Country Image and Product Attitude: An Estimation of Switching Costs for the Korean Wave[*]

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Abstract

Purpose – This study examines the mediating effect of switching costs (economic risk costs and set-up costs) on the relationships of country image with product attitude and product attachment. Switching-cost effects for the Korean Wave, which are insufficiently addressed in the literature, were investigated using the country image of Korea as a proxy for the Korean Wave. Moreover, this study examined the economic effects of the Korean Wave and the negative effect of the Terminal High Altitude Area Defense (THAAD) deployment on these economic effects.

Design/methodology – A total of 302 Chinese consumers were surveyed using a questionnaire. Because this was an exploratory study and was not based on a classical model, the PLS-SEM method was employed to test the stability of the model and its hypotheses.

Findings – Switching costs had mediating effects on the relationships of country image with product attitude and product attachment. The switching-cost effects for the Korean Wave were verified. However, neither the economic image nor cultural image of Korea had significant effects on the economic risk costs. Moreover, the economic image of Korea had no significant effect on the set-up costs.

Originality/value – This study broadened the understanding of the relationships among country image, switching costs, product attitude, and product attachment and advanced the knowledge of relevant theories. The results contribute theoretically to the literature on switching-cost effects for the Korean Wave. The results confirmed the negative effect of THAAD deployment on the economic effects of the Korean Wave. In the rapidly developing international environment, these research results could serve as theoretical reference guidelines for suppliers when developing marketing strategies.

Keywords: Country Image, Korean Wave, Product Attitude, Product Attachment, Switching Costs
JEL Classifications: D12, F14, O53

1. Introduction

Globalization is a ubiquitous characteristic of the contemporary economy and an essential trend in global economic development. Because international trade has grown vigorously, research into consumer attitudes toward international products is necessary. Businesses must work-six times harder to attract new customers than to retain existing customers (Peppers and Rogers, 1993). The purchase probability of new customers is 6%, whereas that of regular

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customers is 50%, demonstrating that regular customers are more likely to buy products from a company than new customers are (Griffin, 1997). This indicates the importance of maintaining long-term relationships with regular customers, which also requires substantial attention and effort. Therefore, studies have focused on product attachment (Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2004/2010; Schifferstein and Zwartkruis-Pelgrim, 2008) and the attitudes that lead to the formation of a bond between customers and products. Understanding customer attitudes, especially toward products, can facilitate prediction of their intentions and behaviors (Sengupta and Johar, 2002). Generally, positive customer attitudes toward products are regarded as proof of product attachment (Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2010). However, positive attitudes are not necessarily equivalent to product attachment (Kleine and Baker, 2004). Strong attachment is not usually linked to positive and active emotions, and weak attachment is not necessarily associated with negative and passive emotions (Schultz, Kleine and Kernan, 1989). In the present study, product attitude and product attachment were regarded as two separate dependent variables. When consumers have positive attitudes toward a product, they can make more informed judgments and may have stronger intentions to buy the product (Wu, Zhu and Dai, 2010). Additionally, the emotions associated with consumers' experiences (including product attachment) strongly influence their purchase decisions (Wilson, 2000). Product attachment develops as a connection between a consumer and a product, which in turn affects the consumer's behavior (Mikulincer, Shaver and Pereg, 2003). A closer connection corresponds to a stronger attachment (Pedeliento et al., 2016). These studies have proven that product attitude and product attachment both affect consumer behaviors; thus, the factors affecting product attitude and product attachment must be identified. In a globalized market, consumers often connect a product with their country image. Country image is bonded with the reputation of a country and its enterprises (Kang and Yang, 2010). That is, the image of a country can affect consumers' perceptions, attitudes, and ratings of the products manufactured in that country.

An individual's subjection to influences and biases from a country image is known as the Country Stereotyping Effect (CSE). The factors influencing the CSE include consumers' experiences with the products of the country, personal experiences (e.g., study and travel experiences in the country), knowledge of the country, political inclinations, religion, ethnocentric tendencies, and fear of the unknown (Samiee, 1994). A product's country of origin can affect consumers' perceptions and actions toward it through its country image. A country image causes consumers to link the country's products with the image, which affects their perceptions of the country in terms of impression, reputation, and stereotypes (Nagashima, 1970/1977). In an era of internationalization, consumers can select commodities with diversified cultural contents. Consequently, consumers are highly concerned with and sensitive to country of origin (Samiee, 1994). Country image affects international consumers' attitudes and purchase intention toward products made in that country (Kang and Yang, 2010). For the development of specific product attitudes, country image is more important than brand, price, and quality (Lantz and Loeb, 1996). In a complex international market, consumers are exposed to different countries with different cultures. When the level of internationalization is high, people are more likely to accept different cultures (Luthans and Doh, 2009). Various products promoting cultural contents are present in the international market, such as those associated with the Korean Wave. The cultural factors behind such products also affect consumers' product attitudes and attachment. Consumers prefer products whose cultural contents are similar to their own (Kaynak and Cavusgil, 1983). Korean and Chinese cultures have had a long and complex relationship. The high similarity between these two cultures has contributed to the popularity of South Korean culture in China.

The Korean Wave refers to an increase in the popularity of South Korean culture in foreign countries. The term originates from the board game Go. The Korean Wave began with the rise of South Korean culture in China and Southeast Asian countries in the late 1990s (Kim Bok-Rae, 2015). Since the 1990s, South Korea has become a major producer of cultural products that are exported to neighboring Asian countries (Jang and Paik, 2012). Korean soap operas (K-dramas), including *What is Love* and *Star in my Heart*, both of which aired in 1997, were the first cultural products that South Korea exported to China. K-dramas have subsequently become popular throughout East Asia. Korean Wave 2.0 (K-pop) and Korean Wave 3.0 (K-culture) followed, and the Korean Wave quickly entered its mature stage with Korean Wave 4.0 (K-style). South Korean culture has now gained popularity worldwide, including in East Asia, Southeast Asia, Europe, and the United States (Jang and Paik, 2012). Korean Wave exports are particularly favored by young people, who are often attracted to Korean food, music, drama, cinema, fashion, and cosmetics (Kim Bok-Rae, 2015). In addition to attracting legions of fans for Korean products, the Korean Wave has also brought substantial benefits to South Korea (Huang, 2009). Sales of products associated with the Korean Wave have increased, as have prices. Notably, buyers of Korean-Wave products have not switched to alternatives, which indicates the switching costs of the Korean-Wave. Switching costs can affect consumer attitudes toward their long-term relationships with current product providers (Burnham, Frels and Mahajan, 2003). However, few empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of the Korean Wave on switching costs. The phenomenon of the Korean Wave demonstrates how culture can improve a country's image and strengthen its economic competitiveness in the global market (Huang, 2009). Indeed, the South Korean government has fully supported the Korean Wave (Ryoo, 2008). Verifying the switching costs involved in the Korean Wave can enable South Korean firms to gain economic benefits by controlling and adjusting for such costs.

This study investigates the mediating effect of switching costs (economic risk costs and set-up costs) on country image, product attitude, and product attachment. The country image of South Korea is used as a proxy variable for the Korean Wave to explore its effect on switching costs. Thus, the economic effects of the deployment of the Terminal High Altitude Area Defense (THAAD) on the Korean Wave can be identified.

2. Literature Review and Development of Hypotheses

2.1. Country Image

Country image is the attitude of one country's nationals toward another country (Maher and Carter, 2011); it is a multidimensional, multiangled, multifaceted concept that incorporates the country's politics, economy, culture, technology, and society (Han, 1989). Country-of-origin image and country image are often confused with each other because some scholars believe them to be identical (Elliot, 2004). Schooler (1965) was the first scholar to investigate the influence of a product's country of origin. Scholars have subsequently evaluated the relationship of country of origin with purchase intention (Liefeld, 2004; Pharr, 2005) and consumer behavior (Bearden and Netemeyer, 1999); thus, theories and models have been developed to predict the influence of international markets on the general population. With the globalization of production systems, Country image began to attract increasing research attention (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993). The beliefs, information technology, industrialization, living standards, and economic development of a country comprise a cognitive country image (Wang et al., 2012). By contrast, feelings toward a country

comprise an emotional country image (Maher and Carter, 2011). For example, some Chinese people have negative impressions of South Korea due to the deployment of the THAAD; this resentment is an emotional country image.

The effects of country image primarily include the halo effect and summary construct effect. The halo effect occurs when consumers are unfamiliar with a product; by contrast, the summary construct effect, which is the combined effect of product attributes and national reputation, occurs once a consumer has become familiar with a product (Kang and Yang, 2010). If country image is consistent with the country's products, country image can have a significant positive effect on the sales of the country's products. However, and inconsistency between country image and products has a negative effect (Nebenzahl, Jaffe and Lampert, 1997). Consumers with knowledge of a country's high capability and advanced technology (i.e., cognitive country image) trust in the quality of that country's products. In addition, consumers generally prefer to purchase products from developed countries because they believe that those products have high credibility and are of satisfactory quality.

Since the 1970s, country image has been widely considered in marketing, international business, and consumer behavior research because it is a source of national competitiveness. Studies on country image and products have mainly investigated the effects of country image on product purchases (Koschate-Fischer, Diamantopoulos and Oldenkotte, 2012; Wang et al., 2012), product evaluation (Bayraktar, 2015; Kim Jai-Beom and Suh Yong-Gu, 2000; Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2007), product perceptions (Pappu, Quester and Cooksey, 2007), and product preferences (Roth, Diamantopoulos and Montesinos, 2008). Recent studies of the effect of country image on products have focused on destination tourism products (Dedeoğlu, 2019; Zhang et al., 2018). According to these comprehensive studies, country image can affect consumers' relationships with and attitudes toward products. However, no studies have researched switching costs as a mediating variable between country image and product evaluation. Therefore, this study fills this gap in the literature.

2.2. Switching Costs

From the perspective of product supplier and buyer relationships, switching costs include the overall cost and difficulty of switching to a new buyer–supplier relationship (Weiss and Anderson, 1992), the additional costs and effort incurred when switching supplier (Ping, 1993), elements that do not define the termination of relationships (Morgan and Hunt, 1994), and investment that inhibits supplier switching (Nielson, 1996). In the context of service relationships, switching costs refer to the time, effort, and money that must be spent when switching to a new service provider (Jones and Tremblay, 2000), economic and psychological costs (Jones, Mothersbaugh and Beatty, 2002), uncomfortable and painful perceptions (Chen and Hitt, 2002), and the one-time cost to the service provider (Burnham, Frels and Mahajan, 2003).

Scholars have employed various classifications of switching costs, with the most popular being those of Burnham, Frels and Mahajan (2003) and Jones, Mothersbaugh and Beatty (2002). The classification developed by Burnham, Frels and Mahajan (2003) is more comprehensive and extensive (Balabanis et al., 2006; Chang and Chen, 2008; Chuang, 2011; Maicas, Polo and Sese, 2009; Tsai et al., 2006; Whitten and Wakefield, 2006). The present study investigates the international market situation. Consumers may not fully understand supplier information when being offered multinational products. Economic risk costs measure the negative consequences and uncertainties that may be incurred under a lack of information regarding suppliers. This study measures the cost of switching from Korean-Wave products, which should reflect consumers' willingness to switch from Korean products

to products of other countries. Consumers tend to feel unhappy and uncomfortable when they are forced to switch to another country's products. Set-up costs, which measures unpleasantness in the sales process when switching to a new supplier, is also applicable to this study. Therefore, this study used economic risk costs and set-up costs based on the classification developed by Burnham, Frels and Mahajan (2003).

The antecedent variables of switching costs include service quality (Ye et al., 2019); perceived effective communication and trust (Yen, Wang and Horng, 2011); satisfaction (Zacharias, Figueiredo and Silva Araujo, 2009); past investments, economic value, and technical self-efficacy (Ray, Kim and Morris, 2012); and perceived value (Liu, 2006). Because no studies have investigated country image as an antecedent variable of switching costs, this is addressed in the present study. Studies using switching costs as a mediating variable have focused on service quality and loyalty (Chao and Chen, 2015; Gao et al., 2014), satisfaction and loyalty (Chao and Chen, 2015; Matzler et al., 2015), and trust and loyalty (Garga and Bambale, 2016). However, no studies have evaluated the mediating effect of switching costs on the relationships between country image, product attitude, and product attachment, and this is another gap filled in the present study. In addition to loyalty, the consequence variables of switching costs include customer relationship commitment (Gan and Li, 2013), inertia (Lucia-Palacios, Pérez-López and Polo-Redondo, 2016; Sun et al., 2017), word-of-mouth (Baloglu, Zhong and Tanford, 2017), emotional commitment (Baloglu, Zhong and Tanford, 2017), repurchase intention or behavior and satisfaction (Blut et al., 2015), retention intention (Kim Young-Berm and Lee Sang-Ho, 2017), switching barrier (Zhou, 2016), switching intention (Jung, Han and Oh, 2017; Wang, 2018), and perceived switching value (Dang, Zhang and Morgan, 2017). However, the effects of switching costs on product attitude and product attachment remain unclear. Therefore, the present study fills this research gap and expands the academic theory of switching costs.

2.3. Product Attitude and Attachment

Product attitude is a consumer's evaluation and judgment of product attributes (e.g., style, quality, and brand) (Erdogan and Uzkurt, 2010); it is also regarded as a consumer's general understanding and opinion of products.

Studies of product attitude have explored its relationship with ethnocentrism (Erdogan and Uzkurt, 2010; Wu, Zhu and Dai, 2010); purchase intention (Kang and Yang, 2010; Wu, Zhu and Dai, 2010; Wu and Lee, 2012); consumers' beliefs (Munch, Boller and Swasy, 1993); and warranty perceptions (Erevelles, 1993). Although Kang and Yang (2010) report the effect of national reputation on product attitude, few studies have investigated the mediating effects of switching costs on the relationship between country image and product attitude. Therefore, the present study explores this mediating effect and provides a theoretical basis for further academic research in this area.

A consumer's specific experience and bond with a product is referred to as product attachment (Schifferstein and Zwartkruis-Pelgrim, 2008). Consumers and products can become highly connected when bonding occurs (Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2010). To continually consume a product, consumers must obtain a degree of emotional fascination with, attachment to, and affection for a product and thus be reluctant to cease using the product (Page, 2014). Product attachment is essential for maintaining a long-term relationship between consumers and products. From another perspective, long-term use of a product is conducive to social development and environmental damage prevention (Cooper, 2002; Mugge, Schoormans and Schifferstein, 2005a). Consumers often develop attachments to products of special significance (Mugge, 2007), and an emotional connection is established

when a consumer is particularly fond of a product (Mugge, 2007). In addition to the connection between meaningful products and consumers, daily supplies can also fulfill the attachment function. Consequently, determining which products consumers will form favorable relationships with is difficult (Kleine and Baker, 2004). Product attachment results in a sense of irreplaceability (Kleine and Baker, 2004) and results from the interaction between people and products (Fenko, Schifferstein and Hekkert, 2011). Fenko, Schifferstein and Hekkert (2011) proposed a model of the interaction between people and products in which product attachment is formed through product experience. In this model, the special meaning of a product is developed through consumer–product interaction (Page, 2014).

Product attachment and product attitude differ in the following respects. (1) Attachment develops from the interaction between a person and object over time and indicates that the object is meaningful to the consumer (Baldwin et al., 1996). By contrast, product attitude does not require direct contact between the person and object (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977). (2) For consumers with attachment to a product, the product is often vital to the individual's life (Dwayne Ball and Tasaki, 1992; Richins, 1994); however, consumers may also hold an affirmative attitude toward products that are not indispensable (Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2010). (3) Attachment can lead to specific protective behavior (Dwayne and Tasaki, 1992; Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2005a) because consumers try to maintain a long-term relationship with the product. However, an affirmative attitude does not lead to such protective behavior (Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2010).

Factors affecting product attachment are memories and enjoyment (Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2005c; Schifferstein and Zwartkruis-Pelgrim, 2008), product–personality congruence (Govers and Mugge 2004; Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2005b), the product's utility and appearance (Mugge, 2007; Mugge, Schifferstein and Schoormans, 2010), and product–self congruity and product reliability (Pedeliento et al., 2016). Product attachment affects brand attachment, brand loyalty, product irreplaceability (Pedeliento, et al., 2016), and use intention (Normark and Mankila, 2013). According to a literature review, the effect of switching costs on the relationship between country image and product attachment remains unexplored. The present study examines this effect and extends the relevant theories.

2.4. Development of Hypotheses

Switching to a new provider places a burden on the consumer if the they trusted the previous provider (Heide and Weiss, 1995), resulting in high switching costs. Trust is positively associated with switching costs, and higher trust yields higher perceived switching costs (Carter et al., 2014; Saparito, Chen and Sapienza, 2004). Positive country image results in consumers placing more trust in the country's products; thus, enhancing country image can increase switching costs. Trust mediates the relationship between buyers and sellers as well as the causal relationship between customer retention and customer loyalty (Reynolds and Arnold, 2000). Trust is a crucial experiential variable in the formation and development of an enterprise's relationship with consumers and is related to the openness of the relationship (Shankar et al., 2002). Trust also increases switching costs, which positively influence customer retention and loyalty (Burnham, Frels and Mahajan, 2003; Pick and Eisend, 2016). Studies have also revealed that a country's economic, international-relations, and cultural images positively affect product evaluation and purchase intentions (Ahn Jong-Seok, 2014; Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Cattin, Jolibert and Lohnes, 1982; Clark, 1990). Accordingly, switching costs mediate the relationships of these images with product attitude and product attachment.

In addition, improving country image can reduce the consumers' perceived risks of purchasing a product from that country's providers. Perceived risk is negatively associated with switching costs (Yen, 2015), and reducing the perceived risk increases the switching costs. Therefore, country image positively affects switching costs. Furthermore, improving country image enhances the reputation of the country's providers, and provider's reputation positively affects switching costs (Milan, Eberle and Bebber, 2015). This reaffirms the positive effect of country image on switching costs. Furthermore, positive country image is associated with high quality of offering (i.e., the evaluations of the value and benefit of a country's products and services) (Pick and Eisend, 2014). Because quality of offering has a significant positive effect on switching costs (Gao et al., 2014), country image also positively affects switching costs. In summary, relevant studies have identified the positive effects of country image on switching costs from different perspectives. Country image is a general concept composed of generalized images; it represents not only a country's products but also the maturity of its economy and politics, its level of industrialization, and its history, international relations, cultures, customs, and technological refinement (Allred, Chakraborty and Miller, 2000; Bannister and Saunders, 1978; Desborde, 1991). Acordingly, the economic, international-relations, and cultural images of a country are inferred to positively affect switching costs. Therefore, this study establishes the following hypotheses:

H1: Economic image has a positive effect on switching costs.
H1-1: Economic image has a positive effect on economic risk costs.
H1-2: Economic image has a positive effect on set-up costs.
H2: International-relations image has a positive effect on switching costs.
H2-1: International-relations image has a positive effect on economic risk costs.
H2-2: International-relations image has a positive effect on set-up costs.
H3: Cultural image has a positive effect on switching costs.
H3-1: Cultural image has a positive effect on economic risk costs.
H3-2: Cultural image has a positive effect on set-up costs.

Switching costs affect consumers' attitudes toward maintaining long-term relationships with product providers (Burnham, Frels and Mahajan, 2003), this is the primary factor affecting customer retention (Burnham, Frels and Mahajan, 2003). Increasing switching costs reduces consumers' intention to switch to a new provider (Wu et al., 2014). This is because higher product attachment yields higher repurchase intention among consumers. Positive switching costs can strengthen the emotional connection between consumers and providers (Jones et al., 2007; Ngo and Pavelková, 2017). In addition, switching costs and brand attachment have a co-moderating effect (Shi and Chen, 2011), indicating that switching costs can affect consumers' brand attachment. Increasing switching costs can enhance loyalty (attachment to an enterprise), and perceived switching costs are positively related to consumer word-of-mouth and loyalty (Pick and Eisend, 2016).

According to status quo bias theory, people prefer to maintain their current state; thus, people may not switch to new options even if those options are superior (Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988; Sun et al., 2017). Inertia is a manifestation of status quo bias and refers to consumers' attachment to and maintenance of their current state along with an unwillingness to switch to better options (Polites and Karahanna, 2012; Sun et al., 2017). Hence, consumer inertia causes them to remain with existing providers to whom they are attached and continue purchasing the products and services they already use. Sun et al. (2017) classified inertia as

behavioral, cognitive, and affective inertia. Behavioral inertia refers to the continued use a product or service simply due to habit; cognitive inertia refers to the continued use of a nonoptimal product or service despite awareness of this nonoptimality; and affective inertia refers to the continued use of products and services due to emotional attachment. Switching costs positively affect inertia (Lucia-Palacios, Pérez-López and Polo-Redondo, 2016; Polites and Karahanna, 2012; Sun et al., 2017). Therefore, this study establishes the following hypotheses:

> *H4: Economic risk costs have a positive effect on product attitude and attachment.*
> *H4-1: Economic risk costs have a positive effect on product attitude.*
> *H4-2: Economic risk costs have a positive effect on product attachment.*
> *H5: Set-up costs have a positive effect on economic risk costs, product attitude, and product attachment.*
> *H5-2: Set-up costs have a positive effect on product attitude.*
> *H5-3: Set-up costs have a positive effect on product attachment.*

Set-up costs and economic risk costs are regarded as procedural switching costs (i.e., switching costs that require time and effort). Consequently, set-up costs and economic risk costs are correlated. Economic risk costs are the costs that consumers experience when they have insufficient information regarding providers (Guiltinan, 1989; Jackson, 1985; Klemperer, 1995; Samuelson and Zeckhauser, 1988), whereas set-up costs are the initial time and effort that must be expended when switching to new products or establishing a relationship with a new provider (Guiltinan, 1989; Klemperer, 1995). Therefore, the investment of more time and effort with insufficient information when switching to new products results in higher negative costs. Accordingly, set-up costs are believed to positively affect economic risk costs; thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> *H5-1: Set-up costs positively influence economic risk costs.*

Fig. 1 presents the research model established in this study. This study tests the mediating effect of switching costs on the relationships of country image with product attitude and attachment.
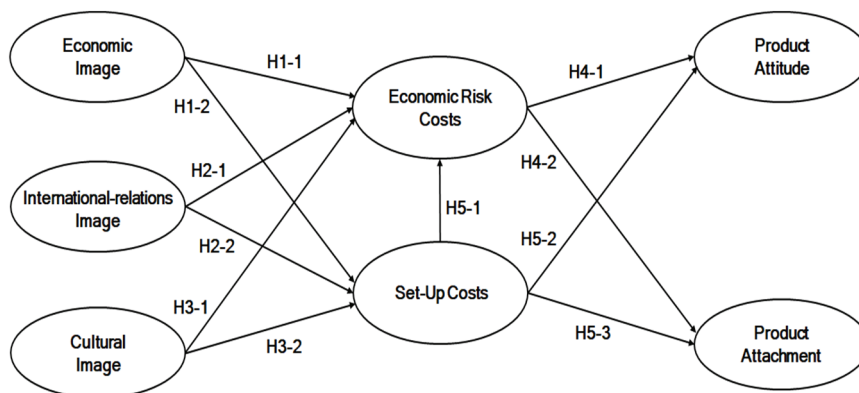
Fig. 1. Research Model

Table 1. Operational Definition

Construct	Definition	Source
Economic Image	Economic image refers to the levels of industrialization and urbanization and per capita income of a country.	Klein, Ettenson and Morris (1998) Parameswaran and Pisharodi (1994) Martin and Eroglu (1993) Papadopoulos (1987) Laroche et al. (2005)
International-Relations Image	Relationship image is the thought and knowledge of the relationship between an individual's country and other countries.	Parameswaran and Yapark (1987) Cattin, Jolibert and Lohnes (1982) Jaffe and Nebenzahl (1984) Han and Terpstra (1988) Hong and Wyer (1990) Darling and Wood (1990) Maheswaran (1994)
Cultural Image	Cultural image is reflected by a country's culture and art, the degree of cultural preservation, the extent to which etiquette is emphasized, the citizens' educational level, and citizens' cultural level.	Levy (1999) Levy, Czepiel and Rook (1981)
Economic Risk Costs	Economic risk costs are the consumer-shouldered ones incurred by the uncertainty negative results due to insufficient supplier information.	Burnham, Frels and Mahajan (2003)
Set-Up Costs	Set-up costs are time and efforts associated with the beginning of the relationship with the new supplier, or the commencement of the use of the new product.	
Product Attitude	Product attitude is the holistic assessment and judgment of the product.	Han (1988) Han Choong-Min and Lee Byoung-Woo (1992)
Product Attachment	Product attachment can be also seen as the consumer's specific product experience and affectional bond power.	Schifferstein and Zwarkruis-Pelgrim (2008) Choi Ii-Yong and Kim Jun-Seok (2011)

3. Research Methods

The prices of Korean-Wave products have increased substantially since 2014. Generally, purchase volume decreases when price increases. However, the reverse has been true for Korean-Wave products—purchase volume and output have risen despite price increases. For example, the price of Sulwhasoo products (Korean cosmetics) increased twofold to threefold in 2014, but their products remained best-sellers in department stores. Consumers are willing to purchase Korean-Wave products despite prices increases because they experience psychological discomfort and perceived pain when switching to new products and are thus reluctant to do so. Switching costs include the perceived economic and psychological costs when switching to a new service provider (Jones, Mothersbaugh and Beatty, 2002), perceptions of discomfort and unpleasantness (Chen and Hitt, 2002), and one-time costs for

switching providers (Burnham, Frels and Mahajan, 2003). When switching from Korean-Wave products, consumers have high switching costs. Because of their fanatic attachment to Korean-Wave products, consumers are unwilling to switch to non-Korean-Wave products, indicating high switching costs. In this study, country image is used as a proxy variable for the Korean Wave to analyze its effect on switching costs.

Because the data were collected when the bilateral relationship between China and South Korea was challenged by the THAAD deployment, their bilateral relationship and their economies required additional attention. Chinese consumers were sampled to examine the effect of the THAAD deployment on the economic effects of the Korean Wave. Chinese consumers were surveyed using both online (Survey Monkey) and offline questionnaires. For questionnaire items that were translated from English into Chinese, the items were verified through back translation (i.e., from English to Chinese and from Chinese to English). The measurement items in the questionnaire were obtained from relevant studies. The questionnaire was revised several times after discussion and pretesting with scholars and professors. Table 1 presents the operational definitions of all constructs, and the measurement items of the constructs are presented in Appendix A.

The questionnaire survey was conducted from September 13 to October 18, 2017. A total of 330 questionnaires were distributed, and 302 valid questionnaires were collected. SPSS 20.0 was used to perform frequency analysis to determine the demographic characteristics of the participants. Table 2 shows the demographic results for the sample.

Table 2. Sample Demographics

Category	Characteristic	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	129	42.7
	Female	173	57.3
Age	Under 20 years old	21	7.0
	20-29 years old	72	23.8
	30-39 years old	67	22.2
	40-49 years old	99	32.8
	50-59 years old	39	12.9
	60 years old or above	4	1.3
Education Level	High school certificate or lower degree	33	10.9
	Junior college be in school/graduation	54	17.9
	University be in school/graduation	171	56.6
	Graduate school be in school/graduation	38	12.6
	Other	6	2.0
Job	Employee	56	18.5
	Civil service	15	5.0
	Business operators	47	15.6
	Specialized job	54	17.9
	Educator	54	17.9
	Housewife	13	4.3
	Student	10	3.3
	Other	53	17.5
Salary	< 2000 RMB	56	18.5
	2000-5000 RMB	157	52
	> 5000 RMB	89	29.5
	Total	302	100

4. Data Analysis

The model stability and hypotheses were tested using the partial least squares (PLS) method. SmartPLS 3.0 statistical software was used to perform analysis using the algorithm and bootstrapping functions. The PLS method was employed because the present study lacks sufficient theoretical support and is not based on a classical theoretical model. This is an exploratory study with numerous constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2012a/2012b; Ringle, Sarstedt and Straub, 2012). The analysis results of this research were reported in accordance with the two-step approach for reporting results. The analysis results of the outer model were reported first, followed by those of the inner model (Chin, 2010).

4.1. Outer Model and Scale Validation

For the outer model, the reliability and validity of the measures used to represent each construct were determined (Chin, 2010). According to Table 3, the factor loadings of all measured items were significant and higher than 0.5, indicating that the items could be retained (Hair et al., 2010). Because the composite reliability and Cronbach's α exceeded 0.7, the reliability test was passed (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

Construct validity was verified through convergent and discriminant validity. Fornell and Larcker (1981) provided the following conditions for convergent validity: (1) factor loadings > 0.5 or 0.6; (2) composite reliability or Cronbach's α > 0.7; (3) average variance extracted (AVE) > 0.5. According to Table 3, the model has convergent validity because all constructs—economic image, relationship image, cultural image, economic risk costs, set-up costs, product attitude, and product attachment—meet the requirements stipulated by Fornell and Larcker (1981). For discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE must be higher than the correlation coefficient between constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The minimum square root of the AVE of all constructs was 0.815, which is higher than the maximum correlation coefficient between constructs of 0.793; thus, the model has discriminant validity (Table 4). Table 5 presents the factor loadings (bold), which are the loadings of construct indicators, and cross-loadings (not bold), which represent the loadings of other construct indicators. Discriminant validity is satisfactory because the factor loadings of all constructs are higher than the cross-loadings of the other constructs (Hair et al., 2016).

Table 4 shows that the constructs are highly correlated, which indicates a potential common method bias. Thus, PLS was adopted in this study because this method mitigates multicollinearity (Kock and Lynn, 2012). In Harman's single factor analysis, the explained variance of the first factor was 51.114%, which is slighly higher than the suggested value of 50% (Kock and Lynn, 2012). The SmartPLS analysis results revealed thatthe variance inflation factors (VIFs) (between variables) ranged from 1.927 to 3.303; the maximum VIF of 3.303 was close to the suggested value of 3.3 (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Table 3. Reliability Analysis and Convergent Validity

Construct	Scale Item	Mean (S.D)	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	P
Economic Image	EI1	4.258 (1.297)	0.866	0.908	0.935	0.782	0.000
	EI2	4.579 (1.448)	0.895				0.000
	EI3	4.576 (1.423)	0.894				0.000
	EI4	4.682 (1.493)	0.883				0.000

Table 3. (Continued)

Construct	Scale Item	Mean (S.D)	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	CR	AVE	P
International-Relations Image	IRI1	4.003 (1.429)	0.906	0.897	0.936	0.829	0.000
	IRI2	4.179 (1.553)	0.936				0.000
	IRI3	4.315 (1.482)	0.888				0.000
Cultural Image	CI1	4.325 (1.335)	0.841	0.915	0.932	0.664	0.000
	CI2	4.447 (1.336)	0.817				0.000
	CI3	4.934 (1.331)	0.786				0.000
	CI4	4.695 (1.492)	0.851				0.000
	CI5	4.576 (1.412)	0.869				0.000
	CI6	4.570 (1.258)	0.704				0.000
	CI7	4.411 (1.356)	0.826				0.000
Economic Risk Costs	ERC1	3.841 (1.501)	0.839	0.935	0.948	0.754	0.000
	ERC2	3.960 (1.344)	0.841				0.000
	ERC3	4.066 (1.492)	0.842				0.000
	ERC4	3.924 (1.596)	0.907				0.000
	ERC5	3.940 (1.523)	0.896				0.000
	ERC6	4.030 (1.493)	0.881				0.000
Set-Up Costs	SUC1	4.063 (1.500)	0.935	0.908	0.942	0.845	0.000
	SUC2	3.917 (1.373)	0.931				0.000
	SUC3	3.983 (1.543)	0.892				0.000
Product Attitude	PATTI1	4.255 (1.268)	0.865	0.863	0.916	0.785	0.000
	PATTI2	4.321 (1.405)	0.861				0.000
	PATTI3	4.142 (1.560)	0.931				0.000
	PATTA1	3.977 (1.351)	0.849	0.944	0.958	0.819	0.000
Product Attachment	PATTA2	3.927 (1.488)	0.934				0.000
	PATTA3	3.930 (1.453)	0.902				0.000
	PATTA4	3.834 (1.565)	0.944				0.000
	PATTA5	3.851 (1.553)	0.894				0.000

Note: $^*p$-value<0.05; $^{**}p$-value<0.01; $^{***}p$-value<0.001.

Table 4. Correlation of Constructs and Average Variance Extracted

	EI	IRI	CI	ERC	SUC	PATTI	PATTA
EI	**0.885**						
IRI	0.586	**0.911**					
CI	0.692	0.690	**0.815**				
ERC	0.430	0.654	0.557	**0.868**			
SUC	0.446	0.652	0.619	0.835	**0.919**		
PATTI	0.573	0.562	0.523	0.627	0.590	**0.886**	
PATTA	0.558	0.563	0.555	0.640	0.680	0.793	**0.905**

Notes: 1. EI=Economic Image; IRI=International-Relations Image; CI=Cultural Image;
ERC=Economic Risk Costs; SUC=Set-Up Costs; PATTI=Product Attitude;
PATTA=Product Attachment.
2. The diagonal line of the correlation matrix represents the square root of AVE.

Table 5. Factor Loadings and Cross Loadings for the Outer Model

	EI	IRI	CI	ERC	SUC	PATTI	PATTA
EI1	**0.866**	0.540	0.618	0.430	0.414	0.557	0.514
EI2	**0.895**	0.476	0.619	0.288	0.299	0.446	0.445
EI3	**0.894**	0.537	0.592	0.431	0.457	0.548	0.533
EI4	**0.883**	0.501	0.622	0.331	0.372	0.444	0.460
IRI1	0.475	**0.906**	0.563	0.619	0.566	0.470	0.431
IRI2	0.532	**0.936**	0.624	0.613	0.633	0.554	0.552
IRI3	0.596	**0.888**	0.703	0.552	0.581	0.511	0.556
CI1	0.564	0.589	**0.841**	0.560	0.648	0.481	0.506
CI2	0.553	0.503	**0.817**	0.385	0.449	0.367	0.463
CI3	0.541	0.517	**0.786**	0.329	0.351	0.286	0.322
CI4	0.620	0.567	**0.851**	0.411	0.469	0.417	0.484
CI5	0.635	0.633	**0.869**	0.498	0.562	0.527	0.517
CI6	0.434	0.476	**0.704**	0.399	0.416	0.291	0.304
CI7	0.585	0.617	**0.826**	0.517	0.536	0.527	0.500
ERC1	0.439	0.540	0.490	**0.839**	0.737	0.545	0.575
ERC2	0.292	0.529	0.392	**0.841**	0.623	0.427	0.413
ERC3	0.305	0.523	0.409	**0.842**	0.680	0.501	0.491
ERC4	0.417	0.630	0.569	**0.907**	0.787	0.595	0.621
ERC5	0.355	0.561	0.508	**0.896**	0.736	0.586	0.599
ERC6	0.406	0.612	0.507	**0.881**	0.764	0.585	0.596
SUC1	0.428	0.609	0.600	0.784	**0.935**	0.568	0.643
SUC2	0.407	0.634	0.566	0.757	**0.931**	0.502	0.614
SUC3	0.396	0.555	0.539	0.761	**0.892**	0.557	0.616
PATTI1	0.614	0.525	0.555	0.541	0.563	**0.865**	0.727
PATTI2	0.373	0.446	0.364	0.525	0.425	**0.861**	0.573
PATTI3	0.524	0.520	0.464	0.598	0.570	**0.931**	0.792
PATTA1	0.535	0.478	0.475	0.493	0.547	0.639	**0.849**
PATTA2	0.516	0.561	0.551	0.641	0.672	0.752	**0.934**
PATTA3	0.486	0.434	0.452	0.526	0.558	0.693	**0.902**
PATTA4	0.498	0.531	0.509	0.622	0.649	0.762	**0.944**
PATTA5	0.499	0.531	0.515	0.595	0.633	0.732	**0.894**

Notes: 1. EI=Economic Image; IRI=International-Relations Image; CI=Cultural Image;
ERC=Economic Risk Costs; SUC=Set-Up Costs; PATTI=Product Attitude;
PATTA=Product Attachment.
2. Boldface numbers are loadings of indicators to their own construct (factor loadings) and other
numbers are cross-loadings.

4.2. Inner Model and Hypotheses Testing

GoF was used in this study to test the model fit of the PLS path (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). The baseline values of the GoF were $\text{GoF}_{small} = 0.1$, $\text{GoF}_{medium} = 0.25$, and $\text{GoF}_{large} = 0.36$ (Wetzels, Odekerken-Schröder and Van Oppen, 2009). The resulting GoF of 0.704 is higher than 0.36, indicating a satisfactory model fit.

$$\text{GoF} = \sqrt{\overline{AVE} \times \overline{R^2}} = \sqrt{0.804 \times 0.616} = 0.704 > 0.36$$

The path coefficients, significance of path coefficients, and R^2 results are presented in Table 6 and Fig. 2. H1-1, H1-2, and H3-1 are rejected, but the remaining eight hypotheses are supported. Effect size (f^2) indicates the magnitude of the influence. The f^2 values for the paths from economic, relationship, and cultural images to economic risk costs were 0.001, 0.061, and 0.002, respectively, and those for the paths to set-up costs were 0.003, 0.188, and 0.095, respectively. The f^2 values for the paths from economic risk costs to product attitude and product attachment were 0.101 and 0.033, respectively; and the f^2 values for the paths from set-up costs to economic risk costs, product attitude, and product attachment were 0.957, 0.025, and 0.134, respectively. The cutoff f^2 values were 0.020, 0.150, 0.350 for small, medium, and large effects, respectively (Chin, 1998; Chin, 2010; Cohen, 1988; Gefen, Straub and Boudreau, 2000; Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010). Q^2 indicates predictive relevance. The Q^2 values of economic risk costs, set-up costs, product attitude, and product attachment were 0.500, 0.381, 0.299, and 0.363, respectively. $Q^2 > 0$ indicated that the model has predictive relevance, whereas $Q^2 < 0$ indicated no predictive relevance (Chin, 2010; Urbach and Ahlemann, 2010). All Q^2 values in this study were >0, indicating satisfactory predictability.

Table 6. Summary of Hypotheses Testing Results

Hypothesis	Path	Standardized Path Coefficient	T-Value	P-Value	Supported
H1-1	EI→ERC	0.017	0.393	0.694	no
H1-2	EI→SUC	-0.056	0.881	0.379	no
H2-1	IRI→ERC	0.201	3.862 ***	0.000	yes
H2-2	IRI→SUC	0.441	7.614 ***	0.000	yes
H3-1	CI→ERC	-0.039	0.688	0.492	no
H3-2	CI→SUC	0.353	5.577 ***	0.000	yes
H4-1	ERC→PATTI	0.444	4.289 ***	0.000	yes
H4-2	ERC→PATTA	0.239	2.608 **	0.009	yes
H5-1	SUC→ERC	0.720	14.475 ***	0.000	yes
H5-2	SUC→PATTI	0.220	2.081 *	0.038	yes
H5-3	SUC→PATTA	0.480	5.256 ***	0.000	yes

Notes: 1. EI=Economic Image; IRI=International-Relations Image; CI=Cultural Image; ERC=Economic Risk Costs; SUC=Set-Up Costs; PATTI=Product Attitude; PATTA=Product Attachment,
2. *p-value<0.05; **p-value<0.01; ***p-value<0.001.

Fig. 2. Inner Model Results
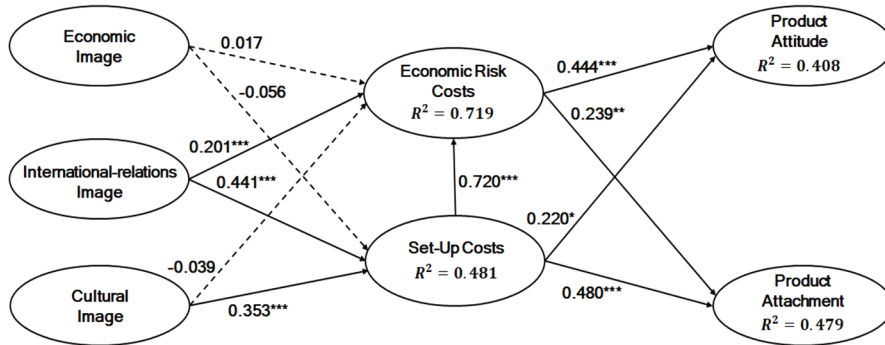
Notes: 1. Solid arrow is significant path; dotted arrow is nonsignificant path.
2. *$p<0.05$; **$p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$.

4.3. Testing for Mediating Effects

Hair et al. (2016) suggested that PLS should not be used with the Sobel test; thus, the variance accounted for (VAF) method was employed to test mediating effects. These researchers proposed that VAF = TIE/TE, where VAF < 20% indicating no mediating effect, 20% < VAF < 80% indicating a partial mediating effect, and VAF > 80% indicating a full mediating effect. The significance of a mediating effect was determined according to the significance of specific indirect effects and path coefficients. Table 7 presents the mediating effects of the eight paths that were significant.

Table 7. Mediation Effects

Path	Specific Indirect Effects	P	Total Indirect Effects	Total Effects	VAF
IRI->ERC->PATTI	0.069	0.017	0.233	0.313	74.4%
IRI->SUC->ERC	0.322	0.000	0.322	0.521	61.8%
CI -> SUC -> ERC	0.253	0.000	0.253	0.214	1.182
IRI-> SUC -> ERC ->PATTI	0.111	0.001	0.233	0.313	74.4%
CI-> SUC -> ERC -> PATTI	0.088	0.002	0.115	0.077	1.49
IRI-> SUC -> ERC ->PATTA	0.056	0.042	0.262	0.290	90.3%
IRI->SUC->PATTA	0.173	0.000	0.262	0.290	90.3%
CI->SUC->PATTA	0.136	0.001	0.173	0.166	1.042

Note: EI=Economic Image; IRI=International-Relations Image; CI=Cultural Image; ERC=Economic Risk Costs; SUC=Set-Up Costs; PATTI=Product Attitude; PATTA=Product Attachment.

4.4. Additional Analysis

Studies have reported that information processing, which includes the processing of country image, is affected by the gender of the message recipient (Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran, 1991). Cognition of shopping-related risks—and thus of switching costs—also differs by gender (Garbarino and Strahilevitz, 2004). Gender affects an individual's purchase-

related desires, positive purchase emotions, purchase plans (Coley and Burgess, 2003), purchase intentions (Chang, Cheung and Lai, 2005), and shopping values (Jackson, Stoel and Brantley, 2011). Shopping attitudes and behaviors also vary by gender (Darley and Smith, 1995; Fischer and Arnold, 1994; Qualls, 1987). According to Venkatesh et al. (2003), characteristic variables, such as gender, must be included in a model to enhance its explanatory (and thus predictive) capacity. Therefore, consumer gender was included in the multigroup analysis of this study.

Table 8. Mediation Effects

Path	Male Interactivity		Female Interactivity		Difference Sig. Test		
	Path Coefficients Original	STDEV	Path Coefficients Original	Stdev	Diff	Df	P
EI-> ERC	0.123	0.077	-0.046	0.056	0.169	300	0.037
EI-> SUC	0.252*	0.100	-0.212**	0.072	0.464	300	0.000
IRI-> ERC	0.099	0.092	0.282***	0.063	0.183	300	0.949
IRI-> SUC	0.464***	0.093	0.431***	0.068	0.033	300	0.386
CI-> ERC	-0.100	0.093	0.032	0.070	0.132	300	0.873
CI-> SUC	0.068	0.108	0.488***	0.076	0.420	300	1.000
ERC->PATTI	0.547***	0.136	0.388**	0.141	0.159	300	0.206
ERC-> PATTA	0.402**	0.147	0.120	0.106	0.282	300	0.063
SUC-> ERC	0.750***	0.077	0.656***	0.067	0.095	300	0.177
SUC -> PATTI	0.223	0.136	0.186	0.153	0.037	300	0.436
SUC-> PATTA	0.350*	0.145	0.575***	0.113	0.225	300	0.889

Note: EI=Economic Image; IRI=International-Relations Image; CI=Cultural Image; ERC=Economic Risk Costs; SUC=Set-Up Costs; PATTI=Product Attitude; PATTA=Product Attachment.

Fig. 3. Results of the Structure of the Multi-Group Model Analysis
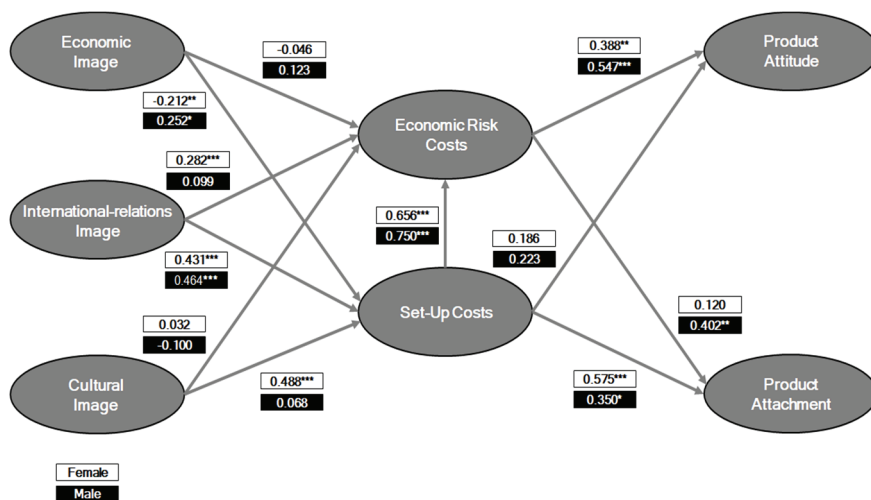
Note: *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

Table 8 presents the results of multigroup analysis and reveals significant differences between two genders. Fig. 3 shows the path coefficients and significance for both genders. Table 8 reveals a significant difference between the genders for only two paths—the effects of economic image on economic risk costs and set-up costs. Although the effects of economic image on economic risk costs differed significantly between the two genders, the effects themselves were not significant for either gender. For men, economic image had a positive effect on set-up costs ($\beta = 0.252$, $P < 0.05$). For women, economic image had a negative effect on set-up costs ($\beta = -0.212$, $P < 0.01$).

5. Discussion and Conclusions

This study has implications for international companies, particularly Korean companies that have entered the Chinese market, in terms of the development of marketing strategies. International-relations image and set-up costs have positive effects on economic risk costs, whereas economic risk costs have positive effects on product attitude and attachment. The effect of set-up costs on economic risk costs is stronger than that of international-relations image on economic risk costs. Therefore, when formulating strategies to increase economic risk costs, Korean companies should prioritize set-up costs over international-relations image. Increasing economic risk costs would improve product attitudes and increase product attachment, thereby preventing consumers from purchasing products from other providers and thus promoting consumer repurchase behavior and loyalty. International-relations and cultural images have positive effects on set-up costs, whereas set-up costs have a positive effect on product attitude and product attachment. The effect of international-relations image on set-up costs is stronger than that of cultural image on set-up costs. Therefore, when developing a marketing strategy, Korean companies should emphasize international-relations image, followed by cultural image. In addition, economic risk costs have a stronger effect on product attitude than does set-up costs. The effect of set-up costs on product attachment is stronger than that of economic risk costs on product attachment. Thus, when developing marketing strategies, Korean companies should consider the difference between the effects of economic risk costs and set-up costs on product attitude and product attachment. This study confirms the mediating effects of economic risk costs and set-up costs on the relationships between international-relations image, product attitude, and product attachment. Companies can leverage economic risk costs and set-up costs to improve the relationships between international-relations image, product attitude, and product attachment. This study also confirms the existence of a Korean-Wave switching-cost effect, which acts on switching costs through country image. Korean companies can use this Korean-Wave switching-cost effect to adjust their marketing strategies and increase profits. By contrast, economic image does not significantly affect economic risk costs and set-up costs, and cultural image does not significantly affect economic risk costs. Moreover, economic image negatively affects set-up costs, but this effect is not significant. Similarly, cultural image has a negative but nonsignificant effect on economic risk costs. This is probably because of the influence of the THAAD deployment. The decline of the Korea's country image in China has prompted Chinese consumers to boycott Korean products. The negative but nonsignificant impact confirms that the THAAD deployment has diminished South Korea's country image as perceived by consumers in China. In summary, the THAAD deployment has caused Korea to incur economic losses in the Chinese market. Cultural and economic differences between China and South Korea may have also contributed to this loss. Therefore, maintaining long-term stable relations between countries is crucial. For men,

economic image has a positive effect on set-up costs, whereas this effect is negative for women. Therefore, Korean companies in the Chinese market should consider gender differences before establishing marketing strategies that utilize the relationship between the economic image and set-up costs. The results of this study can serve as a practical reference for South Korean enterprises when formulating marketing strategies in the Chinese market as well as serve as incentive for the governments of China and South Korea to maintain stable bilateral ties. Moreover, the results provide crucial information for scholars and business owners regarding the role of consumer perceptions of country image and switching costs in the formation of their product attitudes and attachment.

According to the study results, country image can positively affect switching costs. A positive country image can reduce the perceived risk of switching to another provider and can enhance trust and quality of offering. Trust (Carter et al., 2014; Saparito, Chen and Sapienza, 2004) and quality of offering (Gao et al., 2014) have positive effects on switching costs, whereas perceived risk has a negative effect on switching costs (Yen, 2015); thus, country image has a positive impact on switching costs, which is consistent with the results of other studies. Furthermore, the results reveal that economic risk costs have a positive effect on product attitude and product attachment and that set-up costs have a positive effect on economic risk costs, product attitude, and product attachment. Therefore, switching costs positively affect product attitude and product attachment, which is consistent with the findings of a study that investigated switching costs and loyalty (Pick and Eisend, 2016). Moreover, the study results are consistent those of a study that investigated the mediating effect of switching costs on the relationship between provider image and customer retention (Milan, Eberle and Bebber, 2015).

This study makes the following contributions to the business and marketing literature: First, this research extends understanding of the relationships between switching costs, cultural factors, country image, product attitude, and product attachment. It also contributes to the literature on country image, switching costs, product attitudes, and product attachment, particularly with respect to the formation of consumers' product attitudes and attachment. Second, switching costs were confirmed to significantly mediate the relationships between country image, product attitudes, and product attachment, which remedies the shortcomings of theoretical literature on this relationship. Third, few direct, in-depth, and empirical studies have been conducted on the effect of Korean-Wave switching costs. This study fills this gap in the literature. Fourth, this study confirms that the THAAD deployment caused economic losses for Korean companies. Thus, the THAAD deployment caused a decline in the country image of South Korea.

This study had several limitations: (1) The study findings are limited to the geographic and environmental scope of the survey. Additional studies are required to expand the geographic scope of the study. Furthermore, comparative studies of multiple countries and various products are required to assess the generalizability of the study findings. For example, future studies could focus on investigating differences among South Korean product types (e.g., mineral water, cosmetics, and cars) in terms of switching costs. (2) Regarding country image, this study focused on the dimensions of economy, international relations, and culture; furthermore, this study only included the switching-cost dimensions of set-up costs and economic risk costs and did not consider other dimensions. Thus, future studies should assess other dimensions of country image and switching costs. (3) This study analyzed cross-sectional data using the PLS-SEM statistical method. Future studies could use other data and statistical methods for analysis. (4) In addition to foreign product attitude and product attachment, future studies should investigate factors influencing consumer pre-purchase and post-purchase behaviors, such as repurchase intentions, retention intentions, and loyalty.

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Appendix

Table A. Measurement Items of Constructs

Construct	Measurement Item
Economic Image	EI1. Agriculture and industrial development in South Korea are highly automated. EI2. South Korea has a high national income. EI3. South Korea has a high level of urbanization. EI4. The standard of living in South Korea is high.
International-Relations Image Cultural Image	IRI1. South Korea has friendly ties with China. IRI2. South Korea is cooperating rather than competing with China. IRI3. Overall, South Korea is an agreeable country. CI1. South Korea has a high level of cultural development. CI2. South Korea has a highly preserved culture heritage. CI3. South Koreans highly value etiquette. CI4. South Korea has a high level of national education. CI5. South Koreans enjoy a well-developed national culture. CI6. South Korean culture is similar to Chinese culture. CI7. Visitors to South Korea can experience its cultural attractiveness.
Economic Risk Costs	ERC1. Replacing South Korean products (or services) with those of other countries will impair smooth operations. ERC2. Replacing South Korean products (or services) with those of other countries will yield negative experiences for a certain period. ERC3. Replacing South Korean products (or services) with those of other countries will incur additional costs. ERC4. Replacing South Korean products (or services) with those of other countries will cause financial losses. ERC5. Replacing South Korean products (or services) with those of other countries will cause unexpected inconvenience. ERC6. Replacing South Korean products (or services) with those of other countries will yield unanticipated consequences.
Set-Up Costs	SUC1. Replacing South Korean products (or services) with those of other countries will require considerable time. SCU2. Replacing South Korean products (or services) with those of other countries will result in an unsatisfactory sales process. SCU3. Replacing South Korean products (or services) with those of other countries will require numerous procedures to be completed.
Product Attitude	PATTI1. The prices of South Korean products (or services) are appropriate. PATTI2. I like South Korean products (or services). PATTI3. I have a strong desire to purchase South Korean products (or services).
Product Attachment	PATTA1. I have an affective bond to South Korean products (or services). PATTA2. South Korean products (or services) are important to me. PATTA3. I am closely tied to South Korean products (or services). PATTA4. South Korean products (or services) have special meaning to me. PATTA5. South Korean products (or services) emotionally move me.