INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCH IN COMPUTER APPLICATION & MANAGEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

NEED/IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

OBJECTIVES

HYPOTHESIS (ES)

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

FINDINGS

RECOMMENDATIONS/SUGGESTIONS

CONCLUSIONS

LIMITATIONS

SCOPE FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

REFERENCES

APPENDIX/ANNEXURE

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BOOKS

- Bowersox, Donald J., Closs, David J., (1996), "Logistical Management." Tata McGraw, Hill, New Delhi.

- Hunker, H.L. and A.J. Wright (1963), "Factors of Industrial Location in Ohio" Ohio State University, Nigeria.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO BOOKS

- Sharma T., Kwatra, G. (2008) Effectiveness of Social Advertising: A Study of Selected Campaigns, Corporate Social Responsibility, Edited by David Crowther & Nicholas Capaldi, Ashgate Research Companion to Corporate Social Responsibility, Chapter 15, pp 287-303.

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- Schemenner, R.W., Huber, J.C. and Cook, R.L. (1987), "Geographic Differences and the Location of New Manufacturing Facilities," Journal of Urban Economics, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 83-104.

CONFERENCE PAPERS

- Garg, Sambhav (2011): "Business Ethics" Paper presented at the Annual International Conference for the All India Management Association, New Delhi, India, 19–23

UNPUBLISHED DISSERTATIONS

- Kumar S. (2011): "Customer Value: A Comparative Study of Rural and Urban Customers," Thesis, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra.

ONLINE RESOURCES

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WEBSITES

- Garg, Bhavet (2011): Towards a New Gas Policy, Political Weekly, Viewed on January 01, 2012 http://epw.in/user/viewabstract.jsp

REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON QUALITY OF WORK LIFE: ANTECEDENTS AND OUTCOMES

Dr. K. G. SENTHILKUMAR
PROFESSOR
DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES
KGISL INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
COIMBATORE

ABSTRACT

To have a high-quality work life (QWL) is more than a desire, it is part of the overall strategic plan of any workplace. QWL is crucial in achieving the vision of becoming a long-term, reliable, and highly productive organization. QWL more specifically can be defined as a process by which an organization attempts to unlock the creative potential of its people by involving them in decisions affecting their work lives. A unique characteristic of the process is that its goals are not simply extrinsic, focusing on the improvement of productivity and efficiency but they are also intrinsic, regarding what the worker sees as self-fulfilling and self-enhancing ends in themselves. The purpose of the present study is to identify and propose a list of few vital factors of QWL for the benefit of researchers and the organization. To achieve the purpose, the article published between the period from 2000-2017 were reviewed in a systematic way and presented in three segments viz., antecedents of QWL, attitudinal outcomes and behavioural outcomes of QWL.

KEYWORDS
quality of work life, attitudinal outcomes, behavioural outcomes, work life balance, productivity.

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INTRODUCTION

Today's organizational environment is complex, turbulent, and dynamic in nature. In this environment, the competitiveness of an organization depends entirely on the retention of quality employees. Retention of employees is depending on how well the work environment satisfies their expectations. This is parallel to concepts such as 'humanization of work' and 'improvement of working conditions'. All of these represents the quality of work life which is vital to the success of an organization. Quality of Work Life is a concept of behavioural science and was introduced during the 1960s.The increasing body of research and the crucial academic concern in QWL comes out of the value of this concept in management science. Many researches have been conducted since its inception till date. Though it was introduced during the 1960s QWL is an emerging concept; which may be understood differently by different people depending upon their situations and differing roles. QWL is referred to as the "favourableness or unfavourableness of a total job environment for people" (Rethinam & Maimunah 2008).

OBJECTIVES
The objectives of this research are
1. to identify the dimensions/facets and explore differences in the QWL
2. to find out the impact of work life on attitudinal outcomes, and
3. **to diagnose the behavioral outcomes of QWL**

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
As a review study, this research needed a collection of secondary data. As with any other type of research, the researcher was conscious of the importance of secondary data. In the preliminary stages, secondary data provided the researcher with information regarding the activities, scope, and opinions of other researchers and experts. The data also assisted the researcher in defining the study's variables and identifying the types of stakeholders involved in the investigation. The secondary data supplied important and relevant information to enhance the qualitative parts of the research findings. For this purpose, the secondary data was collected from all associated sources that included:
➢ Books related to quality of work life.
➢ Research journals, magazines and periodicals.
➢ Web sources such as websites.
➢ Libraries of reputed universities and institutes in and around Tamil Nadu

REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON ANTECEDENTS OF QWL
Most of the research studies begin by describing the antecedents/dimensions of work life. It is not believed that work life can be captured in a single measure, but rather that an array of dimensions must be considered. There is a plethora of literature highlighting those factors that are essential for the assessment of QWL. Several researchers have attempted to measure QWL in a variety of settings using combinations of various dimensions. Some factors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job stress, job involvement, work role ambiguity, conflict, and overload were studied as alternative measures of QWL.

Wyatt & Wah (2001) examined the perceptions of the quality of work life among Singaporean employees with four dimensions. It is suggested that four dimensions of QWL viz., favourable work environment, personal growth and autonomy, nature of job, and stimulating opportunities and co-workers were shown to be significant to employees' QWL.

Saklani (2004) employed a thirteen dimensions model to analyze the QWL among non-managerial employees in India viz., adequate and fair compensation; fringe benefits and welfare measures; job security; physical working environment; work load and job stress; opportunity to use and develop human capacity; opportunity for career growth; human relations and social aspect of life; participation in decision-making; reward and penalty system administration; equity, justice and grievance handling; work and total life space (balance in life) and image of organization in the society (social relevance of work life).

Brooks & Anderson (2005) have developed the construct of QWL with four dimensions such as, work life/home life dimension, work design dimension, work context dimension, and work world dimension in the Health Care industry. Murrells et al (2005) emphasized that job characteristics, role states, group and organization characteristics and leader relations are generally considered to be antecedents of high quality of work life. Che Rose et al (2006) studied QWL in Malaysia and concluded that the most important predictor of QWL is organizational climate, followed by career achievement, career satisfaction and career balance.

Nasl & Dargahi (2006) studied the QWL of the Tehran University of Medical Sciences Hospitals' employees with fourteen key factors such as Fair Pay and Autonomy, Job security, Reward systems, Training and career advancements, Opportunities, Participation in decision making, Interesting and satisfying work, Trust in senior management, Recognition of efforts, Health and safety standards at work, Balance between the time spent at work and the time spent with family and friends, Amount of work to be done, Level of stress experienced at work, and Occupational health and safety at work.

Rethinam & Maimunah (2008) analyzed the QWL from the perspective of IT professionals with five dimensions viz., health and well-being, job security, job satisfaction, competence development and the balance between work with non-work life. Rastegari et al (2010) studied the QWL of the nurses with twelve dimensions

such as adequate and fair payment, safety and healthy working environment, continuous progression and safety in nursing profession, law abiding in the organization, satisfaction from the organization policy, work balance and total living space, suitable work volume, development of human capabilities, social cohesion in the labor organization, appropriate communications, participation and social importance of the nursing career.

Daud (2010) investigated the relationship between quality of work life and organizational commitment among employees in Malaysia with seven QWL dimensions namely growth and development, participation, physical environment, supervision, pay and benefits, social relevance and workplace integration.

Most of the research studies investigated the employees' perception on QWL. Divergently, Stephen & Dhanapal (2011) analyzed the employers' perception on QWL in Small Scale Industrial Units in India with the QWL variables namely social support, interpersonal relationship, recognition, autonomy, working environment, relationship with boss, working hours, governance by rule of law, role clarity and fringe benefits.

Malini Nandi Majumdar et al (2012) investigated the relationship between quality of work life and its effect on job performance among employees of Indian telecom sector with variables such as organizational culture, workplace relationships i.e. relationship with superiors and among colleagues, training and developmental facilities, reward systems, fringe benefits, job security, autonomy, variations in work schedules.

Shoeb Ahmad (2013) argued that the health and safety, employment security, job satisfaction, occupational stress, work environment, work–life balance and human relations are the important elements of QWL. Organizations needs to pay attention to improve all these elements and strike a balance among them to make QWL effective and concluded that excellent QWL will result in happy and healthy employees who will contribute towards organizational productivity.

Mosadeghrad (2013) studied the level of QWL among hospital employees in Isfahan, Iran with the help of nine dimensions namely participation and involvement, job promotion, disturbance handling (management support), communication, motivation for work, job security, wages and salaries, job proud, and job stress. The results revealed that the overall QWL is explained by disturbance handling (management support), job proud and job security. The other variables were found to be influential factors in QWL.

Mejbel et al (2013) conducted an intensive literature review to find the drivers that can affect the QWL and identified the frequency of eight drivers in 15 selected research papers. The factors that investigated were: reward, benefits and compensation; job satisfaction; career development; top management involvement; communication; employee motivation; cohesion of work and life; and safety and security. The findings of the study revealed that the most frequent drivers were reward, benefits and compensation, followed by career development, communication, and safety and security respectively in order of frequency. The other drivers top management involvement, cohesion of work and life, job satisfaction and employee motivation were found to be less frequent in the literature review.

Yadav & Naim (2017) examined QWL of employees in Indian power sector. They identified seven dimensions of QWL namely supervisory support, freedom from stress, pay and benefits, Job satisfaction, collegial relationship, involvement and responsibility at work communication and job security.

The concept of faculty work life is very broad, encompassing a great number of variables. It is learned from the literature review that the faculty work life encompassed professional priorities, institutional support, and the quality of life. These three dimensions had been shown to be significant to faculty work life. These three dimensions were reconstructed as professional priorities and rewards, administrative relations and support, and benefits and services associated with the faculty member's appointment (Johnsrud & Rosser 2002).

Work Life of academic faculty can also be viewed with the work environment domains such as, role stress, job characteristics. Winter et al (2000) viewed QWL for academicians as an attitudinal response to the prevailing work environment and posited five work environment domains that include role stress, job characteristics, supervisory, structural and sectoral characteristics to directly and indirectly shape faculty members' experiences, attitudes and behaviour. Apart from work environment, the organizational characteristic such as institutional type, resources and unit size were also viewed as dimensions of perceived quality of work life among faculty members and administrative staff (Johnsurd 2002).

Saad et al (2008) studied the quality of work life of faculty members of Razak University, Malaysia with the help of ten dimensions such as support from organization, work-family conflict, relationship with peers, self-competence, impact on job, meaningfulness of job, optimism on organizational change, autonomy, access to resources and time control. It is observed that all the dimensions on its own were a salient predictor of Job Satisfaction. But, the results of multiple linear regression test proved that only three dimensions namely meaningfulness of job, optimism on organizational change and autonomy were significantly related to Job Satisfaction.

Nirmala Kaushik & Manju Singh Tonk (2008) studied the relationship between QWL of teaching faculty and personality with eight dimensions of QWL advocated by Walton viz., adequate and fair compensation, safe and healthy working conditions, chance of growth, constitutionalism in the work organization, the social relevance of work life, total life space, social integration in the work organization and human progress capabilities. Three dimensions of personality viz., extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness was positively correlated with QWL. Mirkamalia & Thani (2011) also used Walton's theoretical framework for measuring faculty perception of QWL and revealed a significant relationship with job satisfaction among faculty members of University of Teheran.

Tabassum et al (2012) also explored the perception of the faculty members of private universities in Bangladesh about their QWL with the help of Walton's Model. The research study revealed a significant relationship between QWL and its dimensions. The results disclosed the existence of significant differences in the perception of QWL with gender and faculty/ department of the university. The study concluded that social relevance of work life, adequate and fair compensation, and constitutionalism were predictor variables of QWL among the faculty members in private universities. Hamidi & Mohamadi (2012) further confirmed in their causal-comparative study of QWL among technical and theoretical high school teachers in Kordestan province in Iran that the same eight dimensions were significantly related to teachers' efficiency.

Daud (2010) conducted a study to determine a set of factors that can adequately represent the conception of a quality of work life amongst academic staff in one of the leading public universities in Malaysia. This study investigated the perception of academic staff on QWL with the help of seven dimensions, viz. growth and development, participation, physical environment, supervision, pay and benefits, social relevance and workplace integration. These dimensions were shown to be significant to academic faculty work life in Malaysia.

Ganguly (2010), studied the nature of the perceived QWL of the university employees, and the nature of association between QWL and Job Satisfaction with the help of eight dimensions of QWL viz., work complexity, autonomy, personal growth opportunities, top management support, workers control, concerned about organizational performance, general happiness and personal relation to job. The results indicated that the dimensions such as autonomy, top management support and worker's control were perceived uncongenial and they have had certain amount of dilemma to comment on dimensions such as personal growth opportunities and work complexity, mainly bearing the potential involving a slight trend of negative opinion. It is also revealed that the Quality of Work life significantly contribute towards increasing satisfaction or dissatisfaction as experienced by the employees in their concerned job.

Bharathi et al (2011) studied QWL in teaching environment with the help of 16 dimensions divided into two sections as follows: adequate and fair compensation, safe and healthy working conditions, opportunities for development, opportunities for growth and security, Social Integration, Constitutionalism, Work and total life space, Social relevance and working life, QWL feeling, curricular aspects, teaching-learning and evaluation, research consultancy and extension, infrastructure and learning resources, student support and progression, organization and management and healthy practices. The results revealed no significant difference between sex, family, age, designation, various income levels, type of college, native place of the respondents and their perceived levels of overall quality of work life. On the contrary the study found the significant difference between the department, professional membership, length of service, of the respondents and their perceived levels of overall quality of work life. It is probed that there is a significant association between quality of work life total and quality of life in teaching environment total.

Natarajan & Annamalai (2011) examined the QWL of teaching and non-teaching members of Pondicherry University, Pondicherry with six factor model. It is elicited that the present job, working condition and work culture are highly influencing the QWL whereas present pay, promotion policy and supervising system is having moderate influence on QWL.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON THE ATTITUDINAL OUTCOMES OF QWL

Building on the studies that have identified the dimensions of QWL are those studies that attempt to determine the impact of work life on attitudinal outcomes. The results of several studies concluded that QWL is associated with job satisfaction. Stephen & Dhanapal (2011) examined the employers' perspective on QWL

and organizational excellence in Small Scale Industrial units. Ten important QWL factors have emerged as a result of their analysis. The most important QWL factor is social support, followed by interpersonal relationship and recognition. The other factors are recognition, autonomy, working environment, relationship with boss, working hours, governance by rule of law, role clarity and fringe benefits. The presence of these QWL factors in an organization enhances the employees' job satisfaction.

Yukthamarani Permarupan et al (2013) examined the relationship between the quality of work life, employees' job involvement and affective commitment among the employees of the public and private sector organizations in Malaysia with five dimensions of QWL namely fair and appropriate salary, working conditions, capacities at work, opportunities at work and organization climate. The intervening and dependent variables are job involvement and affective commitment respectively. The results indicated that working conditions, opportunities at work and climate organization had a relatively higher impact on job involvement and affective commitment.

Moghimi et al (2013) studied the relationship between organizational justice and QWL among employees in Qom Province public organizations. Results of the analyses revealed the significant positive relationships between organizational justice and quality of work life. Correlation analysis for the three components of organizational justice showed that three components of organizational justice had positive relations with QWL.

The literature review also exposed that several research studies conducted in teaching environment particularly private universities and schools, showed the association of QWL with some of the attitudinal outcomes.

Sirgy et al (2001) developed a new measure of QWL based on need satisfaction and spillover theories and posited that QWL positively influences organizational commitment, job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Saad et al (2008) attempted to find out the influence of employees' perception of work-life quality towards job satisfaction amongst employees of private university in Malaysia and reported that their perception toward QWL as a whole was proven to be directly related to job satisfaction. Further, concluded that the work life variables such as salary, perceived support of colleagues, satisfaction with the administration, work and non-work conflict have been proven to directly affect or are predictive of job satisfaction.

Narges Hasanmoradi (2011) investigated the relationship between the QWL and job satisfaction among the teachers of public and non-public schools in Tehran, Iran and concluded that there exists positive and significant correlation between QWL and job satisfaction. Tabassum (2012) investigated the interrelation between QWL dimensions and job satisfaction of faculty members in the private universities of Bangladesh and disclosed that all the dimensions of QWL are positively correlated with the job satisfaction of faculty members, which indicates that enhancement in the dimensions of QWL, can lead to increased amount of job satisfaction among faculty members.

Sasan Baleghizadeh & Yahya Gordani (2012) investigated the relationship between quality of work life and teacher motivation among secondary school English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers in Tehran, Iran. The results revealed that the respondents enjoyed a medium level of QWL, experienced a medium-to-low level of motivation and a significant relationship between motivation and QWL categories. Specifically, the QWL factors such as work conditions, chance of growth, social integration in the organization, and the use and development of capacities significantly improved the career motivation.

Kian-Sam Hong et al (2010) examined the relationships between QWL and work commitment, work stress and work satisfaction among permanent teachers at a government secondary school in Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia and divulged that there exists a positive but weak relationship between work life quality and work commitment. Further added that by augmenting their Sense of Respect, Collegial Work, and by providing opportunity to Develop/use Skills and improving the teaching and learning Resources teacher's work commitment can be improved.

Daud (2010) examined the relationships between QWL and Organizational Commitment among academic members of private university of Malaysia. The results showed that participation and growth and development dimensions of QWL as significant antecedents to affective and normative commitment. Another dimension of QWL viz., supervision has a positive relationship with normative commitment. Yet other dimensions of QWL such as physical environment and pay and benefits have a significant positive relationship with continuance commitment.

It is divulged from this study that the satisfaction is major attitudinal disposition that is studied as an outcome of the quality of work life. It encompassed both job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Other attitudinal dispositions studied are Job stress, organizational commitment, organizational justice, career satisfaction and mental health.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON THE BEHAVIOURAL OUTCOMES OF QWL

The literature review demonstrated that there exist several research studies conducted in several industrial environment that showed the association of QWL with some of the behavioural outcomes.

Selahattin Kanten & Omer Sadullah (2012) investigated the relationship between the dimensions of QWL and employees work engagement among employees of a Marble firm in Turkey by employing Walton's dimensions of QWL. The results revealed that there exists a positive relationship between the dimension of QWL and work engagement. In particular the QWL dimensions such as Social relevance of work life, Safe and healthy working conditions, Adequate and fair compensation, Social integration, Opportunity for developing using human capacity and Constitutionalism have significant relations with work engagement. Apart from this, it is found from literature that QWL correlates with organizational and individual efficiency (Singh & Srivastav 2012).

Malini Nandi Majumdar et al (2012) investigated the relationship between quality of work life and its effect on job performance among employees of Indian telecom sector i.e. employees of public and private telecom service provider companies in India and revealed that the overall QWL has a strong correlation with employee performance.

Korunka et al (2008) developed a conceptual model which hypothesized that quality of working life mediates the relations between job/organizational characteristics and turnover intention. It is also found that different dimensions of QWL result in distinctive effects on organizational and career commitments and turnover intentions (Tung-Chun Huang et al. 2007).

Mosadeghrad, AM (2013) investigated the relationship between QWL and turnover intention among hospital employees in Isfahan and divulged that QWL is negatively associated with turnover intentions. QWL is a major contributor to employee turnover intention. Regression analysis of data indicated that predictors of intent to leave were low motivation, organizational policies, job stress, poor communication, and lack of job security. Also found significant relationships between employees' turnover intention and their age, tenure, marital status and type of employment. An inverse relationship between employees' education level and turnover intention is found in this study. Employees in lower educational background are less satisfied with pay and more likely to leave. Temporary and casual employees are more likely to leave the hospital rather than fulltime permanent staff.

The literature review also brings to limelight that there are few research studies conducted in teaching environment particularly private universities and schools, that showed the association of QWL with some of the behavioural outcomes.

Johnsrud & Rosser (2002) explored the relationship between QWL, morale and intent to leave among faculty members with the help of multilevel structural model. It is revealed that the QWL perceptions of faculty members have a direct and powerful impact on their morale. Both perceptions of work life and morale have significant direct impact on the intent to leave. It is the quality of faculty work life that matters most to the morale of faculty members, and it is the level of morale that matters most to the intent to leave at the individual level.

Behzad Shahbazi et al (2011) investigated the relationship between QWL and performance of Department Chairpersons of Esfahan University in Iran and showed that QWL is positively related with performance. The results indicated that the performance is directly related to adequate and fair compensation, safe and healthy work environment, development of human capacities, growth and security, social integration and work environment, constitutionalism, work life space, and social relevance of work life. Among these dimensions of QWL, the developments of human capacities, social integration, constitutionalism, and work and life space were more effectively related to performance.

Aketch et al (2012) investigated the relationship between QWL and overall performance among Kenyan university academic staff and showed that a positive correlation exists between QWL and overall performance.

Sandhya Nair (2013) explored the relationship between the QWL and its effect on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour amongst college teachers. It is divulged from the report that there is a significant relationship between the QWL and the two dimensions of OCB such as altruism and conscientiousness.

CONCLUSION

The review of literature on antecedents of QWL suggests that QWL is a multifaceted paradigm, built upon a number of interrelated factors that seek meticulous consideration to conceptualize and measure. The antecedents can be categorized into two such as Job Characteristics and Work Characteristics. Job characteristics can be defined as a set of environmental variables that are widely thought to be important causes of employee affect and behavior. Work Characteristics can be defined as employees' perceptions of their organization in which they operate. These include work life balance, compensation, employee support services, leadership, and professional relationship.

It is learned from the literature that the behavioural outcomes most often studied are productivity, work engagement and intention to leave. Organizational citizenship behaviour is also studied in very few researches.

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KEY ATTRIBUTES OF COUNTRY OF ORIGIN (COO) EFFECT: IMPLICIT BIAS ON FOREIGN PRODUCTS

PRIYA SAHA
ASST. PROFESSOR
DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
DELHI SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS
UNIVERSITY OF DELHI
DELHI

ARUNA SHARMA
ASST. PROFESSOR
SRI AUROBINDO COLLEGE
UNIVERSITY OF DELHI
DELHI

ABSTRACT

Every firm operates with the main motive of profit maximization. And hence, over the years, one of the avenues that firms have invested in is the creation of a brand to create monopolistic competition market conditions to increase their revenues. However, with the opening of the markets across borders, whether to their advantage or disadvantage, the country of origin has played a part in the company's identity. This paper aims to use methods of International Marketing to understand the impact on cross-cultural buying behavior of consumers and firms by exploring the relationship between a company's reputation, brand image and country of origin. We begin by examining what these terms mean and how they relate to each other and then move into checking whether there exists a correlation between these terms. This paper shall also be examining the work done by Reputation Institute of California, USA [The paper includes their study from 2018 since that is the last publicly available detailed ranking available]. The paper shall then end with what has come to be known as the "COO Effect". This paper shall then try to establish two different types of COO effects and finally argue why it is important to study and work on the COO Effect as part of a company's strategy and a country's policy.

KEYWORDS

COO Effect, image, international marketing.

JEL CODE

INTRODUCTION

Governments and public institutions take measures to increase the level of competitiveness of their country's economy, boost its innovativeness, and macroeconomic outcomes, in light of growing competitiveness between countries not only on a continental but also on a local scale. Such efforts aim at attracting new external investments, finding new sources of financing for projects, tempting skilled workers, tourists and new residents. Various management approaches and tools traditionally employed in the corporate world are used to accomplish these goals.

International marketing is a very useful tool here, as it enables various unique virtues of a given area to be marketed, such as local goods and unique natural resources, favorable investment climate, pleasant sights, appealing landscapes, and friendly locals are promoted.

One of the most basic resources that guarantees strategic advantage and growth prospects in today's knowledge-based, information-based, and economy era is reputation. Its importance is steadily increasing as a result of a slew of dynamic changes in the global, political, cultural, and technological environments. The most vital changes are increase in the impact of stakeholders (especially media, NGOs, law and regulatory institutions), technological advancement in the area of media and communication which allows access to real-time knowledge access, as well as increasing globalization processes that necessitate the observance of universally applicable ethical standards, as well as operation unification and standardization within global supply chains. As a result, having a good reputation is critical not only for corporations, but also for non-profit organizations, individuals (politicians, actors, musicians, scientists, athletes, and so on), nations, and international organizations.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A very broad concept of reputation is a person's, organization's, company's, or product's opinion of "the other" or other people. As a result, reputation may refer to an individual, a character, a location, an organization, an animal, or an object. There are several definitions of reputation used with respect to organizations (businesses) that we can find in literature. The most widely used definition has been given by by Fombrun and Riel (1997), and according to this definition, "reputation is an aggregated evaluation of past, present and planned activities of a business based on perception of different groups of stakeholders; it is a subjective and collective evaluation of everything that makes an organisation credible and trustworthy". A few basic units of stakeholders are: customers, employees, investors, business associates, public administration, media, local communities and the society as a whole. These groups shape their opinions about a company based on their own personal experiences and the opinions of other entities that come into contact with the company, its goods, services, and staff, as well as the knowledge the company communicates to the outside world via, for example, its advertisement campaigns. People own experiences and observations are important because they allow for verbal verification of actions; it is on this basis that the stakeholders' trust is built, and trust is the cornerstone of credibility.

In light of the above discussion, a company's reputation is not the same as its image, which is characterized as a way of perceiving a given object, or, to be more precise, constituents of its identity established through the processing of data from various sources. Image refers to the mental image people have of themselves, other people, or objects; it also refers to the mental image of a company's identity in the minds of recipients. As a result, a company's image can be described as a specific image or visualization that is generated in the minds of recipients, which may be "artificially" influenced by advertising, or public relations activities. Image is created by the perception, reception, and interpretation of identity elements that allow a business to be recognized and differentiated from others, especially direct competitors. The visual components of an organization's identity include elements such as its name, logo, icons, colors, design, building decor, staff uniforms, and so on, as well as elements such as members' attitudes and behavior patterns, with a focus on contact with the outside world. Identity is created within the company, while image and reputation are created outside of it.

The interpretation of a country's identity by various groups of observers (stakeholders) determines its image. Reputation is a judgement of a country, made on the basis of people's ideas and associations about it, i.e., on the basis of the impression formed in the minds of those who receive the image. As a consequence, image is one of the methods used to form reputation. Furthermore, reputation is created through the experiences that stakeholders have as a result of their

interactions with a given country, and as a result, the strengthened image may be modified in a positive or negative way for a given country. Thus, there exists a relationship between reputation and image as reputation may also have an impact on image.

Stakeholders who are the entities which take part in reputation evaluation process may be divided into external and internal. External stakeholders include: institutions of public administration such as the parliament, the government and ministries, tourists, media including both traditional and modern, investors, businesses on a local and international level, business partners and contractors, international institutions of control and regulation, NGOs, politicians and econo-mists, public opinion, international community. Internal stakeholders include residents as natural persons including citizens, customers, consumers, patients as well as members of various organizations such as businesses, offices, institutions, NGOs. Reputation of a country is influenced by the following factors such as first-hand experiences of stakeholders, their personal accounts with representatives of a given country on international, inter-organizational and interpersonal levels, communication, activities and initiatives of representatives of the state: parliaments, governments, organizations, businesses, individual persons influence of third parties through opinions, reports, ratings etc. developed by various international bodies, stereotypes reinforced by the media reports and other infor-mation centers with respect to particular countries and their residents.

Reputation and image of a country are related to the concept of the "national brand" or the "country brand". The national brand is characterized as a comprehen-sive composition of image and reputation that comprises a sum of functional and emotional values transmitted by a country to the outside world, the values being well-known, valued, and desired by stakeholders of the brand, i.e. organizations, groups, and individuals that exert influence on the country and vice versa. The national brand is the sum of its stakeholders' mutual experiences. As a result, a country's image and reputation are viewed as important components in construct-ing the national brand, which reflects the country's and society's significant, unique values and qualities.

During the last two decades, marketing scholars and public relations scholars have paid increasing attention to nation branding. Dinnie (2015) has defined nation brand as "the unique, multidimensional blend of elements that provide the nation with culturally grounded differentiation and relevance for all of its target audiences". This definition recognized the multidimensional nature of nation brand and brought to the forefront the importance of the presence of a target audience. Fan (2010) however defined nation brand as "the total sum of all perceptions of a nation in the minds of international stakeholders". However, although scholars recognized that nation brand exists, there still exists a lot of disagreement on the concept and definition of a nation brand.

Kaneva (2011) in his study studied 186 reports about nation branding that were published between 1997 and 2009 and categorized the reports under three headings: technical-economic, political, and cultural approaches. The technical-economic perspective sees nation branding as a means of achieving a competitive edge in the global market. Similarly, the political approach sees nation branding as a mechanism for furthering the interests of nations. The cultural approach, on the other hand, relies on nation branding discourses about national identity and history. Based on these approaches he defined nation branding as "a compendium of discourses and practices aimed at reconstituting nationhood through marketing and branding paradigms". Of the publications reviewed by him, the focus on technical-economic perspective was found to be more than half (57%).

Fan (2010) suggested to distinguish between national identity and nation brand identity since there existed a lack of clarity on this subject. National identity, according to Fan, is defined by people within the country, while nation brand identity is defined by people outside the country. According to Fan, nation branding should be concerned with the image and reputation of countries held by foreigners, and defined nation branding as "a process by which a nation's images can be created or altered, monitored, evaluated and proactively managed in order to enhance the country's reputation among a target international audience".

According to Kotler and Gertner (2002), just as corporate brand conveys their value to customers, nation brand could convey its value and attributes in a similar fashion to foreigners. Hence, a competitive advantage to a nation in the global market can be gained by fostering a favorable country reputation. According to Dinnie (2015), those competitive advantages include attracting tourists, investors, and foreign consumers. Recent studies have empirically examined the potential of nation branding.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim of this paper is to highlight arguments supporting the value of a country's reputation in establishing its competitive position on the global market, as well as to identify key attributes that underpin nation-state reputation evaluation.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methods used include analysis of literature on the topic as well as analysis of results of studies on reputation conducted by the Reputation Institute. There is a vast amount of literature and a plethora of researches available on any topic imaginable. It makes sense that the current literature be scanned, compiled and condensed to save future researchers the pains of starting from the scratch and the time involved, especially during a time of pandemic, when doing fieldwork for data collection may not be feasible. Thus, this research uses a scoping review methodology instead of a survey based methodology so as not to be a contributor to the chaos of Information Overload but to help bring order and clarity in the minds of future readers of this subject and build upon further steps towards practical execution.

COUNTRY OF ORIGIN FRAMEWORK

Before we embark on the study of country of origin effect (COO effect), we should develop a framework to understand our discussion. Country of origin (COO) has one of the most important impacts on foreign consumers' decision-making behavior according to a study by Baldauf et al. (2009). They mention that previous studies have found that consumers use COO as an extrinsic cue to evaluate products and services. Empirical findings indicate that COO positively influences several consumer level outcome variables, such as perceived product quality, brand equity, trust, and purchase intention. A halo or a description construct, according to previous research, may explain the COO effect. Nebenzhal et al. (2009), for example, proposed a complex COO effect by combining a halo and a description build. Consumers use COO to evaluate a foreign country's products when they have no prior experience with that country's products, according to the process (halo effect). The halo effect is eventually replaced by a summary effect after a foreign country's goods are added to the market. That is, as consumers' experiences develop, so do their expectations of the country's product attributes, and these newly shaped perceptions play a significant role in evaluating the country.

Recent COO studies, on the other hand, have begun to incorporate political and cultural factors in their analysis of the COO effect. For example, Kang and Yang (2010) discovered that South Korea's country reputation (overall country image) has a positive impact on American consumers' attitudes and buying intentions when it comes to South Korean goods. Baldauf et al. (2009) also mention that "the focus of COO research has gradually shifted from evaluating differences in product evaluations and preferences based on the mere notion of the national origin of a product to a more complex construct, namely the image of the countries under consideration".

In a similar manner, recent COO research has begun to reveal a range of opinions on COO constructs. Despite the fact that scholars use various meanings and categorizations, most agree that the 'overall country picture' and the 'product image' (of a country) are two separate constructs. The underlying premise of the 'overall country image' is that the COO effect is obtained from a country's overall image. The COO effect, according to another line of study, is caused by consumers' expectations of a country's goods.

FACTORS AFFECTING A COUNTRY'S REPUTATION

The reputation of a nation is shaped by its members' conscious, intended practices (governments, public agencies, NGOs, and the like), as well as objective events and actions of individuals that are difficult to regulate - corporations, organizations, institutions, and ordinary people. Countries develop their reputations, accord-ing to Anholt (2002), through the exchange of fabric and immaterial values through the subsequent six contact channels i.e. brand export, internal and external policy, foreign investment and immigration, culture and national heritage, people, tourism.

In the author's view these channels complement each other, and their interactions can be imagined in the form of a hexagon. It should be mentioned that the extent of a channel's use is determined by both objective (geography, natural resources, history, etc.) and subjective factors (i.e., political system, culture, tradi-tions, customs etc.). Consumers are one of the most important groups of stakeholders, as they assess a country based on the quality of goods and services produced

and provided by its companies. The most easily associated element with a country is its product. Tourism, human potential, and living standards are all less important than the ability to access goods that are affordable to everyone, anywhere. Buyers who do not have complete details about a product base their purchase on the product's or brand's country of origin, taking into account its image and reputation. It's known as the "country-of-origin influence."

As a result of globalization, so-called hybrid goods emerge, whose country of origin is difficult to pinpoint. As a result, the country-of-origin effect can be described as the association of a given product or brand with a specific country that is the product's source, regardless of where the product was produced. As a result, the country-of-origin definition can be replaced by the brand's country of origin. Toyota, for example, which has plants in Europe, such as Turkey, is still regarded as a trustworthy Japanese brand.

INDICATORS OF A COMPANY'S REPUTATION

A business's or a country's reputation is an aggregated evaluation of an individual made by various groups of stakeholders based on their various expectations, demands, and requirements. The consequence of assessing several different factors and fields of activity, which are referred to as reputation qualities, is reputation. These areas are evaluated as part of reputation evaluation process established by different universities, research centers, and consulting firms. A technique used by Fortune magazine, which has been conducting annual opinion polls among executives and management specialists from various industries since 1983, is one of the most common methodologies for assessing corporate reputation. Businesses are ranked in the following areas by the respondents: products/services quality, innovation, quality of management, long-term investment, social responsibility, people management, financial soundness, use of corporate assets, global competitiveness. A 11-point scale is used for each region. For each company, the obtained data are averaged to generate an overall reputation score.

Since 1999, the Reputation Institute has been rigorously assessing countries' reputations. Indicators of a country's reputation are determined using 16 attributes divided into three categories i.e., effective government, appealing environment, advanced economy.

Residents of G8 member countries (France, Japan, Canada, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, the USA and Russia) fill out an online questionnaire (CAWI) to determine these characteristics. In 2018, more than 58,000 people took part in the survey, which ranked the world's 55 largest countries by GDP. Only responses from respondents who are somewhat or quite familiar with the country being assessed, i.e. the Informed General Public, are considered during the rating period, which runs from March to April.

A country's reputation measures are rated on a scale of 0 to 100 and are divided into the following categories:

- excellent (score above 80),
- strong (score 70-79),
- average (score 60-69),
- weak (score 40-59),
- poor (score below 40).

Due to strong dynamics of changes occurring both globally as well as locally, the reputation levels of countries fluctuate year to year. Some countries improve their reputation, others show a negative trend. In 2018, as compared to 2017, the following countries improved their reputation: Sweden, Finland, Norway, Japan, Italy, United Kingdom, France, Greece, Argentina, South Korea, United States of America, Israel, Turkey and China. The following countries, however, observed a fall in their level of reputation: Switzerland, Australia, Canada, Denmark, Netherlands, Ireland, Austria, Spain, Germany, Thailand, Taiwan, Peru, Malaysia, Poland, Brazil, India, UAE, Philippines, South Africa, Mexico, Qatar, Romania, Venezuela, Kazakhstan, Colombia, Algeria, Saudi Arabia, Russia, and Nigeria.

The top five positions for 2019, however, were taken by Sweden, Switzerland, Norway, Finland, and New Zealand. Top positions are occupied by Scandinavian and island countries, these countries are well known for their neutrality and legal order. Countries with highest reputation scores are respected, above all, for lack of corruption, clean natural environment, high level of prosperity, well-being and friendly locals. The United States achieve high scores in areas which are referred to as 'rational' i.e. advanced technology or strong brands made in America, but when it comes to 'emotional' categories such as trust, respect and admiration the score is rather weak. Out of all countries on the list as many as 55% received reputation score below average. It is worth mentioning that countries with biggest population (China, India, the USA, Indonesia or Brazil) or these with the highest GDP (such as the USA, China, Germany or India) do not enjoy good reputation.

RANKING CORRELATION WITH VALUE CREATION

Reputation Institute found that there is high correlation between their rankings and the value creation observed by these economies. Value creation can be defined as those activities which boost the economy and help the social welfare of the economy to increase. These activities are also associated with developed economies or countries that have high social welfare schemes which makes it more desirable for certain individuals. These value creations can be subdivided into the following: the willingness for an individual to live, work, buy, study, visit, invest and attend or organize events in that country. Reputation Institute found the following correlations with their ranking:

1. Live – 0.76
2. Work – 0.73
3. Buy – 0.73
4. Study – 0.72
5. Visit – 0.72
6. Invest – 0.71
7. Attend/Organize Event – 0.69

This result, however, does not come as a surprise since the willingness of an individual for these value creation aspects depends a lot of the reputation on the economies which is further dependent on their ranking as being an advanced economy, having an appealing environment and having an effective government in place.

THE COO EFFECT

During the 90s, Philip Kotler dealt with the topic of brand of the country of origin in his four books: The Marketing of Nations, Marketing Places Europe, Marketing Asian Places, and Marketing for Hospitality and Tourism. He developed the idea of the Country-of-Origin effect where people associated the brands with the country to which they belong and hence, the identity of the country and its reputation would bear a large part on the presumptions about how the product would be. And hence, the brand would even become a way for people to reinforce or re-examine the reputation the brand and the country would hold collectively. Several studies have looked at how the image of a rustic company is affected by the reputation of the region. Only a few studies, on the other hand, looked at the impact of corporate reputation on country reputation, or the inverse COO (Country of Origin) effect.

As mentioned earlier, Dinnie (2015) defines the nation brand as "the unique, multidimensional blend of elements that provide the state with culturally grounded differentiation and relevance for all of its target audiences". It is also defined as "the total sum of all perceptions of a nation within the minds of international stakeholders" by Fan (2010). Kalamova and Konrad (2010) found that foreign direct investment (FDI) is essentially driven by nation brand of a number country. Their findings indicated that the quantity of FDI into a number country rises by 27 percent as its nation brand index increase by one point. Previous studies noted that the COO effect is often explained by a halo or a summary construct. According to the process, at first, consumers use COO to evaluate a foreign country's products when they have no experience with that country's products (halo effect). Then, after a far-off country's products are introduced within the market, a halo effect is gradually replaced by a summary effect. That is, as consumers' experiences increase, their perceptions about the attributes of products of that country are formed, and therefore the newly formed perceptions play a summary role in evaluating the country.

Even the Reputation Industry have carried out a study to examine how much does a point on their reputation scale led to rise in this COO effect, if at all. They examined all the countries and first correlated their ranking with the present market volume of tourists per capita and export rates of these countries over the

years. They then checked the effects on these tracking points when a country increased or decreased in their reputation points each year. The following conclusion was found for each of the economic impacts: 1 point increase in country reputation resulted in a 0.9% increase in the proportion of tourists per capita approximately. Further, 1 point increase in country reputation resulted in a 0.3% increase in export rates (in dollars) approximately. However, these results cannot be linearly regressed since percentage increase is not a bounded variable like the reputation points are. But this is still an important conclusion since it shows that there in fact does lie an underlying effect of the reputation of a country on their brand of services and products, dubbed the COO Effect.

Olins (2002) in Trading Identities establishes a linkage between nation branding and companies going global. His hypothesis is that countries should act like companies whereas global companies (companies that function in foreign markets) represent a "state within state" entity, so need to combat different responsibilities. Where there's a robust dominant image of a nation, the nation's products are often viewed as buyer inferred brand extensions to the national parent brand with the pictures of all the nation's products being potentially influenced by where they originated.

Now that we have established the COO Effect, it is also important to consider the kind of COO effect that brands face. The author posits that there are mainly two kind of COO effects when seen from the perspective of the country and not the brand. The first being the General COO Effect and the second one being the Specific COO Effect.

The General COO Effect is applicable to all brand, services and products that arise from that country irrespective of company. In this effect, the reputation of the country effects the way people see the brand because of how they perceive the country rather than how they perceive the company. An example of this is how Asian brands suffer from a quality perception in comparison to their Western counterparts. While this might not be the case on actually comparing the two products but buyers are still influenced by this type of perception. The Specific COO Effect is applicable to certain companies or certain industries that have been favored by that country due to certain economic or legal provisions provided to these countries or brands. Examples of these include German engineering for cars and other manufacturing goods, Belgian chocolates and confectionaries, French wine and Italian fashion et al. We need to remember, however, that the COO Effect can take any direction, i.e. positive or negative. For example, while Parisian beauty products were considered the best in the world, we are seeing a shift away from those products due to rising popularity of environmental awareness groups and also religious tensions in the country.

Another form of COO Effect that we can consider within one's own country includes the concept of Brand Ethnocentrism which includes preferring brands made in one's own country. The reason for this effect might not be the reputation of one's country or other country on the reputation of the brand but differs that this is generally borne out of protectionist notions or patriotic fervour. However, we should consider that depending on the population of the subset, this Effect is also very strong.

According to Newburry et al. (2015), the connection between country reputation and company reputation is one among the foremost important contemporary issues among reputation and international business scholars. Some corporations with favorable country reputations (e.g., German companies) can have competitive advantages within the global market despite their low corporate reputation. On the opposite hand, corporations from countries with unfavorable country reputation attempt to overcome their associations with the countries by that specialize in corporate reputation. For instance, China is challenged to sell Chinese brand products due to its unfavorable country reputation, due to this regard, understanding the connection between country reputation and company reputation will provide implications for both governments and corporations.

Previous studies proposed that there's a two-way influence between country image and brand of a rustic. That is, brand of a number country isn't only affected but can also affect a number country's reputation. As Anholt (2002) argued, consumers' perceptions a few corporations can improve or maybe change the reputation of a number country. However, in contrast to the COO effect on corporations, the inverse COO effect has received limited attention. Lopez et al. (2011) conceptually proposed that corporate image positively influences country image when consumers are conscious of the company brand and therefore the country. Further, White empirically tested the inverse COO effect. The findings indicated that knowledge of the COO of a brand positively influences the country image of a number country. Moreover, the study found a big increase in positive country image after the COO of a brand is understood to the participants. The inverse COO effect could also be explained by a summary effect therein consumers' knowledge and knowledge with a country's brand influences their perceptions about the country. Newburry et al. (2015) also noted that "consumer experience with foreign products and their companies is a key source of information regarding the home countries of these companies since they often have little direct exposure to the countries themselves". as an example, consumers' experiences with Disney may have a positive impact on international consumers' perceptions about the us. Therefore, supported such findings, this study examines how corporate reputation of a corporation influences country reputation of a number country.

Furthermore, there's a disagreement between scholars about the importance of COO and brand. The argument here is about whether brand image blurs the effect of COO. A study by Kang and Yang (2010) found that the consequences of country reputation on consumers' product attitude and buy intention are blurred by overall corporate reputation. However, still less is understood about which cue is more important in what context.

BENEFITS OF HAVING GOOD REPUTATION

In case of businesses good reputation generates a number of tangible benefits such as: increase of revenues from sales, lower cost of capital, availability of the best workforce, smaller risk of conducting business activity etc. Companies with strong positive reputation achieve much better financial results.

In case of countries, their good reputation translates in many positive results in the area of economy, politics, society and culture. These benefits are reflected in activities and behavior patterns of representatives of other countries both on the level of organization (businesses, institutions, public administration organs), as well as natural persons (buyers, tourists, workers, students, residents). Consequently, friendly business environment attracts investors and entrepreneurs whose activities contribute to the development of regions and the whole country. New enterprises create new work places, fuel the national budget with taxes they pay, build infrastructure, pass on know-how, disseminate new technological developments, come into cooperation with local suppliers etc. Attractive natural environment, traditions, cultural heritage, scientific centers, well-known products tempt tourists to visiting, consumers to buying national products, young people to studying, workers to looking for employment and settling down on long-term basis. Efficient management assuring peace, security, legal order, respect for the code of ethics, credibility of authorities and public institutions facilitates establishing diplomatic contacts and cooperation in many aspects and on many levels, which may result in attracting international organizations to the country, hosting important international events etc.

The benefits resulting from good reputation are not only the effect of activities of particular groups of stakeholders but also come from attitudes towards others and dissemination of positive opinion about a country, recommending its merits and values. The foundation of these behavior patterns is the trust the stakeholders put in a given country, its authorities and citizens.

LIMITATIONS

In spite of the contributions of this study, its major limitation is the paucity of data as the study is purely a literature review.

CONCLUSION

Dynamic changes in economic, social, political and cultural life trigger growth of importance in the process of building a competitive position not only of businesses or other organisations or persons but also of nation states. The reputation of a country is a multi-faceted assessment made by internal and external stakeholders on the basis of their own experiences and opinions as well as experiences of others. The reputation determines behaviour patterns, attitudes and activities of particular groups of stakeholders with respect to a given country. Good reputation attracts investors, talented workers, tourists, consumers, scientists, artists etc., what in turn contributes to development and improves competitive advantage on the international arena. As a consequence, governments and representatives put in every effort to facilitate positive perception of their country through emphasizing its merits and values. International organisations such as the Reputation Institute, measure reputation of countries considering various factors and attributes which are pertinent to three crucial areas: efficiency of the government policy, attractiveness of natural environment and cultural heritage as well as the level of the national economy and its contribution to the development of the global economy.

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