THE EFFECT OF COUNTRY OF ORIGIN, CONSUMER CHARACTERISTICS AND ATTITUDES ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR TOWARDS FOREIGN CLOTHING BRANDS IN NAIROBI, KENYA

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DECLARATION

This Thesis is my original work and has not been submitted for an award of a degree in any other University or Institution. Where I have taken ideas or wording from another source, this has been explicitly acknowledged in the text.

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DEDICATION

To my late mum, Lucy Wanjiru, who steered me through life and used her
meagre resources to ensure that I got educated
and to my beloved and astute children Ciru, Jason and Nathan, to whom I
bequeath the forte of boundless scholarship

ABSTRACT

The country-of-origin (COO) concept refers to the country where a particular product is made and is anchored on the international marketing theory. The broad objective of this study was to determine the effect of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The specific objectives were to: assess the influence of COO on consumer behaviour; determine the influence of country-of-origin on consumer attitudes; establish the influence of consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour; assess the influence of consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour; determine the extent to which consumer characteristics moderate the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour; assess the degree to which consumer attitudes influence the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour and; establish the extent to which the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is influenced by consumer characteristics and by consumer attitudes. The pertinent hypotheses were derived from the objectives. The study adopted a descriptive cross-sectional research design which facilitated testing of hypotheses quantitatively and ensured that conclusions about the COO research problem were based on the information provided at the time of the research. Primary data were collected using semi-structured questionnaires from a study population comprising 384 consumers of clothing brands across Nairobi County, Kenya. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The results of the study established that country-of-origin influences consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands and there was a significant association among the two. The findings also revealed that consumer characteristics directly influence consumer behaviour and also moderate the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour. There was a significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour. Furthermore, the results showed that consumer attitudes strongly mediate the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour, and there was a significant association among the two. Finally, the joint effect of COO, consumer characteristics and consumer attitudes was greater than the individual effects of the independent, mediating and moderating variables on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The combined effect of these variables on consumer behaviour was also found to be statistically significant. The study has made contribution to theory, policy and practice in relation to consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands in general and specific influence of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics. The selection of the study variables was not exhaustive. The use of a relatively small population, use of a descriptive cross-sectional research design and testing of COO as a single concept put constraints on the generalizability of the results. The use of quantitative methods alone is also restrictive. Future research should seek to address these limitations by inclusion of the additional factors; use of a longitudinal and broader research design and; incorporation of qualitative research techniques such as focus group sessions and structured interviews.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

xi

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDA	Attention, Interest, Desire and Action
AGOA	African Growth and Opportunity Act
CETSCALE	Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale
CAB	Cognition, Affection and Behaviour Attitude Model
CCT	Consumer Culture Theory
CI	Country Image
CVI	Content Validity Index
CV	Coefficient of variation
COO	Country-of-origin
COM	Country of Manufacture
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
CSE	Country Stereotyping Effect
EAC	East African Community
EDC	Economically Developed Country
EPZ	Export Processing Zones
MFA	Multi-fibre Arrangement
MUB	Manufacturing-Under-Bond
OECD	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
PPMC	Pearson's Product Moment Correlation
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SNI	Susceptibility to Normative Influence
SPSS	Statistical Program for Social Sciences
SD	Standard Deviation
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an introduction and background to the study. The chapter presents an overview of the concepts of Country-of-origin, Consumer Characteristics, Attitudes and Behaviour. It covers the contextual background to the study by providing a historical perspective of the clothing sector in Kenya. It also states the research problem, highlights the research objectives, presents the value of the study and provides a summary of the organization of the thesis.

1.1 Background to the Study

Consumer behaviour continues to change as globalisation redefines business and marketing strategies. Practitioners and academicians have debated on whether the international markets paradigm ought to change from highlighting national differences to exploring international similarities. Levitt (1983) advocates the latter asserting that well managed firms have shifted from emphasis on customising items to offering globally standardized products that are advanced, functional, reliable and low priced. The author concludes that ultimately global companies will achieve long term success by concentrating on what everyone wants rather than worrying about the details of what everyone thinks they might like.

Dichter (1962) argues that human desires are very much alike and as world markets open up, it is essential for firms to prepare to serve the new 'world customer.' According to the author growth and progress are the only possible goals of life with jets reducing physical distances, international trade and mass communications breaking down barriers resulting in the Common Market broadening into an Atlantic Market and finally into a World Market. On the other hand Sheth and Parvatiyar (2001) contend that international marketing is transforming into integrated global marketing with a greater potential for theory development in international marketing that is not contextually bound but that can be generalized. The authors assert that emphasis has shifted from understanding and explaining between country differences to identifying transnational similarities; and from country by country functional adjustment of marketing mix elements to seeking global cross-functional integration.

Kenya is part of the ongoing transformation of the world into an integrated global economy including positioning of the country's brand. The country's case is even more complicated and difficult now that terrorism is a global challenge observes Kimonye (2014). The author notes that to change the country's image is therefore not simple and concerted efforts must be made to restore its brand proposition of 'bursting with generosity and rewarding beyond imagination.' These efforts require government, public, private sector and citizen's participation or else the task of changing the country's brand image becomes unfeasible (Kimonye, 2014).

With the shift to integrated global marketing contemporary international business has continued to focus on the customer, with modern concepts in management advocating that organisations focus more on their core business to ensure customer satisfaction and survival in business. A rapidly growing and dynamic global business environment and the movement towards a marketing orientation that is largely customer centric has made it necessary for organizations to adopt marketing strategies that will help them remain sustainable in order to succeed. This change has been far-reaching for both public and private sector organizations. Expounding on this, Kotler (2001) emphasizes the importance of embracing the 'Marketing Concept' that focuses on the customer. He argues that there is need for companies to focus their products and services on the customer by adopting a Customer-top-management-down. Whilst traditional organizations placed more importance on top management (such as Board of Directors and the CEO) with the customer placed at the bottom of the pyramid, modern companies are now required to adopt a customer centric approach with business being designed around the customers' needs and wants in order to remain competitive and sustainable (Kotler, 2001).

The country-of-origin (COO) construct remains relevant to international marketing theory despite recent criticism that it is largely unfounded (Adamantios et al., 2011). The construct is premised on the theoretical perspective that purchase intentions for a particular brand are expected to be influenced, either directly or indirectly, by COO considerations. Consequently this has been an area of ongoing interest in international marketing in an attempt to broaden theoretical knowledge on the effect of the construct on prospective product purchasers (Ulgado & Lee, 1998). There are over 750 major

publications on the COO concept and the motive driving various marketing scholars to study this field is the vital role it plays in the formulation of manufacturing, marketing and investment strategies for global and multinational firms (Yim et al., 2007).

The effect of globalisation has been manifested on the local scene too where following the liberalisation of the economies of developing countries such as Kenya in the 1990's many players have entered the market resulting in stiff competition for customers. Unlike in the past, there are many goods and services available for customers to choose from, originating from local, regional and international sources. In view of the various changes taking place in the environment they operate in, both public and private sector organisations are devising various response strategies to ensure their survival.

Kenya has continued to respond to the dynamics of international marketing through various initiatives such as import substitution policies of the 1960s and 70s followed by the Structural Adjustment Programs (Sessional Paper No 1, 1986) that sought to encourage private sector in manufacturing. However, the local market continues to be characterised by stiff competition from imported goods in subsequent years. To understand what underpins this competition, this thesis focused on studying how the country-of-origin concept influences consumer behaviour, in Nairobi, Kenya, assuming that the phenomenon is to a large degree entrenched in the minds of local consumers ultimately affecting their choice of brands in the clothing industry.

1.1.1 The Concept of Country-of-origin

The country-of-origin (COO) construct is generally defined in the marketing literature as the country where a given product is made (Yim et al., 2007). Ming-huei (2004) also uses COO phenomenon to refer to information pertaining to where a particular product is 'made'. According to Opoku and Akorli (2009) the country-of-origin image means how a product designed, manufactured, or branded in a developed country is perceived in a developing country. The authors contend that it has been established that consumers differentiate products from different origins, a phenomenon that has become known by both marketing academicians and practitioners as the COO effect. They further add that as one of the most extensively researched topics in international marketing and consumer

behaviour, a lot of studies have been conducted to ascertain whether COO affects product evaluations in many countries.

Focusing on COO effects, Elliott and Cameron (1994) describe COO broadly as any influence, positive or negative, that the country of manufacture (COM) might have on the consumer's choice processes or subsequent behaviour. The authors note that the place of manufacture of products and its effect on consumer preferences has long been discussed in the marketing and international business literature as "country affiliation" but more generally under the rubric of COO effects. The impact of COO on consumer perceptions and evaluation of a product is also referred to as the country-of-origin effect (Bruwer & Buller, 2012).

COO is treated as an extrinsic cue or an intangible product attribute, presumably used by consumers in the absence of information about tangible attributes (Sharma, 2011). On the other hand Chen (2010) notes that the rational or cognitive factor of COO is the perceived quality of foreign product which tends to be evaluated according to technical, advancement, prestige, workmanship, economy and service. However COO is not merely another cognitive cue but also has a symbolic and emotional meaning for consumers, observes Sharma (2011). According to Ming-huei (2004) COO can be classified into three groups: overall country image, aggregate product-country image, and specific product–country image. Image refers to country selection bias whereby consumers hold stereotypical imagery about different countries and these descriptions affect the way in which the product is purchased.

1.1.2 Consumer Characteristics

Consumer characteristics broadly comprise biological, sociological and psychological aspects in the marketing literature. Whilst it has no common definition, the concept is closely linked to consumer profiles and demographics (Ranaweera et al., 2005; Floh & Treiblmaier, 2006). Fürstner and Anišić (2010) state that consumer characteristics refer to general information about consumers on demographic attributes, specific product interests, general interests and relationships to other consumers. According to the authors other aspects of consumer characteristics are buying history and usage/interaction behaviour and ratings of products, product components and certain attributes, specific

aspects about customers derived from input questions, and contextual information about consumers, such as time of the day and date. Consumer characteristics have become crucial in designing and undertaking successful marketing strategies (Boshoff, 2011). Understanding specific consumer characteristics has been commonly approached by profiling their demographics such as their interests, age, heritage, income level, education, sex, family status and occupations (Ranaweera et al., 2005; Floh & Treiblmaier, 2006)

Emphasis is being placed on the need to focus on the consumer in the twenty-first century as a prerequisite for a company to be successful and viable (Kotler, 2001; Fürstner & Anišić, 2010). Research has mainly focused on the study of consumer characteristics as moderators of consumer behaviour (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001). However, this approach has been criticized as primarily based on the premise that groups of customers displaying unique characteristics react differently to the same context (Ranaweera et al., 2005). This study has dwelt on examining the moderating effect of consumer characteristics in the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour in order to help understand demographic-driven differences in the observed relationship.

1.1.3 Consumer Attitudes

Whereas there is no general consensus on what constitutes the definite attributes or features of the concept generally referred to as 'attitude' various scholars have attempted to provide their catalogue of descriptions. This is perhaps one of the areas where like other aspects of consumer behaviour there is a need for scholarly accord to be established if a truly comprehensive theory of consumer behaviour is to evolve. Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) describe an attitude as a learned predisposition to behave in a consistently favourable or unfavourable way with respect to a given object. According to Kotler (2001) an attitude is a person's enduring favourable or unfavourable evaluations, emotional feelings, and action tendencies toward some object or idea. An attitude is also a central concept in the entire field of social psychology, and theories and methods associated with its explanation and measurement have largely evolved from the work of social psychologists and psychometricians (Batra et al., 2003).

Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) further explain that as an outcome of psychological processes, attitudes are not directly observable but are inferred from what people say or from their behaviour. Consumer researchers therefore, tend to assess attitudes by asking questions or making inferences from behaviour. A major point of convergence between the definitions by Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) and Kotler (2001) is the assiduous manner the individual displays favourable or unfavourable behaviour towards an object or idea in determining his/her attitude towards it.

It is notable that consumer attitudes in international marketing have continued to attract considerable interest as a field of research. This is largely due to the consideration that attitudes constitute a significant component of the broader field of consumer behaviour in international marketing much as they do at the domestic level. It is therefore imperative for international marketers to understand the importance of customer attitude to be successful in global marketing. Whereas numerous empirical studies have been conducted ranging from understanding consumer attitudes towards international brands, pricing and advertising messages, consumer ethnocentrism continues to be a major factor already ingrained in customer attitudes, thereby impacting on local brands and those of foreign origin especially in developing countries; and ultimately working in favour of or against marketing efforts of a brand or product, depending on prevailing positioning in the mind of the target audience.

Various attitude models have been developed over time. Perhaps the most common is the CAB Model of Attitude (Figure 1.1) which postulates that an attitude comprises three closely interrelated components; cognition, affection and behaviour (Solomon, 1996).

Figure 1.1: CAB Model of Attitude
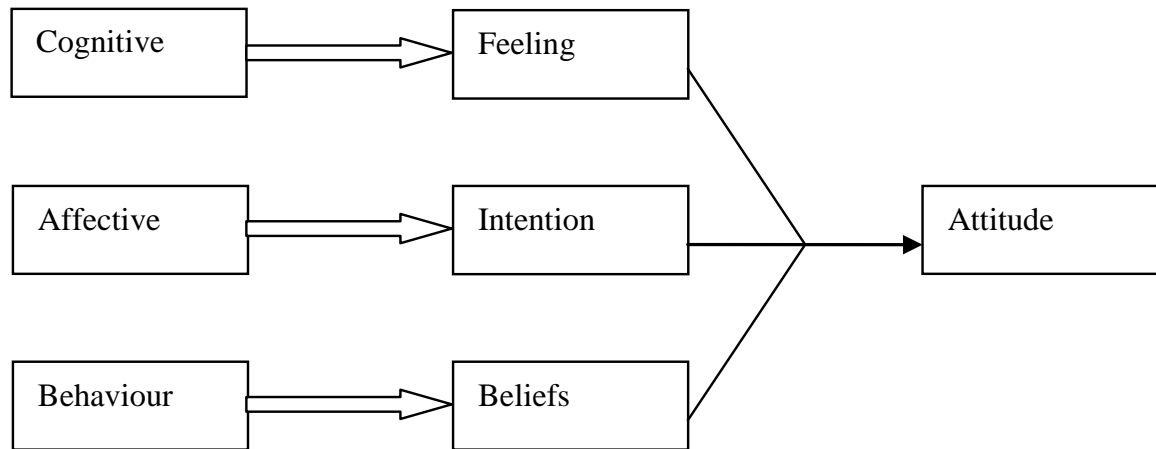
Source: Solomon (1996) Consumer Behaviour, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Other theories have argued that that an attitude consists entirely of the affection component, or overall assessment of the attitude-object, under the rubric of Single-Component Attitude Models (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1992) while others suggest that an attitude has several components commonly referred to as Multi-attribute Attitude Models (Batra et al., 2003). In addition a group of theories normally referred to as expectancy-value models (Fishbein, 1963) have to some extent provided a theoretical link between evaluative criteria and the concept of attitude. The current study has been guided by the CAB Model of Attitude to understand how the cognition, affection and behaviour components mediate the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour. This has helped to comprehend how these components influence the relationship either individually or collectively.

1.1.4 Consumer Behaviour

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1992), consumer behaviour refers to the behaviour that consumers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs and wants. The evolution and rapid popularity of the consumer behaviour concept, assert Sheth et al. (1988), is attributable to two major factors; the emergence of the marketing concept and the

7

established body of knowledge in behavioural science. The authors note that it is extremely difficult to identify any one individual as the father of the consumer behaviour school of thought, adding that it is equally difficult to suggest that at any one period there was only one thought process dominant in the evolution of the consumer behaviour school of thought. The development and formation of consumer behaviour is a multifaceted process, with consumer attitude formation apparently occurring over time following exposure to various promotional messages in global marketing.

Since the 1950s, the concept of consumer behaviour has been enriched by scholarly contributions resulting in development of a raft of theories. The seventies and eighties to some extent have been regarded as representing contemporary theories of consumer behaviour whereas the fifties and sixties can be treated as representing traditional theories (Sheth et al., 1988). Some theories derive from the social sciences; psychology, sociology or economics while others focus on the effects of marketing variables, emphasising the influence of external stimuli, such as advertising (Ehrenberg & Goodhart, 1979). Apart from these overall consumer behaviour models, specific models have been developed over time related to attitude. These models have in various ways attempted to analyse, describe, explain, predict and to some extent control consumer attitudes. However, it is notable that again, this array of models do not constitute a comprehensive model and there is still a scholarly need to invest in a broad model that would be all inclusive of those already postulated in the existing literature.

Consumer behaviour is therefore important for marketers to help them understand why and how individuals make their consumption decisions and so as to facilitate strategic marketing decisions in business. As research on the effects of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour evolves (Bruwer & Buller, 2012), this study has enriched the international dimensions of consumer behaviour theory by understanding how COO phenomenon among other variables influences buyer behaviour in Kenya. It has helped to comprehend how consumers search, evaluate and purchase foreign clothing brands based on the influence of the COO concept.

1.1.5 The Clothing Industry in Kenya

Since Independence in 1963, the clothing industry in Kenya has been a crucial instrument of economic growth in the country's global trade comprising both import and export of goods and services (Kamau & Munandi, 2009). Import substitution industrialization policies of the early post-independence years (Sessional Paper No 1, 1986) were geared towards encouraging positive consumer behaviour of local clothing products among Kenyans. To enhance Kenya's clothing industry the concepts of Manufacturing-under-bond (MUB) and export processing zones (EPZ) also featured prominently in the 70s and 80s (Phelps et al., 2008). Print cloth for domestic consumption was pursued as a cultural strategy expressed by wearing "African" garments (Mangieri, 2006).

The textile industry was affected by the surge in imports of both new and second hand clothes in the 80's (Nyongesa, 2005), exposing local entrepreneurs to competition that made it difficult for them to respond to competitive disequilibria (Wambugu, 2002). In the early 1990s, due to several factors including mismanagement, lack of investment, and the availability of second hand clothing, the textile industry in Kenya collapsed (Mangieri, 2006). Kamau and Munandi (2009) note that competition in the global garment industry intensified following the termination of the Multi-fibre Arrangement (MFA) that governed trade in textile and clothing between 1974 and 2004. Firms in Kenya have also been exposed to stiff competition in both the domestic and export markets from well established producers in China and India. Much as the local apparel manufacturing industry began to grow rapidly due to the African Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA) from 2000, following the completion of the Multi-fibre Arrangement (MFA) in 2005, Kenya has experienced a volatile atmosphere of factory closures, urgent policy prescriptions, and calls for reinvigorating domestic textile production and consumption (Mangieri, 2006).

About two decades ago the textile sector had 52 textile mills and employed over 42,000 people but this has dropped to only 15 main mills with reduced capacity utilisation, production and output (Kapchanga, 2013). It can be argued that the resultant effect of the high influence of COO on consumer behaviour in Nairobi has been reduction in capacity utilization to about 30-45% with some factories having shut down altogether. To revive

the sector, reports Kapchanga, (2013) the Government is addressing challenges affecting the textile and clothing industry partly by spearheading the Special Economic Zones (EPZ) Bill that aims to fast-track investments by facilitating investments across other independent sectors. According to the author the EPZ Apparel Sector employs more than 35,000 people and has the potential to generate about 500,000 jobs across the entire value chain in the next 24 months if the right mix of policy interventions are implemented.

Despite these challenges in the clothing sector the country's economic growth places great emphasis on better and more inclusive wholesale and retail trade sector which includes the clothing business. The goal for this trade is to move towards greater efficiency in the country's marketing system by lowering transaction costs through institutional reforms (Kenya Vision 2030). This involves strengthening informal trade through investment in infrastructure, training and linkage to the wider local and global markets. According to Kenya Vision, 2030 this will raise the market share of products sold through formal channels (such as supermarkets) from the current 5% to 30% by 2012 and contribute an additional Ksh 50 billion to the GDP. The plan is to attract at least three new retailers with more than 10 stores each into the Kenyan market (Kenya Vision 2030). However within the clothing industry perspective it is notable that the pursuit of Kenya's Vision 2030 is a long-term process whose success in delivering the country to industrialization status depends on its ability to deal with the many challenges along the way.

Although the economic challenges affecting the local clothing industry among them competition and collapse of regional trade treaties, have been well documented, the dimension of COO and the extent to which it accounts for this situation has not been empirically examined. It is assumed that wealthy Kenyans would prefer goods from United Kingdom (UK), Italy, Germany and United States of America (USA) while the poor would buy clothes from South East Asia which tend to be cheaper than Kenyan made goods. Hence foreign clothing brands in this study refers to clothes imported from other countries compared to those made locally. The leading supplier countries of Kenya's imports are China, India, UK, Italy, Germany, USA, South Africa, France, Egypt, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Saudi Arabia and Bahrain (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2013), among others.

It is imperative to understand the role that the country-of-origin concept plays as the clothing business continues to be faced with importation of relatively cheaper new and second hand products. From an economic perspective, the industry has been plagued by shrinking employment opportunities, reduced capacity utilisation, production and output – all attributable to increased competition from new and used clothes (Kong'ong'o, 2000). This position is further stressed by Kamau and Munandi (2009) who argue that the sector faces significant crisis emanating from shrinking domestic market, cheap imports, and the termination of the MFA that exposes firms to stiff competition from more established manufacturing economies. In spite of these observations and explanations about the garment industry the COO perspective has not been studied to understand to what extent it contributes to the local situation.

A few indications of the COO influence in the Kenyan market have however been given in some business studies covering the broader aspects of fashion. Citing one such study by a local research firm Ipsos Synovate, Njoki (2013) states that most Kenyans seemed to prefer international brands, with 52 per cent going for clothes designed abroad and imported to Kenya, against 48 per cent who preferred locally made clothes. According to the author the study also found that 94 per cent of Kenyans would prefer their sports personalities dressed in local designs, as opposed to promoting foreign designs. On preferred shopping points, the study found that stalls and sales exhibitions were the most preferred places for clothes shopping at 65 per cent, second-hand markets at 62 per cent, boutiques at three per cent and one per cent purchased their clothes abroad. In addition the study established that the biggest factor Kenyans consider when buying clothes is not the price, but the material of the garment, with 64 per cent of respondents voting in favour of this compared to the nine per cent who consider price before purchasing a clothing item. On frequency of buying clothes the study found that 24 per cent buy new clothes regularly, 12 per cent only buy second-hand clothes and 64 per cent buy both new and second-hand clothes (Njoki, 2013).

Various efforts have been made to persuade Kenyans to change their consumer behaviour by buying locally made products including clothes in order to support economic growth particularly under the Government driven 'Buy Kenyan build Kenya' campaign. This campaign is key to ensuring that Kenya's quest to achieve global competitiveness takes

place within a framework of balanced trade states Ongwae (2013). The author explains that the campaign aims to sensitise consumers to buy Kenyan products and services in order to contribute to economic growth, employment creation and improved livelihoods. Commenting on the 'Buy Kenyan build Kenya' campaign, Maina (2013) asserts that the initiative is important to save industries, jobs and the economy. The author argues that local companies today manufacture world-class goods and services and the support of consumers will allow Kenya to transform local industries to become world giants. Various organisations are coming together to try and revive the previously prosperous textile trade in Kenya, many of whom have Kenya as their first primary market, notes Gachara (2014).

In the clothing sector there have also been diverse efforts to promote locally designed brands. Gachara (2014) notes that whilst locally designed fashion has not yet become as main stream as it is getting in Nigeria, South Africa and the West, it is making a mark in Kenya and East Africa with growing awareness. Jiwaji (2013) describes the efforts made by Muhoho Kenyatta in design and fashion. The author notes that the designer who heads a young designers group has a passion for using local material popularly known as 'khanga' expects that the designs will continue to be viewed positively and bought. While addressing the issue of whether Kenyan fashion is growing, Akinyi (2014) reports that the country needs to start looking at fashion critically by addressing it as a business that has serious players and not merely as a hobby. Without some serious thought and collective effort individual designers and other players in the field will resort to their own measures and making their own version of what they think will work but also make them money (Akinyi, 2014).

Commenting on the growth of Kenyan fashion Gachara (2014) argues the industry is on the rise as urban ladies and gentlemen focus more and more on what they wear and where they shop. The author notes that while little formal research has been done of consumer spending trends there are a lot of dynamics in the fashion industry with the different forces that influence purchase decisions being as variable as there are people. Some of the popular sources of clothing items, the author reports, are second hand imported clothes (known as Mitumba) from the West and sold by hawkers or in markets across the country. Other shoppers buy new clothes from fashion stalls and boutiques which are

mainly sourced from Turkey, China and other Asian countries (Gachara, 2014). A few Kenyans also shop abroad and online according to Gachara (2014). Notwithstanding initiatives to promote local designs it is still not clear how much will be achieved. The Ipsos Synovate study according to Njoki (2013) found that whereas most Kenyans seemed fashion savvy, only a few knew of local designers or their products. This suggests that marketing of local designers and their products needs to be enhanced in order to promote Kenyan designs effectively.

Assessing the effect of COO on consumer behaviour in the Kenyan clothing market will help in developing holistic measures that will facilitate development of effective local and international marketing strategies of such brands. In addition the strategic importance of the clothing industry to Kenya's economic growth and the fact that its over 40 million people forms a substantial market for clothing products, rendered COO a suitable context for studying the sector. The study has provided a new and useful dimension of addressing the challenges facing the local industry over the years and of influencing consumer behaviour.

1.2 Research Problem

The COO concept broadly refers to the influence, positive or negative, that the country of manufacture might have on the consumer choice processes or subsequent behaviour regarding a product (Elliott & Cameron, 1994). The concept is premised on the International marketing theory which focuses on the rise of global business, stemming from the convergence of economic conditions world-wide (Katsikeas, 2003). The International marketing theory regards international marketing activities as providing potentially lucrative new revenue streams, greater profitability and stability, arising from market diversification (Czinkota & Ronkainen, 2003). Some of the sub-theories anchored on International marketing theory include the evolutionary theory of the multinational corporation (Kogut & Zander, 1993) and international trade theory (Hunt, 2011). The effects of brand origin, consumer attitudes and characteristics on consumer behaviour remain an area of interest in international marketing theory since the 1960s (Schaefer, 1995) with the theoretical foundations of the COO concept being premised on how

consumers use a brand's origin as a cue in inferring its quality and acceptability (Chen, 2010).

Much as the clothing industry in Kenya has been of strategic economic significance with regard to employment creation and poverty reduction since Independence in 1963 (Kamau & Munandi, 2009), it has been facing various economic challenges among them mismanagement, lack of investment, termination of regional trade treaties and competition from imported new and second hand (used) products. Efforts to revive the sector, among them the AGOA initiative and the clarion call by the government for Kenyans to 'buy Kenyan products to build Kenya,' apparently have not yielded significant results.

Whilst a number of studies have established that country-of-origin phenomenon influences consumer behaviour (Batra et al., 2000; Yim et al., 2007), other studies (Schaefer, 1995; Elliott & Cameron, 1994) have argued that its effects do not exist, or that if they do, they are of only minor significance in the wide array of influences on the purchase decision. Some studies (Nguyen et al., 2008; Klein et al., 1998) have generated mixed results on COO influence arguing that ethnocentrism phenomenon negates the brand origin influence. Few product origin studies have been conducted in the African region (Chimboza & Mutandwa, 2007; Opoku & Akorli, 2009) as well as in Kenya (Kong'ong'o, 2000). Furthermore most studies (Nyongesa, 2005; Wambugu, 2002) in the Kenyan clothing sector have attributed the challenges facing the local industry mainly to economic and managerial factors. There is therefore a need to have a better understanding of all factors affecting the sector in order to address them expeditiously. These factors include the country-of-origin influence which is hitherto not yet adequately studied notwithstanding the significant contribution the phenomenon has in influencing consumer behaviour as attested to by research conducted elsewhere.

Despite existence of numerous studies, the degree and method of COO influence remains unresolved, resulting in an apparent lack of a coherent conceptual framework on the construct. Notwithstanding the historical, political, social and economic differences between developed and developing countries, most brand origin studies have been undertaken in advanced economies using single or at most two variables. To increase

theoretical knowledge of COO processes in developing countries such as Kenya, further research is crucial regarding the psychological mechanisms that underlie how a brand's origin, whether local or foreign, affects consumer behaviour in these markets. Enhancing local COO knowledge is equally vital given that arising from the concept of national character, people of each nation have a distinctive, enduring pattern of behaviour and/or personality characteristics (Clark, 1990). In consumer behaviour research, it is also necessary for marketers to have a clear understanding of success factors given that the relative importance of each factor depends on the nature of industry under consideration, location and social characteristics of the consumers (Chimboza & Mutandwa, 2007).

To enhance knowledge of the Kenyan clothing sector, it is necessary to go beyond the economic and managerial factors that most studies have attributed to the challenges facing the local industry by providing an international marketing and consumer behaviour dimension. Assessing product origin phenomenon affecting local clothing brands will help to understand related factors within the country-of-origin context as well as offer a new and valuable dimension, already applied in other parts of the globe to comprehend the sector's challenges. This study sought to determine whether COO effects exist and to what extent, combined with consumer attitudes and characteristics, they influence consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in the Kenyan market. This has enhanced the theoretical foundations of the COO concept by using an integrated approach where all the key variables are studied in one research unlike previous studies where the variables have been researched singly or at best two variables at a time. Specifically the study sought to answer the following research question: What is the effect of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands in Nairobi, Kenya?

1.3 Research Objectives

The main objective of this study was to establish the effect of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

The specific objectives of the study were to:

    (i)   Assess the influence of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

(ii) Determine the influence of country-of-origin on consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands.

(iii) Establish the influence of consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

(iv) Assess the influence of consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

(v) Determine the extent to which consumer characteristics influence the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

(vi) Assess the degree to which consumer attitudes influence the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

(vii) Establish the joint effect of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

1.4 Value of the Study

The study has yielded important findings for use by scholars, researchers, policy makers and the business community in various ways. From a developing country perspective it has delineated conditions under which source country effect can account for consumer attitudes and behaviour. The empirical contribution it has made will build on the present understanding of the construct taking cognisance of the various prevailing circumstances in a developing market such as Kenya.

The study will increase theoretical knowledge on COO phenomenon in developing countries and enhance knowledge of consumer attitudes and behaviour based on the concept by adopting an integrated approach where all the key variables are studied in one research unlike previous studies where the variables have been researched individually or sometimes two at a time. It will increase understanding of consumer behaviour and attitudes towards marketing strategies based on source country influence as well as the moderating and mediating roles consumer characteristics and attitude play respectively in these relationships.

The research will provide an international marketing and consumer behaviour dimension to understanding challenges in the Kenyan clothing sector which is useful in developing holistic solutions given that most studies of the local industry have focused on economic and management aspects. A better understanding of all factors affecting the industry will help to address them expeditiously by focusing on the COO influence which is thus far not yet sufficiently studied. This will provide practical solutions and facilitate the development of relevant marketing policies and business strategies by manufacturers, distributors, retailers, international and local marketing practitioners, governments and other players. Specifically it will enrich understanding of COO dynamics in the clothing business as the country seeks to achieve Kenya Vision, 2030 goal of attracting new retailers into the Kenyan market and increasing the market share of products sold through formal channels in order to contribute to GDP growth (Kenya Vision 2030).

1.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter one has reviewed the background of the study. It has presented an overview of the concepts of Country-of-origin, Consumer Characteristics, Attitudes and Behaviour as the key study variables. It has also given an overview of the clothing industry as a contextual perspective of the study and provided a historical perspective of the clothing sector in Kenya. The chapter has also described the research problem, objectives of the research, value of the study and outlined the organization of the thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

This chapter reviews literature relevant to influence of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour with specific focus on developing countries. It contextualises the role of COO effects on consumer behaviour. A conceptual framework and hypotheses are postulated based on an amalgamation of existing theoretical and empirical literature, leading to the source country construct being hypothesized as influencing consumer behaviour in developing countries. The moderating role of consumer characteristics on the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour as well as the mediating influence of consumer attitudes are also hypothesised in the conceptual framework.

2.2   Theoretical Foundation of the Study

The source country construct in this study is broadly anchored on the international marketing theory and supported by consumer behaviour theory which encompasses consumer behaviour, attitudes and characteristics among other factors. Hence the investigation of the COO concept as envisaged in this research is principally geared towards enhancing international marketing theory. Cavusgil (1998) recommends that it is imperative that the international marketing field keeps pace with business developments as the twenty-first century unfolds, by ceaselessly seeking answers to important new questions from multiple, traditional and contemporary directions.

2.2.1 International Marketing Theory

The advancement of international marketing theory is of vital interest as the world continues to experience the rise of global business, stemming from the convergence of economic conditions world-wide, the liberalization of national trade policies, regional economic integration, and advances in communication, transportation and information technologies (Katsikeas, 2003). This has resulted in a shift from customising items to offering globally standardized products and emergence of an integrated global marketing with potential for theory development in international marketing which is not contextually bound (Levitt, 1983; Sheth & Parvatiyar, 2001).

This argument can be contrasted with the concept of national character advocated by Clark, (1990) which examined the concept in terms of its value and validity for use in international marketing. The author measured the development of the study of national character in the anthropological, psychoanalytic, and quantitative schools, and proposed a marketing-relevant national character concept with applicability to both consumer and strategic decision making. In drawing attention to theoretical developments in international marketing, Cavusgil (1998) contends that questions must be raised about the generation of new knowledge, what new research issues and constructs to investigate, and how research methods and procedures should be modified in view of contemporary developments. The author further argues that to arrive at a better explanation of the international marketing environment, researchers must not only be systematic in the application of research tools and procedures, but also employ meaningful theoretical frameworks, reconciling research rigour and relevance.

Much as academic research in international marketing has made great strides in recent years, concerns have been raised regarding the status and future direction of this field of inquiry (Katsikeas, 2003). Whilst old criticisms that research in international marketing is non-analytical and repetitive do not apply to the thrust of modern study, an associated problem remains the fact that domain complexity makes the generation and expression of knowledge more challenging in international marketing research (Czinkota & Ronkainen, 2002). Katsikeas, (2003) argues that on the one hand, we are encouraged by among others reviewers to develop an understanding of all interactions and consequences pertaining to the multidimensional nature of the international environment studied. But, on the other, the author observes that it is important to maintain a level of theoretical abstraction so as to capture the big picture and develop meaningful theory. In light of this conundrum, extant research has placed insufficient emphasis on: synthesizing existing knowledge, drawing on cross-functional perspectives in order to provide richer solutions to managerial problems; and fully integrating findings with the specific context of the study to prescribe meaningful actions for future research and business practice (Cavusgil, 1998).

According to Klein et al. (1998), among the notable trends is that target customers in markets worldwide are exposed to and are selecting from a wider range of foreign brands

than ever before. Accordingly, marketers have shown a growing interest in understanding the factors related to consumers evaluation and selection of imported goods. With the value of international trade now standing at \$7.6 trillion (World Trade Organization, 2002), international market entry and expansion decision-making is now a crucial aspect of contemporary business policy (Cavusgil, 1998). Researchers in marketing are beginning to investigate and understand the marketplace behaviour of global consumers and have developed various models to explain how attributes are evaluated and integrated into overall product judgments and purchase decisions (Klein et al., 1998).

Notwithstanding some areas of concordance, there remain several areas of lack of consensus among scholars regarding the theoretical foundation of the concept of COO. This is captured by Bhuian (1997) who notes that much as extant COO research has contributed considerable understanding of consumer attitudes in various countries towards foreign products and provided significant insights into the importance of such knowledge, empirical research on the attitudes of consumers in developing countries towards foreign products, and associated marketing practices, is somewhat limited. This limitation, the author argues, exists even though multinational enterprises around the world have expanded their operations in various developing countries and have been faced with the challenge of managing the competitive interaction of a firm's products with foreign products. As a way forward to this dilemma, Opoku & Akorli (2009) observe that to establish a theoretical foundation for a study on COO, a number of researchers have proposed various measures or devised scales for measuring the COO image construct. Some have proposed multi-dimensional measures of COO image while others have developed a uni-dimensional measure based on the innovativeness, design, prestige and workmanship of a country's products.

2.2.2 Consumer Behaviour Theory

Consumer behaviour theory is broadly premised on the behaviour that customers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs and wants (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1992). In seeking to satisfy their needs, customers go through this process of making decisions related to acquiring goods and services, when to use them, why to use them, how to use them, how

to buy them and when to stop using them. Sheth et al. (1988) view the consumer behaviour school of thought as that which attempts to address the question why customers behave the way they do in the marketplace. According to Olson (1981) consumer behaviour science involves working with theories – developing, testing, modifying and improving theories of consumer behaviour phenomena. The major consumer behaviour theories factor in both personal and environmental variables as critical to influencing consumer behaviour (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Nicosia, 1966). One of the notable attempts at evaluating the usefulness of consumer behaviour theories is that of Zaltman et al. (1973), who focus on evaluating the models postulated by Nicosia (1966), Howard and Sheth (1969) and Engel, et al. (1968).

Sheth et al. (1988) trace the origins of the consumer behaviour school of thought to the early 1950s, and they categorise the contributions made into three areas of research. The first area of research pioneered by Ernest Dichter (1947) focused on emotional and psychological determinants of consumer behaviour, note Sheth et al. (1988). This area they point out is largely criticized for its heavy reliance on Freudian Psychology and its interpretation of consumer information is regarded as highly subjective and lacking in consensus validation. The second area of research focused on social determinants of consumer behaviour and power of word of mouth communication, according to Sheth et al. (1988) with some of the proponents having included Whyte (1955), Kaltz and Lazarsfed (1955) and Bourne (1957). While this research provided useful insights into products and brands the results were adjudged less conclusive by Sheth et al. (1988). The third area of research, according to Sheth et al. (1988), dwelt on household decision making (Lincoln 1954, 1955, 1958), and this generated a significant amount of research on family buying behaviour.

Kotler (1969) argues that pioneering models such as the Marshallian, Pavlovian and the Hobbesian one laid a good foundation for consumer behaviour and the pieces should be integrated into one coherent behavioural science. On their part Zaltman et al. (1973) note that the study of theory in a consumer behaviour context is still very much in its infancy and until the various models are tested in whole or in part we cannot draw firm conclusions about their inherent worth or relative power, adding that these models are not pure abstractions without any empirical support. However, the authors caution that it is

21

difficult to compare various consumer behaviour theories/models partly because they make different assumptions. Sheth et al. (1988) concur and state that it is difficult to evaluate consumer behaviour theories/models because: there is enormous diversity of research within the buyer behaviour school, making it difficult to evaluate without averaging and suggesting exceptions to the average; the consumer behaviour school has churned out the largest amount of research; and consumer behaviour research has been more inter-disciplinary than most other schools of marketing.

Recently consumer behaviour theory has been closely linked to consumer culture theory (CCT) which refers to a family of theoretical perspectives that address the dynamic relationships between consumer actions, the marketplace and cultural meanings (Arnould & Craig, 2005). While representing a plurality of distinct theoretical approaches and research goals, Arnould and Craig (2005) argue that CCT researchers nonetheless share a common theoretical orientation toward the study of cultural complexity that programmatically links their respective research efforts with CCT fulfilling the recurrent calls for a distinctive body of theoretical knowledge about consumption and marketplace behaviours. The authors contend that CCT strives to systematically link individual level (or idiographic) meanings to different levels of cultural processes and structure and then to situate these relationships within historical and marketplace contexts. It presents a continual reminder that consumption is a historically shaped mode of sociocultural practice that emerges within the structures and ideological imperatives of dynamic marketplaces (Arnould & Craig, 2005).

Noting that the field of consumer behaviour continues to mature, Olson (1981) vilifies its tendency to borrow theories from other disciplines and adapt them. He is however optimistic that marketing scholars will further develop these theories and create their own. He further exhorts marketing scholars to be bold enough and speculate about phenomena that will move the discipline toward a science of consumer behaviour. The globalisation of markets presents considerable challenges and opportunities for domestic and international marketers in as far as understanding and influencing consumer behaviour is concerned. Yim et al. (2007) contend that as globalisation of the world's economies proceeds at a rapid pace, an area of ongoing interest in international marketing is the influence of COO on consumer behaviour. Researchers therefore need to continue

developing consumer behaviour research techniques which can be applied in international marketing (Yim et al., 2007). Going by the milestones covered so far in development of contemporary consumer behaviour theories/models, they have contributed positively towards the discipline and practice of marketing. However, there is a need for continued efforts among the marketing fraternity to integrate them into one coherent consumer behaviour science.

2.3   Country-of-origin and Consumer Behaviour towards foreign brands

Marketing scholars' interest in the influence of source country on consumer behaviour has intensified during the past twenty-five years. This influence at the local and international marketing level has continued to attract considerable attention among marketing academicians and practitioners, yielding several perspectives that are found in the marketing literature (Yim et al., 2007). As this research tradition has evolved, the literature has gradually gained more depth and sophistication. According to Ming-Huei (2004), these studies have yielded important insights and information on how consumers, use a brand's country-of-origin as a signal to inferring its purchase decisions and actions. Much as some studies have argued that these effects do not exist, or that if they do, they are of only minor significance in the wide array of influences on the purchase decision, the majority of published studies support the assertion that the effects do exist, although the magnitude and the mechanism of influence remains unresolved (Thakor & Pacheco, 1997; Batra et al., 2000).

According to Opoku and Akorli (2009) the majority of source country studies (Verlegh, 1999; Bhaskaran, 2007) have focused on consumers in developed countries with these studies showing that consumers in those countries tend to prefer products from developed countries to those from less developed countries. The authors assert that, in particular, such consumers tend to prefer products from their own countries first, hence Canadian, German and Dutch respondents preferred TV sets or car radios made in their own country, followed by brands made in other developed countries and lastly those made in South Korea and Mexico. Invariably, consumers tend to prefer domestic products in countries where there is strong patriotism, national pride, or consumer ethnocentrism (Opoku & Arkoli, 2009).

This view is corroborated by Klein et al., (1998) and Elliott and Cameron (1994), who argue that the exceptional situation where brands made in developing countries may be perceived favourably and thereby preferred by citizens is where there is high patriotism, national pride, or consumer ethnocentrism or where there is a general preference for locally made products when the price and quality of the locally made product is equivalent or better. In their study conducted in China which tested the animosity model of foreign product purchase, they surmised that animosity toward a foreign nation negatively affects purchase of products produced by that country independent of product quality judgments, consequently slanting buying decisions of citizens in favour of local products as opposed to foreign ones.

According to Samiee (1994) the developed markets consume a very large share of the world's total exports - in 1990, the U.S. alone imported more than any other nation, 18% of the world's total non-U.S. exports. The author observes that this figure is about twice as much as for other countries except West Germany and Japan, arguing that in relative terms, however, imports represent a smaller percentage of the GNP in the U.S. than in most other industrial countries. Customers in other developed countries are faced with a much larger pool of imported brands and products. Concurrently, most other developed nations are in closer proximity to each other and are therefore more exposed to cultures, languages and the media of other countries (Samiee, 1994).

Alexander et al. (2005) provide an empirical test of international relations image theory and extend the theory by emphasizing that individuals' social identity and social dominance motives contribute to such images. In a survey of 140 Lebanese participants the authors assessed their perceptions of USA-Lebanese relations, the images they have of the United States, their social identities, and their social dominance orientations. Participants were more likely to hold the barbarian image of the United States than the enemy, imperialist, or ally images. Participants also tended to perceive the United States as having relatively superior power, inferior cultural status, and goals that are incompatible with those of Lebanon. Consistent with image theory predictions, this constellation of structural perceptions was associated with stronger endorsement of the barbarian image according to Alexander et al. (2005). Furthermore, participants were more likely to endorse the barbarian image of the United States the more they identified

with Arabs and Palestinians, the less they identified with Christians and the Western world, and the lower their social dominance orientation. These results highlight the importance of considering both structural characteristics and individual motives underlying international images and demonstrate the need for scholars to move beyond the enemy image of nations when describing international relations (Alexander et al., 2005).

Opoku and Akorli (2009) further assert that in economically underdeveloped countries, preference for domestic products tends to be weaker with for instance, consumers in the former socialist countries of eastern and central Europe preferring western to domestic products. The authors report that some studies (Ettenson, 1993) have established that price was relatively less important than COO in Russian, Polish and Hungarian consumer purchase intentions for TV sets while others (Klenosky et al., 1996) have indicated that Czech consumers preferred German cars and TV sets, but not polish ones, to those made in the Czech Republic. Mexicans have a poor perception of domestic goods, rating American and Thailand household electronic products above Mexican-made brands while there is also a great demand for Western consumer goods among Indian consumers. Perception of COO image as one of the distinct attributes when making purchasing decisions, a strong taste and general preference for western products have also been established among Chinese, Bangladeshi and Pakistanis consumers (Opoku & Akorli, 2009).

2.4   Country-of-origin and Consumer Attitudes

Different perspectives exist on COO and consumer attitudes. Opoku and Akorli (2009) have examined empirically consumer attitudes towards local and imported products in a developing country market, arguing that it is a difficult challenge in establishing a vibrant manufacturing industry and changing the attitudes of citizens of such a country toward domestic products. In some countries such as Australia, Elliott and Cameron (1994) found that consumers have preconceived, stereotypical attitudes towards products identified as being made in certain foreign countries. In other situations it has been established that COO helps consumers to summarise product information as they get acquainted to a country's products. Consumers are particularly prone to use COO

category (by which the information is summarized) to streamline their decision making when the amount of attribute information is large and otherwise difficult to integrate (Ming-huei, 2004).

Closely related to ethnocentrism in COO studies is another construct referred to as the 'animosity model of foreign product purchase.' Klein et al. (1998) assert that this construct has to do with how consumer negative attitudes or feelings towards a foreign country influences attitude towards brands or products originating from or associated with the hostile country. The authors argue that this hostility may be induced by political, economic, religious or cultural factors between two nations, which subsequently engender negative consumer attitude and buying decisions in as far as products from the country perceived as hostile are concerned. The animosity construct is discernible from ethnocentrism in that the latter is induced by patriotic or nationalistic feelings towards the home country products while the former is associated with negative mind-set towards a controversial country and its products (Klein et al., 1998).

The initial test of the animosity model of foreign product purchase in the People's Republic of China by Klein et al. (1998) further represents efforts towards development of a common conceptual framework on ethnocentrism in relation to COO. The same can be said of the study by Opoku and Akorli (2009) which measured the COO image following the multi-dimensional measures approach, notwithstanding that 'innovativeness' and 'design' were replaced with 'technological advancement' and 'quality', terms that have also been used in other studies.

According to Assael (1998), attitudes develop in the following ways: Personality (traits such as aggression, submissiveness, authoritarianism, or extroversion may influence attitudes towards products or brands); Family Influences (these also influence the purchase decision and there is a high correlation between children's attitudes and those of their parents); Peer Group (studies have demonstrated that there is pervasive group influence on buying behaviour. Peer groups are much more likely to influence attitudes and purchase than advertising); and Information and Experience (the past experience of consumers also influences their brand attitudes). Related to attitude development, according to Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) is attitude change which like in the case of

attitude formation, attitude changes are learned, they are influenced by personal experience and other sources of information, and personality affects both the receptivity and the speed with which attitudes are likely to be altered.

Communication plays a crucial role in shaping attitudes at the international marketing level and is relevant in analysing how the concept of COO influences customer attitudes towards brands. It is equally pertinent in increasing knowledge of customer attitudes and behaviour towards communication messages based on COO. Whereas there is general consensus that communication plays an integral role in shaping attitude formation, the actual stages constituting the communication processes have engendered various communication models attributable to different scholars. Debatably, this is an area where like other aspects of consumer behaviour there is a need for scholarly concurrence if a truly comprehensive theory of consumer behaviour is to evolve. Once the target market and its perceptions are identified, the marketing communicator must decide on the desired audience response, which can be cognition, affection or behavioural in nature (Solomon, 1996; Assael, 1998; Kotler, 2001). That is, the marketer might want to put something into the consumer's mind, change an attitude, or get the consumer to act.

Behavioural scientists (Lancaster & Massingham, 1998) have formulated a number of sequential models on attitudes attempting to shed light on the process consumers pass through on their way to action or purchase. The different models of consumer response stages are summarized as the four best-known response hierarchy models that is AIDA, Hierarchy-of-Effects, Innovation-Adoption and Communications model (Kotler, 2001). Notably, these models are broadly structured along the lines of the CAB model of attitudes (Solomon, 1996), which the conceptual framework of the current study is premised on. However there are different variants of the model with some emphasising one of the components as playing an important role in the development and maintenance of consumer behaviour (Rui & Sharifah, 2006). The CAB model of attitudes has been employed in this study to develop the conceptual model of effect of COO on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in the clothing industry.

However these response hierarchy models have been subjected to criticism with Kotler (2001) pointing out that these response hierarchy models assume that the buyer passes

through a cognitive, affective or behavioural process, in that order. The author argues that this 'learn-feel-do' sequence is appropriate when the audience has high involvement with a product category perceived to have high differentiation, as in purchasing an automobile. An alternative sequence, 'do-feel-learn,' is relevant when the audience has high involvement but perceives little or no difference with the product category, as in purchasing aluminium sliding. A third sequence, 'learn-do-feel,' is relevant when the audience has low involvement and perceives little differentiation within the product category, as in purchasing salt (Kotler, 2001). The author therefore concludes that by choosing the right sequence, the marketer can do a better job of planning communications.

On their part, Lancaster et al. (1999) point out that these sequential models have been used extensively by advertising researchers, but they are put forward not on the basis of empirical evidence but on the basis of common sense. According to the author, for example the AIDA approach, which states that consumers pass through four successive stages (Attention, Interest, Desire and Action), has been criticised for not having an allowance for build-up and emphasising too much on the message at the expense of the prospect. Therefore the sequential models are more theoretical than practical, and work needs to be done in this area before actionable models can be put forward as active advertising tools (Lancaster et al., 1999).

There are other contemporary models of consumer behaviour in addition to those discussed above, which as already stated invariably incorporate consumer attitude. According to Runyon (1980) all the models have limited value for the marketing practitioner and faced with a multiplicity of models there is a need for criteria for evaluating them. He concludes that none of the existing models meet the criteria and advises marketing practitioners to understand them well and make do with what they offer until there is a theoretical breakthrough in the behavioural sciences themselves.

2.5   Consumer Attitudes and Behaviour

Consumer attitudes in international marketing have continued to attract considerable interest as a field of research. This is largely due to the consideration that attitudes constitute a significant component of the broader field of consumer behaviour (Runyon,

1980) in international marketing. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) attitudes towards a brand, product or service can be largely studied and understood in the broad context of consumer behaviour concepts in the marketing discipline, which is a subset of the extensive field of human behaviour.

Runyon (1980) cites the lack of operational definitions in most of the existing models of consumer behaviour as constituting one of their greatest weaknesses. Referring specifically to attitude, the author contends that an operational definition should be developed for translating theoretical concepts into hypotheses which can be tested. He asserts that attitude is a theoretical construct – an abstraction that can be defined rhetorically in a number of ways, yet before it can become a useful concept for understanding behaviour, we must define a replicable method for measuring attitudes. The measure, he continues to argue, may take the form of a questionnaire administered under certain defined conditions or it may be some other form of behaviour which meets certain observable criteria. This measure then becomes the operational definition of attitude and it is the device that relates the concept of attitude to the objective world (Runyon, 1980).

Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) also argue that situations, events or circumstances, at a point in time, influence the relationship between attitudes and behaviour resulting in consumers behaving in a manner seemingly inconsistent with their attitudes. The authors aver that although brand switching may seem to reflect a negative attitude or dissatisfaction, it actually may have been influenced by a specific situation, such as the need to economise. Similarly, individuals can have different attitudes toward a particular behaviour, each corresponding to a particular situation and consequently, it is important when measuring attitudes, to consider the situation in which behaviour takes place to avoid misinterpreting the relationship between attitudes and behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1992).

Kotler, (2001) argues that the extent to which another person's attitude reduces one's preferred alternative depends on two factors: the intensity of the other person's negative attitude towards the consumer's preferred alternative and the consumer's motivation to comply with the other person's wishes. The more intense the other person's negativism

and the closer the other person is to the consumer, the more the consumer will adjust his or her purchase intention. The converse is also true. A buyer's preference for a brand will increase if someone he/she respects favours the same brand strongly. Kotler (2001) concludes that the influence of others becomes complex when several people close to the buyer hold contradictory opinions and the buyer would like to please them all.

According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1992), attitudes relevant to purchase behaviour are formed as a result of direct experience with the product, information acquired from others, and exposure to mass media such as advertising. Therefore attitudes have a motivational quality (predisposition) that is they might propel the consumer toward a given behaviour On the other hand, another strong research stream that developed focused on attitude-behaviour relationship and attitude formation and structure, as a key characteristic (Sheth et al., 1988). On his part Runyon (1980) argues that an advertising message represents the consumer's unique psychological attributes resulting in a consumer reacting in some way, and this reaction or attitude provides the input to a favourable evaluation leading to the act of purchase as well as future purchases. Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) further assert that consumer attitudes are relatively consistent with the behaviour they reflect and much as they do change they are normally expected to correspond with behaviour. The authors conclude that when consumers are free to act as they wish, it is anticipated that their actions will be consistent with their attitudes.

Bhuian (1997) contends that extant COO research has contributed substantial knowledge of consumer attitudes towards foreign brands in developing countries. Consumers can also use brand origin as a cue to generate inferential beliefs when other information is not available (Ming-huei, 2004). Whereas establishing a strong brand preference is considered to be an effort-reducing strategy (Gwin, 2009) by consumers to simplify information search and brand choice from an attitudinal context, it is notable that, despite industry-wide acceptance of this axiom in marketing, there has been inadequate empirical verification to support the contention.

Ming-huei (2004) argues that the role of COO in information processes and its impact on product evaluation are acknowledged in many studies with various writers (Erickson et

al., 1992; Tse et al., 1992; Ettenson, 1993; Hulland, 1999) suggesting that COO affects product evaluation and subsequent purchase behaviour not only directly but also indirectly through beliefs. For example, some writers have identified two major functions of COO information: halo function and summary function. The halo function affects a consumer's evaluation indirectly through beliefs, whereas the summary function affects the consumer's evaluation directly (Ming-huei. 2004).

According to Chimboza and Mutandwa (2007) consumer behaviour has been receiving increased attention in extant literature and emphasizes that it is necessary to understand the success factors behind this process, noting that the relative importance of each factor depends on the nature of industry under consideration, location and social characteristics of the consumers of the different brands. On their part Sriram et al. (2006), argue that intrinsic buyer preferences can be inferred from tangible performance measures such as sales.

2.6 Consumer Characteristics and Behaviour

Consumer characteristics and behaviour have been documented to relate in diverse ways. Understanding characteristics of consumers entails profiling their demographics such as their interests, ages, heritage, income level, education, sex, family status, and occupations (Ranaweera et al., 2005; Floh & Treiblmaier, 2006). Some scholars have proposed a model that suggests the examination of significant moderating effects of consumer characteristics that would enable a set of consumer profiles to be developed (Ranaweera et al., 2005). In their study Elliott and Cameron (1994) hold the view that COO effects generally, and "Buy Local" campaigns in particular, are indeed potentially important influences on consumers' purchase decision making behaviour. In their study conducted in Australia the authors found that consumers express a general preference for locally made products and relative to other product attributes, and particularly those of quality and price, COO information is generally of low importance. However, their results support the proposition that, where it is not possible objectively to distinguish between products on the basis of intrinsic quality, consumers will resort to the use of the COO cue as a surrogate quality index.

While examining the impact of COO effects and consumer attitudes towards buy-local campaign initiatives, Opoku and Akorli (2009) contend that basically, the attitudes of consumers to the buy locally-made campaigns can be characterized as protectionist, nationalistic, and self-interest. The authors cite Carr et al. (2001) who in assessing the hiring preferences among organisations in one developing country, found that East Africans but not western expatriates tend to be less preferred than fellow Tanzanians. Opoku and Akorli (2009) note that the preceding empirical evidence, though not exhaustive, suggests that consumers in developing economies view products from developed countries more favourably than products from their own country. Against this backdrop, their study was therefore designed to investigate the broad issues of the effects of COO image on consumers' perceptions of quality and price as well as taste from the point of view of consumers in a sub-Saharan African country.

Runyon (1980) observes that contemporary models of consumer behaviour run the gamut from fairly simple relationships between an independent and dependent variable to highly complex, comprehensive models of consumer behaviour. However, as Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) contend the person who makes a product purchase is not always the user or the only user of the product in question. Nor is the purchaser the person who makes the product decision. Knowledge of internal and external influences that impel individuals to act in certain consumption related ways is therefore important in understanding a product/service and hence how marketing can be used to influence the same. The authors argue that consumer behaviour is a relatively new field of study with no history or body of research, but which borrows heavily from concepts developed in other scientific disciplines such as psychology, sociology, social psychology, cultural anthropology and economics.

On their part Nguyen, et al. (2008) used the cultural context in their research undertaken in Vietnam among 549 consumers focusing on consumer ethnocentrism, cultural sensitivity, and intention to purchase local products. Their study investigated the impact of consumer ethnocentrism and cultural sensitivity on both imported product judgment and intention to purchase local products in the context of a developing country, Vietnam. The results showed that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related to imported product judgment and positively related to intention to purchase local products. In

addition, cultural sensitivity has a positive relationship with imported product judgment but not with consumer ethnocentrism. The results also indicated that the impacts of consumer ethnocentrism on imported product judgment and on intention to purchase local products are not different in terms of product categories, gender, income, and education levels. However, differences existed between younger and older consumers.

Batra et al. (2000) also studied a few other important moderating effects and found that the local or nonlocal origin effect was not weaker among more ethnocentric consumers, a finding that differs from most prior research. These findings imply that a brand seen as generally nonlocal instead of coming from one specific country may simply not evoke as much hostility from ethnocentric consumers as has been found in prior COO research. Support was also found for the theoretical expectation that this local or nonlocal perception effect is greater when the consumer felt a greater need to use quality cues because of lower familiarity with the category (after controlling for levels of perceived risk in the category). These results add to the literature on the use by consumers of extrinsic cues about quality (Steenkamp, 1989).

2.7   Country-of-origin, Consumer Characteristics and Behaviour

Scholars have continued to study the effect of COO as well as the moderating role of consumer characteristics on behaviour. Closely related to the COO construct, though distinctive, is the image construct which to some extent contributes to how consumers view a particular country and its products. Country Image (CI) has been studied extensively in consumer research and international marketing. Nevertheless the relationship between COO and country image has not been conclusively explained. Li et al. (1997) attest to this by pointing out that CI is not a well-defined construct and findings from different studies often conflict due to the different measurements used resulting in uncertainty over whether CI is a uni-dimensional or multi-dimensional construct. The authors define CI as an overall picture of a specific country, further elaborating that it is the picture, the reputation, the stereotype that businessmen and consumers attach to products of a specific country. This image is created by such variables as representative products, national characteristics, economic and political background, history, and traditions". CI, they argue is therefore an important extrinsic cue for the evaluation of a

tangible foreign product category like automobiles, or a non-tangible category like airline service.

Nelson (2004) defines image as schemata, or information representations that organize a decision maker's values and knowledge and that guide his or her behaviour. The situation, or frame, determines which subset of the decision maker's images will be used in the decision. Alexander et al. (2005) define image within an international relations context. They describe image as a function of perceived structural characteristics that are driven by social identity and social dominance motives. The authors state that ideas about other actors in world affairs are organized into group schemas, or images, with well-defined cognitive elements. These images are organized in a systematic way, comprised of cognitions and beliefs regarding the target nation's motives, leadership, and primary characteristics (Alexander et al., 2005).

In trying to understand the role of image in international marketing, international relations and other disciplines, scholars have over time started to evolve what is referred to as image theory. According to Nelson (2004), image theory was developed specifically to explain problems ranging from extensive, complex decisions to choosing options that require minimal processing after the elimination of obviously inferior options. Writing on brand image transfer through sponsorship, Smith (2004) observes that academic research is still in its infancy in this area. The author identifies brand knowledge, power, fit and quality as influences on the brand image transfer process.

Nelson (2004) further posits that consumers are often confronted with value-laden decisions that challenge their principles and beliefs with many consumers who have strong social responsibility principles considering the effects of general corporate behaviour (such as political views and environmental disasters) and of the product's manufacture, consumption, or disposal (such as animal testing and environmental harm) on society's overall well-being. Because these product dimensions do not fit easily into traditional decision theories, the author explores a new conceptual framework that incorporates and emphasizes the consumer's enduring principles and values. The results indicate that image theory provides a useful structure for describing the decision process in a value-laden decision context. The author also expands understanding of image theory

by examining all three images (values, goals, and strategies) simultaneously in the same decision context for the first time.

Comparing COO effects between a developed and moderately developed country, Ulgado and Lee (1998) examined how Koreans in contrast with Americans react to foreign-made products. Having joined the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), such developed-nation status required Korea to open its consumer goods and financial markets. The study was important since as a more open Korean market became increasingly attractive to foreign manufacturers and investors, it was critical for foreign marketers to understand how Korean consumers perceive and evaluate imported goods. The results of the study showed that both Korean and USA consumers, in general, relied heavily on specific intrinsic attributes of products as the basis for their evaluations of the product quality. Interestingly, Koreans considered country-of-manufacture information as equally important in this situation. However, when they determined their purchase intentions, neither Koreans nor Americans valued country labels of the products; they again used product attribute information (Ulgado & Lee, 1998).

Various definitions of consumer characteristics equate the construct to consumer profiles and demographics (Ranaweera et al., 2005; Floh & Treiblmaier, 2006). According to Fürstner and Anišić (2010) consumer characteristics are general information about consumers, which usually deals with basic and demographic attributes. Fürstner and Anišić (2010) propose an approach for adaptive involvement of customers as co-creators in mass customization of products and services by identifying different consumer profiles that suit each individual consumer's needs and limitations. Research has also focused on the study of consumer characteristics as moderators of buying behaviour (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001; Ranaweera et al., 2005), with Floh and Treiblmaier, (2006) establishing that moderating variables such as gender, age, involvement, variety seeking behaviour and technophobia exert a significant influence in some relationships where consumer loyalty is directly affected by satisfaction and trust.

Ranaweera et al. (2005) postulate a model on the moderating effects of user characteristics on the relationship between website satisfaction and consumer behavioural and attitudinal outcomes. On their part, Mittal and Kamakura (2001) found that

consumers with different characteristics have different thresholds and consequently different repurchase probabilities. According to Schaefer (1995), there is an on-going debate concerning the magnitude of source country effect, particularly in the presence of other extrinsic and intrinsic product information cues, and about the environmental and individual factors that may facilitate or inhibit reliance on COO. On their part, Batra et al. (2003) state that ideal-point models rely on different approaches to data collection and assume that a particular combination of levels on each attribute can be found that represents a person's or total market's 'ideal' combination. The authors contend that these models involve perceptual mapping of and multi-dimensional scaling procedures where people generally divide the world into categories. Consequently, when evaluating new stimulus, it is placed into a category, and the attitude toward that category is retrieved from memory and applied to the stimulus (Batra et al. 2003).

2.8   Country-of-origin, Consumer Attitudes and Behaviour

Diverse perspectives on the mediating role of attitudes have been examined in the context of COO and consumer behaviour. Marketing scholars (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1992) had long noted that consumers did not always act or react as economic theory would suggest. Consumer behaviour research therefore enables marketers to segment markets based on variables that emerge as important discriminators among consumers. Consequently altering consumer attitudes is a key strategy consideration for most marketers.

Lancaster and Massingham (1998) assert that in order to gauge the effectiveness of the promotional messages companies disseminate regarding their products/services, it is important to establish customer attitude towards them through research as this understanding facilitates the development of measures that inform future international marketing strategies. Such research, the authors argue, incorporates diverse fields such as: determining the general attitude of customers towards a product/service whose promotional messages they have been exposed to; establish awareness, comprehension and knowledge of a product/service whose promotional messages they have experienced; ascertain the liking and preference for a product/service whose promotional messages they have been subjected to; and determine intentions, behaviour, trials and purchases by

customers on efficient use of a product/service whose promotional messages they have been exposed to.

Consumer attitude research therefore yields important data and information of use to the international marketing practitioner in various ways such as: increase understanding of customer attitudes and behaviour towards past promotional messages on use of a product/service; facilitate the development of marketing strategies and activities aimed at influencing customer behaviour in purchase or use of a product/service; formulating policy and marketing programs on end-user information regarding a product/service; and providing a useful source for reference by scholars and researchers regarding a product/service (Lancaster & Massingham, 1998). Consumers form an "attitude" towards the advertising of a product as well as in the act of buying it which leads to the intention of whether to purchase the product or not (Schutte & Ciarlante, 1998).

A cognitive structure model assumes that a person forms an attitude toward an object by developing beliefs about it and combining those beliefs into a general overall attitude toward the object (Fishbein, 1967). According to Batra et al. (2003), the most commonly used cognitive structure model in advertising is the evaluative belief model, in which the attitude is the sum of the evaluative beliefs about how well each brand scores on each attribute, weighted by the importance of that attribute.

This is denoted as:

$$A0 = \sum wd\ aod$$

where $A0$ = attitude of an individual or segment toward object 0

aod = evaluation of an individual or segment toward object 0 with respect to attribute or dimension d, the evaluate belief

wd = measure of the relative importance or weight of attribute d to the individual or segment

However the authors point out that the cognitive structure model has several assumptions that may not necessarily hold. Firstly, it assumes that there are a limited number of known attributes with known weights. In some circumstances, a consumer may not be aware of the attributes used. Secondly, it assumes that a person first obtains belief

37

information and then uses it to alter attitudes. On the contrary, the process could work the opposite way (Batra et al. 2003).

In their study, Batra et al. (2000) developed a theoretical framework showing why, among consumers in developing countries, brands seen as being sourced overseas, especially from the West are viewed as endowing prestige and cosmopolitanism and, thus enhancing the consumer's social identity. The consumer buying decision process has also been rationalized within the context of source-country influences, providing a conceptual framework for further development, which also links country-level considerations to firm-level decision-making (Samiee, 1994).

However Samiee (1994) cautions that Country Stereotyping Effect (CSE) studies obtained in one country are not necessarily applicable elsewhere. A whole host of variables such as education, travel, abundant supply of multiple brands in every product category, labelling laws, general predisposition of the population towards foreign manufactured goods, and many others must be considered in order to achieve universal validity. Furthermore the author argues majority of the empirical research assessing CSE has been conducted in the United States where Country-of-Manufacture (COM) labelling is required and it is a buyers' market with an abundance of alternative brands from which to choose. Thus, the identification of COM by customers has not been a problem given that the U.S. is a relatively high-income nation with well-established distribution and retailing structures that emphasize customer satisfaction. These conditions influence the perceived risk associated with CSE differently in the U.S. compared to other nations and therefore there are simply too many intervening considerations that are yet to be accounted for (Samiee, 1994).

The author further recommends that unquestionably, priority in COO research should be given to establishing its importance and saliency in customer evaluations and subsequent choice. In addition, COO has frequently been studied independently of information acquisition and buyer behaviour models. The integration of CSE into the existing body of literature will significantly enhance its validity and practical utility. An equally important consideration is the influence of CSE on performance. If CSE cannot be shown to influence corporate performance, the issue becomes inconsequential. Once these

requirements are met, research findings must enter the planning and decision-making phases. Thus, a critical consideration for future research is the integration of CSE findings in business and marketing plans in a management-oriented fashion (Samiee, 1994).

Some scholars agree that the products and brands chosen by consumers often serve non-utilitarian functions, such as symbolic acquisition and communication of social distinctions, particularly status (Douglas et al., 1979). Such concern with status display is even more important in developing countries, where interpersonal relationships are of prime importance (Ger et al., 1993) and where, because of economic transition, income disparities and status mobility are high (Belk, 1988; Kottak, 1990). Samiee (1994) makes an attempt to address these considerations by using the findings in the literature and by developing a framework to assess more accurately the presence of CSE and its relationship to other relevant variables.

The findings by Opoku and Akorli (2009) that COO is more important than price and other product attributes and at least as important as brand name, in the Ghanaian consumer choice support the results reported by Jaffe and Martinez (1995) for Mexico, and Ettenson (1993) in the case of the former socialist countries of Eastern Europe. Opoku and Akorli (2009) contend that other literature shows that one of the things consumers highly considered when purchasing clothing is COO. The authors also compare their findings with Suwannaporn and Linnenmann (2008) who also found that COO was frequently mentioned as an important criterion in buying rice in rice-eating countries and was the most distinctive of all buying criteria between the Asian, European and Australian consumers studied. Opoku and Akorli (2009) also contrast their findings with those of Fianu and Harrison-Arthur (2007) which focused on Ghanaian workers, and reported that those who looked for labels (for information including manufacturer's/brand name, price and COO) while shopping for fabrics were 75%, whereas 83% looked for labels when selecting ready-made clothing to determine the quality.

The authors caution that although more than half of the respondents in their study reported incomes below the country's poverty datum line, however in the Ghanaian situation, 95% of Ghanaians buy second-hand clothes. Since second-hand clothes are

relatively cheaper than new ones, COO could be an issue other than price. On Ghanaian consumer's low regard for 'Made in Ghana' label vis-à-vis foreign ones, Ohene-Frempong (2004) also observed that fewer and fewer Ghanaians dress traditionally these days and much of what they wear is imported from foreign non-African countries.

In an attempt to develop a theoretical framework for COO, Chen (2010) employs country variables and consumer value as antecedent variables, attitude toward a brand product as a mediator, and brand strength as the outcome. Gwin (2009) contends that there is a positive relationship between subjective knowledge and search and explores the mediating effects of consumer behaviour on this relationship while Thakor and Pacheco (1997) assert that only partial support exists for a foreign branding effect.

2.9   Country-of-origin, Consumer Characteristics, Attitudes and Behaviour

Country-of-origin, consumer characteristics, attitudes and behaviour relate in various ways. Newer models view consumers of a particular product as those who have a positive attitude toward the bundle of characteristics of the particular product (Boshoff, 2011). In underdeveloped countries, preference for domestic products is weaker with situational personal characteristics, such as motivation, influencing use of country-of-origin attributes to evaluate services (Opoku & Akorli, 2009). Batra et al. (2000) tested whether, among consumers in developing countries, brands perceived as having a nonlocal COO effect, especially from the West, are attitudinally preferred to brands seen as local. The authors contend that this effect was also moderated by product category familiarity, and among the consumers in developing countries that were studied, the effect was strong among high individual Susceptibility to Normative Influence (SNI) consumers who also had high Economically Developed Country (EDC) admiration. The research found that this perceived brand non-localness effect was greater for consumers who have a greater admiration for lifestyles in economically developed countries, which is consistent with findings from the cultural anthropology literature (Batra et al., 2000)

On their part, Fürstner and Anišić (2010) have investigated the minimization of the complexity experienced by consumers and the reduction of the cognitive overhead, considering not only the extent of choice, but also the lack of understanding about which solution meets their needs and also the uncertainties about the behaviour of the supplier

and the purchasing process. COO has been found to be more important than price and other product attributes and the Ghanaian consumer holds the "Made in Ghana" label in low regard relative to foreign products (Opoku & Akorli, 2009).

Opoku and Akorli (2009) examined empirically consumer attitudes towards local and imported products in Ghana, a developing country market. It elicited responses from 100 respondents in Accra and sought to examine how a product's COO image affects consumer choice in a small country such as Ghana. It also attempted to ascertain consumers' perception of the 'Made in Ghana' label; examine the 'country image' in the Ghanaian consumer preference for products; and establish Ghanaians' attitudes towards 'Made in Ghana' products and goods with foreign origin. The findings suggest that COO is more important than price and other product attributes and at least as important as brand name, in the Ghanaian consumer choice; the Ghanaian consumer views the 'Made in Ghana' label as mediocre relative to foreign labels and; superior quality and consumer taste are the two most important reasons for the Ghanaian consumer preference for foreign products.

Thakor and Pacheco (1997) examine how foreign branding – that is spelling out or pronouncing a brand name in a foreign language - influences consumers' perceptions and attitudes. Their study which sampled 266 undergraduate students from a major Canadian university, found that only partial support existed for a foreign branding effect, though there were significant gender effects, such as liking for the brand name. Overall, the findings suggested that while foreign branding affects product evaluations more than COO, the uni-cultural or multi-cultural nature of the research context is influential in determining which brands are seen as 'foreign.'

In the context of this study, branding can be viewed within the perspective of international products as well as country or destination branding as opposed to the conventional local product branding. Kaplan et al. (2010) note that in recent years, although the majority of branding studies have focused on the brand personality of conventional product brands, the new boundaries of marketing necessitate the application of branding constructs to non-traditional products such as places. Focusing on brand personalities of places the authors' study examined the applicability of this concept for

city brands. The findings of the study revealed that differentiating places with regard to their brand personalities is achievable.

Tasci et al. (2009) observe that despite the recent academic attention to branding, there seems to be no clear path for authorities to follow in establishing their destinations as distinctive and strategic brands. In their attempt to provide a practical framework for destination authorities, the authors argue that branding in a destination context involves development and maintenance of positive image and identity using several elements such as names, logos, slogans and colour. These elements, they conclude, need to be distilled from destination characteristics as they can lead to strong brand equity. They also discuss the potential of country branding and conclude that strong brands can attract not only tourists, but also businesses and investment.

Extending the brand personality of places to the African continent which is relevant for this study, Osei et al (2011) argue that owing to the reduction of trade barriers between countries, the world is being perceived today as one market or as commonly stated, a global village. Therefore, continents, countries and cities compete with one another for as much trade as possible and their developments are being compared with those in other comparable places. The authors establish that the extant literature is replete with publications that essentially associate Africa, as a brand, to poverty, underdevelopment, corruption, doom, pestilence and several other inauspicious features. Nonetheless, they note that there are several existing virtues especially in the form of business opportunities in several sectors that could be accorded extensive publicity to espouse the continents' brand equity. These range from agriculture, to tourism, to real estate, to sports and several existing foreign direct investments already thriving in several parts of the continent. Hence, they strongly argue for re-branding Africa as a viable continent for global business transactions.

The literature on brand marketing has generated a considerable amount of theoretical and empirical research, focusing on various aspects concerning branding such as brand personality, attachment, associations, extension, co-branding and place branding. However further research into this fundamental question is required since it may lead to a better understanding of the way emotional ties are formed between consumers and their

preferred brands, as well as explaining the role of this particular tie with regard to brand relationships, attitudes and behavioural intentions. More important for this study is that destination branding is rapidly becoming a focal point of management and marketing efforts. It is increasing in importance due to the globally growing need for corporate partnerships to access scarce resources and for more unique and cooperative positioning in a competitive marketplace. However as Tasci et al. (2009) point out, the process of branding destinations is often more haphazard than strategically planned. The use of strategies and their efficacy has yet to be fully applied and measured for many developing as well as developed destinations.

2.10   Summary of Knowledge Gaps

A summary of the pertinent knowledge gaps identified in this chapter is given in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Summary of Knowledge Gaps

Study	Focus of the Study	Key findings	Knowledge gaps	Focus of current Study
Bruwer and Buller (2012)	COO brand preferences and knowledge of wine consumers	Japanese consumers with higher objective knowledge do not use the COO cue more than consumers with lower knowledge	Studied only two variables - COO and consumers knowledge	Will study four variables at once -COO, consumer characteristics, attitudes and behaviour
Adamantios et al. (2011)	Relationship between COO image and brand image	COO image impacts purchase intentions indirectly and its influence is mediated by brand image	Focused on two key variables - COO image and brand image	Will study four variables concurrently
Chen (2010)	Effects of COO on Brand Strength as moderated by Brand Life Cycle	COO has significantly positive effects on brand attitude and brand strength	Not studied COO in developing countries set up	Consumer behaviour as driven by COO with consumer characteristics moderating the relationship
Opoku and Akorli (2009)	Ghanaian consumers' attitudes toward local and imported products	COO is more important than price and other product attributes and at least as important as brand name, in the Ghanaian consumer choice	Methodology focused on two key variables - attitudes toward local and imported products	Will study four variables at once -COO, consumer characteristics, attitudes and behaviour

Table 2.1: Summary of Knowledge Gaps…contd

Study	Focus of the Study	Key findings	Knowledge gaps	Focus of current Study
Nguyen et al. (2008)	Impact of consumer ethnocentrism and culture on imported products	Consumer ethnocentrism in Vietnam is negatively related to imported product judgment and positively related to intention to purchase local products	Lack of a coherent conceptual framework on country-of-origin	Kenyan consumer behaviour as influenced by source country
Yim et al. (2007)	Chinese product quality and purchase intentions of foreign versus home products	Experience does affect purchase likelihood for home versus foreign products	Not studied COO trends in developing countries	Will examine consumer behaviour of foreign brands among Kenyans
Batra et al. (2000)	Effects of local and foreign brands on attitudes in developing countries	Perceived brand foreign effect was greater for consumers who have a greater admiration for lifestyles in economically developed countries	Lack of a consistent conceptual framework on country-of-origin	Will study effects of foreign brands on consumer behaviour in a developing country

Table 2.1: Summary of Knowledge Gaps…contd

Study	Focus of the Study	Key findings	Knowledge gaps	Focus of current Study
Kong'ong'o (2000)	Influence of ethnocentrism on attitude towards local and imported clothes in Nairobi	There is a direct positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism score and attitude towards locally made clothes	Deficient in articulate conceptual framework on country-of-origin	Will examine how COO influences consumer behaviour in Nairobi
Klein et al. (1998)	Tested the animosity model of foreign product purchase in China	Animosity toward a foreign nation negatively affects purchase of products produced by that country independent of product quality judgments	Ignored other international contexts where animosity plays a role in purchase behaviour	Will test COO as independent variable and consumer behaviour as the dependent variable
Ulgado and Lee (1998)	Compared COO effects between Koreans and Americans	Korean and American consumers, in general, relied heavily on specific intrinsic attributes of products as the basis for their evaluations of the product quality.	Not studied COO trends in developing countries	Will focus on COO effects among Kenyans

Table 2.1: Summary of Knowledge Gaps…contd

Study	Focus of the Study	Key findings	Knowledge gaps	Focus of current Study
Thakor and Pacheco (1997)	Examined how 'foreign' influences consumers' perceptions and attitudes	Partial support existed for foreign branding effect and significant gender effects, such as liking for the brand name	Methodology focused on three key variables – foreign influence, perceptions and attitudes	Will study four variables at once-COO, consumer characteristics, attitudes and behaviour
Bhuian (1997)	Attitudes towards European, US and Japanese products	Consumer attitudes vary with country-of-origin	No coherent conceptual framework	Kenyan consumer behaviour toward foreign brands
Elliott and Cameron (1994)	Australian attitudes towards local and foreign products	Consumers expressed a general preference for locally made products when the price and quality of the locally made product was equivalent or better	Lack of a consistent conceptual framework on country-of-origin	Kenyans' behaviour toward foreign products
Samiee (1994)	Rationalizes buying decision processes in COO context	COO studies obtained in one country are not necessarily applicable elsewhere	Not investigated COO in developing countries context	COO influence on consumer behaviour in a developing country setup

Source: Current Researcher, 2014

2.11   Conceptual Framework

The conceptual model for this study is represented in terms of the effect of COO on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands (Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Conceptual Model

H_1

H_5 *MODERATING VARIABLE*

Consumer characteristics
•Age
•Gender
•Income
•Education

H_4

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE

DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Country of origin (COO)
•Where a brand is designed
•Where a brand is manufactured
•Where a brand is sold
•Where a brand is imported from

Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands
•Trials of foreign brands
•Purchase of foreign brands
•Endorsement to others of foreign brands
•Commitment to foreign brands

H_7

Consumer attitudes towards foreign brands
•Awareness of foreign brands (cognition)
•Liking of foreign brands (affection)
•Action tendencies toward foreign brands (behaviour)

H_2 H_3

MEDIATING VARIABLE H_6

Source: Current Researcher, 2014

The conceptual model and hypotheses have been designed to address the objectives of the study. Country-of-origin, which refers to where a brand is designed, manufactured, sold or imported from, is treated as the independent variable influencing consumer behaviour which is postulated as the dependent variable. The source country concept is also hypothesized as influencing consumer attitudes towards foreign brands in the Clothing Industry. Consumer characteristics are postulated as influencing consumer behaviour as well as moderating the overall relationship between COO and consumer behaviour

towards foreign brands. The specific characteristics whose effects were studied are age, gender, income and education, which have been commonly applied in related studies (Floh & Treiblmaier, 2006). The study assessed their degree of influence on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands progressively.

Attitudes are conjectured to have a mediating role in the conceptual model and constitute a person's enduring favourable or unfavourable evaluations, emotional feelings, and action tendencies towards foreign brands and comprise the Cognition, Affection and Behaviour components as postulated by Solomon (1996). The cognition component contributes to awareness, comprehension, knowledge, belief or disbelief regarding foreign clothing brands. The affection factor influences evaluation, liking or preference towards these brands, while the behaviour component is assumed to influence action tendencies such as behaviour, trial or purchases in respect of the brands. Attention was therefore focused on these components which involved assessing their degree of positive or negative effect on foreign clothing brands consumer behaviour progressively.

Drawing from the definition by Schiffman and Kanuk (1992), consumer behaviour was treated as the behaviour that Kenyan consumers display in searching for, evaluating, purchasing and using foreign clothing brands that they expect will satisfy their needs and wants. Specific behaviour components studied are trials, purchase, endorsement and commitment to foreign clothing brands. Consequently the conceptual model depicted hereabove is an amalgamation of existing theoretical and empirical literature.

2.12   Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses derived from a review of the literature and the Conceptual Framework to address the objectives of the study are:

H1: There is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in the clothing market in Nairobi, Kenya

H2: There is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands

H3: There is a significant relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

H4: There is a significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

H5: The strength of the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly moderated by consumer characteristics

H6: The relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly mediated by consumer attitudes

H7: The joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes towards foreign brands and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly greater than the sum total of their individual variable effects

2.13 Chapter Summary

The literature reviewed hereabove in this chapter has presented relevant theoretical and empirical insights on the influence of COO on consumer behaviour. It has also examined various perspectives on the moderating and mediating roles of consumer characteristics and consumer attitudes respectively on the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour. This notwithstanding, it is noteworthy that the literature is characterized by significant knowledge gaps as highlighted, key among them that very few studies have systematically investigated this phenomenon in developing countries and that a consistent conceptual framework on the COO construct is still lacking.

A conceptual framework and the corresponding hypotheses were also presented. The current study empirically investigated the relationships shown in the conceptual framework and presented in the seven study hypotheses with a view to expanding the scope of theoretical knowledge of the COO concept.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the philosophical underpinning of the study as well as the methodology and specific methods that were used to undertake this research. Furthermore it explains the scientific research process that was employed in order to ensure reliability and validity of the study. The chapter also discusses the design, sampling method, operational definitions and data analysis techniques used in conducting the research.

3.2 Philosophical Foundation of the Study

Several philosophical foundations have guided social science research among them positivism, phenomenology, naturalistic inquiry, humanistic inquiry, ethnographic methods, relativism/constructionism and critical relativism (Hunt, 1991). Positivism and phenomenology have been quite commonly used. Phenomenology is a science of phenomena and involves examination of the relationship between the researcher and that which is being researched (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Positivism, on the other hand attempts to be highly objective in nature and is based on the belief that the researcher is independent from that which is being researched (Ciborra, 1998). Positivism is founded on the belief that the study of human behaviour should be done in the same way as studies conducted in the natural sciences by seeking the facts or causes of social phenomena according to Hussey and Hussey (1997). Under this paradigm, theoretical models can be developed that are generalisable to explain cause-and-effect relationships (Saunders et al., 2007). This study adopted the positivistic school of thought, a position which is justified by the rationale that to acquire knowledge of how COO persuades consumer behaviour towards foreign brands the research needs to be objective.

The positivistic philosophy has guided the development of the descriptive cross sectional design used in the study, which appreciates the value of quantitative approach through a questionnaire. This is consistent with Ciborra's (1998) contention that in positivism logical reasoning is applied to the research so that precision, objectivity and rigour replaces hunches, experience and intuition as the means of investigating research

problems. By adopting a positivistic philosophy the study aimed to establish the nature of relationships that underlie the independent, dependent, moderating and mediating variables, test the formulated hypotheses and make generalizations from the research findings. It represented an inquiry which gathered information from a selected sample through a questionnaire, a technique recommended by Kotler (2000) for undertaking to learn about people's knowledge, beliefs and preferences, and to assess the view of the general population.

3.3 Research Design

The study adopted a descriptive cross-sectional research design. This design is appropriate in obtaining data from the sample subjects. It facilitated testing of hypotheses quantitatively to ensure that conclusions about the COO research problem were based on the information provided at the time of enquiry. This ensured that the overall objective to establish whether significant associations among variables exist at a given point in time was met as recommended by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003). Descriptive research design was also preferred because it allowed for quantitative description of trends, attitudes or opinions of the population and enabled accurate estimation of the population parameters and subsequent generalization (Burns & Bush, 2010). The design has also been recommended especially when attitudes and behaviour constitute the variables of analysis in the problem being studied (Sproull, 1995), hence its relevance to this study.

The data collected was subjected to statistical analysis to facilitate hypothesis testing through use of analytical and predictive models. This presented a better understanding of the relationship that exists among the variables and the researcher had no control of variables in the sense of being able to manipulate them. This design has in the past been used successfully in other marketing studies (Kabare, 2013; Njeru, 2013; Kinoti, 2012; Munyoki, 2007).

3.4 The Population of Study

The population of interest comprised consumers of clothing brands in Nairobi. Those targeted were above 20 years; are mainly responsible for the purchase of their own clothing; and are resident in the respective administrative districts, divisions and locations of Nairobi. Whilst those selected are relatively heterogeneous in terms of exposure to

clothing brands in the Kenyan market as well as their origin, various social classes were analysed based on income levels. It is also assumed that Nairobi residents are fashion conscious and those with above average purchasing power do shop often, making the clothing sector a relevant one and amenable to this study. Consequently, the researcher contemplated that a study of consumer behaviour in relation to foreign brands among Nairobians would provide useful insights into the COO issues.

3.5 Sampling Design

The study employed a multistage-sampling procedure to select the respondents given that a complete list of all members of the population did not exist and was unnecessary. A list showing the different administrative districts, divisions and locations that Nairobi is divided into was obtained from the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (Appendix 3). The list also illustrates the sub-populations and their distribution by sex in each District, Division and Location. The sample frame was in the first stage clustered based on each District, and then in the second stage based on each Division as shown in Table 3.1. Systematic random sampling was applied in each cluster to pick subjects, taking into account each cluster's proportion to the total population. The respondents were selected in major shopping outlets serving each cluster comprising upmarket shopping malls, shopping complexes popularly known as 'exhibitions' and formal/informal open-air-markets as portrayed in Table 3.1.

Every third customer exiting the shopping centre was picked for the interviews. These shopping points were chosen through judgemental selection process for ease of conducting interviews given that many shoppers patronise them. The unit of analysis were adult shoppers, both men and women, found to have bought clothing items at the targeted shopping centres during the period of the study. To determine the sample size, the formula recommended by Saunders et al. (2009) was applied. Saunders et al. (2009) argue that that sample size depends on: how confident the researcher wants the estimate to be accurate (the level of confidence in the estimate), how accurate the estimate needs to be (the margin of error) and the proportion of responses expected to have some particular characteristic. Hence based on the formula by Saunders et al. (2009) the appropriate sample size was determined as follows:

$$n = (z^2 pq)/e^2$$

Where:

> n is the minimum sample size required

> z is the standard normal deviate that is, 1.96 for .05 margin of error

> p is the proportion in the target population estimated to bear the characteristic, recommended to be 50% if there is no estimate available of the proportion in the target population assumed to have the characteristic of interest.

> q is the proportion not having the characteristic (1-p)

> e is the margin of error required (set at 5% in the current study)

Based on this formula a sample of 384 respondents was drawn, comprising 205 women (53%) and 179 men (47%). The sample size of 384 is consistent with Oppenheim's (2001) assertion that a prospective sample size for attitudinal research need not be larger than a few hundreds. In a COO related study, Opoku and Akorli (2009) employed a sample of 100 respondents at shopping points similar to those used in this study.

Table 3.1: Sample Design

Cluster	Target Adult Population		Gender sample proportion		Number sampled	Sampling proportion (%)	Shopping Points where respondents were interviewed
	Female	Male	Female	Male			
Nairobi East District	**391,932**	**376,324**	**71**	**62**	**133**	**34.64**	
1. Embakasi Division	315,130	306,544	57	51	108	28.13	Uchumi Taj Mall
2. Makadara Division	76,802	69,780	14	11	25	6.51	Buru Buru Shopping Centre
Nairobi North District	**481,407**	**345,864**	**84**	**62**	**146**	**38.02**	
1. Central Division	210,457	88,753	36	14	50	13.02	Jamia Mall
2. Kasarani Division	179,074	173,432	32	31	63	16.41	Thika Road Mall
3. Pumwani Division	91,876	83,679	16	17	33	8.59	Garissa Lodge Shopping Centre
Nairobi West District	**240,528**	**222,728**	**38**	**41**	**69**	**20.58**	
1. Dagoretti Division	115,834	109,299	19	20	39	10.16	Dagoretti Market
2. Kibera Division	124,694	113,429	19	21	40	10.42	Makina Market
Westlands District/Division	**83,708**	**81,950**	**12**	**14**	**26**	**6.77**	Sarit Centre
Total	**1,197,575**	**1,026,866**	**205**	**179**	**384**	**100**	

Source: Adopted from Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2012): Kenya National

Population and Housing Census Vol.1C

3.6 Data Collection

The study used both primary and secondary data which was collected in July and August 2014. Primary data was collected using a semi-structured questionnaire and personal interviews conducted by Research Assistants. The questionnaire (Appendix 2) elicited respondent views on various items developed on the measurements for each study variable. The questionnaire contained rating scale, semantic differential scale and direct questions. The questionnaire items were developed from literature reviewed among various sources that have studied similar variables. In construction of the attitude scale for instance, scales used in evaluation of clothing brands were adopted to achieve a standard measurement instrument as done in some previous studies (Opoku & Akorli, 2009; Nguyen et al., 2008). The questionnaire comprises five sections namely: Section A (General data), Section B (Consumer Characteristics), Section C (COO), Section D (Consumer Behaviour) and Section E (Attitudes towards Foreign Brands).

Major Clothing Shopping Centres situated in each District and serving residents of the various Divisions and Locations within the District were identified from the map of Nairobi (Appendix 4) to conduct the interviews. These shopping outlets included upmarket shopping malls, shopping complexes popularly known as 'exhibitions' and formal/informal open-air-markets (Table 3.1). Where applicable approval was sought from the management of the selected shopping outlets prior to data collection. Alternative shopping centres were identified where permission was not granted at the selected ones. Conducting interviews at these shopping points was preferred given that consumers visiting them are expected to be in the right frame of mind in order to assess their shopping attitudes and buying behaviour, an approach already used in similar COO studies (Opoku & Akorli, 2009). The data collection was partially supplemented by interviewing a few respondents in other public places such as bus stops and restaurants.

Data was collected from the sampled respondents who were filtered to ensure they are resident in the respective Nairobi districts, divisions and locations. Filtering involved interviewing and identifying respondents whose residence matches the districts, divisions and locations targeted. This continued until the sample number targeted for each cluster was achieved. Research assistants administered the questionnaire to every third customer

exiting the Shopping Centre and confirmed to have bought clothing items there given that such respondents are likely to have a better recall having gone through the shopping experience. This allowed for clarification of questions; increased the response rate; and enhanced control of the data collection process. To enhance convenience and ease of responding, interviews were conducted on every day of the week towards the end of July and beginning of August 2014. Furthermore, secondary data were collected from published sources such as government publications, magazines, newspapers, websites and other publicly available sources.

3.7 Reliability and Validity Tests

Reliability is the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable and it helps to determine the extent to which the measurement is random error-free and produces the same results on repeated trials (Gable & Wolf, 1993). The Cronbach's Alpha (α) test of reliability recommended by Burns and Bush (2010) was adopted to provide a pre-test of the reliability of the instrument and a post-test of the internal validity of the findings derived from the use of this instrument. Constructs found to have Cronbach's Alpha ≥ 0.70 were considered for further analysis given that a higher variance extracted value measures how well a set of variables measure a single uni-dimentionality of a latent construct (Hair et al., 1998). These were interpreted to mean the instrument provided a relatively good measurement tool and is therefore reliable. There is however no consensus on the Cronbach's Alpha cut off point. Njeru (2013) used a Cronbach's Alpha > 0.60 while Ogollah (2012) used > 0.70, which is considered a strong measure of reliability consistent with Nunnaly's (1978) recommendation. Gliem and Gliem (2003) indicate that a Cronbach's Alpha value of ≥ 0.70 is generally taken to mean that the instrument is reliable and indicate that a value of 0.60 can be seen as the lower limit

Validity refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the specific inferences and actions based on test scores (Gable & Wolf, 1993). Items that have been tested by other researchers were adopted in the questionnaire for the study and further reviewed by supervisors, faculty members and graduate students who were familiar with the concepts of international marketing and consumer behaviour research to ensure

content validity. The questionnaire was pre-tested with a sample of respondents in order to establish whether the questions measured the expected theorized variables in the Conceptual Framework. Respondents were asked to comment on the clarity and length of time it took to complete one questionnaire. The questionnaire was then adjusted on the basis of findings of the pilot test and the final version was developed thereafter for use. Additional validity was determined by use of Content Validity Index (CVI) which was obtained by adding up the items rated 3 and 4 by the experts and dividing this sum by the total number of items in the questionnaire.

3.8 Operationalization of Study Variables

Country-of-origin was operationalized as the independent variable entailing where a brand is designed, made, sold and imported from. Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands was operationalized as the dependent variable incorporating the behaviour that consumers display in searching for and purchasing imported clothes. Consumer attitudes towards foreign brands represented the intervening variable and was operationalized as incorporating the cognition, affection and action tendencies towards foreign brands. Consumer characteristics were operationalized as the moderating variable and involved selected demographics of the study population.

The study variables were operationalized and measured using rating scale, semantic differential scale and direct questions. Direct (choice of one among three), rank order scale (ranging from 1st to 3rd in order of preference) and semantic differential scale questions (ranging from 1=very low to 5=excellent) were used to measure the country-of-origin variable. Rating scale questions anchored on a five-point Likert type scale (ranging from 1=not at all to 5=to a very large extent) were used to gauge the consumer behaviour variable. Rating scale questions anchored on a five-point Likert type scale (ranging from 1=not at all to 5=to a very large extent) were also employed to measure the consumer attitudes variable. Likert-type scales are a non-comparative scaling technique, have a uni-dimensional feature that measures a single underlying trait, are psychometric response scales primarily used in questionnaires to obtain participants preferences or degree of agreement with a statement or set of statements. Recommending the Likert-type scale Chimi and Russel (2009) state that it is a commonly used method of scaling in the fields

58

of scholarly and business research that produces attitude measures that could reasonably be interpreted as a metric scale measurement. Furthermore it is usually employed to capture attitudes, beliefs, qualitative data that are difficult to measure or data addressing sensitive topics for which a respondent would likely not respond to or would respond falsely if asked directly. Consumer characteristics were operationalized using direct questions that recorded multi-items/indicators among them Age (ranging from up to 30 years to over 50 years), Gender (male or female), Income (ranging from up to Ksh 30,000 to over Ksh 50,000) and Education (ranging from up to primary school to postgraduate PhD).

The questionnaire items were developed from literature reviewed among various sources that have studied similar variables. In construction of the attitude scale for instance, scales used in evaluation of clothing brands were adopted to achieve a standard measurement instrument as done in some previous studies (Opoku & Akorli, 2009; Nguyen et al., 2008). The questionnaire comprised five sections namely: Section A (General data), Section B (Consumer Characteristics), Section C (COO), Section D (Consumer Behaviour) and Section E (Attitudes towards Foreign Brands).

Details of the operationalization are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Operationalization of Study Variables

Variable	Nature	Indicator	Measure	Scale	Question
Country-of- origin	Independent	• Where a brand is designed • Where a brand is manufactured • Where a brand is sold • Where a brand is imported from	Direct measure (choice of one among three): 1. Kenya 2. Imported 3. Both Rank order scale (in order of preference): 1. Country ranked 1st 2. Country ranked 2nd 3. Country ranked 3rd Semantic differential scale: 1=Very low 2= Poor 3=Fairly Good 4=Good 5=Excellent	Direct measure Rank order Interval	Section C
Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands	Dependent	• Trials of foreign brands • Purchase of foreign brands • Endorsement to others of foreign brands • Commitment to foreign brands	Five-point Likert type scale: 1=Not at all 2=To a small extent 3=To a moderate extent 4= To a large extent 5=To a very large extent	Interval	Section D
Consumer attitudes towards foreign brands	Intervening	• Awareness of foreign brands (cognition) • Liking of foreign brands (affection) • Action tendencies towards foreign brands (behaviour)	Five-point Likert type scale: 1=Not at all 2=To a small extent 3=To a moderate extent 4= To a large extent 5=To a very large extent	Interval	Section E
Consumer characteristics	Moderating	• Age • Gender • Income • Education	Direct measure	Direct measure	Section B

Source: Current Researcher, 2014

3.9 Data Analysis

Data analysis progressed in two stages; descriptive statistical analysis followed by inferential analysis. This included data cleaning, editing and coding followed by analysis and reporting. The Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18 was used to analyse the data using both descriptive and inferential statistics. To determine the statistical significance of the respective hypotheses, simple and multiple regression analysis was conducted at 95% confidence level. The 95% confidence level is commonly employed by most researchers (Kabare, 2013; Njeru, 2013). Statistical measures such as mean scores, mode, percentages, proportions, index, cross tabulation and frequency distribution were calculated to describe the characteristics of the variables of interest. Mean scores of the dependent variables in the Conceptual Framework were correlated and regressed to ascertain their respective relationships.

To establish the nature and magnitude of the relationships between the variables and to test the hypothesized relationships, the researcher applied inferential statistics comprising correlation analysis tests using Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (PPMC) and Coefficient of determination (R^2) as well as multivariate techniques using multiple regression analysis. A similar approach has been employed by a number of marketing studies (Njeru, 2013; Kabare, 2013). A summary of these models is given in Table 3.3. PPMC which is a correlation technique used to analyze the degree of relationship between two variables (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003), was used to test hypotheses H1, H2, H3 and H4 by showing the nature and strength of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Coefficient of determination was applied to test H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6 and H7 by measuring the goodness-of-fit of the conceptual model and the amount of variation between the study variables. P-value was also used to check for significance of individual variables in the regression equations as depicted in Table 3.3.

To test hypotheses H4 and H5, multiple regression analysis with stepwise method was applied. Mediation and moderation were tested using the procedures recommended by Fairchild and Mackinnon (2009) and Baron and Kenny (1986). The mediating effect was examined through a four step process as shown in Figure 3.1. Step one entailed the

dependent variable Y being regressed on the independent variable X to determine the standardised regression coefficient (beta for path c) in order to confirm if X is a significant predictor of Y. After beta for path c was found to be significantly different from zero the test progressed to step two where the mediator was regressed on the independent variable to estimate the standardised beta regression coefficient for path a in order to establish the extent and direction of the relationship.

Subsequent to the beta for path a being found significantly greater than zero the test progressed to step three to regress Y on M in order to ascertain the beta coefficient for path b. After beta path b was found to be significant the dependent variable Y was regressed on X while controlling the effect of M on Y through a hierarchical regression analysis that treated M and X as successive independent variables. Upon confirming both coefficients for paths a and b to be significant, then M was established as mediating the relationship between X and Y and c^1 was assessed to determine the link strength according to the test procedure (Fairchild & Mackinnon, 2009). The testing steps along a path diagram are illustrated in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Mediation testing steps
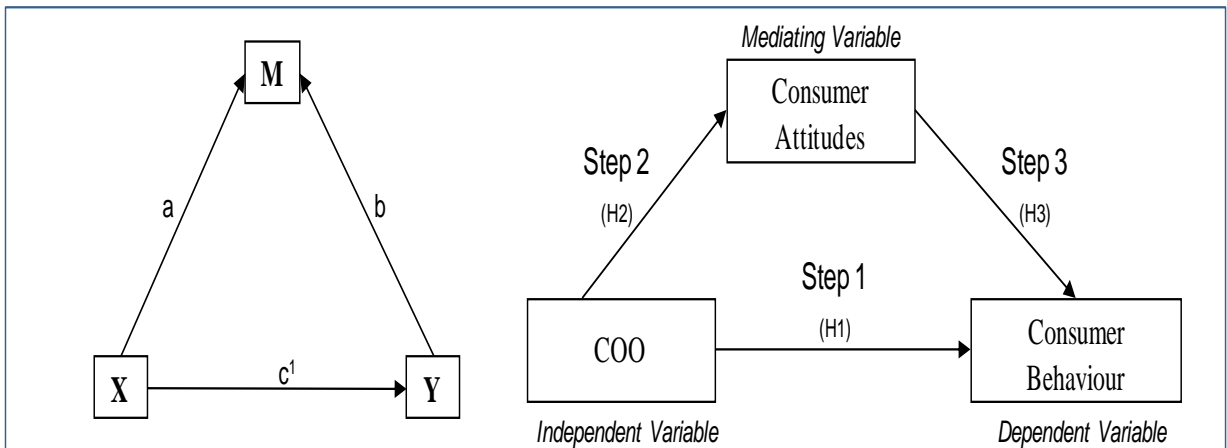
Source: Adopted from Fairchild and Mackinnon (2009)

Moderation tests involved testing for an interaction term using hierarchical multiple regression analysis where in the first step the independent variable and moderating

variable were analysed. The interaction term (derived from the standardised independent and moderator variables) was factored in the second step. Moderation was established after the additional variance beyond that explained by the predictor and moderator variable were found significant. As illustrated in Figure 3.2, β_1 is the regression coefficient relating the independent variable X to Y when Z=0; β_2 is the coefficient relating the moderator variable Z to Y when X=0; and β_3 is the coefficient for the interaction term which when statistically different from zero then it is determined that Z moderates the relationship between X and Y. The moderation is hence expressed:

$$Y = i + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + \beta_3 XZ + \varepsilon$$

Where:

i = intercept

ε = error term

Figure 3.2: Moderation Path Diagram

X= Independent variable, Z= Moderator variable, XZ= Interaction term, Y=Dependent variable
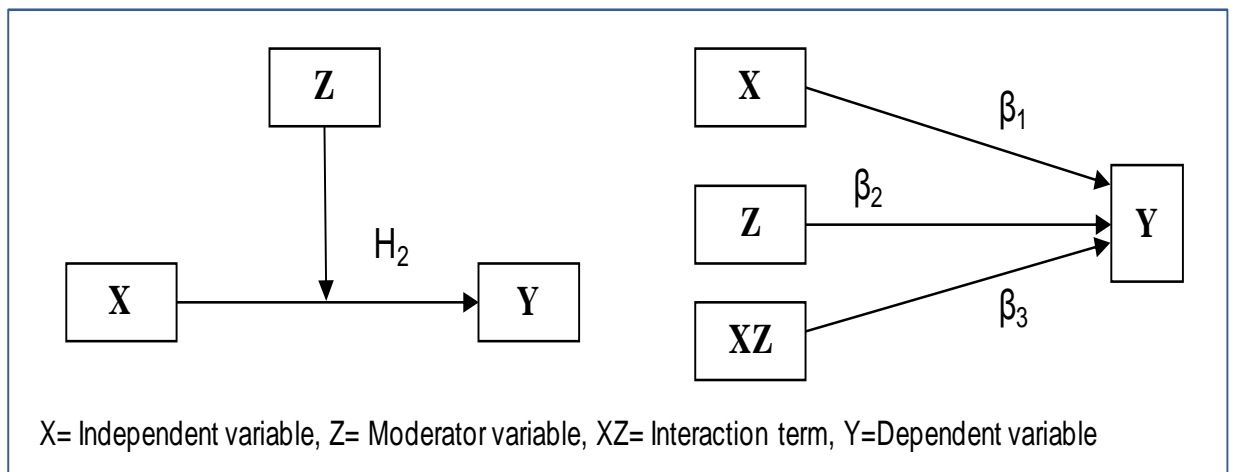
Source: Adopted from Fairchild and Mackinnon (2009)

Table 3.3: Summary of Research Objectives, Hypotheses, Analytical Models and Interpretation of Results

Objective	Hypothesis	Model	Interpretation of Results
1. Assess the influence of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H1: There is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in the clothing market in Nairobi, Kenya	PPMC (r), Coefficient of determination (R^2) $Y=a+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\beta_4X_4+\varepsilon$ Where: a = intercept Y = consumer behaviour towards foreign brands β_1, β_2, β_3, and β_4 are beta coefficients for H1 X_1, X_2, X_3 and X_4 represent dimensions of COO, ε is the error term	r: Range +1 to −1 R^2=.70 is a strong positive relationship and.30 is a weak relationship P-value to check for significance of individual variables in the equation
2. Determine the influence of country-of-origin on consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands	H2: There is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands	PPMC (r), Coefficient of determination (R^2) $Y=a+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\beta_4X_4+\varepsilon$ Where: a = intercept Y = consumer attitudes towards foreign brands β_1, β_2, β_3 and β_4 are beta coefficients for H2 X_1, X_2, X_3 and X_4 represent dimensions of COO, ε is the error term	r: Range +1 to −1 R^2=.70 is a strong positive relationship and.30 is a weak relationship P-value to check for significance of individual variables in the equation
3. Establish the influence of consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H3: There is a significant relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands	PPMC (r), Coefficient of determination (R^2) $Y=a+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\varepsilon$ Where: a = intercept Y= consumer behaviour towards foreign brands β_1, β_2 and β_3 are beta coefficients for H3 X_1, X_2 and X_3 represent dimensions of consumer attitudes towards foreign brands, ε is the error term	r: Range +1 to −1 R^2=.70 is a strong positive relationship and.30 is a weak relationship P-value to check for significance of individual variables in the equation
4. Assess the influence of consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H4: There is a significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands	PPMC (r), Coefficient of determination (R^2) $Y=\beta_0+\beta_1X_1+\beta_2X_2+\beta_3X_3+\beta_4X_4+\varepsilon$ Where: β_0 = intercept Y= consumer behaviour towards foreign brands β_1, β_2, β_3, and β_4 are beta coefficients for H4 X_1, X_2, X_3 and X_4 represent dimensions of consumer characteristics, ε is the error term	r: Range +1 to −1 R^2=.70 is a strong positive relationship and.30 is a weak relationship P-value to check for significance of individual variables in the equation

Objective	Hypothesis	Model	Interpretation of Results
5. Determine the extent to which consumer characteristics influence the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H5: The strength of the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly moderated by consumer characteristics	Statistical significance at $\alpha \leq .05$, Coefficient of determination (R^2) $Y= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 Z + \beta_3 XZ + \varepsilon$ $\quad = \beta_0 + \beta_{11}X_1 + X_1\beta_{12}X_2 + \beta_{13}X_3 + \beta_{14}X_4 + \beta_1 Z_1 + \beta_2 Z_2 + \beta_3 Z_3 + \beta_4 Z_4 + \varepsilon$ Where: β_{is} = regression coefficients, X_1 to X_4 = COO dimensions, Z_1 to Z_4 = consumer characteristics factors, ε = error term	Statistical significance at $\alpha \leq .05$ R^2=.70 is a strong positive relationship and .30 is a weak relationship P-value to check for significance of individual variables in the equation
6. Assess the degree to which consumer attitudes influence the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H6: The relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly mediated by consumer attitudes	Statistical significance at $\alpha \leq .05$, Coefficient of determination (R^2) $Y= \beta_0 + cX + \varepsilon$ (to test direct relationship between X and Y) $M= \beta_1 + aX + \varepsilon$ (to test if independent variable predicts mediator) $Y= \beta_2 + bM + \varepsilon$ (to test if mediator variable predicts Y) $Y= \beta_3 + c^1 X + bM + \varepsilon$ (multiple regression with X and M predicting Y) Where: X= independent variable, M= mediator variable, β_{is}= intercepts, a=effect of X on mediator, c^1 =effect of X on Y controlling M, b= effect of M on Y, ε = error term	Statistical significance at $\alpha \leq .05$ R^2=.70 is a strong positive relationship and .30 is a weak relationship P-value to check for significance of individual variables in the equation
7. Establish the joint effect of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H7: The joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes towards foreign brands and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly greater than their individual variable effects	Statistical significance at $\alpha \leq .05$, Coefficient of determination (R^2) $Y= \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \beta_2 Z + bM + \beta_3 XZ + \varepsilon$ Where: Y= consumer behaviour X= COO Z= consumer characteristics M= consumer attitudes XZ=(COO + consumer characteristics + consumer attitudes) β_{is}= intercepts ε = error term	Statistical significance at $\alpha \leq .05$ R^2=.70 is a strong positive relationship and .30 is a weak relationship P-value to check for significance of individual variables in the equation

Source: Current Researcher, 2014

3.10   Chapter summary

This chapter has described the research methodology adopted to conduct this study. It has described the research philosophy, research design, population of study, operationalization of the study variables, the data collection instruments, data analysis method and program used. In addition the tests used to screen the data, before subjecting the data to further statistical tests, such as tests for reliability and validity as well as tests for assumptions of regression were explained. The chapter also outlined the statistical data techniques which consist of descriptive statistics, correlation and regression analyses. Also presented are the analytical models used for data analysis and hypotheses testing. The next chapter presents data analysis, findings and interpretation of the results.

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
OF THE RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The primary objective of this study was to assess the effect of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands in Nairobi. It further sought to establish the nature and magnitude of the relationships between these key variables and to test the hypothesized relationships. This chapter contains the basic descriptive statistics and hypotheses testing results. The purpose is to analyze the variables involved in the study and estimate the model described in the previous chapter. The chapter presents the results of the data analysis and findings in accordance with the objectives of the study. The data were analysed using the SPSS Version 18 programme for both descriptive and inferential statistics. Tests on the data for the assumptions of linear regression were conducted and results were found within the limits required for further statistical analysis. The seven hypotheses of the study were tested through multivariate techniques using multiple regression analysis. Correlation analysis tests were also conducted to analyze the degree of relationship between various study variables.

4.2 Basic descriptive statistics

The basic descriptive statistics of the study findings are discussed in the section below.

4.2.1   Response Rate

A total of 384 questionnaires were administered to clothing brands consumers in Nairobi County who are above 20 years; are mainly responsible for the purchase of their own clothing; and are resident in the respective administrative districts, divisions and locations in Nairobi County. Practically all the respondents (99.22%) completed the questionnaire. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) a 50% response rate is adequate, 60% good and above 70% very good. Based on this assertion the response rate for this study can be said to be excellent. This high response rate can be attributed to the data collection

procedures which involved personal interviews by Research Assistants at shopping outlets such as upmarket shopping malls, shopping complexes popularly known as 'exhibitions' and formal/informal open-air-markets which are normally frequented by shoppers.

4.2.2   Reliability Tests

Internal consistency of the questionnaire was computed using Cronbach's Alpha techniques. Churchill (1979) notes that this calculation should be the first measure that a researcher should use to assess the quality of the instrument used in a study. In addition Sekeran (2006) asserts that Cronbach's Alpha can be considered as an adequate index of the inter-item consistency reliability of the predictor and criterion variables.

As a rule of thumb, Nunnally (1978) suggests that reliability values of 0.70 and above are statistically acceptable for internal consistency for scales. Likewise, Bollen, et al. (2005) propose that an Alpha value which is above 90 percent is an indication of very high reliability of the scale, values between 75 and 90 percent indicate useful reliability while values below 75 percent indicate weak reliability. There are those who accept values of 0.6 (Kabare, 2013) or even 0.5 and above (Cronbach, 1951). Table 4.1 presents the results of the reliability analysis derived from responses in the questionnaires.

Table 4.1: Reliability Tests

Variable	Measures	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Country-of-origin	• Country where clothes are designed • Country where they are manufactured • Country where they are sold • Country where they are imported from	.821	21
Consumer characteristics	• Age • Gender • Income • Education	.835	5
Consumer attitude towards foreign clothing brands	• Awareness of foreign brands (cognition) • Liking of foreign brands (affection) • Action tendencies towards foreign brands (behaviour)	.801	14
Consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	• Trials of imported clothing brands • Purchase of foreign clothing brands • Endorsement of imported clothing brands • Commitment to foreign clothing brands	.783	16

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.1 show that Cronbach's Alpha coefficient ranged between .783 (consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands) to .835 (consumer characteristics). The results indicate that measurement scales used were sufficiently reliable and adequately measured variables of the study. The reliability coefficient for all the constructs used in this study exceeded the 0.6 lower level of acceptability recommended by Hair et al. (1998) and were within the 0.70 and above as advocated by Nunnally (1978) and are therefore reliable and acceptable for further analysis.

4.2.3   Validity Tests

Validity in qualitative research involves determining whether the research truly measures that which it was intended to measure or how truthful the results are (Patton, 2002). It is the degree to which results obtained from the analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study. Content validity of this study was determined by first discussing the items in the instrument with the Supervisors, one other lecturer, colleague students and a research expert. Further validity was determined by use of CVI which was obtained by adding up the items rated 3 and 4 by the experts and dividing this sum by the total number of items in the questionnaire. A CVI of 0.887 was obtained. Oso and Onen (2009) state that a validity coefficient of at least 0.70 is acceptable hence the adoption of the research instrument as valid for this study.

4.2.4   Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Factor analysis method was used to describe variability among observed variables and correlated variables in terms of lower number of unobserved/latent variables called factors (Appendix 5). This helps in reducing a large number of variables to small numbers of factors for modelling purposes and to select subset variables from a large set, based on which original variables had the highest correlations with the factor. Factor loadings are the correlations between the original variables and factors and these are key to understanding the nature of a particular factor. According to Hair et al. (1998) factor analysis helps in grouping variables with similar characteristics together. This study used factor analysis to create a small number of factors (country-of-origin, consumer attitudes, consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands) from

a large number of variables/indicators which were capable of explaining the observed variance in the larger number of variables. These factors were then used for further analysis. Squared factor loading indicates what percentage of the variance in the original variables is explained by a factor (Rummel, 2002).

4.2.5   Sampling Adequacy

In order to assess the validity of this study's variables, tests of sampling adequacy were used. This enabled the study to identify whether the items were appropriate for further analysis. Table 4.2 shows Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity.

Table 4.2: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test

Factors	KMO Test	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity			Determinant
		Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	
Country-of-origin	.804	352.056	10	.000	0.058
Consumer attitudes	.720	150.838	3	.000	0.297
Consumer characteristics	.814	585.613	21	.000	0.009
Consumer behaviour	.779	192.378	6	.000	0.212

Source: Primary Data

The test results show that the scales had values above the threshold of 0.7 as established by Williams et al. (2012): country-of-origin (0.804), consumer attitudes (0.720), consumer characteristics (0.814) and consumer behaviour (0.779). Williams et al. stated that KMO of 0.50 is an acceptable degree for sampling adequacy with values above 0.5 being better. Bartlett's Test of sphericity which analyzes if the samples are from populations with equal variances produced p-values less than 0.05 (p < .001). Since the Bartlett's test significances were less than 0.05 this further indicates an acceptable degree of sampling adequacy (sample is factorable). Country-of-origin had a chi-square value of

352.056 (p < 0.001), consumer attitudes (150.838, p <0.001), consumer characteristics (585.613, p < 0.001) and consumer behaviour (192.378, p < 0.001). Determinant values are more than 0: country-of-origin (0.058), consumer attitudes (0.297), consumer characteristics (0.009) and consumer behaviour (0.212). Unlike this study's findings, values closer to 0 depict computational problems with the factor analysis, an issue of singularity, which implies multicollinearity in the data. Thus, it was acceptable to proceed with the analysis.

4.2.6   Tests of Statistical Assumptions

The current study further performed the tests on statistical assumptions that is test of regression assumption and statistics used. These included tests of normality, linearity, independence, homogeneity and collinearity. Normality was tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test which has power to detect departure from normality due to either skewness or kurtosis or both. Normality assumes that the sampling distribution of the mean is normal and its statistic ranges from zero to one and figures higher than 0.05 indicate the data is normal (Razali & Wah, 2011). Linearity was tested by use of ANOVA test of linearity which computes both the linear and nonlinear components of a pair of variables whereby nonlinearity is significant if the F significance value for the nonlinear component is below 0.05 (Zhang et al., 2011). Independence of error terms, which implies that observations are independent, was assessed through the Durbin-Watson test whose statistic ranges from zero to four. Scores between 1.5 and 2.5 indicate independent observations (Garson, 2012).

Homoscedasticity was tested by use of Levene's test of homogeneity of variances. If the Levene statistic is significant at α=0.05 then the data groups lack equal variances (Gastwirth et al., 2009). Levene's test measures whether or not the variance between the dependent and independent variables is the same. Thus it is a check of whether the spread of the scores (reflected in the variance) in the variables are approximately similar (Bryk & Raudenbush, 2002). For multicollinearity both the variance inflation factor (VIF) and its reciprocal (Tolerance) values are listed, the latter in parentheses. Multicollinearity is a situation in which the predictor variables in a multiple regression analysis are themselves highly correlated making it difficult to determine the actual contribution of respective

predictors to the variance in the dependent variable and the multicollinearity assumption has a VIF threshold value of 10 maximum (Robinson & Schumacker, 2009).

Five assumptions of regression were tested and their results together with those of the test for reliability are summarized in Table 4.3. The threshold levels for the respective test statistics are listed below each assumption. The results showed that the assumptions of regression were met and subsequently the data were subjected to further statistical analysis including tests of hypotheses as discussed in the following subsections.

All the readings in this study were above 0.05 confirming Normality. Further, all the computed readings for Linearity were above 0.05 confirming linear relationships (constant slope) between the predictor variables and the dependent variable. The Durbin-Watson test results ranged between 1.81 and 2.21 supporting the independence of error terms. The test for Homoscedasticity was not significant at $\alpha=0.05$ confirming homogeneity. The Multicollinearity tolerance ranged from 0.60 to 0.80 and therefore its reciprocal, the VIF was between 1 and 2, which is way below the threshold.

Table 4.3: Results of Tests of Statistical Assumptions (Test of regression assumption and statistic used)

		N	Normality *(Shapiro-Wilk test)*	Linearity *(ANOVA test)*	Independence *(Durbin-Watson test)*	Homogeneity *(Levene test)*	Collinearity VIF *(Tolerance test)*
Threshold: Assumption is met if			p > 0.05	p > 0.05	1.5- 2.5	p > 0.05	VIF 10 max
Country-of-origin	• Country where they are designed • Country where they are manufactured • Country where they are sold • Country where they are imported from	381	0.51	0.39	2.11	0.29	1.25 (0.63)
Consumer characteristics	• Age • Gender • Income • Education	381	0.87	0.48	1.83	0.54	1.29 (0.61)
Consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands	• Awareness of foreign brands (cognition) • Liking of foreign brands (affection) • Action tendencies towards foreign brands (behaviour)	381	0.49	0.37	1.81	0.57	1.49 (0.72)
Consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	• Trials of imported clothing brands • Purchase of foreign clothing brands • Endorsement of imported clothing brands • Commitment to foreign clothing brands	381	0.32	0.52	2.21	0.63	1.51 (0.62)

Source: Primary Data

4.2.7 Coding and Editing

For missing data, the researcher replaced the missing values using imputation. The favored type of imputation is replacing the missing values using different estimation methods (Nunnally, 1978). The researcher used the "Missing Values Analysis" add-on module in SPSS which contains the estimation methods. In some cases, the researcher deleted the data sets if the missing values were many. A CVI of 0.802 was computed. Neuman (2000) recommends a CVI of above 0.5, indicating that the validity of the instrument was acceptable.

4.3 Respondents' Characteristics

The consumer characteristics in this study whose moderating effect on the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour was examined included gender, age, income and highest level of education attained. The target respondents for this study were clothing brand consumers who are above 20 years; mainly responsible for the purchase of their own clothing; and are resident in the respective administrative districts, divisions and locations in Nairobi County.

4.3.1 Gender and Age Distribution of the Respondents

More than half (53%) of the respondents were females with males comprising 47%. According to Bahl (2005), fashion integrates with people's lives and influences them differently and females follow it more than men because their daily selection of dressing affects the way they are perceived by others, defines the expectations of those around them. It is also a main contributor to forming impressions and is associated with colour, style and design of garments.

The study further established the age distribution of the respondents among clothing consumers. The findings were as indicated in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Age Distribution of the Respondents

Age distribution	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Up to 30	83	21.78
31-40	207	54.34
41-50	65	17.06
Over 50	26	6.82
Total	381	100

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.4 show that 207 (54.34%) indicated that they fell between 31 and 40 years. Those who indicated that they were over 50 years comprised 6.82%. The results reveal that majority of the respondents who are responsible for the purchase of their own clothing were below 50 years old and therefore their information could be relied upon to make comprehensive conclusions about the study.

4.3.2 Respondents' Monthly Gross Income and Level of Education

The sample respondents had been asked to mention their monthly gross income and level of education. Their responses are summarized in Table 4.5.

4.3.3   Table 4.5: Respondents' monthly gross income and level of education

	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gross income		
Up to 30,000	101	26.51
30,001-40,000	133	34.91
40,001-50,000	84	22.05
Over 50,000	63	16.54
Total	381	100%
Highest Level of Education		
Up to primary schooling	18	4.72
Up to secondary schooling	57	14.96
College certificate	39	10.24
College diploma	72	18.90
Graduate/1st Degree	83	21.78
Postgraduate Diploma	32	8.40
Postgraduate Masters	54	14.17
Postgraduate PhD	36	9.45
Total	381	100%

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.5 reveal that about 130 (34.91%) of the respondents surveyed stated that their monthly income ranged between Ksh 30,001-40,000 and another 26.51% mentioned that their gross monthly income is up to Ksh 30,000. The data further shows that the respondents had a relatively high level of education with 83 (21.78%) and 72 (18.90%) holding university first degree and college diploma certificates respectively. A further 14.96% have secondary certificate. This implies that the respondents have a fairly good knowledge of foreign clothing brands. Therefore their responses can be relied upon to make the study conclusions. This is consistent with the findings by Bruwer and Buller (2012) who observed that consumers with higher objective knowledge do not necessarily use the COO cue more than consumers with lower knowledge.

4.4 Descriptive Statistics related to Country-of-Origin

The country-of-origin construct is generally defined in the marketing literature as the country where a given product is made (Yim et al., 2007). According to Opoku and Akorli (2009) the country-of-origin image means how a product designed, manufactured, or branded in a developed country is perceived in a developing country. These definitions are applicable to the context of this study which not only assumes COO as the country where clothing brands are made but also where they are purchased from.

4.4.1 Preference for clothes made in Kenya or imported

The study first set out to determine from the respondents if they perceive their clothes as made in Kenya or imported. The relevant results are summarized in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Preference for clothes made in Kenya or imported

Preference	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Kenya	13	3.41
Imported	342	89.76
Both	26	6.83
Total	**381**	**100%**

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.6 reveal that an overwhelming majority (89.76%) of those interviewed mentioned that their clothes are imported. This is consistent with the study by Elliott and Cameron (1994) who concluded that consumers have preconceived, stereotypical attitudes towards products identified as being made in certain foreign countries.

4.4.2 Order of preference of the three most important countries

The respondents had been asked to rank the three most important countries of imported clothes as far as their buying was concerned. The respondents were required to rank without prompting their three preferred countries from the most preferred to the least preferred. The results were as indicated in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Order of preference

Countries of preference and ranking	n	Computation formula	Actual Score (A)	Ideal Score (n x 3) (B)	Index (A/B x 100)
1.Italy	189	138 x 3 = 414 34 x 2 = 68 17 x 1 = 17	499	567	88.0
2.UK	201	141 x 3 = 423 46 x 2 = 92 14 x 1 = 14	529	603	87.7
3.China	164	106 x 3 = 318 40 x 2 = 80 18 x 1 = 18	416	492	84.6
4.South Africa	161	104 x 3 = 312 35 x 2 = 70 22 x 1 = 22	404	483	83.6
5.USA	91	44 x 3 = 132 17 x 2 = 34 30 x 1 = 30	196	273	71.8
6.Ethiopia	27	9 x 3 = 27 11 x 2 = 22 7 x 1 = 7	56	81	69.1
7.India	27	10 x 3 = 30 7 x 2 = 14 10 x 1 = 10	54	81	66.7
7.Taiwan	21	5 x 3 = 15 11 x 2 = 22 5 x 1 = 5	42	63	66.7
7.Malaysia	13	4 x 3 = 12 5 x 2 = 10 4 x1 = 4	26	39	66.7
8.France	96	30 x 3 = 90 35 x 2 = 70 31 x 1 = 31	191	288	66.3
9.Vietnam	73	20 x 3 = 60 32 x 2 = 64 21 x 1 = 21	145	219	66.2
10.Turkey	90	18 x 3 = 54 49 x 2 = 98 23 x 1 =23	175	270	64.8
11.Thailand	45	15 x 3 = 45 12 x 2 = 24 18 x 1 = 18	87	135	64.4
12.Dubai (UAE)	34	9 x 3 = 27 13 x 2 = 26 12x 1 = 12	65	102	63.7

Table 4.7: Order of preference…contd

Countries of preference and ranking	n	Computation formula	Actual Score (A)	Ideal Score (n x 3) (B)	Index (A/B x 100)
13.Mexico	9	2 x 3 = 6 4 x 2 =8 3 x 1 = 3	17	27	63.0
14.Japan	100	17 x 3 = 51 49 x 2 = 98 34 x 1 = 34	183	300	61.0
15.Canada	52	11 x 3 = 33 21 x 2 = 42 20 x 1 = 20	95	156	60.9
16.Indonesia	20	5 x 3 = 15 6 x 2 = 12 9x 1 =9	36	60	60.0
16.Bangladesh	10	2 x 3 = 6 4 x 2 =8 4 x 1 = 4	18	30	60.0
17.Germany	106	32 x 3 = 96 18 x 2 = 36 56 x1 = 56	188	318	59.1
18.Singapore	15	3 x 3 = 9 5 x 2 = 10 7 x 1 = 7	26	45	57.8
19.Philippines	3	0 x 3 = 0 1 x 2 = 2 2 x 1 = 2	4	9	44.4
Grand Total (N)	1547	-	3452	4641	74.4

Source: Primary Data

According to the analysis of the results in Table 4.7, Italy had the highest score of 88% which implies that it is the most preferred country of imported clothes among the respondents. In order of preference Italy was followed closely by UK, China, South Africa and USA in 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th position respectively. The finding that Italy was the most preferred country-of-origin is possibly due to the long history of Italian clothes with Kenya having been regarded to represent good taste in fashion, to the extent that some shopping outlets in Nairobi are branded 'Italian Men's Wear.' The ranking of UK as the second most preferred country-of-origin is probably due to the long historical relationship since the colonial period with Kenya as a British colony and post-independence Kenya. It is apparent that Kenyans continue to have a strong admiration and preference for clothing brands from the UK which they associate with quality and prestige. China's good ranking

is probably as a result of the amiable political and trading relations it has had with Kenya particularly in recent years when such relations have continued to deteriorate between Kenya and its traditional partners in the West such as USA and European countries. The improved Sino-Kenyan relations have engendered an increased influx of various Chinese goods into the Kenyan market among them clothing items which are reasonably priced.

South Africa's good ranking is notable as the only country in the African continent to have featured prominently among the top five. South Africa has had a long historical association with Kenya since the days of the anti-apartheid struggle which apparently Kenyans continue to identify with. In addition the country's economy is quite strong in the continent, a status which seems to influence preference of clothing fashion among Kenyans. This rating implies that South African clothing brands are well perceived and readily purchased by those who have the means. It can be argued that USA's good performance in 5th position implies that its superpower status to some extent also influences fashion preference in Nairobi. It is also notable that besides new clothes USA is a source of second hand clothing which is commonly used by low income earners which can also explain its good rating. Ethiopia, India, Taiwan, Malaysia, France, Vietnam and Turkey were within the top ten bracket whose clothing brands were preferred. This suggests that the respondents rate their products fairly well for various reasons attributable to these countries. The various positive attributes from these different nations are strong country brand associations that seem to have been transferred to clothing brands hence their preference by Nairobians. This conforms with the assertion by Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) that attitudes are related, at least in part, to certain groups or social events and that it is possible to alter attitudes toward products by pointing out their relationships to particular social groups, events, or causes. Furthermore these findings are to some extent consistent with the contention by Gachara (2014) that some of the popular sources of clothing items are the West, Turkey, China and other Asian countries. The import of Italy, UK, China, South Africa and USA being ranked the top five in this order implies that marketing strategies in the clothing business ought to take cognizance of these countries particularly through country brand association.

At the bottom in the preferred countries ranking were Germany, Singapore and Philippines. Notwithstanding their low ranking these countries achieved a rating of above

44% which represents some reasonable level of preference. In the same vein it can be argued that the rest of the countries which did not make it to the top ten ranking performed above average given that their preference was rated over 60%. The fact that respondents mentioned them without prompting suggests that they possibly command a moderate market and mind share among consumers. Notable too is that among African countries only South Africa and Ethiopia were mentioned with a relatively good ranking at 4th and 6th position respectively. In view of the above findings, it can be argued that consumers prefer clothes mainly from developed countries given that the top five countries are regarded as advanced economies. To some extent these findings support the earlier assumptions of this study that wealthy Kenyans would prefer goods from Italy, UK and USA while the poor would buy clothes from South East Asia which tend to be cheaper than Kenyan made goods. It is therefore noteworthy that consumers use a brand's country-of-origin as a signal to inferring its purchase decisions and actions as revealed in the extant literature.

The finding that majority 342 (89.76%) of those interviewed responded that their clothes are imported suggests that Kenyans across various income groups prefer foreign clothing brands with those in lower income groups most likely preferring to buy second-hand clothes which are cheaper consistent with the assertion by Gachara (2014) that these clothes imported from the West are popular. The results in Table 4.7 yield an overall preference index of 74.4% in respect of all countries. This confirms the speculation by this study that the COO phenomenon is to a large extent entrenched in the minds of Kenyan consumers. The overall findings of preferred countries of clothing products are also to some degree consistent with the current study's assertion that among the leading supplier countries of Kenya's imports are UK, Italy, China, USA, Germany, France, India, UAE and South Africa (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2013) among others.

The significance of Italy, UK, China, South Africa and USA being rated the topmost in this sequence further implies that many consumers prefer clothes from developed countries given that the five are classified as advanced economies. The findings concur with Klein et al. (1998) and Elliott and Cameron (1994) who argue that the exceptional situation where brands made in developing countries may be perceived favourably and thereby preferred by citizens is where there is high patriotism, national pride, or

consumer ethnocentrism or where there is a general preference for locally made products when the price and quality of the locally made product is equivalent or better. Arguing in the same vein, Batra et al. (2000) developed a theoretical framework showing why, among consumers in developing countries, brands seen as being sourced overseas, especially from the West are viewed as endowing prestige and cosmopolitanism and, thus enhancing the consumer's social identity. The consumer buying decision process has been rationalized within the context of source-country influences, providing a conceptual framework for further development, which also links country-level considerations to firm-level decision-making (Samiee, 1994).

4.4.3 Country where imported clothes are designed

To analyse the country-of-origin concept, the respondents in this study were provided with statements regarding the country where imported clothes were designed among their countries of preference in order to rate this on a five point Semantic differential scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1=Very Poor, 2= Poor, 3=Fairly Good, 4=Good and 5=Excellent. The sub-constructs under country where imported clothes were designed included: quality clothes, trendy clothes, affordable clothes, clothes that promote my image and different brands that give the best value for money. Each of these attributes was rated in relation to the country ranked 1st, 2nd and 3rd.

Descriptive measures involved mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variation. Mean is a measure of central tendency used to describe the most typical value in a set of values. The standard deviation (SD) is a statistical term that measures the dispersion of the data around the mean. The coefficient of variation (CV) is a normalized measure of dispersion of a probability distribution or frequency distribution and is a helpful statistic in comparing the degree of variation from one data series to the other, much as the means are considerably different from each other. Nunnally (1978) suggests that a CV of 50% (0.5) and below is statistically acceptable for internal consistency of variability in a series of data. The pertinent responses are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Country where clothes are designed

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
Has high quality clothes	379	4.34	1.917	44.2
Has trendy clothes	381	4.16	2.321	55.7
Has affordable clothes	381	2.72	2.223	41.7
Has clothes that promote my image	381	4.54	2.233	39.2
Has different brands that give me the best value for money	380	3.87	2.134	35.1
Average Score	**380**	**3.926**	**2.1656**	**43.2**

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.8 yield an overall mean score of 3.926. The attribute of country where clothes are designed has clothes that promote my image had the highest mean score (4.54, SD=2.223, CV=39.2%). The lowest score was recorded on the statement that the country where clothes are designed has affordable clothes (mean=2.72, SD=2.223, CV=41.7%). The highest CV recorded was 55.7% while the lowest was 35.1%. Notable however is that much as the respondents perceive the countries where clothes are designed as having brands that highly promote their image the same countries are rated relatively poorly in as far as affordability of the clothes is concerned.

This implies that the consumers prefer clothes that promote their image as well as those which are expensive for prestige reinforced by the fact that they come from a foreign country. This also suggests that the consumers prefer clothes which are expensive for prestige reinforced by the fact that they come from outside the country. As observed by Batra et al. (2000) perceived brand foreign effect is greater for consumers who have a greater admiration for lifestyles in economically developed countries.

4.4.4 Country where clothes are manufactured

According to Elliott and Cameron (1994) the COO concept broadly refers to the influence, positive or negative, that the country of manufacture might have on the consumer choice processes or subsequent behaviour regarding a product. To measure the ratings of country where the clothes are manufactured, a set of five items was used which are similar to those employed for where the clothes were designed. The relevant results are summarized in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Country where clothes are manufactured

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
Has good quality clothes	381	4.23	1.954	46.2
Has fashionable clothes	380	4.05	2.198	54.3
Has reasonably priced clothes	381	4.11	1.786	43.5
Has clothes that lift my image	381	4.21	1.678	39.9
Has various brands that give me my money's worth	379	4.08	2.675	65.6
Average Score	**380**	**4.136**	**2.0582**	**49.9**

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.9 depict the mean score for the five statements used in respect of the country where the clothes are manufactured which had an overall mean score of 4.136. The statement that country where the clothes are manufactured has good quality clothes had the highest score (mean=4.23, SD =1.954, CV=46.2%). The results also reveal that the respondents were of the view that the countries where their clothes are manufactured has fashionable clothes with this attribute recording the lowest score though on the high agreement scale (mean=4.05, SD=2.198, CV=54.3%). The highest CV recorded was 65.6% while the lowest was 39.9%. The results imply that based on the countries where clothes are manufactured respondents perceive them to be of very high

quality consistent with the assertion by Chen (2010) that consumers, including those in developing countries, use a brand's COO as a cue in inferring its quality and acceptability. Notable however is that besides the statements rated highest and lowest the others, which included: clothes that lift my image; reasonably priced clothes; and brands that give money's worth, were rated equally high with a mean score above 4. This suggests that the various aspects of the attribute country where the clothes are manufactured are rated highly and are regarded as important in purchase decision making.

4.4.5 Country where clothes are sold

Perceptions toward a foreign nation affect purchase of products produced by that country independent of product quality judgments (Klein et al., 1998). In the current study the respondents were required to rate statements concerning the country where the clothes are sold. The statements were anchored on a five point scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1=Very Poor, 2= Poor, 3=Fairly Good, 4=Good and 5=Excellent. The relevant results were as indicated in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Country where clothes are sold

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
Has high quality clothes	381	4.12	2.123	51.5
Has trendy clothes	381	4.03	2.122	22.7
Has affordable clothes	376	2.78	1.765	43.5
Has clothes that promote my image	381	4.33	1.761	40.7
Has different brands that give me the best value for money	380	4.22	2.453	58.3
Average Score	**380**	**3.896**	**2.0448**	**43.4**

Source: Primary Data

As demonstrated in Table 4.10, on account of country where clothes are sold an overall mean score of 3.896 was registered which was slightly lower than that of where the clothes are manufactured. The statement that the preferred countries have clothes that promote the respondents' image had highest mean score (mean=4.33, SD=1.761, CV=40.7%). The average score of 3.896 and average CV of 43.4% show that the respondents agree that the country where the clothes are sold influences their behaviour. The lowest score was noted on the statement that the preferred countries have affordable clothes (mean=2.78, SD=1.765, CV=43.5%). This implies that most of the clothes preferred by respondents are perceived to be expensive.

4.4.6 Country where clothes are imported from

COO image impacts purchase intentions indirectly and its influence is mediated by brand image (Adamantios et al., 2011). This study had sought to establish the extent to which the respondents agreed with the statements regarding the country where the clothes are imported from. A set of five items was used which are similar to those employed for where clothes are sold. The relevant responses are contained in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Country where clothes are imported from

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
Has good quality clothes	378	4.30	1.476	34.3
Has fashionable clothes	380	4.32	1.489	34.5
Has reasonably priced clothes	381	2.82	1.543	54.7
Has clothes that lift my image	381	4.21	1.324	31.4
Has a variety of clothing brands that give me my money's worth	381	4.33	1.564	36.1
Average Score	**380**	**3.996**	**1.4792**	**38.2**

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.11 suggest that the respondents, on average indicated high agreement with aspects on the countries where their clothes are imported from with an

overall mean score of 3.996 and average CV of 38.2%. The statement has a variety of clothing brands that give money's worth had the highest mean score (mean=4.33, SD=1.564, CV=36.1%) with the statement reasonably priced clothes having the lowest mean score (mean=2.82, SD=1.543, CV=54.7%). This implies that much as consumers prefer clothes from foreign countries that give them their money's worth they generally perceive imported clothes as relatively expensive. It also suggests that marketing strategies and policies on imported clothes which are highly preferred need to address the pricing challenge of perception among respondents that the brands are quite expensive.

4.4.7 Summary of Country-of-origin

A summary of the four components of the country-of-origin construct covered in the current study is presented in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Summary of Country-of-origin

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
Country where clothes are designed	380	3.926	2.1656	43.2
Country where clothes are manufactured	380	4.136	2.0582	49.9
Country where clothes are sold	380	3.896	2.0448	43.4
Country where clothes are imported from	380	3.996	1.4792	38.2
Average Score	**380**	3.989	1.937	43.7

Source: Primary Data

All four components of the country-of-origin construct recorded a high average score of 3.989 as shown in Table 4.12. This implies that COO is highly regarded and is a major factor in influencing consumer behaviour as far as clothing brands are concerned. Country where clothes are manufactured had the highest overall mean score of 4.136 followed by country where they are imported from with an overall mean score of 3.996. Further country where clothes are designed had an overall mean of 3.926 with country

where they are sold having the lowest mean of 3.896. The highest CV recorded was 49.9% while the lowest was 38.2%. The overall results concur with Batra et al. (2000) who observed that perceived brand foreign effect was greater for consumers who have a greater admiration for lifestyles in economically developed countries.

4.4.8 Comparison between income category and countries of preference

The study further examined the relationship between monthly income levels of the respondents and their order of preference as far as the country-of-origin is concerned. The findings were as indicated in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13: Relationship between income category and countries of preference

Income category (monthly)	Countries of preference
Over Ksh 50,000	• Italy, Germany, Turkey, Dubai (UAE) and UK
Ksh40,001-50,000	• USA, France, Thailand, Japan and Canada
Ksh30,001-40,000	• India, China, Ethiopia, Vietnam, South Africa, Thailand and Malaysia
Up to Ksh 30,000	• USA, China, Taiwan, Mexico, Singapore, Bangladesh, Philippines and Indonesia

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.13 indicate that consumers with a monthly income level of over Ksh 50,000 prefer clothes from Italy, Germany, Turkey, Dubai (UAE) and UK. The results further show that the consumers in the lowest income category of up to Ksh30,000 prefer clothes from USA, China, Taiwan, Mexico, Singapore, Bangladesh, Philippines and Indonesia. The inclusion of USA in this low income bracket is probably because some second hand clothes which are quite popular in Kenya (Nyongesa, 2005) among low income earners originate from there. The study results also reveal that some of the countries ranked as the most preferred sources (Italy and UK) in the earlier analysis (Table 4.7) are equally the most preferred by consumers with the highest income. This

may be attributed to the fact that these countries have high quality designer clothes which are expensively priced. However there is a likelihood of respondents in each category buying products from other categories as shown by the appearance of countries such as China, Thailand and USA in the different income categories.

To some extent a few countries ranked the least preferred sources (Mexico, Singapore, Bangladesh, Philippines and Indonesia) in the earlier analysis (Table 4.7) are equally the most preferred by consumers with the lowest income probably because their clothing brands are perceived to be low-priced and affordable consistent with the respondents' income. To a reasonable degree these results support the earlier assertion by this study that wealthy Kenyans prefer goods from UK, Italy, Germany and USA while low income earners buy clothes from South East Asia which tend to be cheaper than Kenyan made goods. They also concur with some of the assertions by Gachara (2014) that some of the popular sources of clothing items are second hand imported clothes from the West (USA) which are sold by hawkers or in markets across the country. Other shoppers buy new clothes from fashion stalls and boutiques which are mainly sourced from Turkey, China and other Asian countries with a few Kenyans shopping abroad and online (Gachara, 2014).

4.4.9   Comparison of COO influence by Administrative Districts in Nairobi

The study analysed the respondents' behaviour towards clothing brands across the four major residential areas in Nairobi County. They were asked to indicate if their clothes are made in Kenya, imported or both. The relevant results are as indicated in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14: The influence of COO across the Principal Administrative Districts in Nairobi

District	n	Kenya	Imported	Both	Total %
Nairobi East	133	22.74	41.03	36.23	100
Nairobi North	146	8.64	76.92	14.44	100
Nairobi West	69	5.37	87.18	7.45	100
Westlands	26	1.90	94.88	3.22	100

Source: Primary Data

The study results in Table 4.14 reveal that majority who reported that their clothes are made in Kenya resided in Nairobi East District (22.74%). Similarly Nairobi East respondents were the majority in terms of those who indicated their clothes are both made in Kenya and imported (36.23%). However the trend was different as far as the imported clothing brands is concerned with majority of the respondents from Westlands (94.88%) preferring imported clothes followed by Nairobi West (87.18%), Nairobi North (76.92%) and Nairobi East (41.03%). These differences in consumer behaviour may be attributable to different income levels with those from predominantly up market residential areas (Westlands) highly preferring imported brands, those living in middle income areas (Nairobi West and Nairobi North) exhibiting a moderate preference and those from fairly lower income areas (Nairobi East) showing a slightly lower preference.

To some extent education levels and the nature of work (such as formal employment which requires formal dressing) generally follow these residential trends in terms of preference for imported clothing brands. It is however noteworthy that these residential areas are not inhabited exclusively by the social classes mentioned here as some of them are slightly mixed (for instance Westlands which is considered upmarket incorporates Kangemi which is essentially a slum dwelling). Notable also is that respondents in this study were interviewed at the selected shopping points discussed earlier (Table 3.1 and Appendix 3) which are patronized mainly by the social classes whose preference and residence is depicted hereabove. However as it will be illustrated later COO influence on behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is generally high across all social classes given

91

that lower income earners have access to and can afford lowly priced imported second hand clothes.

4.4.10   Volume of Fabric imported to Kenya by country-of-origin

The study examined the volume of fabric imported to Kenya by country-of-origin over a period of five years (2008-2013) using secondary data from Kenyan Government publications. This was in an attempt to establish the likely effect of COO on import trends. The findings are as indicated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Total Fabric Equivalent imports to Kenya (Million Square Metres) (2008-2013)
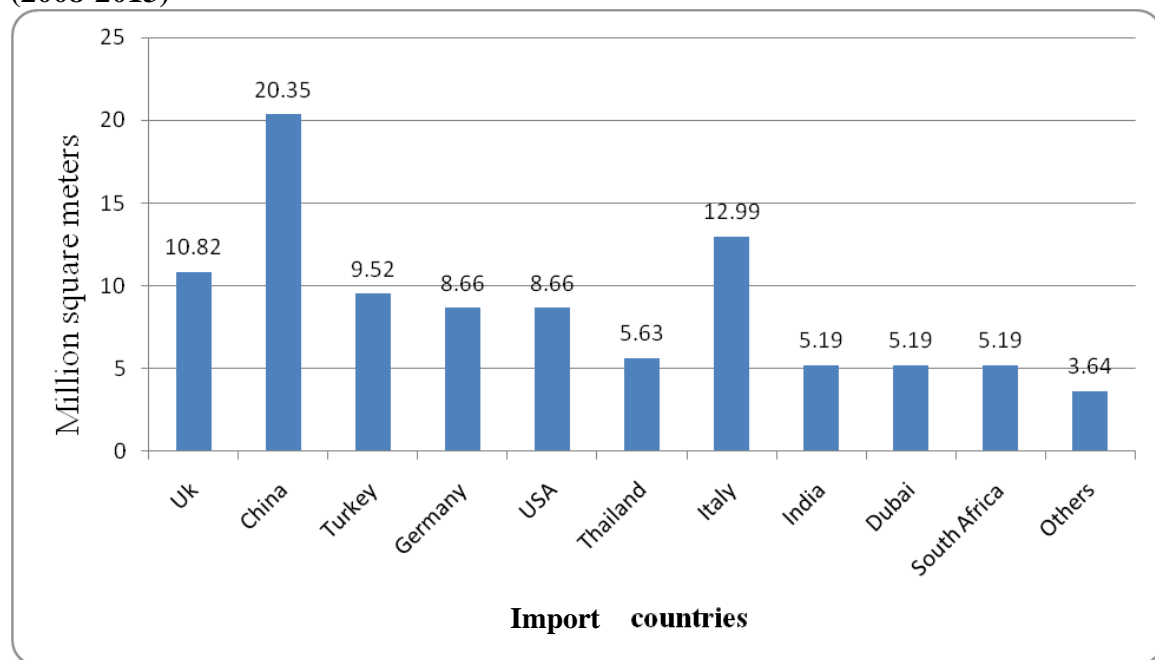
Source: Government of Kenya (2013): Economic Survey, Government Printer, Nairobi

The results depicted in Figure 4.1 indicate that China has exported the highest volume of fabric during the five year period commanding a 20.35% market share followed closely by Italy (12.99%), United Kingdom (10.82%), Turkey (9.52%) and USA (8.66%). Other countries that exported significantly to Kenya are Germany (8.66%), Thailand (5.63%), Dubai (5.19%), India (5.19%), South Africa (5.19%) with the rest contributing a combined 3.64% of the market share. This high level of imports may be related to the high influence of COO on consumer behaviour in Nairobi that is discussed later in this

study report. Similarly as noted earlier some of the countries with high exports to Kenya such as Italy, UK, China, USA, South Africa and Turkey have been cited by respondents as their preferred sources of foreign clothing brands (Table 4.7), thereby confirming their behaviour based on COO phenomenon can be relied on to a large extent. Whereas the ranking of countries by volume of fabric equivalent imports as depicted in the secondary data may not be exactly the same as that of the respondents' preferred countries of imported clothes, there is general consistency in countries with the highest imports matching those preferred by the respondents. The slight difference in the two sources of data can be explained by the fact that the secondary data represents actual imports whilst primary data is derived from the respondents' perceptions and preferences among other qualitative attributes.

4.4.11 Trend of Fabric Equivalent imports to Kenya

The study further examined the import trends of fabric in Kenya for the period 2008-2013 using secondary data to try and understand the likely impact of COO influence. The findings are as indicated in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Trend of Fabric Equivalent imports to Kenya (Million Square Metres) (2008-2013)

Source: Government of Kenya (2013): Economic Survey, Government Printer, Nairobi

93

The findings in Figure 4.2 show a significant increase of fabric imports to Kenya over a five year period from 2008-2013. Year 2008 had the lowest import of 29 million Square Metres with 2013 recording the highest at 49 million Square Metres. This implies that the demand for clothing items has been increasing yearly during the five year period. Again this upsurge of imports over the years may be associated with the high influence of COO on consumer behaviour in Nairobi that is discussed later in this study report.

4.4.12 Annual trend of Textile Imports value

The study also examined the annual value of textile imports over a five year period (2008-2013) using secondary data. Again this was towards understanding the likely influence of COO on import trends. The relevant results are as indicated in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3: Imports value (Kshs Million) (2008-2013)
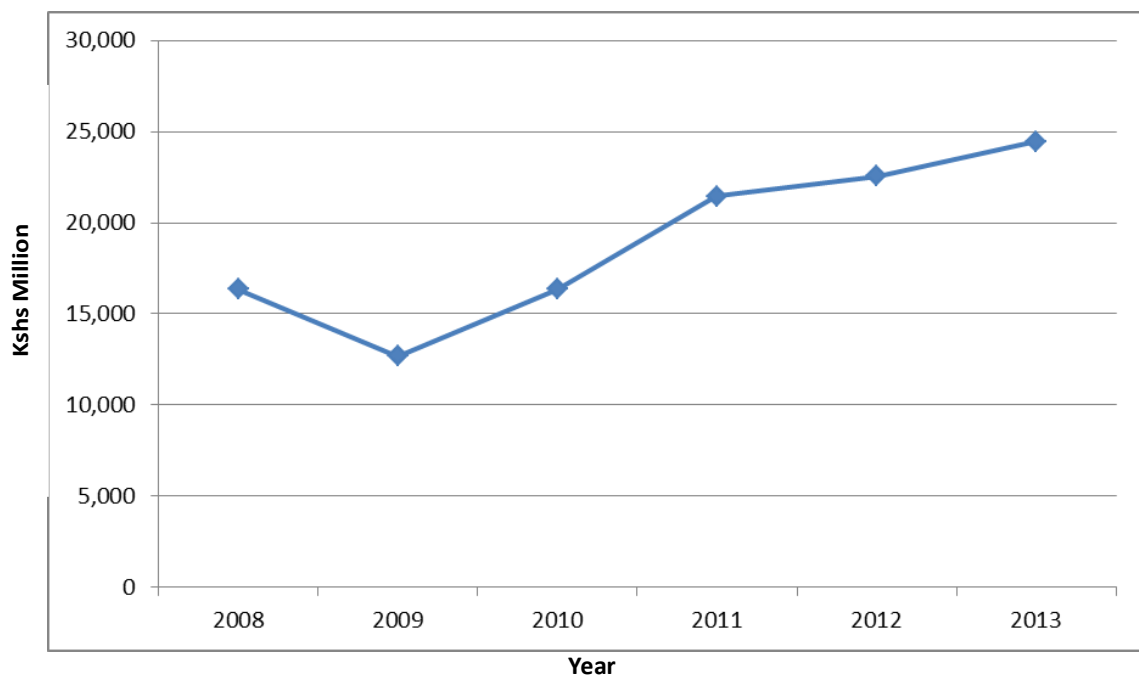
Source: Government of Kenya (2013): Economic Survey, Government Printer, Nairobi

The findings in Figure 4.3 indicate that 2013 recorded the highest import value (Kshs 24,442 million) with 2009 recording the lowest value of Kshs 12,672 million. The sharp decline in value from Kshs 16,348 million in 2008 to Kshs 12,672 millions in 2009 may be as a result of poor economic performance as a result of the 2007-2008 post election

violence. However notable is that the overall increasing trend of value of textile imports over the years is arguably due to the effect of COO on consumer behaviour which has been driving clothing import demand. This is consistent with the upsurge in volume of imports that has been recorded over the years with both trends possibly having been related to the high influence of COO on consumer behaviour in Nairobi.

4.4.13 Trend of Textile Imports value by country-of-origin

Using secondary data the study also examined the average import value per country over a five year period from 2008-2013. This was to determine the major countries that Kenya imports its textile products from and the cost associated with each specified country. Similarly this analysis was geared towards getting insights into the probable effect of COO phenomenon on clothing import trends. The findings are as indicated in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4: Average Textile Imports value per country (Kshs Million) (2008-2013)
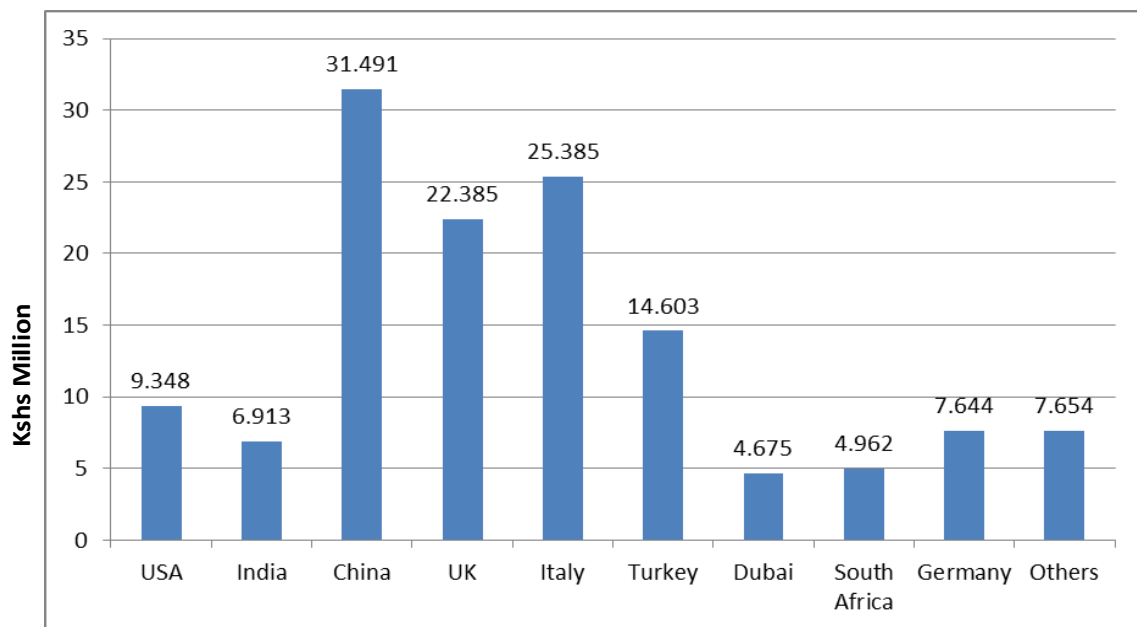
Source: Government of Kenya (2013): Economic Survey, Government Printer, Nairobi

The results in Figure 4.4 indicate that on average China recorded the highest (Kshs 31.491 million) followed by Italy (Ksh 25.385 million), United Kingdom (Kshs 22.385 million), Turkey (Kshs 14.603 million), USA (Kshs 9.348 million) and Germany (Kshs 7.644 million). Other countries whose value was significant included India (Kshs 6.913

million), Dubai (Kshs 4.675 million) and South Africa (Kshs 4.962 million). Again it can be argued that the effect of COO on consumer behaviour has been driving clothing import demand from the countries that recorded high import values. To some extent these findings corroborate the primary data results which established that some of the leading countries mentioned here (Italy, UK, China, Turkey, USA, India, South Africa and Germany) are equally the preferred ones as far as buying of foreign clothing brands is concerned (Table 4.7). Again it is worth noting that whilst the ranking of countries by textile imports as depicted in the secondary data may not be exactly the same as that of the respondents' preferred countries of imported clothes, there is broad consistency in countries with the highest imports matching those preferred by the respondents.

4.5   Consumer Attitudes towards Foreign Brands

The study sought to determine consumer attitudes towards foreign brands in relation to country-of-origin. The respondents were required to state the extent to which they agree with statements provided by inserting a number that reflects their rating of each country using a Likert type scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1=Not at all, 2= To a small extent, 3= To a moderate extent, 4= To a large extent, 5=To a very large extent. The findings are discussed in the sub-sections below.

4.5.1   Overall attitude

The 'Overall attitude as an objective' model is sometimes adopted to determine the overall attitude towards a product. According to this hypothetical model a range of attitudes can be identified for a brand that has been on the market for a certain period (Batra et. al., 2003). Opoku and Akorli (2009) have examined empirically consumer attitudes towards local and imported products in a developing country market, noting that it is a difficult challenge in establishing a vibrant manufacturing industry and changing the attitudes of citizens of such a country towards domestic products. Respondents in the current study were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with the statements provided to them regarding various attributes of consumer attitudes towards imported clothes. The respondents were provided with consumer attitude statements regarding their countries of preference in order to rate this on a five point Likert type scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1=Not at all, 2= To a small extent, 3= To a moderate extent, 4= To a large

extent, 5=To a very large extent. In the overall attitude towards imported clothes a mean score of 4.45, SD=2.312, CV=31.9% was established. From the results it can be deduced that the respondents have a positive attitude towards foreign clothes given the high average mean score across the three countries they reported on. Besides the overall attitude, specific components of consumer attitudes using the CAB model were examined and their findings are discussed in the section below.

4.5.2 Awareness (Cognition) of foreign brands

Chen (2010) notes that the rational or cognitive factor of COO is the perceived quality of foreign product which tends to be evaluated according to technical, advancement, prestige, workmanship, economy and service. However Sharma (2011) asserts that COO is not merely another cognitive cue but also has a symbolic and emotional meaning for consumers. To measure the ratings of awareness of foreign brands in the current study, a set of five items was used which are similar to those employed for overall attitude based on a Likert type scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1=Not at all, 2= To a small extent, 3= To a moderate extent, 4= To a large extent, 5=To a very large extent. The results for awareness are summarized in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Awareness (Cognition) of foreign brands

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
I know a lot about imported clothes	381	3.04	1.918	33.1
I usually have a good idea of where to buy imported clothes for special occasions e.g. weddings, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali, Easter, etc.	381	4.21	2.215	22.6
My knowledge about imported clothes is quite good	379	3.22	2.292	41.2
I am satisfied with my knowledge about imported clothing brands	381	2.87	2.299	50.1
Average Score	**380**	**3.335**	**2.181**	**36.8**

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.15 show that with regard to awareness of foreign clothing brands, the average mean score was relatively moderate (mean=3.335, SD=2.181, CV=36.8%). This suggests that many respondents have an above average awareness level on imported clothing brands. The lowest CV registered was 22.6% while the highest was 50.1%. It was noted that the respondents had low satisfaction with their knowledge about imported clothing as evidenced by the mean score (mean=2.87, SD=2.299, CV=50.1%). There is therefore a need for clothing retailers to improve their marketing strategies in order to enhance knowledge in this area. However it is notable that respondents demonstrated they usually have a good idea of where to buy imported clothes for special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter which recorded the highest mean score (mean=4.21, SD=2.215, CV=22.6%). This suggests the high importance the respondents attach to foreign clothing brands during these special occasions when they need to portray a good fashion impression that boosts their ego. This is an important consideration for marketing and retailing clothes during these occasions.

4.5.3 Liking (Affection) of foreign brands

Some scholars have argued that that an attitude consists entirely of the affective component, or overall assessment of the attitude-object, under the rubric of Single-Component Attitude Models (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1992). To measure the liking of foreign brands, a set of five items was used similar to that used for awareness of foreign clothing brands. The relevant results of the current study are depicted in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16: Liking (Affection) of foreign brands

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV
I usually have strong intentions to buy imported clothes	380	4.20	2.321	45.3
I am satisfied with my intentions to buy imported clothing brands	381	4.21	2.432	47.8
I always plan to buy imported clothes for special occasions e.g. weddings, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali, Easter, etc.	381	4.22	1.654	39.2
I always have good intentions to buy imported clothes	381	4.30	1.541	35.8
Average Score	**381**	**4.23**	**1.987**	**42.0**

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.16 show that with regard to liking of foreign brands, the average mean score was relatively high (mean=4.23, SD=1.987, CV=42.0%). The study also established that the respondents always had good intentions to buy imported clothes with this aspect having registered the highest score (mean=4.30, SD=1.541, CV=35.8%). The statement that respondents usually have strong intentions to buy imported clothes recorded the lowest score (mean=4.20, SD=2.321, CV=45.3%). The highest CV registered was 47.8% while the lowest was 35.8%. From the findings, it can be deduced that the respondents have a high affection for foreign clothing brands given that the rest of aspects they reported on with regard to this attribute had a mean score of above 4. It can hence be argued that the affection factor influences preference for foreign clothing brands consistent with Solomon (1996) who observes that the affection factor influences evaluation, liking or preference for brands.

4.5.4 Action tendencies (Behaviour) towards foreign brands

Research shows that the affection and cognition country components do not always have an equivalent effect on purchase intention. The affective component tends to determine action tendencies toward hedonic objects while cognitions determine action tendencies toward functional objects (Verlegh, 2001). To measure action tendencies towards foreign brands a set of five items was used similar to that employed for liking of foreign brands. The pertinent results for Action tendencies are portrayed in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Action tendencies (Behaviour) towards foreign brands

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
Shopping for imported clothing brands gives me great satisfaction	381	4.10	1.541	37.6
I rate my activities when shopping for imported clothes as good	380	4.01	1.558	38.9
Buying more than one imported clothing item when shopping for special occasions e.g. weddings, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali, Easter, etc. gives me great happiness	381	4.13	1.786	43.2
Buying imported clothes gives me a lot of pleasure	379	4.50	1.654	36.8
Average Score	**380**	**4.185**	**1.635**	**39.2**

Source: Primary Data

Overall action tendencies towards foreign clothing brands dimensions had a relatively high average score (mean=4.185, SD=1.635, CV=39.2%) as depicted in Table 4.17. The highest CV recorded was 43.2% while the lowest was 36.8%. The results also showed that buying imported clothes give respondents a lot of pleasure with this aspect having recorded the highest mean score (mean=4.50, SD=1.654, CV=36.8%). However the statement that they rate their activities when shopping for imported clothes as good had

the lower mean though it still depicts a high agreement score (mean=4.01, SD=1.558, CV=38.9%). Once again the respondents demonstrated the importance they attach to special occasions and foreign clothes by buying more than one item when shopping for wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter and that this gives them great happiness as shown. Similarly this is a key factor to consider in marketing and retailing strategies for clothes during these occasions normally considered to have high demand.

4.5.5 Summary of Consumer Attitudes towards foreign brands

A summary of the four components of the consumer attitudes variable studied is provided in Table 4.18. The components comprised: awareness of foreign brands; liking of foreign brands and; action tendencies towards foreign brands.

Table 4.18: Summary of Consumer Attitudes towards foreign brands

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV
Awareness of foreign brands (cognitive)	380	3.335	2.181	36.8
Liking of foreign brands (affective)	381	4.23	1.987	42.0
Action tendencies towards foreign brands (behaviour)	380	4.185	1.635	39.2
Average Score	**380**	**3.917**	**1.934**	**39.3**

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.18 show that that the overall mean score as far as consumer attitudes is concerned was fairly high at 3.917 with an average CV of 39.3%. Liking of foreign brands had the highest overall mean score of 4.23 followed by action tendencies towards foreign brands with an overall mean score of 4.185, with awareness of foreign brands having the lowest mean (mean=3.335, SD=2.181, CV=36.8%). These findings are to some extent consistent with Lavine et al. (1998) who observe that affection has a greater effect on action tendencies when affection and cognition are not of the same

valence, that is one is negative and the other is positive, whereas both cognition and affection have an equal effect if both are of the same valence.

4.6 Consumer Behaviour towards Foreign Clothing Brands

In consumer behaviour research it is necessary to understand the success factors behind the process given that the relative importance of each factor depends on the nature of industry under consideration, location and social characteristics of the consumers of the different brands (Chimboza & Mutandwa, 2007).) In order to gauge the effectiveness of promotional messages and develop measures that inform future international marketing strategies, consumer behaviour research according to Lancaster and Massingham (1998), incorporates diverse fields such as determining intentions, behaviour, trials and purchases by customers on efficient use of a product/service whose promotional messages they have been exposed to.

To evaluate consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands, the respondents in the current study were presented with four sub-constructs each with statements to rate. The statements were to be rated on a five point Likert type scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1=Not at all, 2= To a small extent, 3= To a moderate extent, 4= To a large extent, 5=To a very large extent. The sub-constructs incorporated: trials of imported clothing brands; purchase of foreign clothing brands; endorsement of imported clothing brands and; commitment to foreign clothing brands. The findings are discussed in the following subsection.

4.6.1   Trials of imported clothing brands

In order to determine consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing, the respondents were presented with statements concerning trials of imported clothing brands in order to rate them based on a Likert type scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1=Not at all, 2= To a small extent, 3= To a moderate extent, 4= To a large extent, 5=To a very large extent. The relevant results are summarized in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Trials of imported clothing brands

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
I often window-shop/look out for imported clothing brands	379	4.25	1.954	45.9
I find it easy window-shopping/looking out for imported clothing brands	381	4.18	2.198	52.5
I am active in window-shopping/looking out for imported clothing brands	381	4.17	1.786	42.8
For special occasions e.g. weddings, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali, Easter, etc., I window-shop/look out for imported clothing brands	380	4.31	1.678	38.9
Average Score	**380**	**4.23**	**1.904**	**45.0**

Source: Primary Data

As shown by the results in Table 4.19 trials of imported clothing brands recorded a relatively high average score of 4.23. The statement that on special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter respondents window-shop/look out for imported clothing brands, had the highest score (mean= 4.31, SD= 1.678, CV=38.9%) with the statement that they are active in window-shopping/looking out for imported clothing brands having the lowest score (mean=4.17, SD=1.786, CV=42.8%). The lowest CV registered was 38.9% while the highest was 52.5%. From the above findings, it can be deduced that the consumers also rate highly their window-shopping activities which they find easy to engage in. Consistent with the responses given in the attitude sub-constructs hereabove, the respondents showed the importance they attach to special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter. This has implications for sales promotions and other marketing programs during these events which if aligned to the preferred countries would guarantee higher sales.

4.6.2 Purchase of foreign clothing brands

Researchers in marketing are beginning to investigate and understand the marketplace behaviour of global consumers and have developed various models to explain how attributes are evaluated and integrated into overall product judgments and purchase decisions (Klein et al., 1998). In order to determine the trends in purchase of foreign clothing brands, the respondents in the current study were presented with statements on the same and asked to rate them on a five point scale similar to the one used for trials of imported clothing brands. The relevant results are illustrated in Table 4.2

Table 4.20: Purchase of foreign clothing brands

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
I frequently buy imported clothing brands	381	2.45	1.921	48.4
I buy imported clothing brands for special occasions e.g. weddings, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali, Easter, etc.	381	4.02	2.874	31.5
I am active in shopping for imported clothing brands	381	2.36	2.991	27.1
I find it easy buying imported clothing brands	381	2.32	1.998	46.1
Average Score	**381**	**2.787**	**2.446**	**38.3**

Source: Primary Data

According to the results summarized in Table 4.20 the average score in purchase of foreign clothing brands was relatively low with a mean of 2.787 and overall CV at 38.3%. The statement that respondents buy imported clothing brands for special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter recorded the highest score (mean=4.02, SD=2.874, CV=31.5%) with the statement that they find it easy buying imported clothing brands having the lowest score (mean= 2.32, SD=1.998,

CV=46.1%). In view of the findings, it can be inferred that the respondents purchase foreign clothing brands although to a moderate extent.

It can also be argued that much as the respondents have a strong liking for imported clothing brands the fact that they find them expensively priced as demonstrated hereabove limits their purchasing power. Marketing and retailing firms will therefore need to address how to bridge the gap between this high affection and the perceived high pricing. According to Samiee (1994) the consumer buying decision process has been rationalized within the context of source-country influences, providing a conceptual framework for further development, which also links country-level considerations to firm-level decision-making.

4.6.3 Endorsement of imported clothing brands

Endorsement is consistent with image theory and entails a constellation of structural perceptions sometimes associated with stronger endorsement of a country's image according to Alexander et al. (2005). The authors highlight the importance of considering both structural characteristics and individual motives underlying international images and demonstrate the need for scholars to move beyond the enemy image of nations when describing international relations. This study sought to find out endorsement of imported clothing brands as an element of consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands using statements anchored on a five point scale presented to the respondents to rate. The pertinent results are summarized in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21: Endorsement of imported clothing brands

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
I regularly advise others (e.g. friends or relatives) to buy imported clothes	381	1.44	1.912	132.8
I find it easy recommending to others (e.g. friends or relatives) to buy imported clothes	381	2.03	2.221	109.4
I suggest to others (e.g. friends or relatives) to buy imported clothes for special occasions e.g. weddings, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali, Easter, etc.	379	3.34	2.453	43.4
I am active in recommending to others (e.g. friends or relatives) to buy imported clothes	380	2.31	2.612	13.1
Average Score	**380**	**2.28**	**2.299**	**24.7**

Source: Primary Data

According to the results shown in Table 4.21 the overall mean score as far as endorsement of imported clothing brands is concerned was also relatively low (mean=2.28, SD=2.299, CV=24.7%%). The statement that respondents suggest to others to buy imported clothes for special occasions such as weddings, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter had the highest overall mean score (3.34, SD=2.453, CV=43.4%) with the statement that respondents regularly advise others to buy imported clothes having the lowest score (mean=1.44, SD=1.912, CV=132.8%). It is notable that on the particular item of respondents advising others to buy imported clothes its extremely high CV was consistent with the low mean score implying high variability of response. The results reveal that much as the respondents to a large extent suggest to others to purchase imported clothes this is mainly restricted to special occasions with minimal activity at other times. Marketers in the clothing business need to fill this gap by devising advertising strategies using celebrities or opinion leaders who can persuade consumers to purchase clothing brands at all times.

4.6.4 Commitment to foreign clothing brands

In terms of commitment to foreign brands some customers are influenced by country-of-manufacture considerations according to Batra et al. (2000) who found that perceived brand foreign effect is greater for consumers who have a greater admiration for lifestyles in economically developed countries. To establish commitment to foreign clothing brands in the current study, statements anchored on a five point scale were presented to the respondents to rate. The relevant results are as shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Commitment to foreign clothing brands

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
I remain committed to buying foreign clothing brands only when my needs are met	381	4.23	2.765	45.4
I am committed to buying imported clothing brands even when my needs are not met	381	2.30	2.654	15.3
When disappointed by something about foreign clothing brands, I stop buying them until there is an improvement	381	3.06	2.564	43.7
The people I have recommended imported clothes to (e.g. friends or relatives) remain committed to buying them	380	3.03	2.435	30.4
Average Score	**381**	**3.155**	**2.605**	**33.7**

Source: Primary Data

Commitment to foreign clothing brands had an above average score of 3.155 with the overall CV standing at 33.7% According to the results summarized in Table 4.22, the statement that respondents remain committed to buying foreign clothing brands only when their needs are met had the highest score (mean=4.23, SD=2.765, CV=45.4%). This implies that to a large extent the respondents remain committed to buying foreign clothing brands only when their needs are satisfied. The statement that respondents are committed to buying imported clothing brands even when their needs are not met had the

lowest score (mean=2.30, SD=2.654, CV=15.3%). Notable too is that to some extent respondents indicated that when disappointed by something about foreign clothing brands they stop buying them until there is an improvement. This is a pointer to retailers that any defects in their clothing products would lead to consumers avoiding purchasing them altogether which would therefore affect their sales. It also suggests that customer expectations about foreign clothing brands are quite high consistent with the high quality perceptions they have about imported clothes.

4.6.5 Summary of Consumer Behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

A summary of the four components of the consumer behaviour construct studied is provided in Table 4.23. The components comprised: trials of imported clothing brands; purchase of foreign clothing brands; endorsement of imported clothing brands and; commitment to foreign clothing brands.

Table 4.23: Summary of Consumer Behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
Trials of imported clothing brands	380	4.23	1.904	45.0
Purchase of foreign clothing brands	381	2.787	2.446	38.3
Endorsement of imported clothing brands	380	2.28	2.299	24.7
Commitment to foreign clothing brands	381	3.155	2.605	33.7
Average Score	**380**	**3.113**	**2.314**	**35.4**

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.23 show that that the overall mean score of consumer behaviour was 3.113. Trials of imported clothing brands had the highest mean of 4.23 as well as the highest of 45.0%. However the aspect with the lowest mean as well as CV was endorsement of imported clothing brands at 2.28 and 24.7% respectively. These findings conform with Opoku and Akorli's (2009) contention that in underdeveloped countries,

preference for domestic products is weaker with situational personal characteristics, such as motivation, influencing use of country-of-origin attributes to evaluate services.

4.7   Summary of Descriptive Statistics

The results of the descriptive statistics covering the variables COO, consumer attitudes, and consumer behaviour, are summarized in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24: Summary of Descriptive Statistics

Variables	Item Description	N	Mean Score	SD	CV (%)
Country-of-origin	Country where clothes are designed	380	3.926	2.1656	43.2
	Country where clothes are manufactured	380	4.136	2.0582	49.9
	Country where clothes are sold	380	3.896	2.0448	43.4
	Country where clothes are imported from	380	3.996	1.4792	38.2
	Average Score	**380**	**3.989**	**1.937**	**43.7**
Consumer attitudes	Awareness of foreign brands (cognition)	380	3.335	2.181	36.8
	Liking of foreign brands (affection)	381	4.23	1.987	42.0
	Action tendencies towards foreign brands (behaviour)	380	4.185	1.635	39.2
	Average Score	**380**	**3.917**	**1.934**	**39.3**
Consumer behaviour	Trials of imported clothing brands	380	4.23	1.904	45.0
	Purchase of foreign clothing brands	381	2.787	2.446	38.3
	Endorsement of imported clothing brands	380	2.28	2.299	24.7
	Commitment to foreign clothing brands	381	3.155	2.605	33.7
	Average Score	**380**	**3.113**	**2.314**	**35.4**
Overall Mean Score		**380**	**3.673**	**2.062**	**39.5**

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.24 reveal that the average mean scores for the three study variables was above average (mean=3.673, SD=2.062, CV=39.5%). The findings further indicate that country-of-origin had the highest average mean score of 3.989 as well as CV at 43.7%, followed by consumer attitudes (mean=3.917, SD=1.934, CV=39.3%). Consumer behaviour had the lowest average score (mean=3.113, SD=2.314, CV=35.4%). This implies that consumers purchase clothes influenced largely by COO considerations followed by attitudes developed over time consistent with the contention by Ulgado and Lee (1998) that some customers are influenced by country-of-manufacture considerations in as far as purchase of foreign brands is concerned.

4.8   Hypotheses Testing

The premise of this study was that there is a relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands with this relationship moderated by consumer characteristics and mediated by consumer attitudes towards foreign brands. The following sections discuss the statistical significance of the composite hypotheses, simple and multiple regressions analyses which were conducted at 95% confidence level. Seven hypotheses were tested including an overall joint effects model that determined the combined effect of all three variables on consumer behaviour. Simple and multiple linear regression (stepwise) analyses were used. In addition, aggregate mean scores were computed for the independent, mediator, moderator and dependent variables and used in regression analysis which involved tests for mediation and moderation effects. The results of the regression analyses were used to test the pertinent hypotheses. As recommended by Kwan and Chan (2011) standardized beta coefficients were adopted in discussing results and in model estimates as these enable comparison of the relative impacts of various model variables in multiple regressions since they are independent of the units of measurement.

4.8.1   Correlation Analysis Results

Correlation analysis by means of Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient technique was used to determine the relationship between country-of-origin, consumer

attitudes, consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands indicators. The relevant results are as indicated in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: Correlation Analysis - country-of-origin, consumer attitudes, consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour

		Country-of-origin	Consumer attitudes	Consumer characteristics	Consumer behaviour
Country-of-origin	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	1 0.000 381			
Consumer attitudes	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	851 0.000 381	1 0.000 381		
Consumer characteristics	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	0.753 0.000 381	0.653 0.000 381	1 0.000 381	
Consumer behaviour	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	0.723 0.000 381	0.621 0.000 381	0.553 0.000 381	1 0.000 381
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.25 indicate that the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=.723, p-value=.000). Similarly, the relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=.621, p-value=.000). However the relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is positive but moderately significant as indicated by Pearson's Product Moment

Correlation of .553 and p-value=.000. This implies that the study variables considered namely country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics play a critical role of influencing consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands in Nairobi County. The strongest relationship was between the country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands (r=.723, p-value=.000). This suggests that consumers are keen on COO as far as their buying behaviour of clothes is concerned. The study also reveals that attitudes play a crucial role in influencing consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

4.8.2 The influence of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

The first objective of the study was to assess the influence of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. This entailed analyzing the magnitude of the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The related hypothesis is given as follows:

H1: There is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in the clothing market in Nairobi, Kenya

To test this hypothesis, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with statements on COO dimensions. Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands indicators were trials of foreign brands, purchase of foreign brands, endorsement to others of foreign brands and commitment to foreign brands.

First the study carried out a correlation analysis to determine the relationship between country-of-origin dimensions and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. The results of the relationship are summarized in the Table 4.26.

Table 4.26: Correlation Analysis - country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

		Where a brand is designed	Where a brand is manufactured	Where a brand is sold	Where a brand is imported from	Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands
Where a brand is designed	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2- tailed)	0.000				
	N	381				
Where a brand is manufactured	Pearson Correlation	0.742	1			
	Sig. (2- tailed)	0.000	0.000			
	N	381	381			
Where a brand is sold	Pearson Correlation	0.842	0.542	1		
	Sig. (2- tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000		
	N	381	381	381		
Where a brand is imported from	Pearson Correlation	0.771	0.664	0.732	1	
	Sig. (2- tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	381	381	381	381	
Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands	Pearson Correlation	0.811	0.532	0.691	0.789	1
	Sig. (2- tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	381	381	381	381	381
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).						
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.26 indicate that the relationship between where a brand is designed and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=.811, p-value=.000). Similarly, the relationship between where a brand is manufactured and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=.789, p-value=.000). The relationship between where a brand is

sold and where a brand is imported from was also significant and strong (r=.691, p-value=.000) and (r=.532, p-value=.000) respectively. This implies that the COO dimensions: where a brand is designed; where a brand is manufactured; where a brand is sold; and where a brand is imported from play a critical role of influencing consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in Nairobi County. The strongest relationship was between where a brand is designed and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in Nairobi County (r=.811, p-value=.000).

Regression analysis was also done and the relevant results are presented in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27: Regression Results of country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

(a) The Goodness-of-fit

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.854	.730	.710	.03412

Source: Primary Data

(b) The Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance (p-value)
Regression	.042	1	.062	18.163	0.000
Residual	.075	62	.004		
Total	.117	63			

Source: Primary Data

(c) The Individual Significance

Model	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t-value	Significance p-value
(Constant)	.567	.112		5.487	.000
Country-of-origin (COO)	.536	.136	.664	5.143	.000
a. Predictors: Country-of-origin					
b. Dependent Variable: Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.27 show that country-of-origin has a statistically significant influence on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. COO explains 73% of the variation in consumer behaviour (R^2=.730). The standardized regression coefficient (β) value of the computed (composite index) scores of country-of-origin was .664 with a t-test of 5.143 and significance level of p-value =.000. The standardized regression coefficient was used as it removes the unit of measurement of the predictor and outcome variables. This allowed the researcher to compare the relative effect of predictors measured on different scales. The regression equation to estimate consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands was stated as:

$Y=.567+.664X_1 + \varepsilon$

Where;

α=constant (intercept)

Y= consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

X_1= country-of-origin

ε = Error term

The Beta coefficient for COO is positive and therefore statistically significant to influence consumer behaviour. The hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in the clothing market in Nairobi, Kenya is therefore supported by the current study. These findings are consistent with several COO studies which have established that country-of-origin phenomenon influences consumer behaviour (Opoku & Akorli, 2009; Yim et al., 2007; Batra et al., 2000).

4.8.3 The influence of country-of-origin on consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands

The study had set to determine the influence of country-of-origin on consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands. The influence of brand origin on consumer attitudes continues to be an area of interest in international marketing theory since the 1960s (Schaefer, 1995) with the theoretical foundations of the COO concept being premised on how consumers use a brand's origin as a cue in inferring its quality and acceptability (Chen, 2010). The following hypothesis was formulated:

H2: There is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands

To determine the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands, correlation analysis and a linear regression analysis was conducted. The pertinent correlation analysis results are summarized in Table 4.28

Table 4.28: Correlation Analysis - country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands

		Where a brand is designed	Where a brand is manufactured	Where a brand is sold	Where a brand is imported from	Consumer attitudes towards foreign brands
Where a brand is designed	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 0.000 381				
Where a brand is manufactured	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.742 0.000 381	1 0.000 381			
Where a brand is sold	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.842 0.000 381	0.542 0.000 381	1 0.000 381		
Where a brand is imported from	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.771 0.000 381	0.664 0.000 381	0.732 0.000 381	1 0.000 381	
Consumer attitudes towards foreign brands	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.733 0.000 381	0.821 0.000 381	0.752 0.000 381	0.841 0.000 381	1
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.28 indicate that the relationship between where a brand is designed and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=0.733, p-value=.000). Similarly, the relationship between where a brand is manufactured and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=0.821, p-value=.000). The relationship between where a brand is sold and where a brand is imported from was also significant and strong (r=0.752, p-value=.000) and (r=0.841, p-value=.000) respectively. This implies that the COO dimensions: where a brand is designed; where a brand is manufactured; where a brand is sold; and where a brand is imported from play a critical role of influencing consumer attitudes towards foreign brands in Nairobi County.

The pertinent results of the linear regression analysis are as summarized in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29: Regression Results of country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands

a) The Goodness-of-fit

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.809	.654	.626	.0746

Source: Primary Data

b) The Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance (p-value)
Regression	.318	1	.216	24.752	0.000
Residual	.324	64	.114		
Total	.642	65			

Source: Primary Data

c) The Individual Significance

Model	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t-value	Significance p-value
(Constant)	.328	.117		3.030	.051
Country-of-origin	.623	.111	.654	4.564	.000
a. Predictors: Country-of-origin					
b. Dependent Variable: Consumer attitudes towards foreign brands					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.29 indicate that the country-of-origin had a statistically significant influence on consumer attitudes as it accounted for 65.4% of the variation in consumer attitudes towards foreign brands (R^2=.654). The overall model reveals a statistically significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands (F=24.75, p-value=.000). The standardized regression coefficient also shows that COO is statistically significant (β=.654, p-value=.000). This implies that country-of-origin influences consumer attitudes towards foreign brands. The regression equation to estimate consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands was stated as:

Y=.328+.654X_1 + ε

Where;

α=constant (intercept)

Y = consumer attitudes towards foreign brands

X_1=Country-of-origin

ε= Error term

The Beta coefficient for COO is positive and statistically significant to influence consumer attitudes. The hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between COO and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands is therefore supported. The findings lend support to previous studies that found a positive relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands. Scholars have established that attitudes or feelings towards a foreign country influence attitudes towards brands or products originating from or associated with that country (Ming-huei, 2004; Bhuian, 1997).

4.8.4 The influence of consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

The objective was to assess the influence of consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. Consumer attitudes comprised awareness of foreign brands (cognition), liking of foreign brands (affection), action tendencies towards foreign brands (behaviour). Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with various statements on the consumer attitudes dimensions. Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands' indicators encompassed: trials of foreign brands; purchase of foreign brands; endorsement to others of foreign brands; and commitment to foreign brands. The following hypothesis was tested to assess the relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

H3: There is a significant relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

First the study carried out a correlation analysis to determine the relationship between consumer attitudes dimensions and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. The results of the relationship are summarized in the Table 4.3

Table 4.30: Correlation Analysis - consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

		Awareness of foreign brands	Liking of foreign brands	Action tendencies over foreign brands	Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands
Awareness of foreign brands	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000			
	N	381			
Liking of foreign brands	Pearson Correlation	0.831	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000		
	N	381	381		
Action tendencies towards foreign brands	Pearson Correlation	0.813	0.731	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	N	381	381	381	
Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands	Pearson Correlation	0.843	0.931	0.792	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	381	381	381	381
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.30 indicate that the relationship between awareness of foreign brands and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=.843, p-value=.000). Similarly, the relationship between liking of foreign brands and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=.931, p-value=.000). The relationship between action

tendencies towards foreign brands was also significant and strong (r=.792, p-value=.000). This implies that awareness of foreign brands, liking of foreign brands and action tendencies towards foreign brands play a critical role of influencing Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in Nairobi County. The strongest relationship was between liking of foreign brands and Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in Nairobi County (r=.931, p-value=.000).

The pertinent results of the linear regression analysis are as summarized in Table 4.31.

Table 4.31: Regression Results of consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

a) The Goodness-of-fit

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.907	.823	.783	.0892

Source: Primary Data

b) The Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance (p-value)
Regression	.429	1	.327	28.863	0.010
Residual	.435	63	.225		
Total	.864	64			

Source: Primary Data

c) The Individual Significance

Model	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t-value	Significance p-value
(Constant)	.439	.228		4.120	.021
Country-of-origin	.734	.222	.743	5.443	.000
a. Predictors: Consumer attitudes					
b. Dependent Variable: Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.31 indicate that consumer attitudes had a statistically significant influence on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands as they accounted for 82.3 % of the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands (R^2=.823). Further the overall model also reveals a statistically significant relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands (F=28.863, p-value=.010). The standardized regression coefficient also shows that consumer attitudes are statistically significant (β=.743, p-value=.000). The regression equation to estimate consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands was stated as:

$Y=.439+.743X_1+ \varepsilon$

Where;

α=constant (intercept)

Y = consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

X_1= consumer attitudes towards foreign brands

ε= Error term

The Beta coefficient for consumer attitudes was found to be positive and statistically significant in influencing consumer behaviour. The hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is therefore supported. These findings are in conformity with those of other studies that found attitudes to be related to behaviour as they constitute a significant component of the broader field of consumer behaviour in international marketing (Runyon, 1980). Schiffman and Kanuk (1992) also assert that attitudes towards a brand can be largely studied and understood in the broad context of consumer behaviour concepts in the marketing discipline. On their part Opoku and Akorli (2009) contend that the attitudes of consumers to the buy locally-made campaigns can be characterized as protectionist, nationalistic, and self-interest.

4.8.5 The influence of consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

Research in consumer characteristics has been commonly approached by profiling their demographics such as their interests, age, heritage, income level, education, sex, family status and occupations (Ranaweera et al., 2005; Floh & Treiblmaier, 2006). The objective of this study was to assess the influence of consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. Consumer characteristics included: age; gender; income and; education. Respondents had been asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed on the consumer behaviour dimensions. Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands indicators incorporated: trials of foreign brands; purchase of foreign brands; endorsement to others of foreign brands and; commitment to foreign brands. The following hypothesis was tested to assess the relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands:

H4: There is a significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

The study started by carrying out a correlation analysis to determine the relationship between consumer characteristics dimensions and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. The results of the relationship are summarized in Table 4.32.

Table 4.32: Correlation Analysis - consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

		Age	Gender	Income	Education	Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands
Age	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	1 0.000 381				
Gender	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	0.021 0.000 381	1 0.000 381			
Income	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	0.441 0.000 381	0.641 0.000 381	1 0.000 381		
Education	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	0.211 0.000 381	0.344 0.000 381	0.641 0.000 381	1 0.000 381	
Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2- tailed) N	0.423 0.002 381	0.534 0.000 381	0.832 0.000 381	0.741 0.000 381	1 0.000 381
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).						

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.32 indicate that the relationship between age and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is weak, positive and statistically insignificant (r=.423, p-value=.002). Similarly, the relationship between gender and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is moderate, positive and statistically significant (r=.534, p-value=.000). The relationship between income and education was significant and strong (r=.832, p-value=.000) and (r=.741, p-value=.000) respectively. This implies that age and

gender play a moderately significant role on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in Nairobi County whereas income and education play a very strong significant role on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands.

The relevant results of the linear regression analysis are as summarized in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33: Regression results of consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

a) The Goodness-of-fit

		R	R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R^2 Change	F Change	Df 1	Df 2	Sig. F Change
1	.207(a)	.313	.098	-.039	.0098	.193	1	62	.321
2	.396(b)	.715	.511	.04379	.5012	7.698	1	61	.001

Source: Primary Data

b) The Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance (p-value)
Regression	.292	1	.321	.341	0.543
Residual	. 541	63	.056		
Total	.833	64			
Regression	.596	2	.30	16.631	0.000
Residual	.348	60	.001		
Total	.944	61			

Source: Primary Data

c) The Individual Significance

Model	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t-value	Significance p-value
(Constant)	.483	.094		1.815	.079
Age and Gender	.389	.068	.752	5.064	.000
Age, gender, education and income	.548	.088	.841	6.476	.000
a) Predictors: (Constant), Consumer characteristics					
b) Dependent Variable: Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.33 reveal that the age and gender combined explain 9.8% of the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands (R^2=.098). When the effect of education and income was added (model 2), R^2 improved to .511 (ΔR^2). The 51.1% change was statistically significant. The relationship between the age and gender of the consumers and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is not statistically significant (F=.341, p-value=.543). This implies that the age and gender of consumers do not significantly influence consumer behaviour towards foreign brands at α=0.05 but income and education significantly influence consumer behaviour towards foreign brands as indicated by the resultant variation (.511 ΔR^2). This may be attributed to the price and prestige associated with consumer behaviour as those with higher incomes and education exhibit more favourable behaviour towards foreign brands. The regression equation to estimate consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands was stated as:

$$Y = .483 + .841X_1 + \varepsilon$$

Where;

α=constant (intercept)

Y = consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

X_1= consumer characteristics

ε= Error term

The equation confirms that the Beta coefficient for consumer characteristics is positive and quite statistically significant to influence consumer behaviour. The overall results therefore support the hypothesis that there is a statistically significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. These findings lend support to previous studies that established a positive relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. Research has mainly focused on the study of consumer characteristics as moderators of consumer behaviour (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001). Consequently consumer characteristics have become crucial in designing and undertaking successful marketing strategies (Boshoff, 2011).

4.8.6 The extent to which consumer characteristics moderate the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

This study sought to determine the influence of consumer characteristics on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. To assess the moderating effect, Hypothesis five was formulated as follows:

H5: The strength of the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly moderated by consumer characteristics

This involved testing the main effects of the independent variable (country-of-origin) and moderator variable (consumer characteristics) on the dependent variable (consumer behaviour towards foreign brands) and the interaction between country-of-origin and consumer characteristics. The significance of the independent variable and the moderator

variable is not particularly relevant in determining moderation. Moderation is assumed to take place if the interaction between COO and consumer characteristics is significant.

To create an interaction term, country-of-origin and consumer characteristics measures were first centred and a single item indicator representing the product of the two measures calculated. The creation of a new variable by multiplying the scores of country-of-origin and the consumer characteristics factors risked creating a multicollinearity problem. To address the multicollinearity problem, which can affect the estimation of the regression coefficients for the main effects, the two factors were converted to standardized (Z) scores that have mean zero and standard deviation one. The two standardized variables (country-of-origin and the consumer characteristics) were then multiplied to create the interaction variable. The relevant analytical results are portrayed in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34: Regression results of the moderating effect

a) The Goodness-of-fit

	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R^2 Change	F Change	Df 1	Df 2	Sig. F Change
1	.845(a)	.715	.681	.04379	.715	7.698	1	61	.001
2	.902(b)	.814	.764	.07212	.099	9.491	1	63	.000

Source: Primary Data

b) The Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance (p-value)
Regression	.047	1	.029	11.153	0.002
Residual	.067	61	.013		
Total	.011	63			
Regression	.040	2	.024	18.248	0.000
Residual	.064	60	.013		
Total	.010	63			

Source: Primary Data

c) The Individual Significance

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-value	Significance (p-value)
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.863	.019		9828	.000
	Country-of-origin	.036	.021	.537	3.630	.018
	Consumer characteristics	.031	.023	.381	2.760	.108
2	(Constant)	.868	.011		86.973	.000
	Country-of-origin	.032	.021	.479	3.219	.035
	Consumer characteristics	.029	.023	.351	2.577	.143
	Product of Country-of-origin and consumer characteristics	.011	.018	.298	2.332	.020
Model 1. Predictors: (Constant), Consumer characteristics, Country-of-origin **Model 2. Predictors: (Constant), Consumer characteristics * Country-of-origin** **Dependent Variable: Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands**						

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.34 show that country-of-origin and consumer characteristics explained 71.5% of the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands (R^2=.715). Under the changed statistics, the results reveal that the R^2 change increased by .099% from .715 to .814 (R^2 change=.099) when the interaction variable (country-of-origin x consumer characteristics) was added. The change was statistically significant at α=.05 (p-value=.001). The results show a statistically significant relationship between country-of-origin, consumer characteristics and the interaction (F=18.248, p-value=.000).

The results in model 1 Table 4.34 (c) show statistically significant regression coefficients for country-of-origin (β=.537, p-value=.018) indicating that there is a linear dependence of consumer behaviour towards foreign brands on country-of-origin. On the other hand, there was a statistically significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands detected (β=.381, p-value=.108). Similarly, a statistically linear relationship of consumer behaviour towards foreign brands on the multiplicative term of country-of-origin and consumer characteristics was detected (β=.298, p=.020). This implies that changes in consumer characteristics positively and significantly affect the country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands' relationship as the direction of the relationship is now positive.

From the current research findings, the multiple regression equation used to estimate the moderating effect of consumer characteristics on the country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands relationship is stated as follows:

$Y=.868+.479X_1+.351Z+.298XZ+\varepsilon$

Where:

α=constant (intercept)

Y = consumer behaviour towards foreign brands
X_1=country-of-origin

Z= consumer characteristics

XZ= Product of country-of-origin and consumer characteristics

ε= Error term

It was established that the Beta coefficients for COO, consumer characteristics and product of COO and consumer characteristics are positive and therefore statistically significant to influence consumer behaviour. The hypothesis that consumer characteristics moderate the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is therefore supported. These findings are consistent with previous studies which have established that consumer characteristics moderate consumer behaviour. Floh and Treiblmaier, (2006) established that moderating variables

such as gender, age, involvement, variety seeking behaviour and technophobia exert a significant influence in some relationships where consumer loyalty is directly affected by satisfaction and trust.

Figure 4.5: Overall moderating effect of consumer characteristics on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

R^2=.715, β=.479, p-value=.001

β_1

β_2

R^2=.099, β=.351, p-value=.000

β_3

R^2=.814, β=.298, p-value=.000
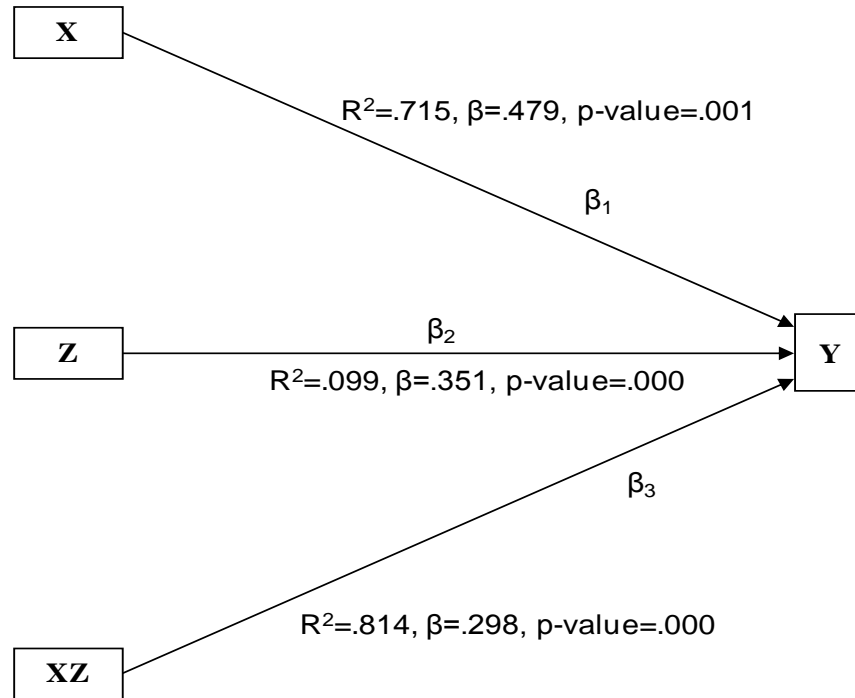
X=Independent variable, Z=Moderating variable, XZ=Interaction term and Y=Dependent variable

Source: Adopted from Fairchild and Mackinnon (2009)

The results in Figure 4.5 support the hypothesis that consumer characteristics influence the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brand through routes of moderating factors. The pertinent results show that R^2 increased from .715 to .814 when consumer characteristics were included. The results imply that consumer characteristics explain an additional 9.9% of the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands.

4.8.7 **The degree consumer attitudes influence the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands**

The study set out to assess the degree to which consumer attitudes influence the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The following hypothesis was formulated:

H6: The relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly mediated by consumer attitudes

First, consumer behaviour towards foreign brands was regressed on country-of-origin and the standardized regression coefficients (beta) examined to determine the size and direction of the relationship and whether it was statistically significant. If this relationship is not statistically significant, there can be no intervening effect. The pertinent results are summarized in Table 4.35.

Table 4.35: Regression Results of country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

(a) The Goodness-of-fit

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.854	.730	.710	.03412

Source: Primary Data

(b) The Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance (p-value)
Regression	.042	1	.062	18.163	0.000
Residual	.075	62	.004		
Total	.117	63			

Source: Primary Data

(c) The Individual Significance

Model	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t-value	Significance p-value
(Constant)	.567	.112		5.487	.000
Country-of-origin (COO)	.536	.136	.664	5.143	.000
a. Predictors: Country-of-origin					
b. Dependent Variable: Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.35 show that COO explains 73% of the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands (R^2=.730). The results indicate that the overall model is statistically significant at α=.05. The first step implies that the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is positive and statistically significant.

In the second step, a regression analysis to assess the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes was conducted. In this step, COO was treated as the independent variable and consumer attitudes as the dependent variable. The results are summarized in Table 4.36.

Table 4.36: Regression Results of country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands

a) The Goodness-of-fit

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
.809	.654	.626	.0746

Source: Primary Data

b) The Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance (p-value)
Regression	.318	1	.216	24.752	.000
Residual	.324	64	.114		
Total	.642	65			

Source: Primary Data

c) The Individual Significance

Model	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t-value	Significance p-value
(Constant)	.328	.117		3.030	.051
Country-of-origin	.623	.111	.654	4.564	.000
a. Predictors: Country-of-origin **b. Dependent Variable: Consumer attitudes towards foreign brands**					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.36 portray that country-of-origin explains 65.4 % of the variation in consumer attitudes towards foreign brands (R^2=.654). The results of the overall model

reveal that the relationship between COO and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands is positive and statistically significant at α=.05 (F=24.752, p-value=.000). This means that country-of-origin predicts consumer attitudes towards foreign brands.

Finally, a regression analysis was performed and the betas examined for the strength, direction and significance of the relationship. In step one, consumer behaviour towards foreign brands was regressed on the COO and in step two, consumer attitudes towards foreign brands was regressed on country-of-origin to assess if there was a significant change. When controlling for the effects of consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands, the effect of COO on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands should be statistically significant at α=.05. The relevant results are summarized in Table 4.37.

Table 4.37: Regression results of consumer attitudes and country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

a) The Goodness-of-fit

		R	R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R^2 Change	F Change	Df 1	Df 2	Sig. F Change
1	.653(a)	.854	.730	.0358	.730	19.241	1	61	.001
2	.873(b)	.901	.811	.0234	.081	31.554	1	60	.000

Source: Primary Data

b) The Overall Significance

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance (p-value)
Regression	.043	1	.038	23.183	.001
Residual	.054	60	.014		
Total	.097	61			
Regression	.065	2	.40	34.752	.000
Residual	.043	60	.013		
Total	.108	62			

Source: Primary Data

c) The Individual Significance

Model	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t-value	Significance p-value
(Constant)	.173	.095		1.815	.079
Consumer attitudes	.337	.067	.551	5.073	.000
Country-of-origin	.459	.087	.578	5.263	.000
a) Predictors: (Constant), Consumer attitude, Country-of-origin					
b) Dependent Variable: Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.37 show that consumer attitudes explain 73% of the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands (R^2 =.730). At step 2, country-of-origin, added significantly to consumer behaviour towards foreign brands as the variation increased from .730 to .811 (R^2 change=.081 p-value=.000). The results reveal that the

variance explained by consumer attitudes is significant (F=23.183, p-value=.001). The results revealed that the regression coefficients for country-of-origin increased from .653 to .873 when consumer attitudes were added to the regression suggesting that consumer attitudes exerted a strong mediating effect. The final regression model is therefore;

$Y= .173+.578X_1+.551M+\varepsilon$

Y = consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

X_1=country-of-origin

M=consumer attitudes

ε= Error term

Table 4.38: Summary of mediating effect of consumer attitudes on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

Analysis	R	R Square	R Square change	B	Significance (p-value)
Analysis one: Country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands	.854	.730	.730	.664	.000
Analysis two: Consumer attitudes on Country-of-origin	.809	.654	.076	.654	.020
Analysis three: Step 1: Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands on consumer attitudes	.854	.730	.076	.551	.000
Step 2: Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands on country-of-origin	.901	.811	.047	.578	.000

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.38 reveal that the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands was strong and statistically significant at $\alpha=.05$ ($R^2 =.730$, p-value=.000) while that of consumer attitudes on country-of-origin was also strong and statistically significant ($R^2=.654$, p-value=.020). The mediated relationship is represented in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6: Overall mediating effect of consumer attitudes on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands
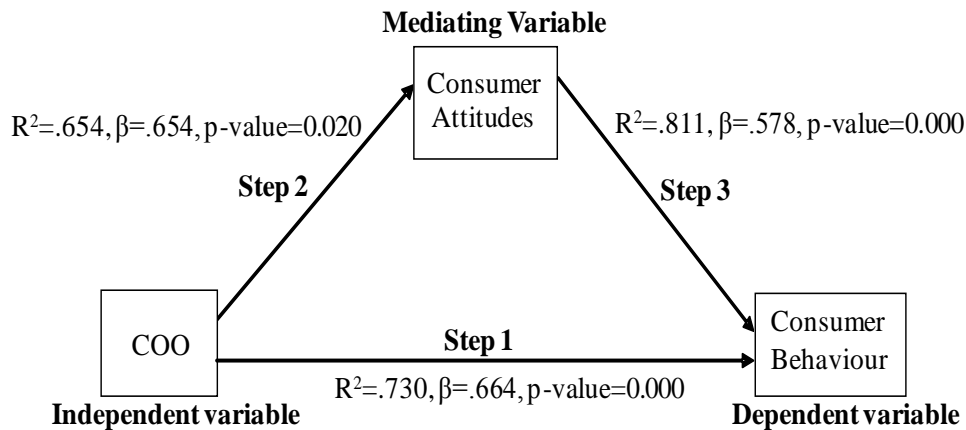
Source: Adopted from Fairchild and Mackinnon (2009)

The results in Figure 4.6 support the hypothesis that consumer attitudes influence the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands through routes of intermediate factors. The pertinent results show that R^2 increased from .730 to .811 when consumer attitudes were included. The results imply that consumer attitudes explain an additional 8.1% of the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. The results indicate that the effect of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands mediated by consumer attitudes is significant at 0.05 significance level. The final regression model also established that the Beta coefficients for COO and consumer attitudes are positive and therefore statistically significant to influence consumer behaviour. The current study findings echo previous studies that assert consumer attitudes are relatively consistent with the behaviour they reflect and much as

they do change they are normally expected to correspond with behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1992).

4.8.8   The extent to which the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is influenced by consumer characteristics and by consumer attitudes

The research sought to determine the joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. To assess the combined effect, Hypothesis seven was formulated as follows:

H7: The joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes towards foreign brands and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly greater than their individual variable effects

The relevant results for the joint effect are as summarized in Table 4.39.

Table 4.39: Regression results of the independent, mediating and moderating variables on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

a) The Goodness-of-Fit

Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R^2 change	F-change	df	df	Sig. F change (p-value)
1	.854	.730	.710	.0442	.730	14.857	1	61	.000
2	.809	.654	.626	.0845	.076	21.544	1	60	.000
3	.924	.854	.730	.0448	.124	33.736	1	59	.023
4	.949	.901	.811	.0345	.047	35.089	1	58	.000

Source: Primary Data

b) The Overall Significance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Significance (p-value)
1	Regression	.042	1	.062	18.163	.000
	Residual	.075	62	.004		
	Total	.117	63			
2	Regression	.318	1	.216	24.752	.000
	Residual	.324	64	.114		
	Total	.642	65			
3	Regression	.043	1	.038	23.183	.001
	Residual	.054	60	.014		
	Total	.097	61			
4	Regression	.065	2	.40	34.752	.000
	Residual	.043	60	.013		
	Total	.108	62			

Source: Primary Data

c) The individual significance

Model	Un-standardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std Error	Beta	t-value	Significance p-value
(Constant)	.798	.095		1.815	.079
Country-of- origin	.623	.111	.553	4.564	.000
Consumer attitudes	.734	.222	.643	5.443	.000
Consumer characteristics	.483	.347	.647	4.931	.063
Country-of-origin, consumer characteristics and consumer attitudes	.536	.236	.764	5.143	.000
a) Predictors: Country-of- origin, consumer attitude, customer characteristics **b) Dependent Variable: consumer behaviour towards foreign brands**					

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.39 reveal that the joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics explain 91% of the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands (R^2=.901). The results show that variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands may be explained by country-of-origin (R^2 =.730), consumer attitudes (R^2=.654) and consumer characteristics (R^2=.854). The results show that the joint effect of the study variables is statistically significant (F=34.752, p-value=.000). This implies that the study variables jointly predict consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. The regression model that was used to estimate consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands taking into consideration the joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics is stated as follows:

$Y=.798+.553X+.647Z+.643M+.764XZ+\varepsilon$

Where:
α=constant (intercept)
Y=consumer behaviour towards foreign brands
X=is the composite index of country-of-origin
Z=is the composite index of consumer characteristics
M= is the composite index of consumer attitudes
XZ= is the composite index of country-of-origin, consumer characteristics and consumer attitudes
ε=the error term

It was established that the Beta coefficients for COO, consumer characteristics, attitudes and the composite index of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes are positive and therefore statistically significant to influence consumer behaviour. The hypothesis that the joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes towards foreign brands and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly greater than their individual variable effects is supported.

Table 4.40: Summary of Research Objectives, Hypotheses and Conclusions

Objective	Hypothesis	Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (r)	R	R^2	Levels of Significance (p-value)	Conclusion
1. Assess the influence of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H1: There is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in the clothing market in Nairobi, Kenya	.723	.854	.730	.000	H_1 was supported
2. Determine the influence of country-of-origin on consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands	H2: There is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands	.851	.809	.654	.000	H_2 was supported
3. Establish the influence of consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H3: There is a significant relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands	.621	.907	.823	.000	H_3 was supported
4. Assess the influence of consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H4: There is a significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands	.553	.715	.511	.000	H_4 was supported

Table 4.30: Summary of Research Objectives, Hypotheses and Conclusions…contd

Objective	Hypothesis	Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (r)	R	R^2	Levels of Significance (p-value)	Conclusion
5. Determine the extent to which consumer characteristics influence the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H5: The strength of the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly moderated by consumer characteristics	-	.902	.814	.000	H_5 was supported
6. Assess the degree to which consumer attitudes influence the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H6: The relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly mediated by consumer attitudes	-	.901	.811	.000	H_6 was supported
7. Establish the joint effect of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands	H7: The joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes towards foreign brands and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly greater than their individual variable effects	-	.949	.901	.000	H_7 was supported

Source: Primary Data

The results in Table 4.40 show statistically significant positive relationships between country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands, country-of-origin on consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands, consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The study further supports the hypothesis that consumer characteristics moderate the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands and that consumer attitudes mediate the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. Similarly the hypothesis that the collective effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly greater than their individual variable effects is supported.

The hypothesis was also supported by PPMC (r) which found that the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=.723, p-value=000). The relationship between COO and consumer attitudes is positive and very strong at .851. Similarly, the relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is strong, positive and statistically significant (r=.621, p-value=000).

However the relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is positive but moderately significant (r=.553, p-value=000). This implies that the study variables considered namely country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics play a critical role of influencing consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands in Nairobi County. This suggests that consumers are keen on COO as far as their buying behaviour of clothes is concerned. The study also reveals that attitudes play a crucial role in influencing consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. These results conform to the assertion by Fürstner and Anišić (2010) that it is necessary to have a holistic approach for adaptive involvement of customers as co-creators in mass customization of products and services by identifying different consumer profiles that suit each individual consumer's needs and limitations.

Based on the results and conclusion of the study, the findings are presented in the modified conceptual model in Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7: Modified Conceptual Model
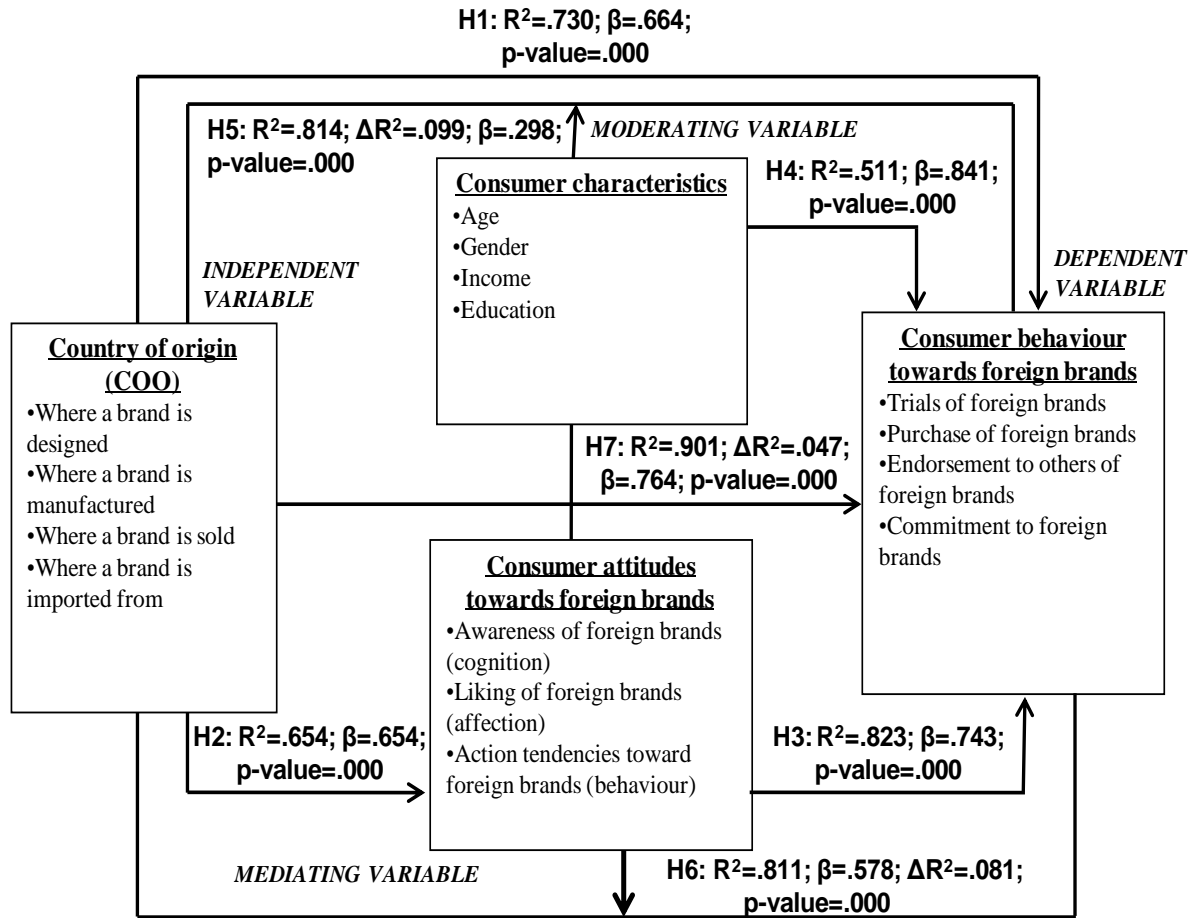
Source: Current Researcher, 2014

Figure 4.7 depicts the seven hypotheses of this study based on the premise that there is a relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands with this relationship moderated by consumer characteristics and mediated by consumer attitudes towards foreign brands. The results show that the joint effect of the study variables is statistically significant at 0.05 significance level.

4.9 Discussion

This section discusses the results in accordance with the objectives and the conceptual hypotheses of this study. The researcher developed a conceptual framework derived from

the existing COO literature and empirically tested the relationships among the variables in relation to the hypotheses.

4.9.1 The relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

The relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands in Nairobi, Kenya was revealed to be positive and statistically significant with COO explaining 73% of the variation in consumer behaviour. The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (r) of .723 further indicated that there is a strong and significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. Majority of those interviewed responded that their clothes are imported, a few indicated that their clothes are both made in Kenya and imported with even fewer indicating that their clothes are only made in Kenya. This implies that the COO phenomenon strongly influences consumer behaviour in Kenya as earlier hypothesized. Whilst most respondents demonstrated a good idea about their preferred source countries, clearly naming and ranking them, there is a likelihood that even a few who may not be quite knowledgeable about the subtleties of country-of-origin assume that their clothes are imported and may want to be associated with them probably for prestige reasons. Majority of Nairobians therefore search, evaluate and purchase foreign clothing brands based largely on the influence of the COO concept. This strong leaning towards foreign clothing brands implies that imported brands are preferred compared to locally made ones with factors such as where a brand is designed, made, sold and imported from motivating consumer behaviour.

These findings are consistent with those of Batra et al. (2000) who established that perceived foreign brand effect was greater for consumers who have a greater admiration for lifestyles in economically developed countries. According to Opoku and Akorli (2009) COO is more important than price and other product attributes and at least as important as brand name, in the Ghanaian consumer choice. Suwannaporn and Linnenmann (2008) also found that COO was frequently mentioned as an important criterion in buying rice in rice-eating countries and was the most distinctive of all buying criteria between the Asian, European and Australian consumers studied. Similarly Fianu

147

and Harrison-Arthur's (2007) research focused on Ghanaian workers and found that those who looked for labels (for information including manufacturer's/brand name, price and COO) while shopping for fabrics were 75%, whereas 83% looked for labels when selecting ready-made clothing to determine the quality. While quoting a study by a local research firm Ipsos Synovate, Njoki (2013) states that 52% of Kenyans preferred international clothing brands designed abroad and imported to Kenya, against 48% who preferred locally made clothes. The higher preference rate for foreign clothing brands among Kenyans (89.76%) established in the current study may be due to the higher disposable incomes and exposure Nairobians have the benefit of, compared to other Kenyans living outside the City, hence the comparatively lower countrywide preference rate found by the Ipsos Synovate study.

4.9.2   The relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands

It was established that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands in Nairobi, Kenya. Further the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (r) of .851 showed that there is a strong and significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands. In the overall attitude towards imported clothes the mean score of 4.45 recorded is indicative of favourable attitudes associated with each country consistent with the importance attached to each country the respondents mentioned. It can be deduced that the respondents have positive attitudes towards foreign clothes given the high average mean score across the three countries they reported on. Using the CAB model of attitudes (Solomon, 1996) that this study employed, awareness, liking and action tendencies towards foreign brands collectively registered a fairly high overall mean score of 3.917. These findings imply that the positive relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour already established is premised on strong positive attitudes towards foreign clothing brands influenced by country-of-origin.

These findings are consistent with those of other scholars such as Bhuian (1997) who found that extant COO research has contributed considerable understanding of consumer attitudes in various countries towards foreign products and provided significant insights

into the importance of such knowledge, though empirical research on the attitudes of consumers in developing countries towards foreign products, and associated marketing practices, is somewhat limited. Batra et al. (2000) assert that among consumers in developing countries, brands seen as being sourced overseas, especially from the West are viewed as endowing prestige and cosmopolitanism and thus enhancing the consumer's social identity. Chen (2010) notes that the rational or cognitive factor of COO is the perceived quality of foreign product which tends to be evaluated according to technical, advancement, prestige, workmanship, economy and service. However COO is not merely another cognitive cue but also has a symbolic and emotional meaning for consumers (Sharma, 2011).

4.9.3 The relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands

It was also established that the relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands in Nairobi, Kenya was positive and statistically significant as far as country-of-origin is concerned. Consumer attitudes had a significantly high influence on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands (82.3%), suggesting that it accounted substantially for the change in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands either positive or negative. The Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (r) of .621 further indicated that there is a strong and significant relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. Again this is premised on the strong relationship already established between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. This implies that the COO influence translates into high preference for imported clothing brands which over time evolves into positive attitudes that in turn strongly influence consumer behaviour.

These findings concur with Ming-huei (2004) who asserts that COO influences information processing and has an impact on product evaluation, consequently affecting product evaluation and subsequent purchase behaviour not only directly but also indirectly through beliefs. Gwin (2009) contends that a strong brand preference is considered to be an effort-reducing strategy by consumers to simplify information search and brand choice from an attitudinal context.

4.9.4 The relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

It was established that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. This implies that consumer characteristics comprising age, gender, income and education collectively influence consumer behaviour indicators comprising trials of foreign brands, purchase of foreign brands, endorsement to others of foreign brands and commitment to foreign brands. Notable however is that out of the consumer characteristics studied, age and gender combined influence only 9.8% of the variation in consumer behavior but after adding education and income the influence improved to 51%. In addition the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (r) of .553 showed that there is a fairly strong and significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands.

This implies that much as this study targeted female and male adults above 20 years old, age and gender of the respondents has a minimal influence on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands compared to income and education which have a significantly high influence. This therefore suggests that regardless of men, women or various age groups, favourable behaviour towards foreign brands increased with rising incomes and education. This also implies that as the consumers' incomes and education grow they are likely to increase their preference and buying of foreign brands based on country-of-origin to match their increasing purchasing capacity and knowledge of country sources of various products as they seek to improve their social status and prestige.

These findings are consistent with those of other scholars such as Opoku and Akorli (2009) who established that in underdeveloped countries, preference for domestic products is weaker with situational personal characteristics, such as motivation, influencing use of country-of-origin attributes to evaluate services. Having established the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour Batra et al. (2000) argued that this effect was also moderated by product category familiarity among the consumers in developing countries that were studied.

4.9.5 The moderating effect of consumer characteristics on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

The moderating effect of consumer characteristics on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands revealed a positive and statistically significant index. It was established that whereas country-of-origin and consumer characteristics combined explained 71.5% of the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands the introduction of the moderating effect of consumer characteristics increased this by 9.9% to 81.4%. This implies that changes in consumer characteristics positively and significantly affect the influence of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. Among the consumer characteristics studied the moderating effect of age and gender can be discounted given their combined low influence suggesting that education and income contribute to the highest moderating influence. Again this implies that as the consumers' incomes and education grow they are likely to increase their preference and buying of foreign brands based on COO to match their increasing purchasing capacity and knowledge of country sources of various products with a view to increasing their social status and prestige.

This is consistent with other researchers such as Alexander et al. (2005) who found that the Lebanese tended to perceive the United States as having relatively superior power, inferior cultural status, and goals that are incompatible with those of Lebanon. Batra et al. (2000) also established that among consumers in developing countries, brands seen as being sourced overseas, especially from the West are viewed as endowing prestige and cosmopolitanism and, thus enhancing the consumer's social identity.

4.9.6 The mediating effect of consumer attitudes on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

The current study revealed that there is a positive and statistically significant mediating effect of consumer attitudes on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. The pertinent results established that country-of-origin influences consumer attitudes towards foreign brands through routes of intermediate factors. The pertinent results show that consumer attitudes explain 73% of the variation in

consumer behaviour towards foreign brands but when combined with COO the variation increased from 73% to 81.1% when consumer attitudes were included representing an additional 8.1%. This implies that consumer attitudes exert a strong mediating effect on the already significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. Consumers in Nairobi therefore have over time developed strong positive attitudes towards foreign clothing brands based on COO that ultimately influences their behaviour towards foreign brands.

The current research findings echo previous studies that assert consumer attitudes are relatively consistent with the behaviour they reflect and much as they do change they are normally expected to correspond with behaviour (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1992). Adamantios et al. (2011) established that COO image impacts purchase intentions indirectly and its influence is mediated by brand image. Batra et al. (2000) found that among consumers in developing countries, brands perceived as having a nonlocal COO effect, especially from the West, are attitudinally preferred to brands seen as local.

4.9.7 The joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes towards foreign brands and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands

This study sought to establish the extent to which the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is influenced by consumer characteristics and by consumer attitudes. The joint effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands revealed a positive and statistically significant index. Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands was attributable to 91% of the combined effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics. Whereas the shared influence was quite high the individual contribution by each variable was significantly high with consumer characteristics leading at 85.4%, followed by country-of-origin (73%) and consumer attitudes (65.4%). This implies that these study variables jointly predict consumer behaviour towards foreign brands as hypothesized.

These findings are consistent with those of other researchers. On individual factors that may facilitate or inhibit reliance on COO, Schaefer (1995) contends that the magnitude of source country effect is affected by environmental and individual factors. Yim et al. (2007) found that as globalisation of the world's economies progresses COO continues to influence consumer behaviour implying that the concept remains an area of ongoing interest in international marketing. Ming-huei (2004) found that consumers also use brand origin as a cue to generate inferential beliefs when other information is not available.

4.10   Chapter Summary

Chapter four presented the results of the key research variables and how the hypotheses tests were computed in order to realize the objectives. The results revealed statistically significant results at 0.05 significance level between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands; country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands; the mediating effect of consumer attitudes on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands; moderating effect of consumer characteristics on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands; and the overall combined effect of country-of-origin, consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands.

Finally the chapter presented the discussion of the results consistent with the theoretical and the empirical studies. Having adopted a positivistic research philosophy the findings sought to explain causal relationships among the variables related to the country-of-origin concept in Nairobi. The findings comprise the results of the data screening tests, descriptive statistics, correlations, and results of tests of the study hypotheses.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The principal purpose of this study was to establish the effect of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands in Nairobi, Kenya. This chapter provides a summary of the major findings of the study, discussion on theory and practice and conclusions. It also highlights the limitations of the research and outlines proposed areas for future research. The first objective was to assess the influence of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The second objective sought to determine the influence of country-of-origin on consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands.

The third objective was to establish the influence of consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands while the fourth objective aimed at assessing the influence of consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The focus of the fifth objective was to determine the extent to which consumer characteristics moderate the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The sixth objective sought to assess the degree to which consumer attitudes influence the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands while the seventh objective aimed at establishing the joint effect of COO, consumer characteristics and attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

Consumer characteristics included gender, age distribution, income and highest level of education attained. On age distribution the study established that majority of the respondents who are responsible for the purchase of their own clothing were between 31-40 years and therefore their feedback could be relied upon to make comprehensive conclusions in the research. Further the findings revealed that majority (34.91%) of the respondents surveyed had an income ranging between Ksh 30,001-40,00 This was followed by 26.51% who indicated that their gross monthly income is up to Ksh 30,000

with only 22.05% and 16.54% indicating that their gross income ranged from Ksh 40,001-50,000 and over Ksh 50,000 respectively.

The study had also sought to establish the highest level of education attained by the respondents. The results reveal that the respondents targeted had a relatively high level of qualification holding university first degree, college diploma certificates, secondary certificate, postgraduate PhD with few having up to primary schooling. This implies that the respondents have the relevant knowledge on foreign clothing brands and therefore their responses can be relied upon to make study conclusions. On the COO construct the findings revealed that majority (89.76%) of the respondents reported that their clothes are imported, with a few (6.83%) indicating that their clothes are both made in Kenya and imported and very few (3.41%) indicating that their clothes are made in Kenya. This is consistent with Elliott and Cameron (1994) who found out that consumers have preconceived, stereotypical attitudes towards products identified as being made in certain foreign countries.

On the most important countries of imported clothes as far as the respondents' buying was concerned, Italy had the highest score which implies that it is the most preferred country of imported clothes. In order of preference Italy was followed closely by UK, China, South Africa and USA in 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th position respectively. Germany, Singapore and Philippines were ranked the least preferred. Noteworthy too is that among African countries only South Africa and Ethiopia were mentioned with a relatively good ranking at 4th and 6th position respectively. In view of the above findings, it can be argued that Nairobians prefer clothes largely from developed countries.

Regarding the country where imported clothes are designed the statement that they promote the respondents' image scored the highest. In terms of affordability of clothes, imported brands were rated relatively poorly. This implies that consumers prefer clothes which are expensive for prestige purposes reinforced by the fact that they come from a foreign country. This is consistent with the contention by some scholars that brands chosen by consumers especially in developing countries often serve non-utilitarian functions, such as symbolic acquisition and communication of social distinctions, particularly status (Douglas et al., 1979; Ger et al., 1993). Fianu and Harrison-Arthur

(2007) whose study focused on Ghanaian workers found that those who looked for labels such as COO while shopping for fabrics were 75% when selecting ready-made clothing to determine the quality.

COO is not merely another cognitive cue but also has a symbolic and emotional meaning for consumers, according to Sharma (2011). The current research also sought to determine consumer attitudes towards foreign brands. In the overall attitude a mean score of 4.45 was registered. From the results it can be deduced that the respondents have a positive attitude towards foreign clothes given the high average mean scores of the three countries. This is further reinforced by the specific components of consumer attitudes using the CAB model which collectively registered a fairly high overall mean score of 3.917. The results also revealed that buying imported clothes gives respondents a lot of pleasure and happiness with this tendency associated highly with imported clothing items for special events such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter. This is supported by the assertion by Thakor and Pacheco (1997) that foreign branding tends to influence consumers' perceptions and attitudes. Chen (2010) also supports this view stating that the rational or cognitive factor of COO is the perceived quality of foreign product which tends to be evaluated according to technical, advancement, prestige, workmanship, economy and service.

To evaluate consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands, the sub-components measured were: trials of foreign brands; purchase of foreign brands; endorsement to others of foreign brands and; commitment to foreign brands. On account of overall consumer behaviour the results show that an overall mean score of 3.113 was established. Trials of imported clothing brands had the highest overall mean score of 4.23 followed by commitment to foreign clothing brands with an overall mean score of 3.155. This implies that the respondents have a high admiration for foreign clothing brands which prompts them to engage in trials such as window shopping sometimes without necessarily translating into actual purchase probably because they may not afford the items at that given time. In addition the high rate of trials may suggest that they engage in price and quality comparisons before deciding what to buy.

After the trials the second most important activity is commitment which suggests they have to get fully convinced about the brands before engaging in real purchase. Actual purchase of foreign clothing brands had an overall mean score of 2.787 followed by endorsement of imported clothing brands with the lowest mean of 2.28. This suggests that actual purchase is preceded by a rigorous process of trials and commitment with endorsement to others coming only after consumers have experienced the brands. To some extent the phases the consumers go through as found in this study echo the different models of consumer response stages summarized as the four best-known response hierarchy models that is AIDA, Hierarchy-of-Effects, Innovation-Adoption and Communications model (Kotler, 2001). To some degree the phases reflect the sequential models that behavioural scientists (such as Lancaster & Massingham, 1998) have formulated to explain the process consumers pass through on their way to action or purchase.

It is notable that the findings obtained in this study using the primary data were supported by secondary data to a large extent. Some of the countries with high exports to Kenya such as Italy, UK, China, USA, South Africa and Turkey as shown by the secondary data were mentioned by respondents as their preferred sources of foreign clothing brands, thus confirming that their behaviour based on COO phenomenon as derived from the primary data can be relied on to a great degree. It can also be argued that the steady increase in recent years of fabric imports in terms of volume and value as revealed by the secondary data may be associated with the high influence of COO on consumer behaviour as established by this study.

5.3 Conclusions

The findings of this study affirm the assertion by Klein et al. (1998) that researchers in marketing are beginning to investigate and understand the marketplace behaviour of global consumers and have developed various models to explain how attributes are evaluated and integrated into overall product judgments and purchase decisions. The first objective of the study was to assess the influence of country-of-origin on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands.

The results show that country-of-origin had a statistically significant influence on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. The study had further set to determine the influence of country-of-origin on consumer attitudes towards foreign clothing brands. The results indicated that COO had a statistically significant influence on consumer attitudes towards foreign brands. The overall model reveals a statistically significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands. This implies that COO influences consumer attitudes towards foreign brands. The hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between country-of-origin and consumer attitudes towards foreign brands is therefore supported.

The second objective was to assess the influence of consumer attitudes on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. Consumer attitudes comprised awareness of foreign brands (cognition), liking of foreign brands (affection) and action tendencies towards foreign brands (behaviour). Respondents had been asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed on the dimensions of consumer attitudes. Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands indicators were trials of foreign brands, purchase of foreign brands, endorsement to others of foreign brands and commitment to foreign brands. The hypothesis was tested to assess the relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The results indicated that consumer attitudes towards foreign brands had a statistically significant influence on consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. The hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between consumer attitudes and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is therefore supported.

In assessing the influence of consumer characteristics on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands, consumer characteristics comprised age, gender, income and education. Respondents had been asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed on the consumer characteristics dimensions. Consumer behaviour towards foreign brands indicators were trials of foreign brands, purchase of foreign brands, endorsement to others of foreign brands and commitment to foreign brands. The results revealed that age and gender combined explain the variation in consumer behaviour towards foreign brands but at lower levels. When the effect of education and income was added the model

improved significantly and the change was statistically significant. The relationship between the age and gender of the respondents and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is not statistically significant. This implies that the age and gender of customers do not significantly influence consumer behaviour towards foreign brands at α=0.05 but income and education significantly influence consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. This may be attributed to the price and prestige associated with buying behaviour. The overall results therefore support the hypothesis that there is a statistically significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands.

The study determined the influence of consumer characteristics on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. The results show statistically significant regression coefficients for COO indicating that there is a linear dependence of consumer behaviour towards foreign brands on country-of-origin. On the other hand, there was a statistically significant relationship between consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands that was detected. Similarly, a statistically linear relationship of consumer behaviour towards foreign brands on the multiplicative term of country-of-origin and consumer characteristics was detected. This implies that changes in the consumer characteristics positively and significantly affect COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands as the direction of the relationship is now positive. The results therefore support the hypothesis that the strength of the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands is significantly moderated by consumer characteristics.

The study also assessed the degree to which consumer attitudes influence the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. First, consumer behaviour towards foreign brands was regressed on country-of-origin and the standardized regression coefficients (beta) examined to determine the size and direction of the relationship and whether it was statistically significant. The results reveal that there is a significant relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands while that of consumer attitudes on country-of-origin was also strong and statistically significant. The results support the hypothesis that consumer attitudes

159

influence the relationship between COO and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands through routes of intermediate factors. The hypothesis that the joint effect of the independent, intervening and moderating variables on consumer behaviour is greater than their individual variable effects was statistically significant and was supported. Consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics therefore had intervening and moderating effect respectively on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands.

5.4 Implications of the Research Findings

The current research examined the relationship between country-of-origin, consumer attitudes, consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands. The mediating role of consumer attitudes towards foreign brands and the moderating role of consumer characteristics were also explored. The study results present theoretical and policy implications.

5.4.1 Theoretical Implications

The findings from this research present a number of issues that have implications for the International Marketing Theory and Consumer Behaviour Theory. This study sought to determine whether COO effects exist in Kenya and to what extent, combined with consumer attitudes and characteristics, consumer behaviour towards foreign brands in the Kenyan market can be attributed to them. The findings provide support for the hypothesized direct relationship that country-of-origin phenomenon influences consumer behaviour and from a developing country perspective the study has delineated conditions under which source country effects account for consumer attitudes and behaviour. The theoretical contribution it has made will build on the present understanding of the COO construct taking cognisance of specific prevailing behavioural circumstances in a developing market such as Kenya.

As a pioneering research on the COO construct in Kenya it has contributed a local dimension to the advancement of the International marketing theory by providing insights into how the COO phenomenon influences consumer behaviour with consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics factors playing mediating and moderating roles respectively

in the association. This has enhanced the theoretical foundations of the COO concept by using an integrated approach where all the key variables are studied in one research unlike previous studies (Yim et al., 2007; Nguyen et al., 2008) where the variables have been researched singly or at best two variables at a time.

From a methodological perspective the current study incorporated the use of both primary and secondary data. This approach unlike many COO studies (Samiee, 1994; Thakor and Pacheco, 1997) enabled corroboration of primary data analysis and findings with those based on secondary data. To some extent the two sources of data showed consistency and supported the premise of this study that country-of-origin phenomenon influences consumer behaviour.

In addition a three dimension approach was introduced to the current research which analysed the relationship between country-of-origin, consumer attitudes, consumer characteristics and consumer behaviour towards foreign brands by measuring the variables across three countries ranked 1st, 2nd and 3rd. The three dimension approach was useful for the descriptive research design employed in this study as it allowed for quantitative description of trends, attitudes, opinions of the population and enabled accurate estimation of the population parameters and subsequent generalization as recommended by Burns and Bush (2010) in this case across three countries. The three dimension approach was also relevant in understanding the variables researched using the descriptive research design which as recommended by Sproull (1995) is especially useful when attitudes and behaviour constitute the variables of analysis in the problem being studied. The three dimension approach is an improvement on the methodology employed in conducting most COO studies which often focus on the influence of one country at a time (Klein et al., 1998; Elliott & Cameron, 1994; Opoku & Akorli, 2009). In this regard the approach enabled understanding COO influence on consumer behaviour in terms of ranking clothing brand preferences based on 22 countries that were mentioned by the respondents.

From a theoretical perspective the research has also contributed by adding two specific enabler variables namely; consumer attitudes and consumer characteristics as mediator and moderator variables respectively. There was a positive and significant mediating

161

effect of consumer attitudes on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign behaviour while consumer characteristics had positive and significant direct effect on the relationship between country-of-origin and consumer behaviour towards foreign behaviour. Most existing theories (Adamantios et al., 2011) focus on COO influence and ignore the cascade of moderating and mediating effects that drive those preconditions.

The study has enriched the body of COO knowledge which despite the existence of numerous studies its degree and mechanism of influence remains unresolved (Thakor & Pacheco, 1997) resulting in an apparent lack of a coherent conceptual framework on the construct. Having been subjected to a rigorous and robust hypothetical testing methodology, the conceptual framework developed in this study can be applied in studying the COO phenomenon especially in other developing countries' context. The findings generally corroborate previous studies that COO influences consumer behaviour towards foreign brands thereby expanding the scope of theoretical knowledge and foundations of the COO concept that are premised on how consumers use a brand's origin as a cue in inferring its quality and acceptability (Chen, 2010). They support the assertion by Chen (2010) that the rational or cognitive factor of COO is the perceived quality of foreign product which tends to be evaluated according to technical, advancement, prestige, workmanship, economy and service. The current research also concurs with the contention by Batra et al. (2000) that perceived brand foreign effect is greater for consumers who have a greater admiration for lifestyles in economically developed countries.

5.4.2   Policy Implications

The results of this study have some implications that can be useful at national policy level. The research has provided an international marketing and consumer behaviour dimension to understanding challenges in the Kenyan clothing sector which is useful in developing holistic solutions given that most studies of the local industry have focused on economic and managerial aspects. It has given a better understanding of additional factors affecting the industry that will help to address them expeditiously by focusing on the COO influence which is hitherto not sufficiently studied. This will provide practical

solutions and facilitate the development of relevant marketing policies and business strategies by manufacturers, distributors, retailers, international and local marketing practitioners, governments, NGOs and other players. Specifically it will enrich understanding of COO dynamics in the clothing business as the country seeks to achieve Kenya Vision 2030 goal of attracting new retailers into the Kenyan market and increasing the market share of products sold through formal channels in order to contribute to GDP growth (Kenya Vision 2030).

Kenya's strategy for revitalizing textile enterprises to boost textile industry through creating a conducive environment, improved efficiency and competitiveness at industry level, including entrepreneur training will need to consider the COO influence related factors engendered by this research. Efforts by Government to revive the textile and clothing sector, will now be better informed by country-of-origin considerations especially in addressing the challenges affecting the industry partly by spearheading the Special Economic Zones (EPZ) Bill which according to Kapchanga (2013) aims to fast-track investments by facilitating investments across other independent sectors. Should the Government consider that COO influence is too entrenched in Kenyans as found in this study and that on this account persuading Kenyans to buy locally made clothing may take time to bear fruit, then the alternative can be to focus on the textile export opportunities provided by AGOA particularly now that during the recent US Africa Summit the US administration repledged its support for a general renewal.

In developing relevant marketing policies and business strategies the players especially manufacturers, distributors, retailers, international and local marketing practitioners in the clothing business will have to factor in the finding that Nairobians and probably by extension the rest of the country are greatly influenced by the COO phenomenon. With such a great foreign influence these players will likely need to brand the clothing items along the lines of the countries that proved the most favourite with consumers such as Italy, UK, China, South Africa and USA. The fact that respondents demonstrated the high importance they attach to foreign clothing brands during special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter, implies that marketing and retailing strategies/policies should take this into consideration. This is because consumers

need to portray a good fashion impression and also boost their ego during these instances which are normally characterized by high demand. In this regard respondents indicated they usually have a good idea of where to buy imported clothes, window-shop/look out for them and that this gives them great pleasure. Alternatively those keen on promoting local fashion brands will have to invest in major and effective attitude and behaviour change marketing programs to persuade consumers to switch to local brands.

5.4.3   Implications for Practitioners

The considerably high inclination towards foreign clothing brands among consumers equally has implications for the Government and other agencies (such as the Brand Kenya Board, Kenya Investment Authority and Kenya Association of Manufacturers, Kenya Private Sector Alliance and Kenya Association of Hoteliers & Caterers) spearheading the 'Buy Kenyan build Kenya' campaign. These players need to invest in comprehensive attitude and behaviour change marketing programs to persuade consumers to switch to local brands if various efforts being made are to succeed in convincing Kenyans to change their behaviour by buying locally made products in order to support economic growth. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1992), like in the case of attitude formation, attitude changes are learned, they are influenced by personal experience and other sources of information, and personality affects both the receptivity and the speed with which attitudes are likely to be altered. Consequently altering consumer attitudes is a key strategy consideration for most marketers and a raft of attitude change strategies exist that can be classified into various categories (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1992).

It is likely that the considerably high COO influence on consumer behaviour established in this study among Kenyans is not confined to clothing products only but also affects other products such as building materials, foodstuffs, music, film and beauty items. Unless the COO factor is addressed it is unlikely that Kenya's quest to achieve global competitiveness within a framework of balanced trade (Ongwae, 2013) through the 'Buy Kenyan build Kenya' initiative will succeed to persuade consumers to buy Kenyan products and services in order to contribute to economic growth, employment creation and improved livelihoods as envisaged. The Brand Kenya Board in particular needs to

develop effective marketing strategies to induce patriotism and national pride in locally made products. This will need to take into account the recommendation by Klein et al. (1998) and Elliott and Cameron (1994) that the exceptional situation where brands made in developing countries may be perceived favourably and thereby preferred by citizens is where there is high patriotism, national pride, or consumer ethnocentrism or where there is a general preference for locally made products when the price and quality of the locally made product is the same or better.

The high competition local brands face from second hand imported clothes which are quite popular especially with low income earners needs to be addressed given that if locally made clothes are to be promoted successfully their price and quality compared to that of imported clothing brands has to be equivalent or better. Efforts to promote locally designed brands will equally have to be addressed seriously given the deeply entrenched COO dynamics among Kenyans already established in this research. As Gachara (2014) notes, awareness needs to be created in Kenya and East Africa about locally designed fashion which has not yet become as main stream as it is getting in Nigeria, South Africa and the West. Upcoming local fashion designers such as Muhoho Kenyatta need to be supported and promoted for their designs to continue being viewed positively and bought as recommended by Jiwaji (2013). Similarly to ensure that Kenyan fashion is nurtured the proposal by Akinyi (2014) needs to be considered that the country should start looking at fashion critically by addressing it as a business that has serious players and not merely as a hobby. It will be useful to monitor and understand the impact on local designers and their brands as well as effect on consumers after a major fashion event incorporating both local and international designers dubbed 'Kenya Worldwide Fashion Week' that was held in Nairobi in August 2014.

In terms of enhancing knowledge of the Kenyan clothing sector, this study has gone beyond the economic and managerial factors that most studies have attributed to the challenges facing the local industry by providing an international marketing and consumer behaviour dimension. By assessing product origin phenomenon affecting local clothing brands the research has helped to understand related factors within the country-of-origin context as well as offer a new and valuable dimension, already applied in other

165

parts of the globe to comprehend the sector's challenges. As a pioneering local research on COO phenomenon, the study has provided an understanding of brand origin related factors in Kenya which is of vital interest in globalization and as described by Katsikeas (2003) is characterized by the rise of global business, stemming from the convergence of economic conditions world-wide, the liberalization of national trade policies, regional economic integration, and advances in communication, transportation, and information technologies.

The results of mediating and moderation testing have several managerial implications. Foremost, given that consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands is mediated by consumer attitudes, traders in imported clothing need to routinely survey consumer attitudes so as to keep track of key perception attributes at any given time particularly the countries whose brands are preferred by consumers. Secondly the results of the test for moderation effect suggest that consumer characteristics such as age, gender, income and education affect consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands and therefore need to be factored in marketing strategies for the clothing business. In particular market segmentation strategies should be aligned to income and education given that this study established that they significantly influence consumer behaviour towards foreign brands which may be attributed to the price and prestige associated with buying behaviour as those with higher incomes and education exhibit more favourable behaviour towards foreign brands. In this regard Batra et al. (2003) advocates that a market can be segmented on the basis of varying degrees of attitudes: positive, neutral and negative held by the potential consumers of an advertising media, making it necessary for the marketer to understand what attitudes, beliefs and benefits are most important in the market situation and in particular which of them are determinant in media choice. Though not found to be quite significant, gender needs and wants with regard to fashion should also be factored in marketing programs as recommended by Bahl (2005) that fashion influences men and women differently with females following it more closely than men because their daily selection of dressing affects the way they are perceived by others.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

Although this study helped to shed light on the dynamics of COO influence on consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands in a key sector of the country, it was subject to a number of limitations. These mainly related to the setup of the research relative to the resources available during the study period. This resulted in the use of a relatively small population compared to the overall target population which to some extent can limit the generalization of the findings. Subsequently the constraints influenced the scale of the study but did not affect the conduct of the research once the design was arrived at.

Due to time, cost and operational constraints the research focused only on consumers of clothing brands in Nairobi. Data were collected from consumers across Nairobi County to get their views and perceptions concerning the variables and constructs under study. This was helpful in getting insights about the dynamics of the study variables at a particular point in time. The findings may not therefore necessarily be applicable to other times. For this reason there are opportunities for longitudinal and broader studies in the same area of research. The study focused on a limited number of variables and constructs much as the product origin phenomenon and consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands might be influenced by many other factors. Other variables can provide additional insights and explanations concerning country-of-origin and consumer behaviour indicators within the clothing sector context in Kenya.

The use of quantitative methods alone in this research is also restrictive as it does not allow respondents to express other views apart from those sought in the questionnaire. Data obtained purely based on quantitative means limits the research design and findings. The respondents are likely to provide better insights on the variables under investigation when given the chance to discuss related issues openly and freely.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

The results augment the existing conceptual and empirical evidence that country-of-origin influences consumer behaviour towards foreign clothing brands. Furthermore, the findings enhance the current conceptual and empirical data that this relationship is moderated by other extraneous variables such as consumer characteristics and the

intervening effect of external factors such as consumer attitudes. Studies to be conducted in future should consider the inclusion of additional factors not covered in this study that could engender more insights on the COO concept and consumer behaviour in order to enhance understanding of how the two variables relate.

Inclusion of additional factors could enhance the robustness of the study models as well as generalizability and validity of the results. Given that insights about the study variables were obtained at a particular point in time which may not necessarily be applicable to other times, there are opportunities for longitudinal and broader studies in this area of research. It is also necessary to sustain COO research in Kenya to establish if the relatively high source country influence on consumer behaviour established in this study among Kenyans is only confined to clothing brands or it also affects other products such as building materials, foodstuffs, beverages, music, film and beauty items. Such replication of this study in other product categories would give a more detailed understanding of the nature of relationships identified among the variables of this study.

Studies to be conducted in future on country-of-origin should be expanded to other parts of Kenya to understand if COO influences consumer behaviour in the same manner much as Nairobi being the capital City to a large degree sets the pace for behaviour especially in fashion across other urban, peri-urban and rural areas of the country. Furthermore it would be useful to replicate this study in other countries in the East African region and African continent due to the limited knowledge of COO phenomenon in developing countries (Opoku & Akorli, 2009). This is especially important given the regional trade partnerships such as the East African Community (EAC), Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) and Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) which can benefit from the policy and practical lessons engendered by this research. Having shared a common historical pattern of colonization and socio-economic growth many countries in the East African region and African continent would benefit from the replication of this study to determine the universality and significance of COO influence on consumer behaviour in general.

It is also necessary to address the restriction of using quantitative methods alone and allow respondents to express other views apart from those sought by the quantitative

method in the questionnaire. Data obtained purely based on quantitative means limits the research design and findings. Future research should seek to address these limitations by incorporating qualitative research methods such as focus group sessions and structured interviews. Quantitative research techniques combined with qualitative methods would enrich the research design and findings significantly.

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APPENDIX 1: Introduction Letter

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James Njuguna

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30th May, 2014

</div>

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: Study on "The Effect of Country-of-origin, Consumer Characteristics and Attitudes on Consumer Behaviour towards Foreign Clothing Brands in Nairobi, Kenya''

Greetings.

My name is James Njuguna, a PhD student at the University of Nairobi. I am undertaking a study, for my PhD on **"The Effect of Country-of-origin, Consumer Characteristics and Attitudes on Consumer Behaviour towards Foreign Clothing Brands in Nairobi, Kenya''**

The research is intended to generate information that will be used in understanding preferences towards clothing brands. It will enrich academic knowledge in this area of study and offer practical solutions to developing relevant policies by Manufacturers/Distributors of clothes, Government and relevant NGO's regarding the clothing industry in Kenya.

You have been selected to be part of the sample for the study by virtue of being a clothing Consumer. Kindly find time and answer the questions asked by our interviewer to the best of your knowledge. The information you provide shall be treated in STRICT CONFIDENCE and shall be used for statistical purposes only in this research.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours sincerely

James Njuguna

APPENDIX 2: Questionnaire

The Effect of Country-of-origin, Consumer Characteristics and Attitudes on Consumer Behaviour towards Foreign Clothing Brands in Nairobi, Kenya

Kindly answer the following questions to the best of your knowledge.

SECTION A:

1. Name (optional) _____

2. Your current estate of residence _____

3. Your occupation_____

    Business [ ] Lawyer [ ] Medicine [ ] Engineering [ ] Architect [ ] Accountant [ ]

    Human Resource [ ] Nursing [ ] Entertainment [ ] Journalism [ ] Marketing [ ]

    Insurance [ ] Pilot [ ] Teaching [ ] Information Communication Technology (ICT) []

    Artisan (Mason, Carpenter, Welder, Plumber, Electrician, etc.) [ ]

    Other (specify)…………...…………….…….. [ ]

SECTION B - Consumer characteristics (**Tick (√) appropriately**)

4. Gender of the Respondent: Male [ ]   Female [ ]

5. Age category: Up to 30 years [ ] 31 – 40 [ ] 41 – 50 [ ] Over 50 [ ]

6. Under which monthly gross income (from all sources) category do you belong?

    Up to Ksh30,000[ ] Ksh30,001– 40,000[ ] Ksh40,001–50,000[ ] Over Ksh 50,000[ ]

7. What is your highest level of academic education (schooling)?

    Up to Primary School [ ] Up to Secondary School [ ] College Certificate [ ]

    College Diploma [ ] Graduate/1st Degree [ ] Postgraduate Diploma [ ]

    Postgraduate Masters [ ] Postgraduate PhD [ ]

8. What are your professional qualifications?

    CPA [ ] CPS [ ] Other (specify)……………….……………….. [ ]

SECTION C - Country-of-origin

9. Are most of your clothes made in Kenya or imported?

Kenya [ ]	Imported [ ]	Both [ ]

10. Please indicate your three most important countries of imported clothes as far as your buying is concerned (rank in order of importance):

1st………………………………………………….………….

2nd…………………………………………………………

3rd………………………………………………………….

11. For the countries that you indicated in Question 10 above please rate the statements listed below about clothes from there. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements by inserting a number that reflects your rating of the countries using a rating scale where **1=Very Poor 2= Poor 3=Fairly Good 4=Good 5=Excellent**

Country where they are designed	
i. Has high quality clothes	
ii. Has trendy clothes	
iii. Has affordable clothes	
iv. Has clothes that promote my image	
v. Has different brands that give me the best value for money	
Country where they are manufactured	
i. Has good quality clothes	
ii. Has fashionable clothes	
iii. Has reasonably priced clothes	
iv. Has clothes that lift my image	
v. Has various brands that give me my money's worth	
Country where they are sold	
i. Has high quality clothes	
ii. Has trendy clothes	
iii. Has affordable clothes	
iv. Has clothes that promote my image	
v. Has different brands that give me the best value for money	
Country where they are imported from	
i. Has good quality clothes	
ii. Has fashionable clothes	

iii.	Has reasonably priced clothes	
iv.	Has clothes that lift my image	
v.	Has a variety of clothing brands that give me my money's worth	
Other (specify)		

SECTION D - Consumer Behaviour towards Foreign Clothing Brands

12. For the countries that you indicated in Question 10 above please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements listed below about Consumer Behaviour towards clothes from there. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements by inserting a number that reflects your rating of the countries using a rating scale where **1=Not at all, 2= To a small extent, 3= To a moderate extent, 4= To a large extent, 5=To a very large extent.**

Trials of imported clothing brands	
i.	I often window-shop/look out for imported clothing brands	
ii.	I find it easy window-shopping/looking out for imported clothing brands	
iii.	I am active in window-shopping/looking out for imported clothing brands	
iv.	For special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter, I window-shop/look out for imported clothing brands	
Purchase of foreign clothing brands	
v.	I frequently buy imported clothing brands	
vi.	I buy imported clothing brands for special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter.	
vii.	I am active in shopping for imported clothing brands	
viii.	I find it easy buying imported clothing brands	

Endorsement of imported clothing brands	
ix. I regularly advise others (such as friends or relatives) to buy imported clothes	
x. I find it easy recommending to others (such as friends or relatives) to buy imported clothes	
xi. I suggest to others (such as friends or relatives) to buy imported clothes for special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter.	
xii. I am active in recommending to others (such as friends or relatives) to buy imported clothes	
Commitment to foreign clothing brands	
i. I remain committed to buying foreign clothing brands only when my needs are met	
ii. I am committed to buying imported clothing brands even when my needs are not met	
iii. When disappointed by something about foreign clothing brands, I stop buying them until there is an improvement	
iv. The people I have recommended imported clothes to (such as friends or relatives) remain committed to buying them	

SECTION E – Consumer Attitudes towards Foreign Brands

13. For the three countries that you indicated in Question 10 above please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements listed below about Consumer Attitudes towards clothes from there. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements by inserting a number that reflects your rating of the countries using a rating scale where **1=Not at all, 2=To a small extent, 3= To a moderate extent, 4= To a large extent, 5=To a very large extent.**

Overall attitude	
i. I have a positive attitude towards imported clothes	
Awareness of foreign brands (cognition)	
i. I know a lot about imported clothes	
ii. I usually have a good idea of where to buy imported clothes for special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter.	
iii. My knowledge about imported clothes is quite good	
iv. I am satisfied with my knowledge about imported clothing brands	
Liking of foreign brands (affection)	
i. I usually have strong intentions to buy imported clothes	
ii. I am satisfied with my intentions to buy imported clothing brands	
iii. I always plan to buy imported clothes for special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter.	
iv. I always have good intentions to buy imported clothes	
Action tendencies towards foreign brands (behaviour)	
ii. Shopping for imported clothing brands gives me great satisfaction	
iii. I rate my activities when shopping for imported clothes as good	
iv. Buying more than one imported clothing item when shopping for special occasions such as wedding, parties, Christmas, Idd-ul-fitr, Diwali and Easter, gives me great happiness	
v. Buying imported clothes gives me a lot of pleasure	
vi. Other (specify)	

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Secondary Data to be collected from the Ministry of Industrialization and Enterprise Development and Ministry of Commerce, Tourism and East Africa Region

The following secondary data will be sought from these two ministries to enhance understanding of the clothing industry in Kenya and how it relates to the Effect of Country-of-origin, Consumer Characteristics and Attitudes on Consumer Behaviour towards Foreign Clothing Brands.

1. Trends in the last 3 years among Clothing/Textile manufacturing firms in Kenya

Trend	Year		
	2011	2012	2013
Clothing/Textile firms in existence			
Clothing/Textile firms established (new firms)			
Clothing/Textile firms closed			

2. Volume of imports (Tonnes) in the last 3 years of Clothing/Textile products in Kenya

Volume	Year		
	2011	2012	2013
Clothing/Textile Imports (Tonnes)			

3. Value of imports (Ksh Million) in the last 3 years of Clothing/Textile products in Kenya

Value	Year		
	2011	2012	2013
Clothing/Textile Imports (Ksh Million)			

4. Leading countries where imports of Clothing/Textile products in Kenya came from in the last 3 years

	Year		
	2011	2012	2013
Clothing/Textile Imports from – list top 10 countries			
1)			
2)			
3)			
4)			
5)			
6)			
7)			
8)			
9)			
10)			

5. Any other relevant data in the last 10 years on Clothing/Textile products in Kenya

Appendix 3: Distribution of Population in Nairobi

DISTRICT	DIVISION	LOCATION	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL POP	F ADULT	M ADULT	TOTAL ADULT
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	DANDORA	31,198	30,870	62,069	19,031	18,831	37,862
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	DANDORA	47,401	46,642	94,043	28,915	28,452	57,366
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	EMBAKASI	35,942	35,531	71,474	21,925	21,674	43,599
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	MUKURU KWA NJENGA	43,414	34,230	77,644	26,483	20,880	47,363
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	KARIOBANGI SOUTH	16,899	19,405	36,304	10,308	11,837	22,145
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	KAYOLE	76,633	77,580	154,214	46,746	47,324	94,070
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	KAYOLE	17,814	21,337	39,152	10,867	13,016	23,883
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	EMBAKASI	13,948	11,261	25,209	8,508	6,869	15,378
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	KARIOBANGI SOUTH	13,226	12,430	25,657	8,068	7,583	15,651
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	MUKURU KWA NJENGA	78,784	64,543	143,327	48,058	39,371	87,429
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	RUAI	5,357	5,098	10,455	3,268	3,110	6,378
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	NJIRU	13,032	11,677	24,709	7,949	7,123	15,072
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	RUAI	14,648	14,419	29,067	8,935	8,796	17,731
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	NJIRU	14,884	14,758	29,642	9,079	9,003	18,082
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	UMOJA	41,871	41,531	83,402	25,541	25,334	50,875
NAIROBI EAST	EMBAKASI	UMOJA	51,554	61,217	112,771	31,448	37,342	68,790
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	MAKADARA	8,826	9,034	17,860	5,384	5,511	10,895
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	MAKADARA	12,664	16,191	28,855	7,725	9,877	17,602
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	MUKURU NYAYO	11,542	11,412	22,953	7,041	6,961	14,002
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	MAKONGENI	4,568	3,962	8,529	2,786	2,417	5,203
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	VIWANDANI	16,978	12,160	29,138	10,357	7,418	17,774
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	MAKADARA	3,106	3,464	6,570	1,895	2,113	4,008
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	MAKONGENI	7,225	6,296	13,521	4,407	3,841	8,248
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	MARINGO	6,161	5,883	12,044	3,758	3,589	7,347
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	MUKURU NYAYO	18,464	17,165	35,629	11,263	10,471	21,733
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	MARINGO	7,965	7,901	15,866	4,859	4,820	9,678
NAIROBI EAST	MAKADARA	VIWANDANI	28,407	20,926	49,332	17,328	12,765	30,093
Subtotal			**642,512**	**616,924**	**1,259,436**	**391,932**	**376,324**	**768,256**
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	STAREHE	6,847	4,569	11,416	4,177	2,787	6,964
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	STAREHE	158	112	270	96	68	165
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	HURUMA	41,509	38,168	79,676	25,320	23,282	48,603
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	HURUMA	18,758	18,415	37,173	11,443	11,233	22,675
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	MATHARE	16,815	14,245	31,060	10,257	8,690	18,947
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	MATHARE	12,326	10,165	22,491	7,519	6,201	13,720
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	MATHARE	22,685	19,492	42,177	13,838	11,890	25,728
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	NGARA	18,938	8,867	27,805	11,552	5,409	16,961
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	NGARA	5,548	5,438	10,987	3,384	3,317	6,702
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	KARIOKOR	196,395	21,257	217,652	119,801	12,967	132,768
NAIROBI NORTH	CENTRAL	KARIOKOR	5,033	4,768	9,801	3,070	2,908	5,979
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	ROYSAMBU	7,167	6,377	13,545	4,372	3,890	8,262
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	KOROGOCHO	12,733	11,371	24,104	7,767	6,936	14,703
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	GITHURAI	27,368	29,335	56,703	16,694	17,895	34,589
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	KAHAWA	14,373	10,949	25,322	8,768	6,679	15,447
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	GITHURAI	2,296	2,540	4,836	1,401	1,549	2,950
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	KARIOBANGI	21,893	21,345	43,238	13,355	13,021	26,375
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	KASARANI	31,502	35,882	67,383	19,216	21,888	41,104
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	KAHAWA	9,939	8,697	18,636	6,063	5,305	11,368
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	KAHAWA	8,542	9,528	18,070	5,211	5,812	11,023
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	KOROGOCHO	5,914	5,490	11,404	3,607	3,349	6,956
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	RUARAKA	11,232	9,404	20,637	6,852	5,737	12,588
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	RUARAKA	32,558	28,066	60,624	19,860	17,120	36,981
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	KASARANI	21,396	21,637	43,034	13,052	13,199	26,250
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	ROYSAMBU	4,291	3,784	8,075	2,618	2,308	4,926
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	KOROGOCHO	5,723	5,086	10,809	3,491	3,102	6,594
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	ROYSAMBU	15,532	15,249	30,781	9,474	9,302	18,776
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	RUARAKA	34,536	32,222	66,758	21,067	19,655	40,722
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	RUARAKA	10,636	8,597	19,234	6,488	5,244	11,732
NAIROBI NORTH	KASARANI	GITHURAI	15,931	18,756	34,687	9,718	11,441	21,159
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	EASTLEIGH NORTH	25,588	21,858	47,446	15,609	13,333	28,942
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	EASTLEIGH SOUTH	12,172	11,676	23,848	7,425	7,122	14,547
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	EASTLEIGH NORTH	25,338	22,206	47,544	15,456	13,546	29,002
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	EASTLEIGH SOUTH	38,183	34,645	72,828	23,292	21,134	44,425
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	PUMWANI	867	859	1,726	529	524	1,053
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	PUMWANI	3,195	2,514	5,710	1,949	1,534	3,483
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	KAMUKUNJI	949	357	1,306	579	218	797
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	BAHATI	11,771	11,973	23,744	7,181	7,303	14,484
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	PUMWANI	9,839	8,062	17,901	6,002	4,918	10,920
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	KAMUKUNJI	2,142	1,672	3,815	1,307	1,020	2,327
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	KAMUKUNJI	8,890	7,521	16,411	5,423	4,588	10,011
NAIROBI NORTH	PUMWANI	BAHATI	11,680	13,836	25,516	7,125	8,440	15,564
Subtotal			**789,191**	**566,991**	**1,356,182**	**481,407**	**345,864**	**827,271**

189

Appendix 3: Distribution of Population in Nairobi…contd

DISTRICT	DIVISION	LOCATION	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL POP	F ADULT	M ADULT	TOTAL ADULT
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	KAWANGWARE	27,222	23,195	50,418	16,606	14,149	30,755
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	WAITHAKA	5,345	4,671	10,016	3,261	2,849	6,110
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	KAWANGWARE	38,152	35,939	74,091	23,273	21,923	45,195
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	KENYATTA /GOLF COURS	18,819	13,110	31,929	11,480	7,997	19,477
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	MUTUINI	6,707	6,710	13,417	4,091	4,093	8,184
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	MUTUINI	3,210	3,126	6,336	1,958	1,907	3,865
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	RIRUTA	19,377	18,006	37,383	11,820	10,984	22,804
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	RIRUTA	35,608	36,179	71,787	21,721	22,069	43,790
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	UTHIRU-RUTHIMITU	8,243	8,538	16,781	5,028	5,208	10,236
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	UTHIRU-RUTHIMITU	9,279	9,740	19,019	5,660	5,942	11,602
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	WAITHAKA	11,511	12,602	24,113	7,022	7,687	14,709
NAIROBI WEST	DAGORETTI	KENYATTA /GOLF COURS	6,418	7,362	13,780	3,915	4,491	8,406
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	MUGUMO-INI	8,703	9,590	18,293	5,309	5,850	11,159
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	SERANGOMBE	14,929	12,529	27,458	9,106	7,643	16,749
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	LANGATA	5,333	4,684	10,017	3,253	2,857	6,110
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	KAREN	5,245	4,423	9,668	3,199	2,698	5,897
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	KIBERA	5,823	4,933	10,756	3,552	3,009	6,561
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	LAINI SABA	17,258	13,718	30,976	10,527	8,368	18,895
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	LANGATA	6,622	4,811	11,433	4,039	2,935	6,974
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	KAREN	2,950	2,536	5,486	1,799	1,547	3,347
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	KIBERA	21,500	17,143	38,643	13,115	10,457	23,572
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	KIBERA	14,262	13,480	27,742	8,700	8,223	16,923
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	MUGUMO-INI	15,851	17,547	33,398	9,669	10,704	20,373
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	NAIROBI WEST	17,393	19,286	36,680	10,610	11,765	22,375
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	LAINI SABA	14,146	12,443	26,588	8,629	7,590	16,219
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	SERANGOMBE	16,753	15,511	32,264	10,219	9,462	19,681
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	KIBERA	11,218	7,867	19,085	6,843	4,799	11,642
NAIROBI WEST	KIBERA	NAIROBI WEST	26,432	25,445	51,877	16,123	15,521	31,645
	Subtotal		394,308	365,127	759,435	240,528	222,727	463,255
DISTRICT	DIVISION	LOCATION	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL POP	F ADULT	M ADULT	TOTAL ADULT
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KANGEMI	11,181	10,200	21,381	6,820	6,222	13,043
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	HIGHRIDGE	15,294	14,674	29,967	9,329	8,951	18,280
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KANGEMI	25,457	23,521	48,978	15,529	14,348	29,877
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	HIGHRIDGE	9,298	7,890	17,188	5,672	4,813	10,485
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KILELESHWA	8,129	10,335	18,464	4,958	6,305	11,263
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KILIMANI	15,422	16,373	31,795	9,407	9,988	19,395
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KITISURU	3,775	3,032	6,807	2,303	1,849	4,152
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KITISURU	4,120	3,616	7,736	2,513	2,206	4,719
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KITISURU	10,394	9,400	19,794	6,340	5,734	12,074
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KILIMANI	7,117	8,477	15,594	4,341	5,171	9,512
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KANGEMI	9,283	9,050	18,333	5,663	5,520	11,183
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	HIGHRIDGE	6,186	5,700	11,886	3,773	3,477	7,250
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	KILELESHWA	5,300	6,129	11,430	3,233	3,739	6,972
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	PARKLANDS	2,954	2,629	5,583	1,802	1,603	3,405
WESTLANDS	WESTLANDS	PARKLANDS	3,316	3,319	6,635	2,023	2,025	4,048
	Subtotal		137,226	134,345	271,571	83,708	81,950	165,658
TOTAL			1,963,237	1,683,387	3,646,624	1,197,575	1,026,866	2,224,441

Source: Adopted from Kenya National Bureau of Statistics (2012): Kenya National Population and Housing Census Vol.1C

Appendix 4: Map of Nairobi Divisions

Source: Nairobi County Government

Appendix 5: Factor Analysis Results

Matrix of Country-of-Origin, Consumer Characteristics and Attitudes on Consumer Behaviour towards Foreign Clothing Brands Factors

	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16	Q17	Q18	Q19
Correlation Q1	1.00	-.90	.10	.42	.43	.305	.19	.15	-.12	.37	.305	-.41	.32	.21	.50	.36	-.61	-.16	.37
Q2	-.09	1.00	-.34	-.12	.25	.33	.23	.12	-32	-.12	-.09	.03	-.34	-.12	-.20	-.19	.34	-32	-.12
Q3	-.34	.32	1.00	-.38	-.56	-.09	.45	.62	-.36	.20	-.34	.32	0.26	-.38	-.16	.34	.25	-.36	.20
Q4	.44	.43	.305	1.00	.09	.43	.21	.37	-.61	.34	.44	.43	.305	.04	.305	.35	.50	-.61	.34
Q5	.40	.25	.33	.40	1.00	.44	.35	-.16	-17	-.19	.40	.25	.33	.40	-.19	.26	.37	-17	-.19
Q6	.22	-.56	-.09	.28	.18	1.00	.21	.305	-.24	-.17	.22	-.56	-.09	.28	-.35	.40	.37	-.24	-.17
Q7	.305	-.32	.21	.50	.34	.22	1.00	.33	.23	-.16	.31	-.32	.21	.50	-.13	.31	-.19	.23	-.16
Q8	.33	-.12	.36	.37	.37	.07	.05	1.00	.29	.47	.29	.25	.33	.23	-.20	-.19	.21	-.10	.04
Q9	-.09	-32	.34	.37	-.09	1.00	-.34	-.12	1.00	.17	.38	-.56	-.09	.45	.37	-.16	-.13	.31	-.05
Q10	.21	-.36	-.20	-.19	-.34	.32	1.00	-.38	-.10	1.00	.41	.09	.43	.21	.37	.305	-.41	.32	-.06
Q11	.36	-.61	-.16	.34	.44	.43	.305	1.00	-.08		1.00	.22	.15	.49	-.19	.33	-.32	.09	-.06
Q12	.34	-17	.305	.35	.40	.25	.33	.40	-.34	.32	.17	1.00	.16	.23	.21	-.26	-.42	.03	-.09
Q13	.25	-.24	-.19	.26	.22	-.56	-.09	.28	.44	.43	.31	.27	1.00	-.03	-.03	.43	.47	-.10	-.04
Q14	.50	-.20	-.35	.40	.305	-.32	.21	.50	.40	.25	.33	.19	.23	1.00		-.06	-.19	-.61	-.16
Q15	.37	-.16	-.13	.31	-.09	.28	.18	.305	-.41	-.56	-.09	.28	.34	.15	1.00	.03	.34	-17	.305
Q16	.37	.305	-.41	.32	.21	.50	.34	.33	-.32	-.32	.21	.50	.305	.33	.51	1.00	.35	-.24	-.19
Q17	-.19	.33	-.32	.09	.36	.37	.37	-.26	-.42	-.12	.36	.37	.33	.40	.19	.02	1.00	-.05	-.07
Q18	.21	-.26	-.42	.03	.34	.37	-.09	-.37	.27	.43	.16	.19	-.09	.28	.01	.06	.51	1.00	.23
Q19	-.10	-.15	.15	.42	.14	.16	.28	-.33	-.20	-.35	.40	.305	-.32	.21	.09	.05	-.21	-.39	1.00
Sig (1-tailed) Q1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q2		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q3		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q4		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q5		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q6		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q7		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q8		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q9		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q10		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q11		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q12		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q13		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q14		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q15		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q16		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q17		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q18		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Q19		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Determinant = 5.271E-04

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.930
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx Chi-Square	19334.492
	Df	71
	Sig	.000

Factor extraction

	initial eigenvalue			extractions sums of squares loadings			rotations sum of squares loadings		
component	total	% of variance	cumulative %	Total	% of variance	cumulative %	total	% of variance	cumulative %
1	7.29	23.01%	23.01%	7.29	23.01%	23.01%	7.11	22.44%	22.44%
2	5.739	18.11%	41.12%	5.739	18.11%	41.12%	5.70	17.99%	40.43%
3	4.317	13.63%	54.75%	4.317	13.63%	54.75%	4.11	12.97%	53.40%
4	3.227	10.19%	64.93%	3.227	10.19%	64.93%	3.36	10.61%	64.01%
5	2.145	6.77%	71.70%	2.145	6.77%	71.70%	2.44	7.69%	71.70%
6	0.895	2.82%	74.53%						
7	0.806	2.54%	77.07%						
8	0.783	2.47%	79.54%						
9	0.751	2.37%	81.91%						
10	0.717	2.26%	84.18%						
11	0.684	2.16%	86.34%						
12	0.67	2.11%	88.45%						
13	0.612	1.93%	90.38%						
14	0.587	1.85%	92.24%						
15	0.549	1.73%	93.97%						
16	0.523	1.65%	95.62%						
17	0.508	1.60%	97.22%						
18	0.456	1.44%	98.66%						
19	0.424	1.34%	100.00%						

Scree plot
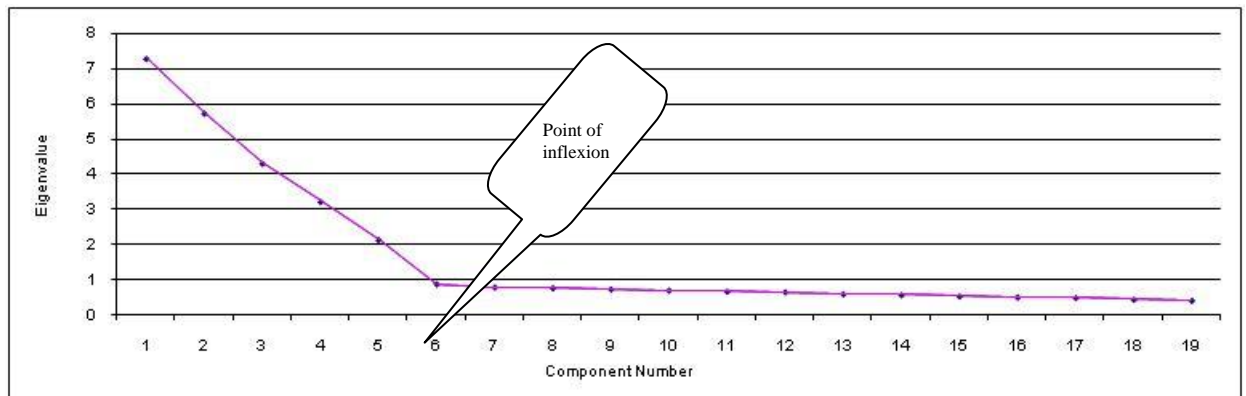
Varimax Factor Rotation

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Items			
Factor: Consumer behaviour			
Factor 1 Country of origin	**0.79**	0.17	0.22
Factor 2 Consumer characteristics	**0.84**	0.08	0.18
Factor 3 Consumer attitudes	**0.80**	0.16	0.018