamazlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

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	ALMANYA	JAPONYA	ÇİN	TURKİYE
15 Gerekli bilgiler; müşteriye uygun yabancı dilde verilmektedir.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
16 İhracat pazarlama elemanları ticari açıdan yeteneklidirler.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
17 İşbirliğine girmek zordur.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
18 Satış sonrasında çıkan şikayetleri hemen çözüme ulaştırmaya çalışırlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
19 Satıcı firmanın çalışan personeliyle kişisel dostluklar kurmak oldukça zordur.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
20 Müşterinin üretim (ya da ticari satış) planıyla kendi teslim tarihi . arasında uyum sağlayabilmektedir	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
21 Onlarla çalışmak hoşuma gider.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
22 Genelde daha düşük fiyat talep ederler.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
23 Onlarla iş ilişkileri yasal sözleşmelerden çok, karşılıklı güvene dayanır.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
24 Önemli gelişmelerden müşterilerini haberdar etmezler.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
25 Uluslararası kalite standartlarında üretim yaparlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
26 Müşteriye karşı saygılıdırlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
27 Sipariş konusunda çıkan sorunlara karşı duyarsızdırlar.	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

2. BÖLÜM

1) Aşağıdaki ülkelerin ; fiyat, kalite, stil, servis yönünden birbirine eşit endüstriyel bir ürün pazarladığını varsayalım. Coğrafi uzaklık faktörünü göz önüne almaksızın, bu durumda hangi ülkedeki tedarik kaynağını seçerdiniz? Lütfen öncelikle tercih edeceğiniz ülkeye 1, diğerlerine sırasıyla 2, 3, 4 gibi değerler veriniz.

.....ALMANYA .....TÜRKİYE .....JAPONYA .....A.B.D.

2) Firmanıza yerli ve yabancı tedarik kaynağı seçiminde en önemli görülen üç faktörü en önemliden en önemsize doğru sıralayınız.

YERLİ TEDARİK KAYNAĞI	YABANCI TEDARİK KAYNAĞI
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3) Şirketinizin, aşağıdaki ülkelerle kaç yıldır çalıştığını ve bu ülkelerden hangi ürünleri ithal ettiğini belirtiniz.

ÜLKE	YIL	ÜRÜN
ALMANYA	_____	☐ Yatırım malları ☐ Hammadde ve ara mallar
A.B.D.	_____	☐ Yatırım malları ☐ Hammadde ve ara mallar
JAPONYA	_____	☐ Yatırım malları ☐ Hammadde ve ara mallar

3. BÖLÜM

Bu bölümde kendiniz ve şirketinizle ilgili sorulara yer verilmiştir.
Lütfen bir soruyu yanıtlamadan diğerlerine geçmeyiniz.

1) Yaşınız: ☐ 20 yaş ve altı ☐ 41-51
☐ 21-30 ☐ 51 ve üzeri
☐ 31-40

2) Cinsiyetiniz: ☐ Kadın ☐ Erkek

3) Eğitim durumunuz: ☐ İlkokul ☐ Ortaokul ☐ Lise
☐ Üniversite ☐ Yüksek Lisans / Doktora

4) Eğitimdeki ihtisas alanınız: _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

5) Bildiğiniz yabancı diller: ☐ İngilizce ☐ Fransızca
Almanca ☐ Diğer _ _ _ _ _ _ ☐ _ _

6) Herhangi bir yabancı ülkede bulundunuz mu? ☐ Evet ☐ Hayır

7) 6. Sorunun cevabı hayır ise bu soruyu cevaplamayın.

ALMANYA ☐ 1 aydan az ☐ 1-12 ay arası ☐ 1 yıldan fazla

JAPONYA ☐ 1 aydan az ☐ 1-12 ay arası ☐ 1 yıldan fazla

A.B.D. ☐ 1 aydan az ☐ 1-12 ay arası ☐ 1 yıldan fazla

DİĞER
_ _ _ _ _ _ _ ☐ 1 aydan az ☐ 1-12 ay arası ☐ 1 yıldan fazla

_ _ _ _ _ _ _ ☐ 1 aydan az ☐ 1-12 ay arası ☐ 1 yıldan fazla

8) Şirketteki göreviniz/ pozisyonunuz? _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

9) Kaç yıldır dış ticaretle ilgili bir görevde çalışıyorsunuz? _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

10) Şirketinizin faaliyette bulunduğu sektör? _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

11) Şirketinizin kuruluş yılı _ _ _ _ _ _

12) Lütfen şirketinizin sermaye yapısını belirtiniz.
a) 100 yerli sermaye
b) Ortak girişim (yerli sermaye oranı 100 yabancı sermaye oranı 100)
c) 100 yabancı sermaye
d) Diğer (belirtiniz.)

13) Şirketinizde tam zamanlı kaç kişi çalışmaktadır._ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _