

THE EFFECTS OF MANAGERS' CULTURAL DISTANCE, ETHNOCENTRISM, AND QUALITY-
OF-LIFE (QOL) ORIENTATION ON PROGRAM STANDARDIZATION

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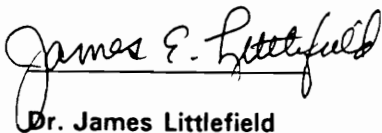
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(ABSTRACT)

The main purpose of this dissertation is to examine the effect of managerial attitudes on program standardization in international marketing. Three attitudinal variables have been identified as potential predictors of program standardization decisions: managers' cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and quality-of-life (QOL) orientation. This dissertation empirically examines the effects of these managerial attitude variables on program standardization. It is hypothesized that managers' ethnocentrism is directly related to program standardization, whereas cultural distance and QOL orientation are inversely related to program standardization. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that both ethnocentrism and QOL orientation are likely to moderate the relationship between cultural distance and program standardization. That is, cultural distance is likely to affect program standardization more for managers who have a high QOL orientation (or low ethnocentrism) than for managers who have a low QOL orientation (or high ethnocentrism).

Cross-cultural comparisons of the three attitudinal variables and degree of standardization between U.S. managers and South Korean managers also have been explored. Specifically, it is hypothesized that compared with South Korean managers, U.S. managers are more likely to be characterized by high cultural distance, low ethnocentrism, and a high QOL

orientation, and by a low degree of commitment to program standardization.

Hypothesis were tested through an experiment using convenience samples of American and Koreans who were enrolled in MBA programs in the United States and South Korea. Results provide moderate support for the hypotheses. Implications are discussed.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

The Problem

For decades, the issue of standardization vs. adaptation has been an area of controversy in international marketing (Jain 1989), and the issue continues to generate controversy. The seemingly endless number of issues, tradeoffs, and contingencies have made it difficult for practitioners to make intelligent decisions (Friedmann 1986).

It has been argued that adaptation of products and services to the needs of a national market is necessary because of cultural differences and national idiosyncracies (Buzzell 1968; Boddewyn, Soehl, and Picard 1986; Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Hill and Still 1984; Keegan 1969; Killough 1978; Ricks 1983; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975; Quelch and Hoff 1986; Wind and Douglas 1986). Conversely, it has also been argued that the world market is becoming homogenized, and therefore, that standardization should be the basis of a multinational corporation's strategy (Elinder 1961; Kale and Sudharshan 1987; Levitt 1983; Ohmae 1985; Peebles 1989; Reed 1967).

In an effort to resolve this controversy, many studies have investigated determinants of standardization, focusing on identifying internal and external environmental contingencies that are likely to lead to program standardization (e.g., Buzzell 1968; Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Jain 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992; Walters 1986; Wind and Douglas 1986). However, little attention has been paid to manager attitudes that affect standardization decisions.

Generally speaking, the value orientation of managers is evident in most strategic decisions (Andrews 1989). That is, managers make decisions guided by an implicit managerial

philosophy or logic, and this dominant logic influences the way in which the business is managed (Donaldson and Lorsch 1983). With respect to standardization, some studies have argued that the ability of firms to pursue global standardization may hinge upon top management's international business philosophy (Jain 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992). In spite of this repeated emphasis of the effect of manager variables on program standardization (Andrews 1989; Donaldson and Lorsch 1983; Jain 1989; Prahalad and Bettis 1986; Samiee and Roth 1992; Toyne and Walters 1989; Walters 1986; Wind, Douglas, Perlmutter 1973), no study has studied empirically the effects of specific managerial attitudes on firms' standardization/adaptation decisions. This dissertation tries to fill the gap in standardization research by providing a conceptual framework for and an empirical test of the effects of managerial attitudes on program standardization.

Research Objectives

The main purpose of this dissertation is to examine the effects of the managers' attitudes on program standardization. Three managerial attitude variables have been identified as potential predictors of program standardization: cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and quality-of-life (QOL) orientation. Cultural distance is the perceived difference between the home country and host country (Anderson and Gatignon 1986; Cavusgil 1980; Gatignon and Anderson 1988; Holzmuller and Kasper 1990; Johanson, Sanden, and Vahlne 1976; Klein and Roth 1990; Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul 1973). Ethnocentrism is the tendency to the view one's own group as the center of everything, scaling and rating all other groups with reference to it (Sumner 1906). A marketer's QOL orientation is the degree to which he/she believes that his/her task is to enhance the well-being of consumers and other stakeholders within a framework of moral relativism (cf. Sirgy 1991a, 1991b; Sirgy and Lee 1994; Sirgy, Meadow, Rahtz, and Samli 1992; Sirgy, Samli, and Meadow 1982; Tretise et al 1994). Here, moral

relativism is the belief that what is good for a consumer is determined by an appeal to the consumer's own social and cultural values, not by an appeal to some absolute, impersonal standard (Schlenker and Forsyth 1977). This dissertation will explore the effects of these managerial attitude variables on program standardization. Specifically, it will argue that ethnocentrism positively affects program standardization whereas QOL orientation and cultural distance negatively affect program standardization. In addition, the interaction effects of ethnocentrism and cultural distance on program standardization and the interaction effects of QOL orientation and cultural distance on program standardization were hypothesized.

Significance of This Dissertation

This study contributes to standardization research in international marketing in several ways. First, by investigating the effects of managers' ethnocentrism, cultural distance, and quality-of-life orientation (QOL) on program standardization, this study provides a new perspective on program standardization decisions made by multinational corporations (MNCs). By identifying the effects of managerial attitude on standardization, we get one step closer to a more complete framework of the determinants of program standardization. Second, this dissertation will develop and validate a measure of QOL orientation.

The managerial implications of this study are as follows. First, it enables international marketers to better understand other multinational corporations' international marketing strategies, especially multinational corporations from developing (or newly developed) countries. This attention to a less developed country is novel because previous studies on standardization have focused mainly on multinational corporations (MNCs) from well-developed countries. Consequently, our understanding of how standardization decisions are made by multinational corporations in newly developed countries (e.g., South Korea) is limited. This dissertation attempts to improve our understanding of how these standardization decisions are

made by MNCs from newly developed countries. It does this through a cross-cultural comparison of American and S. Korean managers.

If they are to compete successfully in today's global marketplace, business people need to understand the ways in which perceived cultural distance and ethnocentrism affect managerial attitudes toward international markets (Nicholson, Graf, Hemmasi, and Widdison 1993). This is true because competitors' degree of ethnocentrism, their perceptions of cultural distance, and their QOL orientations may strongly influence their choice of general marketing strategies and, in particular, their standardization vs. adaptation decisions.

Second, this study helps multinational corporations carry out their standardization or adaptation strategies more effectively across subsidiaries by communicating these managerial attitudes or values more clearly to lower level management. Sometimes, a standardization/adaptation strategy faces resistance from local country managers who feel the strategy is imposed by headquarters (Jain 1989). Cultural differences among national subsidiaries can easily lead to conflicts over corporate policies. By communicating more clearly the underlying rationale for their decisions--i.e. their perceptions of cultural distance and their QOL orientation--top managers can give local managers a better understanding of the rationale behind their strategy and thereby facilitate more effective implementation.

Third, this dissertation provides specific implementation tactics that facilitate the chosen standardization/adaptation decisions. For example, if a firm decides to implement adaptation strategy, the firm may want to use cross-cultural training to increase cultural sensitivity, reduce ethnocentrism, and enhance quality of life orientations. On the other hand, if a firm wants to implement a standardization strategy, the firm may need to make an effort to reduce cultural distance by exposing marketers to various cultures.

Structure of This Dissertation

The second chapter reviews each of the key constructs in this dissertation: standardization, ethnocentrism, cultural distance, and QOL orientation. The third chapter presents a conceptual model and hypotheses regarding the effects of managerial variables (ethnocentrism, cultural distance, and QOL orientation) on program standardization. Specific hypotheses are proposed with respect to the cultural distance main effect, the ethnocentrism main effect, the QOL orientation main effect, the cultural distance and ethnocentrism interaction effect, and the cultural distance and QOL orientation interaction effect. Hypotheses are also proposed with respect to the differences that may be expected between American and Korean managers in cross-cultural comparisons of perceived cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and QOL orientation. The fourth chapter presents the method including discussions of the experimental design, the sample, the procedure, and the measures. The fifth chapter presents results of the hypothesis tests and related analysis. Finally, the sixth chapter presents conclusions, limitations, and directions for future research.

Chapter Overviews

Overview of Chapter II: This chapter reviews the literature on key constructs used in this dissertation. It begins by discussing the definition of standardization, then turns to arguments for and against standardization and factors that affect standardization vs. adaptation decisions. On the basis of this review, the chapter identifies a gap in the body of empirical research on the relationship between managerial attitudes and standardization/adaptation decisions. Specifically, empirical work has not been done to test the effect of three managerial variables that have been identified as potential influences on standardization decisions: manager's cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and QOL orientation.

This chapter next reviews the literature on these three managerial attitude variables,

starting with cultural distance. It discusses the conceptual definition, dimensions, and consequences of cultural distance as they have been developed in previous descriptive studies. It also reviews previous research that relates cultural distance to program standardization.

The literature on the conceptual definition of ethnocentrism (Sumner 1906; Adorno et al 1950) is also reviewed, as are arguments that relate ethnocentrism to program standardization. This section draws heavily upon the work of Sumner (1906). It discusses at length related constructs such as the E. P. R. G. framework (Perlmutter 1969; Wind et al. 1973) and consumer ethnocentrism (see appendix A).

The third managerial attitude variable, Quality-of-Life (QOL) Orientation, is also discussed. QOL has been conceptualized in a variety of ways (Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994), so the chapter first reviews the theoretical approaches and measures various other disciplines have developed for QOL. It then presents theoretical approaches to QOL in marketing, along with the definition, dimensions, and consequences of QOL orientation in a marketing context.

Overview of Chapter III: This chapter presents the conceptual model used in the dissertation. In the context of this model, it is hypothesized that cultural distance is inversely related to program standardization. The assumption here is that managers will be more likely to adapt when cultural distance is great because they will tend to believe that the people in the other culture will have different interpretations of the product, different modes of learning about it, and different levels of involvement with it. Ethnocentrism is hypothesized to be directly related to program standardization since ethnocentric managers are likely to be insensitive to cultural variations. QOL orientation is hypothesized to have a negative relationship with program standardization since marketers with a high QOL orientation are likely to understand that optimizing the well-being of consumers and other stakeholders will require adaptation to the social and cultural context of those consumers and other stakeholders (Hill

and Still 1984).

Ethnocentrism and QOL orientation are hypothesized to moderate the relationship between cultural distance and program standardization. That is, the effect of cultural distance on program standardization is likely to be greater for managers with a high QOL orientation (or low ethnocentrism) than for managers with a low QOL orientation (or high ethnocentrism).

Finally, hypotheses are presented on the likely outcome of cross-cultural comparisons between Korean and American managers, comparisons with respect to the three attitude variables (cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and QOL orientation) and standardization preferences. Specifically, it is hypothesized that, compared to Korean managers, American managers will have higher perceived cultural distance, lower ethnocentrism, higher QOL orientation, and less inclination to standardize.

Overview of Chapter IV: In this chapter, the research method used to test the model developed in chapter III is reviewed. This study used a sample of American and Korean managers who enrolled MBA programs. The chapter first discusses the reasons for choosing an experimental method. Next a detailed discussion on the experimental design is presented which was a mixed-subjects design with two within-subjects factors and one between-subjects factor. Two product categories (diet pills and infant formula) and cultural distance of the target country (high vs. low) are within-subjects factors, whereas the nationality of managers (American vs. Korean) is a between-subjects factor.

Next, the samples used in this study are discussed. Data were collected from a convenience sample of Korean and American managers who enrolled in professional MBA programs at Virginia Tech, the University of Tennessee at Knoxville, the University of South Carolina, Clarkson University, Northern Illinois University, the University of Texas at Arlington, and Yonsei University (Seoul, Korea).

This chapter then discusses experimental procedures. Respondents were asked to make

judgements on program standardization vs. adaptation decisions after reading scenarios. The cultural distance for each target country was manipulated in the scenario, while QOL orientation and ethnocentrism were measured. Business experience and product familiarity were measured as covariates. Other environmental factors such as international business experience of the firm, firm size, level of global competition, and rate of technological change were held constant across different scenarios.

This chapter concludes by discussing the development of the experimental instrument, including the selection and pretesting of product categories, the development of the cultural distance manipulation and the measures of QOL, ethnocentrism, and standardization intentions. The translation procedure is also discussed.

Overview of Chapter V: This chapter reports the results of hypothesis testing and related analyses. First, characteristics of the American and Korean samples are described. The results of the manipulation checks are reported as are indices of scale reliability and validity.

The chapter discusses in detail the results of the hypotheses tests. In general, results indicate relatively good support for the model proposed in this dissertation.

Overview of Chapter VI: This chapter begins with a brief description of the study. Next, conclusions about how managerial attitudes affect program standardization are presented. Then, the dissertation's managerial implications are discussed. This chapter concludes with a discussion of limitations of this dissertation and directions for future research.

Summary

In an effort to resolve the decade-old standardization vs. adaptation controversy, many researchers have investigated empirically determinants of standardization. However, most of these studies have focused mainly on environmental contingencies (e.g., Samiee and Roth 1992; Cavusgil and Zou 1994). They have paid relatively little attention to managerial attitude

variables, even though the values of managers are evident in all strategic decisions (Andrews 1989). To fill this gap, I focus in this dissertation on the effects of managerial attitude variables on program standardization.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature on key constructs. It will first discuss the issue of program standardization vs. adaptation along with determinants that affect decisions on this issue. It will then discuss cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and quality of life (QOL) orientation.

Standardization vs. Adaptation

Definitions

Standardization of an international marketing program refers to using a common product, price, channel, and promotional scheme worldwide (Jain 1989; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975). However, the standardization/adaptation decision is not dichotomous but rather a matter of degree (Quelch and Hoff 1986; Jain 1989). Since standardization/adaptation is a continuum, there are some midpoints, e. g. prototype standardization and pattern standardization in advertising. Prototype standardization in advertising refers to using basically the same advertising across countries, but making slight modifications such as translating or adjusting idiom (Peebles, Ryans, and Vernon 1978; Walters and Toyne 1989). Pattern standardization refers to campaigns in which the overall theme is designed for use in multiple markets (Peebles et al 1978). In pattern standardization, products are developed to be uniform overall but not necessarily in their details. It is a "think global, but act local" strategy (Nelson 1994).

Standardization has two aspects: program and process (Jain 1989; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975). Program standardization refers to standardizing various marketing mix

elements (e.g., the 4 Ps), whereas process standardization refers to standardizing tools used in developing and implementing the program (Jain 1989; Kreutzer 1988; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975; Szymanski et al 1993). Thus, process standardization refers to the manner in which the decisions on the marketing mix are made. It specifies what data to collect, what decision making criteria to use, who should be involved in making decisions, etc. (Walters 1986). Since most of the long-term controversies discussed above-and especially controversies on product and promotion strategies (Jain 1989; Cavusgil, Zou, Naidu 1993; Cavusgil and Zou 1994)--are related to program standardization, this dissertation will focus on product and promotion standardization.

Adaptation should be distinguished from compulsory or involuntary modifications resulting from government regulation or other uncontrollable environmental factors (e.g. electric voltage standards--110v vs. 220v). The decision on adaptation should be voluntary--based on local custom and historical or contemporary patterns of product use (Friedmann 1986).

Arguments for Standardization

Program standardization has several advantages and rationales (see Table 1). Many proponents of standardization base their arguments on the homogenization of the world market (Levitt 1983) and the concept of the intermarket segment (Hill and Still 1984; Kale and Sudharshan 1987; Onkvisit and Shaw 1989).

Levitt (1983) has argued that the world is becoming homogenized through developments in communication and technology. That is, Levitt's (1983) arguments for standardization are based on three key assumptions (Douglas and Wind 1987).

1. Customer needs and interests are becoming increasingly homogeneous worldwide.
2. People around the world are willing to sacrifice preferences in product features,

functions, design, and the like for higher quality at a lower price.

3. Substantial economies of scale in production and marketing can be achieved through supplying global markets.

The intermarket segment concept is the idea that similar segments exist across countries despite national differences and idiosyncracies (Kale and Sudharshan 1987; Kreutzer 1988; Onkvisit and Shaw 1989). For example, urban markets in less-developed countries may be similar to urban markets in industrialized countries (Hill and Still 1984). Intermarket segments are likely to respond similarly to the marketing mix (Kale and Sudharshan 1987; Kreutzer 1988; Onkvisit and Shaw 1989). This segmentation strategy represents a global market approach or geocentric orientation.

Proponents of program standardization argue that firms can achieve economic effectiveness and cost reductions by simplifying and coordinating strategic planning and product development, thereby gaining economies of scale (Buzzell 1968; Elinder 1961; Howwell and Walters 1972; Kale and Sudharshan 1987; Keegan 1969; Kreutzer 1988; Levitt 1983; Onkvisit and Shaw 1989; Reed 1967; Samiee and Roth 1992; Walters and Toyne 1989; Yip 1989). Standardization can reduce overall cost by minimizing overlaps and the misuse of human or material resources (Buzzell 1968; Friedmann 1986; Howwell and Walters 1972; Keegan 1969). Samiee and Roth (1992) provide empirical evidence that program standardization is related to reduced cost, though not necessarily to increased profit.

Standardization has other merits besides cost reduction: better control and coordination (Kreutzer 1988; Walters 1986; Walters and Toyne 1989), a more consistent brand and corporate image (Onkvisit and Shaw 1989, 1994; Walters 1986; Walters and Toyne 1989), simpler decision processes and easier execution (Onkvisit and Shaw 1989), rapid international product diffusion (Jain 1989; Walters and Toyne 1989), better trademark protection (Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975), efficient use of good marketing ideas (Quelch and Hoff 1986; Walters

and Toyne 1989; Kreutzer 1988), better quality control (Onkvisit and Shaw 1994), among other benefits. In addition, by providing standardized products, firms can improve the quality of products and increase consumer preference through global recognition, availability, and serviceability (Yip 1989). Szymanski et al. (1993) focused on process standardization and found that process standardization in economically similar countries leads to greater profitability.

Arguments for Adaptation

Adaptation strategy also has several advantages (See Table 2). Proponents of adaptation argue that marketers can enhance the probability of success by being aware of and responsive to different cultural realities (Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Friedmann 1986; Hill and Still 1984; Lee 1966; Ricks 1983; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975). Hofstead (1980) found that cultural difference has a significant impact on management and organization.

Adapting products to host countries may have other advantages. It can lead to increased customer satisfaction by adapting to customers' preferences and to the cultural realities in which those preferences are rooted (Douglas and Wind 1987; Hill and Still 1984; Onkvisit and Shaw 1994). It can make products more meaningful to consumers and thereby increase the chances of repeat sales (Friedmann 1986; Onkvisit and Shaw 1994). And product adaptation increases marketing performance (Cavusgil and Zou 1994). Adaptation efforts may also please local governments, by minimizing the use of imported materials and consequent trade imbalances (Hill and Still 1984). Using local materials can help local suppliers and officials, and in many cases local materials are cheaper than imports (Hill and Still 1984).

Factors Affecting Standardization vs. Adaptation Decisions

In an effort to resolve the standardization/adaptation controversy, many studies have

focused on identifying determinants of standardization (e.g., Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Jain 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992; Szymansky et al 1993; Walters 1986). These studies have uncovered many factors that have affected standardization decisions (see Table 3): economic, cultural, product-related, technological, competition-related, consumer-related, legal and political, marketing infrastructural, organizational, and distribution-related factors. These factors are discussed below.

Economic Factors: Firms are likely to standardize their programs when target markets are economically alike (Boddewyn 1981; Jain 1989; Ohmae 1985), because economically similar markets such as the OECD (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development) countries tend to have similar consumer demand and life style patterns. Thus, these similarities in purchasing power, education level, and media exposure lead to program standardization.

Cultural Factors: Culture is a common set of values shared by members of a community, values that determine what is considered socially acceptable (Douglas and Dubois 1977). Different cultures may have different attitudes toward similar products (Parameswaran and Yaprak 1987). Therefore, when cultures are similar across markets, products are more likely to be successfully standardized within those markets (Arndt and Helgesen 1981; Jain 1989; Lee 1966; Ricks 1983).

Product-Related Factors: The standardization decision is also affected by product type (Boddewyn et al 1986; Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Hill and Still 1984; Hovwell and Walters 1972; Jain 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992). Studies show that industrial goods are more likely to be standardized than consumer goods, since industrial products are more likely to appeal to universal consumer needs (Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Samiee and Roth 1992). Even within consumer goods categories, consumer durables are more likely to be standardized than consumer nondurables. For example, consumer durable goods such as pharmaceutical and cosmetic products show a higher degree of standardization than

consumer nondurables such as food (Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Still and Hill 1984). On account of differences in tastes, weather conditions, and distribution systems, food products are more culturally sensitive and require more adaptation to specific product constituencies through package changes, etc. (Hill and Still 1984).

The effects of the product life cycle have also been investigated, but have not been found to have a significant relationship with standardization (Samiee and Roth 1992). It has also been found that firms' experience with a product line is positively related to program adaptation (Cavusgil and Zou 1994).

Technological Factors: Standardization is more likely for products involved in rapid technological change. In addition, firms are more likely to standardize their products when the rate of product modification by their competitors is high (Samiee and Roth 1992). It has also been found that the degree of program (product and promotion) adaptation and the technology orientation of an industry are negatively related (Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Cavusgil and Zou 1994). That is, high-tech products are purchased and used in the same manner everywhere, and are, therefore, most often standardized (Nelson 1994).

Competition-Related Factors: Boddewyn et al. (1986) suggested that intense competition may be an obstacle to standardization, but other studies have argued that when frequent product modifications are initiated by competitors, firms are more likely to standardize their offerings. Quelch and Hoff (1986), for example, argued that product standardization would be positively related to intense competition. Walters (1986) also argued that intense competition would require more control and coordination, thus standardization of programs. Samiee and Roth (1992) provide empirical evidence that frequent product modifications initiated by competitors result in program standardization. However, Cavusgil and Zou (1994) provided evidence that market competitiveness leads to product adaptation. Standardization decisions are also affected by the nature of competitors. When a firm has global competitors,

it cannot effectively respond in a multi-domestic fashion since its competitive position in one country affects its competitive position in other countries (Ohmae 1987).

Consumer-Related Factors: Products are more likely to be standardized when there are greater similarities in consumer behavior and life style (Buzzell 1968; Hill and Still 1984; Jain 1989; Keegan 1969; Levitt 1983). For example, consumers in urban areas of less-developed countries are more likely than their rural compatriots to be targeted with standardized products from developed countries, since they are more like the consumers in developed countries (Hill and Still 1984). Also, when there is a greater degree of mobility among consumers as in the integrated Europe, products are more likely to be standardized (Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975).

Legal and Government Factors: Many host governments regulate aspects of foreign operations such as licensing and ownership structure or the flow of products and technology (Das 1981). These government regulations and legal standards can force foreign firms to change their operations, policies, and strategies (Jain 1989; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975). Thus, standardization is more likely to be easily implemented in countries with few legal and governmental regulations than in countries with many regulations.

Marketing Infrastructural Factors: When there are similarities between the marketing infrastructures of the home and host countries, products are more likely to be standardized (Bello and Dahringer 1985; Jain 1989; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975). Standardization is more feasible in countries where marketing infrastructure is similarly well-developed (Peebles, Ryans, and Vernon 1978; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975).

Organizational Factors: When there is a high degree of consensus between the managers of parent and subsidiary on the standardization decision, and when the organization is centralized, standardization is likely to be effectively implemented. Standardization is also related to organization size and experience (Cateora 1990; Cavusgil, Zou, Naidu 1993; Douglas

and Craig 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992; Terpstra 1987). That is, organizations that have a wide geographical presence have been found to have a higher degree of standardization (Samiee and Roth 1992). In addition, firms with more accumulated experience in international markets are more capable of responding to the national idiosyncracies of each market (Cateora 1990; Cavusgil, Zou, Naidu 1993; Terpstra 1987) while inexperienced firms engage in minimal adaptation (Cavusgil, Zou, Naidu 1993; Douglas and Craig 1989). Cavusgil et al. (1993) found that, after entry, exporters tend to adapt production and promotion programs as they gain more experience in international marketing.

Managerial Attitude and Standardization

Andrews (1989) also argues that the value of a firm's leaders is evident in most strategic decision they make. In relation to standardization decisions, Jain (1989) treated corporate orientation as an important organizational factor, arguing that marketers with a geocentric orientation are likely to standardize marketing programs. However, the corporate orientation and managers' orientation (Perlmutter 1969) have not been conceptualized independent of the firms' actual standardization/adaptation decisions. Samiee and Roth (1992) also argued that the ability of firms to pursue global standardization may hinge upon their international business philosophies. But this attention (Donaldson and Lorsch 1983; Jain 1989; Prahalad and Bettis 1986; Samiee and Roth 1992; Toyne and Walters 1989; Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter 1973) notwithstanding, no serious attempt has been made to treat managerial attitudes as independent constructs impacting firms' program standardization/adaptation decisions or to empirically test the relationships. In the following sections, three managerial attitude variables (ethnocentrism, cultural distance, and quality-of-life (QOL) orientation) will be discussed in relation to standardization.

Table 1: Advantages of Standardization

Advantages Studies

* Economies of scale	Elinder (1961); Reed (1967); Buzzell (1968); Keegan (1969); Hovwell and Walters (1972); Levitt (1983); Kale (1987); Kreutzer (1988); Yip (1989); Walters and Toyne (1989); Onkvisit and Shaw (1989); Samiee and Roth (1992)
* Better control and coordination	Walters (1986); Kreutzer (1988); Walters and Toyne (1989)
* Consistent brand image	Walters (1986); Onkvisit and Shaw (1989); Walters and Toyne (1989); Onkvisit and Shaw (1994)
* Simple decision process and easy execution	Onkvisit and Shaw (1989)
* Rapid international product diffusion	Jain (1989); Walters and Toyne (1989)
* Better trademark protection	Sorenson and Wiechmann (1975)
* Efficient use of good marketing ideas	Quelch and Hoff (1986); Walters and Toyne (1989); Kreutzer (1988)
* Better quality control	Onkvisit and Shaw (1994)
* Increased profitability of process standardization	Szymanski et al (1993)
* Enhanced customer satisfaction	Yip (1989)

Table 2: Advantages of Adaptation

Advantages	Studies
* Increased customer satisfaction	Hill and Still (1984) Douglas and Wind (1987) Douglas and Craig (1989)
* Better chance of repeated sale	Onkvisit and Shaw (1994)
* Provide meaningful products	Onkvisit and Shaw (1994) Friedmann (1986)
* Increase marketing performance	Lee (1966) Sorenson and Wiechmann (1975) Ricks (1983) Hill and Still (1984) Friedmann (1986) Cavusgil and Zou (1994)
* Reduce trade deficit of host country	Hill and Still (1984)
* Help local suppliers	Hill and Still (1984)
* Use of inexpensive local materials	Hill and Still (1984)

Table 3: Factors Affecting Program Standardization

Advantages	Studies
Economic similarity	Boddewyn (1981); Ohmae (1985) Jain (1989)
Cultural similarity	Lee (1966); Arndt and Helgesen (1981) Ricks (1983); Hill and Still (1984) Jain (1989)
Product	Hovwell and Walters (1972) Sorenson and Wiechmann (1975) Hill and Still (1984) Boddewyn et al. (1986) Wind and Douglas (1986) Samiee and Roth (1992) Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu (1993) Cavusgil and Zou (1994)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Product type - Product life cycle - Experience 	
Technology	Samiee and Roth (1992) Cavusgil, Zou, Naidu (1993) Cavusgil and Zou (1994)
Competition	Boddewyn et al. (1986) Quelch and Hoff (1986) Walters (1986); Ohmae (1987) Samiee and Roth (1992) Cavusgil and Zou (1994)
Consumer	Buzzell (1968); Keegan (1969) Levitt (1983); Hill and Still (1984)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Need homogeneity - Mobility 	
Government	Das (1981); Jain (1989)
Marketing Infrastructure	Sorenson and Wiechmann (1975) Peebles, Ryans, and Vernon (1978) Jain (1989)
Organization	Perlmutter (1969) Wind et al. (1973) Quelch and Hoff (1986) Terpstra (1987) Douglas and Criag (1989) Cateora (1990); Samiee and Roth (1992) Cavusgil, Zou, Naidu (1993)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Corporate orientation - Authority delegation - Size - Experience 	

Cultural Distance

A society's culture is a common set of values, forms of social organization, prevailing roles, status positions, acceptable social interventions, rituals, rhythms and routines of daily life (Douglas and Dubois 1977). That is, people from different cultures have different perceptions of time, different thought patterns, personal space expectations, material possessions, family roles and relationships, languages, religions, personal goals, attitudes toward competitiveness and individuality, social behaviors, and other interrelated environmental and subjective issues (Knotts 1989). Those cultural and social behaviors are not innate but learned (Toyne and Walters 1989). Marketers who operate in foreign markets often face different cultures (languages, business practices, political and legal systems, and marketing infrastructures). This section discusses definitions and dimensions of cultural distance. It then discusses the consequences of cultural distance.

Definitions

Cultural distance is also called psychic distance. It refers to perceived socio-cultural distance between countries, specifically, the marketer's perceived difference between the home country and the target country (Johanson, Sanden, and Vahlne 1976; Johanson and Vahlne 1977; Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul 1973). Thus, the cultural distance focused on in this study is not an objective difference but rather a subjective, perceived difference between countries. Cultural distance is a function of various factors: language, business practices, legal and political systems, and marketing infrastructure (Holzmuller and Kasper 1990; Johanson, Sanden, and Vahlne 1976; Klein and Roth 1990; Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul 1973) (See Table 4). Focusing on the U.S., language can be variants of the same tongue, as Canadian, British, Australian English are, or part of the same Indo-European language family (e. g., German, French, Greek), or use the same alphabet (e.g., German and French but not Greek).

Languages like Japanese and Korean differ from U.S. English on all relevant dimensions. A business culture that emphasized written communications and contracts and punctuality (monochronic time) would be similar to that of the U.S. (Hall 1976; Toyne and Walters 1989). A business culture that emphasized verbal communications and contracts, personal relationships based on trust, and polychronic time would be dissimilar. In a political and legal system similar to the U.S., government will play a limited role in private business, whereas in different cultures (e. g., Asian countries), government intervention in the private economy through supervision, licensing, and the manipulation of incentives will be greater (Toyne and Walters 1989). In cultures similar to the U.S., marketing infrastructure will be characterized by mass distribution in relatively short, simple channels. In a different culture (e.g., Japan), the marketing infrastructure might be characterized by long and complex channels and a distribution network based on close, personal relationships (Toyne and Walters 1989).

In his approach to cultural distance, Davidson (1980) defines cultural distance in terms of Hofstede's (1980) cultural indices: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity/femininity, individualism/collectivism.

Some studies treat cultural distance as uncertainty about the culture. For example, Kogut and Singh (1988) define it as the degree to which marketers are uncertain of the characteristics of a foreign market. Johanson et al. (1976) view psychic distance (cultural distance) as measuring the degree of uncertainty and the cost of uncertainty reducing information in an international decision context.

Cultural distance is not the same thing as cultural knowledge. Cultural distance can be high when cultural knowledge is low, because ill-informed managers believe the two cultures are very different. Cultural distance can also be high when cultural knowledge is high, because well-informed managers believe the two cultures are very different. Thus, this dissertation distinguishes between the cultural distance and cultural knowledge constructs and focuses on

cultural distance only. It defines cultural distance as the perceived difference between home and host countries. The next section deals with studies related to consequences of cultural distance.

Consequences of Cultural Distance

Cultural distance has several consequences. First, it disturbs the flow of information (Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul 1973). Differences in language and social practices make it difficult for international marketers to communicate in other countries. Thus, Carlson (1975) used cultural distance to explain difficulties in acquiring information about differences between countries. Furnham and Bochiner (1982) found that cultural distance and social skills are negatively related. That is, marketers who are more culturally distant are likely to have fewer culturally appropriate social skills in negotiating situations (Furnham and Bochiner 1982). Therefore, it can be said that cultural distance increases the inherent uncertainty of doing business in foreign countries (Boyacigiller 1990). However, as interfirm relationships develop, mutual understanding can reduce the psychic distance between firms.

Second, cultural distance affects the choice of entry country. Johanson and Vahlne (1977) suggested that a firm's degree of internationalization can be best understood in terms of the perceived cultural distance in the minds of managers between the host and home market. That is, internationalization is an incremental process grounded in the progressive reduction of cultural distance through managers' gradual accumulation of experiential knowledge of foreign markets. Thus, firms will enter new markets with greater cultural distance (Johanson and Vahlne 1990). Davidson (1980) found that marketers prefer culturally similar countries as investment targets. Goodnow and Hansz (1972) found that U.S. firms reduce their degree of commitment and control as cultural distance increases.

Third, cultural distance influences mode of entry. For example, Kogut and Singh (1988)

found that when cultural distance between home country and host country is large, marketers are more likely to choose joint ventures over acquisitions, since acquisitions are likely to be more socially disruptive than delegating management to a local partner.

Fourth, cultural distance affects degree of control over foreign subsidiaries. However, studies on the relationship between cultural distance and degree of control have had mixed results. For example, Goodnow and Hansz (1972) found that U.S. firms reduce their degree of commitment and control as cultural distance increases. Firms are less likely to exert operational control and more likely to delegate to local firms in countries whose cultures are very different and unfamiliar (Anderson and Coughlan 1987; Erramilli and Rao 1993; Gatignon and Anderson 1988; Klein and Roth 1990; Root 1983). For example, Erramilli and Rao (1993) have found that cultural distance is negatively related to service firms' mode of international entry. Specifically, they found that service firms chose shared-control over full-control when cultural distance was high. Holzmuller and Kasper (1990) also found a significant negative relationship between the perceived cultural distance of the export market and export volume.

On the other hand, Boyacigiller (1990) argued that the uncertainty of managing a facility in an extremely different foreign country increases the perceived need for control. The study found that cultural distance is positively and significantly related to the use of U.S. nationals in brand management. Klein and Roth (1990) found a negative relationship between cultural distance and forward integration (high control) where asset specificity was low. Where asset specificity was high, they posited a positive relationship between cultural distance and forward integration because the possibility of opportunistic behavior results in high monitoring costs. However, the results of their study did not support this second hypothesis.

Finally, and most importantly for this dissertation, many studies have argued that cultural distance affects program standardization (Jain 1989; Schiffman, Dillon, and Ngumah 1981). This is true because different cultures acculturate consumers differently, which, in turn,

results in different tastes, preferences, and life styles. Those differences affect the acceptance of standardized products (Schiffman, Dillon, and Ngumah 1981). The same product can have different meanings in different cultures (Friedmann 1986; Cattin et al 1982). Thus, when managers think product markets are culturally similar, the product is more likely to be a candidate for standardization (cf. Britt 1974; Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Jain 1989; Keegan 1969).

Table 4: Dimensions of Cultural (Psychic) Distance

Dimension	Studies
Language	Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul (1973) Johanson, Sanden, and Vahlne (1976) Johanson and Vahlne (1977) Holzmuller and Kasper (1990) Klein and Roth (1990)
Business Practices	Holzmuller and Kasper (1990) Klein and Roth (1990)
Legal System	Holzmuller and Kasper (1990) Klein and Roth (1990) Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul (1973)
Political System	Holzmuller and Kasper (1990) Klein and Roth (1990) Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul (1973)
Marketing Infrastructure	Johanson and Vahlne (1977) Klein and Roth (1990)

Management's Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism refers to the view of things in which one's own group is center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it (Sumner 1906). Therefore, ethnocentrism involves dual judgements: a positive attitude on their group and a negative attitude on others (Chang and Ritter 1976).

There have been different conceptualization of ethnocentrism in the marketing literatures: the E. P. R. G. orientations of international marketers (Perlmutter 1969) and consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma 1987). More detailed discussions on these will be in appendix A and this section mainly concentrate on ethnocentrism as defined by Sumner (1906) and Adorno et al. (1950).

Management's Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism was developed as a sociological concept by Sumner (1906), who defined it as a tendency to view one's own group as the center of everything and to scale and rate everything else with reference to it (p. 12). Following the original definition by Sumner (1906), Adorno et al. (1950) defined ethnocentrism as a tendency in the individual to be "ethnically centered," to be rigid in his acceptance of the culturally "alike" and in his rejection of the "unlike." Ethnocentrism is a universal phenomenon, rooted deeply in most intergroup and interracial relationships (Chang and Ritter 1976; Lewis 1976).

Ethnocentrism is conceived as an ideological system pertaining to groups and group relations. A distinction is made between ingroups (those groups with which the individual identifies himself/herself) and outgroups (with which s/he does not have a sense of belonging and which are regarded as antithetical to the ingroups). Outgroups are the objects of negative opinions and hostile attitudes; ingroups are objects of positive opinions and uncritically supportive attitudes; and in most cases, people believe that outgroups should be subordinate

to ingroups (Adorno et al. 1950).

Thus, ethnocentrism involves dual judgements: a positive attitude toward one's own group and a negative attitude toward others (Chang and Ritter 1976). According to genetic similarity theory, people can be expected to favor their own group over others (Rushton 1989). Many studies have found that people are more likely to help members of their own race or citizens of their own country (Rushton 1989). That is, ethnocentrism involves beliefs that the cultural patterns and practices of one's own society are "normal," "natural," and "superior." Ingroup attitudes include tendencies to see the ingroup as virtuous and superior, to see one's own standard of value as universal and intrinsically true, to be cooperative with ingroup members and obedient to ingroup authorities, and to desire ingroup acceptance and approval (Chang and Ritter 1976; Lanternari 1980; Levine and Campbell 1972; Schompmeyer and Fisher 1993).

On the other hand, ethnocentric individuals show the rejection of outgroups (Adorno et al 1950). They view the other societies are necessarily "abnormal" and, therefore, "inferior" (Chang and Ritter 1976; Lanternari 1980; Levine and Campbell 1972; Schompmeyer and Fisher 1993). Outgroup attitudes include tendencies to see outgroup as contemptible, immoral, inferior, to be uncooperative with outgroup members and uncompliant with outgroup authority, to blame the outgroup for ingroup troubles, and to distrust and fear the outgroup (Levine and Campbell 1972).

The positive attitude toward the ingroup and negative attitude toward the outgroup are positively related. For example, when Chang and Ritter (1976) developed a black ethnocentrism scale (comprised of a pro-black subscale and an anti-white subscale), they found that the anti-white attitude was positively related to the pro-black attitude.

The boundaries of the ingroup shift as the unit of analysis shifts from the individual to the family, state, country, etc. (Adorno et al 1950). Ethnocentrism encompasses a wide variety

of attitudes both at the individual level and at the mass level (Lanternari 1980). This dissertation will explore managers' ethnocentrism at the country level.

Ethnocentric attitudes usually surface in the form of patronization, superiority, disrespect, or inflexibility (Knotts 1989). Here, it is important to note that not all judgements are reflective of ethnocentrism. If one group judges others in terms of the judges' own values, practices, and preferences, that is ethnocentrism. However, if the group judges others in terms of some objective standard recognized by both groups (e.g., level of economic development), the conclusion is no longer ethnocentric (Bouma 1991). Specifically, when a manager from a developed country says that their country is more developed, this is not an ethnocentrism, provided that the objective reality of the claim is recognized by managers from both countries. Thus, in its essence, management ethnocentrism is a self-centered tendency to judge others in terms of one's own values, practices, and preferences (Bouma 1991).

There are both pros and cons of ethnocentrism. On the positive side, it tends to produce group pride, unity, and cohesiveness. On the negative side, it tends to produce smug complacency, feelings of exclusivity and superiority, and a reluctance to embrace social change and to accept others (Bouma 1991).

It has been found that ethnocentrism and education are negatively related (Johnson and Tamney 1984). Conversely, ethnocentrism is positively related to age and authoritarian tendencies (Johnson and Tamney 1984). Shimp and Sharma (1987) found that consumer ethnocentric tendencies are especially prominent among individuals whose economic livelihood are threatened by foreign competition.

Management's Ethnocentrism and Standardization

Decisions on program standardization are determined by a host of economic, cultural, product, consumer, competition, legal, political, infrastructural, organizational, and manager

attitudinal factors (Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Jain 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992; Szymansky et al. 1993; Walters 1986). The ethnocentrism of managers is one managerial attitude factor. Managers with high ethnocentrism are likely to have an inflexible and narrow vision (Johnson and Tamney 1994; Kashani 1989; Knotts 1989). And their rigid and inflexible implementation of standardized programs is likely to produce a market failure. That is, unless managers are willing to modify global programs when local conditions dictate, standardized marketing can be an obstacle to international marketing success (Kashani 1989).

Consistent with this idea, Jain (1989) argued that marketers with an ethnocentric orientation are more likely to adopt a standardization strategy. Samiee and Roth (1992) also argued that managerial attitude or philosophy variables can have an impact on standardization decisions. This dissertation hypothesizes that the degree of standardization is greater for ethnocentric marketers.

Quality-of-Life (QOL) Orientation

The QOL concept is a marketing concept rooted in societal marketing. Kotler (1986) has long maintained that an organization's task is to determine the needs, wants, and interests of targeted consumers, then to deliver satisfaction more effectively and efficiently than competitors in a way that preserves or enhances the well being of the customer and society. Thus, the primary marketing objective of QOL marketers is to enhance the well being of targeted consumers (Sirgy 1986; Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994).

Quality-of-Life (QOL) has been conceptualized in various ways depending on the theoretical perspective used to define the construct (Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994). The next section reviews theoretical approaches to QOL in various disciplines, followed by the conceptualizations of QOL indicators. After that, theoretical approaches to QOL in marketing are presented along with definitions, dimensions, and consequences of QOL orientation.

Theoretical Approaches to QOL in Various Disciplines

There are many different theoretical approaches to QOL (Sirgy 1986; Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994) (see Table 5). From an economic perspective, QOL has been conceptualized in terms of total income and utility. For example, Fox (1974) conceived of QOL in terms of total income. This perspective is related to the opulence theory of QOL. Opulence theories view QOL as accumulation of wealth as measured by income (Nussbaum and Sen 1993). Many QOL researchers interested in economic development believe that QOL can be improved by helping communities and societies achieve a high standard of living. However, this approach has been criticized for not considering differences in life style expectations (Bliss 1993).

Theorists with an ecological perspective conceive of QOL in terms of ecological interactions and the human enviroend unit (a social unit in an environmental context) (Sirgy 1986). Within this perspective, QOL is need satisfaction in an environment that provides

sufficient resources while interacting with the human environment (Bubolz et al. 1980).

In community psychology, QOL has been conceptualized in terms of "goodness of fit" between individuals and the environment of a particular community (Sirgy 1986). Thus, emphasis is placed on the provision of resources as a means of improving the well-being of communities (Hirsch 1980; Mitchell and Sirgy 1985; Sirgy 1986). Since it focuses on dynamic and continuous interactions between human beings and the environment, system theory seems to be related to community psychology and the ecological perspective.

Within a public policy perspective, QOL is conceptualized in terms of equality and fairness. The comparison-of-resource-holdings theory of QOL posits equality of resource holding as a QOL indicator. That is, marketers should act in ways that do not sacrifice the QOL of various stakeholders not directly involved in a given transaction. This approach is consistent with the stakeholder approach in QOL research (Sirgy 1991a, 1991b; Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994).

Within a public health perspective, QOL is conceptualized in terms of need assessment (e.g., gathering of information and using it to improve public health programs) (Bell et al. 1983; Nguyen et al 1983). In like manner, the basic need approach to QOL suggests that marketers can positively contribute to society by meeting basic needs, needs related to material necessities and the avoidance of misery. The relationship between domain specific life satisfaction and overall life satisfaction can be explained in terms of a spillover effect (Sirgy et al 1991; Efraty and Sirgy 1992). That is, dis/satisfaction in one life domain (e.g., health) can be generalized to the other domains, thus affecting overall life satisfaction. From a marketing perspective, QOL has been conceptualized in terms of life satisfaction (Sirgy et al 1991; Sirgy, Morris, and Samli 1985; Sirgy, Samli, and Meadow 1982). This approach argues that the relative goodness of a marketing program can be assessed in terms of consumer well-being (Sirgy 1986, 1991b; Sirgy and Lee 1994; Sirgy, Meadow, Rahtz, and Samli 1992; Sirgy,

Meadow, and Samli 1982, 1994; Sirgy and Mangleburg 1988). The individual and global dimensions of individual consumer well-being include life satisfaction (sometimes called as "subjective well-being" or "happiness") and physical well-being. Domains of well-being include work, family, leisure, finances, and neighborhood, among others (Andrews and Withey 1976; Sirgy, Meadow, Rahtz, and Samli 1992; Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994).

Much QOL research has been done on specific life domains, specific industries, and specific consumer segments. Examples of research dealing with specific life domains includes research focused on the shopping quality domain (Anderson 1992), the leisure domain (Domzal and Kernan 1992), the community domain (Jeffres and Dubos 1992), the work domain (Efraty and Sirgy 1990, 1992) among others. Nakano, MacDonald, and Douthitt (1992) have examined the effect of work experience on the quality of shopping life. They found that having worked as a customer contact person oneself makes one more likely to be a dissatisfied shopper. Domzal and Kernan (1992) identified six dimensions that measure the quality of leisure life. And in the community life domain, Jeffres and Dobos developed a model to explain and predict the quality of community life. In work life domain, Efraty and Sirgy (1990) have shown that the quality of one's work life significantly impacts one's organizational identification, job effort, job performance, etc. Efraty and Sirgy (1992) have shown that employees with high prestige occupations tend to experience higher levels of job and life satisfaction and greater spillover between job and life satisfaction than employees with low prestige occupations.

Much QOL marketing research deals with specific business types or industries, including small business (Sexton and Morris 1992), travel and tourism (Ahmed and Krohn 1992; Nelson 1992), and the tobacco industry (Spratlen 1992) among others. These industry-specific studies have focused on finding ways to enhance societal QOL. Sexton and Morris (1992) have argued that entrepreneurs make a significant contribution to societal QOL.

Ahmed and Krohn (1992) have shown how tourism in a country has both positive and negative effects on the societal QOL. Having examined the effects of tourism development on the QOL of host communities, Nelson (1992) argued that marketing can play a positive role in developing a socially responsible tourism industry.

Much of QOL/marketing research also deals with specific consumer segments that have been largely neglected by traditional marketers. Examples include studies on elderly consumers (Cooper and Miaoliu 1988; Sherman 1989), the homeless (Cline 1992), and the poor, among others. These studies have focused on finding effective ways to improve the QOL of these less traditional consumers.

In sum, QOL has been defined within many different perspectives (see Table 5). But their diverse perspectives notwithstanding, the different theoretical approaches have a common goal -- the enhancement of QOL in a society. To facilitate a more efficient achievement of the goal, greater coordination and cooperation and a more integrative conceptual framework are needed (Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994).

Sirgy et al (1982) have developed one framework within which various QOL conceptualizations might be integrated and classified. The framework has four dimensions: ends/means, short-term/long-term goals, potentialities/actualities, and level of analysis. Efficient QOL marketing uses means that are appropriate for the desired ends, at the same time minimizing the gap between QOL potentialities and actualities and, thereby, minimizing negative environmental effects (Sirgy, Morris, and Samli 1985). This integrative framework is useful, but a still more integrative framework needs to be developed (Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994).

Conceptualization of QOL Indicators

QOL can be analyzed at the individual, community, and societal levels (Sirgy et al

1994). Within a given level of analysis, QOL can be conceptualized and measured as an overall or as a domain-specific concept (e.g., as health related, family related, work related, housing related, transportation related, education related). Measuring overall QOL or QOL within a specific life domain (at any level of analysis) can be done through subjective or objective indicators. That is, the well-being has global and domain-specific dimensions and both dimensions have subjective and objective indicators. Subjective indicators measure psychological responses such as job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and personal happiness. Objective indicators measure factors that can be directly observed and counted (see Table 6).

At the individual level, QOL has been investigated subjectively (e.g., Andrews and Witney 1976; Campbell et al 1976; Efraty and Sirgy 1992; Sirgy et al 1994) and objectively (e.g., in terms of standard of living, personal income, health status). Also, QOL can be conceptualized as an overall or as a domain-specific concept (Sirgy, Meadow and Samli 1994). Domain specific life satisfaction can be associated with work (e.g., Efraty and Sirgy 1990, 1992; Porter 1961), consumption (Meadow 1983; Nakano, MacDonald, and Douthitt 1992), leisure (Domzal and Kernan 1992), etc. QOL has also been researched in various industry contexts: e.g., the small business sector (Sexton and Morris 1992), the travel-tourism industry (Ahmmed and Krohn 1992; Nelson 1992), and the tobacco industry (Spratlen 1992).

Community level QOL can also be measured both subjectively (e.g., through self report on various aspects of neighborhood life) and objectively (e.g., in terms of house deterioration, trash, etc.). At the societal level, too, QOL can be measured subjectively (perception/evaluation of well-being) and objectively (material conditions of life) (Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994).

Examples of measures for life satisfaction include Campbell and his colleague's (1976) CM and the Andrews and Withey's (1976) LS3. Campbell et al (1976) used self-rated measures in various life domains. Andrews and Withey (1976) developed a measure of perceived well-being and used this measure to assess QOL. Meadow et al (1992) developed

a life satisfaction measure based on judgement theory. The measure is based on the idea that life satisfaction is a function of comparisons between perceived life accomplishments and a set of evoked standards (e. g., standards based on ideal, expected, deserved, minimum tolerable, and predicted outcomes).

Theoretical Approaches to QOL in Marketing

Sirgy et al (1982) have argued that the essence of QOL marketing is long-term customer satisfaction. That is, QOL marketers develop products that not only satisfy consumer needs but also enhance one or more dimensions of well-being (Sirgy 1991a, 1991b; Sirgy and Lee 1994; Sirgy, Meadow, Rahtz, and Samli 1992; Sirgy, Samli, and Meadow 1982; Sirgy et al 1991). This can be done by matching organizational skills and resources with the needs of target consumers (Sirgy 1991b; Sirgy and Lee 1994). Related to this life satisfaction perspective, the personal utility theory of QOL (Nussbaum and Sen 1993) suggests that people's QOL will increase if personal utility increases through consumption. This is a utilitarian perspective where the ultimate good is pleasure. Preference satisfaction theory suggests that QOL can be increased if people meet their goals (i.e., satisfaction). For example, Sirgy et al. (1991) found that satisfaction with health care services can be generalized to other life domains and can, therefore, lead to life satisfaction, thus producing a spillover effect. This approach is popular in marketing (Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994), but some researchers criticize it because individuals can adjust their expectations, leading to a different level of satisfaction at the same level of utility (Sen 1993).

Definition of QOL Orientation

QOL marketing is an evolving marketing philosophy (Kotler 1986; Sirgy and Lee 1994; Sirgy, Meadow, and Samli 1994), one that can be contrasted with traditional marketing concepts. Kotler (1986) classified various philosophies of marketing as follows:

Production orientation: consumers will favor those products that are available, and therefore management should concentrate on improving production and distribution facilities (Kotler 1986, p. 14).

Product orientation: consumers will favor those products that offer the most quality, performance, and features, and therefore the organization should devote its energy to

product improvement (Kotler 1986, p. 14).

Selling orientation: consumers will not buy the organization's products unless the organization undertakes a substantial selling and promotional effort (Kotler 1986, p. 14).

Marketing orientation: organizational goals will be achieved if the organization determines the needs and wants of target markets and delivers the desired satisfactions more effectively and efficiently than competitors (Kotler 1986, p. 15).

Societal orientation: the organization's task is to determine the needs, wants, and interests of target markets and to deliver satisfactions more efficiently and effectively than competitors in a way that preserves or enhances the consumer's and the society's well-being (Kotler 1986, p. 16).

Societal marketing differs from the marketing concept in several of its premises (Kotler 1980; 1986; Rayburn et al 1985): it assumes 1) that consumer wants do not always coincide with their own and society's long-run interests, 2) that consumers will increasingly favor organizations that show a concern for meeting not only their immediate wants and/or needs through short-term gratifications but also their long-run interests and those of society too, and 3) that the organization's mission is to serve consumers in a way that produces not only want/need satisfaction but also long-run individual and societal benefits, a major factor in attracting and holding customers.

Thus, marketing based on a QOL orientation extends the marketing concept in three domains: customer satisfaction, competitor orientation, and long-term profitability. With respect to customer satisfaction, the focus becomes meeting customer needs that enhance customer well-being. With respect to competitor orientation, the focus is to maintain a competitive orientation that provides products which enhance consumer QOL. With respect to profitability, the emphasis is on long-term profits for the company along with enhanced QOL for various stakeholders. Thus, a QOL orientation is an extension of, not a departure from, the marketing concept (Sirgy and Lee 1994).

QOL marketing is highly consistent with Kotler's (1986) definition of societal marketing

in that QOL marketing also guides marketers to strive to meet the goals of consumers, the company, and society. One can view QOL marketing as an extension of societal marketing. However, there are distinctions that should be noted between societal marketing and QOL marketing (Sirgy and Lee in press): societal marketing is more likely 1) to emphasize long-term customer satisfaction rather than immediate satisfaction, 2) to view competitors as significant stakeholders rather than as opponents in a contest, and 3) to focus on preserving well-being (minimizing negative side effects) for other publics rather than on enhancing their well-being.

QOL marketing maintains that marketers have a primary responsibility to enhance the well-being of consumers, while making a conscientious effort to preserve the well-being of other publics affected by the marketing decisions (e.g., employees, stockholders, the community, environment, etc.). QOL marketing does not treat all of the organization's stakeholders alike, for the primary focus of QOL marketing lies in enhancing the well-being of consumers. Other managers in other departments should focus their efforts on the well-being of the publics affected by their decisions, personnel managers concentrating, for example, on the well-being of employees. While managers practicing QOL marketing will make a conscientious effort to preserve the well-being of employees, their primary focus is the target consumer (Sirgy and Lee 1995).

QOL marketers' efforts to enhance consumer well-being and preserve other stakeholder's well-being is based on the philosophical position of moral relativism. Moral relativists argue that all moral standards are relative to the society in which they occur (Schlenker and Forsyth 1977). That is, they suggest that moral rules cannot be derived from universal principles but are, rather, a function of time, place, and culture (Tretise et al. 1994). Thus, no single set of rules or laws can determine what is right and what is wrong for all people. Marketers who score low on moral relativism make value judgements based on moral absolutes whereas those who score high do not rely on any set of inviolate moral principles

when making value judgements (Tretise et al 1994).

The main objectives of QOL marketing, therefore, are (1) to enhance consumer well-being by offering affordable, healthful products, while at the same time reducing negative effects associated with the marketing or use of the product and (2) to preserve the well-being of other stakeholders involved with the marketing and use of the organization's products (Sirgy 1991b; Sirgy and Lee 1995) 3) based on moral relativism. Therefore, QOL orientation can be defined as the degree to which marketers believe that their task is to enhance customer well-being by offering affordable and healthful products and to preserve the well-being of other stakeholders based on moral relativism (cf. Sirgy 1991b; Sirgy and Lee in press; Treatise et al 1994). Moral relativism refers to an ethical position that moral rules cannot be derived from universal principles, but are a function of time, place, and culture (Schlenker and Forsyth 1977). From a morally relativistic point of view, what is good for consumers depends on the social and cultural contexts of the consumers.

Thus, the main focus of the QOL orientation is not immediate but rather long-term satisfaction (Sirgy et al 1982). Marketers with a high QOL orientation provide long-term satisfaction, the enhancement of life satisfaction, with minimum side effects or social costs (Sirgy 1991b). They are less likely to use deceptive and unethical practices (cf. Cespedes 1993; Drumwright 1993; Ortmeyer 1993; Preston 1986)

Table 5: Different Theoretical Approaches to QOL

Approaches	QOL Conceptualization	Related QOL Theory
Economic	Total income, wealth, standard of living	Opulence theory
Ecology	Environment providing sufficient resources for human needs; Need fulfillment.	Systems theory
Community Psychology	Goodness of fit between individual and environment.	Systems theory
Public policy	Equality, fairness	Comparisons of holdings theory.
Public health	Need assessment	Basic need approach. Spillover effect
Marketing	Life satisfaction, Need fulfillment	Need hierarchy Cybernetics theory Personal utility Preference satisfaction Proactive marketing Social Judgment Theory Spillover effect

Table 6: Examples of Common Dimensions of Quality of Life Related to Consumer Marketing

Domains	Unit of analysis	Subjective Indicators	Objective Indicators
Global	Individual	* Overall Life satisfaction	* Standard of living measures
	Community	* Overall Life Satisfaction living in the community	* Standard of living measures in the community
	Society	* Overall Life Satisfaction living in the society	* Standard of living measures in the society
Health QOL	Individual	* Personal health satisfaction	* Physical well-being measure
	Community	* Satisfaction with community health services	* Composite measure related to number and accessibility of doctors, hospitals, medicines etc.
	Society	* Satisfaction with societal health services	
Work QOL	Individual	* Job satisfaction (with pay, promotion, promotion, coworkers)	* Absenteeism from work * Tenure at work * Worker safety
	Community	* Satisfaction with availability of jobs in the community * Satisfaction with job environment in the community	* Employment rate * Job opportunity * Payment level
	Society	* Satisfaction with jobs in the society	

Table 6: Examples of Common Dimensions of Quality of Life Related to Consumer Marketing (continued)

Domains	Unit of analysis	Subjective Indicators	Objective Indicators
Family QOL	Individual	*Marital and family satisfaction	*Tenure in marriage *Amount of leisure time spent together
	Community	* Satisfaction with neighborhood and community	* leisure facilities, cultural activity, crime rate, aesthetic quality, environmental pollution
	Societal	* Satisfaction with living in society	* crime rate, government services, environmental pollution
Consumer QOL	Individual	* Satisfaction with standard of living	* Individual standard of living measures
	Community	* Satisfaction with community's standard of living	* Standard of living measures
	Society	* Satisfaction with society's standard of living	* Standard of living measures
Housing-Related		*Satisfaction with one's own housing conditions	*Composite of measures tapping number of rooms per number in household, degree of furnishing, quality of furnishings, quality of utilities etc.
Transportation Related		*Satisfaction with transportation	* Time spent in one's own means of transportation * Transportation expenses
Education-Related		* Satisfaction with one's educational accomplishments * Satisfaction educational opportunities that are available	* Level of educational attainment * number of quality educational programs available to a consumer segment

Dimensions of QOL Orientation

The QOL orientation has three dimensions: enhancement of consumer well-being, preservation of other stakeholders' well-being, and moral relativism.

Enhancement of Consumers' Well-Being: A QOL orientation emphasizes consumers' well-being. To enhance consumers' life satisfaction (or well-being), QOL marketers determine needs, wants, and interests of target consumers and deliver the most desired satisfactions in a way that enhances consumers' well-being (Kotler 1986). These effects reflect a long-term orientation toward customer satisfaction rather than a focus on immediate customer satisfaction (Sirgy, Samli, and Meadow 1982). In the case of cigarette smoking, for example, short-term satisfaction and immediate gratification may not enhance the consumer's long-term well-being (Spratlen 1992). Marketers with a QOL orientation focus on delivering products that enhance some dimension of consumer long-term QOL (Sirgy 1991b; Sirgy and Lee 1994; Sirgy, Samli, and Meadow 1982).

Marketers with a QOL orientation develop products by identifying consumers' focal behaviors (e.g., consumers may reduce their weight through focal behaviors such as dieting, exercise, etc.), evaluate QOL consequences of each focal behavior (e.g., vigorous exercise can enhance the QOL of the healthy but have negative QOL consequences for the elderly, and too much dieting can have negative QOL consequences), then match the firms' expertise with the most desirable focal behaviors in the way that effectively maximizes consumers' QOL (Sirgy and Lee 1994).

Since QOL marketers mainly focus on enhancing the lives of target consumers, they use different strategies depending on the hierarchical level of particular consumer needs (Maslow 1954). That is, different societies and consumers are located at the different levels on the need hierarchy (Sirgy 1986, 1988; Sirgy and Mangleburg 1988). People in developed countries are likely to be more involved in satisfying higher order needs such as social and self-

actualization needs, whereas people in less developed countries are likely to be more involved in meeting lower order needs such as biological and safety needs. Therefore, it is important for QOL marketers to adjust their offerings to the different needs of different societies (Sirgy 1986, 1988; Sirgy and Mangleburg 1988) since the primary concern of QOL marketers is the enhancement of consumers' well-being (Sirgy 1991b).

Preservation of Other Stakeholders' Well-Being: Marketers with a QOL orientation focus on enhancing consumer well-being while preserving the well-being of other stakeholders that are important to the organization.

According to general systems theory, an open system is an entity whose subcomponents interact with each other as well as with the external environment (Boulding 1956). A system has a goal of transforming inputs into throughputs then outputs. Since a system involves transformative activities, it needs energy (resources) to survive and grow. A firm can be understood as a system that has various constituencies or stakeholders (e.g., employees, stockholders, community, environment, government, etc.) with whom it enters exchanges to attain its goals (Anderson 1982; Andrews 1989; Evan and Friedman 1988; Pfeffer and Salancik 1978).

Major stakeholders of a multinational corporation operating in a foreign country would include its stockholders and headquarters, local governments, host communities, local employees, local suppliers, local distributors, local competitors, local marketing support firms (e.g. advertising agencies), and the local environment. A multinational corporation operating in a foreign country should make a concentrated effort to preserve the well-being of stakeholders in the country where it operates.

Marketers with a QOL orientation care about preserving the well-being of other stakeholders. However, the well-being of other stakeholders besides consumers is primarily the responsibility of other functional units in the firm. For example, enhancement of employees'

well-being is the responsibility primarily of the personnel department. Therefore, QOL marketers do consider the impact of their actions on other constituencies besides consumers, making a concerted effort to minimize social costs, use resources more efficiently, treat environment better etc. (Samli et al 1987), but their primary focus remains the firm's consumers.

Moral Relativism: Moral relativism is the belief that all moral standards are relative to the society in which they occur (Schlenker and Forsyth 1977). That is, moral relativism suggests that moral rules cannot be derived from universal principles, but exist as a function of time, place, and culture (Tretise et al 1994). Thus, no single set of rules or laws can be formulated to determine what is right and what is wrong for all people. Specifically, moral relativism refers to the degree to which marketers believe that what is good for consumers depends on the social and cultural contexts of consumers (Tretise et al 1994).

Consequences of QOL Orientation

As the previous discussion shows, a QOL orientation has several consequences: long-term life satisfaction, on-going relationships with consumers, minimum social costs, and long-term profitability.

Long-term Life Satisfaction: A QOL orientation should result in the enhancement of consumers' QOL or life satisfaction. It has been found that customers' long-term satisfaction with a firm's offering (e.g. health care services) leads to domain-specific life satisfaction (e.g. satisfaction with health), which in turn leads to overall life satisfaction (Efraty and Sirgy 1992; Leelakulthanit et al 1991; Sirgy et al 1991). The positive relationship between domain-specific satisfaction and overall life satisfaction can be explained by the "spillover effect," the idea that satisfaction in one domain is generalized to other life domains (Efraty and Sirgy 1992; Sirgy et al 1991).

On-going Relationship With Consumers: A QOL orientation would help marketers to

build on-going relationship with customers (Sirgy and Lee 1994). QOL marketers would not provide products that may give immediate satisfaction but have negative long-term consequences for consumers (Spratlen 1992), as Nestle has done with its marketing of infant formula in the third world, a product which provides immediate satisfaction and convenience to African and other third world consumers but results in negative long-term QOL consequences such as diarrhea reduced breast-feeding with its attendant benefits (Kim and Mauborgne 1987). Consumers may, therefore, increasingly favor organizations that show a concern for meeting not only their immediate wants/needs but also their long-run interests, and society's too (Kotler 1980).

Sirgy and Lee (1994) have argued that in order to implement the QOL orientation, marketers first need to establish strong connections between their offerings and domain specific life satisfaction. This can be done by identifying focal behaviors that efficiently and effectively lead to customer life satisfaction. The next step is to harness organizational skills and resources in the development of products that not only satisfy customers, but also enhance their well-being (Sirgy 1991b; Sirgy and Lee 1994).

Long-term Profitability: A QOL orientation should result in long-term profitability. By providing products that offer long-term satisfaction, QOL marketers can build strong relationships with consumers (Sirgy and Lee 1994). Relationship marketing refers to on-going relationships with consumers that produce mutual benefits (Gronroos 1989). In relationship marketing, a customer has a lifetime value to the firm (Shani and Chalasani 1992), and this long-term relationship with consumers leads to increased profitability (Kohli and Jaworski 1990; Narver and Slater 1990).

In addition, as mentioned above, QOL marketers adapt their products to meet the needs of consumers (e.g., consumers in different countries or different cultures), which leads to increased satisfaction and a greater chance of repeat sales (Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Friedmann

1986; Hill and Still 1984; Lee 1966; Onkvisit and Shaw 1994; Ricks 1983; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975).

Goodwill of the Organization: A QOL orientation results in goodwill for the organization, since a QOL organization pays careful attention to the impact of marketing efforts not only on the consumer but also on other stakeholders as well (Sirgy and Lee in press). Negative side-effects associated with the development and marketing of a firm's products can have a devastating effect on the company's goodwill. Marketers with QOL orientation will seek to minimize negative social consequences and, thus, make a concerted effort to build and maintain goodwill for the company by enhancing the QOL of consumers.

Program Adaptation: QOL marketing is embedded in societal marketing (Kotler 1986) that emphasizes the well-being of consumers while preserving the well-being of other stakeholders. This dissertation posits that QOL orientation will lead to program adaptation since morally relativistic QOL marketers are likely to perceive that what is good for local consumers (i.e., optimal in enhancing their well-being) may not be universal but exists as a function of time, place, and culture (Tretise et al 1994). Also, QOL marketers' expanded self-defined role (e.g., their cognizance of social responsibilities to other publics) will increase their interaction with various social sectors and, thereby, enhance overall societal QOL (Sirgy and Morris 1987).

It has been argued that adaptation is likely to increase customer satisfaction (Douglas and Craig 1989; Douglas and Wind 1987; Hill and Still 1984), please local government by minimizing use of imported materials and consequent trade imbalances, and help local suppliers and distributors (Hill and Still 1984). Therefore, it can be argued that a high QOL orientation is likely to lead to program adaptation.

Summary

This chapter begins with a review of standardization: its conceptual definitions, arguments for standardization, arguments for adaptation, and determinants that affects standardization vs. adaptation decisions. Standardization of marketing programs refers to the use of common products, promotions, price, and channel schemes worldwide (Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975), whereas adaptation of marketing programs refers to the use of different products, promotions, price strategies, and channel schemes on a country-by-country basis. This standardization of marketing programs is a matter of degree (Quelch and Hoff 1986). This dissertation focuses on product and promotion standardization.

Based on this review of standardization, three managerial attitude variables were identified as potential predictors that also affect program standardization: cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and QOL orientation.

Cultural distance refers to perceived difference between the home country and the target country in terms of language, business practices, legal and political systems, and marketing infrastructure (Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul 1973). Different culture results in different kinds of consumer acculturation, which results in different tastes, preference,s and life style choices. In addition, people in different cultures have different modes of learning and different levels of product involvement, requiring promotion adaptation.

Management's ethnocentrism is defined as a tendency to view one's own group (e.g., country) as the center of everything and to scale and rate everything else with reference to it (Adorno et al 1950; Sumner 1906). Ethnocentrism, thus, involves both a positive attitude toward one's own group and a negative attitude toward other groups (Chang and Ritter 1973). Ethnocentrism can be analyzed at many different levels, but this dissertation deals with management's ethnocentrism at the country level. Ethnocentric managers tend to have a self-referenced approach to other countries and are thus likely to be insensitive to cultural variations

and to standardize products and promotions.

Quality-of-Life (QOL) orientation is defined as the degree to which marketers believe that their task is to enhance consumer well-being and to preserve the well-being of other stakeholders based on moral relativism. Other stakeholders for a multinational corporation operating in a foreign country include local communities, governments, and the environment, etc). Moral relativism refers to an ethical position, which posits that what is good for people depends on their social and cultural contexts (Schlenker and Forsyth 1977; Tretise et al 1994). Thus, QOL orientation has been conceptualized in terms of three dimensions: enhancement of consumer well-being, preservation of other stakeholders' well-being, moral relativism.

QOL orientation is likely to result in program adaptation since marketers with a high QOL orientation are likely to perceive that the optimal ways to enhance consumers' well-being depend on social and cultural contexts. Thus, adaptation may be necessary to enhance the well-being of a firm's various stakeholders (e.g., local governments and communities or local suppliers and distributors) (Hill and Still 1984).

CHAPTER III: THE PROPOSED MODEL

This dissertation incorporates three managerial attitudinal variables (ethnocentrism, QOL orientation, and cultural distance) as factors that lead to standardization.

Figure 1 shows the proposed model. This model includes the effects of ethnocentrism, cultural distance, and quality-of-life (QOL) orientation on program standardization. This chapter examines these postulated relationships in some detail.

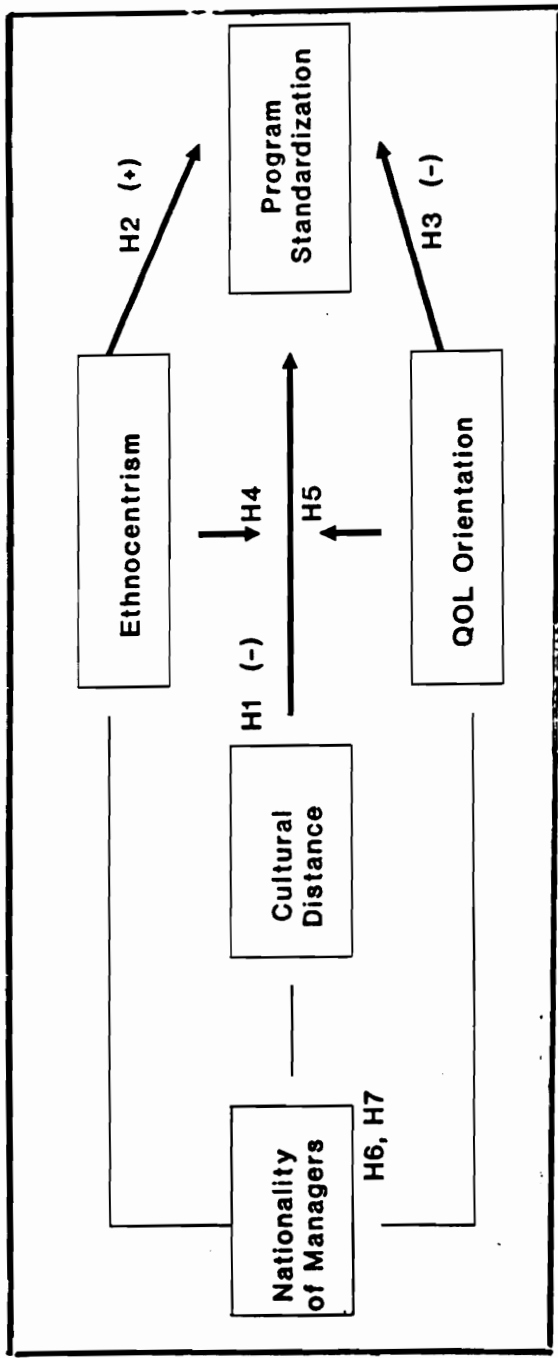


Figure 1: Conceptual Model

The Effect of Managers' Cultural Distance on Program Standardization

Culture can be analyzed at several levels: ethnic, national, and corporate. Hofstede (1980) defined culture at the national level as the collective mental programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another. This study focuses on the culture at the national level.

Cultural distance is the perceived difference between two countries. It is influenced by factors such as language, business practices, the legal and political system, and marketing infrastructure (Anderson and Gatignon 1986; Cavusgil 1980; Gatignon and Anderson 1988; Holzmüller and Kasper 1990; Johanson, Sanden, and Vahlne 1976; Klein and Roth 1990; Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul 1973). Hofstede (1980) found that cultural distance has a big impact on an organization and its management. Many other studies have suggested that cultural distance specifically affects program adaptation (cf. Arndt and Helgesen 1981; Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Jain 1989; Lee 1966; Ricks 1983).

Managers with high cultural distance are more likely to employ adaptation of products and services to the needs of a national market due to the perceived cultural differences and national idiosyncracies (Boddeyn, Soehl, and Picard 1986; Buzzell 1968; Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Hill and Still 1984; Keegan 1969; Killough 1978; Quelch and Hoff 1986; Ricks 1983; Sorenson and Wiechmann 1975; Wind and Douglas 1986). When product markets are culturally similar, however, the product is more likely to be a candidate for standardization (Britt 1974; Jain 1989; Keegan 1969; Lee 1966; Ricks 1983).

Therefore, it can be hypothesized that:

H1: The larger the perceived cultural distance between home and host countries, the less likely it is that managers will standardize marketing programs.

The Effect of Managers' Ethnocentrism on Program Standardization

As discussed in Chapter 2, decisions on program standardization are determined by a host of economic, cultural, product, consumer, competition, legal, political, marketing infrastructural, organizational, and manager attitudinal factors (Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Jain 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992; Szymansky et al 1993; Walters 1986). The ethnocentrism of managers is an attitudinal factor, ethnocentrism referring to the view that one's group is center of everything and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it (Sumner 1906 p.12). That is, ethnocentric managers distinguish between the ingroup (e.g., their own country) and the outgroup (e.g., other countries) and perceive their own group as the center of everything and evaluate other groups with reference to it (Lanternari 1980; Levine and Campbell 1972; Schompmeier 1993). Thus, ethnocentric managers may assume that programs successful with domestic customers will also be suitable for foreign markets (Toyne and Walters 1989; Wind et al 1973).

Ethnocentric managers are likely to standardize their product since they are insensitive to cultural variations. They tend to have an inflexible, narrow, and self-referenced approach in international marketing (Johnson and Tamney 1984; Kashani 1989; Knotts 1989). They are more likely to assume that foreign customers would behave like those in the home market and to expect foreign consumers to adjust themselves to the home products (cf. Onkvisit and Shaw 1989). In other words, ethnocentric managers are insensitive to cultural variations. They tend to assume that products designed for the home market are appropriate for overseas markets as well. They therefore tend to standardize production and marketing (Onkvisit and Shaw 1994; Perlmutter 1969; Toyne and Walters 1989; Wind et al 1973).

On the other hand, it can be argued that marketers with low ethnocentrism perceive different cultures as being equally valid (Schompmeier and Fisher 1993). Therefore, they are more likely to be sensitive to cultural differences (e.g. taste and habit), and may develop

attitudes reflecting the need to implement marketing strategy on a country-by-country or regional basis as cultural distance increases. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that

H2: The higher the ethnocentrism of marketers, the more likely it is that they will standardize marketing programs.

The Effect of Quality-of-Life (QOL) Orientation on Program Standardization.

The value orientations of managers are evident in most strategic decisions they make (Andrews 1989). A QOL orientation is a manager attitude variable that is here hypothesized to affect program standardization. Some multinational corporations with a low QOL orientation have been accused, especially in the Third World, of extending colonialism through wanton exploitation of host country resources and cheap labor and through the repatriation of profits to the home country. However, MNCs with a high QOL orientation clearly enhance host country QOL by creating wealth, encouraging local industry, providing consumer goods, and raising standards in health, nutrition, and education (Kruckerberg 1989).

QOL orientation refers to the degree to which marketers believe that their task is to enhance customer well-being and preserve other stakeholder's well-being based on moral relativism. This dissertation suggests that a QOL orientation will lead to program adaptation 1) because morally relativistic QOL marketers are likely to perceive that what is good for consumers and what optimizes their well-being depends on the consumers' social and cultural contexts (Tretise et al 1994) and 2) because QOL marketers will make a conscious effort to preserve other stakeholder's well-being.

Marketers with a high QOL orientation try to enhance consumers' well-being while preserving other stakeholders' well-being. The term 'quality' is, by definition, a value. It refers to standards of "good" and "bad," and, thus, depends on culture (Hofstead 1984). Morally

relativistic QOL marketers are likely to perceive that what is good for local consumers is not determined by universal principles but rather by values specific to a particular time, place, and culture (Tretise et al 1994). In other words, the definition of quality of life is culturally dependent (Hofstead 1984). Different cultures have different values, needs, and preferences (Parsons 1962; Sirgy and Mangleburg 1988). Therefore, improving quality of life in other cultures often requires adaptation. Marketers can successfully adapt by evaluating the different needs and preferences and by then providing product features (intrinsic and extrinsic) that can optimally enhance customer well-being as defined by those needs and preferences (Sirgy, Samli, and Bahn 1985). Therefore, QOL marketers, who are sensitive to local variations in needs and preferences, are likely to emphasize different features and benefits than marketers who have no strong QOL orientation (Seabright 1993).

Some researchers have argued that adaptation is likely to enhance customer satisfaction (Douglas and Craig 1989; Douglas and Wind 1987; Hill and Still 1984), to please local governments by minimizing the use of imported materials and consequent trade imbalances (Hill and Still 1984), and to help local suppliers and distributors (Hill and Still 1984). Since QOL marketers are interested in helping these stakeholders, they should be more likely to adapt their marketing programs.

Based on the above discussion, it can be hypothesized that:

H3: Marketers with a high QOL orientation are more likely to adapt their marketing programs to local markets than marketers with a low QOL orientation.

The Effect of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism on Program Standardization.

It can be argued that marketers with low ethnocentrism perceive different cultures as being equally valid (Schompmeier and Fisher 1993). Therefore, they are more likely to accept

and respond to cultural differences (e.g. taste and habit) by adapting their marketing strategy as cultural distance increases.

In contrast, marketers with high ethnocentrism are likely to judge others in terms of their own values and practices and be less sensitive to cultural differences across countries. They are also more likely to have an inflexible and narrow vision (Johnson and Tamney 1984; Kashani 1989; Knotts 1989). Marketers with high ethnocentrism may believe that programs that worked well in domestic market will also work in other markets (Perlmutter 1969; Wind et al 1973) and, thus, standardize even if cultural distance increases (see Figure 2). Therefore,

H4: Ethnocentrism moderates the relationship between cultural distance and program standardization, such that low ethnocentric marketers adapt their programs as cultural distance increases more than high ethnocentric marketers do.

The Effects of QOL Orientation and Cultural Distance on Program Standardization

Cultural distance refers to the perceived difference between two countries (Cavusgil 1980; Klein and Roth 1990). Marketers with a high QOL orientation tend to make a concerted effort to enhance certain dimensions of consumer well-being and to preserve the well-being of other stakeholders.

QOL marketers perceive that what is good for consumers' well-being does not derive from universal principles but rather depends on cultural and social contexts (Tretise et al 1994). People in different cultures have different needs and preferences. Thus, QOL marketers can provide product features (intrinsic and extrinsic) that can optimally enhance customer well-being (Sirgy, Samli, and Bahn 1985) by adapting products to meet local needs. In addition, adaptation will improve the trade balance of the local economy, increase the use of local materials and labor, and expand markets for local suppliers and distributors (Hill and Still

1984). Thus, QOL marketers, who care about other stakeholders' well-being, are likely to adapt as cultural distance increases.

On the other hand, marketers with a low QOL orientation typically try to send their products to foreign markets where they are already in demand. They seek short term profits, and economic efficiency is one of their primary goals when they make standardization/adaptation decisions (Jain 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992). Therefore, low QOL marketers are likely to standardize programs even if cultural distance increases. Thus, it can be hypothesized that:

H5: QOL orientation moderates the relationship between cultural distance and program standardization, such that high QOL marketers will adapt programs as cultural distance increases whereas low QOL marketers will not adapt.

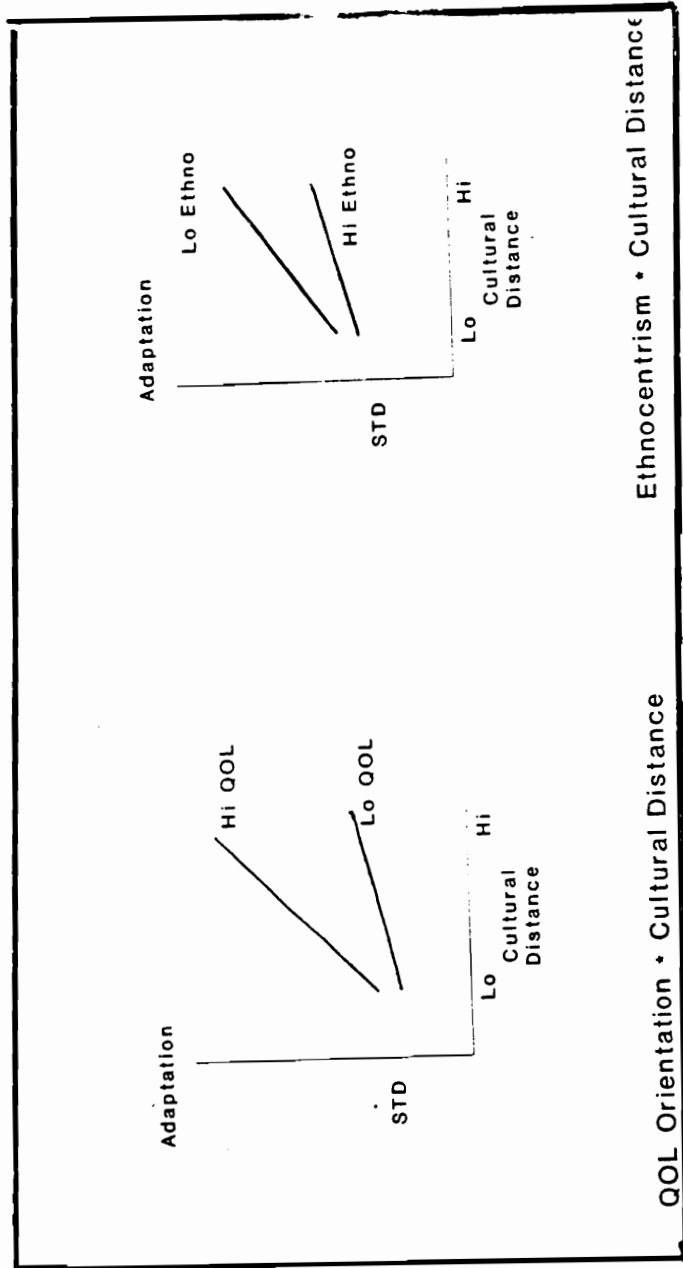


Figure 2: Interaction Effect

Cross-Cultural Comparisons of Managerial Attitudes

This dissertation employs cross-cultural comparisons of managerial attitudes and hypothesizes that managers of developed countries (e.g. the U.S.) are likely to have a higher level of cultural distance and QOL orientation and a lower level of ethnocentrism than managers of developing countries (e.g., South Korea).

Cultural Distance: It has been found that level of international involvement is negatively related to cultural distance (Anderson and Coughlan 1987; Boyacigiller 1990; Erramilli and Rao 1993; Gatignon and Anderson 1988; Goodnow and Hansz 1972; Johanson and Vahlne 1975; Kogut and Singh 1988; Root 1983). In the U.S., the average level of exports and imports is less than 10 percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) due to the size of the huge domestic economy (Toyne and Walters 1989). Countries like South Korea which have begun to develop and acquire economic power, are likely to expose themselves to foreign cultures (e.g., heavily emphasize foreign language education) since they have traditionally had to rely on foreign trade rather than domestic production and consumption. Therefore, it is likely that the overall level of perceived cultural distance will be higher for American managers than for South Korean managers.

QOL Orientation: QOL orientation deals with societal concerns of marketers (e. g. consumer well-being, and reduction of side-effects). Considering that different societies are located at different level of the need hierarchy and have different levels of social consciousness (Sirgy 1986, 1988; Sirgy and Mangleburg 1988), the level of QOL orientation among marketing managers is likely to be greater for developed countries than for developing ones. Consumers in developed countries are more likely to be involved in meeting their higher-order needs (e.g., social, self-actualization needs) than those in developing countries. Thus, managers in these countries may be socialized in values highly consistent with a QOL orientation. In developing countries, on the other hand, the market is more likely to be a sellers market (Frazier, Gill, and

Kale 1989), which tends to be associated with a lower QOL orientation.

Organizations in developing countries are usually concerned with profits and survival while organizations in developed countries are more likely to be concerned with societal as well as economic issues (Sirgy and Mangleburg 1988). So while many business people in Korea are beginning to be aware of the importance of fulfilling social responsibilities, unethical behavior rooted in earlier brutal fights for survival is still a common there. Behaviors deemed unethical in developed countries (e.g., bribing government officials) are often acceptable in less-developed countries such as South Korea.

Organizations in developed countries are more concerned with social and ethical issues. Generally, people in developed countries tend to have a high degree of social consciousness. For them, what is allowed by law is the lowest level of acceptable behavior. In other words, judgements about ethical behavior transcend mere legality. For example, Ralston et al. (1994) found that Hong Kong managers believed ethical behavior was acting in accordance with the law, while American managers tended to believe that behavior often had to exceed the requirements of the law to be deemed ethical. Therefore, It can be argued that Korean managers will have a lower QOL orientation than American managers.

Ethnocentrism: Ethnocentrism refers to the tendency to view one's own group as the center of universe, rating and scaling all other groups with reference to it (Sumner 1906). Thus managers with high ethnocentrism tend to base the judgement of others on their own value, practice, and preferences. Korea is an ethnically homogeneous nation. The country has clear boundaries and distinctions between self and others. Also, Korea is a collectivistic society (Hofstede 1980, 1984). People from collectivistic and homogeneous cultures are more likely to be ethnocentric. Supporting this, Nicholson et al. (1993) found a positive correlation between collectivism and nationalistic tendencies.

The United States, sometimes described as a "mongrel nation," has many different,

interacting ethnic groups within it. Thus, the boundaries and distinctions between self and other may be more blurred in the United States than in Korea. Americans do, of course, have ethnocentric tendencies, but these may be minimized by the fact that Americans are a heterogeneous group.

On the other hand, homogeneous cultures in which the norms and values of the ingroup are relatively uniform are often rigid in requiring that ingroup members behave according to group norms. Thus, the culturally homogeneous countries are likely to develop well-established values and practices, whereas, in a culturally heterogeneous culture such as the U.S., it is difficult for people to agree on specific norms and even more difficult to impose sanctions on individuals who choose not to abide by such norms as may exist.

In addition, Korea has a collective culture whereas the U.S. has an individual culture (Hofstede 1980). A considerable literature suggests that people in collective cultures obey ingroup authorities and are willing to fight to maintain the integrity of the ingroup but are unwilling to cooperate with members of outgroups (Triandis 1972). Schweder and Levine (1984) found that people in collective cultures perceive ingroup norms as universally rigid, which is a form of ethnocentrism. Thus, people in collectivist cultures are likely to be strongly ethnocentric, because they think about the effect of their behavior on society and feel responsible for others. Supporting this, Sharma et al (1995) found that consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to collectivist tendencies among Korean consumers.

Positive judgements about one's own society are not necessarily ethnocentric. The U.S. emerged from the Second World War as the most powerful nation within the international system (Immerman 1990). This is an objective and widely recognized fact. Thus, if an American manager were to say that America is a more developed and powerful country than Korea, this would not necessarily be an instance of ethnocentrism, since this is an objective reality recognized by both Americans and Koreans (Bouma 1991). Ethnocentrism comes into

play only when one group judges another in terms of its own values, practices, and preferences, ignoring those of the other group.

Since compared with Americans, Koreans are more ethnically homogeneous and tend to have clear distinctions between self and others, they are more likely to be ethnocentric (Nicholson et al. 1993). In other words, Koreans can be characterized by exclusivism, a strong tendency to form exclusive groups (e.g., foreigners) since they are one of the most homogenous nation. Thus, it can be argued that despite their relatively low level of economic development, Korean managers will be more ethnocentric than US managers.

Thus, compared with U.S. managers, Korean managers are expected to exhibit lower cultural distance, higher ethnocentrism, and a lower QOL orientation. These managerial attitudes may lead to high standardization. On the other hand, compared to South Korean managers, U.S. managers are likely to exhibit higher cultural distance, lower ethnocentrism, and a high QOL orientation

These expectations are expressed in the following hypothesis:

H6: Compared to South Korean managers, U.S. managers will have

- a) a higher degree of cultural distance
- b) a lower degree of ethnocentrism
- c) a higher degree of QOL orientation.

Cross-Cultural Comparisons of Standardization

The cross-cultural comparison on level of standardization depends, ceteris paribus, on the impact of QOL orientation and ethnocentrism on program standardization. It has been postulated that compared with South Korean managers, U.S. managers are more likely to have

a high cultural distance, to be less ethnocentric, and to have a high QOL orientation. The high cultural distance, high QOL orientation, and lower ethnocentric tendencies are likely to lead to adaptation (Sirgy 1986; Sirgy and Mangleburg 1988; Toyne and Walters 1989; Wind et al 1973).

South Korean managers are more likely to embrace standardization to achieve efficiency because they are more likely to have low QOL orientation. In addition, they may have a high degree of ethnocentrism and low cultural distance -- factors that lead to standardization. Thus, it is likely that South Korean managers will be more likely to embrace standardization than American managers. This dissertation accordingly posits that U.S. managers are more likely to adapt their marketing programs.

These ideas are formalized in the following hypothesis:

H7: Compared with South Korean managers, U.S. managers will be less likely to favor program standardization

Summary

In summary, this chapter presented a conceptual model of managerial attitude effects on program standardization (see Figure 1). Specifically, it hypothesized that ethnocentrism positively affects program standardization (H2), whereas cultural distance (H1) and QOL orientation (H3) negatively affects program standardization. Different cultures result in different kinds of consumer acculturation, which results in differences in tastes, preferences, and lifestyles. These factors will affect acceptance of standardized products (Schiffman, Dillon, and Ngumah 1981). In addition, people in different cultures have different modes of learning and levels of product involvement, facts which require promotion adaptation. Ethnocentric managers, who tend to have a self-referenced approach to other countries and who tend to

be less sensitive to cultural variations, may be more likely to standardize.

A high QOL orientation is likely to result in program adaptation since marketers with high QOL orientation are likely to perceive that the optimizing consumer well-being depends on the consumers' social and cultural contexts, contexts that include the well-being of other stakeholders (local governments/communities and local suppliers/distributors).

Ethnocentrism and QOL orientation also are hypothesized to moderate the cultural distance and program standardization relationship. That is, the effect of cultural distance on program standardization is likely to be greater for managers with a high QOL orientation (or low ethnocentrism) than for managers with a low QOL orientation (or high ethnocentrism).

Finally, cross-cultural comparisons of those three attitude variables (cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and QOL orientation) and degree of standardization between American managers and Korean managers will be undertaken. Specifically, it is hypothesized that, compared to Korean managers, American managers are more likely to have high cultural distance, low ethnocentrism, high QOL orientation, and a low degree program standardization. These differences may be attributable to America's relatively limited emphasis on foreign trade (high cultural distance), unclear boundaries between ingroups and outgroups (low ethnocentrism), and the enhanced social consciousness of American marketers (high QOL orientation).

CHAPTER IV: METHOD

Building on the conceptual model and hypotheses of the previous chapter, this chapter deals with the method of this dissertation. The chapter includes a comparison of several research methods and discussions of the research design, sample, procedure, and the measurements of the constructs.

Comparison of Research Methods

Several alternative research methods were considered for use in testing the model proposed in this dissertation (cf. Aronson et al 1990; Pedhazur and Schmelkin 1991). Those alternative methods included a case study, a survey, an experiment using MBA students. The advantages and disadvantages of those three methods are evaluated below (see Table 7).

Case Study: Advantages of a case study include: 1) it is conducted in a naturally occurring environment, 2) it yields data on a large number of variables, 3) it results in context-rich data, 4) it focuses on discovery and theory development, 5) it enables researchers to understand events free from presuppositions, and 6) it has a high level of realism. Disadvantages of a case studies include 1) it cannot assess causality, 2) it produces interviewer effects, 3) it lacks generalizability since it involves particular contexts, and 4) it has a high cost (e.g., because it involves travel).

Mail Survey: Advantages of a mail survey to executives of multinational corporations include: 1) it provides moderately high realism since data are collected in naturally occurring

environments, 2) it can minimize interviewer bias generated in field studies since it uses a structured questionnaire, 3) it can employ a representative sample. Disadvantages of this method are: 1) it yields only correlational, not causal relationships, 2) it may have a low response rate, and 3) it is subject to a key informant bias.

Experiment with MBA students: The advantages of this method include: 1) it can test causality, 2) it has tight controls over extraneous variables, 3) it has a relatively low cost, and 4) it permits variables of interest to be manipulated in such a way as to achieve adequate variance across the sample. Disadvantages of this alternative include: 1) it lacks realism, 2) it uses a nonrepresentative convenience sample, 3) it examines the effects of a limited number of independent variables, and 4) given the student sample, its relevance to the decisions of actual managers is questionable.

Selection of Experimental Method

The method chosen for this dissertation was an experiment using a sample of professional MBA students. This method offered the important advantage of control over other environmental variables which facilitated a focus on managerial attitude variables. But the students used in the sample were experienced managers, a more relevant sample than other, less experienced students. Such practical concerns as response rate, time, and cost also supported this method. This convenience sample was, however, less representative than that which a survey would have afforded.

There has been some controversy regarding the external validity of lab experiments (Berkowitz and Donnerstein 1982; Calder, Philips, and Tybout 1981; Griffin and Kacmar 1991; Lynch 1982; Mook 1983), external validity being the degree to which research findings can be generalizable across time, people, and setting (Cook and Campbell 1979). This dissertation assumes that internal validity and control of extraneous variables are critically important for

external validity. Without internal validity, the issue of external validity would not be meaningful. In this study, a lab experiment on professional managers is used since 1) an experiment will provide better control over extraneous variables, 2) a lab study can simplify the complex standardization vs. adaptation decisions, permitting a focus on manager's attitude variables, and 3) practical concerns (response rate, time, and cost) also support this method. These advantages should permit greater insight into the underlying processes (Mook 1983) that affect manager attitude variables which influence standardization vs. adaptation decisions.

Experimental Design

The dissertation had a mixed-subjects design. Two product categories (diet pills and infant formula) by two degrees of cultural distance (high vs. low) were within-subjects factors, whereas the nationality of managers (American Managers vs. South Korean Managers) was a between-subjects factor (see Figure 3). Other environmental factors such as technological change, firm size, international business experience of the firm, and level of competition were held constant across conditions. Managers' international business experience and product familiarity were measured as covariates.

Table 7: Comparison of Research Methods (+: better, o: neutral, -: worse)

	Case Study	Survey	Experiment
Unobtrusiveness (natural setting)	+	o	--
Mundane realism	+	o	--
Experimental realism	-	o	+
Generalizability (to and across)	--	o	o
Internal validity	-	o	+
Representativeness of sample	--	+	-
Relevance of sample to the study	+	+	-
Versatility (flexibility in asking a question)	+	o	-
Control (over extraneous variables)	-	o	+
Causality	--	-	+
Contexts information (getting context-rich information)	++	o	-
Understanding (understanding phenomena)	++	+	-
Prediction/Explanation	-	o	+
Variation in variables	o	+	+
Disadvantages:			
Interviewer bias	-		
Experimenter bias	-		-
Informant bias	-		
Artificiality	-		-
Practical Concern:			
Response Rate	o	-	+
Time	o	-	+
Cost	-	-	+

Within-Subjects Factors		Between-Subjects Factor	
		U.S. Managers	S. Korean Managers
Product	Cultural distance of target country		
Diet Pills	High	S1 - S200	S201-S400
	Low	S1 - S200	S201-S400
Infant Formula	High	S1 - S200	S201-S400
	Low	S1 - S200	S201-S400

S: Subjects

Dependent variables:
degree of product standardization
degree of promotion standardization

Cultural distance will be manipulated.
Ethnocentrism and QOL orientation will be measured.

Figure 3: Experimental Design

Sample

Professional managers enrolled in MBA programs at Virginia Tech, the University of Tennessee at Knoxville, University of South Carolina, University of Northern Illinois, Clarkson University, and University of Texas at Arlington, and Yonsei University (Seoul, Korea) participated in this study. There were a total of 189 American and 209 for Korean respondents. This study employed a cross-cultural analysis since managerial attitudes and degree of standardization may well differ depending on culture and the level of economic development.

The Experimental Procedure

Subjects were asked to assume the role of product managers at a global company, who are responsible for standardization vs. adaptation decisions. They were asked to make judgments on whether to standardize a marketing program (product and promotion) after reading four scenarios. Finally, other managerial attitude variables (ethnocentrism, QOL orientation) and demographics were measured (see appendix C for questionnaires). The cultural distance of each target country was manipulated in the scenarios.

Development of The Experimental Instrument

The experimental instrument used in this dissertation was developed through multiple stages. First, the two product classes were chosen based on a pretest and other considerations. Next, the manipulation of cultural distance was developed, followed by manipulation check measures. Third, the QOL orientation measure was developed and other measures (ethnocentrism, product familiarity, intention to standardize) were located in the literature. Finally, the experimental instrument was translated into Korean and back translated into English to ensure its equivalence.

Selection of Products

The two product categories were chosen based on pre-tests. Previous studies had found that consumer goods are more likely to be adapted to local cultures than industrial goods (Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Hill and Still 1984; Nelson 1994). The pretesting served to select product categories based on several criteria: 1) cultural sensitivity, 2) rate of technological change and competition, 3) plausibility of Korean global manufacturing of the product, and 4) possibility of negative social consequences of the product.

The first criterion was cultural sensitivity of the product. A culturally sensitive product refers to a product in which the product characteristics (either tangible or intangible) touch upon custom, tradition, and/or social norms in that society. Marketing managers are more likely to adapt culturally sensitive products (cf. Cavusgil and Zou 1994) than non-sensitive products, which tend to be standardized (Nelson 1994). The main purpose of the pretest was to select products which were not too culturally sensitive or too insensitive.

To assess the cultural sensitivity of 33 products, pretests were done using both American and Korean graduate students. Questionnaires were distributed to 50 graduate students at Virginia Tech (25 American, 25 Korean). Thirty-four people provided usable data (17 Americans and 17 Koreans), with a response rate of 68 percent.

T-tests were conducted to see if there would be significant differences between the responses of American and Korean subjects (see Table 8). Out of the 33 products, only 5 products yielded significant group differences in cultural sensitivity scores at the .10 level. They were sweaters, electric razors, vacuum cleaners, kitchen knives, and refrigerators. Those products were eliminated from further consideration.

Product competition and rate of technological change were other considerations since rapid global competition and rapid technological change are likely to lead to standardization (Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Quelch and Hoff 1986; Samiee and Roth 1992). The degree of world

competition and technological change were held constant at a moderate level across scenarios. The plausibility of Korean manufacture was another consideration in enhancing the realism of the experimental manipulation.

The plausibility of negative social consequences was another consideration for product selection. QOL orientation deals with the enhancement of consumers' well-being and preservation of other stakeholders' well-being. QOL orientation thus differentiates immediate gratification and long-term customer satisfaction.

Based on those criteria, two product categories were chosen for the main test. They were: diet pills and infant formula.

Table 8: Pretest Results

Products	Overall		Group Mean		P-VALUE
	Mean	Stddv	American	Korean	
1) sweaters	3.09	1.13	2.69	3.47	.045
2) men's shirt	3.06	1.20	3.00	3.12	.781
3) dress shoes	2.68	.91	2.59	2.76	.581
4) running shoes	3.35	1.20	3.18	3.53	.401
5) after-shave lotion	2.85	1.12	2.59	3.12	.171
6) lipsticks	2.53	1.05	2.35	2.71	.335
7) perfume	2.09	.93	2.06	2.12	.858
8) electric razors	3.21	1.12	2.88	3.53	.094
9) sport watches	3.21	1.20	3.41	3.00	.326
10) baby diapers	3.24	1.07	3.06	3.41	.346
11) soup	2.15				
12) coffee	2.53	1.26	2.59	2.47	.790
13) diet pills	2.21	1.04	2.00	2.41	.254
14) cold medicine	2.85	.89	3.00	2.71	.345
15) deodorant	2.44	1.08	2.35	2.53	.641
16) calculators	3.82	1.21	4.12	3.50	.149
17) walkman cassette players	3.06	1.32	3.35	2.76	.200
18) soda	2.82	1.29	2.88	2.76	.795
19) exercise equipments	2.32	1.07	2.41	2.24	.636
20) CD players	3.38	1.41	3.41	3.35	.906
21) sun-glasses	3.03	1.22	3.29	2.76	.210
22) fishing rod	3.26	1.08	3.24	3.29	.877
23) golf club	3.03	1.42	3.24	2.82	.408
24) men's suit	2.32	1.12	2.29	2.35	.881
25) neck ties	2.47	.99	2.41	2.53	.736
26) socks	3.59	.99	3.47	3.71	.496
27) fountain-pen	3.56	.93	3.65	3.47	.587
28) computer software	2.59	1.35	2.71	2.47	.619
29) computer	3.15	1.26	3.06	3.24	.689
30) vacuum cleaner	3.00	1.28	3.41	2.59	.060
31) kitchen knife	3.44	1.40	4.12	2.76	.004
32) humidifier	3.18	1.17	3.47	2.88	.145
33) refrigerator	3.38	1.13	3.71	3.06	.095

(1 = highly culturally sensitive: 5 = highly culturally insensitive)

Manipulation of the Cultural Distance Treatment

This study used scenarios that included a description of a hypothetical target country and a manipulation of the managers' perceived cultural distance, a manipulation achieved by varying the descriptions of the country.

Cultural distance was manipulated using Johanson and Vahlne's (1977) cultural distance dimensions: language, business practice, legal and political system, and marketing infrastructure. In the high cultural distance condition, the hypothetical target country was described as having a different language, dissimilar business practices, a different legal and political system, and a different marketing infrastructure from the home country. In the low cultural distance condition, the hypothetical target country was described as having a language, business practices, a legal and political system, and marketing infrastructure that was similar to those in the home country (see Appendix C for questionnaires).

Specifically, the high cultural distance country to American managers was described as having a different language (e.g., as using a different alphabet and belonging to a different language family) (Terpstra 1978), different business practices (e.g., business relationships based on personal as well as business considerations, business people who emphasize verbal and informal communication as opposed to written communications (Hall 1977), a different legal and political system (e.g, a government that plays an important role in private business in terms of licenses, control, supervision, and incentives), and different marketing infrastructure (e.g., distribution through long and complex channels, wholesalers who provide general as opposed to specialized functions) (Toyne and Walters 1989).

On the other hand, for the American managers, the low cultural distance country was described as having a similar language (in terms of alphabet and language family) (Terpstra 1978), similar business practices (e.g., business relationships strictly based on business concerns with business people emphasizing written as opposed to informal oral

communications) (Hall 1977), a similar legal and political system (e.g, a limited government role in private business), and similar marketing infrastructure (e.g., short distribution channels with specialized wholesalers) (Toyne and Walters 1989).

Low Cultural Distance: The manipulation of the low cultural distance country (country A) for American managers is as follows:

Assume you are working for a large U.S. company with subsidiaries worldwide, which has considerable international business experience. Its major product is (product). In the world market for (product), competition is moderate and technological change seems to be moderately stable. Your company is now focusing on marketing (product) in Country A. What is Country A? Country A can be described as follows: It has a language that shares many parts of your language and belongs to the same language family. In other words, the language is not too foreign. Business people in Country A emphasize written contracts and communications as opposed to informal contracts and communications. Generally, interactions between business partners are strictly confined to business matters as opposed to both business and personal matters. The country's government plays a limited role in business, so private business is relatively unregulated. The channels of distribution are usually short and wholesalers are usually specialized. As with other business relationships, relationships between channel members are strictly business relationships, not personal ones. Market research shows your decision to standardize or adapt (product) and its promotion in Country A will have little impact on consumers' short-term demand for (product) in Country A.

The manipulation of low cultural distance country (country B) for Korean managers is as follows:

Assume you are working for a large Korean company, with subsidiaries worldwide, which has a considerable amount of international business experience. Its major product is (product). In the world market for (product), competition is moderate and technological change seems to moderately stable. Your company is now focusing on marketing (product) in Country B. What is Country B? Country B can be described as follows: It has a language that shares many parts of your language and belongs to the same language family. In other words, the language is not too foreign. Business people in Country B emphasize informal contracts and communications as opposed to written contracts and communications. Generally, interactions between business partners are not confined to business matters, they involve personal matters too. This country's government plays an important role in private business in terms of license, control, supervision, and incentives. The distribution network is long and complex, wholesalers provide various functions, and relationships between channel members are based on personal relationships as well as business relationships. Market research shows your decision to standardize or adapt (product) and its promotion in Country B will have little impact on consumers' short-term demand for (product) in Country B.

High Cultural Distance: The manipulation of the high cultural distance country for American managers (country B) was as follows:

Assume you are working for a large U.S. company, with subsidiaries worldwide, which has a considerable amount of international business experience. Its major product is (product). In the world market for (product), competition is moderate and technological change seems to moderately stable. Your company is now focusing on marketing (product) in Country B. What is Country B? Country B can be described as follows: It

has a language that shares few parts of your language and belongs to a different language family. In other words, the language is foreign. Business people in Country B emphasize informal contracts and communications as opposed to written contracts and communications. Generally, interactions between business partners are not confined to business matters, they involve personal matters too. This country's government plays an important role in private business in terms of license, control, supervision, and incentives. The distribution network is long and complex, wholesalers provide various functions, and relationships between channel members are based on personal relationships as well as business relationships. Market research shows your decision to standardize or adapt (product) and its promotion in Country B will have little impact on consumers' short-term demand for (product) in Country B.

The manipulation of high cultural distance country (country A) for Korean managers ran as follows:

Assume you are working for a large Korean company with subsidiaries worldwide, which has considerable international business experience. Its major product is (product). In the world market for (product), competition is moderate and technological change seems to be moderately stable. Your company is now focusing on marketing (product) in Country A. What is Country A? Country A can be described as follows: It has a language that shares few parts of your language and belongs to a different language family. In other words, the language is foreign. Business people in Country A emphasize written contracts and communications as opposed to informal contracts and communications. Generally, interactions between business partners are strictly confined to business matters as opposed to both business and personal matters. The

country's government plays a limited role in business, so private business is relatively unregulated. The channels of distribution are usually short and wholesalers are usually specialized. As with other business relationships, relationships between channel members are strictly business relationships, not personal ones. Market research shows your decision to standardize or adapt (product) and its promotion in Country A will have little impact on consumers' short-term demand for (product) in Country A.

Manipulation Check For Cultural Distance

After subjects made their standardization vs. adaptation decisions based on the scenarios, the manipulation check for cultural distance followed.

Cultural distance refers to perceived socio-cultural difference between countries. The boundaries and classifications of culture differ depending on the studies (Hall 1960, 1969, 1976; Hofstede 1976, 1980; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck 1961). Respondents evaluated the difference between their own country and the hypothetical country given in the scenarios in terms of language, business practices, legal/political system, and marketing infrastructure (Holzmüller and Kasper 1990; Johanson, Sanden, and Vahlne 1977; Klein and Roth 1990; Vahlne and Wiedersheim-Paul 1973). This manipulation check employed a seven-point Likert scale ranging from extremely similar to extremely dissimilar. The composite score across four dimensions was used to indicate the perceived cultural distance. Subjects were asked to answer the manipulation check question without looking over the scenario again.

Another concern regarding the manipulation of cultural distance was that respondents might have different references while reading the same scenarios (e.g., have different countries in mind while responding to the questions). Thus, another question was included to see if subjects responded with a specific country in mind. This manipulation check read as follows:

The following are questions about your perceptions of your country (U.S.A.) versus Country B. Please don't turn back the page to look over the scenario again. We'd like you to answer these questions from memory. Please respond the following questions by circling the appropriate number.

1. How similar or dissimilar do you think Country B is to the U.S.A. ?

1) language 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2) business practice 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3) political/legal system 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4) marketing infrastructure 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(1 = extremely similar; 7 = extremely dissimilar)

2. While your were reading the description of Country B, did you respond to the questions with a specific country in mind?

1. No 2. Yes (please specify) _____

The Quality-of-Life (QOL) Orientation Measure

QOL orientation refers to the degree to which marketers believe that their organization's task is to enhance the well-being of certain consumers and to preserve the well-being of other stakeholders based on moral relativism (Sirgy and Lee in press; Tretise et al 1994). Moral relativism refers to an ethical position holding that moral rules cannot be derived from universal principles, but are a function of time, place, and culture (Schlenker and Forsyth 1977). Thus, a QOL orientation involves three dimensions: enhancement of consumer well-being, preservation of other stakeholder's well-being, and moral relativism. A multiple choice measure was developed for the first two dimension to reduce social desirability bias (see Table

9). This multiple choice form was also more realistic in that QOL orientation, in many cases, involves trade-offs with short-term profit orientation. A seven-point Likert scale was used for the third dimension: moral relativism.

Items indicating a high QOL orientation in managers of a multinational corporation would include: 1) I believe the primary mission of the multinational corporation operating in a foreign country is to enhance the well-being of target consumers of that country, 2) Regarding organizational stakeholders of the multinational corporation operating in a foreign countries (e.g., local government, local community, local environment), I believe reducing potential negative side-effects to the local community and environment is major responsibility of the multinational corporation, 3) Regarding market selection of a product in a foreign country, I believe the multinational corporation should target market segments which have greatest potential to enhance the well-being of target consumers in that country, 4) Regarding any negative social impact of a product in a foreign country, I believe the multinational corporation should avoid market segments of a foreign country which are likely to be negatively affected by product exposure and/or use even if these markets are profitable, 5) I believe that the multinational corporation in a foreign country should develop products to enhance the well-being of consumers in that country, 6) In developing a new product, the multinational corporation should design a product to maximize safety to the local environment, 7) I believe the pricing policy of the multinational corporation in a foreign country should be based on price affordability of customers in that country, 8) Regarding competition, the multinational corporation should try to cooperate with local competitors to better serve the local consumers, 9) With respect to distribution in a foreign country, I believe the multinational corporation should use channels to maximize product accessibility to local consumers, 10) Regarding channel members within a foreign country, I believe the multinational corporation should treat channel members in a foreign country as vital stakeholders of the firm, 11) Regarding media

selection for the promotion of a product in a foreign country, I believe the multinational corporation should select media based on the social value of its programming content, and 12) Regarding message decisions in promotion of a multinational firm operating in a foreign country, I believe the multinational should inform target consumers about both positive and negative aspects of its product.

Items indicating a low QOL orientation of a multinational corporation's manager include:

1) I believe the primary mission of the multinational corporation operating in a foreign country is to maximize short-term profits from that country, 2) Regarding organizational stakeholders of the multinational corporation operating in foreign countries (e.g., local government, local community, local environment), I believe the impact of a product on the local community and environment is of secondary importance compared to short-term profitability of the product, 3) Regarding market selection of a product in a foreign country, I believe the multinational corporation should target the most profitable market segment in that country, 4) Regarding any negative social impact of a product in a foreign country, I believe any negative social impact resulting from use of the product is mainly responsibility of the product users in that country. The multinational corporation should simply abide by the government regulations of that country, 5) I believe that the multinational corporation in a foreign country should develop new products to maximize short-term profit from that country, 6) In developing a new product, the multinational corporation should design a product to minimize manufacturing cost in the local country, 7) I believe the pricing policy of the multinational corporation in a foreign country should be based on production cost, 8) Regarding competition, I believe sometimes, it is necessary for the multinational corporation to set a low price to drive local competition out of business, 9) With respect to distribution in a foreign country, I believe it is acceptable for the multinational corporation to distribute excess inventory through unauthorized dealers in that foreign country, 10) Regarding channel members within a foreign country, I believe the

multinational corporation operating in a foreign country should strive to gain power over channel members in that foreign country, 11) Regarding media selection for the promotion of a product in a foreign country, I believe the multinational corporation should focus on selecting the most cost efficient media vehicles, 12) Regarding message decisions in promotion of a firm operating in a foreign country, I believe the multinational corporation should emphasize only the positive aspects of its product.

Items 1), 3), 5), 7), 9), 11) and 12) deal with the first dimension of QOL orientation (enhancement of consumer well-being), while items 2), 4), 6), 8), 10) deal with the second dimension (the preservation of other stakeholder's well-being).

The third dimension, moral relativism, was measured using Forsyth's (1980) EPO (Ethical Position Questionnaire) measure. Moral relativism refers to the degree to which individuals believe that moral rules are not derived from universal principles but exist as a function of time, culture, and place (Forsyth 1980). The items of this measure include the following: 11) There are no ethical principles that are so important that they should be a part of any code of ethics, 12) 'What is ethical' varies from one situation and society to another, 13) Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic; what one person considers to be moral may be judged to be immoral by another person, 14) Different types of moralities cannot be compared as to "rightness", 15) Questions of what is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual, 16) Moral standards are simply personal rules which indicate how a person should behave, and are not to be applied in making judgements of others, 17) Ethical considerations in interpersonal relations are so complex that individuals should be allowed to formulate their individual, 18) Rigidly codifying an ethical position that prevents certain types of actions could stand in the way of better human relations and adjustment, 19) No rule concerning lying can be formulated; whether a lie is permissible or not permissible totally depends upon the situation, 20) Whether a lie is judged to be moral

or immoral depends upon the circumstances surrounding the action.

EPO measures for idealism were also included to assess the construct validity of QOL orientation. Moral idealism refers the degree to which a person focuses on the inherent rightness or wrongness of an action regardless of the consequences. Idealism is not directly related to QOL orientation, but was appropriate for assessing construct validity. The items assessing moral idealism included the following: 1) A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm another even to a small degree, 2) Risks to another should never be tolerated, irrespective of how small the risk might be, 3) The existence of potential harm to others is always wrong, irrespective of the benefits to be gained, 4) One should never psychologically or physically harm another person, 5) One should not perform an action which might threaten in any way the dignity and welfare of another individual, 6) If an action could harm an innocent other, then it should not be done, 7) Deciding whether or not to perform an act by balancing the positive consequences of the act against the negative consequences of the act is immoral, 8) The dignity and welfare of people should be the most important concern in any society, 9) It is never necessary to sacrifice the welfare of others, 10) Moral actions are those which closely match ideals of the most "perfect" action.

The Ethnocentrism Measure

Ethnocentrism refers to the view that one's own group is the center of everything, and all others must be measured with reference to it (Sumner 1906). This measure was adapted from the E-Scale of Adorno et al. (1950) and from Chang and Ritters (1976) ethnocentrism measure. A seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree was used. Items measuring managers' ethnocentrism include: 1) Patriotism and loyalty are the first and most important requirement of a good citizen, 2) Minor forms of military training, obedience, and discipline, such as drill, marching, and simple commands, should be made a part of the

elementary school educational program, 3) The main threat to basic American institutions during this century has come from the infiltration of foreign ideas, doctrines, and agitators, 4) If a person won't fight for his country, he deserves a severe punishment, 5) The only guarantee of future peace is to wipe out war-minded countries and to keep the rest under careful control, 6) There always be wars, because, for one thing, there always be races who ruthlessly try to grab more than their share, 7) If our people and foreigners are selling the same thing, I would go out of the way and buy it from our people, 8) The highest duty of a man is to fight for the glory and power of one's own country, 9) I am for my country, right or wrong, 10) It is shame for our citizen to marry foreigners, and 11) In general, our people are more creative than others.

Items 1), 2), 4), 7) , 8), 9), and 11) deal with the first dimension of ethnocentrism (a positive attitude toward their own group), while items 3), 5), 6), and 10) deal with the second dimension(a negative attitude toward others) (see Table 10).

Table 9: The QOL Oreintation Measure

Dimension	Items
Enhancement of Consumer Well-being	1, 3 5, 7, 9, 11, 12
Preservation of Other stakeholder's Well-being	2, 4, 6, 8, 10
Moral Relativism	11) - 20) of the EPQ measure

Table 10: The Management Ethnocentrism Measure

Dimension	Items
Positive Attitude on Thier own group	1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 9, 11
Negative Attitude on Other Group	3, 5, 6, 10

The Dependent Variable Measure

The dependent variable for this dissertation is managers' intention to standardize their programs. Program standardization refers to the use of a common marketing mix scheme worldwide (Jain 1989). Among marketing mix variables, this study focused on product and promotional standardization. Previous studies showed that product standardization and promotional standardization can be viewed as two distinct constructs since the standardization of product and promotion do not necessarily move together (Boddewyn et al. 1986; Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Onkvisit and Shaw 1994).

A three-item semantic differential type seven-point Likert scale was used since the standardization decision is not dichotomous but rather a matter of degree (Quelch and Hoff 1986; Jain 1989). The item included: 1) strongly inclined to adapt/strongly inclined to standardize, 2) most likely to adapt/ most likely to standardize, 3) somewhat motivated to adapt/strongly motivated to standardize.

Translation of Experimental Instrument

The experimental questionnaire was written first in English then translated into Korean. Two Korean graduate students majoring in English at Virginia Tech were involved in the translation of the English version into Korean. The Korean version was then back translated into English by two other Korean graduate students majoring marketing. Finally, the two versions of the Questionnaire (English and Korean) were sent to a marketing professor at Yonsei University (Seoul, Korea). This professor and his graduate assistants assessed the translations to make sure that the two versions were equivalent.

Summary

In summary, this chapter outlines various aspects of the research design and the

method that were used to examine the relationships among cultural distance, management's ethnocentrism, QOL orientation, and degree of standardization. Based on the evaluation of advantages and disadvantages of various possible methods and samples, an experimental method and MBA sample were chosen. An experiment methods using MBA students was selected because it provides control of environmental variables and, thereby, permits a focus on managerial attitudes. This method and sample allayed certain practical concerns (response rate, time, and cost). However, it involved a convenience sample and lack representativeness compared to a survey. Data were collected from both Americans and Koreans who were enrolled in MBA programs.

The experimental procedure ran as follows: The subjects were asked to assume the role of managers at a global company who are responsible for standardization vs. adaptation decisions. They were asked to make judgements, based on scenarios, on whether to standardize or adapt products and promotions. The scenarios include a product, a hypothetical country with cultural distance manipulated (high vs. low). The effect of this manipulation was assessed with a manipulation check. Next other attitude variables (QOL orientation and ethnocentrism), covariates (product familiarity and business experience), and demographics were measured.

The experimental instrument was developed via several steps. First, products were chosen based on a pretest (using American and Korean graduate students) and other considerations. Next, the manipulation of cultural distance was developed, followed by manipulation check measures. Third, the QOL orientation measure was developed and other measures (eg. ethnocentrism, product familiarity, intention to standardize) were found in or adapted from the literature. Finally, the experimental instrument was translated into Korean, then back translated into English to ensure equivalence.

Cultural distance was manipulated using Johanson and Vahne's (1977) cultural

distance dimensions: language, business practice, legal and political system, and marketing infrastructure. In the high cultural distance condition, the hypothetical target country was described as having a different language, dissimilar business practices, a different legal and political system, and different marketing infrastructure from the home country. In the low cultural distance condition, the hypothetical target country was described as having a language, business practices, legal and political system, and marketing infrastructure that was similar to those in the home country (see Appendix C for questionnaires).

Specifically, the high cultural distance country to American managers was described as having a different language (e.g., as having a different alphabet and belonging to a different language family) (Terpstra 1978), different business practices (e.g., business relationships based on personal matters as well as business matters, business people who emphasize verbal and informal communications as opposed to written communications) (Hall 1977), different legal and political system (e.g, a government that plays an important role in private business in terms of licenses, control, supervision, and incentives), and a different marketing infrastructure (e.g., distribution through long and complex channels, wholesalers which provide various functions as opposed to specialized functions) (Toyne and Walters 1989).

The low cultural distance country to American managers was described as having a similar language (e.g., a common alphabet, the same language family), similar business practices (e.g., business relationships are strictly based on business matters), a similar legal and political system (e.g, a government that plays a limited role in private business), and a similar marketing infrastructure (e.g., distribution through simple channels, specialized wholesalers) (Toyne and Walters 1989).

The manipulation check was a seven-point Likert scale ranging from extremely similar to extremely dissimilar. The composite score across four dimensions was used to indicate the perceived cultural distance. Subjects were asked to answer manipulation check questions

without looking over the scenario again.

QOL orientation refers to the degree to which marketers believe that their organization's task is to enhance the well-being of certain consumers and to preserve the well-being of other stakeholders based on moral relativism (Sirgy and Lee in press; Tretise et al 1994). Moral relativism refers to an ethical position that moral rules can not be derived from universal principles, but are function of time, place, and culture (Schlenker and Forsyth 1977). Thus, a QOL orientation involves three dimensions: enhancement of consumer well-being, preservation of other stakeholder's well-being, and moral relativism. A multiple choice measure was developed for first two dimensions to reduce socially desirable response bias. Also, this multiple choice form was more realistic in that QOL orientation, in many cases, involves trade-off with short-term profit orientation. A seven-point Likert scale from Forsyth (1980)--the EPQ measure--was used for the third dimension: moral relativism. Moral relativism refers to the degree to which individuals believe that moral rules are not derived from universal principles but exist as a function of time, culture, and place (Forsyth 1980).

Ethnocentrism refers to the view that one's own group is the center of everything, and all others must be measured with reference to it (Sumner 1906). This measure was adapted from the E-Scale of Adorno et al. (1950) and from Chang and Ritters (1976) ethnocentrism measure. A seven-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree is used in this measure.

The dependent variable for this dissertation is managers' intention to standardize their programs. Program standardization refers to the use of a common marketing mix scheme worldwide (Jain 1989). Among marketing mix variables, this study focused on product and promotion standardization. Previous studies show that product standardization and promotion standardization can be viewed as two distinct constructs since the standardization of product and promotion do not necessarily move together (Boddewyn et al. 1986; Cavusgil and Zou

1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Onkvisit and Shaw 1994). A three-item semantic differential like seven-point Likert scale was used since the standardization decision is not dichotomous but rather a matter of degree (Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Jain 1989; Quelch and Hoff 1986; Walters and Toyne 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992).

Subjective familiarity of the selected product (diet pills and infant formula) and familiarity to marketing practices associated with those products were measured as covariates. The items asked " Compared to the average person, how much do you think are familiar with the following products," and "Compared to the average person, how much do you think you are familiar with the marketing practices of the following products?" A seven-point Likert scale ranging from very much unfamiliar to very much familiar was used.

The demographic variables of this dissertation include age, gender, business experience, international business experience, and citizenship. Product familiarity, familiarity with marketing practices of the product, business experience and international business experience, age, and gender were used as covariates.

After selecting products through a pretest, the actual manipulation questionnaire was developed. The experimental questionnaire was written first in English then translated into Korean. Two Korean graduate students majoring English at Virginia Tech were involved in the translation of English version into the Korean Version. The Korean version was back translated into English by two Korean graduate students studying marketing. Finally, the two versions of the Questionnaire (English and Korean) were sent to a marketing professor at Yonsei University (Seoul, Korea) and the marketing professor and his graduate assistant participated in the revision to make sure that the two versions were equivalent.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

This chapter discusses the results of the main study. The characteristics of samples from both country are addressed first. Then, the results of manipulation check, reliability analysis for ethnocentrism and QOL orientation constructs, and hypothesis tests are reported.

Sample Characteristics

Four hundred and twenty-nine people who enrolled MBA programs participated in this research. Of those 429 samples, 36 cases were deleted since their nationality was neither Korea or America. Only the remaining 393 cases were considered for further analysis. The characteristics of samples are shown in Table 11.

The American Sample: 441 questionnaires were distributed to Americans who enrolled at MBA programs at Virginia Tech, University of Tennessee (Knoxville), University of South Carolina, University of Northern Illinois, Clarkson University, and University of Texas at Arlington. 217 questionnaires were returned with 184 containing usable data. The response rate was 49.2 percent.

The Korean Sample: 400 questionnaires were distributed to Koreans who enrolled at professional MBA programs at Yonsei university (Seoul, Korea). Of 400 questionnaires originally distributed, a total of 209 were returned fully completed, for an effective response rate of 52.3 percent. Table 1 shows the characteristics of samples involved in this research.

Of those 393 people who participated in this dissertation research, 184 were Americans and 209 were Koreans. For American sample, 71.2 percent of respondents (131) were male and 28.8 percent of respondents (53) were female. For Korean sample, 88.5

percent of respondents (185) was male while 11.5 percent of respondents (24) was female. The average age of respondents was 29.83: 25.81 for American respondents and 33.34 for Korean respondents. The average years of business experience was 5.49: 3.58 for Americans and 7.15 for Korean managers. The average years of international business experience was .95 : .67 for Americans and 1.20 for Koreans. The covariance analysis with gender, age, business experience showed that demographics did not affect the results found in this study (see Appendix D).

Manipulation Check

Manipulation checks were conducted for cultural distance for both American and Korean respondent groups. The results of manipulation check for cultural distance showed that the manipulations worked as intended for both groups (see Table 12).

For American respondents, Country A was presented as a low cultural distance country, whereas Country B was presented as a high cultural distance country. Results of paired t-tests showed that Americans perceived a higher cultural distance for Country B than Country A, both in case of the diet pills product ($t = 17.21$, $p = .000$) and the infant formula product ($t = 17.98$, $p = .000$).

For Koreans, Country B was presented as a low cultural distance country, whereas Country A was presented as a high cultural distance country. Results of paired t-tests showed that Koreans perceived a higher cultural distance for Country A than Country B, both in case of the diet pills product ($t = 20.23$, $p = .000$) and the infant formula product ($t = 17.81$, $p = .000$).

Table 11: Sample Characteristics

	American	Korean	Pooled
Sample size	184	209	393
Gender			
Male	131 (71.2%)	185 (88.5%)	316
Female	53 (28.8%)	24 (11.5%)	77
Age(Yr)	25.81	33.34	29.83
Business experience (Yr)	3.58	7.15	5.49
International business experience (Yr)	.67	1.20	.95

Table 12: Manipulation Check Results

Sample	Product	Variables	N	Mean	SE	T	P-value
Pooled	Diet Pills	P1C1X (similar country)	387	3.0549	.054	26.63	.000
		P1C2X (dissimilar country)	387	5.3391	.049		
			(1 = similar; 7 = dissimilar)				
	Infant Formula	P2C1X (similar country)	386	2.9488	.053	25.51	.000
P2C2X (dissimilar country)		386	5.2500	.053			
		(1 = similar; 7 = dissimilar)					
American	Diet Pills	P1C1X (similar country)	182	3.0618	.073	17.43	.000
		P1C2X (dissimilar country)	182	5.1923	.071		
			(1 = similar; 7 = dissimilar)				
	Infant Formula	P2C1X (similar country)	183	2.8484	.071	18.32	.000
P2C2X (dissimilar country)		419	5.1667	.075			
		(1 = similar; 7 = dissimilar)					
Korean	Diet Pills	P1C1X (similar country)	205	3.0488	.079	20.23	.000
		P1C2X (dissimilar country)	205	5.4695	.067		
			(1 = similar; 7 = dissimilar)				
	Infant Formula	P2C1X (similar country)	203	3.0394	.082	17.81	.000
P2C2X (dissimilar country)		203	5.3251	.076			
		(1 = similar; 7 = dissimilar)					

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 13: Manipulation Check and Covariance Analysis

Product	Cultural Distance Manipulation	Nationality	Mean	
				(1 = similar; 7 = dissimilar)
Diet Pills	Lo	American	3.602	
		Korean	3.049	
	Hi	American	5.192	
		Korean	5.470	
			Manipulation main effect	
		Nationality effect		(F = 5.23; p = .023)
		Manipulation*Nationality effect		(F = 2.87; p = .091)
Infant Formular	Lo	American	2.847	
		Korean	3.039	
	Hi	American	5.167	
		Korean	5.325	
			Manipulation main effect	
		Nationality effect		(F = 8.82; p = .003)
		Manipulation*Nationality effect		(F = .03; p = .857)

Scale Development: Factor Structure and Reliability Analysis

To purify the measures of intention to standardize, ethnocentrism and QOL orientation, factor analyses and internal consistency reliability analyses were conducted.

Intention to Standardize: The dependent variable for this dissertation is managers' intention to standardize their programs. Program standardization refers to the use of a common marketing mix scheme worldwide (Jain 1989). Among the marketing mix variables, this study focused only on product and promotional standardization. A three-item semantic differential (seven-point) scales were used for this construct.

This measure performed as anticipated. The factor analysis resulted in one factor solution with high alpha coefficients, ranging from .9418 to .9824 (see Table 13).

Management's Ethnocentrism: Management's ethnocentrism reflects managers' view of things in which their country is center of everything, and all others are judged with reference to it. That is, the management's ethnocentrism reflects both a positive attitude toward their group (e.g., country) and a negative attitude toward other groups (e.g., countries).

First, a factor analysis was performed for the ethnocentrism measures. Factor analyses with varimax rotation of ethnocentrism measures resulted in two-factor solutions for both groups (see Table 14). Items with a low loading (less than .40) and a high cross-loading were deleted from the further analysis. As a result, items of ETH3, ETH4, and ETH11 were deleted. ETH11 had a low loading and were deleted. One can argue that ETH11 is related to specific aspects of 'feeling of superiority', while the other items in the factor (ETH5, ETH9, and ETH10) tap general aspects of 'feeling of superiority'.

The first factor included items such as ETH1, ETH2, ETH6, ETH7, and ETH8. The second factor included items ETH5, ETH9, and ETH10. The two factors explained 54.3 percent of variance for the pooled sample, 52.6 percent for American sample, and 50.5 percent for Korean sample. The first factor included items that are mostly related to

"nationalism" or "patriotism", love and devotion to one's country. The second factor included items that are mainly related to "feeling of national superiority". The results of factor analysis are shown in the Table 15. Previously, ethnocentrism was conceptualized as having two dimensions: a positive attitude toward our group and a negative attitude toward others. Factor analyses resulted in two factors: nationalism and feeling of superiority. A person can be nationalistic (devote to one's own country) without having a feeling of national superiority, or vice versa. The 'patriotism' factor seems to be closely related to the "positive attitude toward their own group" in the literature, and the 'feeling of superiority factor' is a result of group comparison and seems to tap both positive attitude toward themselves and negative attitude against others.

The reliability of each factor was assessed with its Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The Alpha coefficient ranged from 0.5766 to 0.7490 (see Table 16). According to Nunnally (1967 pp. 226), even though reliability of .70 or higher are sufficient, relatively low reliability coefficients (.50 or .60) are tolerable in early stage of research. Thus, the ethnocentrism measure was judged as having acceptable internal consistency coefficients.

QOL Orientation: QOL orientation reflects the degree to which managers believe their task is to enhance consumers well-being and to preserve other stakeholder's well-being based on moral relativism. The analysis of this scale included (1) factor analysis to test the factor structure of the QOL orientation measure, and (2) reliability analysis to assess the internal consistency of the measure.

A factor analysis of the QOL orientation measure is conducted to verify the originally proposed three dimensions of this construct. Factor analyses with varimax rotation resulted in three factor solutions. These factor loadings, the eigen values, and the percentage of variance explained for each factor are reported in Table 17. Factor structures were consistent across samples.

The first factor of QOL Orientation was related to 'moral relativism', or the perception that what is good for consumers depends on their social and cultural contexts. This factor includes items of REL2, REL3, REL4, REL5, REL6, REL7, REL8. Some relativism items (REL1, REL9, REL10) did not have discriminant validity and had cross-loadings with other dimensions. These items were dropped for further analysis. The reliability coefficient for this dimension showed high internal consistency; .7885 (pooled sample), .8469 (American sample), and .7034 (Korean sample) (see Table 18).

The second factor of QOL Orientation seemed mainly related to "enhancement of consumers' well-being". Items QOL7 and QOL12 were deleted since they do not have high loadings (i.e., less than .40). Conceptually, QOL7 seemed not to contribute to the enhancement of consumer well-being, since pricing based on low production cost can also result in affordable price to consumers. Similarly, QOL12 (emphasizing positive side of the product only) also can promote the well-being of consumers. Thus, it can be said that both QOL7 and QOL12 are weak in discriminating marketers' effort to enhance the well-being of consumers. As a result, the second factor included items of QOL1, QOL3, QOL5, QOL6, and QOL11. Specifically, this factor reflects marketers' efforts to enhance the well-being of consumers in the target country. The reliability of subscales was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The alpha coefficients were .6949 (pooled sample), .6462 (American sample), and .7454 (Korean sample) (see Table 18).

The third factor of QOL Orientation was mainly related to "preservation of other stakeholders' well-being". This factor included items of QOL2, QOL4, QOL9, and QOL10. QOL8 was deleted from further analysis because it had a low loading (less than .40) and was not consistent across samples. The remaining items in this factor reflected preservation of the well-being of other stakeholders in the target country such as local community, nontargeted segments, and local channel members. The reliability of the subscales was assessed using

Cronbach's alpha. The alpha coefficients were .6054 (pooled sample), .5402 (American sample), and .6405 (Korean sample) (see Table 18).

In sum, the factor structures of the measures (Ethnocentrism, QOL orientation, and Degree of Standardization) were consistent across samples, and the subscales had acceptable internal consistency coefficients (Nunnally 1967, pp. 226). Correlational analysis among the dimensions of ethnocentrism, QOL orientation, and cultural distance are shown in Table 19.

Two factors of ethnocentrism (nationalism and feeling of national superiority) were positively correlated. Also, two QOL factors (enhancement of consumer well-being and preservation of the well-being of other stakeholders) were positively correlated. However, the moral relativism factor was not correlated significantly with the other two dimensions of QOL orientation. This implies that moral relativism can be a separate construct independent of QOL orientation. The hypothesized linkage between QOL orientation and standardization was based on the assumption that QOL marketers are likely to be morally relativistic (or more conscious about cultural and social contexts). This unexpected finding provides an important limitation of this study and will be discussed further in the discussion section. Also, both ethnocentrism factors were negatively correlated with the second (enhancement of consumer well-being), but were not significant. Ethnocentrism factors and the third QOL factor (preservation of other stakeholders in the local country) had significant and negative correlations. Overall, the results of correlation analyses showed some evidence that ethnocentrism and QOL orientation are separate constructs, but suggests that further work on the QOL orientation is needed. The next section discusses the results of hypotheses testing.

Table 14: The Dependent Variable Measures (Degree of Standardization)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Dependent Variables	Factor	Cronbach's Alpha
Pooled	Diet Pill	Low	Product standardization	1	.9562
			Promotion standardization	1	.9565
		High	Product standardization	1	.9716
			Promotion standardization	1	.9750
	Infant Formula	Low	Product standardization	1	.9677
			Promotion standardization	1	.9662
		High	Product standardization	1	.9761
			Promotion standardization	1	.9793
American	Diet Pill	Low	Product standardization	1	.9538
			Promotion standardization	1	.9714
		High	Product standardization	1	.9714
			Promotion standardization	1	.9626
	Infant Formula	Low	Product standardization	1	.9715
			Promotion standardization	1	.9745
		High	Product standardization	1	.9824
			Promotion standardization	1	.9674
Korean	Diet Pill	Low	Product standardization	1	.9419
			Promotion standardization	1	.9359
		High	Product standardization	1	.9710
			Promotion standardization	1	.9697
	Infant Formula	Low	Product standardization	1	.9541
			Promotion standardization	1	.9524
		High	Product standardization	1	.9696
			Promotion standardization	1	.9788

Table 15: Rotated Factor Matrix for Ethnocentrism

Sample	Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Communality
Pooled	ETH7	.77804	.05409	.60827
	ETH2	.69730	.21678	.53322
	ETH8	.66231	.46362	.65360
	ETH6	.65255	.08560	.43315
	ETH1	.59440	.22552	.40417
	ETH10	.13806	.76269	.60075
	ETH9	.09217	.76115	.58784
	ETH5	.28075	.66782	.52480
	Eigen Value	3.25369	1.09211	
	Pct of Var	40.7	13.7	
	Cum Pct	40.7	54.3	
American	ETH7	.73847	.03558	.54660
	ETH1	.69231	.14634	.50070
	ETH8	.67878	.42321	.63984
	ETH2	.64576	.15137	.43993
	ETH6	.53693	.14486	.30928
	ETH5	.14788	.77151	.61710
	ETH10	.05300	.76520	.58834
	ETH9	.40508	.63445	.56662
	Eigen Value	3.14335	1.06506	
	Pct of Var	39.3	13.3	
	Cum Pct	39.3	52.6	
Korean	ETH1	.73554	.24639	.60172
	ETH7	.68684	-.31463	.57075
	ETH2	.67486	.22438	.50578
	ETH8	.62986	.37015	.53374
	ETH6	.48368	-.06563	.23826
	ETH10	-.02541	.78256	.61305
	ETH9	-.00810	.72655	.52794
	ETH5	.31240	.59267	.44885
	Eigen Value	2.52918	1.51090	
	Pct of Var	31.6	18.9	
	Cum Pct	31.6	50.5	

Factor 1 (nationalism) Factor 2 (superiority)

Table 16 : Reliability Analysis for Ethnocentrism

Sample	Factor	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Pooled (N = 366)	ETHF1	1,2,6,7,8	.7490
	ETHF2	5,9,10	.6322
American (N = 175)	ETHF1	1,2,6,7,8	.7198
	ETHF2	5,9,10	.6225
Korean (N = 191)	ETHF1	1,2,6,7,8	.6392
	ETHF2	5,9,10	.5766

Factor 1 (nationalism) Factor 2 (superiority)

Table 17: Rotated Factor Matrix for QOL Orientation

Sample	Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Communality
Pooled					
	REL3	.77806	-.15307	.14423	.64962
	REL5	.74396	.03409	-.11539	.56795
	REL7	.66794	.00707	-.06317	.45019
	REL6	.65201	.21180	-.20220	.51086
	REL4	.64762	.04238	.18769	.45643
	REL2	.62240	-.19573	.15460	.44959
	REL8	.53125	-.01025	.05371	.28522
	QOL5	.02459	.78733	.10025	.63054
	QOL3	-.04494	.70296	-.08927	.50414
	QOL1	.06121	.68396	.31289	.56945
	QOL6	.02277	.56393	.20958	.36246
	QOL11	-.08281	.45075	.10896	.22190
	QOL9	-.02754	.05181	.72554	.52985
	QOL10	.09920	.15897	.64875	.45600
	QOL2	.12540	.30716	.62830	.50484
	QOL4	-.03280	.06555	.53708	.29383
	Eigen Value	3.22837	2.79420	1.42029	
	Pct of Var	20.2	17.5	8.9	
	Cum Pct	20.2	37.6	46.5	
American					
	REL3	.81047	-.10131	.06869	.67184
	REL5	.78149	.05435	.00133	.61369
	REL4	.76122	-.05522	.12779	.59883
	REL2	.71109	-.07366	.15643	.53555
	REL7	.70465	.04100	-.07451	.50376
	REL8	.64424	-.01918	.02561	.41606
	REL6	.63976	.21041	-.17126	.48290
	QOL5	.05507	.81765	-.00696	.67163
	QOL3	-.06363	.69562	-.10580	.49914
	QOL1	.08838	.66771	.34512	.57275
	QOL6	.08313	.47310	.26295	.29988
	QOL11	-.09350	.38950	.15698	.18510
	QOL9	.06369	-.02154	.69722	.49063
	QOL10	.01517	.18375	.59845	.39214
	QOL2	.06105	.29050	.59740	.44500
	QOL4	-.03798	.03101	.56756	.32453
	Eigen Value	3.76032	2.53742	1.40569	
	Pct of Var	23.5	15.9	8.8	
	Cum Pct	23.5	39.4	48.1	

Table 17: Rotated Factor Matrix for QOL Orientation (continued)

Sample	Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Communality
Korean	QOL5	.76118	-.04027	.16055	.60679
	QOL3	.72345	.01982	-.02491	.52439
	QOL1	.68899	.02233	.27605	.55140
	QOL6	.62728	-.04851	.13025	.41279
	QOL11	.50540	-.01917	.13825	.27490
	REL3	-.22655	.74129	.21665	.64778
	REL5	.01659	.70806	-.31598	.60146
	REL6	.21539	.68685	-.27900	.59599
	REL7	-.04966	.62494	-.00680	.39306
	REL4	.16190	.50216	.17137	.30775
	REL2	-.34922	.47663	.21915	.39715
	REL8	-.04925	.40397	.18938	.20148
	QOL9	.10956	-.10797	.71824	.53953
	QOL10	.17111	.18578	.62482	.45420
	QOL2	.35445	.21517	.57929	.50751
	QOL4	.10843	.00429	.57031	.33703
	Eigen Value	3.13893	2.68349	1.53081	
	Pct of Var	19.6	16.8	9.6	
	Cum Pct	19.6	36.4	46.0	

Table 18: Reliability Analysis for QOL Orientation

Sample	Factor	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Pooled	QOLF1	REL 2,3,4,5,6,7,8	.7885
	QOLF2	QOL 1,3,5,6,11	.6949
	QOLF3	QOL 2,4,9,10	.6054
American	QOLF1	REL 2,3,4,5,6,7,8	.8469
	QOLF2	QOL 1,3,5,6,11	.6462
	QOLF3	QOL 2,4,9,10	.5402
Korean	QOLF1	REL 2,3,4,5,6,7,8	.7034
	QOLF2	QOL 1,3,5,6,11	.7454
	QOLF3	QOL 2,4,9,10	.6405

QOLF1 (relativism); QOLF2 (consumer well-being); QOLF3 (other stakeholders' well-being)

Table 19: Correlations Among Measures

Sample	ETHF1	ETHF2	QOLF1	QOLF2	QOLF3	CD
Pooled						
ETHF1	1.000					
ETHF2	.4857**	1.000				
QOLF1	-.1190*	-.0210	1.000			
QOLF2	-.0137	-.0212	-.0031	1.000		
QOLF3	-.0979*	-.2432**	.0847	.3546**	1.000	
CD	.0817	.0160	-.0242	.0065	.0633	1.000
American						
ETHF1	1.000					
ETHF2	.5025**	1.000				
QOLF1	-.1293	-.1009	1.000			
QOLF2	-.0454	-.0256	.0457	1.000		
QOLF3	-.1396	-.2526**	.0625	.3127**	1.000	
CD	-.0931	.0570	.0329	.0275	.1020	1.000
Korean						
ETHF1	1.000					
ETHF2	.2682**	1.000				
QOLF1	-.0525	.0392	1.000			
QOLF2	-.0460	-.0467	-.0560	1.000		
QOLF3	-.0419	-.1898**	.0950	.3789**	1.000	
CD	.1056	.0469	-.0584	-.0275	.0681	1.000

(** P < .01; * P < .05)

Ethnocentrism: ETHF1 (nationalism) ETHF2 (superiority)

QOL Orientation:

QOLF1 (relativism) QOLF2 (consumer well-being),

QOLF3 (other stakeholders' well-being)

Cultural Distance: CD

Hypothesis Testing

The hypotheses of this dissertation were tested using MANOVA (Multivariate Analysis of Variance). The independent variables were managerial attitude variables: cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and QOL orientation. The dependent variables were degree of product standardization and promotion standardization.

The experimental design was a mixed-subjects design and thus involved both between-subjects factors and within-subjects factors as follows:

Within-Subjects Factors	Between-Subjects Factors
-----	-----
Product Type	Nationality of Managers
Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation
	Ethnocentrism

Product type (diet pills and infant formula) and cultural distance (high and low) are within-subjects factors. Nationality of subjects (American vs. South Korean), QOL orientation (high vs. low), and ethnocentrism (high vs. low) were between-subjects factors.

Cultural distance (high vs. low) was manipulated using scenarios, while QOL orientation and ethnocentrism were measured. Based on the median/tercile distribution of QOL Orientation and ethnocentrism scores, respondents are were gruoped into two (high vs. low).

Hypotheses were tested using MANOVA (Multivariate Analysis of Variance) across the three samples (pooled, American, and Korean) and products (diet pills and infant formula). As previously mentioned, ethnocentrism had two dimensions and QOL orientation had three dimensions. For each of those factors, samples were grouped based on their median or tercile split. Table 20 shows the distribution of each factors and the means of each group (high and

low).

Table 21 contains the results of MANOVA for ethnocentrism's first factor based on a median split. Table 22 contains the results of MANOVA for ethnocentrism's second factor based on a median split. Table 23 and Table 24 contains MANOVA results for ethnocentrism based on a thertile split. Same procedures were repeated for the three factors of QOL orientation (Table 25 to Table 30).

Those findings are summarized in terms of hypothesis testing from Table 31 to Table 38. The next section will discuss these results.

Table 20: The Distribution of Ethnocentrism and QOL Orientation Scales

Sample	Factors	Median	33 %	66 %	Split	N	Mean	t-value (p)						
Pooled	ETHF1	4.200	3.6	4.8	Median	Lo	202	3.2139	27.60 (.000)					
						Hi	188	5.2457						
					Tercile	Lo	112	2.6696		38.51 (.000)				
						Hi	114	5.6614						
					ETHF2	2.333	2.0	3.0		Median	Lo	170	1.4588	28.94 (.000)
											Hi	221	3.3348	
	Tercile	Lo	126	1.2698	39.25 (.000)									
		Hi	117	3.9573										
	QOLF1	4.286	4.0	4.85	Median	Lo	197	3.5011	25.20 (.000)					
						Hi	192	5.2187						
					Tercile	Lo	126	3.1474		30.97 (.000)				
						Hi	133	5.4995						
	QOLF2	3.600	3.6	4.4	Median	Lo	205	2.8429	32.49 (.000)					
						Hi	185	5.0357						
					Tercile	Lo	205	2.8429		32.11 (.000)				
						Hi	47	5.0000						
	QOLF3	6.000	5.0	6.0	Median	Lo	157	4.3758	26.77 (.000)					
						Hi	231	6.0000						
Tercile					Lo	61	3.3934	51.00 (.000)						
					Hi	231	6.0000							
American					ETHF1	3.400	3.0	4.0		Median	Lo	94	2.6106	17.50 (.000)
											Hi	88	4.5818	
	Tercile	Lo	52	2.1346					24.59 (.000)					
		Hi	54	5.0741										
	ETHF2	1.667	1.33	2.33					Median	Lo	92	1.2500	16.50 (.000)	
										Hi	90	2.9704		
Tercile					Lo	44	1.0000	20.20 (.000)						
					Hi	68	3.2843							
QOLF1	4.571	4.00	4.96	Median	Lo	90	3.4365	17.65 (.000)						
					Hi	92	5.4068							
				Tercile	Lo	54	2.9392		22.89 (.000)					
					Hi	62	5.7327							
QOLF2	3.600	3.6	4.4	Median	Lo	92	2.9478	20.19 (.000)						
					Hi	91	4.9011							
				Tercile	Lo	92	2.4565		43.68 (.000)					
					Hi	18	5.0000							
QOLF3	6.000	5.0	6.0	Median	Lo	63	4.5079	14.43 (.000)						
					Hi	118	6.0000							
				Tercile	Lo	20	3.4500		16.62 (.000)					
					Hi	118	6.0000							
				Korean	ETHF1	4.800	4.39		5.2	Median	Lo	103	3.9354	19.72 (.000)
											Hi	105	5.5200	
Tercile	Lo	68	3.6676					27.56 (.000)						
	Hi	59	5.9322											
ETHF2	3.000	2.33	3.33					Median		Lo	103	2.0032	20.25 (.000)	
										Hi	106	3.7390		
				Tercile	Lo	56	1.5893	26.34 (.000)						
					Hi	87	3.9004							
QOLF1	4.286	3.86	4.71	Median	Lo	113	3.6018	18.30 (.000)						
					Hi	94	5.0851							
				Tercile	Lo	55	3.1325		22.81 (.000)					
					Hi	71	5.2716							
QOLF2	3.600	2.8	4.4	Median	Lo	113	2.7575	26.14 (.000)						
					Hi	94	5.1660							
				Tercile	Lo	77	1.9697		79.58 (.000)					
					Hi	29	5.0000							
QOLF3	6.000	5.0	6.0	Median	Lo	94	4.2872	16.95 (.000)						
					Hi	113	6.0000							
				Tercile	Lo	41	3.3659		20.34 (.000)					
					Hi	113	6.0000							

Table 21: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Median Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	200	4.865	202	3.848
		Lo	Hi	187	4.109	187	3.553
		Hi	Lo	200	3.865	202	2.820
		Hi	Hi	187	4.298	187	3.881
					(F = 9.29; p = .002)		(F = 5.48; p = .020)
					(F = 1.38; p = .241)		(F = 9.62; p = .002)
					(F = 19.96; p = .000)		(F = 20.54; p = .000)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	202	4.845	201	4.068
		Lo	Hi	186	3.959	185	3.719
		Hi	Lo	202	3.820	201	2.884
		Hi	Hi	186	4.172	185	3.762
					(F = 10.08; p = .002)		(F = 16.79; p = .000)
					(F = 3.55; p = .060)		(F = 4.67; p = .031)
					(F = 23.47; p = .000)		(F = 19.43; p = .000)
American							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	94	5.330	94	4.408
		Lo	Hi	87	5.372	87	4.119
		Hi	Lo	94	3.738	94	2.309
		Hi	Hi	87	3.805	87	2.284
					(F = 120.23; p = .000)		(F = 147.58; p = .000)
					(F = .07; p = .796)		(F = .71; p = .401)
					(F = .01; p = .931)		(F = .66; p = .416)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	94	5.259	94	4.493
		Lo	Hi	88	5.201	87	4.421
		Hi	Lo	94	3.702	94	2.309
		Hi	Hi	88	3.633	87	2.529
					(F = 114.87; p = .000)		(F = 151.13; p = .000)
					(F = .09; p = .770)		(F = .19; p = .662)
					(F = .00; p = .969)		(F = .77; p = .380)
Korean							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	101	3.785	103	3.036
		Lo	Hi	105	3.722	105	3.394
		Hi	Lo	101	4.228	103	3.890
		Hi	Hi	105	4.451	105	4.562
					(F = 8.79; p = .003)		(F = 24.04; p = .000)
					(F = .20; p = .663)		(F = 10.49; p = .001)
					(F = .53; p = .467)		(F = .58; p = .448)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	103	3.816	103	3.246
		Lo	Hi	103	3.592	102	3.572
		Hi	Lo	103	4.058	103	3.942
		Hi	Hi	103	4.485	102	4.242
					(F = 9.45; p = .002)		(F = 13.82; p = .000)
					(F = .32; p = .575)		(F = 3.25; p = .073)
					(F = 3.10; p = .080)		(F = .00; p = .944)

(** P < .05; * P < .10) ETHF1 (nationalism)

Table 22: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Median Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	218	4.058	220	3.526
		Lo	Hi	170	5.057	170	3.918
		Hi	Lo	218	3.969	220	3.620
		Hi	Hi	170	4.202	170	2.959
			culture main effect		(F = 12.04; p = .001)		(F = 8.09; p = .005)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 20.51; p = .000)		(F = 1.14; p = .285)
			interaction effect		(F = 7.97; p = .005)		(F = 11.99; p = .001)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	220	4.082	218	3.725
		Lo	Hi	169	4.858	169	4.122
		Hi	Lo	220	4.061	218	3.653
		Hi	Hi	169	3.907	169	2.872
			culture main effect		(F = 13.95; p = .000)		(F = 22.29; p = .000)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 4.69; p = .031)		(F = 2.34; p = .127)
			interaction effect		(F = 12.76; p = .000)		(F = 17.71; p = .000)
American							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	89	5.169	89	4.011
		Lo	Hi	92	5.547	92	4.507
		Hi	Lo	89	3.569	89	2.255
		Hi	Hi	92	3.986	92	2.370
			culture main effect		(F = 120.50; p = .000)		(F = 142.68; p = .000)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 3.66; p = .057)		(F = 2.73; p = .100)
			interaction effect		(F = .02; p = .896)		(F = 1.37; p = .244)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	90	4.926	89	4.228
		Lo	Hi	92	5.562	92	4.703
		Hi	Lo	90	3.548	89	2.509
		Hi	Hi	92	3.841	92	2.377
			culture main effect		(F = 113.58; p = .000)		(F = 150.58; p = .000)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 4.59; p = .034)		(F = .97; p = .326)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.39; p = .239)		(F = 3.39; p = .067)
Korean							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	104	3.692	106	3.403
		Lo	Hi	103	3.786	103	3.003
		Hi	Lo	104	4.038	106	4.009
		Hi	Hi	103	4.615	103	4.424
			culture main effect		(F = 8.95; p = .003)		(F = 24.77; p = .000)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 3.64; p = .058)		(F = .00; p = .963)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.51; p = .221)		(F = 3.99; p = .047)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	106	3.821	106	3.497
		Lo	Hi	101	3.554	100	3.290
		Hi	Lo	106	4.025	106	3.840
		Hi	Hi	101	4.498	100	4.327
			culture main effect		(F = 9.79; p = .002)		(F = 14.47; p = .000)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .32; p = .573)		(F = .63; p = .427)
			interaction effect		(F = 4.06; p = .045)		(F = 3.66; p = .057)

(** P < .05; * P < .10) ETHF2: superiority

Table 23: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Tercile Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	112	5.048	112	4.140
		Lo	Hi	113	4.047	113	3.670
		Hi	Lo	112	3.786	112	2.545
		Hi	Hi	113	4.260	113	4.015
			culture main effect		(F = 8.51; p = .004)		(F = 10.09; p = .002)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 2.04; p = .154)		(F = 8.55; p = .004)
			interaction effect		(F = 16.78; p = .000)		(F = 24.32; p = .000)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	112	5.074	112	4.318
		Lo	Hi	112	3.973	111	3.838
		Hi	Lo	112	3.735	112	2.530
		Hi	Hi	112	4.357	111	3.814
			culture main effect		(F = 8.02; p = .005)		(F = 25.11; p = .000)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 1.57; p = .211)		(F = 5.75; p = .017)
			interaction effect		(F = 26.08; p = .000)		(F = 23.80; p = .000)
American							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	52	5.218	52	4.186
		Lo	Hi	53	5.415	53	4.138
		Hi	Lo	52	3.724	52	2.321
		Hi	Hi	53	3.962	53	2.352
			culture main effect		(F = 57.07; p = .000)		(F = 69.02; p = .000)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .59; p = .443)		(F = .00; p = .976)
			interaction effect		(F = .01; p = .917)		(F = .03; p = .857)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	52	5.032	52	3.987
		Lo	Hi	54	5.111	53	4.503
		Hi	Lo	52	3.635	52	2.269
		Hi	Hi	54	3.593	53	2.560
			culture main effect		(F = 58.25; p = .000)		(F = 71.34; p = .000)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .00; p = .951)		(F = 3.02; p = .085)
			interaction effect		(F = .10; p = .752)		(F = .27; p = .604)
Korean							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	66	3.884	68	2.917
		Lo	Hi	59	3.542	59	3.418
		Hi	Lo	66	4.202	68	3.931
		Hi	Hi	59	4.616	59	4.435
			culture main effect		(F = 7.03; p = .009)		(F = 14.31; p = .000)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .02; p = .875)		(F = 5.24; p = .024)
			interaction effect		(F = 2.07; p = .153)		(F = .00; p = .997)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	68	3.887	68	3.309
		Lo	Hi	57	3.374	56	3.470
		Hi	Lo	68	4.074	68	3.975
		Hi	Hi	57	4.661	56	4.304
			culture main effect		(F = 9.38; p = .003)		(F = 10.13; p = .002)
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .02; p = .879)		(F = 1.05; p = .307)
			interaction effect		(F = 5.23; p = .024)		(F = .13; p = .724)

(** P < .05; * P < .10) ETHF1: nationalism

Table 24: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Tercile Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	114	4.108	116	3.695
		Lo	Hi	126	5.180	126	3.966
		Hi	Lo	114	3.746	116	3.658
		Hi	Hi	126	4.090	126	2.810
						(F = 19.56; p = .000)	(F = 10.58; p = .001)
						(F = 17.86; p = .000)	(F = 3.46; p = .064)
						(F = 4.90; p = .028)	(F = 9.30; p = .003)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	117	4.140	117	3.869
		Lo	Hi	125	5.115	125	4.336
		Hi	Lo	117	3.934	117	3.547
		Hi	Hi	125	3.837	125	2.757
						(F = 22.54; p = .000)	(F = 31.02; p = .000)
					(F = 6.07; p = .014)	(F = 1.17; p = .281)	
					(F = 11.79; p = .001)	(F = 13.56; p = .000)	
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	67	5.025	67	3.935
		Lo	Hi	44	5.606	44	4.508
		Hi	Lo	67	3.378	67	2.284
		Hi	Hi	44	3.848	44	2.235
						(F = 73.46; p = .000)	(F = 81.04; p = .000)
						(F = 3.48; p = .065)	(F = 1.10; p = .296)
						(F = .08; p = .781)	(F = 2.03; p = .157)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	68	4.897	67	4.303
		Lo	Hi	44	5.606	44	4.667
		Hi	Lo	68	3.515	67	2.567
		Hi	Hi	44	3.735	44	2.197
						(F = 71.73; p = .000)	(F = 93.95; p = .000)
					(F = 2.48; p = .118)	(F = .00; p = .988)	
					(F = 1.62; p = .206)	(F = 2.86; p = .094)	
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	85	3.663	87	3.517
		Lo	Hi	56	4.036	56	2.821
		Hi	Lo	85	3.961	87	4.023
		Hi	Hi	56	4.577	56	4.238
						(F = 3.31; p = .071)	(F = 16.94; p = .000)
						(F = 5.40; p = .022)	(F = 1.37; p = .244)
						(F = .28; p = .598)	(F = 3.80; p = .053)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	87	3.870	87	3.579
		Lo	Hi	55	3.681	55	3.200
		Hi	Lo	87	4.100	87	3.831
		Hi	Hi	55	4.121	55	3.915
						(F = 2.87; p = .092)	(F = 4.92; p = .028)
					(F = .25; p = .616)	(F = .49; p = .483)	
					(F = .40; p = .529)	(F = 1.12; p = .291)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10) ETHF2: superiority

Table 25: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Median Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	196	4.466	196	3.743
		Lo	Hi	190	4.504	192	3.620
		Hi	Lo	196	4.151	196	3.413
		Hi	Hi	190	3.997	192	3.245
			culture main effect			(F = 9.50; p = .002)	(F = 5.27; p = .022)
			QOL main effect			(F = .24; p = .623)	(F = 1.37; p = .242)
			interaction effect			(F = .60; p = .438)	(F = .02; p = .883)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	197	4.328	196	4.022
		Lo	Hi	190	4.502	189	3.778
		Hi	Lo	197	4.147	196	3.391
		Hi	Hi	190	3.846	189	3.235
			culture main effect			(F = 10.24; p = .001)	(F = 16.91; p = .000)
			QOL main effect			(F = .20; p = .657)	(F = 2.59; p = .108)
			interaction effect			(F = 3.30; p = .070)	(F = .09; p = .759)
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	89	5.551	89	4.371
		Lo	Hi	92	5.152	92	4.170
		Hi	Lo	89	3.876	89	2.446
		Hi	Hi	92	3.652	92	2.181
			culture main effect			(F = 121.79; p = .008)	(F = 143.36; p = .031)
			QOL main effect			(F = 2.22; p = .138)	(F = 1.58; p = .211)
			interaction effect			(F = .37; p = .546)	(F = .04; p = .845)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	90	5.333	90	4.633
		Lo	Hi	92	5.141	91	4.341
		Hi	Lo	90	3.870	90	2.444
		Hi	Hi	92	3.525	91	2.443
			culture main effect			(F = 112.37; p = .004)	(F = 151.82; p = .000)
			QOL main effect			(F = 1.50; p = .222)	(F = .72; p = .396)
			interaction effect			(F = .28; p = .699)	(F = .77; p = .381)
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	113	3.708	113	3.354
		Lo	Hi	92	3.739	94	2.947
		Hi	Lo	113	4.375	113	4.113
		Hi	Hi	92	4.283	94	4.326
			culture main effect			(F = 9.28; p = .003)	(F = 27.70; p = .000)
			QOL main effect			(F = .03; p = .866)	(F = .42; p = .518)
			interaction effect			(F = .10; p = .757)	(F = 2.15; p = .145)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	113	3.587	112	3.595
		Lo	Hi	92	3.801	92	3.127
		Hi	Lo	113	4.404	112	4.062
		Hi	Hi	92	4.101	92	4.116
			culture main effect			(F = 9.00; p = .003)	(F = 15.74; p = .000)
			QOL main effect			(F = .06; p = .811)	(F = 1.367; p = .246)
			interaction effect			(F = 1.92; p = .167)	(F = 2.02; p = .157)

(** P < .05; * P < .10) QOLF1: relativism

Table 26: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Median Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	205	4.537	205	3.730
		Lo	Hi	182	4.474	184	3.676
		Hi	Lo	205	4.247	205	3.380
		Hi	Hi	182	3.855	184	3.270
			culture main effect		(F = 11.15; p = .001)		(F = 6.05; p = .014)
			QOL main effect		(F = 2.72; p = .100)		(F = .44; p = .509)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.47; p = .226)		(F = .03; p = .855)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	203	4.581	203	4.094
		Lo	Hi	185	4.263	183	3.689
		Hi	Lo	203	4.140	203	3.360
		Hi	Hi	185	3.798	183	3.240
			culture main effect		(F = 11.90; p = .001)		(F = 17.15; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 5.44; p = .020)		(F = 4.58; p = .033)
			interaction effect		(F = .01; p = .930)		(F = 1.00; p = .317)
American							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	92	5.525	92	4.293
		Lo	Hi	90	5.167	90	4.037
		Hi	Lo	92	4.112	92	2.257
		Hi	Hi	90	3.400	90	2.222
			culture main effect		(F = 123.99; p = .000)		(F = 150.62; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 6.78; p = .010)		(F = .02; p = .903)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.53; p = .217)		(F = .11; p = .742)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	92	5.428	92	4.743
		Lo	Hi	91	5.040	90	3.185
		Hi	Lo	92	4.018	92	2.493
		Hi	Hi	91	3.297	90	2.330
			culture main effect		(F = 118.23; p = .000)		(F = 155.06; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 6.79; p = .010)		(F = 4.67; p = .032)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.33; p = .251)		(F = 1.43; p = .233)
Korean							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	113	3.732	113	3.271
		Lo	Hi	92	3.797	94	3.113
		Hi	Lo	113	4.357	113	4.295
		Hi	Hi	92	4.301	94	4.167
			culture main effect		(F = 8.04; p = .005)		(F = 25.17; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .00; p = .979)		(F = .76; p = .384)
			interaction effect		(F = .09; p = .760)		(F = .01; p = .943)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	111	3.880	111	3.556
		Lo	Hi	94	3.511	93	3.208
		Hi	Lo	111	4.240	111	4.078
		Hi	Hi	94	4.284	93	4.122
			culture main effect		(F = 9.26; p = .003)		(F = 15.25; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .79; p = .374)		(F = .74; p = .389)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.23; p = .269)		(F = 1.13; p = .289)

(** P < .05; * P < .10) QOLF2: consumer well-being

Table 27: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Median Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 157	4.212	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 157	3.527
		Lo	Hi	228	4.705	230	3.843
		Hi	Lo	157	4.096	157	3.467
		Hi	Hi	228	4.050	230	3.238
			culture main effect		(F = 7.71; p = .006)		(F = 4.52; p = .034)
			QOL main effect		(F = 2.54; p = .112)		(F = .12; p = .730)
			interaction effect		(F = 3.75; p = .053)		(F = 3.05; p = .081)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	156	4.156	155	3.819
		Lo	Hi	230	4.609	229	3.977
		Hi	Lo	156	3.872	155	3.252
		Hi	Hi	230	4.072	229	3.341
			culture main effect		(F = 9.25; p = .003)		(F = 16.93; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 5.14; p = .024)		(F = .96; p = .327)
			interaction effect		(F = .89; p = .345)		(F = .05; p = .815)
American							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 63	5.175	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 63	3.862
		Lo	Hi	117	5.462	117	4.550
		Hi	Lo	63	3.984	63	2.349
		Hi	Hi	117	3.632	117	2.268
			culture main effect		(F = 102.30; p = .000)		(F = 129.04; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .02; p = .883)		(F = 2.44; p = .120)
			interaction effect		(F = 4.58; p = .034)		(F = 5.30; p = .023)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	63	4.968	63	4.090
		Lo	Hi	118	5.390	117	4.704
		Hi	Lo	63	3.836	63	2.397
		Hi	Hi	118	3.585	117	2.422
			culture main effect		(F = 94.06; p = .000)		(F = 131.52; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .14; p = .711)		(F = 3.28; p = .072)
			interaction effect		(F = 4.93; p = .028)		(F = 2.89; p = .091)
Korean							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 94	3.567	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 94	3.301
		Lo	Hi	111	3.907	113	3.112
		Hi	Lo	94	4.170	94	4.216
		Hi	Hi	111	4.489	113	4.242
			culture main effect		(F = 8.82; p = .003)		(F = 24.30; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 3.52; p = .062)		(F = .25; p = .617)
			interaction effect		(F = .00; p = .960)		(F = .27; p = .605)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	93	3.602	92	3.634
		Lo	Hi	112	3.786	112	3.217
		Hi	Lo	93	3.896	92	3.837
		Hi	Hi	112	4.586	112	4.301
			culture main effect		(F = 8.57; p = .004)		(F = 12.37; p = .001)
			QOL main effect		(F = 5.84; p = .017)		(F = .02; p = .895)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.84; p = .177)		(F = 5.79; p = .017)

(** P < .05; * P < .10) QOLF3: other stakeholder's well-being

Table 28: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Tercile Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	126	4.415	126	3.714
		Lo	Hi	132	4.657	133	3.692
		Hi	Lo	126	4.222	126	3.368
		Hi	Hi	132	3.795	133	3.038
			culture main effect		(F = 10.09; p = .002)		(F = 7.49; p = .007)
			QOL main effect		(F = .27; p = .605)		(F = 1.21; p = .273)
			interaction effect		(F = 4.05; p = .045)		(F = .71; p = .401)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	126	4.365	126	4.019
		Lo	Hi	132	4.720	131	3.908
		Hi	Lo	126	4.235	126	3.423
		Hi	Hi	132	3.730	131	3.048
			culture main effect		(F = 12.66; p = .000)		(F = 18.10; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .16; p = .685)		(F = 2.17; p = .142)
			interaction effect		(F = 7.47; p = .007)		(F = .60; p = .440)
American							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	54	5.685	54	4.247
		Lo	Hi	62	5.204	62	4.043
		Hi	Lo	54	4.062	54	2.481
		Hi	Hi	62	3.511	62	2.097
			culture main effect		(F = 79.76; p = .000)		(F = 91.11; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 3.70; p = .057)		(F = 1.34; p = .249)
			interaction effect		(F = .04; p = .851)		(F = .22; p = .643)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	54	5.494	54	4.778
		Lo	Hi	62	5.306	61	4.180
		Hi	Lo	54	3.889	54	2.525
		Hi	Hi	62	3.570	61	2.470
			culture main effect		(F = 87.28; p = .000)		(F = 91.47; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .77; p = .383)		(F = 1.84; p = .177)
			interaction effect		(F = .14; p = .714)		(F = 1.71; p = .193)
Korean							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	55	3.533	55	3.467
		Lo	Hi	69	3.763	71	3.089
		Hi	Lo	55	4.188	55	3.885
		Hi	Hi	69	4.203	71	4.282
			culture main effect		(F = 4.06; p = .046)		(F = 8.91; p = .003)
			QOL main effect		(F = .27; p = .605)		(F = .00; p = .965)
			interaction effect		(F = .16; p = .693)		(F = 2.06; p = .154)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	55	3.721	55	3.782
		Lo	Hi	70	3.881	70	3.348
		Hi	Lo	55	4.315	55	3.952
		Hi	Hi	70	4.071	70	4.019
			culture main effect		(F = 2.46; p = .119)		(F = 2.94; p = .089)
			QOL main effect		(F = .03; p = .866)		(F = .57; p = .461)
			interaction effect		(F = .65; p = .421)		(F = 1.05; p = .308)

(** P < .05; * P < .10) QOLF1: relativism

Table 29: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Tercile Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	205	4.537	205	3.730
		Lo	Hi	46	4.101	47	3.270
		Hi	Lo	205	4.247	205	3.380
		Hi	Hi	46	3.913	47	3.021
			culture main effect		(F = 1.15; p = .285)		(F = 1.46; p = .228)
			QOL main effect		(F = 3.00; p = .085)		(F = 4.21; p = .041)
			interaction effect		(F = .05; p = .821)		(F = .04; p = .838)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	203	4.581	203	4.094
		Lo	Hi	47	3.887	47	3.284
		Hi	Lo	203	4.140	203	3.360
		Hi	Hi	47	3.922	47	3.106
			culture main effect		(F = .93; p = .335)		(F = 4.14; p = .043)
			QOL main effect		(F = 4.29; p = .039)		(F = 7.65; p = .006)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.29; p = .258)		(F = 1.54; p = .215)
American							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	92	5.525	92	4.293
		Lo	Hi	18	4.981	18	4.037
		Hi	Lo	92	4.112	92	2.257
		Hi	Hi	18	3.648	18	2.222
			culture main effect		(F = 30.38; p = .000)		(F = 54.26; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 1.78; p = .186)		(F = .18; p = .675)
			interaction effect		(F = .03; p = .873)		(F = .18; p = .673)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	92	5.428	92	4.743
		Lo	Hi	18	4.778	18	3.796
		Hi	Lo	92	4.018	92	2.493
		Hi	Hi	18	3.259	18	1.926
			culture main effect		(F = 36.08; p = .000)		(F = 65.01; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 3.42; p = .067)		(F = 6.29; p = .014)
			interaction effect		(F = .05; p = .823)		(F = .55; p = .459)
Korean							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	77	3.645	77	3.069
		Lo	Hi	28	3.536	29	2.793
		Hi	Lo	77	4.333	77	4.242
		Hi	Hi	28	4.083	29	3.517
			culture main effect		(F = 3.44; p = .067)		(F = 7.70; p = .007)
			QOL main effect		(F = .50; p = .483)		(F = 4.67; p = .033)
			interaction effect		(F = .04; p = .833)		(F = .43; p = .513)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	75	3.756	75	3.533
		Lo	Hi	29	3.333	29	2.966
		Hi	Lo	75	4.124	75	4.027
		Hi	Hi	29	4.333	29	3.839
			culture main effect		(F = 4.81; p = .031)		(F = 4.91; p = .029)
			QOL main effect		(F = .19; p = .666)		(F = 2.42; p = .123)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.02; p = .314)		(F = .38; p = .539)

(** P < .05; * P < .10) QOLF2: consumer well-being

Table 30: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Tercile Split)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	61	3.667	61	3.486
		Lo	Hi	228	4.705	230	3.843
		Hi	Lo	61	3.885	61	3.754
		Hi	Hi	228	4.050	230	3.238
			culture main effect		(F = 1.24; p = .266)		(F = .58; p = .447)
			QOL main effect		(F = 10.24; p = .002)		(F = .21; p = .648)
			interaction effect		(F = 4.97; p = .027)		(F = 3.88; p = .050)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	60	3.667	60	3.700
		Lo	Hi	230	4.609	229	3.977
		Hi	Lo	60	3.767	60	3.594
		Hi	Hi	230	4.072	229	3.341
			culture main effect		(F = 3.17; p = .076)		(F = 3.17; p = .063)
			QOL main effect		(F = 11.07; p = .001)		(F = .00; p = .948)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.62; p = .204)		(F = .16; p = .686)
American							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	20	4.700	20	3.583
		Lo	Hi	117	5.462	117	4.550
		Hi	Lo	20	3.700	20	2.300
		Hi	Hi	117	3.632	117	2.268
			culture main effect		(F = 38.62; p = .000)		(F = 48.87; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 1.08; p = .301)		(F = 2.37; p = .126)
			interaction effect		(F = 3.32; p = .071)		(F = 3.83; p = .052)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	20	4.617	20	3.917
		Lo	Hi	118	5.390	117	4.704
		Hi	Lo	20	3.533	20	2.833
		Hi	Hi	118	3.585	117	2.422
			culture main effect		(F = 33.62; p = .000)		(F = 37.15; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 1.53; p = .218)		(F = .47; p = .495)
			interaction effect		(F = 2.10; p = .150)		(F = 4.71; p = .032)
Korean							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	41	3.163	41	3.439
		Lo	Hi	111	3.907	113	3.112
		Hi	Lo	41	3.976	41	4.463
		Hi	Hi	111	4.489	113	4.242
			culture main effect		(F = 6.91; p = .009)		(F = 15.15; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 8.17; p = .005)		(F = 1.79; p = .183)
			interaction effect		(F = .19; p = .665)		(F = .17; p = .849)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	40	3.192	40	3.592
		Lo	Hi	112	3.786	112	3.217
		Hi	Lo	40	3.883	40	3.975
		Hi	Hi	112	4.586	112	4.301
			culture main effect		(F = 8.66; p = .004)		(F = 9.60; p = .002)
			QOL main effect		(F = 8.68; p = .004)		(F = .01; p = .916)
			interaction effect		(F = .05; p = .830)		(F = 2.19; p = .141)

(** P < .05; * P < .10) QOLF3: other stakeholder's well-being

The Cultural-Distance-Main Effect (H1): H1 posits that the higher cultural distance should lead to lower degree of standardization of marketing programs (product and promotion). Table 31 shows the results of H1.

For the pooled sample (both American and Korean), high cultural distance produced lower product standardization ($t = 3.21, p < .01$ for diet pills; $t = 3.35, p < .01$; for infant formula) and lower degree of promotion standardization ($t = 2.48, p < .05$ for diet pills; $t = 4.25, p < .01$ for infant formula), supporting H1.

For the American sample, high cultural distance produced lower product standardization ($t = 11.18, p < .01$ for diet pills; $t = 10.84, p < .01$ for infant formula) and lower promotion standardization ($t = 12.13, p < .01$ for diet pills; $t = 12.41, p < .01$ for infant formula), supporting H1.

For the Korean sample, the results were rather odd. Higher cultural distance was found to produce higher product standardization scores ($t = 2.98, p < .01$ for diet pills; $t = 3.06, p < .01$ for infant formula) and higher promotion standardization ($t = 3.06, p < .01$ for diet pills; $t = 3.73, p < .01$ for infant formula).

This counter-intuitive finding implies that there maybe an interaction effect between cultural distance and product type (especially the products' country of origin). Many of Korean firms manufacture their products under the license from firms in developed countries (Kuznet 1994). That is, much of technology obtained from Korean firms are foreign and many Korean firms are subcontractors to firms in developed countries (Business Week 1995). This seems to be more common modern industries than traditional industries. The infant formula and diet pill products are not an exception. That is, the origin of those products are Western firms. Korean companies who largely rely on the imported technology and OEM exports might feel that they don't have to adapt the product since it is originated from those Western countries; even if they perceive high cultural distance. On the other hand, they may be motivated to

adapt for other Eastern Asian countries just like American firms, since they may perceive the products as "Western" products (even though they are manufactured in Korea). Thus, they may feel motivated to adapt the product to other Eastern countries; even though they recognize cultural similarity.

The Ethnocentrism-Main Effect (H2): H2 posits that higher ethnocentrism should lead to higher degrees of standardization of marketing programs. Table 32 and Table 33 show the results of H2.

For the pooled sample, the first ethnocentrism factor (ETHF1: nationalism) did not lead to higher degree of product standardization ($p > .05$), but did lead to higher degree of promotion standardization. On the other hand, the second ethnocentrism factor (ETHF2: feeling of superiority) produced significantly higher product standardization, but did not produce significantly higher degree of promotion standardization. This pattern held across products and methods of split (Table 31 and Table 32). This may be due to the possibility that product standardization involves more costs than promotion standardization. That is, promotion standardization/adaptation decision is easier and less costly to change than product standardization/adaptation decision. Thus it can be said, the nationalism aspect of ethnocentrism works better for relatively less-costly and easier to change standardization while the feeling-of-superiority aspect of ethnocentrism may be needed to make a product standardization decision.

For the American sample, the ethnocentrism first factor (nationalism: ETHF1) was not significant in relation to product standardization and promotion standardization ($p > .05$). These held for both product categories. The second ethnocentrism factor (feeling of superiority) was significant only in relation to product standardization. The nonsignificant main effect for American sample may be due to the fact that Americans showed a lower degree of ethnocentrism.

For the Korean sample, the ethnocentrism first factor (nationalism: ETHF1) was significant only for promotion standardization, but was not significant in relation to product standardization ($p > .05$). These results can be interpreted as follows: Nationalism may play less of a role in product standardization than promotion standardization. This may be due to the possibility that product standardization involves greater cost compared to promotion standardization. In sum, the results showed that the nationalism factor is significantly related to promotion standardization while the feeling of superiority is positively related to promotion standardization.

The QOL-Orientation-Main Effect (H3): H3 posits that high QOL orientation of marketers should lead to lower degrees of standardization of marketing programs.

The results of the QOL main effect were not significant for pooled, American, and Korean samples. Table 34 and Table 35 show summaries of the QOL main effects.

The all three QOL factors have been found not to play a significant role on either product or promotion standardization. As has been mentioned in the correlation studies, the linkage between QOL orientation and standardization is conceptualized based on moral relativism. This is based on the assumption that QOL marketers are more likely to think that optimal ways of enhancing consumers' well-being while preserving other stakeholders' well-being is to take consumers' cultural contexts into consideration. However, data showed that moral relativism is not related to the other dimensions of QOL orientation. This can partially explain why QOL orientation and standardization is not related. Thus, hypothesis three is rejected.

The Cultural-Distance-and-Management's-Ethnocentrism-Interaction Effect (H4): H4 posits that ethnocentrism moderates the relationship between cultural distance and program standardization. That is, low ethnocentric marketers are likely to adapt their programs as cultural distance increases more so than high ethnocentric marketers. Table 36 shows the results of H4.

For the pooled sample, a very interesting interaction effects were detected. Specifically, low ethnocentric managers were found to significantly reduce their intention to standardize marketing programs as their cultural distance increased ($p < .05$), while high ethnocentric managers did significantly increase their intention to standardize marketing programs as their cultural distance increased ($p < .05$). The former was hypothesized but not the latter.

For Americans, most of the interaction terms were not significant across products, while Koreans showed significant interactions in relation to promotion standardization ($p < .05$), but not for product standardization. Again, this finding implies that ethnocentrism may play an important role only in promotion standardization, not in product standardization.

The significant interaction was more evident for the pooled samples than individual samples. This pattern was consistent across the two ethnocentrism factors: the nationalism factor (ETHF1) and the feeling of superiority factor (ETHF2).

However, the significant ethnocentrism*cultural distance interaction effects in the pooled sample became nonsignificant when nationality factors were introduced in the analysis. That is, as mentioned in the results of H1, nationality*cultural distance became significant while ethnocentrism*cultural distance become nonsignificant (see Table 39). This can be explained as follows: Koreans are significantly higher in ethnocentrism than Americans. Thus, the significant cultural distance*ethnocentrism interaction effects can be washed out when nationality factors were formally introduced in the model. Thus, it can be said that nationality played the role of a significant moderator through ethnocentrism in the cultural distance and standardization relationships.

The Cultural-Distance-and-QOL-Orientation-Interaction Effect (H5): H5 posits that QOL orientation moderates the relationship between cultural distance and program standardization, such that under conditions of high cultural distance, high QOL marketers are more likely to

adapt their marketing program than low QOL marketers. Table 37 shows the summary results of H5.

Most of this interaction effects were not significant. However, there are some indication that the interaction effect between the third QOL factor (preservation of other stakeholders) and cultural distance. That is, those marketers who concern about the well-being of other stakeholders (i.e., socially conscious marketers) tend to reduce degree of standardization more as cultural distance increases than those who less concern about the well-being of other stakeholders. Despite of those findings, overall the interactions were not significant, rejecting H5.

Cross-Cultural Comparisons of Managerial Attitudes (H6): H6 involves a cross-cultural comparisons of three managerial attitude variables. It was hypothesized that compared to South Korean managers, American managers are more likely to have a higher degree of cultural distance, a lower degree of ethnocentrism, a higher degree of QOL orientation. Table 34 shows the results of H6.

Americans showed significantly lower degree of ethnocentrism than Koreans ($p < .05$). However, The QOL orientation of American and that of Koreans were not significantly different from each other. In addition, overall cultural distance of American was significantly lower than that of Koreans, contrary to expectations. Therefore, the results provide only little-to-moderate support for H6.

Cross-Cultural Comparisons of Degree of Standardization (H7): H7 involves a cross-cultural comparison of degree of standardization. Built on H6, it is hypothesized that U.S. managers will be less likely to favor program standardization than South Korean managers. Table 14 shows the results of H7 (see Table 34).

The t-test results showed that, compared to South Korean managers, American managers showed lower degree of program standardization in high cultural distance countries

($p < .05$). Americans showed significantly high degree of standardization in low cultural distance countries. As mentioned in H1, exactly opposite findings were found with respect to the Korean sample. That is, Koreans showed higher degree of programs standardization for high cultural distance countries and lower degree of standardization in low cultural distance countries. Again the country of origin of products may play a moderating role in the cultural-distance-and-program-standardization relationships. In sum, the findings support H7 only in relation to low cultural distance countries.

Table 31: Cultural Distance Main Effect(H1)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Product Standardization	T	Promotion Standardization	T
(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)						
Pooled (n = 393)	Diet	Low	4.4957	3.21 **	3.7007	2.48 **
		High	4.0607		3.3223	
	Formula	Low	4.4220	3.35 **	3.9066	4.25 **
		High	3.9838		3.3051	
American (n = 184)	Diet	Low	5.3515	11.18 **	4.2659	12.13 **
		High	3.7614		2.3042	
	Formula	Low	5.2446	10.84 **	4.4809	12.42 **
		High	3.6775		2.4372	
Korean (n = 209)	Diet	Low	3.7391	2.98 **	3.2057	4.91 **
		High	4.3253		4.2137	
	Formula	Low	3.6908	3.06 **	3.3964	3.73 **
		High	4.2560		4.0761	

(** < .05; * < .10)

Table 32: Ethnocentrism Main Effect (H2) - Median Split

Sample	Product	ETH	Product Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			Promotion Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		
ETHF1								
			N	Mean	F (p)	N	Mean	F (p)
Pooled	Diet	Lo	200	4.3650	1.38(.241)	202	3.3342	9.61(.002)
		Hi	187	4.2032		187	3.7166	
	Formula	Lo	202	4.3325	3.55(.060)	201	3.4760	4.67(.031)
		Hi	186	4.0654		185	3.7405	
American	Diet	Lo	94	4.5337	.07(.796)	94	3.3582	.71(.401)
		Hi	87	4.5881		87	3.2011	
	Formula	Lo	94	4.4805	.09(.770)	94	3.4007	.19(.662)
		Hi	88	4.4167		87	3.4751	
Korean	Diet	Lo	101	4.0066	.20(.663)	103	3.4628	10.49(.001)
		Hi	105	4.0857		105	3.9778	
	Formula	Lo	103	3.9369	.32(.575)	103	3.5939	3.25(.073)
		Hi	103	4.0388		102	3.9069	
ETHF2								
			N	Mean	F (p)	N	Mean	F (p)
Pooled	Diet	Lo	218	4.0138	20.51 (.00)	220	3.5727	1.14(.285)
		Hi	170	4.6294		170	3.4382	
	Formula	Lo	220	4.0712	4.69 (.031)	218	3.6888	2.34(1.27)
		Hi	169	4.3826		169	3.4970	
American	Diet	Lo	89	4.3689	3.66 (.057)	89	3.1330	2.73(.100)
		Hi	92	4.7663		92	3.1330	
	Formula	Lo	90	4.2370	4.59 (.034)	89	3.3689	.97 (.326)
		Hi	92	4.7011		92	3.5399	
Korean	Diet	Lo	104	3.8654	3.64 (.058)	106	3.7060	.00 (.963)
		Hi	103	4.2606		103	3.7136	
	Formula	Lo	106	3.9230	.32 (.573)	106	3.6682	.63 (.427)
		Hi	101	4.0264		100	3.8083	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 33: Ethnocentrism Main Effect (H2)- Tercile Split

Sample	Product	ETH	Product Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			Promotion Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		
ETHF1								
			N	Mean	F (p)	N	Mean	F (p)
Pooled	Diet	Lo	112	4.4167	2.04(.154)	112	3.3423	8.55(.004)
		Hi	113	4.1534		113	3.8422	
	Formula	Lo	112	4.4048	1.57(.211)	112	3.4241	5.75(.017)
		Hi	112	4.1652		111	3.8258	
American	Diet	Lo	52	4.4712	.59(.443)	52	3.2532	.00(.976)
		Hi	53	4.6887		53	3.2453	
	Formula	Lo	52	4.3333	.00(.951)	52	3.1282	3.02(.085)
		Hi	54	4.3519		53	3.5314	
Korean	Diet	Lo	66	4.0429	.02(.875)	68	3.4240	5.24(.024)
		Hi	59	4.0791		59	3.9266	
	Formula	Lo	68	3.9804	.02(.897)	68	3.6422	1.05(.307)
		Hi	57	4.0175		56	3.8869	
ETHF2								
			N	Mean	F (p)	N	Mean	F (p)
Pooled	Diet	Lo	114	3.9269	17.86(.00)	116	3.6767	3.46(.064)
		Hi	126	4.6349		126	3.3876	
	Formula	Lo	117	4.0370	6.07(.014)	117	3.7089	1.17(.281)
		Hi	125	4.4760		125	3.5467	
American	Diet	Lo	67	4.2015	3.48(.065)	67	3.1095	1.1(.296)
		Hi	44	4.7273		44	3.3712	
	Formula	Lo	68	4.2059	2.48(.118)	67	3.4353	.00(.988)
		Hi	44	4.6705		44	3.4318	
Korean	Diet	Lo	87	3.8118	5.40(.022)	87	3.7701	1.37(.244)
		Hi	56	4.3065		56	4.3065	
	Formula	Lo	87	3.9847	.25(.616)	87	3.7050	.49(.483)
		Hi	55	3.8697		55	3.5576	

Table 34: QOL Main Effect (H3)- Median Split

Sample	Product	QOL	Product Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			Promotion Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		
			N	Mean	F (p)	N	Mean	F (p)
QOLF1								
Pooled	Diet	Lo	196	4.3087	.24(.623)	196	3.5782	1.37(.242)
		Hi	190	4.2404		192	3.4323	
	Formula	Lo	197	4.2377	.20(.657)	196	3.7066	2.59(.108)
		Hi	190	4.1737		189	3.5062	
American	Diet	Lo	89	4.7135	2.22(.138)	89	3.4082	1.58(.211)
		Hi	92	4.4022		92	3.1757	
	Formula	Lo	90	4.6019	1.50(.222)	90	3.5389	.72(.396)
		Hi	92	4.3333		91	3.3919	
Korean	Diet	Lo	113	4.0413	.03(.866)	113	3.7434	.42(.518)
		Hi	92	4.0109		94	3.6365	
	Formula	Lo	113	3.9956	.06(.811)	112	3.8289	1.367(.246)
		Hi	92	3.9511		92	3.6214	
QOLF2								
Pooled	Diet	Lo	205	4.3919	2.72(.100)	205	3.5553	.44(.509)
		Hi	182	4.1648		184	3.4728	
	Formula	Lo	203	4.3604	5.44(.020)	203	3.7266	4.58(.033)
		Hi	185	4.0306		183	3.4645	
American	Diet	Lo	92	4.8188	1.78(.186)	92	3.2754	.18(.675)
		Hi	90	4.2833		90	3.2981	
	Formula	Lo	92	4.7228	3.42(.067)	92	3.6178	6.29(.014)
		Hi	91	4.1685		90	3.2574	
Korean	Diet	Lo	113	4.0442	.00(.979)	113	3.7832	.76(.384)
		Hi	92	4.0489		94	3.6401	
	Formula	Lo	111	4.0601	.79(.374)	111	3.8168	.74(.389)
		Hi	94	3.8972		93	3.6649	
QOLF3								
Pooled	Diet	Lo	157	4.1539	2.54(.112)	157	3.4968	.12(.730)
		Hi	228	4.3772		230	3.5406	
	Formula	Lo	156	4.0128	5.14(.024)	155	3.5355	.96(.327)
		Hi	230	4.3406		229	3.6587	
American	Diet	Lo	63	4.5794	.02(.883)	63	3.1058	2.44(.120)
		Hi	117	4.5470		117	3.4088	
	Formula	Lo	63	4.4021	.14(.711)	63	3.2434	3.28(.072)
		Hi	118	4.4873		117	3.5627	
Korean	Diet	Lo	94	3.8688	3.52(.062)	94	3.7589	.25(.617)
		Hi	111	4.1982		113	3.6770	
	Formula	Lo	93	3.7491	5.84(.017)	92	3.7355	.02(.895)
		Hi	112	4.1860		112	3.7589	

Table 35: QOL Main Effect (H3)- Tercile Split

Sample	Product	QOL	Product Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			Promotion Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		
QOLF1								
Pooled	Diet	Lo	N	Mean	F (p)	N	Mean	F (p)
		Hi	126	4.3188	.27(.605)	126	3.5410	1.21(.273)
	Formula	Lo	132	4.2260		133	3.3647	
		Hi	126	4.3003	.16(.685)	126	3.7209	2.17(.142)
		Hi	132	4.2247		131	3.4784	
American	Diet	Lo	54	4.8735	3.70(.057)	54	3.3642	1.34(.249)
		Hi	62	4.3575		62	3.0699	
	Formula	Lo	54	4.6914	.77(.383)	54	3.6512	1.84(.177)
		Hi	62	4.4382		61	3.3251	
Korean	Diet	Lo	55	3.8606	.27(.605)	55	3.6758	.00(.965)
		Hi	69	3.9831		71	3.6854	
	Formula	Lo	55	4.0182	.03(.866)	55	3.8667	.57(.461)
		Hi	70	3.9762		70	3.6833	
QOLF2								
Pooled	Diet	Lo	N	Mean	F (p)	N	Mean	F (p)
		Hi	205	4.3919	3.00(.085)	205	3.5553	4.21(.041)
	Formula	Lo	46	4.0072		47	3.1454	
		Hi	203	4.3604	4.29(.039)	203	3.7266	7.65(.006)
		Hi	47	3.9043		47	3.1950	
American	Diet	Lo	92	4.8188	1.78(.186)	92	3.2754	.18(.675)
		Hi	18	4.3148		18	3.1296	
	Formula	Lo	92	4.7228	3.42(.067)	92	3.6178	6.29(.014)
		Hi	18	4.0185		18	2.8611	
Korean	Diet	Lo	77	3.9892	.50(.483)	77	3.6558	4.67(.033)
		Hi	28	3.8095		29	3.1552	
	Formula	Lo	75	3.9400	.19(.666)	75	3.7800	2.42(.123)
		Hi	29	3.8333		29	3.4023	
QOLF3								
Pooled	Diet	Lo	N	Mean	F (p)	N	Mean	F (p)
		Hi	61	3.7760	10.24(.002)	61	3.6202	.21(.648)
	Formula	Lo	228	4.3772		230	3.5406	
		Hi	60	3.7167	11.07(.001)	60	3.6472	.00(.948)
		Hi	230	4.3406		229	3.6587	
American	Diet	Lo	20	4.2000	1.08(.301)	20	2.9417	2.37(.126)
		Hi	117	4.5470		117	3.4008	
	Formula	Lo	20	4.0750	1.53(.218)	20	3.3750	.47(.495)
		Hi	118	4.4873		117	3.5627	
Korean	Diet	Lo	41	3.5691	8.17(.005)	41	3.9512	1.79(.183)
		Hi	111	4.1982		113	3.6770	
	Formula	Lo	40	3.5375	8.68(.004)	40	3.7833	.01(.916)
		Hi	112	4.1860		112	3.7589	

Table 36: Summary of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism Interaction Effect (H4)

Sample	Ethnocentrism	Split	Product	Product Standardization F (p)	Promotion Standardization F (p)
Pooled	ETHF1	Median	Diet	19.96**	20.54**
			Formula	23.47**	19.43**
		Tercile	Diet	16.78**	24.32**
	ETHF2	Median	Formular	26.08**	23.80**
			Diet	7.97**	11.99**
		Tercile	Formula	12.76**	17.71**
			Diet	4.90**	9.30**
			Formular	11.79**	13.56**
American	ETHF1	Median	Diet	.01	.66
			Formula	.00	.77
		Tercile	Diet	.01	.03
	ETHF2	Median	Formular	.10	.27
			Diet	.02	1.37
		Tercile	Formula	1.39	3.39*
			Diet	.08	2.03
			Formular	1.62	2.86*
Korean	ETHF1	Median	Diet	.53	.58
			Formula	3.10*	.00
		Tercile	Diet	2.07	.00
	ETHF2	Median	Formular	5.23**	.13
			Diet	1.51	3.99**
		Tercile	Formula	4.06**	3.66**
			Diet	.28	3.80**
			Formular	.40	1.12

(** < .05; * < .10)

Cell Means

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
			Hi	200	4.865	202	3.848
		Hi	Lo	187	4.109	187	3.553
			Hi	200	3.865	202	2.820
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	187	4.298	187	3.881
			Hi	202	4.845	201	4.068
		Hi	Lo	186	3.959	185	3.719
			Hi	202	3.820	201	2.884
			Lo	186	4.172	185	3.762
			Hi	186	4.172	185	3.762

Table 37: Summary of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation Interaction Effect(H5)

Sample	QOL Orientation	Split	Product	Product Standardization F value	Promotion Standardization F value
Pooled	QOLF1	Median	Diet	.60	.02
			Formula	3.30*	.09
		Thertile	Diet	4.05**	.71
	Formula		7.47*	.60	
	QOLF2	Median	Diet	1.47	.03
			Formula	.01	1.00
		Thertile	Diet	.05	.04
	Formula		1.29	1.54	
	QOLF3	Median	Diet	3.75	3.05*
Formula			.89	.05	
Thertile		Diet	4.97**	3.88*	
	Formula	1.62	.16		
American	QOLF1	Median	Diet	.37	.04
			Formula	.28	.77
		Thertile	Diet	.04	.22
	Formula		.14	1.71	
	QOLF2	Median	Diet	1.53	.11
			Formula	1.33	1.43
		Thertile	Diet	.03	.18
	Formula		.05	.55	
	QOLF3	Median	Diet	4.58**	5.30**
Formula			4.93**	2.89*	
Thertile		Diet	3.32*	3.83*	
	Formula	2.10	4.71**		
Korean	QOLF1	Median	Diet	.10	2.15
			Formular	1.92	2.02
		Thertile	Diet	.16	2.06
	Formula		.65	1.05	
	QOLF2	Median	Diet	.09	.01
			Formula	1.23	1.13
		Thertile	Diet	.04	.43
	Formula		1.02	.38	
	QOLF3	Median	Diet	.00	.27
Formula			1.84	5.79**	
Thertile		Diet	.19	.17	
	Formula	.05	2.19		

(** <.05; * <.10)

Table 38: Summary of Cross-Cultural Comparisons (H6 and H7)

Variables	American (n = 184)	Korean (n = 209)	T	P-Value
Ethnocentrism (1 = low; 7 = high)				
ETHF1	3.2661	4.5756	12.09	.000
ETHF2	2.236	3.2296	9.64	.000
QOL Orientation (1 = low; 7 = high)				
QOLF1	4.4325	4.2757	1.39	.164
QOLF2	3.8652	3.9585	.75	.453
QOLF3	5.1685	5.1188	.50	.620
Cultural Distance (1 = low; 7 = high)				
MC1 (similar; diet)	3.0611	3.0592	.02	.985
MC2 (dissimilar; diet)	5.1923	5.4686	2.82	.005
MC3 (similar; formula)	2.8438	3.0435	1.85	.065
MC4 (dissimilar; formula)	5.1667	5.3159	1.39	.162
MC	4.0684	4.2156	2.86	.005
Product Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)				
PRD1 (similar; diet)	5.3569	3.7404	9.58	.000
PRD2 (dissimilar; diet)	3.7614	4.3285	2.91	.004
PRD3 (similar; formula)	5.2446	3.6986	9.14	.000
PRD4 (dissimilar; formula)	3.6775	4.2560	2.93	.004
Promotion Standardization (1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)				
PRM1 (similar; diet)	4.2754	3.2057	5.77	.000
PRM2 (dissimilar; diet)	2.3042	4.2137	11.04	.000
PRM3 (similar; formula)	4.4837	3.3910	6.36	.000
PRM4 (dissimilar; formula)	2.4372	4.0612	9.31	.000

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 39: MANOVA Analysis (Two Between and Two Within Factors: Entire Sample)

Dependent Variable	Factors	F	p-value
Product Standardization	ETHF1	3.13	.078
	QOLF1	.85	.357
	Product	1.20	.273
	CD (Cultural Distace)	10.67	.001
	CD*ETHF1	26.14	.000
	CD*QOLF1	1.59	.208
	ETHF1	2.50	.115
	QOLF2	4.73	.030
	Product	1.51	.220
	CD	12.07	.001
	CD*ETHF1	25.34	.000
	CD*QOLF2	.98	.324
	ETHF1	1.54	.215
	QOLF3	4.26	.040
	Product	1.56	.213
	CD	8.53	.004
	CD*ETHF1	21.47	.000
	CD*QOLF3	.74	.390
	ETHF2	14.10	.000
	QOLF1	.26	.610
	Product	1.55	.213
	CD	14.53	.000
	CD*ETHF2	11.72	.001
	CD*QOLF1	2.44	.119
	ETHF2	14.69	.000
	QOLF2	8.32	.004
	Product	2.19	.140
	CD	15.67	.000
	CD*ETHF2	12.41	.000
	CD*QOLF2	.46	.500
	ETHF2	10.55	.001
	QOLF3	2.72	.100
	Product	2.71	.101
	CD	10.08	.002
	CD*ETHF2	7.40	.007
	CD*QOLF3	1.16	.282

Cell Means

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	200	4.865	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
			Hi	187	4.109	187	3.553
			Lo	200	3.865	202	2.820
			Hi	187	4.298	187	3.881
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	202	4.845	201	4.068
			Hi	186	3.959	185	3.719
			Lo	202	3.820	201	2.884
			Hi	186	4.172	185	3.762

Table 39: MANOVA Analysis (Two Between and Two Within Factors; Entire Sample) (continued)

Dependent Variable	Factors	F	p-value
Promotion Standardization	ETHF1	7.18	.008
	QOLF1	2.69	.102
	Product	2.43	.120
	CD (Cultural Distace)	10.75	.001
	CD*ETHF1	25.16	.000
	CD*QOLF1	.05	.832
	ETHF1	8.50	.004
	QOLF2	2.26	.134
	Product	1.92	.167
	CD	11.09	.001
	CD*ETHF1	23.74	.000
	CD*QOLF2	.08	.775
	ETHF1	9.08	.003
	QOLF3	1.16	.283
	Product	1.59	.208
	CD	8.83	.003
	CD*ETHF1	18.50	.000
	CD*QOLF3	.23	.632
	ETHF2	1.86	.173
	QOLF1	2.94	.087
	Product	2.78	.096
	CD	15.96	.000
	CD*ETHF2	18.62	.000
	CD*QOLF1	.06	.803
	ETHF2	2.49	.115
	QOLF2	2.11	.147
	Product	1.92	.167
	CD	15.81	.000
	CD*ETHF2	17.20	.000
	CD*QOLF2	.52	.470
ETHF2	3.15	.077	
QOLF3	1.37	.243	
Product	1.85	.174	
CD	12.66	.000	
CD*ETHF2	13.38	.000	
CD*QOLF3	.28	.596	

Table 40: MANOVA Analysis (Two Between and Two Within Factors: American Sample)

Dependent Variable	Factors	F	p-value
Product Standardization	ETHF1	.01	.915
	QOLF1	2.60	.108
	Product	1.03	.312
	CD (Cultural Distace)	149.94	.000
	CD*ETHF1	.02	.897
	CD*QOLF1	.01	.935
	ETHF1	.14	.709
	QOLF2	8.24	.005
	Product	1.46	.226
	CD	147.89	.000
	CD*ETHF1	.07	.791
	CD*QOLF2	2.09	1.50
	ETHF1	.10	.753
	QOLF3	.03	.862
	Product	1.51	.221
	CD	124.35	.000
	CD*ETHF1	.07	.786
	CD*QOLF3	5.67	.018
	ETHF2	5.05	.026
	QOLF1	2.71	.101
	Product	.82	.367
	CD	147.75	.000
	CD*ETHF2	.52	.473
	CD*QOLF1	.00	.959
	ETHF2	5.19	.024
	QOLF2	7.65	.006
	Product	1.43	.234
	CD	151.22	.000
	CD*ETHF2	.48	.491
	CD*QOLF2	1.93	.167
ETHF2	4.63	.033	
QOLF3	.00	.992	
Product	1.42	.235	
CD	122.76	.000	
CD*ETHF2	.15	.698	
CD*QOLF3	5.36	.022	

Table 40: MANOVA Analysis (Two Between and Two Within Factors: American Sample) (continued)

Dependent Variable	Factors	F	p-value
Promotion Standardization	ETHF1	.04	.846
	QOLF1	1.47	.226
	Product	3.48	.064
	CD (Cultural Distace)	200.48	.000
	CD*ETHF1	.89	.348
	CD*QOLF1	.05	.820
	ETHF1	.01	.911
	QOLF2	.89	.347
	Product	3.15	.077
	CD	196.23	.000
	CD*ETHF1	.81	.368
	CD*QOLF2	.43	.514
	ETHF1	.00	.973
	QOLF3	3.43	.066
	Product	2.91	.090
	CD	175.94	.000
	CD*ETHF1	.04	.839
	CD*QOLF3	4.94	.028
	ETHF2	1.93	.167
	QOLF1	1.40	.238
	Product	3.93	.049
	CD	197.34	.000
	CD*ETHF2	2.89	.091
	CD*QOLF1	.08	.774
	ETHF2	2.40	.123
	QOLF2	.78	.380
	Product	3.04	.083
	CD	200.91	.000
	CD*ETHF2	2.66	.105
	CD*QOLF2	.64	.425
ETHF2	.67	.415	
QOLF3	3.19	.076	
Product	2.52	.114	
CD	173.39	.000	
CD*ETHF2	1.45	.231	
CD*QOLF3	4.50	.035	

Table 41: MANOVA Analysis (Two Between and Two Within Factors: Korean Sample)

Dependent Variable	Factors	F	p-value
Product Standardization	ETHF1	.38	.540
	QOLF1	.20	.656
	Product	.31	.578
	CD (Cultural Distace)	11.40	.001
	CD*ETHF1	2.54	.113
	CD*QOLF1	.60	.440
	ETHF1	.23	.633
	QOLF2	.27	.604
	Product	.49	.483
	CD	9.66	.002
	CD*ETHF1	1.34	.248
	CD*QOLF2	.17	.676
	ETHF1	.65	.420
	QOLF3	6.93	.009
	Product	.38	.537
	CD	10.08	.002
	CD*ETHF1	1.87	.173
	CD*QOLF3	.63	.429
	ETHF2	2.65	.105
	QOLF1	.16	.693
	Product	.30	.583
	CD	11.55	.001
	CD*ETHF2	3.04	.083
	CD*QOLF1	1.04	.310
	ETHF2	2.03	.156
	QOLF2	.45	.504
	Product	.44	.508
	CD	9.78	.002
	CD*ETHF2	2.81	.095
	CD*QOLF2	.04	.834
ETHF2	1.00	.317	
QOLF3	6.00	.015	
Product	.46	.499	
CD	9.22	.003	
CD*ETHF2	2.45	.119	
CD*QOLF3	.34	.560	

Table 41: MANOVA Analysis (Two Between and Two Within Factors: Korean Sample) (continued)

Dependent Variable	Factors	F	p-value
Promotion Standardization	ETHF1	6.82	.010
	QOLF1	1.07	.303
	Product	.19	.663
	CD (Cultural Distace)	27.15	.000
	CD*ETHF1	.82	.367
	CD*QOLF1	2.49	.116
	ETHF1	7.13	.008
	QOLF2	.53	.467
	Product	.09	.767
	CD	22.82	.000
	CD*ETHF1	.18	.674
	CD*QOLF2	.47	.494
	ETHF1	8.09	.005
	QOLF3	.03	.868
	Product	.11	.741
	CD	21.79	.000
	CD*ETHF1	.10	.752
	CD*QOLF3	2.23	.137
	ETHF2	.36	.548
	QOLF1	1.20	.274
	Product	.20	.658
	CD	26.12	.000
	CD*ETHF2	4.44	.036
	CD*QOLF1	1.90	.169
	ETHF2	.14	.709
	QOLF2	.81	.371
	Product	.08	.776
	CD	24.47	.000
	CD*ETHF2	4.66	.032
	CD*QOLF2	.27	.607
	ETHF2	.15	.699
	QOLF3	.07	.792
	Product	.10	.749
CD	20.99	.000	
CD*ETHF2	3.31	.071	
CD*QOLF3	1.57	.211	

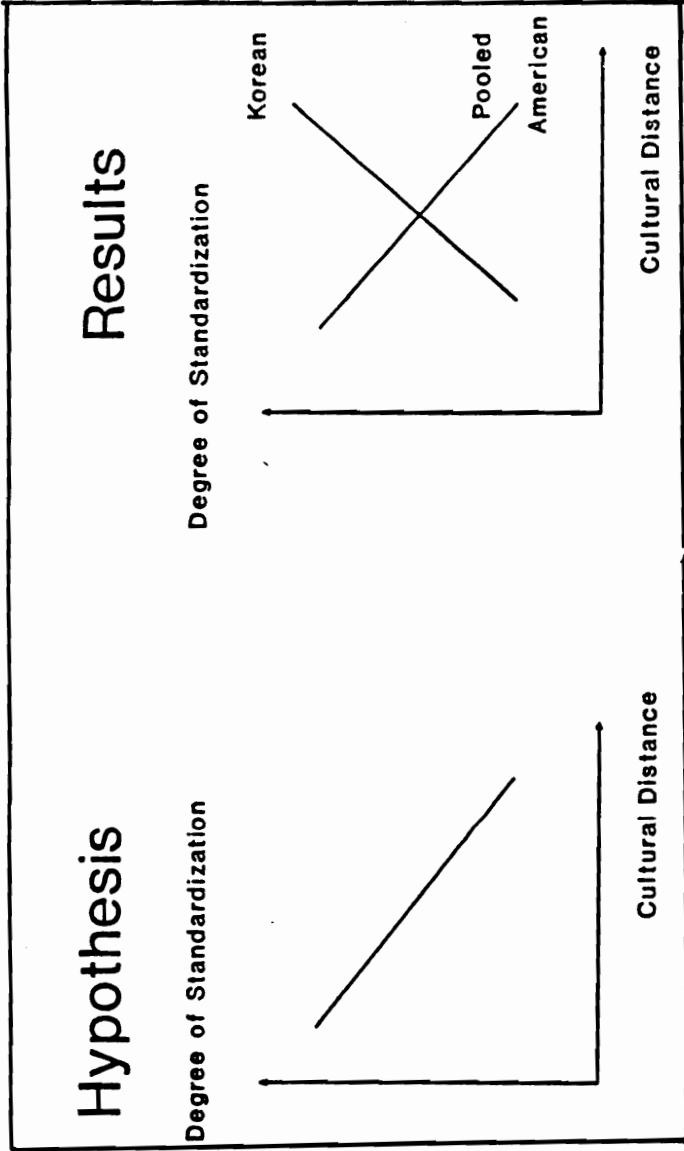


Figure 4: Results of Hypothesis One

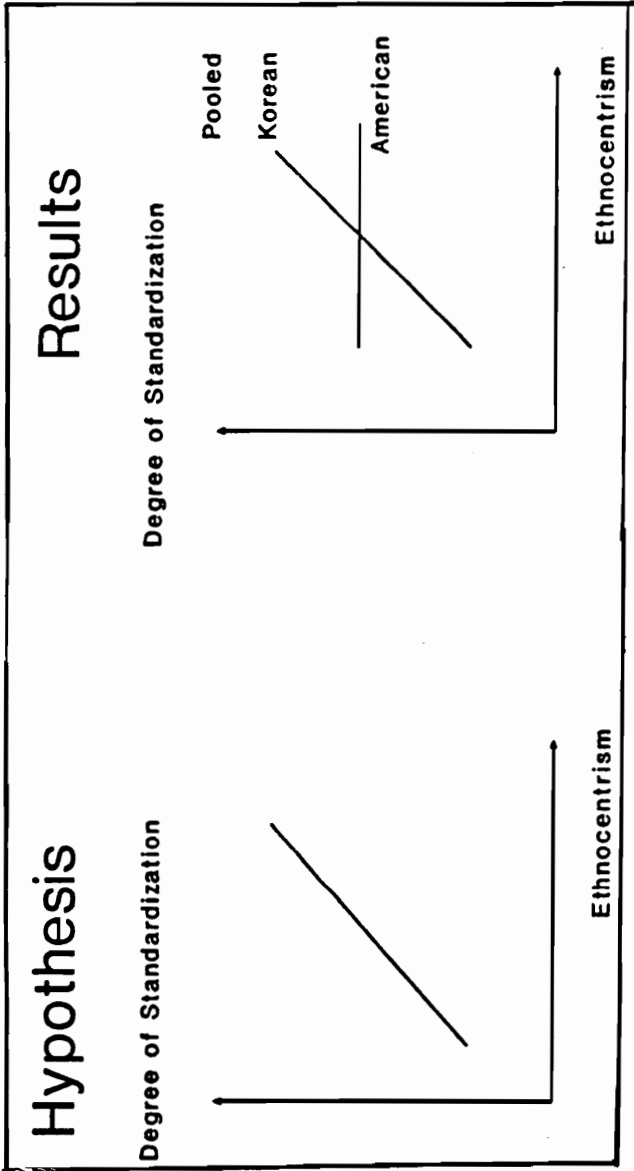


Figure 5: Results of Hypothesis Two

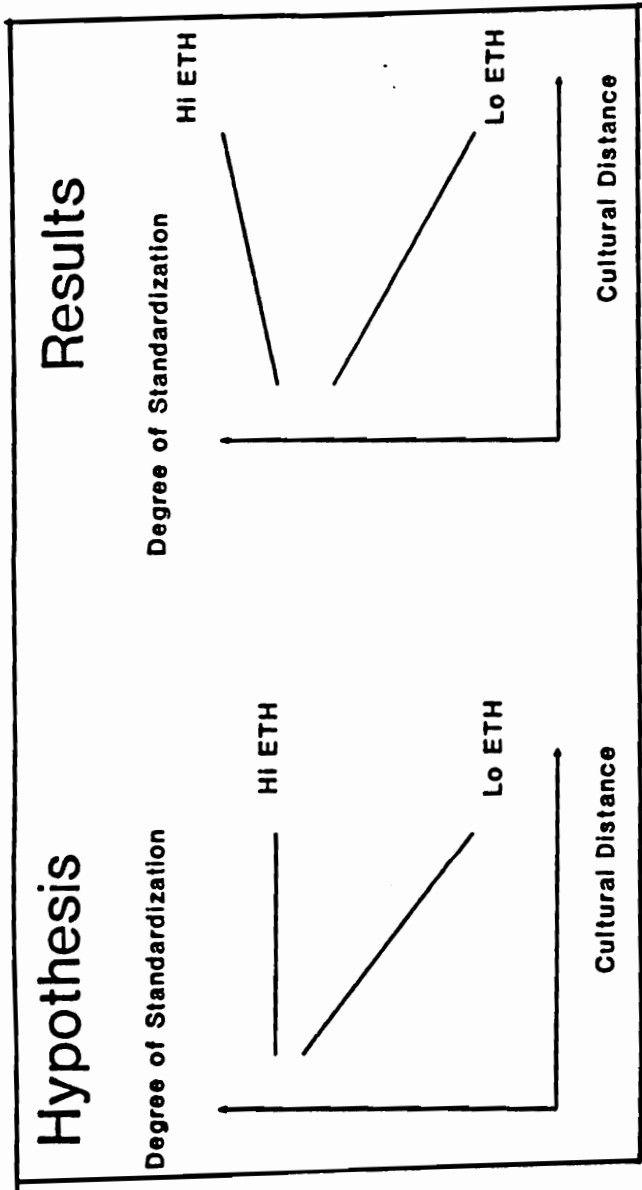


Figure 7: Results of Hypothesis Four

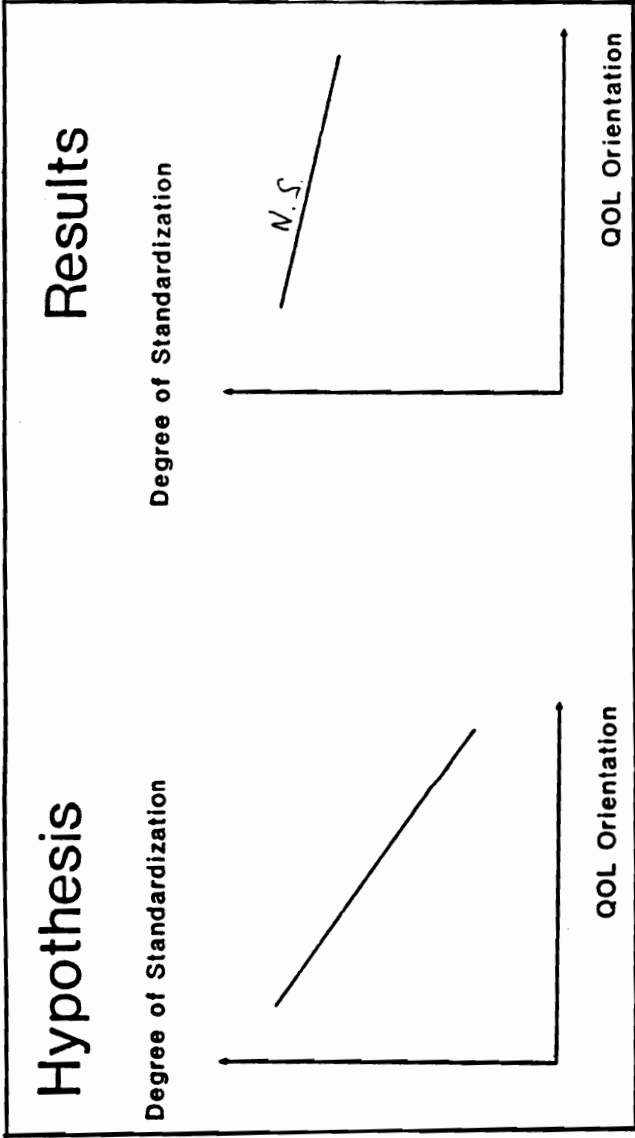


Figure 6: Results of Hypothesis Three

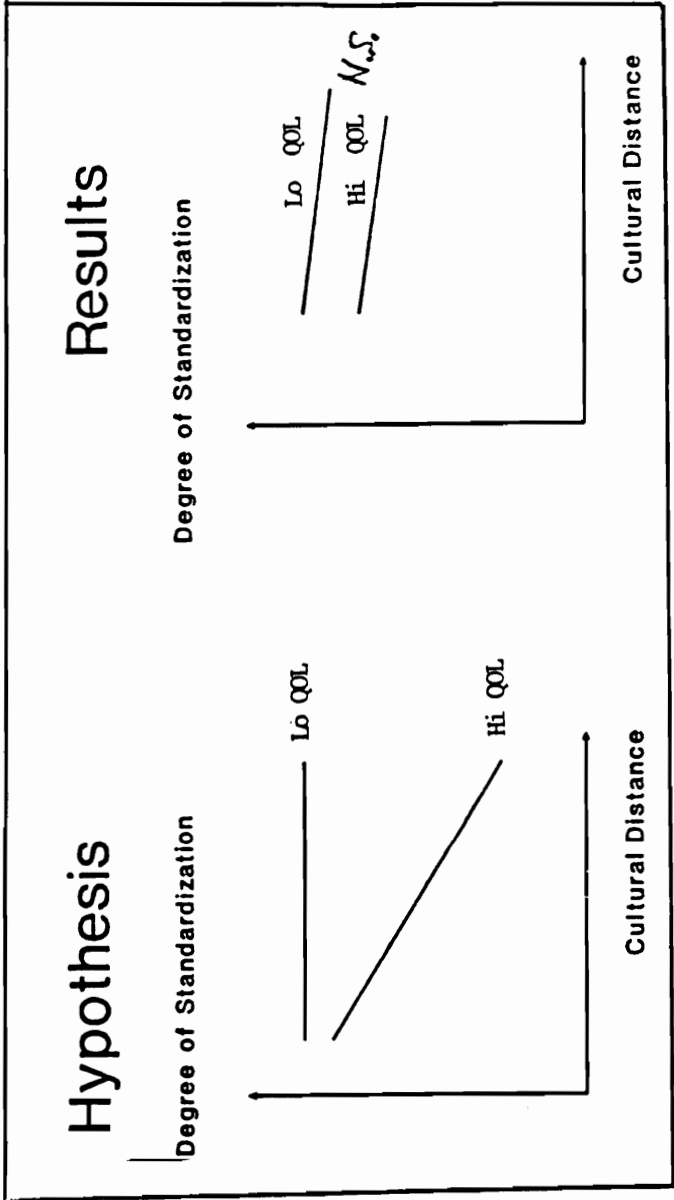


Figure 8: Results of Hypothesis Five

	Hypothesis	Results
1) Ethnocentrism	American < Korean	American < Korean
2) QOL Orientation	American > Korean	American = Korean
3) Cultural Distance	American > Korean	American < Korean

Figure 9: Results of Hypothesis Six

Hypothesis	Results
Degree of Standardization	Degree of Standardization
American < Korean	1) Lo Cultural Distance American > Korean
	2) Hi Cultural Distance American < Korean

Figure 10: Results of Hypothesis Seven

Covariance Analysis

In order to eliminate the effect of covariates on the hypothesized relationships, a set of MANCOVA (Multivariate Analysis of Covariance) were conducted. Six covariates were identified: product familiarity, familiarity with the marketing practices, business experience, international business experience, age, and gender. Appendix D shows the results of these covariate analysis: MANCOVA with product familiarity (Table 19-1 to Table 28-1), with familiarity with marketing practices (Table 19-2 to Table 28-2), business experience (Table 19-3 to Table 28-3), international business experience (Table 19-4 to Table 28-4), with gender (Table 19-5 to Table 28-5), and with age (Table 19-5 to Table 28-5).

Most of covariate effects were not significant except few. Furthermore, those significant covariates effects did not change the main effect of QOL or ethnocentrism. Those pattern were consistent across different covariates. Thus, it can be said that the covariate did not play an important role in the results.

Summary of Hypothesis Testings

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of managerial attitude variables (cultural distance, ethnocentrism, QOL orientation) on program standardization. It was proposed that cultural distance and QOL orientation are negatively related to program standardization, whereas ethnocentrism is positively related to program standardization. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that cultural distance is likely to affect program standardization more for managers with a high QOL orientation (or low ethnocentrism) than for managers with a low QOL orientation. Cross-cultural comparisons of the three attitude variables and degree of standardization between American managers and S. Korean managers were also hypothesized.

The results show that cultural-distance-main effect (H1) was supported for the pooled

and the American sample, but not for Korean sample. This implies a possibility of moderation effect of the country-of- origin-of-products (see Figure 4)

The ethnocentrism-main effect (H2) was largely supported for product and promotion standardization with respect to the pooled sample, and product standardization with respect to the Korean sample. For the American sample, the ethnocentrism-main effect was not supported. The ethnocentrism-main effect was more evident for promotion standardization with respect to the Korean sample, implying that ethnocentrism may have a differential effect on product and promotion standardization. Specifically, the nationalism factor is significantly related to promotion standardization while the feeling of superiority is positively related to promotion standardization.

The QOL-orientation-main effect (H3) was not supported. The all three QOL factors have found not to play a significant role on either product or promotion standardization.

The ethnocentrism-and-cultural-distance interaction effect (H4) was supported with respect to the pooled sample. That is, low ethnocentric marketers were found to decrease degree of standardization as cultural distance increased, while high ethnocentric marketers tend to increased standardization as cultural distance increased. However, the interaction effect was not evident with respect to American sample. The Korean sample displayed significant interaction effects especially for promotion standardization (see Figure 7).

The QOL-orientation-and-cultural-distance-interaction effect (H5) also largely not supported. However, there were some indication that the interaction effect between the third QOL factor (preservation of other stakeholders) and cultural distance. That is, the interaction was more evident for the third QOL orientation factor (QOLF3; other stakeholders' well-being) than the other two factors across all samples (see Figure 8).

The results of cross-cultural comparisons of managerial attitude variables (H6) show that, compared to Koreans, Americans showed lower ethnocentrism, same degree of QOL

orientation, and lower cultural distance. Thus, only the ethnocentrism comparison part of the hypothesis (H6-b) was supported (see Figure 9).

The results of cross-cultural comparisons of degree of standardization (H7) showed that, compared to Koreans, Americans made less standardization decision only for low cultural distance countries. In a high cultural-distance context, Koreans made less standardization decisions. Again, this implies that the country of origin of products may play a moderating role in cultural-distance-and-program-standardization relationships (see Figure 10).

Overall, the findings of this dissertation showed general and moderate support for the theoretical propositions. The conclusions, limitations, and managerial implications of these results and directions for future research are explored in the next final chapter.

CHAPTER VI: DISCUSSION

This chapter begins with a brief description of the study. Then, some conclusions are drawn about the effects of cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and QOL orientation on program standardization. The cross-cultural comparisons of those predictors and degree of standardization are discussed along with managerial implications. Finally, limitations of this dissertation are identified and directions for future research are proposed.

Overview of This Dissertation

This dissertation was undertaken to investigate the effects of managerial attitude variables on program standardization. Previous research on determinants on program standardization have focused mainly on environmental factors with little attention given to the managers' attitude variables. This dissertation tries to fill the gap by providing a conceptual framework for and an empirical test on the effects of managerial attitudes on program standardization. Specifically, it is hypothesized that ethnocentrism positively affects program standardization, whereas cultural distance and QOL orientation negatively affects program standardization. Different cultures may result in different consumer acculturation, which may affect acceptance of standardized products (Scliffman, Dillon, Ngumah 1981). Ethnocentric managers tend to make marketing decisions biased by self-centeredness in relation to other countries, and thus are likely to be insensitive to cultural variations. The attitude may result in standardization. QOL orientation is likely to result in program adaptation since marketers with a high QOL orientation are likely to believe that enhancing consumer well-being is socially and

culturally bound. And adaptation may be effective in the preservation of other stakeholders' well-being (e.g., help local government, local suppliers and distributors, and local community).

Ethnocentrism and QOL orientation also were hypothesized to moderate the cultural-distance-and-program-standardization relationship, respectively. That is, the effect of cultural distance on program standardization is likely to be greater for managers with a high QOL orientation (or low ethnocentrism) than for managers with a low QOL orientation (or high ethnocentrism).

Finally, cross-cultural comparisons of those three attitude variables (cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and QOL orientation) and degree of standardization between American managers and Korean managers were also hypothesized. Specifically, it was hypothesized that, compared to Korean managers, American managers are more likely to have high cultural distance, low ethnocentrism, high QOL orientation, and low degree program standardization. It is because of America's relatively little emphasis on foreign trade (high cultural distance), unclear boundaries between ingroup and outgroup (low ethnocentrism), and enhanced social consciousness of marketers (high QOL orientation).

An experimental study using MBA students was conducted. The experiment method using MBA students deemed appropriate since it provides control over other environmental variables, thereby allowing to focus exclusively on the effects of managerial attitude variables. Data were collected both in the U.S. and S. Korea.

The products were selected based on a pretest (using American and Korean graduate students) and other considerations. These are: infant formula and diet pills. Cultural distance was experimentally manipulated and checked through manipulation check measures. The QOL orientation measure was developed as well as the ethnocentrism measure. The questionnaire was translated into Korean and back translated into English to ensure equivalence.

The experimental procedure was as follows: The MBA students were asked to assume

the role of managers at a global company who are responsible for standardization vs. adaptation decisions. They were asked to make judgments whether to standardize product and promotion based on managerial scenarios. The descriptions on the scenario include product, and the manipulated hypothetical country (high vs, low cultural distance). After making standardization decisions, subjects responded to manipulation check measures. Next, they responded to other attitude variables (QOL orientation and ethnocentrism), covariates (product familiarity and business experience), and demographics.

Conclusions of The Effects of Managerial Attitude Variables on Program Standardization

The results of hypotheses testing are shown in Tables (Table 31 to Table 39) and Figures (Figure 4 to Figure 10). Cultural-distance-main effect (H1) was supported for the pooled and the American sample, but not for Korean sample. The ethnocentrism-main effect (H2) was largely supported with the nationalism factor affecting promotion standardization while the feeling-of-superiority factor affecting product standardization. This pattern was consistent across samples, products, and methods of splits (median/tercile).

The QOL-orientation-main effect (H3) was not supported. The ethnocentrism-and-cultural-distance interaction effect (H4) was supported with respect to the pooled sample. That is, low ethnocentric marketers were found to decrease degree of standardization as cultural distance increased, while high ethnocentric marketers tend to increased standardization as cultural distance increased. However, the interaction effect was not evident with respect to American sample. The Korean sample displayed some significant interaction effects. The QOL-orientation-and-cultural-distance-interaction effect (H5) also was not supported, but there are some indications of the interaction effects between the third QOL orientation factor (QOLF3; other stakeholders' well-being) and cultural distance on program standardization. The results of cross-cultural comparisons of managerial attitude variables (H6) show that, compared to

Koreans, Americans showed lower ethnocentrism, same degree of QOL orientation, and lower cultural distance. Thus, only the ethnocentrism comparison part of the hypothesis (H6-b) was supported. The results of cross-cultural comparisons of degree of standardization (H7) showed that, compared to Koreans, Americans made less standardization decision only for low cultural distance countries. In a high cultural-distance context, Koreans made less standardization decisions. Again, this implies that the country of origin of products may play a moderating role in cultural-distance-and-program-standardization relationships.

There are some interesting findings in this dissertation. These are cultural distance and country-of-origin of the product interaction effect, cultural distance and ethnocentrism interaction effect, QOL effects, and cross-cultural comparisons.

First, the country of origin of products seems to play an important moderating role in the cultural distance and program standardization relationships. Previous literature showed only a main effect of cultural distance on program standardization. That is, the higher cultural distance, the lower degree of standardization. This proposition may be only valid for the MNCs who developed their products in their home country. Specifically, the country-of-origin of the products is likely to play an moderating role if the products are originated from countries other than the home country of the MNCs. This is especially true for those MNCs in the relatively lesser developed countries (e.g. Korea), who mainly concentrate on marketing of products developed in other countries through licensing and joint ventures. Those MNCs show higher degree of standardization for the origin countries even when their managers perceive cultural distances. On the other hand, they may make less standardization decisions in relation to other culturally similar countries (e.g., other Asia countries) in a manner identical to other Western MNCs.

Second, the significant interaction effect between ethnocentrism and cultural distance on program standardization with respect to the pooled sample implies that cultural distance

may have an effect on lowering program standardization only for low ethnocentric managers. Marketers with high ethnocentrism showed significantly higher degree of standardization as cultural distance increased. Thus, firms who desire to implement an adaptation strategy should make an effort to reduce the ethnocentrism of marketers (i.e., cross-cultural training to enhance cultural sensitivity). However, the interaction effects of pooled samples needs careful interpretation since the interactions did not supported in the individual samples. The exact nature of the role of nationality in the cultural distance and standardization relationships needs future works.

Third, the results of the third QOL factor (preservation of other stakeholders' well-being) and cultural distance interaction effects imply that the socially conscious marketers tend to reduce degree of program standardization as cultural distance increases.

The main difference between marketing orientation and QOL orientation would be marketers' social consciousness (e.g., preservation of other stakeholders' well-being, environmental concern). Future works on the conceptualization should focus on these social consciousness including concerns on the local environment, local community, and others.

Overall, this dissertation study demonstrated the importance of managerial attitude variables in relation to program standardization. The results add to our understanding of multinational corporation's standardization vs. adaptation decisions. Furthermore, the results provide an understanding of standardization vs. adaptation decisions of multinational corporations from relatively lesser-developed countries. This dissertation also developed and tested the measure of the new construct, marketer's QOL Orientation.

Managerial Implications

This dissertation provides a conceptual model for and empirical tests on the effects of managerial attitude on program standardization. Also, the study was designed to enable

international marketers to better understand standardization vs. adaptation strategies of other multinational corporations by having cross-cultural comparisons. So far, most of the studies on multinational corporation have been conducted using largely multinational corporations from well-developed countries. This study incorporate a cross-cultural analysis of multinational corporations both from well-developed (e.g., U.S.) and newly-developed countries (e.g., Korea).

Implication for MNCs In Developed Countries: One of the significant findings of this dissertation is cultural distance operates differently with Koreans and Americans. This may be due to a moderating effect of the origin of country of the product. That is, MNCs who are importing their technologies from other countries (e.g., MNCs from newly developed countries such as Korea) are more likely to standardize their products when they export back to the origin country, even if they perceive higher cultural distance. Thus, it is possible that their standardization vs. adaptation decisions are as a direct function of the country of origin of the product. That is, if the firm's main products are imported from other developed countries through licensing or joint venture, the MNC may standardize its marketing programs to the origin countries while adapt to other culturally similar countries.

This implies that cultural distance will play a significant role for the MNCs in well-developed countries. Thus, if the firm decides to adapt marketing programs, it may have to develop cross-cultural training programs to enhance cultural sensitivity of marketers (i.e., language training, cultural differences, business practices). These cross-cultural training would be more important for the MNCs from well-developed countries than MNCs from less-developed countries.

Also, MNCs from developed countries, when competing with MNCs from newly developed countries, should anticipate standardization by MNCs from newly-developed countries. Thus, marketers should be cognizant of the origin of the key technology or product.

Implications for MNCs from Newly Developed Countries: The effect of ethnocentrism

on standardization was found to be greater for Korean than Americans. Ethnocentrism was greater for the countries that are homogeneous and make clear distinctions between their group and others. Therefore, if a firm from a newly-developed country wants to efficiently implement an adaptation strategy, the firm needs to reduce ethnocentrism among its marketers. This may be done by hiring people from different countries and increase diversity of the marketing team. Cultural interactions among the team members should increase, thus reducing ethnocentric tendencies, thereby facilitating effective implementation of adaptation.

On the other hand, MNCs who desire to implement a standardization strategy, need to make an effort to reduce the perception of cultural distance. This can be done by exposing the managers to various cultures and its commonalities, especially countries in which the MNCs do business.

Overall, the findings pertaining to these managerial attitude variables are likely to enhance our understanding of the underlying rationale for the decision and its implementation. Thus, this dissertation should help managers select effective standardization strategies in a global market.

Limitations

Several limitations constrained the results of this study: generalizability of findings, sampling, and reliability of measures.

First limitation in this study is related to issue of generalizability. Many of standardization studies found that standardization vs. adaptation decisions are product-specific (Boddewyn et al 1986; Cavusgil and Zou 1994; Cavusgil, Zou, and Naidu 1993; Hill and Still 1984; Hovwell and Walters 1972; Jain 1989; Samiee and Roth 1992). Therefore, this study findings are likely to be limited to infant formula and diet pills. A better study should have tested the theoretical propositions in more extended product contexts (real brands, different

product category, more than two countries) and used more representative samples (e.g., executives of multinational corporations). This study used MBA students based on convenience sampling. Standardization decisions are decisions that are typically made by top management. The use of MBA student sample limits the generalizability of the findings to MNCs. This study is experimentally based, thus ecological validity of the findings are limited. In a more realistic setting, there may be other environmental factors for marketers to consider in making standardization decisions.

Second, the reliability of the QOL orientation and ethnocentrism constructs is low. For example, the alpha coefficient's ETHF2 ranged from .5766 to .6322. The alpha coefficient of QOLF3 ranged from .5402 to .6405. Reliability is a necessary but not sufficient conditions of construct validity. Thus, the low reliability of some of the measures is indicative of questionable construct validity. Future study should make an attempt to further purifying the QOL orientation and ethnocentrism measures.

Third, the construct of QOL orientation needs to be further refined, conceptually speaking. The moral relativism is found to have no relationship with the other two dimensions within the construct. More conceptual work is need to identify the domains of the construct.

Fourth, Korean were found to be significantly higher in ethnocentrism than Americans. Thus, it can be said that nationality played a role of moderator in the cultural distance and standardization relationship through ethnocentrism. However, the exact mediating mechanism between nationality and ethnocentrism needs to be investigated further.

Future Research

Future survey research should study standardization without controlling environmental factors (e.g., competition, technological changes, firm size, international business experience of the firm, and real country) using more representative samples. Furthermore, future study

should refine and test the QOL orientation scales with different populations/industry to examine external validity of the measures.

This dissertation does not explicitly include or measure the country of origin of the products. Future study need to be done to clarify the postulated interaction effect between cultural distance and country of origin of the products on program standardization for more conclusive findings.

The unit of analysis in this dissertation is the individual marketers. In many cases, the decisions on standardization vs. adaptation are made by a group. Future research to identify the dynamics of group decision making related to the issues discussed in this dissertation. Furthermore, those attitude variables also can be manifested in different forms, such as organization culture. Thus, it is necessary to study the effect of organizational culture on program standardization. Standardization vs. adaptation decisions may be made through consultations between the headquarter managers and local country managers. This dissertation have focused only on one side of this dyad (e.g., headquarters perspective). Future research dealing with both headquarter managers and local country managers are likely to be fruitful.

This study only concentrate on the managerial attitude on standardization. The attitude of consumers on the standardized vs. adapted products will be worth more effort. In addition, this dissertation only deals with three attitudinal variables. Other possible attitudinal predictors would include cultural sensitivity of managers and nationalism, among others. Future research that incorporate these variables seems worth efforts.

This study only concentrated determinants of standardization decisions. Future study to develop a model of consequences of standardization decision will provide more useful guidelines for managers.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this dissertation sought to investigate the effects of managerial attitude variables on program standardization. Data from both Korean and American samples were used to test the proposed relationships. In general, the model was moderately supported in both sample. In short, this dissertation presented an intuitively appealing model of managerial attitude effects on program standardization. However, the actual testing of the model is subject to a number of methodological limitations. Those issues should be addressed in future research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: The E.P.R.G. Framework and Consumer Ethnocentrism

This section will review the E.P.R.G. framework followed by consumer ethnocentrism. Then, discussions on management's ethnocentrism and its relationship to standardization will follow.

E.P.R.G. Framework

Some time ago, Perlmutter (1969) distinguished different types of attitudes managers may have toward internationalization, namely the ethnocentric, polycentric, regiocentric, and geocentric orientations. These distinctions have come to be known as the E.P.R.G. framework (Perlmutter 1969; Wind, Douglas, and Perlmutter 1973). Toyne and Walters (1989) have suggested that this E.P.R.G. framework is a useful concept in understanding standardization issues.

Ethnocentric Orientation: An ethnocentric orientation involves a "home country-centered approach" (Wind et al 1973). That is, managers view the home market as primary, overseas markets as secondary to the domestic market (Huszagh, Fox, and Day 1986). As a result, marketing plans are developed in the home country, and overseas marketing, if and when seriously considered, is administered by experts operating from the company's headquarters in the home country. No systematic research on host countries is undertaken. Foreign consumers are expected to adapt to home country products (Onkvisit and Shaw 1994). The ethnocentric orientation reflects the view that the rest of world is similar to the domestic market. Thus, programs successful with domestic consumers are perceived to be suitable for foreign buyers too (Toyne and Walters 1989). This ethnocentric approach is similar to the market extension orientation (Toyne and Walters 1989) which assumes that foreign markets are secondary to the home market and must be satisfied with the same product.

Linder's (1961) theory of international trade articulates a rationale for the ethnocentric orientation (Toyne and Walters 1989). Classical economic theories on trade have suggested that a country will export products that intensively use its most abundant resources (e.g., labor, capital) and will import products that intensively use its least abundant resources. This follows from the country's relative cost advantage in products that intensively use its abundant resources (Toyne and Walters 1989). Linder, on the other hand, argued that patterns of international trade are determined primarily by demand factors, not by relative factor abundance. In his model, products are manufactured initially for domestic consumption because knowledge about the needs of foreign consumers is limited and because of the cost of developing export products is high. The domestic product range, therefore, delimits the potential export range. International trade becomes an expansion of domestic trade (Toyne and Walters 1989; Walters and Toyne 1989).

Polycentric orientation: A polycentric orientation refers to the belief that each subsidiary should be operated independently, with marketing activities organized on a country-by-country basis. With this orientation, the home country market is viewed as just one of several distinct national operations (Huszagh et al 1986; Toyne and Walters 1989; Wind et al 1973;). This orientation is based on the assumption that each foreign market has different needs and conditions. This a position midway between the geocentric and polycentric orientations.

Regiocentric orientation: A regiocentric orientation refers to the view that the world market is composed of several big regions (Wind et al 1973). Managers with a regiocentric orientation ignore national boundaries and view each region as a potential market. Thus, marketing policies are developed on a regional basis using experts from the region.

Managers with regiocentric orientation perceive uniformities within subglobal regions based on geographical proximity, socio-economic development, cultural criteria, and/or specific buyer characteristics such as buying habits, life styles etc. (Toyne and Walters 1989). Many

companies with this orientation tend to identify markets based on geographical proximity even if geographical similarity does not necessarily mean market similarity. Regiocentric orientation can be viewed as a position midway between the geocentric and polycentric orientations.

Geocentric orientation: A geocentric orientation is the view that the world market is one big market (Hout, Porter, and Rudden 1982; Ohmae 1987; Toyne and Walters 1989; Wind et al 1973;). Managers with this orientation tend to see the world as one market rather than as a collection of national markets (Hout, Porter, Rudden 1982). The world is perceived to be increasingly globalized and homogenized (Kale and Sudharshan 1987; Levitt 1983). Companies with this orientation develop and launch products on a global basis (Ohmae 1987). That is, from the start, they target the entire world market and make a concerted effort to market everywhere at the same time. Because they compete with other global firms, they believe their competitive position in one national market is likely to be affect their competitive position in other national markets (Ghoshal 1987). Since the home market is just one of many markets (Huszagh et al 1986), there is little need to keep headquarters in the home country (Ohmae 1987).

Consumer Ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism has been defined by Shimp and Sharma (1987) as the "consumer's belief about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign made goods." They developed and validated a scale for measuring consumer ethnocentrism, postulating that highly ethnocentric consumers are prone to make biased judgements, accentuating the positive aspects of domestic products and discounting the virtues of foreign made items. They developed and validated a consumer ethnocentrism scale (CETSCALE) (Shimp and Sharma 1987) that was subsequently validated cross-nationally (Netemeyer, Durvasula, and Lichtenstein 1991). This scale has been shown to be a much stronger predictor

of import buying behavior than demographic variables (Herche 1992). Consumer ethnocentrism seems to be closely related to social class and perceived threat. The upper-lower class is the most ethnocentric, followed by lower middle and upper middle. Older working class individuals whose jobs were threatened by foreign competition showed strong ethnocentric tendencies, whereas middle class people with relatively stable jobs showed fewer ethnocentric tendencies (Shimp and Sharma 1987).

Appendix B: Pretest Measures

I NEED YOUR HELP: PLEASE COMPLETE THIS BRIEF SURVEY

I am conducting a study focusing on how marketing managers makes standardization vs. adaptation decisions in international markets. Standardization mean that marketing mangers use the same product and promotion across different countries with no or only very minor modifications, while adaptations involve making significant changes in product and promotions. I've developed a model to predict standardization vs. adaptation decisions using predictors such as cultural distance, quality-of-life orientation, and ethnocentrism (you don't have to understand what these predictors are to complete the questionnaire). What I need help on is to select product which are not either too culturally sensitive or too insensitive. Culturally sensitive products are likely to induce marketing managers to make straight out adaptation decisions, whereas culturally insensitive products are likely to lead to standardization decisions. I need to identify those products that are not too culturally-sensitive nor culturally-insensitive. A product which is culturally sensitive is a product in which the product characteristics (either tangible or intangible) reflect an aspect of customs, tradition, and/or social norms in the country.

Are these product, culturally sensitive or insensitive? Please note the following products in terms of your view of their cultural sensitivity.

	too culturally sensitive	somewhat culturally sensitive	in- between	somewhat culturally insensitive	too culturally insensitive
1) sweaters	1	2	3	4	5
2) men's shirt	1	2	3	4	5
3) dress shoes	1	2	3	4	5
4) running shoes	1	2	3	4	5
5) after-shave lotion	1	2	3	4	5
6) lipstick	1	2	3	4	5
7) perfume	1	2	3	4	5
8) electric razor	1	2	3	4	5
9) sport watches	1	2	3	4	5
10) baby diapers	1	2	3	4	5
11) cream soup	1	2	3	4	5
12) coffee	1	2	3	4	5
13) diet pills	1	2	3	4	5
14) cold medicine	1	2	3	4	5
15) deodorant	1	2	3	4	5

	too culturally sensitive	somewhat culturally sensitive	in between	somewhat culturally insensitive	too culturally insensitive
16) calculators	1	2	3	4	5
17) walkman stereo	1	2	3	4	5
18) soda	1	2	3	4	5
19) exercise equipment	1	2	3	4	5
20) CD players	1	2	3	4	5
21) sun-glasses	1	2	3	4	5
22) fishing rod	1	2	3	4	5
23) golf club	1	2	3	4	5
24) men's suit	1	2	3	4	5
25) neck ties	1	2	3	4	5
26) socks	1	2	3	4	5
27) fountain-pen	1	2	3	4	5
28) computer software	1	2	3	4	5
29) computer	1	2	3	4	5
30) vacuum cleaner	1	2	3	4	5
31) kitchen knife	1	2	3	4	5
32) humidifier	1	2	3	4	5
33) refrigerator	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you.

Appendix C: Main Test Measures

SURVEY ON INTERNATIONAL MARKETING DECISIONS

Thank you for participating in this research. The purpose of this research is to identify how MBA students with business experience make marketing standardization vs. adaptation decisions.

Standardization is defined as using the same product and same promotion strategy worldwide.

Adaptation is defined as modifying the product and the promotion strategy on a country-by-country basis.

Please assume that you are a marketing manager in a global company who is responsible for making strategic marketing decisions for a particular product worldwide. We will specify several products in this survey questionnaire to make a standardization vs. adaptation decision. Four scenarios will be described to you. After reading each scenario, please make a standardization vs. adaptation decision as instructed.

All responses from the completed questionnaire will be treated anonymously and confidentially. It may take about 20 minutes or less to complete the questionnaire. There is no right or wrong answer in this questionnaire. Please answer all questions completely and honestly. Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Please try to remember the definition of standardization and adaptation before you get started. To reiterate, standardization of a product refers to using the same product strategy (same ingredients, design, brand name, and packaging) worldwide. Standardization of a promotion refers to using the same promotion strategy (same advertising message, positioning, and media strategy) worldwide. Adaptation of product and/or promotion refers to modifying the product and/or promotion strategies on a country-by-country basis.

If you are a foreign student, please think of your own country whenever U.S.A. is mentioned. At the end of the questionnaire, please indicate your nationality.

Scenario One

Assume you are working for a large U.S. company with subsidiaries worldwide, which has considerable international business experience. Its major product is diet pills. In the world market for diet pills, competition is moderate and technological change seems to be moderately stable. Your company is now focusing on marketing diet pills in Country A.

What is Country A? Country A can be described as follows: It has a language that shares many parts of your language and belongs to the same language family. In other words, the language is not too foreign. Business people in Country A emphasize written contracts and communications as opposed to informal contracts and communications. Generally, interactions between business partners are strictly confined to business matters as opposed to both business and personal matters. The country's government plays a limited role in business, so private business is relatively unregulated. The channels of distribution are usually short and wholesalers are usually specialized. As with other business relationships, relationships between channel members are strictly business relationships, not personal ones. Market research shows your decision to standardize or adapt diet pills and its promotion in Country A will have little impact on consumers' short-term demand for diet pills in Country A.

Based on the above scenario, please answer the following questions by circling the appropriate number.

1. Would you standardize or adapt diet pills for Country A ?

strongly inclined to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly inclined to standardize
strongly likely to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly likely to standardize
strongly motivated to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly motivated to standardize

2. Would you standardize or adapt the promotion of diet pills for Country A ?

strongly inclined to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly inclined to standardize
strongly likely to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly likely to standardize
strongly motivated to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly motivated to standardize

The following are questions about your perceptions of your country (U.S.A.) versus Country A. Please don't turn back the page to look over the scenario again. We'd like you to answer these questions from memory. Please respond to the following questions by circling the appropriate number.

1. How similar or dissimilar do you think Country A is to the U.S.A.?

	extremely similar	very similar	somewhat similar	neither similar nor dissimilar	somewhat dissimilar	very dissimilar	extremely dissimilar
language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
business practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
political/legal system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
marketing infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. While you were reading the description of Country A, did you respond to the questions with a specific country in mind?

1. No 2. Yes (please specify) _____

Scenario Two

Assume you are working for a large U.S. company, with subsidiaries worldwide, which has a considerable amount of international business experience. Its major product is diet pills. In the world market for diet pills, competition is moderate and technological change seems to moderately stable. Your company is now focusing on marketing diet pills in Country B.

What is Country B? Country B can be described as follows: It has a language that shares few parts of your language and belongs to a different language family. In other words, the language is foreign. Business people in Country B emphasize informal contracts and communications as opposed to written contracts and communications. Generally, interactions between business partners are not confined to business matters, they involve personal matters too. This country's government plays an important role in private business in terms of license, control, supervision, and incentives. The distribution network is long and complex, wholesalers provide various functions, and relationships between channel members are based on personal relationships as well as business relationships. Market research shows your decision to standardize or adapt diet pills and its promotion in Country B will have little impact on consumers' short-term demand for diet pills in Country B.

Based on the above scenario, please answer the following questions by circling the appropriate number.

1. Would you standardize or adapt diet pills for Country B ?

strongly inclined to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly inclined to standardize
strongly likely to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly likely to standardize
strongly motivated to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly motivated to standardize

2. Would you standardize or adapt the promotion of diet pills for Country B ?

strongly inclined to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly inclined to standardize
strongly likely to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly likely to standardize
strongly motivated to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly motivated to standardize

The following are questions about your perceptions of your country (U.S.A.) versus Country B. Please don't turn back the page to look over the scenario again. We'd like you to answer these questions from memory. Please respond to the following questions by circling the appropriate number.

1. How similar or dissimilar do you think Country B is to the U.S.A. ?

	extremely similar	very similar	somewhat similar	neither similar nor dissimi- lar	somewhat dissimilar	very dissimi- lar	extremely dissimilar
language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
business practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
political/legal system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
marketing infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. While your were reading the description of Country B, did you respond to the questions with a specific country in mind?

1. No 2. Yes (please specify) _____

Scenario Three

Assume you are working for a large U.S. company with subsidiaries worldwide, which has considerable international business experience. Its major product is infant formula. In the world market for infant formula, competition is moderate and technological change seems to be moderately stable. Your company is now focusing on marketing infant formula in Country A.

What is Country A? Country A can be described as follows: It has a language that shares many parts of your language and belongs to the same language family. In other words, the language is not too foreign. Business people in Country A emphasize written contracts and communications as opposed to informal contracts and communications. Generally, interactions between business partners are strictly confined to business matters as opposed to both business and personal matters. The country's government plays a limited role in business, so private business is relatively unregulated. The channels of distribution are usually short and wholesalers are usually specialized. As with other business relationships, relationships between channel members are strictly business relationships, not personal ones. Market research shows your decision to standardize or adapt the infant formula and its promotion in Country A will have little impact on consumers' short-term demand for the infant formula in Country A.

Based on the above scenario, please answer the following questions by circling the appropriate number.

1. Would you standardize or adapt the infant formula for Country A ?

strongly inclined to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly inclined to standardize
strongly likely to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly likely to standardize
strongly motivated to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly motivated to standardize

2. Would you standardize or adapt the promotion of the infant formula for Country A ?

strongly inclined to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly inclined to standardize
strongly likely to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly likely to standardize
strongly motivated to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly motivated to standardize

The following are questions about your perceptions of your country (U.S.A.) versus Country A. Please don't turn back the page to look over the scenario again. We'd like you to answer these questions from memory. Please respond the following questions by circling the appropriate number.

1. How similar or dissimilar do you think Country A is to the U.S.A.?

	extremely similar	very similar	somewhat similar	neither similar nor dissimilar	somewhat dissimilar	very dissimilar	extremely dissimilar
language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
business practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
political/legal system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
marketing infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. While you were reading the description of Country A, did you respond to the questions with a specific country in mind?

1. No 2. Yes (please specify) _____

Scenario Four

Assume you are working for a large U.S. company, with subsidiaries worldwide, which has a considerable amount of international business experience. Its major product is infant formula. In the world market for infant formula, competition is moderate and technological change seems to be moderately stable. Your company is now focusing on marketing infant formula in Country B.

What is Country B? Country B can be described as follows: It has a language that shares few parts of your language and belongs to a different language family. In other words, the language is foreign. Business people in Country B emphasize informal contracts and communications as opposed to written contracts and communications. Generally, interactions between business partners are not confined to business matters, they involve personal matters too. This country's government plays an important role in private business in terms of license, control, supervision, and incentives. The distribution network is long and complex, wholesalers provide various functions, and relationships between channel members are based on personal relationships as well as business relationships. Market research shows your decision to standardize or adapt the infant formula and its promotion in Country B will have little impact on consumers' short-term demand for the infant formula in Country B.

Based on the above scenario, please answer the following questions by circling the appropriate number.

1. Would you standardize or adapt the infant formula for Country B ?

strongly inclined to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly inclined to standardize
strongly likely to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly likely to standardize
strongly motivated to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly motivated to standardize

2. Would you standardize or adapt the promotion of the infant formula for Country B ?

strongly inclined to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly inclined to standardize
strongly likely to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly likely to standardize
strongly motivated to adapt	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	strongly motivated to standardize

The following are questions about your perceptions of your country (U.S.A.) versus Country B. Please don't turn back the page to look over the scenario again. We'd like you to answer these questions from memory. Please answer the following questions by circling the appropriate number.

1. How similar or dissimilar do you think Country B is to the U.S.A. ?

	extremely similar	very similar	somewhat similar	neither similar nor dissimilar	somewhat dissimilar	very dissimilar	extremely dissimilar
language	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
business practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
political/legal system	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
marketing infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. While you were reading the description of Country B, did you respond to the questions with a specific country in mind?

1. No 2. Yes (please specify) _____

Orientation to International Marketing

The following are questions regarding your opinions about marketing in foreign markets. Please indicate which course of action is more important. Place a check mark(V) next to the course of action which you think is more important.

1. I believe the primary mission of the multinational corporation operating in a foreign country is:
 - To maximize short-term profits from that country.
 - To enhance the well-being of target consumers of that country.

2. Regarding organizational stakeholders of the multinational corporation operating in foreign countries (e.g., local government, local community, local environment), I believe:
 - The impact of a product on the local community and environment is of secondary importance compared to short-term profitability of the product.
 - Reducing potential negative side-effects to the local community and environment is major responsibility of the multinational corporation.

3. Regarding market selection of a product in a foreign country, I believe:
 - The multinational corporation should target the most profitable market segment in that country.
 - The multinational corporation should target market segments which have greatest potential to enhance the well-being of target consumers in that country.

4. Regarding any negative social impact of a product in a foreign country, I believe:
 - Any negative social impact resulting from use of the product is mainly responsibility of the product users in that country. The multinational corporation should simply abide by the government regulations of that country.
 - The multinational corporation should avoid market segments of a foreign country which are likely to be negatively affected by product exposure and/or use, even if these markets are profitable.

5. I believe that the multinational corporation in a foreign country should develop new products:
 - To maximize short-term profit from that country.
 - To enhance the well-being of consumers in that country.

6. In developing a new product, the multinational corporation should design a product to:
 - Minimize manufacturing cost in the local country.
 - Maximize safety to the local environment.

7. I believe the pricing policy of the multinational corporation in a foreign country should be based on:

- Production cost.
- Price affordability of customers in the local country.

8. Regarding competition, I believe:

- Sometimes, it is necessary for the multinational corporation to set a low price to drive local competition out of business.
- The multinational corporation should try to cooperate with local competitors to better serve the local consumers.

9. With respect to distribution in a foreign country, I believe:

- It is acceptable for the multinational corporation to distribute excess inventory through unauthorized dealers in that foreign country.
- The multinational corporation should use channels to maximize product accessibility to local consumers.

10. Regarding channel members within a foreign country, I believe:

- The multinational corporation operating in a foreign country should strive to gain power over channel members in that foreign country.
- The multinational corporation should treat channel members in a foreign country as vital stakeholders of the firm.

11. Regarding media selection for the promotion of a product in a foreign country, I believe:

- The multinational corporation should focus on selecting the most cost efficient media vehicles.
- The multinational corporation should select media based on the social value of its programming content.

12. Regarding message decisions in promotion of a firm operating in a foreign country, I believe:

- The multinational corporation should emphasize only the positive aspects of its product.
- The multinational corporation should inform target consumers about both positive and negative aspects of its product.

Moral Opinions

The following questions are about your opinions concerning how people should deal with controversial moral issues. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by circling the appropriate number.

	strongly disagree	some- what disagree	slightly disagree	neither disagree nor agree	slightly agree	some- what agree	strongly agree
1. A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm another person even to a small degree.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Risk to another person should never be tolerated, irrespective of how small the risk might be.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The existence of potential harm to others is always wrong, irrespective of the benefits to be gained.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. One should never psychologically or physically harm another person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. One should not perform an action which might threaten in any way the dignity and welfare of another individual.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. If an action could harm an innocent other, then it should not be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Deciding whether or not to perform an act by balancing the positive consequences of the act against the negative consequences of the act is immoral.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The dignity and welfare of people should be the most important concern in any society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. It is never necessary to sacrifice the well-being of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Moral actions are those which closely match ideals of the most "perfect" action.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	slightly disagree	neither disagree nor agree	slightly agree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
11. There are no ethical principles that are so important that they should be a part of any code of ethics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 'What is ethical' varies from one situation and society to another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Moral standards should be seen individualistic; what one person considers to be moral may be judged to be immoral by another person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Different types of moralities can not be compared as to "rightness".	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Questions of what is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Moral standards are simply personal rules which indicate how a person should behave, and are not to be applied in making judgments of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Ethical consideration in interpersonal relations are so complex that individuals should be allowed to formulate their own individual codes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12

	strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	slightly disagree	neither disagree nor agree	slightly agree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
18. Rigidly codifying an ethical position that prevents certain types of actions could stand in the way of better human relations and adjustment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. No rules concerning lying can be formulated: Whether a lie is permissible or not permissible totally depends upon situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Whether a lie is judged to be moral or immoral depends upon the circumstances surrounding the action.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Opinions About Countries

The following questions are about your attitude toward your country and other countries. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by circling the appropriate number.

	strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	slightly disagree	neither disagree nor agree	slightly agree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
1. Patriotism and loyalty are the first and most important requirement of a good citizen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Minor forms of military training, obedience, and discipline, such as drill, marching, and simple commands, should be made part of the elementary school education system.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	strongly disagree	somewhat disagree	slightly disagree	neither disagree nor agree	slightly agree	somewhat agree	strongly agree
3. The main threat to basic American institutions during this century come from the infiltration of foreign ideas, doctrines, and agitators.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. If a person won't fight for his country, he deserves a severe punishment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. The only guarantee of future peace is to wipe out war-minded countries and to keep the rest under careful control.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. There will always be wars, because, for one thing, there always will be races who ruthlessly try to grab more than their share.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. If our people and foreigners are selling the same thing, I would go out of the way and buy it from our people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. The highest duty of a man is to fight for the glory and power of one's own country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I am for my country, right or wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. It is shame for our citizens to marry foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. In general, our people are more creative than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Product Familiarity

Followings are questions on your familiarity with the two products used in the scenario upfront.

1. Compared to the average person, how much do you think you are familiar with the following products?

	very much unfamiliar				neither unfamiliar or nor familiar			very much familiar
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
diet pills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
infant formula	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

2. Compared to the average person, how much do you think you are familiar with the marketing practices of the following products?

	very much unfamiliar				neither unfamiliar nor familiar			very much familiar
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
diet pills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
infant formula	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Demographics

The following questions are about demographics. The information will be used only for classification purposes.

1. Your Gender: ___ female ___ male
2. Your Age: ())
3. Business Experience: () years
4. International Business Experience: () years
5. Citizenship: ___ U.S. citizen ___ others (please specify) ())
6. If you are a U.S. citizen, what is your national heritage? What are the countries of your parents, grand parents etc.? Please specify. ()) ())

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THIS SURVEY

국제 마케팅 의사결정에 관한 설문지

본 연구에 참가해주셔서 감사합니다. 이연구의 목적은 비즈니스에 경험이 있는 분이나 또는 경영대학원 과정의 학생들이 어떻게 표준화 및 적응화결정을 하는지 알아보기 위한 것입니다. 표준화란 다국적 기업이 전세계적으로 동일한 제품과 판촉을 이용하는 것을 의미하며, 적용화란 다국적 기업이 각국별로 다른 제품과 판촉을 이용하는 것을 의미 합니다.

귀하께서 특정제품에 대한 전략적 결정을 내리는 多國的 기업의 관리자라고 생각하여주십시오. 이 설문에서 몇가지의 구체적인 제품들이 제시될 것입니다. 본 설문지에 기술된 네 가지 가설적인 상황을 보시고, 각각에 대한 표준화 또는 적응화의 결정을 내려주시기 바랍니다.

모든 완성된 설문은 익명으로 비밀리에 처리될 것입니다. 이 설문의 응답에 약 20 분정도가 소요될 것입니다. 이 설문에 출고 그른 답은 없습니다. 본 설문 이 모든 문항에 빠짐없이 솔직하게 응답해주시기 바랍니다. 귀하의 시간과 협조에 감사를 드립니다.

이 설문을 시작하시기전에 표준화와 적응화에 대한 정의를 기억하여주십시오. 제품의 표준화란 전 세계적으로 동일한 제품전략 (같은 원료, 디자인, 상표명, 그리고 포장)을 사용하는 것을 의미하며, 판촉의 표준화란 전세계적으로 동일한 판촉전략 (같은 광고 메시지, 포지셔닝, 그리고 미체전략)을 사용하는 것을 의미합니다. 제품이나 판촉의 적용화란 각 국별로 다른 제품이나 판촉전략을 사용하는 것을 의미합니다.

시나리오 1

귀하께서 전세계에 지사를 두고있고, 국제경영의 경험이 상당한 정도 있는 대규모의 한국 기업에서 근무한다고 생각하여 주십시오. 이 회사의 주력제품은 체중 조절용 알약 (diet pills)입니다. 이 체중 조절용 알약의 세계 시장에는 보통정도의 경쟁과 기술적 변화가 있습니다. 귀하의 회사는 이 체중 조절용 알약 제품을 B 국가에 판매하려 하고 있습니다.

B 국가는 다음과 같이 묘사될 수 있습니다: B 국의 언어는 귀하의 언어와 많은 부분 유사하며, 같은 語族에 속합니다. B 국의 비즈니스맨들은 비공식적인 계약과 대화들, 문서를 통한 계약이나 대화보다, 중시합니다. 일반적으로, 사업하는 사람들간의 관계는 사업상의 관계에 국한되지 않고 개인적인 관계도 포함합니다. 이 나라 정부는 허가, 통제 및 감독, 그리고 인센티브의 제공 등 사기업에 많은 부분 관여하고 있습니다. 유통경로는 길고 복잡하며, 도매상은 다양한 기능을 수행합니다. 유통 경로 구성원간의 관계는 사업적인 관계일 뿐 아니라 개인적 관계이기도 합니다. 한 시장조사 결과에 따르면, 표준화 혹은 적응화에 따라 B 국 소비자의 이 체중조절용 알약 제품에 대한 단기 수요는 큰 영향을 받지는 않습니다.

위의 시나리오에 근거하여, 귀하의 생각과 일치하는 곳에 동그라미 표시하여 주시기 바랍니다.

1. 귀하는 위의 체중조절용 알약 제품을 B 국가에서 표준화 혹은 적응화 하시겠습니까?

매우 적응화 하고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 하고 싶다
매우 적응화 할 경향이 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 할 경향이 있다
적응화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	표준화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다

2. 귀하는 이 체중조절용 알약의 판촉을 B 국가에서 표준화 혹은 적응화 하시겠습니까?

매우 적응화 하고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 하고 싶다
매우 적응화 할 경향이 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 할 경향이 있다
적응화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	표준화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다

다음은 한국과 B 국가에 대한 귀하가 느끼시는 차이에 대한 질문입니다. 위의 시나리오를 다시 보지 마시고 아래의 질문에 응답하여 주시기 바랍니다. 귀하의 생각과 일치하는 번호에 동그라미로 표시해 주십시오.

1. 한국과 비교하여, B 국가가 얼마나 유사 혹은 상이하다고 생각하십니까?

	극도로 유사하다							극도로 상이하다						
언어	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
商 관습	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
정치/법률 제도	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
마케팅 下部구조	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. B 국에 대한 위의 시나리오를 읽으실 때, 어떤 구체적인 나라를 염두에 두고 응답하셨습니까?

1. 아니오 2. 예 (명시해 주십시오) _____

시나리오 2

귀하께서 전세계에 지사를 두고있고, 국제경영의 경험이 상당한 정도 있는 대규모의 한국 기업에서 근무한다고 생각하여 주십시오. 이 회사의 주력제품은 체중 조절용 알약 (diet pills)입니다. 이 체중 조절용 알약의 세계 시장에는 보통정도의 경쟁과 기술적 변화가 있습니다. 귀하의 회사는 이 체중 조절용 알약 제품을 A 국가에 판매하려 하고 있습니다.

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1. 귀하는 이 체중 조절용 알약 제품을 A 국가에서 표준화 혹은 적용화 하시겠습니까?

매우 적용화 하고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 하고 싶다
매우 적용화 할 경향이 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 할 경향이 있다
적용화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	표준화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다

2. 귀하는 이 체중 조절용 알약의 판촉을 A 국가에서 표준화 혹은 적용화 하시겠습니까?

매우 적용화 하고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 하고 싶다
매우 적용화 할 경향이 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 할 경향이 있다
적용화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	표준화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다

다음은 한국과 A 국가에 대한 귀하가 느끼시는 차이에 대한 질문입니다. 위의 시나리오2를 다시 보지 마시고 아래의 질문에 응답하여 주시기 바랍니다. 귀하의 생각과 일치하는 번호에 동그라미로 표시해 주십시오.

1. 한국과 비교하여, A 국가가 얼마나 유사 혹은 상이하다고 생각하십니까?

	극도로 유사하다							극도로 상이하다
언어	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
商 관습	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
정치/법률 제도	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
마케팅 下部구조	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

2. A 국에 대한 위의 시나리오를 읽으실 때, 어떤 구체적인 나라를 염두에 두고 응답하셨습니까?

1. 아니요 2. 예 (명시해 주십시오) _____

시나리오 3

귀하께서 전세계에 지사를 두고있고, 국제경영의 경험이 상당한 정도 있는 대규모의 한국 기업에서 근무한다고 생각하여 주십시오. 이 회사의 주력제품은 유아용 분유 (infant formula)입니다. 이 유아용 분유제품의 세계 시장에는 보통정도의 경쟁과 기술적 변화가 있습니다. 귀하의 회사는 이 유아용 분유 제품을 B 국가에 판매하려 하고 있습니다.

B 국가는 다음과 같이 묘사될 수 있습니다. B 국의 언어는 귀하의 언어와 많은 부분 유사하며, 같은 語族에 속합니다. B 국의 비즈니스맨들은 비공식적인 계약과 대화를, 문서를 통한 계약이나 대화보다, 중시합니다. 일반적으로, 사업하는 사람들간의 관계는 사업상의 관계에 국한되지 않고 개인적인 관계도 포함합니다. 이 나라 정부는 허가, 통제 및 감독, 그리고 인센티브의 제공등 사기업에 많은 부분 관여하고 있습니다. 유통경로는 길고 복잡하며, 도매상은 다양한 기능을 수행합니다. 유통 경로 구성원간의 관계는 사업적인 관계일 뿐 아니라 개인적 관계이기도 합니다. 한 시장조사 결과에 따르면, 표준화 혹은 적응화에 따라 B 국 소비자의 이 유아용 분유 제품에 대한 단기 수요는 큰 영향을 받지 않습니다.

위의 시나리오에 근거하여, 귀하의 생각과 일치하는 곳에 동그라미 표시하여 주시기 바랍니다.

1. 귀하는 위의 유아용 분유 제품을 B 국가에서 표준화 혹은 적응화 하시겠습니까?

매우 적응화 하고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			매우 표준화 하고 싶다
매우 적응화 할 경향이 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			매우 표준화 할 경향이 있다
적용화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			표준화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다

2. 귀하는 이 유아용 분유의 판촉을 B 국가에서 표준화 혹은 적응화 하시겠습니까?

매우 적응화 하고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			매우 표준화 하고 싶다
매우 적응화 할 경향이 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			매우 표준화 할 경향이 있다
적용화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			표준화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다

다음은 한국과 B 국가에 대한 귀하가 느끼시는 차이에 대한 질문입니다. 위의 시나리오3을 다시 보지 마시고 아래의 질문에 응답하여 주시기 바랍니다. 귀하의 생각과 일치하는 번호에 동그라미도 표시해 주십시오.

1. 한국과 비교하여, B 국가가 얼마나 유사 혹은 상이하다고 생각하십니까?

		극도로 유사하다									극도로 상이하다
언어	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
商 관습	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
정치/법률 제도	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
마케팅 下部구조	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				

2. B 국에 대한 위의 시나리오를 읽으실 때, 어떤 구체적인 나라를 염두에 두고 응답하셨습니다?

1. 아니오 2. 예 (명시해 주십시오) _____

시나리오 4

귀하께서 전세계에 지사를 두고있고, 국제경영의 경험이 상당한 정도 있는 대규모의 한국 기업에서 근무한다고 생각하여 주십시오. 이 회사의 주력제품은 유아용 분유 (infant formula) 입니다. 이 유아용 분유의 세계 시장에는 보통정도의 경쟁과 기술적 변화가 있습니다. 귀하의 회사는 이 유아용 분유 제품을 A 국가에 판매하려 하고 있습니다.

A 국가는 다음과 같이 묘사될 수 있습니다: A 국가의 언어는 귀하의 언어와 많은 부분 상이 하며, 다른 語族에 속합니다. A 국의 비즈니스 멘들은 문서 계약과 문서를 통한 대화를 비 공식적인 계약이나 대화보다 중시합니다. 사업하는 사람들 끼리의 관계는 개인적이기라기 보다는 사업상의 관계에 국한됩니다. 이 나라 정부는 대기업에 거의 관여치 않고 규제가 적은 편입니다. 유통경로는 대개 짧고, 도매상은 보통 전문화 되어 있습니다. 유통 경로 구성원끼리의 관계도 개인적이기보다는 사업상의 관계일 뿐입니다. 한 시장조사 결과에 따르면, 표준화 혹은 적용화에 따라 A 국 소비자의 이 유아용 분유 제품에 대한 단기 수요는 큰 영향을 받지 않습니다.

위의 시나리오에 근거하여, 귀하의 생각과 일치하는 곳에 동그라미 표시하여 주시기 바랍니다.

1. 귀하는 이 유아용 분유 제품을 A 국가에서 표준화 혹은 적용화 하시겠습니까?

매우 적용화 하고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 하고 싶다
매우 적용화 할 경향이 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 할 경향이 있다
적용화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	표준화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다

2. 귀하는 이 유아용 분유의 판촉을 A 국가에서 표준화 혹은 적용화 하시겠습니까?

매우 적용화 하고 싶다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 하고 싶다
매우 적용화 할 경향이 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	매우 표준화 할 경향이 있다
적용화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	표준화 하도록 강하게 자극 받을 것 같다

다음은 한국과 A 국가에 대한 귀하가 느끼시는 차이에 대한 질문입니다. 위의 시나리오4를 다시 보지 마시고 아래의 질문에 응답하여 주시기 바랍니다. 귀하의 생각과 일치하는 번호에 동그라미로 표시해 주십시오.

1. 한국과 비교하여, A 국가가 얼마나 유사 혹은 상이하다고 생각하십니까?

	극도로 유사하다							극도로 상이하다
언어	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
商 관습	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
정치/법률 제도	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
마케팅 下部구조	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

2. A 국에 대한 위의 시나리오를 읽으실 때, 어떤 구체적인 나라를 염두에 두고 응답하셨습니까?

1. 아니오 2. 예 (명시해 주십시오) _____

해외 시장에서의 마케팅에 관한 견해

아래의 질문들은 해외 시장에서의 마케팅에 관한 귀하의 견해입니다. 귀하가 생각하시기에 더욱 중요하다고 생각되는 항목에 체크 표시(V)하여 주십시오.

1. 해외 현지에서 활동하는 다국적 기업의 마케팅의 주 사명은:
___ 그 나라로부터의 단기이익을 극대화하는 일이다.
___ 그 나라 목표 고객의 복지(福祉)를 향상시키는 일이다.
2. 해외 현지에서 활동하는 다국적 기업의 이해집단들 (그 나라 정부, 지역사회, 환경등)에 대하여:
___ 제품의 그 나라 지역사회, 환경등에 미치는 영향은 그 제품의 단기 수익성에 비하면 부차적인 문제이다.
___ 그 나라 지역사회, 환경등에의 부작용을 줄이는 것이 다국적 기업의 주요 책임중의 하나이다.
3. 다국적 기업의 해외 현지시장에서의 표적시장 (target market) 선정에 관하여:
___ 그 나라에서 가장 수익성이 높은 표적시장을 선택하여야 한다.
___ 그 나라에서 목표고객의 복지를 가장 높일 수 있는 표적시장을 선택하여야 한다.
4. 제품이 초래할 수 있는 해외시장에서의 부정적인 사회적 영향에 대하여:
___ 제품사용에 따른 부정적인 사회적 영향은 그 나라 제품사용자의 책임이다.
다국적 기업은 단지 그 나라 정부 규정을 준수하기만 하면 된다.
___ 다국적 기업은 수익성이 높다하더라도, 제품에의 노출/사용에 의하여 부정적인 영향이 있을 수 있는 해외 표적시장에는 제품을 판매하여서는 않는다.
5. 해외 현지시장에서의 다국적 기업의 신제품 개발의 주 목적은:
___ 그 나라로부터의 단기이익 극대화이다.
___ 그 나라 고객의 복지(福祉)향상이다.
6. 해외 현지시장에서의 신제품 개발에 있어서 다국적 기업은:
___ 그 나라에서의 생산 원가를 최소화하는데 주력하여야 한다.
___ 그 나라 환경의 보호에 주력하여야 한다.
7. 해외 현지시장에서의 다국적 기업의 가격정책은:
___ 생산 원가에 기초하여야 한다.
___ 그 나라 소비자의 경제적 부담을 줄이는 데 기초하여야 한다.
8. 해외 현지시장에서의 다국적 기업의 경쟁에 대하여:
___ 현지 경쟁업체를 제거하기 위한 저 가격 정책도 가끔은 필요하다.
___ 현지 소비자를 위하여 현지 경쟁업체와 협력하는 것이 필요하다.
9. 해외 현지시장에서의 유통에 대하여:
___ 다국적 기업이 현지의 비공식 유통경로를 통하여 잉여재고를 처리해도 괜찮다.
___ 다국적 기업은 현지 소비자가 최대한 쉽게 물건을 구하도록 경로관리를 하여야 한다.
10. 해외 현지시장의 경로 구성원에 대하여:
___ 다국적 기업이 현지 경로구성원들에 대한 힘 (power)을 갖는 것이 중요하다.
___ 현지 경로 구성원들은 다국적 기업의 중요한 이해집단으로 간주되어야 한다.
11. 해외 현지관측의 매체 (media)선정에 대하여:
___ 다국적 기업은 가장 비용적으로 효율적인 매체를 선정하여야 한다.
___ 다국적 기업은 그 매체가 담고있는 프로그램이 얼마나 사회적으로 바람직한 지에 따라서 매체를 선정하여야 한다.

12. 해외 현지판촉의 홍보 메시지 (message) 결정에 대하여:
 — 다국적 기업은 자사 제품의 긍정적인 측면만을 강조하여야 한다.
 — 다국적 기업은 자사 제품의 긍정적인 측면과 부정적인 측면 모두를
 목표 고객에게 알려 주어야 한다.

윤리에 관한 견해

다음의 질문들은 자주 논란이 되는 윤리(倫理)적 문제를 어떻게 처리해야 하는 지에 대한 귀하의 견해에 관한 것입니다. 적절한 번호에 동그라미 표시함으로써 귀하가 동의하는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

	강하게 반대					강하게 찬성	
1. 각 개인은 결코 그들의 행동이 다른 사람들에게 조금이라도 의도적인 해가 되지 않도록 주의하여야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 타인에게 위험한 것은, 아무리 작은 위험이라도, 그냥 넘어가서는 안된다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 타인에게 해가 될 수 있는 것은, 그로부터의 이익이 있더라도 항상 나쁜 것이다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 누구도 남에게 신체적, 정신적으로 해를 가해서는 안된다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 누구도 타인의 존엄과 복지에 어떤 형태로든 해가될 수 있는 행위를 해서는 안된다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 만일 어떠한 행위가 무고한 타인에게 해가 될 수 있다면, 그 행위는 행해져서는 안된다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 어떤 행위 결과의 긍정적측면과 부정적 측면을 대조해보고 그행위의 실행 여부를 결정하는 것은 비도덕적이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 어떤 사회든, 그 사회 구성원들의 존엄과 복지가 가장 중요한 관심이 되어야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 타인의 복지를 희생시키는 것은 결코 필요하지 않다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 도덕적인 행위란 가장 '완벽한' 행위의 理想에 잘 부합하는 것이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 道徳律에 포함되어야 할 정도로 중요한 도덕적 행위기준이란 것은 존재하지 않는다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. '무엇이 도덕적인가' 하는 것은 그 사회와 상황에 따라 다르다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	강하게 반대			강하게 찬성			
13. 도덕적 기준은 각개인에 따라 다르다. 즉, 한 개인의 관점에서 도덕적인 것도 타인의 관점에서선 비도덕적일 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 서로 다른 종류의 도덕적 행위는 그 "옳음"의 정도에 따라 비교되어 질 수 없다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 무엇이 모든사람을 위해 올바른 것인가의 문제는, 무엇이 도덕적인가가 개인에 달려있으므로, 해결되어 질 수 없는 문제이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. 도덕적 기준은 단순히 한개인이 어떻게 행동해야 하느냐에 관한 개인적 기준일뿐, 타인을 판단 하는데 적용되어서는 안된다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 대인관계에 있어서의 윤리적 문제는 매우 복잡하므로, 각개인이 도덕적 행위 기준을 세우는 것이 허용되어야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 무조건 어떤 행위를 금지하는 도덕 조항을 만드는 것은 보다 나은 인간관계나 적용에 장애가 될 수 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. 거짓말에 대한 어떠한 규칙도 만들어질 수 없다. 어떤 거짓말이 허용되느냐의 여부는 전적으로 상황에 달려 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. 어떤 거짓말이 도덕적이냐의 여부는 그 행위를 둘러싼 여건에 달려 있다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

우리 나라와 다른 나라에 대한 견해

다음의 질문들은 한국과 다른 나라에 대한 귀하의 태도에 관한 것입니다. 적절한 번호에 동그라미 표시함으로써 귀하가 동의하는 정도를 표시하여 주십시오.

	강하게 반대			강하게 동의			
1. 애국심과 충성심은 훌륭한 국민의 가장 중요한 요건이 된다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 행진이나 간단한 명령 같은 악간의 군사훈련, 복종, 그리고 규율등은 초등교육의 일부로 포함되어야 한다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 금세기의 우리 기본적 사회제도에 관한 주요 위협은 외국의 사상, 원칙, 그리고 선동의 침투에서 비롯되었다 ..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 만일 한 개인이 조국을 위해 싸우기를 거부 한다면 그는 혹독한 처벌을 받아 마땅하다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

▶ 뒷면에 계속

	강하게 반대					강하게 동의	
5. 미래의 평화를 보장받는 길은 전쟁을 도발 하려는 나라들을 돌아내고, 나머지를 엄격한 통제하에 두는 일이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 무엇보다도 자기 몫보다 더 많이 차지하려는 민족 들이 항상 있기때문에 전쟁은 일어나기 마련이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 만일 우리 국민과 외국인이 똑 같은 물건을 판다면, 우리 국민으로 부터 사겠다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 국민의 가장 고귀한 의무는 조국의 영광과 힘을 위하여 싸우는 일이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 나는 옳든 그르든 항상 우리나라 편이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 우리나라 사람이 외국인과 결혼하는 것은 부끄러운 일이다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 전반적으로, 우리나라 사람들이 다른 나라사람들 보다 더 창의력이 뛰어나다	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

제품 친숙도

다음은 앞의 시나리오에 사용된 제품들에 관한 귀하의 觀熟한 정도에 관한 질문입니다.

1. 보통 사람들에 비하여, 귀하는 아래의 제품들에 얼마나 친숙하다고 생각하십니까?	전혀 친숙 하지 않음					매우 친숙함	
1)계중 조절용 알약	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2)유아용 분유	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 보통 사람들에 비하여, 귀하는 아래의 제품들의 마케팅 활동에 얼마나 친숙하다고 생각하십니까?	전혀 친숙 하지 않음					매우 친숙함	
1)계중 조절용 알약	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2)유아용 분유	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

인구 통계적 변수

다음은 인구통계학적 변수들에 대한 질문입니다. 여기에 대한 응답들은 자로분류 목적으로만 사
용될 것입니다.

1. 성별: ___ 여 ___ 남
2. 연령: () 세
3. 회사 및 사업 경력: () 년
4. 국제 경영 (비즈니스) 경력: () 년
5. 국적
___ 한국 ___ 기타 (명시해 주시기 바랍니다) ()

끝까지 응답해 주셔서 대단히 감사합니다

Appendix D: MANCOVA Results

Table 21-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Median Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			
		Lo	Lo	200	4.852	202	3.881	
		Lo	Hi	186	4.124	186	3.498	
		Hi	Lo	200	3.865	202	2.772	
		Hi	Hi	186	4.229	186	3.932	
							culture main effect (F = 9.22; p = .003)	(F = 5.16; p = .024)
							ethnocentrism main effect (F = .75; p = .387)	(F = 8.54; p = .004)
							interaction effect (F = 18.93; p = .000)	(F = 26.91; p = .000)
							covariate effect (F = 2.80; p = .095)	(F = 3.38; p = .067)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	202	4.835	201	4.078	
		Lo	Hi	185	3.969	184	3.707	
		Hi	Lo	202	3.792	201	2.864	
		Hi	Hi	185	4.204	184	3.783	
								culture main effect (F = 10.00; p = .002)
						ethnocentrism main effect (F = 1.98; p = .160)	(F = 4.96; p = .027)	
						interaction effect (F = 24.93; p = .000)	(F = 21.46; p = .000)	
						covariate effect (F = 1.45; p = .229)	(F = .02; p = .881)	
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			
		Lo	Lo	97	5.241	97	4.316	
		Lo	Hi	84	5.476	84	4.214	
		Hi	Lo	97	3.687	97	2.278	
		Hi	Hi	84	3.865	84	2.317	
							culture main effect (F = 120.20; p = .003)	(F = 146.65; p = .024)
							ethnocentrism main effect (F = 1.04; p = .310)	(F = .08; p = .774)
							interaction effect (F = .04; p = .841)	(F = .19; p = .665)
							covariate effect (F = .71; p = .401)	(F = 7.08; p = .009)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	97	5.203	97	4.440	
		Lo	Hi	85	5.263	84	4.480	
		Hi	Lo	97	3.708	97	2.344	
		Hi	Hi	85	3.624	84	2.496	
								culture main effect (F = 115.33; p = .000)
						ethnocentrism main effect (F = .01; p = .922)	(F = .18; p = .673)	
						interaction effect (F = .24; p = .621)	(F = .11; p = .737)	
						covariate effect (F = .09; p = .764)	(F = 1.03; p = .311)	
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			
		Lo	Lo	90	3.759	92	3.080	
		Lo	Hi	115	3.745	115	3.293	
		Hi	Lo	90	4.156	92	3.935	
		Hi	Hi	115	4.490	115	4.467	
							culture main effect (F = 8.14; p = .005)	(F = 23.87; p = .000)
							ethnocentrism main effect (F = .81; p = .369)	(F = 4.57; p = .034)
							interaction effect (F = .76; p = .385)	(F = .59; p = .443)
							covariate effect (F = .01; p = .938)	(F = .89; p = .347)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	91	3.795	91	3.297	
		Lo	Hi	114	3.629	113	3.493	
		Hi	Lo	91	4.015	91	3.982	
		Hi	Hi	114	4.480	113	4.180	
								culture main effect (F = 8.20; p = .005)
						ethnocentrism main effect (F = .66; p = .417)	(F = 1.25; p = .265)	
						interaction effect (F = 2.85; p = .093)	(F = .00; p = .995)	
						covariate effect (F = .00; p = .959)	(F = .07; p = .796)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 22-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Median Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	4.874	218	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
			Hi	217			
		Lo	Lo	159	3.994	170	3.610
			Hi	217	4.106	218	2.976
		Hi	Lo	169	4.041	170	3.755
			Hi				
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo		(F = 7.04; p = .008)		(F = 4.66; p = .031)
			Hi		(F = 10.34; p = .001)		(F = 4.98; p = .026)
		Lo	Lo	216	4.775	215	4.020
			Hi	171	3.973	170	3.733
		Hi	Lo	216	3.969	215	3.056
			Hi	171	4.019	170	3.653
					(F = 8.55; p = .004)		(F = 13.62; p = .000)
					(F = 5.89; p = .009)		(F = 1.45; p = .230)
			(F = 10.79; p = .001)		(F = 9.75; p = .002)		
			(F = .72; p = .397)		(F = .00; p = .952)		
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	5.554	95	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
			Hi	95			
		Lo	Lo	85	5.125	85	4.078
			Hi	95	4.014	95	2.379
		Hi	Lo	85	3.529	85	2.184
			Hi				
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo		(F = 118.05; p = .000)		(F = 150.60; p = .000)
			Hi		(F = 4.24; p = .041)		(F = 4.06; p = .045)
		Lo	Lo	95	5.404	95	4.611
			Hi	86	5.112	85	4.282
		Hi	Lo	95	3.730	95	2.347
			Hi	86	3.620	85	2.553
					(F = 124.01; p = .000)		(F = 146.48; p = .000)
					(F = .86; p = .354)		(F = .16; p = .686)
			(F = .41; p = .524)		(F = 2.60; p = .109)		
			(F = .12; p = .731)		(F = .72; p = .397)		
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	3.739	115	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
			Hi	115			
		Lo	Lo	91	3.729	91	3.538
			Hi	115	4.153	117	4.262
		Hi	Lo	91	4.106	91	4.139
			Hi				
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo		(F = 8.41; p = .004)		(F = 21.20; p = .000)
			Hi		(F = 1.50; p = .222)		(F = 1.35; p = .246)
		Lo	Lo	115	4.354	114	4.184
			Hi	91	4.158	91	3.967
		Hi	Lo	115	4.354	114	4.184
			Hi	91	4.158	91	3.967
					(F = 8.96; p = .003)		(F = 12.59; p = .000)
					(F = .39; p = .535)		(F = .46; p = .500)
			(F = 2.90; p = .090)		(F = 3.35; p = .069)		
			(F = .09; p = .769)		(F = .05; p = .822)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 23-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Thertile Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization			
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	139	4.053	140	4.050	
			Hi	141	4.052	141	3.444			
			Lo	139	3.908	140	2.783			
			Hi	141	4.418	141	4.076			
			culture main effect	(F = 6.23; p = .013)	(F = 3.79; p = .053)					
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	140	5.036	139	4.252			
			Hi	141	3.872	140	3.662			
			Lo	140	3.843	139	2.751			
			Hi	141	4.267	140	3.890			
			culture main effect	(F = 6.96; p = .009)	(F = 15.59; p = .000)					
								ethnocentrism main effect	(F = 4.52; p = .034)	(F = 3.42; p = .065)
								interaction effect	(F = 27.54; p = .000)	(F = 28.80; p = .000)
								covariate effect	(F = .11; p = .737)	(F = .04; p = .845)
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	52	5.327	52	4.442	
			Hi	68	5.363	68	4.167			
			Lo	52	3.814	52	2.295			
			Hi	68	3.775	68	2.216			
			culture main effect	(F = 67.34; p = .000)	(F = 98.34; p = .000)					
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	52	5.109	56	4.218			
			Hi	69	5.092	69	4.483			
			Lo	52	3.609	52	2.135			
			Hi	69	3.560	69	2.459			
			culture main effect	(F = 66.76; p = .000)	(F = 93.11; p = .000)					
								ethnocentrism main effect	(F = .02; p = .900)	(F = 2.05; p = .155)
								interaction effect	(F = .01; p = .933)	(F = .02; p = .890)
								covariate effect	(F = .03; p = .855)	(F = .61; p = .436)
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	70	3.748	72	2.991	
			Hi	71	3.629	71	3.531			
			Lo	70	4.229	72	3.958			
			Hi	71	4.338	71	4.282			
			culture main effect	(F = 5.89; p = .017)	(F = 12.19; p = .001)					
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	72	3.880	72	3.273			
			Hi	70	3.600	69	3.647			
			Lo	72	4.083	72	4.037			
			Hi	70	4.443	69	4.082			
			culture main effect	(F = 5.25; p = .023)	(F = 7.36; p = .008)					
								ethnocentrism main effect	(F = .03; p = .858)	(F = .93; p = .337)
								interaction effect	(F = 1.96; p = .164)	(F = .55; p = .458)
								covariate effect	(F = .01; p = .931)	(F = .02; p = .889)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 24-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Tertile Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	155	5.088	155	3.890
		Lo	Hi	141	4.054	142	3.664
		Hi	Lo	155	3.998	155	2.802
		Hi	Hi	141	3.955	142	3.789
						(F = 16.38; p = .000)	
					(F = 9.25; p = .003)		(F = 5.51; p = .020)
					(F = 11.37; p = .001)		(F = 13.54; p = .000)
					(F = 5.51; p = .020)		(F = 1.93; p = .166)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	155	4.978	154	4.255
		Lo	Hi	143	4.051	142	3.864
		Hi	Lo	155	3.787	154	2.842
		Hi	Hi	143	3.958	142	3.763
						(F = 21.59; p = .000)	
					(F = 4.66; p = .032)		(F = 3.23; p = .074)
				(F = 15.77; p = .000)		(F = 18.86; p = .000)	
				(F = .19; p = .664)		(F = .00; p = .970)	
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	77	5.558	77	4.576
		Lo	Hi	65	5.210	65	4.215
		Hi	Lo	77	4.030	77	2.240
		Hi	Hi	65	3.662	65	2.277
						(F = 91.61; p = .000)	
					(F = 2.14; p = .145)		(F = 2.59; p = .110)
					(F = .00; p = .949)		(F = .35; p = .553)
					(F = .03; p = .853)		(F = 6.16; p = .014)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	77	5.411	77	4.588
		Lo	Hi	66	5.086	65	4.390
		Hi	Lo	77	3.857	77	2.416
		Hi	Hi	66	3.535	65	2.513
						(F = 98.39; p = .000)	
					(F = 1.58; p = .197)		(F = .08; p = .774)
				(F = .00; p = .991)		(F = .67; p = .416)	
				(F = .00; p = .947)		(F = .19; p = .660)	
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	76	3.895	77	2.775
		Lo	Hi	91	3.729	91	3.538
		Hi	Lo	76	4.566	77	4.299
		Hi	Hi	91	4.106	91	4.139
						(F = 6.13; p = .014)	
					(F = 2.33; p = .129)		(F = 2.23; p = .137)
					(F = .49; p = .487)		(F = 4.48; p = .036)
					(F = .00; p = .958)		(F = .35; p = .552)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	75	3.720	74	3.234
		Lo	Hi	91	3.919	91	3.662
		Hi	Lo	75	4.396	74	4.324
		Hi	Hi	91	4.158	91	3.967
						(F = 5.32; p = .022)	
					(F = .01; p = .937)		(F = .03; p = .856)
				(F = 1.22; p = .271)		(F = 3.65; p = .058)	
				(F = .02; p = .880)		(F = .07; p = .785)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 25-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOL1; Median Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	196	4.466	196	3.743
			Hi	190	4.504	192	3.620
			Lo	196	4.151	196	3.413
			Hi	190	3.997	192	3.245
						(F = 9.50; p = .002)	
					(F = .31; p = .580)		(F = 1.23; p = .269)
					(F = .60; p = .438)		(F = .02; p = .883)
					(F = 3.74; p = .054)		(F = 3.89; p = .049)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	197	4.328	196	4.022
			Hi	190	4.502	189	3.778
			Lo	197	4.147	196	3.391
			Hi	190	3.846	189	3.235
						(F = 10.24; p = .001)	
					(F = .32; p = .569)		(F = 2.51; p = .114)
				(F = 3.30; p = .070)		(F = .09; p = .759)	
				(F = 1.54; p = .216)		(F = .02; p = .884)	
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	89	5.551	89	4.371
			Hi	92	5.152	92	4.170
			Lo	89	3.876	89	2.446
			Hi	92	3.652	92	2.181
						(F = 121.79; p = .008)	
					(F = 2.25; p = .136)		(F = 1.56; p = .214)
					(F = .37; p = .546)		(F = .04; p = .845)
					(F = .89; p = .407)		(F = 7.10; p = .008)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	90	5.333	90	4.633
			Hi	92	5.141	91	4.341
			Lo	90	3.870	90	2.444
			Hi	92	3.525	91	2.443
						(F = 112.37; p = .004)	
					(F = 1.50; p = .222)		(F = .90; p = .344)
				(F = .28; p = .699)		(F = .77; p = .381)	
				(F = .11; p = .739)		(F = .98; p = .325)	
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	113	3.708	113	3.354
			Hi	92	3.793	94	2.947
			Lo	113	4.375	113	4.113
			Hi	92	4.283	94	4.326
						(F = 9.28; p = .003)	
					(F = .03; p = .860)		(F = .51; p = .475)
					(F = .10; p = .757)		(F = 2.15; p = .145)
					(F = .05; p = .860)		(F = 2.11; p = .148)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	113	3.587	112	3.595
			Hi	92	3.801	92	3.127
			Lo	113	4.404	112	4.062
			Hi	92	4.101	92	4.116
						(F = 9.00; p = .003)	
					(F = .05; p = .821)		(F = 1.35; p = .246)
				(F = 1.92; p = .167)		(F = 2.02; p = .157)	
				(F = .11; p = .739)		(F = .00; p = .957)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 26-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Median Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization		
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	240	4.628	240	3.815
			Hi	133	3.396	135	3.622		
			Lo	240	4.110	240	3.212		
			Hi	133	3.992	135	3.440		
			culture main effect	(F = 10.11; p = .002)	(F = 5.85; p = .016)				
	QOL main effect	(F = 1.42; p = .235)	(F = .02; p = .900)						
	interaction effect	(F = .16; p = .693)	(F = 1.67; p = .197)						
	covariate effect	(F = 2.77; p = .097)	(F = 5.28; p = .022)						
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	240	4.631	239	4.079		
		Lo	Hi	136	4.154	135	3.595		
		Hi	Lo	240	3.993	239	3.272		
		Hi	Hi	136	3.990	135	3.378		
		culture main effect	(F = 8.36; p = .004)	(F = 11.41; p = .001)					
	QOL main effect	(F = 2.71; p = .101)	(F = 2.10; p = .148)						
interaction effect	(F = 2.91; p = .089)	(F = 3.78; p = .052)							
covariate effect	(F = 1.33; p = .249)	(F = .00; p = .990)							
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	124	5.414	124	4.269
			Hi	58	5.207	58	4.229		
			Lo	124	3.847	124	2.228		
			Hi	58	3.575	58	2.437		
			culture main effect	(F = 108.14; p = .008)	(F = 126.79; p = .000)				
	QOL main effect	(F = 1.15; p = .285)	(F = .39; p = .533)						
	interaction effect	(F = .04; p = .833)	(F = .26; p = .608)						
	covariate effect	(F = .76; p = .385)	(F = 7.31; p = .008)						
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	124	5.417	123	4.650		
		Lo	Hi	59	4.953	59	4.085		
		Hi	Lo	124	3.804	123	2.445		
		Hi	Hi	59	3.356	59	2.322		
		culture main effect	(F = 99.87; p = .000)	(F = 126.36; p = .000)					
	QOL main effect	(F = 4.93; p = .028)	(F = 4.13; p = .044)						
interaction effect	(F = .14; p = .710)	(F = 1.51; p = .221)							
covariate effect	(F = .15; p = .698)	(F = 1.57; p = .212)							
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	116	3.787	116	3.330
			Hi	75	3.769	77	3.113		
			Lo	116	4.391	116	4.264		
			Hi	75	4.316	77	4.195		
			culture main effect	(F = 7.32; p = .007)	(F = 20.79; p = .000)				
	QOL main effect	(F = .06; p = .801)	(F = .77; p = .382)						
	interaction effect	(F = .02; p = .894)	(F = .11; p = .738)						
	covariate effect	(F = .00; p = .990)	(F = 1.27; p = .261)						
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	116	3.790	116	3.474		
		Lo	Hi	77	3.619	76	3.215		
		Hi	Lo	116	4.195	116	4.138		
		Hi	Hi	77	4.476	76	4.197		
		culture main effect	(F = 10.32; p = .002)	(F = 17.82; p = .000)					
	QOL main effect	(F = .10; p = .749)	(F = .29; p = .592)						
interaction effect	(F = 1.32; p = .252)	(F = .67; p = .415)							
covariate effect	(F = .15; p = .703)	(F = .18; p = .672)							

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 27-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Median Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	222	4.559	223	3.768	
			Hi	160	4.404	161	3.661	
			Lo	222	4.128	223	3.262	
			Hi	160	3.997	161	3.414	
						(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
	culture main effect					(F = 9.39; p = .002)	(F = 5.02; p = .026)	
	QOL main effect					(F = 1.29; p = .258)	(F = .00; p = .970)	
	interaction effect					(F = .00; p = .989)	(F = .98; p = .324)	
	covariate effect					(F = 3.22; p = .074)	(F = 5.22; p = .023)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	221	4.403	219	4.003	
			Hi	162	4.440	162	3.770	
			Lo	221	3.952	219	3.139	
			Hi	162	4.049	162	3.523	
	culture main effect					(F = 9.80; p = .002)	(F = 14.65; p = .000)	
QOL main effect					(F = .33; p = .567)	(F = .36; p = .547)		
interaction effect					(F = .05; p = .823)	(F = 4.52; p = .034)		
covariate effect					(F = 2.17; p = .142)	(F = .00; p = .975)		
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	109	5.480	109	4.352	
			Hi	68	5.152	68	4.196	
			Lo	109	4.012	109	2.281	
			Hi	68	3.309	68	2.245	
	culture main effect					(F = 122.65; p = .008)	(F = 143.61; p = .000)	
	QOL main effect					(F = 6.29; p = .013)	(F = .05; p = .819)	
	interaction effect					(F = 1.58; p = .211)	(F = .13; p = .723)	
	covariate effect					(F = 1.17; p = .281)	(F = 7.94; p = .005)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	109	5.254	108	4.522	
			Hi	69	5.227	69	4.411	
			Lo	109	3.927	108	2.389	
			Hi	69	3.266	69	2.396	
	culture main effect					(F = 120.73; p = .000)	(F = 144.28; p = .000)	
	QOL main effect					(F = 2.29; p = .132)	(F = .03; p = .864)	
interaction effect					(F = 4.49; p = .036)	(F = .12; p = .732)		
covariate effect					(F = .01; p = .926)	(F = 1.64; p = .196)		
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	113	3.670	114	3.211	
			Hi	92	3.851	93	3.183	
			Lo	113	4.239	114	4.119	
			Hi	92	4.471	93	4.269	
	culture main effect					(F = 8.84; p = .003)	(F = 24.94; p = .000)	
	QOL main effect					(F = 1.37; p = .244)	(F = .02; p = .893)	
	interaction effect					(F = .02; p = .900)	(F = .06; p = .814)	
	covariate effect					(F = .01; p = .937)	(F = 1.58; p = .210)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	112	3.574	111	3.498	
			Hi	93	3.857	93	3.294	
			Lo	112	3.976	111	3.868	
			Hi	93	4.631	93	4.385	
	culture main effect					(F = 9.85; p = .002)	(F = 15.23; p = .000)	
	QOL main effect					(F = 6.70; p = .010)	(F = .66; p = .417)	
interaction effect					(F = .99; p = .322)	(F = 3.58; p = .060)		
covariate effect					(F = .00; p = .991)	(F = .09; p = .765)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 28-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Thertile Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
			Lo	Lo	153	4.449	153	3.695
			Lo	Hi	153	4.569	155	3.708
			Hi	Lo	153	4.187	153	3.383
			Hi	Hi	153	3.863	153	3.120
						culture main effect (F = 9.89; p = .002)		(F = 7.21; p = .008)
					QOL main effect (F = .65; p = .421)		(F = .63; p = .429)	
					interaction effect (F = 2.09; p = .150)		(F = .68; p = .411)	
					covariate effect (F = 8.69; p = .003)		(F = 2.06; p = .152)	
		Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	154	4.359	154	4.032
			Lo	Hi	154	4.595	153	3.885
			Hi	Lo	154	4.186	154	3.455
			Hi	Hi	154	3.755	153	3.150
						culture main effect (F = 11.91; p = .001)		(F = 16.95; p = .000)
					QOL main effect (F = .40; p = .530)		(F = 2.29; p = .131)	
				interaction effect (F = 5.16; p = .024)		(F = .24; p = .624)		
				covariate effect (F = .10; p = .752)		(F = .06; p = .802)		
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
			Lo	Lo	63	5.624	63	4.206
			Lo	Hi	62	5.204	62	4.043
			Hi	Lo	63	3.984	63	2.434
			Hi	Hi	62	3.511	62	2.097
						culture main effect (F = 87.63; p = .000)		(F = 96.37; p = .000)
					QOL main effect (F = 3.10; p = .081)		(F = 1.09; p = .299)	
					interaction effect (F = .02; p = .881)		(F = .21; p = .647)	
					covariate effect (F = 1.92; p = .168)		(F = 4.05; p = .046)	
		Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	64	5.453	64	4.802
			Lo	Hi	62	5.306	61	4.180
			Hi	Lo	64	3.781	64	2.521
			Hi	Hi	62	3.570	61	2.470
						culture main effect (F = 97.14; p = .000)		(F = 99.37; p = .000)
					QOL main effect (F = .38; p = .537)		(F = 2.13; p = .147)	
				interaction effect (F = .03; p = .852)		(F = 2.03; p = .156)		
				covariate effect (F = .02; p = .898)		(F = .00; p = .997)		
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
			Lo	Lo	55	3.533	55	3.467
			Lo	Hi	69	3.763	71	3.089
			Hi	Lo	55	4.188	55	3.885
			Hi	Hi	69	4.203	71	4.282
						culture main effect (F = 4.06; p = .046)		(F = 8.91; p = .003)
					QOL main effect (F = .23; p = .635)		(F = .00; p = .979)	
					interaction effect (F = .16; p = .693)		(F = 2.06; p = .154)	
					covariate effect (F = 2.96; p = .088)		(F = 2.97; p = .087)	
		Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	55	3.721	55	3.782
			Lo	Hi	70	3.881	70	3.348
			Hi	Lo	55	4.315	55	3.952
			Hi	Hi	70	4.071	70	4.019
						culture main effect (F = 2.46; p = .119)		(F = 2.94; p = .089)
					QOL main effect (F = .02; p = .892)		(F = .57; p = .450)	
				interaction effect (F = .65; p = .421)		(F = 1.05; p = .308)		
				covariate effect (F = 1.43; p = .234)		(F = .04; p = .837)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 29-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Thertile Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization		
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	99	4.468	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	99	3.542
			Hi	78	4.000	80	3.417		
			Lo	99	4.293	99	3.276		
			Hi	78	3.987	80	3.371		
			culture main effect		(F = .20; p = .658)		(F = .48; p = .491)		
			QOL main effect		(F = 3.73; p = .055)		(F = .02; p = .890)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	99	4.471	99	3.963		
			Hi	80	3.875	79	3.270		
			Lo	99	4.360	99	3.508		
			Hi	80	4.121	79	3.439		
			culture main effect		(F = .11; p = .738)		(F = .42; p = .519)		
			QOL main effect		(F = 3.98; p = .048)		(F = 4.52; p = .035)		
			interaction effect		(F = .79; p = .375)		(F = 1.99; p = .160)		
			covariate effect		(F = .88; p = .350)		(F = 2.61; p = .108)		
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	44	5.356	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	44	4.000
			Hi	107	5.224	107	4.227		
			Lo	44	4.038	44	2.068		
			Hi	107	3.632	107	2.383		
			culture main effect		(F = 68.72; p = .000)		(F = 92.38; p = .000)		
			QOL main effect		(F = 1.04; p = .309)		(F = 1.17; p = .281)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	44	5.432	44	4.561		
			Hi	108	5.086	107	4.283		
			Lo	44	4.114	44	2.462		
			Hi	108	3.466	107	2.352		
			culture main effect		(F = 73.20; p = .000)		(F = 98.51; p = .000)		
			QOL main effect		(F = 3.39; p = .067)		(F = .86; p = .356)		
			interaction effect		(F = .77; p = .380)		(F = .17; p = .681)		
			covariate effect		(F = .08; p = .779)		(F = 1.32; p = .253)		
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	55	3.758	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	55	3.176
			Hi	50	3.500	52	3.038		
			Lo	55	4.497	55	4.242		
			Hi	50	4.227	52	3.962		
			culture main effect		(F = 6.23; p = .014)		(F = 11.17; p = .001)		
			QOL main effect		(F = 1.22; p = .272)		(F = .62; p = .433)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	55	3.703	55	3.485		
			Hi	52	3.423	51	3.039		
			Lo	55	4.558	55	4.345		
			Hi	52	4.391	51	3.987		
			culture main effect		(F = 10.89; p = .001)		(F = 10.60; p = .002)		
			QOL main effect		(F = .81; p = .369)		(F = 3.11; p = .081)		
			interaction effect		(F = .04; p = .838)		(F = .02; p = .876)		
			covariate effect		(F = .21; p = .649)		(F = 1.76; p = .187)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 30-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Thertile Split; Product Familiarity)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	113	4.242	113	3.531
		Lo	Hi	160	4.404	161	3.611
		Hi	Lo	113	4.100	113	3.386
		Hi	Hi	160	3.977	161	3.414
					(F = 2.93; p = .088)		(F = .87; p = .351)
				(F = .00; p = .956)		(F = .36; p = .548)	
				(F = .74; p = .391)		(F = .02; p = .887)	
				(F = .59; p = .444)		(F = 7.79; p = .006)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	112	4.071	112	3.670
		Lo	Hi	162	4.440	162	3.523
		Hi	Lo	112	3.923	112	3.286
		Hi	Hi	162	4.049	162	3.523
					(F = 2.67; p = .103)		(F = 3.48; p = .063)
				(F = 2.25; p = .134)		(F = 1.26; p = .263)	
			(F = .54; p = .464)		(F = .16; p = .686)		
			(F = .38; p = .539)		(F = .76; p = .385)		
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	48	5.097	48	3.840
		Lo	Hi	68	5.182	68	4.196
		Hi	Lo	48	3.833	48	2.139
		Hi	Hi	68	3.309	68	2.245
					(F = 75.14; p = .000)		(F = 89.21; p = .000)
				(F = .80; p = .374)		(F = 1.65; p = .201)	
				(F = 2.61; p = .109)		(F = .42; p = .520)	
				(F = .04; p = .833)		(F = 6.39; p = .013)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	48	5.014	48	3.875
		Lo	Hi	69	5.227	69	4.411
		Hi	Lo	48	3.889	48	2.410
		Hi	Hi	69	3.266	69	2.396
					(F = 71.08; p = .000)		(F = 67.42; p = .000)
				(F = .57; p = .452)		(F = 1.43; p = .235)	
			(F = 5.22; p = .024)		(F = 1.68; p = .198)		
			(F = .09; p = .771)		(F = .00; p = .953)		
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	65	3.610	65	3.303
		Lo	Hi	92	3.851	93	3.183
		Hi	Lo	65	4.297	65	4.308
		Hi	Hi	92	4.471	93	4.269
					(F = 8.21; p = .005)		(F = 19.10; p = .000)
				(F = .99; p = .320)		(F = .24; p = .626)	
				(F = .02; p = .882)		(F = .03; p = .866)	
				(F = .02; p = .875)		(F = .56; p = .454)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	64	3.365	64	3.516
		Lo	Hi	93	3.857	93	3.294
		Hi	Lo	64	3.948	64	3.943
		Hi	Hi	93	4.631	93	4.358
					(F = 9.39; p = .003)		(F = 13.06; p = .000)
				(F = 9.15; p = .003)		(F = .20; p = .653)	
			(F = .19; p = .667)		(F = 2.39; p = .125)		
			(F = .01; p = .922)		(F = .31; p = .576)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 21-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Median Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization				
Pooled											
Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)					
				Lo	Lo	200	4.852	202	3.881		
				Lo	Hi	186	4.124	186	3.498		
				Hi	Lo	200	3.865	202	2.772		
				Hi	Hi	186	4.229	186	3.932		
				culture main effect		(F = 9.22; p = .003)		(F = 5.16; p = .024)			
				ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .41; p = .524)		(F = 8.55; p = .004)			
				interaction effect		(F = 18.93; p = .000)		(F = 26.91; p = .000)			
				covariate effect		(F = 6.37; p = .012)		(F = 1.22; p = .269)			
				Infant Formula				202	4.835	201	4.078
Lo	Hi	185	3.957					183	3.712		
Hi	Lo	202	3.792					201	2.864		
Hi	Hi	185	4.216					184	3.794		
culture main effect		(F = 9.42; p = .002)						(F = 16.44; p = .000)			
ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 2.54; p = .112)						(F = 5.28; p = .022)			
interaction effect		(F = 25.99; p = .000)						(F = 21.55; p = .000)			
covariate effect		(F = .01; p = .925)						(F = .01; p = .920)			
American											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	97	5.241	97	4.316		
				Lo	Hi	84	5.476	84	4.214		
				Hi	Lo	97	3.687	97	2.278		
				Hi	Hi	84	3.865	84	2.317		
				culture main effect		(F = 120.20; p = .003)		(F = 146.65; p = .024)			
				ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 1.28; p = .259)		(F = .06; p = .814)			
				interaction effect		(F = .04; p = .841)		(F = .19; p = .665)			
				covariate effect		(F = 2.75; p = .099)		(F = .58; p = .448)			
				Infant Formula				97	5.203	97	4.440
Lo	Hi	85	5.263					84	4.480		
Hi	Lo	97	3.708					97	2.344		
Hi	Hi	85	3.624					84	2.496		
culture main effect		(F = 115.33; p = .000)						(F = 150.26; p = .000)			
ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .03; p = .873)						(F = .23; p = .633)			
interaction effect		(F = .24; p = .621)						(F = .11; p = .737)			
covariate effect		(F = 2.38; p = .125)						(F = .36; p = .549)			
Korean											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	90	3.759	92	3.080		
				Lo	Hi	115	3.745	115	3.293		
				Hi	Lo	90	4.156	92	3.935		
				Hi	Hi	115	4.490	115	4.467		
				culture main effect		(F = 8.14; p = .005)		(F = 23.87; p = .000)			
				ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .17; p = .682)		(F = 5.25; p = .023)			
				interaction effect		(F = .76; p = .385)		(F = .59; p = .443)			
				covariate effect		(F = .75; p = .387)		(F = .00; p = .998)			
				Infant Formula				91	3.795	91	3.297
Lo	Hi	114	3.629					112	3.500		
Hi	Lo	91	4.015					91	3.982		
Hi	Hi	113	4.501					112	4.202		
culture main effect		(F = 9.01; p = .003)						(F = 13.86; p = .000)			
ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .60; p = .441)						(F = 1.45; p = .230)			
interaction effect		(F = 3.31; p = .070)						(F = .00; p = .963)			
covariate effect		(F = .55; p = .458)						(F = .01; p = .914)			

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 22-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Median Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	217	4.874	218	3.778
		Lo	Hi	169	3.994	170	3.610
		Hi	Lo	217	4.106	218	2.976
			Hi	169	4.041	170	3.755
						(F = 7.04; p = .008)	(F = 4.66; p = .031)
						(F = 9.97; p = .002)	(F = 5.18; p = .023)
						(F = 9.00; p = .003)	(F = 9.68; p = .002)
						(F = 6.24; p = .013)	(F = 2.09; p = .149)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	216	4.775	215	4.020
		Lo	Hi	171	3.973	170	3.733
		Hi	Lo	216	3.969	215	3.056
Hi		Hi	171	4.019	170	3.653	
					(F = 8.55; p = .004)	(F = 13.62; p = .000)	
					(F = 6.91; p = .009)	(F = 1.48; p = .224)	
					(F = 10.79; p = .001)	(F = 9.75; p = .002)	
					(F = .13; p = .714)	(F = .02; p = .880)	
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	95	5.554	95	4.442
		Lo	Hi	85	5.125	85	4.078
		Hi	Lo	95	4.014	95	2.379
			Hi	85	3.529	85	2.184
						(F = 118.05; p = .000)	(F = 150.60; p = .000)
						(F = 4.07; p = .045)	(F = 2.70; p = .102)
						(F = .04; p = .847)	(F = .27; p = .601)
						(F = 1.46; p = .229)	(F = 1.30; p = .257)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	95	5.404	95	4.611
		Lo	Hi	86	5.112	85	4.282
		Hi	Lo	95	3.730	95	2.347
Hi		Hi	86	3.620	85	2.553	
					(F = 124.01; p = .000)	(F = 145.48; p = .000)	
					(F = .53; p = .467)	(F = .27; p = .679)	
					(F = .41; p = .524)	(F = 2.60; p = .109)	
					(F = 1.96; p = .163)	(F = .30; p = .588)	
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	115	3.739	117	2.963
		Lo	Hi	91	3.729	91	3.538
		Hi	Lo	115	4.513	117	4.262
			Hi	91	4.106	91	4.139
						(F = 8.41; p = .004)	(F = 21.20; p = .000)
						(F = 1.66; p = .199)	(F = 1.80; p = .181)
						(F = 1.00; p = .319)	(F = 2.87; p = .092)
						(F = .76; p = .384)	(F = .00; p = .962)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	115	3.487	114	3.199
		Lo	Hi	91	3.919	91	3.652
		Hi	Lo	115	4.354	114	4.184
Hi		Hi	91	4.158	91	3.967	
					(F = 8.96; p = .003)	(F = 12.59; p = .000)	
					(F = .43; p = .510)	(F = .42; p = .516)	
					(F = 2.90; p = .090)	(F = 3.35; p = .069)	
					(F = .27; p = .603)	(F = .07; p = .793)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 23-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Tertile Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	139	5.053	140	4.050
		Lo	Hi	141	4.052	141	3.444
		Hi	Lo	139	3.906	140	2.738
		Hi	Hi	141	4.418	141	4.076
					culture main effect		(F = 6.23; p = .013)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 1.14; p = .287)
					interaction effect		(F = 23.43; p = .000)
					covariate effect		(F = 3.77; p = .053)
							(F = 3.79; p = .053)
							(F = 4.87; p = .028)
							(F = 30.88; p = .000)
							(F = .80; p = .370)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	Lo	140	5.036	139
Lo			Hi	140	3.855	139	3.669
Hi			Lo	140	3.843	139	2.751
Hi			Hi	140	4.283	139	3.906
					culture main effect		(F = 6.42; p = .012)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 5.05; p = .034)
					interaction effect		(F = 28.88; p = .000)
					covariate effect		(F = .20; p = .659)
							(F = 15.27; p = .000)
							(F = 3.72; p = .055)
American	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	52	5.327	52	4.442
		Lo	Hi	68	5.363	68	4.167
		Hi	Lo	52	3.814	52	2.295
		Hi	Hi	68	3.775	68	2.216
					culture main effect		(F = 67.34; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .02; p = .893)
					interaction effect		(F = .04; p = .842)
					covariate effect		(F = 1.32; p = .254)
							(F = 98.34; p = .000)
							(F = .93; p = .336)
							(F = .23; p = .635)
							(F = 2.52; p = .115)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	Lo	52	5.109	56
Lo			Hi	69	5.092	69	4.483
Hi			Lo	52	3.609	52	2.135
Hi			Hi	69	3.560	69	2.459
					culture main effect		(F = 66.76; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .01; p = .943)
					interaction effect		(F = .01; p = .933)
					covariate effect		(F = 1.98; p = .162)
						(F = 93.11; p = .000)	
						(F = 1.99; p = .161)	
Korean	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	70	3.748	72	2.991
		Lo	Hi	71	3.629	71	3.531
		Hi	Lo	70	4.229	72	3.958
		Hi	Hi	71	4.338	71	4.282
					culture main effect		(F = 5.89; p = .017)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .01; p = .918)
					interaction effect		(F = .22; p = .643)
					covariate effect		(F = .56; p = .457)
							(F = 12.19; p = .001)
							(F = 4.44; p = .037)
							(F = .19; p = .661)
							(F = .13; p = .714)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	Lo	72	3.880	72
Lo			Hi	70	3.600	69	3.647
Hi			Lo	72	4.083	72	4.037
Hi			Hi	70	4.443	69	4.082
					culture main effect		(F = 5.25; p = .023)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .03; p = .856)
					interaction effect		(F = 1.96; p = .164)
					covariate effect		(F = .07; p = .796)
						(F = 7.36; p = .008)	
						(F = .98; p = .324)	
						(F = .55; p = .458)	
						(F = 1.10; p = .296)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 24-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Thertile Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization				
Pooled											
Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)					
				Lo	Lo	155	5.088	155	3.890		
				Lo	Hi	141	4.054	142	3.664		
				Hi	Lo	155	3.998	155	2.802		
				Hi	Hi	141	3.955	142	3.789		
				culture main effect		(F = 16.38; p = .000)		(F = 8.55; p = .004)			
				ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 9.30; p = .002)		(F = 5.92; p = .016)			
				interaction effect		(F = 11.37; p = .001)		(F = 13.54; p = .000)			
				covariate effect		(F = 7.52; p = .006)		(F = 1.05; p = .306)			
				Infant Formula				155	4.978	154	4.255
Lo	Hi	143	4.051					142	3.864		
Hi	Lo	155	3.787					154	2.842		
Hi	Hi	143	3.958					142	3.763		
culture main effect		(F = 21.59; p = .000)						(F = 24.85; p = .000)			
ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 5.24; p = .023)						(F = 3.37; p = .067)			
interaction effect		(F = 15.77; p = .000)						(F = 18.86; p = .000)			
covariate effect		(F = .00; p = .957)						(F = .02; p = .889)			
American											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	77	5.558	77	4.576		
				Lo	Hi	65	5.210	65	4.215		
				Hi	Lo	77	4.030	77	2.240		
				Hi	Hi	65	3.662	65	2.277		
				culture main effect		(F = 91.61; p = .000)		(F = 125.35; p = .024)			
				ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 2.04; p = .156)		(F = 1.73; p = .191)			
				interaction effect		(F = .00; p = .949)		(F = .35; p = .553)			
				covariate effect		(F = .26; p = .608)		(F = .83; p = .364)			
				Infant Formula				77	5.411	77	4.588
Lo	Hi	66	5.086					65	4.390		
Hi	Lo	77	3.857					77	2.416		
Hi	Hi	66	3.535					65	2.513		
culture main effect		(F = 98.39; p = .000)						(F = 124.31; p = .000)			
ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 1.20; p = .275)						(F = .10; p = .750)			
interaction effect		(F = .00; p = .991)						(F = .67; p = .416)			
covariate effect		(F = 1.51; p = .221)						(F = .18; p = .672)			
Korean											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	76	3.895	77	2.775		
				Lo	Hi	91	3.729	91	3.538		
				Hi	Lo	76	4.566	77	4.299		
				Hi	Hi	91	4.106	91	4.139		
				culture main effect		(F = 6.19; p = .014)		(F = 23.74; p = .000)			
				ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 2.50; p = .116)		(F = 2.86; p = .093)			
				interaction effect		(F = .49; p = .487)		(F = 4.48; p = .036)			
				covariate effect		(F = .09; p = .759)		(F = .15; p = .695)			
				Infant Formula				75	3.720	74	3.234
Lo	Hi	91	3.919					91	3.652		
Hi	Lo	75	4.396					74	4.324		
Hi	Hi	91	4.158					91	3.967		
culture main effect		(F = 5.32; p = .022)						(F = 11.99; p = .001)			
ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .00; p = .985)						(F = .04; p = .851)			
interaction effect		(F = 1.22; p = .271)						(F = 3.65; p = .058)			
covariate effect		(F = 1.19; p = .277)						(F = .18; p = .673)			

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 25-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Median Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled								
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		
			Hi	196	4.466	196	3.743	
		Hi	Lo	190	4.504	192	3.620	
			Hi	196	4.151	196	3.413	
		culture main effect		190	3.997	192	3.245	
			QOL main effect		(F = 9.50; p = .002)		(F = 5.27; p = .022)	
	interaction effect			(F = .71; p = .401)		(F = 1.03; p = .310)		
	covariate effect			(F = .60; p = .438)		(F = .02; p = .883)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	(F = 8.18; p = .004)		(F = 1.41; p = .236)		
			Hi	197	4.328	196	4.022	
		Hi	Lo	190	4.502	188	3.784	
			Hi	197	4.147	196	3.391	
		culture main effect		190	3.846	189	3.243	
			QOL main effect		(F = 9.77; p = .002)		(F = 16.75; p = .000)	
interaction effect				(F = .20; p = .653)		(F = 2.43; p = .120)		
covariate effect				(F = 3.30; p = .070)		(F = .10; p = .753)		
American		Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Hi	89	5.551	89	4.371
	Hi		Lo	92	5.152	92	4.170	
			Hi	89	3.876	89	2.446	
	culture main effect			92	3.652	92	2.181	
			QOL main effect		(F = 121.79; p = .008)		(F = 143.36; p = .031)	
		interaction effect		(F = 2.31; p = .130)		(F = 1.55; p = .215)		
		covariate effect		(F = .37; p = .546)		(F = .04; p = .845)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	(F = 2.37; p = .125)		(F = .42; p = .518)		
			Hi	90	5.333	90	4.633	
		Hi	Lo	92	5.141	91	4.341	
			Hi	90	3.870	90	2.444	
		culture main effect		92	3.525	91	2.443	
			QOL main effect		(F = 112.37; p = .004)		(F = 151.82; p = .000)	
interaction effect				(F = 1.40; p = .238)		(F = .75; p = .389)		
covariate effect				(F = .28; p = .699)		(F = .77; p = .381)		
Korean		Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Hi	113	3.708	113	3.354
	Hi		Lo	92	3.739	94	2.947	
			Hi	113	4.375	113	4.113	
	culture main effect			92	4.283	94	4.326	
			QOL main effect		(F = 9.28; p = .003)		(F = 27.70; p = .000)	
		interaction effect		(F = .07; p = .794)		(F = .50; p = .482)		
		covariate effect		(F = .10; p = .757)		(F = 2.15; p = .145)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	(F = .49; p = .486)		(F = .21; p = .647)		
			Hi	113	3.587	112	3.595	
		Hi	Lo	91	3.773	91	3.132	
			Hi	113	4.404	112	4.062	
		culture main effect		91	4.125	91	4.143	
			QOL main effect		(F = 9.88; p = .002)		(F = 16.09; p = .000)	
interaction effect				(F = .05; p = .830)		(F = 1.21; p = .272)		
covariate effect				(F = 1.57; p = .212)		(F = 2.18; p = .142)		
Korean		Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Hi	113	4.375	113	4.113
	Hi		Lo	92	4.283	94	4.326	
			Hi	113	4.404	112	4.062	
	culture main effect			91	4.125	91	4.143	
			QOL main effect		(F = 9.88; p = .002)		(F = 16.09; p = .000)	
		interaction effect		(F = .05; p = .830)		(F = 1.21; p = .272)		
		covariate effect		(F = 1.57; p = .212)		(F = 2.18; p = .142)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	(F = .19; p = .665)		(F = .17; p = .681)		
			Hi	113	3.587	112	3.595	
		Hi	Lo	91	3.773	91	3.132	
			Hi	113	4.404	112	4.062	
		culture main effect		91	4.125	91	4.143	
			QOL main effect		(F = 9.88; p = .002)		(F = 16.09; p = .000)	
interaction effect				(F = .05; p = .830)		(F = 1.21; p = .272)		
covariate effect				(F = 1.57; p = .212)		(F = 2.18; p = .142)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 26-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Median Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization		
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	240	4.626	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	240	3.806
			Hi	133	3.396	135	3.622		
			Lo	240	4.119	240	3.218		
			Hi	133	3.992	135	3.440		
		culture main effect				(F = 9.87; p = .002)		(F = 5.64; p = .018)	
		QOL main effect				(F = .90; p = .344)		(F = .00; p = .952)	
	interaction effect				(F = .13; p = .720)		(F = 1.56; p = .212)		
	covariate effect				(F = 4.89; p = .028)		(F = 2.89; p = .090)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	240	4.618	239	4.077		
			Hi	136	4.154	135	3.595		
			Lo	240	4.010	239	3.284		
			Hi	136	3.990	135	3.378		
		culture main effect				(F = 7.77; p = .006)		(F = 11.04; p = .001)	
		QOL main effect				(F = 2.66; p = .104)		(F = 2.33; p = .128)	
interaction effect				(F = 2.57; p = .110)		(F = 3.59; p = .059)			
covariate effect				(F = .13; p = .715)		(F = .18; p = .669)			
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	123	5.417	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	123	4.255
			Hi	58	5.207	58	4.229		
			Lo	123	3.862	123	2.230		
			Hi	58	3.575	58	2.437		
		culture main effect				(F = 106.81; p = .000)		(F = 125.30; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect				(F = .94; p = .333)		(F = .31; p = .576)	
	interaction effect				(F = .06; p = .804)		(F = .22; p = .641)		
	covariate effect				(F = 2.14; p = .145)		(F = .47; p = .493)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	123	5.412	122	4.639		
			Hi	59	4.853	59	4.085		
			Lo	123	3.818	122	2.459		
			Hi	59	3.356	59	2.322		
		culture main effect				(F = 98.63; p = .000)		(F = 124.85; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect				(F = 4.16; p = .043)		(F = 4.15; p = .043)	
interaction effect				(F = .10; p = .757)		(F = 1.40; p = .238)			
covariate effect				(F = 1.63; p = .204)		(F = .89; p = .348)			
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	116	3.787	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	116	3.330
			Hi	75	3.769	77	3.113		
			Lo	116	4.391	116	4.264		
			Hi	75	4.316	77	4.195		
		culture main effect				(F = 7.32; p = .007)		(F = 20.79; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect				(F = .06; p = .805)		(F = .68; p = .410)	
	interaction effect				(F = .02; p = .894)		(F = .11; p = .738)		
	covariate effect				(F = .00; p = .975)		(F = .00; p = .969)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	115	3.768	115	3.481		
			Hi	77	3.619	76	3.215		
			Lo	115	4.214	115	4.159		
			Hi	77	4.476	76	4.197		
		culture main effect				(F = 11.09; p = .001)		(F = 18.02; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect				(F = .03; p = .867)		(F = .42; p = .516)	
interaction effect				(F = 1.10; p = .295)		(F = .60; p = .438)			
covariate effect				(F = 1.36; p = .703)		(F = .15; p = .698)			

** P < .05; * P < .10

Table 27-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Median Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	222	4.559	223	3.768	
		Lo	Hi	160	4.404	161	3.611	
		Hi	Lo	222	4.128	223	3.262	
			Hi	Hi	160	3.997	161	3.414
			culture main effect			(F = 9.39; p = .002)	(F = 5.02; p = .026)	
			QOL main effect			(F = .89; p = .346)	(F = .01; p = .905)	
			interaction effect			(F = .00; p = .989)	(F = .98; p = .324)	
			covariate effect			(F = 6.08; p = .014)	(F = 2.80; p = .095)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	220	4.394	218	4.009	
		Lo	Hi	162	4.440	162	3.770	
		Hi	Lo	220	3.961	218	3.145	
		Hi	Hi	162	4.049	162	3.523	
			culture main effect			(F = 9.41; p = .002)	(F = 14.57; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect			(F = .21; p = .646)	(F = .30; p = .582)		
		interaction effect			(F = .02; p = .875)	(F = 4.49; p = .035)		
		covariate effect			(F = .00; p = .971)	(F = .00; p = .997)		
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	109	5.480	109	4.352	
		Lo	Hi	68	5.152	68	4.196	
		Hi	Lo	109	4.012	109	2.281	
			Hi	Hi	68	3.309	68	2.245
			culture main effect			(F = 122.65; p = .008)	(F = 143.61; p = .000)	
			QOL main effect			(F = 5.32; p = .022)	(F = .33; p = .566)	
			interaction effect			(F = 1.58; p = .211)	(F = .13; p = .723)	
			covariate effect			(F = 1.60; p = .208)	(F = .33; p = .566)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	109	5.254	108	4.522	
		Lo	Hi	69	5.227	69	4.411	
		Hi	Lo	109	3.927	108	2.389	
		Hi	Hi	69	3.266	69	2.396	
			culture main effect			(F = 120.73; p = .000)	(F = 144.28; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect			(F = 1.93; p = .167)	(F = .16; p = .691)		
		interaction effect			(F = 4.49; p = .036)	(F = .12; p = .732)		
		covariate effect			(F = 1.67; p = .199)	(F = .75; p = .387)		
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	113	3.670	114	3.211	
		Lo	Hi	92	3.851	93	3.183	
		Hi	Lo	113	4.239	114	4.119	
			Hi	Hi	92	4.471	93	4.269
			culture main effect			(F = 8.84; p = .003)	(F = 24.94; p = .000)	
			QOL main effect			(F = 1.37; p = .242)	(F = .02; p = .897)	
			interaction effect			(F = .02; p = .900)	(F = .06; p = .814)	
			covariate effect			(F = .24; p = .628)	(F = .02; p = .884)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	112	3.550	110	3.506	
		Lo	Hi	93	3.857	93	3.294	
		Hi	Lo	112	3.994	110	3.888	
		Hi	Hi	93	4.631	93	4.358	
			culture main effect			(F = 10.65; p = .001)	(F = 15.38; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect			(F = 6.40; p = .012)	(F = .55; p = .460)		
		interaction effect			(F = .78; p = .378)	(F = 3.43; p = .066)		
		covariate effect			(F = .26; p = .609)	(F = .02; p = .900)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 28-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOL1; Thertile Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	153	4.449	153	3.695
		Lo	Hi	153	4.569	155	3.708
		Hi	Lo	153	4.187	153	3.383
		Hi	Hi	153	3.863	153	3.120
					(F = 9.89; p = .002)		(F = 7.21; p = .008)
					(F = 1.26; p = .263)		(F = .59; p = .444)
					(F = 2.09; p = .150)		(F = .68; p = .411)
					(F = 13.23; p = .000)		(F = .55; p = .458)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	154	4.359	154	4.032
		Lo	Hi	153	4.584	152	3.893
		Hi	Lo	154	4.186	154	3.455
		Hi	Hi	153	3.706	152	3.160
					(F = 11.37; p = .001)		(F = 16.79; p = .000)
					(F = .33; p = .568)		(F = 2.21; p = .138)
					(F = 4.81; p = .029)		(F = .23; p = .629)
					(F = 1.73; p = .189)		(F = 1.22; p = .270)
American							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	63	5.624	63	4.206
		Lo	Hi	62	5.204	62	4.043
		Hi	Lo	63	3.984	63	2.434
		Hi	Hi	62	3.511	62	2.097
					(F = 87.63; p = .000)		(F = 96.37; p = .000)
					(F = 3.89; p = .057)		(F = 1.02; p = .316)
					(F = .02; p = .881)		(F = .21; p = .647)
					(F = 1.76; p = .031)		(F = .20; p = .659)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	64	5.453	64	4.802
		Lo	Hi	62	5.306	61	4.180
		Hi	Lo	64	3.781	64	2.521
		Hi	Hi	62	3.570	61	2.470
					(F = 97.14; p = .000)		(F = 99.37; p = .000)
					(F = .39; p = .536)		(F = 2.18; p = .142)
					(F = .03; p = .852)		(F = 2.03; p = .156)
					(F = 1.15; p = .285)		(F = .16; p = .689)
Korean							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	55	3.533	55	3.497
		Lo	Hi	69	3.763	71	3.089
		Hi	Lo	55	4.188	55	3.885
		Hi	Hi	69	4.203	71	4.282
					(F = 4.06; p = .046)		(F = 8.91; p = .003)
					(F = .04; p = .843)		(F = .04; p = .844)
					(F = .16; p = .693)		(F = 2.06; p = .154)
					(F = 4.92; p = .028)		(F = 2.46; p = .119)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	55	3.721	55	3.782
		Lo	Hi	69	3.845	69	3.357
		Hi	Lo	55	4.315	55	3.952
		Hi	Hi	69	4.101	69	4.053
					(F = 2.91; p = .090)		(F = 3.08; p = .082)
					(F = .06; p = .810)		(F = .56; p = .458)
					(F = .46; p = .499)		(F = 1.14; p = .288)
					(F = .40; p = .529)		(F = .73; p = .396)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 29-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Tertile Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	99	4.468	99	3.542	
		Lo	Hi	78	4.000	80	3.417	
		Hi	Lo	99	4.293	99	3.276	
		Hi	Hi	78	3.987	80	3.371	
						(F = .20; p = .658)		(F = .48; p = .491)
	Infant Formula					(F = 3.48; p = .064)		(F = .11; p = .744)
						(F = .15; p = .703)		(F = .24; p = .626)
						(F = .75; p = .386)		(F = 7.86; p = .006)
		Lo	Lo	99	4.471	99	3.963	
		Lo	Hi	80	3.875	79	3.270	
		Hi	Lo	99	4.360	99	3.508	
	American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
			Lo	Lo	44	5.356	44	4.000
			Lo	Hi	107	5.224	107	4.227
			Hi	Lo	44	4.038	44	2.068
			Hi	Hi	107	3.632	107	2.383
						(F = 68.72; p = .000)		(F = 92.83; p = .000)
Korean	Diet Pills				(F = 1.00; p = .318)		(F = 1.17; p = .281)	
					(F = .61; p = .437)		(F = .05; p = .823)	
					(F = 1.18; p = .278)		(F = .27; p = .604)	
		Lo	Lo	44	5.432	44	4.561	
		Lo	Hi	108	5.086	107	4.283	
		Hi	Lo	44	4.114	44	2.462	
American	Infant Formula				(F = 73.20; p = .000)		(F = 98.51; p = .000)	
					(F = 3.42; p = .066)		(F = .90; p = .343)	
					(F = .77; p = .380)		(F = .17; p = .681)	
					(F = 1.60; p = .207)		(F = .74; p = .391)	
		Lo	Lo	55	3.703	55	3.485	
		Lo	Hi	52	3.423	51	3.039	
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	55	3.758	55	3.176	
		Lo	Hi	50	3.500	52	3.038	
		Hi	Lo	55	4.497	55	4.242	
		Hi	Hi	50	4.227	52	3.962	
						(F = 6.23; p = .014)		(F = 11.17; p = .001)
Korean	Infant Formula				(F = 1.39; p = .241)		(F = 1.01; p = .316)	
					(F = .00; p = .983)		(F = .06; p = .810)	
					(F = .19; p = .663)		(F = 3.34; p = .070)	
		Lo	Lo	55	3.703	55	3.485	
		Lo	Hi	52	3.423	51	3.039	
		Hi	Lo	55	4.558	55	4.345	
Korean	Infant Formula				(F = 10.89; p = .001)		(F = 10.60; p = .002)	
					(F = 1.01; p = .317)		(F = 3.44; p = .066)	
					(F = .04; p = .838)		(F = .02; p = .876)	
					(F = .25; p = .619)		(F = .15; p = .699)	
		Lo	Lo	55	3.703	55	3.485	
		Lo	Hi	52	3.423	51	3.039	
Korean	Diet Pills				(F = 10.89; p = .001)		(F = 10.60; p = .002)	
					(F = 1.01; p = .317)		(F = 3.44; p = .066)	
					(F = .04; p = .838)		(F = .02; p = .876)	
					(F = .25; p = .619)		(F = .15; p = .699)	
		Lo	Lo	55	3.703	55	3.485	
		Lo	Hi	52	3.423	51	3.039	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 30-2: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Thertile Split; Familiarity with Marketing Practice)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 113	4.242	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 113	3.531
			Hi	160	4.404	161	3.611
			Lo	113	4.100	113	3.386
			Hi	160	3.977	161	3.414
			culture main effect		(F = 2.93; p = .088)		(F = .87; p = .351)
			QOL main effect		(F = .00; p = .956)		(F = .20; p = .652)
			interaction effect		(F = .74; p = .391)		(F = .02; p = .887)
			covariate effect		(F = 2.82; p = .094)		(F = 5.10; p = .026)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	112	4.071	112	3.670
			Hi	162	4.440	162	3.770
			Lo	112	3.923	112	3.286
			Hi	162	4.049	162	3.523
			culture main effect		(F = 2.67; p = .103)		(F = 3.48; p = .063)
			QOL main effect		(F = 2.33; p = .128)		(F = 1.39; p = .240)
		interaction effect		(F = .54; p = .464)		(F = .16; p = .686)	
		covariate effect		(F = .10; p = .755)		(F = .47; p = .494)	
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 48	5.097	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 48	3.840
			Hi	68	5.152	68	4.196
			Lo	48	3.833	48	2.139
			Hi	68	3.309	68	2.245
			culture main effect		(F = 75.14; p = .000)		(F = 89.21; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .72; p = .399)		(F = .92; p = .340)
			interaction effect		(F = 2.61; p = .109)		(F = .42; p = .520)
			covariate effect		(F = 1.13; p = .291)		(F = 1.42; p = .236)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	48	5.014	48	3.875
			Hi	69	5.227	69	4.411
			Lo	48	3.889	48	2.410
			Hi	69	3.266	69	2.396
			culture main effect		(F = 71.08; p = .000)		(F = 67.42; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .42; p = .516)		(F = 1.40; p = .239)
		interaction effect		(F = 5.22; p = .024)		(F = 1.68; p = .198)	
		covariate effect		(F = 1.61; p = .207)		(F = .03; p = .872)	
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 65	3.610	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 65	3.303
			Hi	92	3.851	93	3.183
			Lo	65	4.297	65	4.308
			Hi	92	4.471	93	4.269
			culture main effect		(F = 8.21; p = .005)		(F = 19.10; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .92; p = .340)		(F = .20; p = .658)
			interaction effect		(F = .02; p = .882)		(F = .03; p = .866)
			covariate effect		(F = .25; p = .615)		(F = .02; p = .878)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	64	3.365	64	3.516
			Hi	93	3.857	93	3.294
			Lo	64	3.948	64	3.943
			Hi	93	4.631	93	4.358
			culture main effect		(F = 9.39; p = .003)		(F = 13.06; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 9.15; p = .003)		(F = .25; p = .618)
		interaction effect		(F = .19; p = .667)		(F = 2.39; p = .125)	
		covariate effect		(F = .02; p = .886)		(F = .04; p = .842)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 21-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Median Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization		
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	4.859	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	3.887		
			Hi	198		4.859		200	
			Lo	183		4.144		183	3.483
			Hi	198		3.865		200	2.778
			Hi	183		4.332		183	3.903
				culture main effect		(F = 8.87; p = .003)	(F = 5.24; p = .023)		
				ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .55; p = .461)	(F = 6.64; p = .010)		
				interaction effect		(F = 19.06; p = .000)	(F = 25.90; p = .000)		
				covariate effect		(F = .48; p = .491)	(F = 2.03; p = .155)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	202	4.835	199	4.092		
			Hi	182	3.954	181	3.707		
			Lo	200	3.792	199	2.871		
			Hi	182	4.196	181	3.777		
						culture main effect	(F = 9.82; p = .002)	(F = 16.67; p = .000)	
			ethnocentrism main effect	(F = 2.47; p = .117)	(F = 4.58; p = .033)				
			interaction effect	(F = 25.06; p = .000)	(F = 20.97; p = .000)				
			covariate effect	(F = .19; p = .660)	(F = .12; p = .726)				
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	5.264	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	4.340		
			Hi	96		5.264		96	
			Lo	83		5.487		83	4.209
			Hi	96		3.705		96	2.281
			Hi	83		3.843		83	2.317
				culture main effect	(F = 120.45; p = .000)	(F = 145.31; p = .000)			
				ethnocentrism main effect	(F = .58; p = .448)	(F = .10; p = .748)			
				interaction effect	(F = .07; p = .769)	(F = .26; p = .610)			
				covariate effect	(F = 1.03; p = .310)	(F = 1.00; p = .318)			
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	96	5.226	96	4.465		
			Hi	84	5.266	83	4.494		
			Lo	96	3.726	96	2.347		
			Hi	84	3.599	83	2.498		
						culture main effect	(F = 116.08; p = .000)	(F = 150.27; p = .000)	
			ethnocentrism main effect	(F = .05; p = .816)	(F = .25; p = .615)				
			interaction effect	(F = .62; p = .571)	(F = .13; p = .716)				
			covariate effect	(F = .32; p = .574)	(F = .08; p = .784)				
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	3.759	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	3.080		
			Hi	90		3.759		92	
			Lo	112		3.768		112	3.262
			Hi	90		4.156		92	3.935
			Hi	112		4.548		112	4.435
				culture main effect	(F = 8.44; p = .004)	(F = 23.39; p = .000)			
				ethnocentrism main effect	(F = 1.64; p = .201)	(F = 4.46; p = .036)			
				interaction effect	(F = .90; p = .345)	(F = .57; p = .450)			
				covariate effect	(F = .57; p = .452)	(F = .09; p = .762)			
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	91	3.795	91	3.297		
			Hi	111	3.595	110	3.488		
			Lo	91	4.015	91	3.982		
			Hi	111	4.474	110	4.182		
						culture main effect	(F = 8.51; p = .004)	(F = 13.44; p = .000)	
			ethnocentrism main effect	(F = .47; p = .494)	(F = 2.27; p = .133)				
			interaction effect	(F = 3.07; p = .081)	(F = .00; p = .981)				
			covariate effect	(F = .00; p = 1.00)	(F = 3.23; p = .074)				

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 22-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Median Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	215	4.881	216	3.782
		Lo	Hi	166	4.014	167	3.595
		Hi	Lo	215	4.109	216	2.983
		Hi	Hi	166	4.072	167	3.721
						(F = 6.72; p = .010)	(F = 4.79; p = .029)
						(F = 10.20; p = .002)	(F = 11.55; p = .049)
						(F = 9.10; p = .003)	(F = 9.03; p = .003)
						(F = .32; p = .573)	(F = 4.33; p = .038)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	214	4.782	213	4.033
		Lo	Hi	168	3.956	167	3.735
		Hi	Lo	214	3.970	213	3.064
		Hi	Hi	168	3.987	167	3.645
							(F = 8.39; p = .004)
					(F = 7.07; p = .008)	(F = 1.22; p = .270)	
					(F = 10.83; p = .001)	(F = 9.39; p = .002)	
					(F = .28; p = .596)	(F = .01; p = .931)	
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	94	5.582	94	4.468
		Lo	Hi	84	5.123	84	4.071
		Hi	Lo	94	4.035	94	2.383
		Hi	Hi	84	3.504	84	2.183
						(F = 118.27; p = .000)	(F = 149.30; p = .000)
						(F = 5.65; p = .019)	(F = 2.57; p = .111)
						(F = .06; p = .802)	(F = .36; p = .547)
						(F = 1.24; p = .267)	(F = 1.03; p = .312)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	94	5.429	94	4.638
		Lo	Hi	85	5.114	84	4.294
		Hi	Lo	94	3.748	94	2.351
		Hi	Hi	85	3.596	84	2.555
							(F = 124.76; p = .000)
					(F = 1.11; p = .293)	(F = .16; p = .692)	
					(F = .32; p = .569)	(F = 2.71; p = .102)	
					(F = .35; p = .554)	(F = .14; p = .705)	
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	115	3.739	117	2.963
		Lo	Hi	88	3.758	88	3.508
		Hi	Lo	115	4.153	117	4.262
		Hi	Hi	88	4.167	88	4.087
						(F = 8.61; p = .004)	(F = 20.21; p = .000)
						(F = .84; p = .359)	(F = 1.25; p = .265)
						(F = .82; p = .367)	(F = 2.96; p = .087)
						(F = .14; p = .708)	(F = .48; p = .491)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	115	3.487	114	3.199
		Lo	Hi	88	3.886	88	3.652
		Hi	Lo	115	4.354	114	4.184
		Hi	Hi	88	4.140	88	3.962
							(F = 8.98; p = .003)
					(F = .25; p = .615)	(F = .37; p = .543)	
					(F = 2.69; p = .103)	(F = 3.28; p = .071)	
					(F = .06; p = .805)	(F = 1.53; p = .218)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 23-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Thertile Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	138	5.068	139	4.065
		Lo	Hi	138	4.077	138	3.423
		Hi	Lo	138	3.920	139	2.743
		Hi	Hi	138	4.464	138	4.041
					(F = 5.77; p = .017)		(F = 3.95; p = .048)
					(F = .64; p = .426)		(F = 2.69; p = .102)
					(F = 23.44; p = .000)		(F = 30.10; p = .000)
					(F = 2.70; p = .101)		(F = 1.99; p = .159)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	139	5.050	138	4.268
		Lo	Hi	138	3.850	137	3.662
		Hi	Lo	139	3.856	138	2.756
		Hi	Hi	138	4.258	137	3.319
					(F = 6.60; p = .011)		(F = 15.55; p = .000)
					(F = 3.91; p = .049)		(F = 3.30; p = .070)
					(F = 27.45; p = .000)		(F = 28.24; p = .000)
					(F = .91; p = .341)		(F = .24; p = .626)
American							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	52	5.327	52	4.442
		Lo	Hi	67	5.363	67	4.159
		Hi	Lo	52	3.814	52	2.295
		Hi	Hi	67	3.746	67	2.214
					(F = 68.08; p = .000)		(F = 96.63; p = .000)
					(F = .01; p = .919)		(F = .62; p = .431)
					(F = .08; p = .784)		(F = .24; p = .628)
					(F = 1.37; p = .245)		(F = .06; p = .815)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	52	5.109	52	4.218
		Lo	Hi	68	5.093	68	4.500
		Hi	Lo	52	3.609	52	2.135
		Hi	Hi	68	3.529	68	2.461
					(F = 67.88; p = .000)		(F = 92.58; p = .000)
					(F = .03; p = .861)		(F = 2.33; p = .130)
					(F = .03; p = .864)		(F = .01; p = .918)
					(F = .09; p = .769)		(F = .14; p = .706)
Korean							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	70	3.748	72	2.991
		Lo	Hi	70	3.667	70	3.510
		Hi	Lo	70	4.229	72	3.958
		Hi	Hi	71	4.386	70	4.243
					(F = 5.91; p = .016)		(F = 11.79; p = .001)
					(F = .01; p = .929)		(F = 3.55; p = .061)
					(F = .23; p = .630)		(F = .22; p = .637)
					(F = .12; p = .733)		(F = .00; p = .998)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	72	3.880	72	3.273
		Lo	Hi	69	3.556	68	3.672
		Hi	Lo	72	4.083	72	4.037
		Hi	Hi	69	4.441	68	4.123
					(F = 5.30; p = .023)		(F = 7.46; p = .007)
					(F = .03; p = .858)		(F = 2.09; p = .151)
					(F = 2.01; p = .159)		(F = .49; p = .483)
					(F = .47; p = .494)		(F = 1.92; p = .168)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 24-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Tertile Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	154	5.102	154	3.903
		Lo	Hi	138	4.080	139	3.647
		Hi	Lo	154	4.011	154	2.807
		Hi	Hi	138	3.990	139	3.748
					culture main effect (F = 15.69; p = .000)		(F = 8.93; p = .003)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 10.52; p = .001)		(F = 3.99; p = .047)
					interaction effect (F = 11.30; p = .001)		(F = 12.91; p = .000)
					covariate effect (F = .20; p = .655)		(F = 3.53; p = .061)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	154	4.991	153	4.270
		Lo	Hi	140	4.033	139	3.868
		Hi	Lo	154	3.799	153	2.847
		Hi	Hi	140	3.943	139	3.755
					culture main effect (F = 21.08; p = .000)		(F = 24.90; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 5.93; p = .016)		(F = 2.70; p = .102)
					interaction effect (F = 15.56; p = .000)		(F = 18.12; p = .000)
					covariate effect (F = .00; p = .950)		(F = .21; p = .647)
American							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	76	5.592	76	4.610
		Lo	Hi	64	5.208	64	4.208
		Hi	Lo	76	4.057	76	2.425
		Hi	Hi	64	3.630	64	2.276
					culture main effect (F = 91.82; p = .000)		(F = 124.04; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 3.02; p = .085)		(F = 1.76; p = .187)
					interaction effect (F = .02; p = .895)		(F = .46; p = .497)
					covariate effect (F = 1.63; p = .204)		(F = 2.25; p = .136)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	76	5.443	76	4.623
		Lo	Hi	65	3.503	64	4.406
		Hi	Lo	76	3.645	76	2.421
		Hi	Hi	65	3.754	64	2.516
					culture main effect (F = 99.26; p = .000)		(F = 124.38; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 2.15; p = .145)		(F = .10; p = .749)
					interaction effect (F = .01; p = .942)		(F = .72; p = .398)
					covariate effect (F = .01; p = .924)		(F = 1.28; p = .260)
Korean							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	76	3.895	77	2.775
		Lo	Hi	88	3.785	88	3.508
		Hi	Lo	76	4.566	77	4.299
		Hi	Hi	88	4.167	88	4.087
					culture main effect (F = 6.37; p = .013)		(F = 22.75; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 1.77; p = .185)		(F = 2.05; p = .154)
					interaction effect (F = .37; p = .541)		(F = 4.59; p = .034)
					covariate effect (F = .02; p = .896)		(F = .20; p = .652)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	75	3.720	74	3.234
		Lo	Hi	88	3.886	88	3.652
		Hi	Lo	75	4.396	74	4.324
		Hi	Hi	88	4.140	88	3.962
					culture main effect (F = 5.38; p = .022)		(F = 11.54; p = .001)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .04; p = .843)		(F = .01; p = .920)
					interaction effect (F = 1.11; p = .294)		(F = 3.57; p = .060)
					covariate effect (F = .11; p = .735)		(F = .74; p = .392)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 25-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Median Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization			
Pooled	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)				
				Lo	Lo	193	4.480	193	3.748	
				Lo	Hi	188	4.518	190	3.607	
				Hi	Lo	193	4.174	193	3.404	
				Hi	Hi	188	3.984	190	3.230	
				culture main effect			(F = 9.23; p = .003)		(F = 5.41; p = .021)	
	QOL main effect			(F = .53; p = .468)		(F = .86; p = .356)				
	interaction effect			(F = .68; p = .410)		(F = .01; p = .914)				
	covariate effect			(F = .99; p = .320)		(F = 3.15; p = .077)				
	Infant Formula				194	4.338	193	4.028		
					Lo	Hi	188	4.488	187	3.790
					Hi	Lo	194	4.163	193	3.377
					Hi	Hi	188	3.821	187	3.250
					culture main effect			(F = 10.15; p = .002)		(F = 16.99; p = .000)
QOL main effect							(F = .65; p = .419)		(F = 2.14; p = .145)	
interaction effect			(F = 3.46; p = .064)		(F = .15; p = .701)					
covariate effect			(F = .77; p = .381)		(F = .03; p = .873)					
American	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)				
				Lo	Lo	88	5.580	88	4.398	
				Lo	Hi	91	5.150	91	4.165	
				Hi	Lo	88	3.898	88	2.451	
				Hi	Hi	91	3.630	91	2.179	
				culture main effect			(F = 121.90; p = .000)		(F = 142.13; p = .000)	
	QOL main effect			(F = 2.47; p = .118)		(F = 1.56; p = .214)				
	interaction effect			(F = .31; p = .578)		(F = .01; p = .908)				
	covariate effect			(F = .77; p = .380)		(F = 7.10; p = .008)				
	Infant Formula				89	5.360	89	4.663		
					Lo	Hi	91	5.143	90	4.352
					Hi	Lo	89	3.891	89	2.449
					Hi	Hi	91	3.502	90	2.444
					culture main effect			(F = 112.97; p = .000)		(F = 151.95; p = .000)
QOL main effect							(F = 1.75; p = .187)		(F = .75; p = .387)	
interaction effect			(F = .35; p = .555)		(F = .84; p = .361)					
covariate effect			(F = .23; p = .634)		(F = .14; p = .713)					
Korean	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)				
				Lo	Lo	111	3.706	111	3.339	
				Lo	Hi	91	3.769	93	2.925	
				Hi	Lo	111	4.399	111	4.117	
				Hi	Hi	91	4.319	93	4.297	
				culture main effect			(F = 9.54; p = .002)		(F = 26.92; p = .000)	
	QOL main effect			(F = .02; p = .902)		(F = .45; p = .502)				
	interaction effect			(F = .13; p = .720)		(F = 2.06; p = .153)				
	covariate effect			(F = .15; p = .697)		(F = .01; p = .904)				
	Infant Formula				111	3.580	110	3.579		
					Lo	Hi	91	3.769	91	3.139
					Hi	Lo	111	4.417	110	4.036
					Hi	Hi	91	4.073	91	4.147
					culture main effect			(F = 9.21; p = .003)		(F = 15.51; p = .000)
QOL main effect							(F = .14; p = .706)		(F = 1.42; p = .234)	
interaction effect			(F = 2.01; p = .167)		(F = 2.18; p = .141)					
covariate effect			(F = .03; p = .868)		(F = 2.48; p = .117)					

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 26-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Median Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	238	4.634	238	3.812
		Lo	Hi	130	4.426	132	3.616
		Hi	Lo	238	4.119	238	3.197
		Hi	Hi	130	4.018	132	3.432
			culture main effect		(F = 9.84; p = .002)		(F = 5.92; p = .015)
			QOL main effect		(F = .37; p = .541)		(F = .01; p = .930)
			interaction effect		(F = .13; p = .715)		(F = 1.72; p = .191)
			covariate effect		(F = 1.00; p = .318)		(F = 5.47; p = .020)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	238	4.636	237	4.076
		Lo	Hi	133	4.138	132	3.621
		Hi	Lo	238	3.996	237	3.253
		Hi	Hi	133	3.972	132	3.412
			culture main effect		(F = 8.23; p = .004)		(F = 11.25; p = .001)
			QOL main effect		(F = 2.79; p = .096)		(F = 1.34; p = .248)
			interaction effect		(F = 2.86; p = .092)		(F = 3.97; p = .047)
			covariate effect		(F = .23; p = .630)		(F = .11; p = .742)
American							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	124	5.414	124	4.269
		Lo	Hi	56	5.361	56	4.333
		Hi	Lo	124	3.847	124	2.228
		Hi	Hi	56	3.565	56	2.446
			culture main effect		(F = 108.16; p = .008)		(F = 124.50; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .99; p = .321)		(F = .49; p = .485)
			interaction effect		(F = .13; p = .722)		(F = .19; p = .663)
			covariate effect		(F = 1.12; p = .292)		(F = 1.00; p = .320)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	124	5.417	123	4.650
		Lo	Hi	57	4.883	57	4.135
		Hi	Lo	124	3.804	123	2.455
		Hi	Hi	57	3.339	57	2.327
			culture main effect		(F = 100.11; p = .000)		(F = 125.34; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 4.60; p = .033)		(F = 3.14; p = .078)
			interaction effect		(F = .05; p = .827)		(F = 1.18; p = .279)
			covariate effect		(F = .29; p = .589)		(F = .10; p = .752)
Korean							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	114	3.787	114	3.316
		Lo	Hi	74	3.806	76	3.088
		Hi	Lo	114	4.415	114	4.251
		Hi	Hi	74	4.360	76	4.158
			culture main effect		(F = 7.53; p = .007)		(F = 20.12; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .00; p = .951)		(F = 1.04; p = .309)
			interaction effect		(F = .03; p = .863)		(F = .09; p = .764)
			covariate effect		(F = .07; p = .790)		(F = .62; p = .432)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	114	3.787	114	3.456
		Lo	Hi	76	3.579	75	3.231
		Hi	Lo	114	4.205	114	4.114
		Hi	Hi	76	4.447	75	4.236
			culture main effect		(F = 10.49; p = .001)		(F = 17.66; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .00; p = .955)		(F = .02; p = .926)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.29; p = .258)		(F = .77; p = .382)
			covariate effect		(F = .06; p = .801)		(F = 1.70; p = .193)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 27-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Median Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	221	4.558	222	3.760	
			Hi	156	4.438	157	3.611	
			Lo	221	4.128	222	3.258	
			Hi	156	4.011	157	3.391	
						(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	109	5.480	109	4.352	
			Hi	66	5.182	66	4.222	
			Lo	109	4.012	109	2.281	
			Hi	66	3.293	66	2.247	
						(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	112	3.661	113	3.819	
			Hi	90	3.893	91	3.168	
			Lo	112	4.241	113	4.201	
			Hi	90	4.537	91	4.220	
						(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
Korean	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	111	3.577	110	3.491	
			Hi	91	3.817	91	3.293	
			Lo	111	3.964	110	3.858	
			Hi	91	4.637	91	4.374	
						(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 28-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Tertile Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization		
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	150	4.467	150	3.700
			Hi	151	4.587	153	3.693		
			Lo	150	4.218	150	3.371		
			Hi	151	3.870	153	3.100		
			culture main effect	(F = 9.56; p = .002)	(F = 7.41; p = .007)				
			QOL main effect	(F = .63; p = .429)	(F = .21; p = .651)				
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	151	4.373	151	4.040		
			Hi	152	4.579	151	3.901		
			Lo	151	4.208	151	3.437		
			Hi	152	3.724	151	3.168		
			culture main effect	(F = 11.79; p = .001)	(F = 17.03; p = .000)				
			QOL main effect	(F = .84; p = .361)	(F = 2.05; p = .153)				
			interaction effect	(F = 5.38; p = .021)	(F = .16; p = .688)				
			covariate effect	(F = .20; p = .656)	(F = .08; p = .772)				
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	62	5.667	62	4.242
			Hi	61	5.202	61	4.033		
			Lo	62	4.016	62	2.441		
			Hi	61	3.475	61	2.093		
			culture main effect	(F = 87.88; p = .000)	(F = 94.98; p = .000)				
			QOL main effect	(F = 2.51; p = .116)	(F = .72; p = .397)				
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	63	5.492	63	4.847		
			Hi	61	5.311	60	4.194		
			Lo	63	3.801	63	2.529		
			Hi	61	3.536	60	2.472		
			culture main effect	(F = 97.17; p = .000)	(F = 99.46; p = .000)				
			QOL main effect	(F = .29; p = .593)	(F = 2.25; p = .136)				
			interaction effect	(F = .07; p = .789)	(F = 2.16; p = .000)				
			covariate effect	(F = 1.69; p = .196)	(F = .01; p = .922)				
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	54	3.512	54	3.426
			Hi	68	3.804	70	3.062		
			Lo	54	4.191	54	3.883		
			Hi	68	4.250	70	4.243		
			culture main effect	(F = 4.16; p = .044)	(F = 8.95; p = .003)				
			QOL main effect	(F = .14; p = .706)	(F = .01; p = .917)				
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	54	3.728	54	3.772		
			Hi	69	3.841	69	3.367		
			Lo	54	4.296	54	3.932		
			Hi	69	4.034	69	4.058		
			culture main effect	(F = 2.25; p = .136)	(F = 2.92; p = .090)				
			QOL main effect	(F = .10; p = .757)	(F = .51; p = .478)				
			interaction effect	(F = .54; p = .462)	(F = 1.13; p = .289)				
			covariate effect	(F = .01; p = .938)	(F = .61; p = .437)				

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 29-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Thertile Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	98	4.466	98	3.520
		Lo	Hi	76	4.053	78	3.415
		Hi	Lo	98	4.296	98	3.269
		Hi	Hi	76	4.053	78	3.342
					culture main effect (F = .15; p = .695)		(F = .50; p = .480)
					QOL main effect (F = 2.44; p = .120)		(F = .06; p = .812)
					interaction effect (F = .15; p = .703)		(F = .15; p = .697)
					covariate effect (F = .38; p = .536)		(F = 1.12; p = .292)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	98	4.483	98	3.959
		Lo	Hi	78	3.850	77	3.303
		Hi	Lo	98	4.350	98	3.493
		Hi	Hi	78	4.115	77	3.485
					culture main effect (F = .11; p = .746)		(F = .40; p = .436)
					QOL main effect (F = 3.81; p = .052)		(F = 3.24; p = .074)
					interaction effect (F = .95; p = .746)		(F = 2.07; p = .152)
					covariate effect (F = .22; p = .638)		(F = .08; p = .781)
American							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	44	5.356	44	4.000
		Lo	Hi	105	5.244	105	4.244
		Hi	Lo	44	4.038	44	2.068
		Hi	Hi	105	3.629	105	2.387
					culture main effect (F = 69.03; p = .000)		(F = 92.18; p = .000)
					QOL main effect (F = .86; p = .356)		(F = 1.64; p = .202)
					interaction effect (F = .71; p = .401)		(F = .04; p = .850)
					covariate effect (F = .76; p = .384)		(F = .55; p = .460)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	44	5.432	44	4.561
		Lo	Hi	106	5.107	105	4.314
		Hi	Lo	44	4.114	44	2.462
		Hi	Hi	106	3.459	105	2.356
					culture main effect (F = 73.94; p = .000)		(F = 98.57; p = .000)
					QOL main effect (F = 3.20; p = .076)		(F = .79; p = .375)
					interaction effect (F = .91; p = .341)		(F = .12; p = .733)
					covariate effect (F = .06; p = .804)		(F = .17; p = .685)
Korean							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	54	3.741	54	3.130
		Lo	Hi	49	3.551	51	3.000
		Hi	Lo	54	4.506	54	4.247
		Hi	Hi	49	4.293	51	3.902
					culture main effect (F = 6.35; p = .013)		(F = 11.18; p = .001)
					QOL main effect (F = .65; p = .421)		(F = .96; p = .329)
					interaction effect (F = .00; p = .968)		(F = .13; p = .722)
					covariate effect (F = .23; p = .630)		(F = .28; p = .598)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	54	3.710	54	3.469
		Lo	Hi	51	3.359	50	3.060
		Hi	Lo	54	4.543	54	4.333
		Hi	Hi	51	4.346	50	4.040
					culture main effect (F = 10.48; p = .002)		(F = 10.65; p = .002)
					QOL main effect (F = 1.40; p = .239)		(F = 1.91; p = .170)
					interaction effect (F = .07; p = .785)		(F = .04; p = .838)
					covariate effect (F = .02; p = .896)		(F = 2.04; p = .157)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 30-3: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Thertile Split; Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				112	4.238	112	3.512
				156	4.438	157	3.611
				112	4.101	112	3.381
				156	4.011	157	3.391
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	111	4.078	111	3.664
				158	4.430	158	3.789
				111	3.910	111	3.270
				158	4.049	158	3.538
					(F = 2.69; p = .102)	(F = 3.52; p = .062)	
					(F = 2.22; p = .137)	(F = 1.80; p = .181)	
					(F = .41; p = .524)	(F = .17; p = .679)	
					(F = .03; p = .864)	(F = .24; p = .626)	
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				48	5.097	48	3.840
				66	5.182	66	4.222
				48	3.833	48	2.139
				66	3.293	66	2.247
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	48	5.014	48	3.875
				67	5.264	67	4.463
				48	3.889	48	2.410
				67	3.249	67	2.403
					(F = 72.75; p = .000)	(F = 67.67; p = .000)	
					(F = .57; p = .453)	(F = 1.77; p = .186)	
					(F = 5.84; p = .017)	(F = 1.93; p = .168)	
					(F = 1.86; p = .175)	(F = .03; p = .863)	
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				64	3.594	64	3.266
				90	3.893	91	3.188
				64	4.302	64	4.312
				90	4.537	91	4.220
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	63	3.365	64	3.516
				91	3.817	93	3.294
				63	3.926	64	3.943
				91	4.637	93	4.358
					(F = 9.48; p = .002)	(F = 13.06; p = .000)	
					(F = 9.49; p = .002)	(F = .20; p = .653)	
					(F = .34; p = .564)	(F = 2.39; p = .125)	
					(F = .70; p = .405)	(F = .31; p = .576)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 21-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Median Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
	Pills	Lo	Lo	197	4.870	199	3.905
		Lo	Hi	182	4.156	182	3.515
		Hi	Lo	197	3.863	199	2.754
		Hi	Hi	182	4.315	182	3.896
					culture main effect		(F = 9.84; p = .002)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 6.58; p = .011)
					interaction effect		(F = .83; p = .362)
					covariate effect		(F = 18.63; p = .000)
							(F = 26.05; p = .000)
							(F = .37; p = .542)
							(F = .09; p = .760)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	199	4.873	198	4.109
		Lo	Hi	181	3.965	180	3.733
		Hi	Lo	199	3.804	198	2.862
Hi		Hi	181	4.223	180	3.806	
					culture main effect		(F = 9.80; p = .002)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 17.30; p = .000)
				interaction effect		(F = .61; p = .435)	
				covariate effect		(F = 21.82; p = .000)	
						(F = 26.22; p = .000)	
						(F = 2.83; p = .093)	
						(F = .59; p = .442)	
American	Diet				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
	Pills	Lo	Lo	96	5.264	96	4.340
		Lo	Hi	84	5.476	84	4.214
		Hi	Lo	96	3.705	96	2.281
		Hi	Hi	84	3.865	84	2.317
					culture main effect		(F = 119.44; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 147.43; p = .000)
					interaction effect		(F = .74; p = .392)
					covariate effect		(F = .08; p = .779)
							(F = .03; p = .858)
							(F = .25; p = .619)
							(F = .07; p = .788)
							(F = .28; p = .595)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	96	5.226	96	4.465
		Lo	Hi	85	5.263	84	4.480
Hi		Lo	96	3.726	96	2.347	
Hi		Hi	85	3.624	84	2.496	
					culture main effect		(F = 114.55; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 151.05; p = .000)
				interaction effect		(F = .03; p = .855)	
				covariate effect		(F = .19; p = .663)	
						(F = .23; p = .636)	
						(F = .16; p = .689)	
						(F = .18; p = .674)	
						(F = .27; p = .604)	
Korean	Diet				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
	Pills	Lo	Lo	88	3.754	90	3.093
		Lo	Hi	111	3.784	111	3.312
		Hi	Lo	88	4.136	90	3.911
		Hi	Hi	111	4.523	111	4.426
					culture main effect		(F = 7.55; p = .007)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 20.75; p = .000)
					interaction effect		(F = 1.42; p = .236)
					covariate effect		(F = 4.87; p = .028)
							(F = .76; p = .384)
							(F = .49; p = .487)
							(F = .06; p = .814)
							(F = .11; p = .738)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	89	3.835	89	3.326
		Lo	Hi	110	3.609	109	3.529
Hi		Lo	89	4.026	89	3.993	
Hi		Hi	110	4.521	109	4.232	
					culture main effect		(F = 8.36; p = .004)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 12.92; p = .000)
				interaction effect		(F = .56; p = .454)	
				covariate effect		(F = 1.74; p = .189)	
						(F = 3.57; p = .060)	
						(F = .01; p = .923)	
						(F = .12; p = .726)	
						(F = .84; p = .361)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 22-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Median Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		
			Hi	215	4.878	216	3.790
		Lo	Hi	164	4.039	165	3.640
			Lo	215	4.107	216	2.966
		Hi	Lo	164	4.053	165	3.709
			Hi		(F = 7.54; p = .006)		(F = 6.01; p = .015)
					(F = 10.15; p = .002)		(F = 5.27; p = .022)
					(F = 8.12; p = .005)		(F = 8.40; p = .004)
					(F = .28; p = .598)		(F = .73; p = .393)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	214	4.796	213	4.039
			Hi	166	3.980	165	3.744
		Lo	Hi	214	3.988	213	3.066
			Lo	166	4.030	165	3.667
				(F = 8.27; p = .004)		(F = 14.07; p = .000)	
				(F = 6.96; p = .009)		(F = 1.85; p = .175)	
				(F = 10.61; p = .001)		(F = 9.05; p = .003)	
				(F = .53; p = .466)		(F = .40; p = .529)	
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		
			Hi	94	5.582	94	4.468
		Lo	Hi	85	5.125	85	4.078
			Lo	94	4.035	94	2.383
		Hi	Lo	85	3.529	85	2.184
			Hi		(F = 117.28; p = .000)		(F = 151.45; p = .000)
					(F = 5.42; p = .021)		(F = 2.59; p = .109)
					(F = .03; p = .863)		(F = .35; p = .555)
					(F = .25; p = .620)		(F = .40; p = .528)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	94	5.429	94	4.638
			Hi	86	5.112	85	4.282
		Lo	Hi	94	3.748	94	2.351
			Lo	86	3.620	85	2.553
				(F = 123.34; p = .000)		(F = 146.55; p = .000)	
				(F = 1.06; p = .304)		(F = .22; p = .640)	
				(F = .44; p = .510)		(F = 2.83; p = .094)	
				(F = .29; p = .592)		(F = .44; p = .506)	
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		
			Hi	112	3.726	114	2.985
		Lo	Hi	88	3.788	88	3.549
			Lo	112	4.479	114	4.240
		Hi	Lo	88	4.167	88	4.087
			Hi		(F = 7.79; p = .006)		(F = 18.06; p = .000)
					(F = .49; p = .487)		(F = 1.50; p = .221)
					(F = .85; p = .357)		(F = 2.89; p = .091)
					(F = .00; p = .973)		(F = 1.30; p = .256)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	112	3.515	111	3.237
			Hi	88	3.902	88	3.678
		Lo	Hi	112	4.411	111	4.246
			Lo	88	4.144	88	3.962
				(F = 9.09; p = .003)		(F = 11.82; p = .001)	
				(F = .10; p = .747)		(F = .19; p = .665)	
				(F = 2.99; p = .085)		(F = 3.72; p = .055)	
				(F = .03; p = .858)		(F = .40; p = .530)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 23-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Thertile Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	137	5.061	138	4.072
		Lo	Hi	137	4.092	137	3.465
		Hi	Lo	137	3.905	138	2.720
		Hi	Hi	137	4.443	137	4.032
					culture main effect (F = 6.47; p = .012)		(F = 4.94; p = .027)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 1.54; p = .216)		(F = 5.09; p = .026)
					interaction effect (F = 22.58; p = .000)		(F = 29.47; p = .000)
					covariate effect (F = .89; p = .347)		(F = 1.05; p = .306)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	138	5.072	137	4.285
		Lo	Hi	137	3.864	136	3.696
		Hi	Lo	138	3.870	137	2.762
		Hi	Hi	137	4.294	136	3.924
					culture main effect (F = 6.29; p = .013)		(F = 15.51; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 5.45; p = .020)		(F = 3.80; p = .052)
					interaction effect (F = 28.12; p = .000)		(F = 28.35; p = .000)
					covariate effect (F = .10; p = .752)		(F = .11; p = .738)
American							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	52	5.327	52	4.442
		Lo	Hi	68	5.363	68	4.167
		Hi	Lo	52	3.814	52	2.295
		Hi	Hi	68	3.775	68	2.216
					culture main effect (F = 67.34; p = .000)		(F = 98.34; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .00; p = .950)		(F = .72; p = .397)
					interaction effect (F = .04; p = .842)		(F = .23; p = .635)
					covariate effect (F = .24; p = .629)		(F = .55; p = .458)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	52	5.109	56	4.218
		Lo	Hi	69	5.092	69	4.483
		Hi	Lo	52	3.609	52	2.135
		Hi	Hi	69	3.560	69	2.459
					culture main effect (F = 66.76; p = .000)		(F = 93.11; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .03; p = .864)		(F = 1.88; p = .173)
					interaction effect (F = .01; p = .933)		(F = .02; p = .890)
					covariate effect (F = .23; p = .629)		(F = .73; p = .396)
Korean							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	68	3.740	70	3.005
		Lo	Hi	70	3.667	70	3.510
		Hi	Lo	68	4.206	70	3.929
		Hi	Hi	70	4.386	70	4.243
					culture main effect (F = 5.60; p = .019)		(F = 10.92; p = .001)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .06; p = .803)		(F = 3.71; p = .056)
					interaction effect (F = .26; p = .613)		(F = .14; p = .705)
					covariate effect (F = .00; p = .994)		(F = .07; p = .789)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	70	3.933	70	3.310
		Lo	Hi	69	3.556	68	3.672
		Hi	Lo	70	4.100	70	4.052
		Hi	Hi	69	4.411	68	4.123
					culture main effect (F = 4.84; p = .030)		(F = 7.04; p = .009)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .01; p = .918)		(F = 1.17; p = .282)
					interaction effect (F = 2.20; p = .141)		(F = .42; p = .518)
					covariate effect (F = .25; p = .618)		(F = .96; p = .330)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 24-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Thertile Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	153	5.096	153	3.908
		Lo	Hi	138	4.099	139	3.674
		Hi	Lo	153	3.998	153	2.768
		Hi	Hi	138	3.990	139	3.748
					(F = 16.34; p = .000)		(F = 9.91; p = .002)
					(F = 10.68; p = .001)		(F = 5.66; p = .018)
					(F = 10.98; p = .001)		(F = 12.93; p = .000)
					(F = .31; p = .576)		(F = 3.53; p = .061)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	153	5.011	152	4.285
		Lo	Hi	140	4.043	139	3.686
		Hi	Lo	153	3.810	152	2.853
		Hi	Hi	140	3.945	139	3.755
					(F = 21.52; p = .000)		(F = 25.73; p = .000)
					(F = 6.61; p = .011)		(F = 2.94; p = .088)
					(F = 15.53; p = .000)		(F = 17.90; p = .000)
					(F = .69; p = .406)		(F = .05; p = .820)
American							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	76	5.592	76	4.610
		Lo	Hi	65	5.210	65	4.215
		Hi	Lo	76	4.057	76	2.425
		Hi	Hi	65	3.662	65	2.277
					(F = 90.87; p = .000)		(F = 126.33; p = .000)
					(F = 2.82; p = .095)		(F = 1.72; p = .192)
					(F = .00; p = .966)		(F = .45; p = .504)
					(F = .26; p = .612)		(F = .17; p = .677)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	76	5.443	76	4.623
		Lo	Hi	66	5.086	65	4.390
		Hi	Lo	76	3.882	76	2.421
		Hi	Hi	66	3.535	65	2.513
					(F = 97.62; p = .000)		(F = 125.34; p = .000)
					(F = 2.24; p = .137)		(F = .16; p = .691)
					(F = .00; p = .972)		(F = .79; p = .374)
					(F = 1.30; p = .257)		(F = .35; p = .555)
Korean							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	75	3.867	76	2.772
		Lo	Hi	88	3.788	88	3.549
		Hi	Lo	75	4.547	76	4.276
		Hi	Hi	88	4.167	88	4.087
					(F = 6.05; p = .015)		(F = 21.16; p = .000)
					(F = 1.45; p = .230)		(F = 2.36; p = .127)
					(F = .49; p = .485)		(F = 4.74; p = .031)
					(F = .79; p = .374)		(F = 1.73; p = .191)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	74	3.743	73	3.251
		Lo	Hi	88	3.902	88	3.678
		Hi	Lo	74	4.428	73	4.356
		Hi	Hi	88	4.144	88	3.962
					(F = 5.31; p = .022)		(F = 11.28; p = .001)
					(F = .09; p = .766)		(F = .01; p = .926)
					(F = 1.21; p = .273)		(F = 3.94; p = .049)
					(F = .00; p = .944)		(F = .05; p = .828)

<.05; * P <.10)

(** P

Table 25-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Median Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	192	4.486	192	3.771
		Lo	Hi	187	4.535	189	3.633
		Hi	Lo	192	4.165	192	3.391
		Hi	Hi	187	3.975	189	3.210
					(F = 10.20; p = .002)		(F = 6.74; p = .010)
				(F = .29; p = .591)		(F = 1.56; p = .212)	
				(F = .75; p = .002)		(F = .02; p = .889)	
				(F = .47; p = .492)		(F = .30; p = .584)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	193	4.385	192	4.050
		Lo	Hi	187	4.510	186	3.810
		Hi	Lo	193	4.176	192	3.384
		Hi	Hi	187	3.847	186	3.260
					(F = 10.12; p = .002)		(F = 17.62; p = .000)
				(F = .40; p = .527)		(F = .41; p = .522)	
			(F = 3.29; p = .070)		(F = .16; p = .688)		
			(F = .72; p = .398)		(F = 2.17; p = .142)		
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	88	5.580	88	4.398
		Lo	Hi	92	5.152	92	4.170
		Hi	Lo	88	3.898	88	2.451
		Hi	Hi	92	3.652	92	2.181
					(F = 121.08; p = .000)		(F = 143.96; p = .000)
				(F = 2.51; p = .115)		(F = 1.73; p = .190)	
				(F = .40; p = .530)		(F = .02; p = .898)	
				(F = .12; p = .732)		(F = .09; p = .769)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	89	5.360	89	4.663
		Lo	Hi	92	5.141	91	4.341
		Hi	Lo	89	3.891	89	2.449
		Hi	Hi	92	3.525	91	2.443
					(F = 111.53; p = .000)		(F = 152.77; p = .000)
				(F = 1.70; p = .194)		(F = .84; p = .361)	
			(F = .26; p = .613)		(F = .90; p = .343)		
			(F = .12; p = .733)		(F = .19; p = .663)		
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	110	3.709	110	3.376
		Lo	Hi	89	3.779	91	2.952
		Hi	Lo	110	4.385	110	4.100
		Hi	Hi	89	4.288	91	4.289
					(F = 8.53; p = .004)		(F = 24.17; p = .000)
				(F = .01; p = .942)		(F = .43; p = .511)	
				(F = .17; p = .682)		(F = 2.14; p = .145)	
				(F = .00; p = .999)		(F = .31; p = .579)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	110	3.606	109	3.615
		Lo	Hi	89	3.794	89	3.172
		Hi	Lo	110	4.442	109	4.055
		Hi	Hi	89	4.112	89	4.199
					(F = 9.16; p = .003)		(F = 15.15; p = .000)
				(F = .16; p = .694)		(F = .78; p = .377)	
			(F = 1.84; p = .176)		(F = 2.42; p = .122)		
			(F = .06; p = .805)		(F = .62; p = .432)		

[** P < .05; * P < .10]

Table 26-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Median Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	237	4.646	237	3.838	
		Lo	Hi	130	4.451	132	3.636	
		Hi	Lo	237	4.105	237	3.188	
		Hi	Hi	130	4.031	132	3.419	
						(F = 10.77; p = .001)		(F = 7.00; p = .008)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	237	4.647	236	4.097	
		Lo	Hi	133	4.160	132	3.631	
		Hi	Lo	237	4.015	236	3.273	
		Hi	Hi	133	3.977	132	3.391	
						(F = 8.39; p = .004)		(F = 11.96; p = .001)
						(F = 3.00; p = .084)		(F = 1.75; p = .187)
	American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
			Lo	Lo	124	5.414	124	4.269
Lo			Hi	57	5.246	57	4.339	
Hi			Lo	124	3.847	124	2.228	
Hi			Hi	57	3.602	57	2.444	
						(F = 107.08; p = .000)		(F = 127.21; p = .000)
Infant Formula		Lo	Lo	124	5.417	123	4.650	
		Lo	Hi	58	4.885	58	4.121	
		Hi	Lo	124	3.804	123	2.445	
		Hi	Hi	58	3.379	58	2.328	
						(F = 98.75; p = .000)		(F = 126.57; p = .000)
						(F = 4.32; p = .039)		(F = 3.39; p = .067)
Korean		Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
			Lo	Lo	113	3.802	113	3.366
	Lo		Hi	73	3.831	75	3.102	
	Hi		Lo	113	4.389	113	4.242	
	Hi		Hi	73	4.365	75	4.160	
						(F = 6.72; p = .010)		(F = 18.41; p = .000)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	113	3.802	113	3.496	
		Lo	Hi	75	3.600	74	3.248	
		Hi	Lo	113	4.248	113	4.162	
		Hi	Hi	75	4.440	74	4.225	
						(F = 10.28; p = .002)		(F = 16.95; p = .000)
						(F = .00; p = .982)		(F = .24; p = .628)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 27-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Median Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	220	4.570	221	3.787	
			Hi	155	4.449	156	3.632	
			Lo	220	4.114	221	3.249	
			Hi	155	4.009	156	3.363	
						(F = 10.00; p = .002)	(F = 6.48; p = .011)	
						(F = .64; p = .423)	(F = .02; p = .880)	
						(F = .00; p = .957)	(F = .72; p = .397)	
						(F = .03; p = .860)	(F = 1.21; p = .271)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	219	4.419	217	4.025	
			Hi	157	4.465	157	3.809	
			Lo	219	3.967	217	3.151	
			Hi	157	4.066	157	3.531	
						(F = 9.69; p = .002)	(F = 15.19; p = .000)	
						(F = .25; p = .621)	(F = .43; p = .512)	
					(F = .04; p = .847)	(F = 4.06; p = .045)		
					(F = .27; p = .600)	(F = .15; p = .699)		
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	109	5.480	109	4.352	
			Hi	67	5.184	67	4.229	
			Lo	109	4.012	109	2.281	
			Hi	67	3.328	67	2.249	
						(F = 121.89; p = .000)	(F = 144.22; p = .000)	
						(F = 4.91; p = .028)	(F = .13; p = .718)	
						(F = 1.66; p = .199)	(F = .07; p = .789)	
						(F = .25; p = .618)	(F = .18; p = .675)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	108	5.254	108	4.522	
			Hi	68	5.260	68	4.446	
			Lo	109	3.927	108	2.389	
			Hi	68	3.284	68	2.402	
						(F = 120.17; p = .000)	(F = 144.90; p = .000)	
						(F = 1.92; p = .168)	(F = .04; p = .843)	
					(F = 4.63; p = .033)	(F = .07; p = .799)		
					(F = .04; p = .842)	(F = .03; p = .869)		
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	111	3.676	112	3.238	
			Hi	88	3.890	89	3.184	
			Lo	111	4.213	112	4.190	
			Hi	88	4.527	89	4.202	
						(F = 8.24; p = .005)	(F = 21.49; p = .000)	
						(F = 2.23; p = .137)	(F = .02; p = .887)	
						(F = .06; p = .809)	(F = .02; p = .876)	
						(F = .02; p = .878)	(F = .23; p = .631)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	110	3.591	109	3.532	
			Hi	89	3.858	89	3.322	
			Lo	110	4.006	109	3.905	
			Hi	89	4.663	89	4.293	
						(F = 10.10; p = .002)	(F = 14.60; p = .000)	
						(F = 6.51; p = .012)	(F = .65; p = .422)	
					(F = 1.03; p = .311)	(F = 3.41; p = .066)		
					(F = .13; p = .714)	(F = .71; p = .402)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 28-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Tertile Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			
			Lo	Lo	150	4.484	150	3.724
			Lo	Hi	151	4.585	153	3.710
			Hi	Lo	150	4.218	150	3.371
			Hi	Hi	151	3.874	153	3.096
				culture main effect		(F = 9.80; p = .002)	(F = 8.18; p = .005)	
				QOL main effect		(F = .61; p = .437)	(F = .88; p = .350)	
				interaction effect		(F = 2.02; p = .158)	(F = .60; p = .441)	
				covariate effect		(F = .04; p = .846)	(F = 1.04; p = .309)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	Lo	151	4.382	151	4.055
			Lo	Hi	152	4.586	151	3.909
			Hi	Lo	151	4.210	151	3.437
			Hi	Hi	152	3.741	151	3.170
						culture main effect		(F = 11.71; p = .001)
			QOL main effect		(F = .70; p = .404)	(F = 2.12; p = .147)		
			interaction effect		(F = 5.12; p = .024)	(F = .14; p = .707)		
			covariate effect		(F = .41; p = .524)	(F = .44; p = .509)		
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			
			Lo	Lo	62	5.667	62	4.242
			Lo	Hi	62	5.204	62	4.043
			Hi	Lo	62	4.016	62	2.441
			Hi	Hi	62	3.511	62	2.097
				culture main effect		(F = 86.84; p = .000)	(F = 96.85; p = .000)	
				QOL main effect		(F = 3.75; p = .055)	(F = 1.28; p = .260)	
				interaction effect		(F = .01; p = .905)	(F = .15; p = .704)	
				covariate effect		(F = 1.28; p = .260)	(F = .20; p = .655)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	Lo	63	5.492	63	4.847
			Lo	Hi	62	5.306	61	4.180
			Hi	Lo	63	3.810	63	2.529
			Hi	Hi	62	3.570	61	2.470
						culture main effect		(F = 96.30; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .67; p = .416)	(F = 2.60; p = .110)		
			interaction effect		(F = .02; p = .877)	(F = 2.28; p = .133)		
			covariate effect		(F = 1.69; p = .195)	(F = .06; p = .815)		
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)			
			Lo	Lo	55	3.533	55	3.467
			Lo	Hi	67	3.776	69	3.077
			Hi	Lo	55	4.188	55	3.885
			Hi	Hi	67	4.239	69	4.261
				culture main effect		(F = 4.11; p = .045)	(F = 8.57; p = .004)	
				QOL main effect		(F = .48; p = .492)	(F = .01; p = .939)	
				interaction effect		(F = .12; p = .728)	(F = 1.96; p = .164)	
				covariate effect		(F = .41; p = .525)	(F = 3.76; p = .055)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	Lo	55	3.721	55	3.782
			Lo	Hi	68	3.838	68	3.387
			Hi	Lo	55	4.315	55	3.952
			Hi	Hi	68	4.049	68	4.088
						culture main effect		(F = 2.52; p = .115)
			QOL main effect		(F = .06; p = .807)	(F = .26; p = .610)		
			interaction effect		(F = .57; p = .451)	(F = 1.14; p = .287)		
			covariate effect		(F = 1.16; p = .283)	(F = .12; p = .725)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 29-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Thertile Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization		
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	99	4.468	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	99	3.542
			Hi	75	4.080	77	3.433		
			Lo	99	4.293	99	3.276		
			Hi	75	4.053	77	3.333		
			culture main effect		(F = .22; p = .641)		(F = .63; p = .427)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	99	4.471	99	3.963		
			Hi	77	3.874	76	3.320		
			Lo	99	4.360	99	3.508		
			Hi	77	4.104	76	3.465		
			culture main effect		(F = .08; p = .772)		(F = .48; p = .492)		
			QOL main effect		(F = 4.03; p = .046)		(F = 3.69; p = .056)		
			interaction effect		(F = .70; p = .405)		(F = 1.78; p = .184)		
			covariate effect		(F = 1.10; p = .296)		(F = 2.77; p = .098)		
	American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	44	5.356	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	44
Hi				106	5.245	106	4.248		
Lo				44	4.038	44	2.068		
Hi				106	3.648	106	2.387		
culture main effect					(F = 68.37; p = .000)		(F = 92.26; p = .000)		
Infant Formula		Lo	Lo	44	5.432	44	4.561		
			Hi	107	5.106	106	4.305		
			Lo	44	4.114	44	2.462		
			Hi	107	3.480	106	2.355		
			culture main effect		(F = 72.85; p = .000)		(F = 98.96; p = .000)		
			QOL main effect		(F = 3.16; p = .078)		(F = .80; p = .371)		
			interaction effect		(F = .80; p = .373)		(F = .13; p = .715)		
			covariate effect		(F = .00; p = .948)		(F = .05; p = .820)		
Korean		Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	55	3.758	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	55
	Hi			48	3.583	50	3.020		
	Lo			55	4.497	55	4.242		
	Hi			48	4.299	50	3.900		
	culture main effect				(F = 5.90; p = .017)		(F = 10.30; p = .002)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	55	3.703	55	3.485		
			Hi	50	3.387	49	3.082		
			Lo	55	4.558	55	4.345		
			Hi	50	4.333	49	4.020		
			culture main effect		(F = 10.29; p = .002)		(F = 10.17; p = .002)		
			QOL main effect		(F = 1.33; p = .251)		(F = 2.95; p = .089)		
			interaction effect		(F = .03; p = .870)		(F = .02; p = .890)		
			covariate effect		(F = 1.30; p = .257)		(F = 5.40; p = .022)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 30-4: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Tertile Split; International Business Experience)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	111	4.258	111	3.565
		Lo	Hi	155	4.449	156	3.632
		Hi	Lo	111	4.072	111	3.363
		Hi	Hi	155	4.009	156	3.363
					culture main effect (F = 3.45; p = .064)		(F = 1.62; p = .204)
					QOL main effect (F = .15; p = .697)		(F = .05; p = .823)
					interaction effect (F = .57; p = .451)		(F = .03; p = .854)
					covariate effect (F = .06; p = .809)		(F = .00; p = .969)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	110	4.097	110	3.706
		Lo	Hi	157	4.465	157	3.809
		Hi	Lo	110	3.952	110	3.312
		Hi	Hi	157	4.066	157	3.531
					culture main effect (F = 2.61; p = .107)		(F = 3.79; p = .053)
					QOL main effect (F = 2.13; p = .145)		(F = 1.13; p = .289)
					interaction effect (F = .57; p = .452)		(F = .11; p = .738)
					covariate effect (F = .06; p = .814)		(F = 1.39; p = .239)
American							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	48	5.097	48	3.840
		Lo	Hi	67	5.184	67	4.229
		Hi	Lo	48	3.833	48	2.139
		Hi	Hi	67	3.328	67	2.249
					culture main effect (F = 74.76; p = .000)		(F = 90.02; p = .000)
					QOL main effect (F = .53; p = .468)		(F = 1.09; p = .299)
					interaction effect (F = 2.69; p = .104)		(F = .52; p = .474)
					covariate effect (F = .71; p = .400)		(F = .10; p = .751)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	48	5.014	48	3.875
		Lo	Hi	68	5.260	68	4.446
		Hi	Lo	48	3.889	48	2.410
		Hi	Hi	68	3.284	68	2.402
					culture main effect (F = 70.84; p = .000)		(F = 68.04; p = .000)
					QOL main effect (F = .30; p = .582)		(F = 1.59; p = .210)
					interaction effect (F = 5.33; p = .023)		(F = 1.85; p = .176)
					covariate effect (F = 2.48; p = .118)		(F = .25; p = .619)
Korean							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	63	3.619	63	3.354
		Lo	Hi	88	3.890	89	3.184
		Hi	Lo	63	4.254	63	4.296
		Hi	Hi	88	4.527	89	4.202
					culture main effect (F = 7.38; p = .007)		(F = 15.88; p = .000)
					QOL main effect (F = 1.76; p = .186)		(F = .48; p = .491)
					interaction effect (F = .00; p = .998)		(F = .02; p = .876)
					covariate effect (F = .01; p = .913)		(F = .54; p = .465)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	62	3.387	62	3.575
		Lo	Hi	89	3.858	89	3.322
		Hi	Lo	62	4.000	62	4.011
		Hi	Hi	89	4.663	89	4.393
					culture main effect (F = 9.67; p = .002)		(F = 12.45; p = .001)
					QOL main effect (F = 8.64; p = .004)		(F = .13; p = .718)
					interaction effect (F = .18; p = .674)		(F = 2.22; p = .139)
					covariate effect (F = .70; p = .404)		(F = 3.30; p = .071)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 21-5: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Median Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	200	4.852	202	3.881
		Lo	Hi	186	4.124	186	3.498
		Hi	Lo	200	3.865	202	2.772
		Hi	Hi	186	4.229	186	3.932
					culture main effect		(F = 9.22; p = .003)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 5.16; p = .024)
					interaction effect		(F = 1.31; p = .253)
					covariate effect		(F = 18.93; p = .000)
							(F = 26.91; p = .000)
							(F = .21; p = .643)
							(F = .69; p = .408)
		Infant Formula					
		Lo	Lo	202	4.835	201	4.078
		Lo	Hi	185	3.969	184	3.707
		Hi	Lo	202	3.796	201	2.864
		Hi	Hi	185	4.204	184	3.783
					culture main effect		(F = 10.00; p = .002)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 16.70; p = .000)
					interaction effect		(F = 3.21; p = .074)
					covariate effect		(F = 4.07; p = .044)
							(F = 24.93; p = .000)
							(F = 21.46; p = .000)
							(F = 1.01; p = .315)
							(F = .34; p = .559)
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	97	5.241	97	4.316
		Lo	Hi	84	5.476	84	4.214
		Hi	Lo	97	3.687	97	2.278
		Hi	Hi	84	3.865	84	2.317
					culture main effect		(F = 120.20; p = .003)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 146.65; p = .024)
					interaction effect		(F = .77; p = .381)
					covariate effect		(F = .04; p = .844)
							(F = .19; p = .665)
							(F = .10; p = .750)
							(F = .02; p = .882)
		Infant Formula					
		Lo	Lo	97	5.203	97	4.440
		Lo	Hi	85	5.263	84	4.480
		Hi	Lo	97	3.708	97	2.344
		Hi	Hi	85	3.624	84	2.496
					culture main effect		(F = 115.33; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 150.26; p = .000)
					interaction effect		(F = .01; p = .922)
					covariate effect		(F = .18; p = .673)
							(F = .24; p = .621)
							(F = .11; p = .737)
							(F = .03; p = .854)
							(F = .30; p = .586)
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	90	3.759	92	3.080
		Lo	Hi	115	3.745	115	3.293
		Hi	Lo	90	4.156	92	3.935
		Hi	Hi	115	4.490	115	4.467
					culture main effect		(F = 8.14; p = .005)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 23.87; p = .000)
					interaction effect		(F = .35; p = .546)
					covariate effect		(F = 4.00; p = .047)
							(F = .76; p = .385)
							(F = .59; p = .443)
							(F = .61; p = .436)
							(F = .34; p = .560)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	91	3.795	91	3.297
		Lo	Hi	114	3.629	113	3.493
		Hi	Lo	91	4.015	91	3.982
		Hi	Hi	114	4.480	113	4.180
					culture main effect		(F = 8.20; p = .005)
					ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 13.66; p = .000)
					interaction effect		(F = .02; p = .877)
					covariate effect		(F = 1.30; p = .256)
							(F = 2.85; p = .093)
							(F = .00; p = .995)
							(F = 3.89; p = .050)
							(F = .07; p = .798)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 22-5: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Median Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	217	4.874	218	3.778
		Lo	Hi	189	3.994	170	3.610
		Hi	Lo	217	4.106	218	2.976
		Hi	Hi	189	4.041	170	3.755
				culture main effect		(F = 7.04; p = .008)	
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 12.62; p = .000)		(F = 4.58; p = .033)
			interaction effect		(F = 9.00; p = .003)		(F = 9.68; p = .002)
			covariate effect		(F = .95; p = .331)		(F = 1.01; p = .315)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	216	4.775	215	4.020
		Lo	Hi	171	3.973	170	3.733
Hi		Lo	216	3.969	215	3.056	
Hi		Hi	171	4.019	170	3.653	
		culture main effect		(F = 8.55; p = .004)		(F = 13.62; p = .000)	
		ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 8.02; p = .005)		(F = .99; p = .320)	
		interaction effect		(F = 10.79; p = .001)		(F = 9.75; p = .002)	
		covariate effect		(F = 1.54; p = .216)		(F = .75; p = .388)	
American							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	95	5.554	95	4.442
		Lo	Hi	85	5.125	85	4.078
		Hi	Lo	95	4.014	95	2.379
		Hi	Hi	85	3.529	85	2.184
				culture main effect		(F = 118.05; p = .000)	
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 5.43; p = .021)		(F = 2.37; p = .126)
			interaction effect		(F = .04; p = .847)		(F = .27; p = .601)
			covariate effect		(F = .98; p = .323)		(F = .12; p = .733)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	95	5.404	95	4.611
		Lo	Hi	86	5.112	85	4.282
Hi		Lo	95	3.730	95	2.347	
Hi		Hi	86	3.620	85	2.553	
		culture main effect		(F = 124.01; p = .000)		(F = 146.48; p = .000)	
		ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .95; p = .332)		(F = .24; p = .628)	
		interaction effect		(F = .41; p = .524)		(F = 2.60; p = .109)	
		covariate effect		(F = .21; p = .648)		(F = .67; p = .414)	
Korean							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	115	3.739	117	2.963
		Lo	Hi	91	3.729	91	3.538
		Hi	Lo	115	4.153	117	4.262
		Hi	Hi	91	4.106	91	4.139
				culture main effect		(F = 8.41; p = .004)	
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 1.73; p = .190)		(F = 1.46; p = .228)
			interaction effect		(F = 1.00; p = .319)		(F = 2.87; p = .092)
			covariate effect		(F = 1.30; p = .256)		(F = 1.12; p = .291)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	115	3.487	114	3.199
		Lo	Hi	91	3.919	91	3.652
Hi		Lo	115	4.354	114	4.184	
Hi		Hi	91	4.158	91	3.967	
		culture main effect		(F = 8.96; p = .003)		(F = 12.59; p = .000)	
		ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .13; p = .720)		(F = .43; p = .511)	
		interaction effect		(F = 2.90; p = .090)		(F = 3.35; p = .069)	
		covariate effect		(F = 3.90; p = .050)		(F = .00; p = .996)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 23-5: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Tertile Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	139	5.053	140	4.050
		Lo	Hi	141	4.052	141	3.444
		Hi	Lo	139	3.908	140	2.783
		Hi	Hi	141	4.418	141	4.076
		culture main effect			(F = 6.23; p = .013)		(F = 3.79; p = .053)
		ethnocentrism main effect			(F = 1.33; p = .251)		(F = 5.10; p = .025)
		interaction effect			(F = 23.43; p = .000)		(F = 30.88; p = .000)
		covariate effect			(F = .55; p = .461)		(F = .01; p = .911)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	140	5.036	139	4.252
		Lo	Hi	141	3.872	140	3.662
		Hi	Lo	140	3.843	139	2.751
		Hi	Hi	141	4.267	140	3.890
		culture main effect			(F = 6.96; p = .009)		(F = 15.59; p = .000)
		ethnocentrism main effect			(F = 4.07; p = .045)		(F = 2.87; p = .091)
		interaction effect			(F = 27.54; p = .000)		(F = 28.80; p = .000)
		covariate effect			(F = .04; p = .838)		(F = .01; p = .924)
American							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	52	5.327	52	4.442
		Lo	Hi	68	5.363	68	4.167
		Hi	Lo	52	3.814	52	2.295
		Hi	Hi	68	3.775	68	2.216
		culture main effect			(F = 67.34; p = .000)		(F = 98.34; p = .000)
		ethnocentrism main effect			(F = .01; p = .914)		(F = .56; p = .467)
		interaction effect			(F = .04; p = .842)		(F = .23; p = .635)
		covariate effect			(F = .26; p = .612)		(F = .00; p = .971)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	52	5.109	56	4.218
		Lo	Hi	69	5.092	69	4.483
		Hi	Lo	52	3.609	52	2.135
		Hi	Hi	69	3.560	69	2.459
		culture main effect			(F = 66.76; p = .000)		(F = 93.11; p = .000)
		ethnocentrism main effect			(F = .02; p = .898)		(F = 1.75; p = .188)
		interaction effect			(F = .01; p = .933)		(F = .02; p = .890)
		covariate effect			(F = .01; p = .938)		(F = .37; p = .543)
Korean							
	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	70	3.748	72	2.991
		Lo	Hi	71	3.629	71	3.531
		Hi	Lo	70	4.229	72	3.958
		Hi	Hi	71	4.338	71	4.282
		culture main effect			(F = 5.89; p = .017)		(F = 12.19; p = .001)
		ethnocentrism main effect			(F = .00; p = .946)		(F = 3.73; p = .056)
		interaction effect			(F = .22; p = .643)		(F = .19; p = .661)
		covariate effect			(F = .03; p = .861)		(F = .08; p = .775)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	72	3.880	72	3.273
		Lo	Hi	70	3.600	69	3.647
		Hi	Lo	72	4.083	72	4.037
		Hi	Hi	70	4.443	69	4.082
		culture main effect			(F = 5.25; p = .023)		(F = 7.38; p = .008)
		ethnocentrism main effect			(F = .07; p = .795)		(F = 1.07; p = .302)
		interaction effect			(F = 1.96; p = .164)		(F = .55; p = .458)
		covariate effect			(F = 2.73; p = .101)		(F = .17; p = .682)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 24-5: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Thertile Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	155	5.088	155	3.890
		Lo	Hi	141	4.054	142	3.664
		Hi	Lo	155	3.998	155	2.802
		Hi	Hi	141	3.955	142	3.789
					culture main effect (F = 16.38; p = .000)		(F = 8.55; p = .004)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 13.12; p = .000)		(F = 5.22; p = .023)
					interaction effect (F = 11.37; p = .001)		(F = 13.54; p = .000)
					covariate effect (F = 1.03; p = .310)		(F = .46; p = .499)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	155	4.978	154	4.255
		Lo	Hi	143	4.051	142	3.864
		Hi	Lo	155	3.787	154	2.842
		Hi	Hi	143	3.958	142	3.763
					culture main effect (F = 21.59; p = .000)		(F = 24.85; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 6.71; p = .010)		(F = 1.73; p = .190)
					interaction effect (F = 15.77; p = .000)		(F = 18.86; p = .000)
					covariate effect (F = 1.70; p = .193)		(F = 2.00; p = .159)
American							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	77	5.558	77	4.576
		Lo	Hi	65	5.210	65	4.215
		Hi	Lo	77	4.030	77	2.240
		Hi	Hi	65	3.662	65	2.277
					culture main effect (F = 91.61; p = .000)		(F = 125.35; p = .024)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 2.57; p = .111)		(F = 1.16; p = .282)
					interaction effect (F = .00; p = .949)		(F = .35; p = .553)
					covariate effect (F = .29; p = .590)		(F = .08; p = .771)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	77	5.411	77	4.588
		Lo	Hi	66	5.086	65	4.390
		Hi	Lo	77	3.857	77	2.416
		Hi	Hi	66	3.535	65	2.513
					culture main effect (F = 98.39; p = .000)		(F = 124.31; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 1.63; p = .204)		(F = .16; p = .691)
					interaction effect (F = .00; p = .991)		(F = .67; p = .416)
					covariate effect (F = .01; p = .924)		(F = .34; p = .560)
Korean							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	76	3.895	77	2.775
		Lo	Hi	91	3.729	91	3.538
		Hi	Lo	76	4.566	77	4.299
		Hi	Hi	91	4.106	91	4.139
					culture main effect (F = 6.19; p = .014)		(F = 23.74; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 2.81; p = .096)		(F = 2.16; p = .143)
					interaction effect (F = .49; p = .487)		(F = 4.48; p = .036)
					covariate effect (F = .74; p = .391)		(F = 1.03; p = .311)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	75	3.720	74	3.234
		Lo	Hi	91	3.919	91	3.662
		Hi	Lo	75	4.396	74	4.324
		Hi	Hi	91	4.158	91	3.967
					culture main effect (F = 5.32; p = .022)		(F = 11.89; p = .001)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .29; p = .588)		(F = .00; p = .949)
					interaction effect (F = 1.22; p = .271)		(F = 3.65; p = .058)
					covariate effect (F = 7.17; p = .008)		(F = .29; p = .594)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 25-5: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Median Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization				
Pooled											
Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)					
				Lo	Lo	196	4.466	196	3.743		
				Lo	Hi	190	4.504	192	3.620		
				Hi	Lo	196	4.151	196	3.413		
				Hi	Hi	190	3.997	192	3.245		
				culture main effect		(F = 9.50; p = .002)		(F = 5.27; p = .022)			
				QOL main effect		(F = .24; p = .628)		(F = 1.13; p = .289)			
				interaction effect		(F = .60; p = .438)		(F = .02; p = .883)			
				covariate effect		(F = .00; p = .956)		(F = 2.01; p = .157)			
				Infant Formula				197	4.328	196	4.022
Lo	Hi	190	4.502					189	3.778		
Hi	Lo	197	4.147					196	3.391		
Hi	Hi	190	3.846					189	3.235		
culture main effect		(F = 10.24; p = .001)						(F = 16.91; p = .000)			
QOL main effect		(F = .16; p = .691)						(F = 2.32; p = .129)			
interaction effect		(F = 3.30; p = .070)						(F = .09; p = .759)			
covariate effect		(F = .31; p = .580)						(F = 1.04; p = .308)			
American											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	89	5.551	89	4.371		
				Lo	Hi	92	5.152	92	4.170		
				Hi	Lo	89	3.876	89	2.446		
				Hi	Hi	92	3.652	92	2.181		
				culture main effect		(F = 121.79; p = .008)		(F = 143.36; p = .031)			
				QOL main effect		(F = 2.11; p = .148)		(F = 1.55; p = .215)			
				interaction effect		(F = .37; p = .546)		(F = .04; p = .845)			
				covariate effect		(F = .16; p = .686)		(F = .00; p = .948)			
				Infant Formula				90	5.333	90	4.633
Lo	Hi	92	5.141					91	4.341		
Hi	Lo	90	3.870					90	2.444		
Hi	Hi	92	3.525					91	2.443		
culture main effect		(F = 112.37; p = .004)						(F = 151.82; p = .000)			
QOL main effect		(F = 1.45; p = .229)						(F = .61; p = .436)			
interaction effect		(F = .28; p = .699)						(F = .77; p = .381)			
covariate effect		(F = .03; p = .868)						(F = .63; p = .427)			
Korean											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	113	3.708	113	3.354		
				Lo	Hi	92	3.793	94	2.947		
				Hi	Lo	113	4.375	113	4.113		
				Hi	Hi	92	4.283	94	4.326		
				culture main effect		(F = 9.28; p = .003)		(F = 27.70; p = .000)			
				QOL main effect		(F = .01; p = .916)		(F = .33; p = .566)			
				interaction effect		(F = .10; p = .757)		(F = 2.15; p = .145)			
				covariate effect		(F = .95; p = .357)		(F = 1.27; p = .261)			
				Infant Formula				113	3.587	112	3.595
Lo	Hi	92	3.801					92	3.127		
Hi	Lo	113	4.404					112	4.062		
Hi	Hi	92	4.101					92	4.116		
culture main effect		(F = 9.00; p = .003)						(F = 15.74; p = .000)			
QOL main effect		(F = .01; p = .919)						(F = 1.35; p = .247)			
interaction effect		(F = 1.92; p = .167)						(F = 2.02; p = .157)			
covariate effect		(F = 4.17; p = .042)						(F = .00; p = .981)			

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 26-5: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Median Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 240	4.628	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 240	3.815
			Hi	133	3.396	135	3.622
			Lo	240	4.110	240	3.212
			Hi	133	3.992	135	3.440
			culture main effect		(F = 10.11; p = .002)	(F = 5.85; p = .016)	
	QOL main effect		(F = 1.43; p = .232)	(F = .02; p = .889)			
	interaction effect		(F = .16; p = .693)	(F = 1.67; p = .197)			
	covariate effect		(F = .00; p = .998)	(F = 1.84; p = .176)			
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	240	4.631	239	4.079
		Lo	Hi	136	4.154	135	3.595
		Hi	Lo	240	3.993	239	3.272
		Hi	Hi	136	3.990	135	3.378
		culture main effect		(F = 8.36; p = .004)	(F = 11.41; p = .001)		
	QOL main effect		(F = 2.54; p = .112)	(F = 2.09; p = .149)			
interaction effect		(F = 2.91; p = .089)	(F = 3.78; p = .052)				
covariate effect		(F = .18; p = .669)	(F = .76; p = .383)				
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 124	5.414	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 124	4.269
			Hi	58	5.207	58	4.229
			Lo	124	3.847	124	2.228
			Hi	58	3.575	58	2.437
			culture main effect		(F = 108.14; p = .008)	(F = 126.79; p = .000)	
	QOL main effect		(F = 1.02; p = .315)	(F = .38; p = .536)			
	interaction effect		(F = .04; p = .833)	(F = .26; p = .608)			
	covariate effect		(F = .13; p = .715)	(F = .05; p = .831)			
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	124	5.417	123	4.650
		Lo	Hi	59	4.953	59	4.085
		Hi	Lo	124	3.804	123	2.445
		Hi	Hi	59	3.356	59	2.322
		culture main effect		(F = 99.87; p = .000)	(F = 126.36; p = .000)		
	QOL main effect		(F = 4.84; p = .029)	(F = 3.54; p = .061)			
interaction effect		(F = .14; p = .710)	(F = 1.51; p = .221)				
covariate effect		(F = .02; p = .900)	(F = .21; p = .651)				
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 116	3.787	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 116	3.330
			Hi	75	3.769	77	3.113
			Lo	116	4.391	116	4.264
			Hi	75	4.316	77	4.195
			culture main effect		(F = 7.32; p = .007)	(F = 20.79; p = .000)	
	QOL main effect		(F = .10; p = .753)	(F = .86; p = .356)			
	interaction effect		(F = .02; p = .894)	(F = .11; p = .738)			
	covariate effect		(F = .41; p = .521)	(F = .95; p = .331)			
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	116	3.790	116	3.474
		Lo	Hi	77	3.619	76	3.215
		Hi	Lo	116	4.195	116	4.138
		Hi	Hi	77	4.476	76	4.197
		culture main effect		(F = 10.32; p = .002)	(F = 17.82; p = .000)		
	QOL main effect		(F = .01; p = .917)	(F = .26; p = .613)			
interaction effect		(F = 1.32; p = .252)	(F = .67; p = .415)				
covariate effect		(F = 3.05; p = .082)	(F = .06; p = .806)				

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 27-5: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Median Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	222	4.559	223	3.768	
		Lo	Hi	160	4.404	161	3.661	
		Hi	Lo	222	4.128	223	3.262	
		Hi	Hi	160	3.997	161	3.414	
					(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
						(F = 9.39; p = .002)		(F = 5.02; p = .026)
						(F = 1.17; p = .280)		(F = .01; p = .904)
						(F = .00; p = .989)		(F = .98; p = .324)
						(F = .00; p = .977)		(F = 2.52; p = .113)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	221	4.403	219	4.003	
		Lo	Hi	162	4.440	162	3.770	
		Hi	Lo	221	3.952	219	3.139	
		Hi	Hi	162	4.049	162	3.523	
					(F = 9.80; p = .002)		(F = 14.65; p = .000)	
					(F = .27; p = .604)		(F = .49; p = .482)	
					(F = .05; p = .823)		(F = 4.52; p = .034)	
					(F = .40; p = .525)		(F = 1.40; p = .238)	
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	109	5.480	109	4.352	
		Lo	Hi	68	5.152	68	4.196	
		Hi	Lo	109	4.012	109	2.281	
		Hi	Hi	68	3.309	68	2.245	
						(F = 122.65; p = .008)		(F = 143.61; p = .000)
						(F = 5.56; p = .020)		(F = .25; p = .620)
						(F = 1.58; p = .211)		(F = .13; p = .723)
						(F = .01; p = .941)		(F = .00; p = .998)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	109	5.254	108	4.522	
		Lo	Hi	69	5.227	69	4.411	
		Hi	Lo	109	3.927	108	2.389	
		Hi	Hi	69	3.266	69	2.396	
						(F = 120.73; p = .000)		(F = 144.28; p = .000)
						(F = 2.30; p = .131)		(F = .04; p = .844)
					(F = 4.49; p = .036)		(F = .12; p = .732)	
					(F = .00; p = .970)		(F = .40; p = .528)	
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	113	3.670	114	3.211	
		Lo	Hi	92	3.851	93	3.183	
		Hi	Lo	113	4.239	114	4.119	
		Hi	Hi	92	4.471	93	4.269	
						(F = 8.84; p = .003)		(F = 24.94; p = .000)
						(F = 1.47; p = .227)		(F = .03; p = .860)
						(F = .02; p = .900)		(F = .06; p = .814)
						(F = 1.15; p = .284)		(F = 1.61; p = .206)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	112	3.574	111	3.498	
		Lo	Hi	93	3.857	93	3.294	
		Hi	Lo	112	3.976	111	3.868	
		Hi	Hi	93	4.631	93	4.385	
						(F = 9.85; p = .002)		(F = 15.23; p = .000)
						(F = 7.27; p = .008)		(F = .66; p = .417)
					(F = .99; p = .322)		(F = 3.58; p = .060)	
					(F = 5.10; p = .025)		(F = .02; p = .893)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 28-5: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Tertile Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization		
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	153	4.449	153	3.695
			Hi	153	4.569	155	3.708		
			Lo	153	4.187	153	3.383		
			Hi	153	3.863	153	3.120		
			culture main effect	(F = 9.89; p = .002)	(F = 7.21; p = .008)				
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	154	4.359	154	4.032		
			Hi	154	4.595	153	3.885		
			Lo	154	4.186	154	3.455		
			Hi	154	3.755	153	3.150		
			culture main effect	(F = 11.91; p = .001)	(F = 16.95; p = .000)				
			QOL main effect	(F = .24; p = .621)	(F = 2.01; p = .157)				
			interaction effect	(F = 5.16; p = .024)	(F = .24; p = .624)				
			covariate effect	(F = .69; p = .407)	(F = 1.45; p = .230)				
	American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	63	5.624	63
Hi				62	5.204	62	4.043		
Lo				63	3.984	63	2.434		
Hi				62	3.511	62	2.097		
culture main effect				(F = 87.63; p = .000)	(F = 96.37; p = .000)				
Infant Formula		Lo	Lo	64	5.453	64	4.802		
			Hi	62	5.306	61	4.180		
			Lo	64	3.781	64	2.521		
			Hi	62	3.570	61	2.470		
			culture main effect	(F = 97.14; p = .000)	(F = 99.37; p = .000)				
		QOL main effect	(F = .29; p = .594)	(F = 1.77; p = .186)					
		interaction effect	(F = .03; p = .852)	(F = 2.03; p = .156)					
		covariate effect	(F = 1.65; p = .201)	(F = 2.61; p = .108)					
Korean		Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	55	3.533	55
	Hi			69	3.763	71	3.089		
	Lo			55	4.188	55	3.885		
	Hi			69	4.203	71	4.282		
	culture main effect			(F = 4.06; p = .046)	(F = 8.91; p = .003)				
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	55	3.721	55	3.782		
			Hi	70	3.881	70	3.348		
			Lo	55	4.315	55	3.952		
			Hi	70	4.071	70	4.019		
			culture main effect	(F = 2.46; p = .119)	(F = 2.94; p = .089)				
			QOL main effect	(F = .00; p = .983)	(F = .52; p = .471)				
			interaction effect	(F = .65; p = .421)	(F = 1.05; p = .308)				
			covariate effect	(F = 3.76; p = .055)	(F = .07; p = .789)				

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 29-1: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Tertile Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization				
Pooled											
Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)					
				Lo	Lo	99	4.468	99	3.542		
				Lo	Hi	78	4.000	80	3.417		
				Hi	Lo	99	4.293	99	3.276		
				Hi	Hi	78	3.987	80	3.371		
				culture main effect				(F = .20; p = .658)		(F = .48; p = .491)	
				QOL main effect				(F = 3.61; p = .059)		(F = .00; p = .986)	
				interaction effect				(F = .15; p = .703)		(F = .24; p = .626)	
				covariate effect				(F = 1.08; p = .301)		(F = 1.90; p = .170)	
				Infant Formula				99	4.471	99	3.963
Lo	Hi	80	3.875					79	3.270		
Hi	Lo	99	4.360					99	3.508		
Hi	Hi	80	4.121					79	3.439		
culture main effect								(F = .11; p = .738)		(F = .42; p = .519)	
QOL main effect								(F = 3.97; p = .048)		(F = 4.32; p = .039)	
interaction effect								(F = .79; p = .375)		(F = 1.99; p = .160)	
covariate effect								(F = .16; p = .692)		(F = 3.41; p = .067)	
American											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	44	5.356	44	4.000		
				Lo	Hi	107	5.224	107	4.227		
				Hi	Lo	44	4.038	44	2.068		
				Hi	Hi	107	3.632	107	2.383		
				culture main effect				(F = 68.72; p = .000)		(F = 92.83; p = .000)	
				QOL main effect				(F = .83; p = .363)		(F = 1.46; p = .229)	
				interaction effect				(F = .61; p = .437)		(F = .05; p = .823)	
				covariate effect				(F = .46; p = .501)		(F = .07; p = .796)	
				Infant Formula				44	5.432	44	4.561
Lo	Hi	108	5.086					107	4.283		
Hi	Lo	44	4.114					44	2.462		
Hi	Hi	108	3.466					107	2.352		
culture main effect								(F = 73.20; p = .000)		(F = 98.51; p = .000)	
QOL main effect								(F = 3.35; p = .069)		(F = .56; p = .454)	
interaction effect								(F = .77; p = .380)		(F = .17; p = .681)	
covariate effect								(F = .00; p = .964)		(F = 1.32; p = .253)	
Korean											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	55	3.758	55	3.176		
				Lo	Hi	50	3.500	52	3.038		
				Hi	Lo	55	4.487	55	4.242		
				Hi	Hi	50	4.227	52	3.962		
				culture main effect				(F = 6.23; p = .014)		(F = 11.17; p = .001)	
				QOL main effect				(F = 1.86; p = .176)		(F = 1.18; p = .279)	
				interaction effect				(F = .00; p = .983)		(F = .06; p = .810)	
				covariate effect				(F = 5.11; p = .026)		(F = 2.41; p = .123)	
				Infant Formula				55	3.703	55	3.485
Lo	Hi	52	3.423					51	3.039		
Hi	Lo	55	4.558					55	4.345		
Hi	Hi	52	4.391					51	3.987		
culture main effect								(F = 10.89; p = .001)		(F = 10.60; p = .002)	
QOL main effect								(F = 1.09; p = .300)		(F = 3.85; p = .052)	
interaction effect								(F = .04; p = .838)		(F = .02; p = .876)	
covariate effect								(F = 1.06; p = .306)		(F = .40; p = .530)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 30-5: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Thertile Split; Gender)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	113	4.242	113	3.531
		Lo	Hi	160	4.404	161	3.611
		Hi	Lo	113	4.100	113	3.886
		Hi	Hi	160	3.977	161	3.414
			culture main effect		(F = 2.93; p = .088)		(F = .87; p = .351)
			QOL main effect		(F = .04; p = .846)		(F = .35; p = .557)
			interaction effect		(F = .74; p = .391)		(F = .02; p = .887)
			covariate effect		(F = .37; p = .545)		(F = 3.45; p = .064)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	112	4.071	112	3.670
		Lo	Hi	162	4.440	162	3.523
		Hi	Lo	112	3.923	112	3.286
		Hi	Hi	162	4.049	162	3.523
			culture main effect		(F = 2.67; p = .103)		(F = 3.48; p = .063)
			QOL main effect		(F = 2.59; p = .109)		(F = 1.81; p = .180)
			interaction effect		(F = .54; p = .464)		(F = .16; p = .686)
			covariate effect		(F = .89; p = .345)		(F = 3.64; p = .057)
American							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	48	5.097	48	3.840
		Lo	Hi	68	5.182	68	4.196
		Hi	Lo	48	3.833	48	2.139
		Hi	Hi	68	3.309	68	2.245
			culture main effect		(F = 75.14; p = .000)		(F = 89.21; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .69; p = .406)		(F = .74; p = .391)
			interaction effect		(F = 2.61; p = .109)		(F = .42; p = .520)
			covariate effect		(F = .01; p = .934)		(F = .22; p = .642)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	48	5.014	48	3.875
		Lo	Hi	69	5.227	69	4.411
		Hi	Lo	48	3.889	48	2.410
		Hi	Hi	69	3.266	69	2.396
			culture main effect		(F = 71.08; p = .000)		(F = 67.42; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = .68; p = .410)		(F = 1.82; p = .181)
			interaction effect		(F = 5.22; p = .024)		(F = 1.68; p = .198)
			covariate effect		(F = .23; p = .632)		(F = .64; p = .425)
Korean							
	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	65	3.610	65	3.303
		Lo	Hi	92	3.851	93	3.183
		Hi	Lo	65	4.297	65	4.308
		Hi	Hi	92	4.471	93	4.269
			culture main effect		(F = 8.21; p = .005)		(F = 19.10; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 1.12; p = .291)		(F = .13; p = .717)
			interaction effect		(F = .02; p = .882)		(F = .03; p = .866)
			covariate effect		(F = 1.65; p = .201)		(F = 5.26; p = .023)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	64	3.365	64	3.516
		Lo	Hi	93	3.857	93	3.294
		Hi	Lo	64	3.948	64	3.943
		Hi	Hi	93	4.631	93	4.358
			culture main effect		(F = 9.39; p = .003)		(F = 13.06; p = .000)
			QOL main effect		(F = 10.09; p = .002)		(F = .26; p = .611)
			interaction effect		(F = .19; p = .667)		(F = 2.39; p = .125)
			covariate effect		(F = 8.01; p = .005)		(F = 1.04; p = .309)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 21-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Median Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	200	4.852	202	3.881
		Lo	Hi	185	4.130	185	3.503
		Hi	Lo	200	3.865	202	2.772
		Hi	Hi	185	4.312	185	3.921
						(F = 9.03; p = .003)	(F = 5.38; p = .021)
						(F = .41; p = .521)	(F = 5.09; p = .025)
						(F = 19.04; p = .000)	(F = 26.29; p = .000)
						(F = .75; p = .387)	(F = 4.47; p = .035)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	202	4.835	201	4.078
		Lo	Hi	184	3.966	183	3.701
		Hi	Lo	202	3.792	201	2.864
		Hi	Hi	184	4.216	183	3.770
							(F = 9.59; p = .002)
					(F = 1.26; p = .263)	(F = 3.04; p = .082)	
					(F = 25.50; p = .000)	(F = 21.13; p = .000)	
					(F = 1.13; p = .288)	(F = .79; p = .375)	
American	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	97	5.241	97	4.316
		Lo	Hi	84	5.476	84	4.214
		Hi	Lo	97	3.687	97	2.278
		Hi	Hi	84	3.865	84	2.317
						(F = 120.20; p = .003)	(F = 146.65; p = .024)
						(F = .68; p = .411)	(F = .10; p = .749)
						(F = .04; p = .841)	(F = .19; p = .665)
						(F = 4.53; p = .035)	(F = 3.81; p = .053)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	97	5.203	97	4.440
		Lo	Hi	85	5.263	84	4.480
		Hi	Lo	97	3.708	97	2.344
		Hi	Hi	85	3.624	84	2.496
							(F = 115.33; p = .000)
					(F = .01; p = .914)	(F = .22; p = .637)	
					(F = .24; p = .621)	(F = .11; p = .737)	
					(F = .50; p = .482)	(F = 1.61; p = .206)	
Korean	Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)
		Lo	Lo	90	3.759	92	3.080
		Lo	Hi	114	3.751	114	3.298
		Hi	Lo	90	4.156	92	3.935
		Hi	Hi	114	4.512	114	4.453
						(F = 8.30; p = .004)	(F = 23.29; p = .000)
						(F = 1.09; p = .298)	(F = 5.96; p = .015)
						(F = .82; p = .366)	(F = .52; p = .472)
						(F = .15; p = .703)	(F = .99; p = .320)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	91	3.795	91	3.297
		Lo	Hi	113	3.619	112	3.482
		Hi	Lo	91	4.015	91	3.982
		Hi	Hi	113	4.501	112	4.164
							(F = 8.69; p = .004)
					(F = .65; p = .423)	(F = 1.88; p = .172)	
					(F = 3.14; p = .078)	(F = .00; p = .993)	
					(F = .00; p = .948)	(F = 2.20; p = .140)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 22-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Median Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	4.874	218	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
			Hi	217			
		Lo	Lo	168	4.000	169	3.615
			Hi	217	4.106	218	2.976
		Hi	Lo	168	4.054	169	3.742
			Hi	168	4.054	169	3.742
			culture main effect		(F = 6.88; p = .009)	(F = 4.92; p = .027)	
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 10.15; p = .002)	(F = 3.10; p = .079)	
			interaction effect		(F = 9.09; p = .003)	(F = 9.27; p = .002)	
			covariate effect		(F = .19; p = .666)	(F = 8.50; p = .004)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	216	4.775	215	4.020
			Hi	170	3.969	169	3.728
		Lo	Lo	216	3.969	215	3.056
			Hi	170	4.031	169	3.639
	Hi	Lo	170	4.031	169	3.639	
		Hi	170	4.031	169	3.639	
		culture main effect		(F = 8.17; p = .004)	(F = 13.77; p = .000)		
		ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 5.37; p = .021)	(F = .69; p = .405)		
		interaction effect		(F = 11.17; p = .001)	(F = 9.52; p = .002)		
		covariate effect		(F = 1.03; p = .310)	(F = 2.12; p = .146)		
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	5.554	95	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
			Hi	95			
		Lo	Lo	85	5.125	85	4.078
			Hi	95	4.014	95	2.379
		Hi	Lo	85	3.529	85	2.184
			Hi	85	3.529	85	2.184
			culture main effect		(F = 118.05; p = .000)	(F = 150.60; p = .000)	
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 4.46; p = .036)	(F = 2.04; p = .155)	
			interaction effect		(F = .04; p = .847)	(F = .27; p = .601)	
			covariate effect		(F = 4.25; p = .041)	(F = 3.37; p = .068)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	95	5.404	95	4.611
			Hi	86	5.112	85	4.282
		Lo	Lo	95	3.730	95	2.347
			Hi	86	3.620	85	2.553
	Hi	Lo	86	3.620	85	2.553	
		Hi	86	3.620	85	2.553	
		culture main effect		(F = 124.01; p = .000)	(F = 146.48; p = .000)		
		ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .77; p = .383)	(F = .08; p = .778)		
		interaction effect		(F = .41; p = .524)	(F = 2.60; p = .109)		
		covariate effect		(F = .39; p = .535)	(F = 1.77; p = .185)		
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	3.739	117	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)
			Hi	115			
		Lo	Lo	90	3.737	90	3.548
			Hi	115	4.153	117	4.262
		Hi	Lo	90	4.130	90	4.119
			Hi	90	4.130	90	4.119
			culture main effect		(F = 8.55; p = .004)	(F = 20.39; p = .000)	
			ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 1.16; p = .283)	(F = 1.75; p = .188)	
			interaction effect		(F = .91; p = .340)	(F = 3.10; p = .080)	
			covariate effect		(F = .04; p = .849)	(F = .10; p = .750)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	115	3.487	114	3.199
			Hi	90	3.911	90	3.641
		Lo	Lo	115	4.354	114	4.184
			Hi	90	4.181	90	3.944
	Hi	Lo	90	4.181	90	3.944	
		Hi	90	4.181	90	3.944	
		culture main effect		(F = 9.44; p = .002)	(F = 12.25; p = .001)		
		ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .46; p = .498)	(F = .32; p = .574)		
		interaction effect		(F = 2.60; p = .109)	(F = 3.42; p = .066)		
		covariate effect		(F = .28; p = .595)	(F = .57; p = .453)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 23-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF1; Thertile Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	139	5.053	140	4.050
		Lo	Hi	140	4.060	140	3.450
		Hi	Lo	139	3.908	140	2.783
		Hi	Hi	140	4.436	140	4.062
					culture main effect (F = 6.03; p = .015)		(F = 3.99; p = .047)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .43; p = .515)		(F = 1.15; p = .285)
					interaction effect (F = 23.59; p = .000)		(F = 30.15; p = .000)
					covariate effect (F = 1.55; p = .213)		(F = 5.01; p = .026)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	140	5.036	139	4.252
		Lo	Hi	140	3.667	139	3.655
		Hi	Lo	140	3.843	139	2.751
		Hi	Hi	140	4.283	139	3.875
					culture main effect (F = 6.57; p = .011)		(F = 15.68; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = 2.09; p = .150)		(F = 1.32; p = .251)
					interaction effect (F = 28.25; p = .000)		(F = 28.35; p = .000)
					covariate effect (F = 1.05; p = .307)		(F = .75; p = .388)
American							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	52	5.327	52	4.442
		Lo	Hi	68	5.363	68	4.167
		Hi	Lo	52	3.814	52	2.295
		Hi	Hi	68	3.775	68	2.216
					culture main effect (F = 67.34; p = .000)		(F = 98.34; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .00; p = .983)		(F = .61; p = .436)
					interaction effect (F = .04; p = .842)		(F = .23; p = .635)
					covariate effect (F = 3.15; p = .078)		(F = 1.35; p = .249)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	52	5.109	56	4.218
		Lo	Hi	69	5.092	69	4.483
		Hi	Lo	52	3.609	52	2.135
		Hi	Hi	69	3.560	69	2.459
					culture main effect (F = 66.76; p = .000)		(F = 93.11; p = .000)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .00; p = .954)		(F = 2.17; p = .143)
					interaction effect (F = .01; p = .933)		(F = .02; p = .890)
					covariate effect (F = .00; p = .908)		(F = .24; p = .622)
Korean							
	Diet Pills			(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
		Lo	Lo	70	3.748	72	2.991
		Lo	Hi	71	3.629	71	3.531
		Hi	Lo	70	4.229	72	3.958
		Hi	Hi	71	4.330	71	4.282
					culture main effect (F = 5.89; p = .017)		(F = 12.19; p = .001)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .02; p = .894)		(F = .55; p = .458)
					interaction effect (F = .22; p = .643)		(F = .18; p = .661)
					covariate effect (F = .24; p = .623)		(F = 4.82; p = .030)
	Infant Formula						
		Lo	Lo	72	3.880	72	3.273
		Lo	Hi	70	3.600	69	3.647
		Hi	Lo	72	4.083	72	4.037
		Hi	Hi	70	4.443	69	4.082
					culture main effect (F = 5.25; p = .023)		(F = 7.36; p = .008)
					ethnocentrism main effect (F = .14; p = .711)		(F = 1.55; p = .216)
					interaction effect (F = 1.96; p = .164)		(F = .55; p = .458)
					covariate effect (F = .78; p = .378)		(F = 1.78; p = .185)

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 24-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism (ETHF2; Tertile Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	Ethnocentrism	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 155	5.088	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 155	3.890
			Hi	140	4.062	141	3.671
			Lo	155	3.998	155	2.802
			Hi	140	3.969	141	3.773
			culture main effect		(F = 16.10; p = .000)	(F = 8.94; p = .003)	
	ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 9.61; p = .002)	(F = 2.56; p = .111)			
	interaction effect		(F = 11.44; p = .001)	(F = 13.00; p = .000)			
	covariate effect		(F = .12; p = .734)	(F = 6.74; p = .010)			
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	155	4.978	154	4.255
			Hi	142	4.047	141	3.858
			Lo	155	3.787	154	2.842
			Hi	142	3.972	141	3.747
			culture main effect		(F = 20.92; p = .000)	(F = 25.03; p = .000)	
	ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 3.87; p = .050)	(F = 1.45; p = .229)			
interaction effect		(F = 16.25; p = .000)	(F = 18.26; p = .000)				
covariate effect		(F = .27; p = .603)	(F = 1.91; p = .168)				
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 77	5.558	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 77	4.576
			Hi	65	5.210	65	4.215
			Lo	77	4.030	77	2.240
			Hi	65	3.662	65	2.277
			culture main effect		(F = 91.61; p = .000)	(F = 125.35; p = .024)	
	ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 2.25; p = .136)	(F = 1.38; p = .242)			
	interaction effect		(F = .00; p = .949)	(F = .35; p = .553)			
	covariate effect		(F = 3.48; p = .064)	(F = 3.48; p = .064)			
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	77	5.411	77	4.588
			Hi	66	5.086	65	4.390
			Lo	77	3.857	77	2.416
			Hi	66	3.535	65	2.513
			culture main effect		(F = 98.39; p = .000)	(F = 124.31; p = .000)	
	ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 1.65; p = .202)	(F = .05; p = .822)			
interaction effect		(F = .00; p = .991)	(F = .67; p = .416)				
covariate effect		(F = .50; p = .479)	(F = 2.37; p = .126)				
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 76	3.895	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 77	2.775
			Hi	90	3.737	90	3.548
			Lo	76	4.566	77	4.299
			Hi	90	4.130	90	4.119
			culture main effect		(F = 6.31; p = .013)	(F = 22.95; p = .000)	
	ethnocentrism main effect		(F = 2.16; p = .144)	(F = 2.61; p = .108)			
	interaction effect		(F = .43; p = .512)	(F = 4.76; p = .031)			
	covariate effect		(F = .21; p = .651)	(F = .01; p = .916)			
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	75	3.720	74	3.234
			Hi	90	3.911	90	3.641
			Lo	75	4.396	74	4.324
			Hi	90	4.181	90	3.944
			culture main effect		(F = 5.69; p = .018)	(F = 11.68; p = .001)	
	ethnocentrism main effect		(F = .00; p = .969)	(F = .00; p = .967)			
interaction effect		(F = 1.04; p = .309)	(F = 3.72; p = .056)				
covariate effect		(F = .24; p = .626)	(F = .69; p = .407)				

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 25-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Median Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
			Lo	195	4.474	195	3.749
			Hi	190	4.504	192	3.620
			Lo	195	4.162	195	3.400
			Hi	190	3.977	192	3.245
			culture main effect	(F = 9.38; p = .002)		(F = 5.55; p = .019)	
			QOL main effect	(F = .87; p = .412)		(F = .25; p = .620)	
			interaction effect	(F = .82; p = .432)		(F = .01; p = .932)	
			covariate effect	(F = 1.50; p = .222)		(F = 8.29; p = .004)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	196	4.327	195	4.019
			Lo	190	4.502	189	3.778
			Hi	196	4.158	195	3.378
			Hi	190	3.846	189	3.235
					culture main effect	(F = 9.91; p = .002)	
		QOL main effect	(F = .64; p = .424)		(F = 1.56; p = .213)		
		interaction effect	(F = 3.47; p = .063)		(F = .12; p = .733)		
		covariate effect	(F = 2.50; p = .115)		(F = 1.54; p = .216)		
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
			Lo	89	5.551	89	4.371
			Hi	92	5.152	92	4.170
			Lo	89	3.876	89	2.446
			Hi	92	3.652	92	2.181
			culture main effect	(F = 121.79; p = .008)		(F = 143.36; p = .031)	
			QOL main effect	(F = 1.19; p = .277)		(F = .77; p = .381)	
			interaction effect	(F = .37; p = .546)		(F = .04; p = .845)	
			covariate effect	(F = 3.62; p = .059)		(F = 3.22; p = .074)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	90	5.333	90	4.633
			Lo	92	5.141	91	4.341
			Hi	90	3.870	90	2.444
			Hi	92	3.525	91	2.443
					culture main effect	(F = 112.37; p = .004)	
		QOL main effect	(F = 1.20; p = .274)		(F = .34; p = .562)		
		interaction effect	(F = .28; p = .699)		(F = .77; p = .381)		
		covariate effect	(F = .28; p = .609)		(F = 1.61; p = .206)		
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
			Lo	112	3.714	112	3.360
			Hi	92	3.739	94	2.947
			Lo	112	4.396	112	4.116
			Hi	92	4.283	94	4.326
			culture main effect	(F = 9.44; p = .002)		(F = 26.97; p = .000)	
			QOL main effect	(F = .04; p = .833)		(F = .42; p = .519)	
			interaction effect	(F = .12; p = .730)		(F = 2.30; p = .131)	
			covariate effect	(F = .02; p = .890)		(F = .06; p = .813)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	112	3.577	111	3.586
			Lo	92	3.801	92	3.127
			Hi	112	4.426	111	4.045
			Hi	92	4.101	92	4.116
					culture main effect	(F = 9.50; p = .002)	
		QOL main effect	(F = .03; p = .862)		(F = 1.61; p = .206)		
		interaction effect	(F = 2.16; p = .143)		(F = 2.06; p = .152)		
		covariate effect	(F = .28; p = .614)		(F = 1.21; p = .273)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 26-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Median Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 239	4.635	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 239	3.820	
			Hi	133	3.396	135	3.622	
		Hi	Lo	239	4.119	239	3.201	
			Hi	133	3.992	135	3.440	
		culture main effect				(F = 10.03; p = .002)	(F = 6.10; p = .014)	
		QOL main effect				(F = 1.41; p = .236)	(F = .01; p = .927)	
	interaction effect				(F = .15; p = .699)	(F = 1.81; p = .180)		
	covariate effect				(F = .87; p = .352)	(F = 10.75; p = .001)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	239	4.630	238	4.077	
			Hi	136	4.154	135	3.595	
		Hi	Lo	239	4.001	238	3.261	
			Hi	136	3.990	135	3.378	
		culture main effect				(F = 8.17; p = .005)	(F = 11.58; p = .001)	
		QOL main effect				(F = 2.33; p = .128)	(F = 2.29; p = .131)	
interaction effect				(F = 2.80; p = .095)	(F = 3.89; p = .049)			
covariate effect				(F = 1.77; p = .184)	(F = 2.64; p = .105)			
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 124	5.414	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 124	4.269	
			Hi	58	5.207	58	4.229	
		Hi	Lo	124	3.847	124	2.228	
			Hi	58	3.575	58	2.437	
		culture main effect				(F = 108.14; p = .008)	(F = 126.79; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect				(F = 1.06; p = .304)	(F = .42; p = .518)	
	interaction effect				(F = .04; p = .833)	(F = .26; p = .608)		
	covariate effect				(F = 4.63; p = .033)	(F = 3.89; p = .050)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	124	5.417	123	4.650	
			Hi	59	4.953	59	4.085	
		Hi	Lo	124	3.804	123	2.445	
			Hi	59	3.356	59	2.322	
		culture main effect				(F = 99.87; p = .000)	(F = 126.36; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect				(F = 4.78; p = .030)	(F = 3.72; p = .055)	
interaction effect				(F = .14; p = .710)	(F = 1.51; p = .221)			
covariate effect				(F = .41; p = .522)	(F = 1.67; p = .198)			
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 115	3.794	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize) 115	3.336	
			Hi	75	3.769	77	3.113	
		Hi	Lo	115	4.412	115	4.249	
			Hi	75	4.316	77	4.195	
		culture main effect				(F = 7.45; p = .007)	(F = 20.26; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect				(F = .10; p = .747)	(F = .63; p = .428)	
	interaction effect				(F = .03; p = .868)	(F = .15; p = .703)		
	covariate effect				(F = .00; p = .949)	(F = .00; p = .998)		
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	115	3.783	115	3.464	
			Hi	77	3.619	76	3.215	
		Hi	Lo	115	4.214	115	4.122	
			Hi	77	4.476	76	4.197	
		culture main effect				(F = 10.74; p = .001)	(F = 17.55; p = .000)	
		QOL main effect				(F = .06; p = .806)	(F = .14; p = .708)	
interaction effect				(F = 1.17; p = .281)	(F = .69; p = .415)			
covariate effect				(F = .01; p = .910)	(F = 1.57; p = .211)			

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 27-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Median Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)				
				222	4.559	223	3.768	
				159	4.413	160	3.617	
				222	4.128	223	3.262	
				159	3.990	160	3.398	
						(F = 9.26; p = .003)		(F = 5.33; p = .022)
						(F = .86; p = .354)		(F = .09; p = .766)
						(F = .00; p = .979)		(F = .84; p = .360)
						(F = 1.16; p = .282)		(F = 8.69; p = .003)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	221	4.403	219	4.003	
				161	4.439	161	3.764	
				221	3.952	219	3.139	
				161	4.082	161	3.507	
					(F = .40; p = .526)		(F = .18; p = .670)	
					(F = .08; p = .783)		(F = 4.36; p = .038)	
					(F = 3.00; p = .084)		(F = 1.66; p = .198)	
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)				
				109	5.480	109	4.352	
				68	5.152	68	4.196	
				109	4.012	109	2.281	
				68	3.309	68	2.245	
						(F = 122.65; p = .008)		(F = 143.61; p = .000)
						(F = 6.07; p = .015)		(F = .27; p = .601)
						(F = 1.58; p = .211)		(F = .13; p = .723)
						(F = 5.53; p = .020)		(F = 3.10; p = .080)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	109	5.254	108	4.522	
				69	5.227	69	4.411	
				109	3.927	108	2.389	
				69	3.266	69	2.396	
					(F = 2.36; p = .126)		(F = .10; p = .758)	
					(F = 4.49; p = .036)		(F = .12; p = .732)	
					(F = .31; p = .576)		(F = .71; p = .401)	
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)				
				113	3.670	114	3.211	
				91	3.861	92	3.188	
				113	4.239	114	4.119	
				91	4.498	92	4.250	
						(F = 9.02; p = .003)		(F = 24.16; p = .000)
						(F = 1.65; p = .201)		(F = .02; p = .901)
						(F = .03; p = .866)		(F = .03; p = .861)
						(F = .05; p = .827)		(F = .18; p = .675)
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	112	3.574	111	3.498	
				92	3.848	92	3.279	
				112	3.976	111	3.868	
				92	4.659	92	4.341	
					(F = 6.87; p = .009)		(F = .65; p = .421)	
					(F = 1.19; p = .276)		(F = 3.51; p = .062)	
					(F = .01; p = .940)		(F = 1.54; p = .217)	

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 28-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF1; Thertile Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)		
			Lo	152	4.458	152	3.702
			Hi	153	4.569	155	3.708
			Lo	152	4.202	152	3.366
			Hi	153	3.863	153	3.120
					(F = 9.73; p = .002)	(F = 7.59; p = .006)	
					(F = .73; p = .394)	(F = .01; p = .943)	
					(F = 2.12; p = .146)	(F = .56; p = .453)	
					(F = .33; p = .564)	(F = 10.14; p = .002)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	153	4.357	153	4.028
			Lo	154	4.595	153	3.885
			Hi	153	4.200	153	3.438
			Hi	154	3.755	153	3.150
							(F = 11.49; p = .001)
				(F = .77; p = .380)	(F = 1.35; p = .245)		
				(F = 5.40; p = .021)	(F = .20; p = .653)		
				(F = 1.02; p = .313)	(F = .98; p = .322)		
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)		
			Lo	63	5.624	63	4.206
			Hi	62	5.204	62	4.043
			Lo	63	3.984	63	2.434
			Hi	62	3.511	62	2.097
					(F = 87.63; p = .000)	(F = 96.37; p = .000)	
					(F = .54; p = .464)	(F = .03; p = .862)	
					(F = .02; p = .881)	(F = .21; p = .647)	
					(F = 8.48; p = .004)	(F = 6.12; p = .015)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	64	5.453	64	4.802
			Lo	62	5.306	61	4.180
			Hi	64	3.781	64	2.521
			Hi	62	3.570	61	2.470
							(F = 97.14; p = .000)
				(F = .08; p = .773)	(F = .96; p = .329)		
				(F = .03; p = .852)	(F = 2.03; p = .156)		
				(F = 1.03; p = .312)	(F = 1.70; p = .194)		
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)	(1 = adept; 7 = standardize)		
			Lo	55	3.533	55	3.467
			Hi	69	3.763	71	3.089
			Lo	55	4.188	55	3.885
			Hi	69	4.203	71	4.282
					(F = 4.06; p = .046)	(F = 8.91; p = .003)	
					(F = .28; p = .599)	(F = .01; p = .927)	
					(F = .16; p = .693)	(F = 2.06; p = .154)	
					(F = .01; p = .916)	(F = .07; p = .786)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	55	3.721	55	3.782
			Lo	70	3.881	70	3.348
			Hi	55	4.315	55	3.952
			Hi	70	4.071	70	4.019
							(F = 2.46; p = .119)
				(F = .00; p = .974)	(F = .64; p = .426)		
				(F = .65; p = .421)	(F = 1.05; p = .308)		
				(F = .60; p = .442)	(F = .11; p = .741)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 29-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF2; Tertile Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization	
Pooled	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 99	4.468	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 99	3.542	
			Hi	78	4.000	80	3.417	
		Hi	Lo	99	4.293	99	3.276	
			Hi	78	3.987	80	3.371	
		culture main effect				(F = .20; p = .658)		(F = .48; p = .491)
		QOL main effect				(F = 3.59; p = .060)		(F = .10; p = .756)
	interaction effect				(F = .15; p = .703)		(F = .24; p = .626)	
	covariate effect				(F = .36; p = .551)		(F = 5.23; p = .023)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	99	4.471	99	3.963	
			Hi	80	3.875	79	3.270	
		Hi	Lo	99	4.360	99	3.508	
			Hi	80	4.121	79	3.439	
		culture main effect				(F = .11; p = .738)		(F = .42; p = .519)
		QOL main effect				(F = 3.48; p = .064)		(F = 5.52; p = .020)
interaction effect				(F = .79; p = .375)		(F = 1.99; p = .160)		
covariate effect				(F = 1.07; p = .301)		(F = 3.57; p = .061)		
American	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 44	5.356	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 44	4.000	
			Hi	107	5.224	107	4.227	
		Hi	Lo	44	4.038	44	2.068	
			Hi	107	3.632	107	2.383	
		culture main effect				(F = 68.72; p = .000)		(F = 92.38; p = .000)
		QOL main effect				(F = .77; p = .382)		(F = 1.78; p = .184)
	interaction effect				(F = .61; p = .437)		(F = .05; p = .823)	
	covariate effect				(F = 5.23; p = .024)		(F = 3.51; p = .063)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	44	5.432	44	4.561	
			Hi	108	5.086	107	4.283	
		Hi	Lo	44	4.114	44	2.462	
			Hi	108	3.466	107	2.352	
		culture main effect				(F = 73.20; p = .000)		(F = 98.51; p = .000)
		QOL main effect				(F = 3.30; p = .071)		(F = .78; p = .379)
interaction effect				(F = .77; p = .380)		(F = .17; p = .681)		
covariate effect				(F = .11; p = .741)		(F = .59; p = .442)		
Korean	Diet Pills	Lo	Lo	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 55	3.758	(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize) 55	3.176	
			Hi	50	3.500	52	3.038	
		Hi	Lo	55	4.497	55	4.242	
			Hi	50	4.227	52	3.962	
		culture main effect				(F = 6.23; p = .014)		(F = 11.17; p = .001)
		QOL main effect				(F = 1.24; p = .267)		(F = .69; p = .408)
	interaction effect				(F = .00; p = .983)		(F = .06; p = .810)	
	covariate effect				(F = .12; p = .727)		(F = .78; p = .380)	
	Infant Formula	Lo	Lo	55	3.703	55	3.485	
			Hi	52	3.423	51	3.039	
		Hi	Lo	55	4.558	55	4.345	
			Hi	52	4.391	51	3.987	
		culture main effect				(F = 10.89; p = .001)		(F = 10.60; p = .002)
		QOL main effect				(F = .87; p = .352)		(F = 3.22; p = .075)
interaction effect				(F = .04; p = .838)		(F = .02; p = .876)		
covariate effect				(F = .01; p = .926)		(F = .63; p = .429)		

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

Table 30-6: The Effects of Cultural Distance and QOL Orientation (QOLF3; Thertile Split; Age)

Sample	Product	Cultural Distance	QOL Orientation	N	Product Standardization	N	Promotion Standardization				
Pooled											
Diet Pills				(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)					
				Lo	Lo	113	4.242	113	3.531		
				Lo	Hi	159	4.413	160	3.617		
				Hi	Lo	113	4.100	113	3.386		
				Hi	Hi	159	3.990	160	3.398		
				culture main effect		(F = 2.87; p = .091)	(F = .99; p = .321)				
				QOL main effect		(F = .03; p = .866)	(F = .02; p = .880)				
				interaction effect		(F = .72; p = .398)	(F = .04; p = .839)				
				covariate effect		(F = .07; p = .799)	(F = 9.03; p = .003)				
				Infant Formula				112	4.071	112	3.670
Lo	Hi	161	4.439					161	3.764		
Hi	Lo	112	3.923					112	3.286		
Hi	Hi	161	4.062					161	3.507		
culture main effect		(F = 2.52; p = .113)	(F = 3.57; p = .060)								
QOL main effect		(F = 2.48; p = .117)	(F = .91; p = .340)								
interaction effect		(F = .47; p = .491)	(F = .14; p = .708)								
covariate effect		(F = .53; p = .468)	(F = 2.94; p = .088)								
American											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	48	5.097	48	3.840		
				Lo	Hi	68	5.182	68	4.196		
				Hi	Lo	48	3.833	48	2.139		
				Hi	Hi	68	3.309	68	2.245		
				culture main effect		(F = 75.14; p = .000)	(F = 89.21; p = .000)				
				QOL main effect		(F = .79; p = .376)	(F = 2.41; p = .124)				
				interaction effect		(F = 2.61; p = .109)	(F = .42; p = .520)				
				covariate effect		(F = 4.93; p = .028)	(F = 1.01; p = .318)				
				Infant Formula				48	5.014	48	3.875
Lo	Hi	69	5.227					69	4.411		
Hi	Lo	48	3.889					48	2.410		
Hi	Hi	69	3.266					69	2.396		
culture main effect		(F = 71.08; p = .000)	(F = 67.42; p = .000)								
QOL main effect		(F = .54; p = .462)	(F = 1.46; p = .230)								
interaction effect		(F = 5.22; p = .024)	(F = 1.68; p = .198)								
covariate effect		(F = .59; p = .445)	(F = .77; p = .382)								
Korean											
Diet Pills								(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)		(1 = adapt; 7 = standardize)	
				Lo	Lo	65	3.610	65	3.303		
				Lo	Hi	91	3.861	92	3.188		
				Hi	Lo	65	4.297	65	4.308		
				Hi	Hi	91	4.498	92	4.250		
				culture main effect		(F = 8.37; p = .004)	(F = 18.53; p = .000)				
				QOL main effect		(F = 1.25; p = .266)	(F = .13; p = .721)				
				interaction effect		(F = .01; p = .914)	(F = .01; p = .907)				
				covariate effect		(F = .04; p = .838)	(F = .58; p = .448)				
				Infant Formula				64	3.365	64	3.516
Lo	Hi	92	3.848					92	3.279		
Hi	Lo	64	3.948					64	3.943		
Hi	Hi	92	4.659					92	4.341		
culture main effect		(F = 9.91; p = .002)	(F = 12.87; p = .000)								
QOL main effect		(F = 9.29; p = .003)	(F = .30; p = .585)								
interaction effect		(F = .27; p = .607)	(F = 2.34; p = .128)								
covariate effect		(F = .02; p = .893)	(F = 1.38; p = .242)								

(** P < .05; * P < .10)

VITA

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EDUCATION

- Ph.D** Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Major Area: International Marketing, Minor Area: Psychology
Expected completion date: January 26, 1996
- MIBS** Masters of International Business Studies, University of South Carolina (1992)
Major Area: International Business; Concentration: International Marketing
- MBA** Yonsei University (Seoul, Korea: 1990), Concentration: Marketing Strategy
- B.S.** Yonsei University (Seoul, Korea: 1988), Major Area: Marketing

DISSERTATION

Title: The Effects of Cultural Distance, Ethnocentrism, and Quality-Of-Life (QOL) Orientation On Program Standardization.

Committee: M. Joseph Sirgy (Chair), Shankar Ganesan, Neil Hauenstein, James Littlefield, Julie Ozanne

Abstract: The main purpose of this dissertation is to examine the effect of managerial attitudes on program standardization in international marketing. Three attitudinal variables have been identified as potential predictors of program standardization decisions: cultural distance, ethnocentrism, and quality-of-life (QOL) orientation. It is hypothesized that marketers' ethnocentrism is directly related, while cultural distance and QOL orientation are inversely related to program standardization. It is also hypothesized that ethnocentrism and QOL orientation moderate the relationship between cultural distance and program standardization. That is, cultural distance affects standardization of marketing programs more for marketers who have a high QOL orientation and/or low ethnocentrism than for marketers who have a low QOL orientation and/or high ethnocentrism.

Cross-cultural comparisons of the three attitudinal variables and degree of program standardization for Americans and South Koreans also have been explored. It is hypothesized that compared with South Koreans, Americans are characterized by higher cultural distance and QOL orientations, and by lower ethnocentrism and commitment to program standardization. Data were collected through experiments using both American and South Korean MBA students and cross-culturally compared. Data analysis generally supported the hypotheses.

RESEARCH

Research Interests

Current research interests include international marketing, marketing strategy, and quality-of-life studies including standardization vs. adaptation, cross-cultural studies, relational strategic alliance, and quality of life issues.

Journal Publications

Sirgy, M. Joseph and Dong-Jin Lee (forthcoming), "Setting Socially Responsible Marketing Objectives: A Quality-of-Life Approach, European Journal of Marketing.

Competitive Conference Proceedings

Brown, James R., Chekitan S. Dev, John O'Malley, and Dong-Jin Lee (forthcoming), "Strategic Orientation: Its Impact On Relational Exchange in Marketing Channels, 1996 AMA Winter Educators' Conference.

Lee, Dong-Jin and David Brinberg (1995), "The Effect of the Perception of Process Technology and Country of Manufacture (COM) Favorableness on Consumers' Overall Brand Evaluation," Advances in Consumer Research, Vol. 22, edited by Frank R. Kardes and Mita Sujan, Boston, Massachusetts: Association for Consumer Research.

Lee, Dong-Jin and M. Joseph Sirgy (1994), "The Effects of Brand Prestige and Country of Manufacture on Consumers' Brand Evaluation and Purchase Intentions," Developments in Marketing Science, Vol. 17, edited by Elizabeth J. Wilson and William C. Black, Nashville TN: Academy of Marketing Science, pp. 294-298.

Lee, Dong-Jin and M. Joseph Sirgy (1995), "Decision Making Criteria for Program Standardization Versus Adaptation in International Marketing: Hypothesized Differences Between Traditional and Quality-Of-Life (QOL) Marketers," The Fifth Quality-of-Life (QOL)/ Marketing Conference, Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) and International Society for Quality-of-Life Studies (ISQOLS).

Lee, Dong-Jin and M. Joseph Sirgy (1995), "Determinants of Involvement in the Consumer/Marketing Life Domain: A Theoretical Model and Research Agenda," The Fifth Quality-of-Life (QOL)/ Marketing Conference, Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) and International Society for Quality-of-Life Studies (ISQOLS).

Sirgy, M. Joseph and Dong-Jin Lee (1994), "Relationship Marketing and Beyond: A Quality-of-Life Approach," in Relationship Marketing: Theory, Methods, and Applications, edited by Jagdish Sheth and Atul Pavratiya, Atlanta, GA: Center for Relationship Marketing, Emory University.

Sirgy, M. Joseph and Dong-Jin Lee (1995), "The Evolution of Quality-of-Life (QOL) concept in Marketing Thought," The Fifth Quality-of-Life (QOL)/ Marketing Conference, Academy of Marketing Science (AMS) and International Society for Quality-of-Life Studies (ISQOLS).

Papers In Progress

International/Cross-Cultural

"The Effects of Cultural Distance and Ethnocentrism on Program Standardization: A Cross-Cultural Comparison," With M. Joseph Sirgy

The paper empirically examines the effects of cultural distance and ethnocentrism on program standardization (finished data analysis; expected completion date: Fall 1995)

"Developing The Measure of Quality-of-Life Orientation: A Cross-Cultural Validation," With M. Joseph Sirgy and Val Larsen

This paper conceptually defines quality-of-life (QOL) orientation and develops a measure for the construct (data analysis stage: expected completion date: Fall 1995)

"Linking Positioning Strategies and Standardization in International Market," with M. Joseph Sirgy and Vic Johar

This paper theoretically links and empirically tests various positioning strategies in promotion and their degree of standardization in international markets (expected completion date: Spring 1996).

"Advertising Standardization vs. Adaptation Decisions: The Role of Positioning Strategy, Product Type, and Advertising Culture In A Country," with Vic Johar and M. Joseph Sirgy

The paper empirically examines the effects of positioning strategy (functional vs. expressive), product type (luxury vs. nonluxury), and advertising culture (information based vs. emotion-based) on the effectiveness of standardization/adaptation advertisement in five European markets (expected completion date; Spring 1996)

"The Role of Relational Exchange in International Channels of Distribution," with Janet E. Keith

This paper examines the effects of dependence, psychic distance, and decision making uncertainty on relational exchanges and the performance of exporters (expected completion date: Spring, 1996)

Strategy/Relationship

"Integrating Marketing Philosophy, Strategy, and Tactics," with M. Joseph Sirgy

This book develops a model that integrates marketing philosophy, marketing strategy, and marketing tactics based on system theory (expected completion date; Spring 1996).

"The Effects of Strategic Orientation, Transaction Specific Asset, Relational Norm on Performance in the Dyadic Channel Relationship: A Contingency Approach," with James R. Brown and Chekitan Dev.

This paper empirically examines the effects of strategic orientation, degree of transaction specific asset, and relational norm on performance in the dyadic channel relationship from a contingency perspective (expected completion date: Spring 1996).

"The Effect of Relational Exchange on Consumers' Perceptions of Service Quality," with Janet E. Keith and Renee G. Lee

This paper empirically investigates the effects of relationalism between service provider and customer, dependence, and risk on customers' perceived quality. (completed)

"The Antecedents and Consequences of Opportunism in Marketing Channels of Distribution," with James R. Brown and Chekitan S. Dev.

This paper empirically examines the antecedents and consequences of opportunism in dyadic exchange relationships (completed: peer review stage)

Quality-of-Life

"Relationship Between Satisfaction With The Consumer/Marketing Life Domain and Life Satisfaction," with M. Joseph Sirgy, Val Larsen, and Newell Wright.

This paper empirically investigates the linkage between satisfaction in the consumer/marketing domain and overall life satisfaction. (Data collection stage, expected completion date, Spring 1996)

Research Assistantships

May. 1994 - August. 1994 : Worked with Janet E. Keith and Shankar Ganesan on relational exchange and international marketing issues, respectively.

Sep. 1993 - May. 1994 : Worked with Janet E. Keith on the relational exchange in international marketing and service quality issues.

May. 1993 - August. 1993 : Worked with James R. Brown on relational exchanges in strategic alliance and with M. Joseph Sirgy on quality-of-life issues.

Sep. 1992 - May. 1993 : Worked with T.C. Srinivasan on the brand loyalty and perceived foreignness of products.

TEACHING

Teaching Interests

International Marketing, Strategic Marketing, Marketing Channels, and Principles

Teaching Experience

Instructor, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Four Sections of Marketing Principles (Fall, 1994; Spring 1995)
: Teacher Evaluation 4.53, 4.67, 4.41, 4.63
(Department Average 3.85; 1=poor 5=excellent)
One Section of International Marketing (Summer, 1995)
: Teacher Evaluation 4.86

Teaching Training

How to Improve Oral Presentation, AT&T (October 1991)
Presentation Courses for GTAs, Virginia Tech (September 1992-Spring 1993)
Workshops for Instructors, Virginia Tech (Summer, 1994)

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

Professional Activities

Co-Chair of the Quality of Life Marketing Track of the Multi-cultural Marketing Conference,
(with M. Joseph Sirgy), Norfolk, VA, 1996
Ad-Hoc Reviewer for Journal of Business and Psychology, 1995
Ad-Hoc Reviewer for the Seventh Bi-Annual World Marketing Congress, 1995
Ad-Hoc Reviewer for Decision Science Institute Conference, Marketing Track, 1995
Ad-Hoc Reviewer for the 4th AMS/ACRA Retailing Conference, 1994

Professional Affiliations

American Marketing Association (AMA)
Academy of Marketing Science (AMS)
Association for Consumer Research (ACR)
International Society for Quality-of-Life Studies (ISQOLS)

BUSINESS EXPERIENCE

AT&T (Morristown, NJ), Intern, Global Account Management Team, Jul. 1991- Jan. 1992
Chase Manhattan Bank (Seoul, Korea), Credit Analyst, Marketing Department, 1989- 1990
Military Services (Korean Army) , Administrator, Aug. 1982 - Jan. 1985

AWARDS AND GRANTS

AMA Doctoral Consortium Fellow, 1995
 Virginia Tech Intellectual Property Research Grant, 1995
 Graduate Research Development Project Fund, 1994
 Graduate Student Assembly Travel Fund, 1994
 Pamplin Scholarship, 1992, 1993
 Beta Gamma Sigma, National Honor Society, 1992

Ph.D SEMINARS

<u>Course Name</u>	<u>Professor</u>
Marketing:	
Advanced Topics in Marketing I	Edward Fern
Advanced Topics in Marketing II	Janet Keith
Marketing Theory	Julie Ozanne
Advanced Marketing Research	Ruth Smith
Advanced Marketing Research(Audit)	David Brinberg
Buyer Behavior Research	Noreen Klein
Advanced Quantitative Marketing Methods	George Franke
International Business:	
Management of International Enterprise	(Courses taken during MIBS)
Management of Global Enterprise	Team Teaching
Area Study	Team Teaching
Special Study in Export Market	Team Teaching
Strategy and Policy in Global Enterprise	Team Teaching
Special Study in International Marketing	Kendall Roth
	Saeed Samiee
Psychology:	
Advanced Social Psychology	David Trafimow
Research Methods	Neil Hauenstein
Industrial and Organizational Psychology	Neil Hauenstein
Statistics:	
Advanced Statistics in Research I	Ray Myers
Advanced Statistics in Research II	Ray Myers
Regression Analysis	Jeffrey Birch

REFERENCES

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