



Università
Ca' Foscari
Venezia

Master's Degree programme – Second Cycle (*D.M. 270/2004*)

in Business Administration- International Management

Final Thesis

Real and fake Italian products.

An analysis on German buying consumer behaviour.

—
Ca' Foscari
Dorsoduro 3246
30123 Venezia

Supervisor

Ch. Prof. Massimo Warglien

Graduand

Stefania Rosso

Matriculation Number 855560

Academic Year

2015 / 2016

To my parents

INDEX

INTRODUCTION	6
Chapter 1. CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR PERCEPTIONS	9
1.1. The History of Categorization.....	9
1.1.1. The principles and models of categorization.....	10
1.2. Categorization and Consumer Behaviour.....	14
1.2.1. Ad Hoc Categories	15
1.3. Product category perceptions.....	18
1.3.1. Consumer behaviour and consumer action.....	19
1.4. Conclusions.....	22
Chapter 2. “MADE IN ITALY” IN GERMANY	24
2.1. Italy and Germany: A Long Lasting Relationship	24
2.1.1. Focus on Baden-Württemberg (BW).....	25
2.1.2. Baden-Württemberg and Northern Italy.....	30
2.2. “Made in Italy” in Germany: the phenomenon.....	37
2.2.1. “Made in Italy” and “Made in Germany”.....	40
2.2.2. Successful sectors of “Made in Italy”.....	42
2.3. Real and fake Italian products.....	44
2.3.1. Italian Sounding.....	45
2.3.2. Real and fake Italian in Germany.....	47
2.4. Conclusions.....	66

Chapter 3. APPLIED ANALYSIS AND SURVEY	67
3.1. Introduction.....	67
3.1.1. Preliminary analysis	67
3.2. The survey.....	69
3.2.1. Demographics.....	69
3.2.2. Perceptions about “Made in Italy”	74
3.2.3. Analysis on the detection capacity.....	79
3.3. Conclusions.....	88
Chapter 4. CONCLUSIONS	90
4.1. Conclusions.....	90
APPENDIX	94
REFERENCES	109

INTRODUCTION

The aim of the thesis is to provide a focus on German buying consumer behaviour, relating to “Made in Italy” concept.

The analysis concerns about how German consumer behaves when he/she buys Italian products: is he/she conscious of what is a real Italian product or not? What kind of mental structures and categories does influence his/her behaviour?

The stereotypes and the unconsciousness let the consumer not to appreciate the differences between a real and a fake Italian product.

We have assumed that “Made in Italy” in Germany is strongly appreciated, but from a German point of view it is not so easy to understand the crucial characteristics and features of a real Italian product.

Secondly the German consumer behaves in a different way compared with Italian one: he/she gives importance to different qualities and characteristics of an Italian product, he/she appreciates particular Italian items or foods, his/her taste and purchase is distinguishable from Italian one.

For these reasons, the purpose of this study is to throw light on this phenomenon, doing a field research during a six-months internship in Stuttgart (in Southern Germany) and analysing the resulting data.

The personal interest in consumer behaviour perceptions, the strong relationship between the personal experiences in Germany and the country of origin of the writer, Italy, and the opportunity to do an internship at *Italienische Handelskammer Stuttgart* (Italian-German Chamber of Commerce Stuttgart) have strongly influenced this project work, too.

This thesis tries to combine these aspects and to give a particular answer to the question, if the German consumer is able or not to distinguish real and fake Italian products and if his/her behaviour is strongly influenced by stereotypes and past misconceptions.

During the last years of crisis German consumers have shown a strong propensity to compare prices and patronise discount stores. The consumer is very aware of special offers and readily goes to different shops in order to get better prices.

The Germans are accustomed to purchasing via catalogue and are increasingly more receptive to shopping on Internet platforms, also for food and household items. Price and quality are considered the most important factors guiding decision-making when they buy Italian products.

For durables goods the criteria of choice are in order: safety and quality, prestige, comfort, convenience and price. For everyday goods, the determining factor is price.

For high-quality and luxury goods, a focus on safety ensures that the selection will be based on quality, reliability and the supplier's follow up and after sales service. Price is not one of the dominant criteria for this type of product.

If we consider the attitude towards Italian culture and lifestyle, German consumer would give it a lot of value, but sometimes he/she used to associate Italy and Italian products with wrong ideas and misconceptions.

The thesis is articulated as follows: starting from a general excursus of the main theories and currents of thought about consumer behaviour, it will analyse the concept of the product categories and product categories perceptions; we have also analysed the concept of categorization: generally the consumer acts and decides what to buy, adapting his/her judgements of fit between different mind-categories (that seem to be like “boxes”), and brand names; categorization arises when the consumer activates and elaborates different associations in a given buying situation.

Is the German consumer aware of these hypothetical categories, in which he/she standardizes and seals off Italian products?

The second part of this thesis will enter into the field of “Made in Italy” and in particular the role of “Made in Italy” in Germany. After a general analysis of the commercial and business relations between Italy and Germany, we go more deeply focusing on business and cultural similarities between Northern Italy and Baden- Württemberg.

How does this situation influence the buying behaviour of German consumer?

Many producers have understood the power of brand “Made in Italy” because of the great appreciation and the positive resonance of “Made in Italy” in Germany, the enormous level of business affairs and commercial relationships established between Italy and the South of Germany (in particular the region of Baden- Württemberg) and how much it is convenient in terms of sales volume; sometimes firms are used to adopt names and figures to sell their products, evocating the flavour of Italy and Italian lifestyle: names like “Zottarella” , “Pasta Napoli”, “Sugo Extra Bolognese” are often used for food, but they have nothing to do with real Italian products. It is the so called Italian Sounding phenomenon. This situation creates misconceptions between real and fake Italian: only a careful German consumer is able to distinguish and to discover the cheat.

Most of people think that Italian Sounding is only connected to food, oil and wine but it is not true. Also furniture and house hold items are sold in Germany, using Italian names or names that evoke and reproduce real Italian brands; German consumer finds them in shopping centres and buys frequently, supposing they are real Italian. Instead they are completely designed and produced in Germany or in other parts of the world.

After focusing on the crucial influence on Italian export and the unthinkable economic consequences that arise from not real Italian products, the thesis will present an applied analysis made on German consumer tested in Stuttgart area (Southern Germany, Baden- Württemberg region). The aim is emphasizing the capacity (or not) of the German consumer to understand the difference between real and not real Italian products.

In chapter three we have explained the results derived from this survey, composed of 26 questions, which was conducted in the field; the questions were asked to people in shopping centres, along the main shopping avenues in Stuttgart, at the most important city's economic Universities and in the public offices (town hall, employment service, info desk).

The language used in the survey was German, but we have made also an English version, that is present in the Appendix of this project work.

The data were analysed after approaching a sample of 125 respondents providing both a descriptive analysis and statistical analysis made with software R.

The final chapter is constituted by the personal conclusions: a specific framework of the entire project work done, considering especially all the results and the personal interpretation of the field surveys applied in Stuttgart during the six-months-internship mentioned above.

CHAPTER 1.

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR PERCEPTIONS

1.1. THE HISTORY OF CATEGORIZATION

Since years famous economists and distinguished psychologists have been fascinated by the analysis and research on how consumer behaves and acts during his/her choices.

It was a crucial question in the past and it is still relevant today.

Over the last three decades, there has been an enormous deal of progress in the modelling of categorization.

Thinking about Hull's work in 1920 and, more famously, the work of Bruner, Goodnow and Austin in 1956, the field had been progressively accumulating empirical studies; then in the early 1970s the theories connected to these phenomena started routinely taking mathematical form (e.g., Reed, 1972).

From 1970s to the mid-1990s was developed an enormous number of highly influential single-process models, such as Nosofsky's *Generalized Context Model* or *General Recognition Theory* edited by Ashby and Gott in 1988.

Toward the end of the 1990s, there was an impulse in the development of multi process theories, recognizing that categorization may involve more than one process.

Also the concept of intermediate representations has been developed and changed in specificity during those years, representing it both in formal mathematical and neuroscientific terms.

The first ten years of the 21st century have seen a rapid increase in data set on the neuroscience of categorization and the development of existing accounting theories for these data.

Also the attention given to formal modelling of psychological figures was increasing in order to minimize the number of formal models that remain plausible accounts of the known phenomena;

The efforts to expand the range of behavioural phenomena are however a complex and demanding task.

What are its main positive aspects?

The biggest advantage of using formal modelling is the capacity to define precisely an empirical phenomenon.

The theory that formal modelling brings could confer two further advantages. As said by Nosofsky (1991), first of all it gives the possibility to compare different theories in an unambiguous manner and arrive to a consensual conclusion about which theory understands more of the known empirical phenomena. Secondly, the formal specification of theories of psychological processes can re-create in reality those processes present in artificial systems (automated cognition).

It is also crucial to know, that the field of categorization's theories has still today a large range of competing formal theories with no consensus over their suitability.

As Nosofsky (1986, p. 45) said in the article "*Attention, similarity and the identification-categorization relationship*", "(...) *the lack of this consensus may in part explain the relative lack of successes in the application of formal categorization theory to the development of automated cognition*". The resolution of these questions is doubtless the biggest challenge that the formal modelling of categorization must address in the coming years.

1.1.1. THE PRINCIPLES AND MODELS OF CATEGORIZATION

When someone proceed in studying categorization, its influence in economic theories and its meaning for the consumer attitudes, we could not omit and go on, without talking about Eleanor Rosch and her studies on the mentioned theme.

The professor of psychology at University of California, Berkeley, has specialized in cognitive psychology and she is primarily known for her work on categorization; in particular she has proposed her ideas in the prototype theory, which has still influenced the field of cognitive psychology.

She has argued in her work "*Principles of categorization*" (1978), that human categorization should not be considered "*the arbitrary product of historical accident, rather the logical consequence of psychological principles of categorization, which are subject to investigation, research and applied studies*" (1978, p.31).

In fact usually the great majority of categorization structures are imagined by scholars and theorists, but they can be never found in the practical or linguistic classes that provide an identification of human objects used by the cultures of the world (Rosch, 1978).

In order to discover the obscure world of categorization Eleanor Rosch has proposed two basic principles for the creation and classification of categories.

The first principle deals with the function of category systems and defines that these have the aim to provide maximum information with the least cognitive effort.

The second principle theorised by Rosch concerns the structure of the information provided by these categories.

The perceived world is now structured and based on information rather than undefined attributes. This condition can be achieved either by the mapping of different categories linked to given attribute structures or by defining their attributes to provide a specific structure, in such an appropriate way, to a given set of categories.

It is important to understand, how the first principle expresses the most meaningful notion: what one person tries to gain and obtain from his/her categories, contains a huge quantity of information related to the environment and the surrounding empirical world of this person.

As said by Eleanor Rosch (1978), the primarily purpose of categorization is the limitation of infinite differences among stimuli that is equal to understand a principle that would lead to formation of large numbers of categories.

The second principle of categorization asserts that the perceived world is not an unstructured total set of attributes that occur accidentally; rather, the objects that people can find in the world are perceived as entities in possess of high interdependence and correlation.

It should be emphasized that the themes treated by Eleanor Rosch are talking about the perceived world and not about a metaphysical world without a minded knower.

As said by Rosch (1978, p. 54) “(...) *What attributes will be perceived is undoubtedly influenced by many factors having to do with the functional needs of the single person, depending on physical and social environment*” . A clear example of this sentence is: if we consider a person dealing with the motor programs for sitting, we figure out as a fact of the perceived world that objects perceived as chairs are more coherent than objects with the perceived attributes of cats.

Without any doubt the category system already existent in the culture at a given period of time is able to influence the definition of attributes by humans. In this way, our mental idea of a bird's body is connected to the fact that exists an attribute defined "wings" that may be influenced not only by factors of perception (for example the pre-existent laws of form), but also by the concept that from centuries we have already a cultural and linguistic category called "birds" (Rosch, 1978).

These two principles of categorization have implications both for the idea of categories' abstraction and for the internal structure inside them.

In order to clarify, we could think about category systems as possessing both a vertical and horizontal dimension: the first dimension concerns the level of inclusiveness of the category; the horizontal dimension regards the segmentation of categories considered at the same level of inclusiveness, indeed.

The implication of the two principles of categorization theorised by Eleanor Rosch for the vertical dimension says that not all possible levels of categorization are equally good or useful; rather, the most basic level of categorization is also the most abstract at which the categories can represent in an effective way the structure of attributes perceived in the world by human mind.

The implication of the principles of categorization for the horizontal dimension is more simplified: only prototypes or prototypical instances can create the distinctiveness and flexibility of categories.

Concerning prototypes, it is necessary to underline that there is a huge confusion about them between scholars. The discussion was born from two sources: first, the notion of prototypes must be clearer because it can mean a specific category member or mental structure; in this way we cannot judge how clear a situation is and deal with categories in the total absence of information about boundaries.

Secondly, the empirical ideas concerning prototypical cases could be confused with theories of processing.

In order to avoid errors, we have to consider prototypes based on operational definitions and empirical findings without considering the assumptions of processing.

The perception of differences in the empirical world is linked to people's judgments about category membership. It is a well-known concept that a person agrees in his/her judgments of how good or clear an example is, even for categories about whose characteristics he/she disagrees.

Rosch and Mervis (1975) have underlined in their project work, that the more prototypical a member of a category is considered, the more is the presence of attributes totally in common with other members of the category and the fewer is the number of attributes shared with members of the contrasting categories.

For example this concept was strongly demonstrated for natural language superordinate categories, for natural language basic level categories, and for artificial categories.

Prototypes simply reflect the members of a category that most of all represent and identify the redundant structure of the category itself.

Considering the models of categorization we have also to distinguish two forms inside of them: geometric models and featural models.

Featural models (also known as elemental) suppose that any presented stimulus is represented by a number of features. These models have a long history starting from Estes in 1950, passing through some recent models theorised by Harris in 2006 or McLaren & Mackintosh in 2000; McClelland and Rumelhart gave birth to very famous formal models during their researches in 1985.

Geometric models have had much more success than featural models: the most important are the *Generalized Context Model*, theorised by Nosofsky and *General Recognition Theory*, theorised by Ashby and Gott in 1988.

Geometric models assume that any stimulus still present in human mind can be represented in a similar psychological environment. Two stimuli are similar only if they are close to each other in the space.

The *Generalized Context Model* (GCM) in particular assumes that the similarity of stimuli is also an exponential function of distance.

These concepts seem to be very abstract: how we can conceive it more practically?

The statistics provides us an important instrument to reach the goal: the Multidimensional scaling (MDS).

There are well-known statistical methods for deriving a geometric representation of a stimulus, for example similarity ratings or identification task, but this is the most influential and precise.

According to DELL, the aim of the analysis is “(...) *to detect meaningful underlying dimensions that allow the researcher to explain observed similarities or dissimilarities (distances) between the investigated objects*”.

Multidimensional scaling is very used because it produces a precise approximation to the psychological similarity data in a low-dimensional space; it provides a representation concerning the information available to the categorization process, very easy to be understood and read by everybody.

Actually what plays a crucial role in the process of categorization regards the degree of human attention.

The importance of attention is linked to its help in increasing categorization accuracy; sometimes the processes tend to use input representations, sometimes operate in a more stimulus-specific or feature-specific manner. Attention must give a logical order to these processes.

These processes of applied attention can be followed also by some models, which assume that the total differentiation of the input representation is possible thanks to a strong exposure to the stimuli. Another phenomenon is unitization: when the components of a wonderful number of stimuli become “psychologically fused”, thanks to a progression of different associations we obtain a sequence of representations more unitary and reasonable in mind.

It is important to underline, also, that some models of categorization take care of intermediate representations that create a link between modulated input representation and the evidence of reality.

Another important part of models of categorization are the cluster representations: the clusters usually represent coherent regions of the input representation, and they are generally assumed to depend on the stimuli that activate the cluster itself; each category label is assumed to result in exactly one cluster representation, too.

A specific type of cluster representations is also represented by the prototype representations seen above.

In some models of decisional mechanisms, the evidential mechanisms consist of a categorical decision (e.g. bound models).

However it is necessary to remind that the acquisition of other information within the categorization process is dependent on prediction error.

1.2. CATEGORIZATION AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

We have seen before how theorists recognized that a rational model of categorization is needed, if we want to discover more deeply the complex and obscure world of consumer mind and accordingly consumer behaviour.

But the decision “to buy or not to buy” envisages a step before, because consumers do not know why they make the choices they do.

Why consumers prefer a specific brand over another? Why a name is more representative and involving over another?

Consumer choices are influenced by five main different consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991), which are: functional value, conditional value, social value, emotional value and epistemic value.

Each of these influences consumer’s choices in a very different way, guiding his/her irrational decisions.

The utility, the so called functional value, is the first value that comes into play; it is the driver of the buyer choices: the consumer buys something for its characteristics, its qualities and its tangible attributes. This assumption derived from an old classic current of thought, which emphasized the concept of “rational economic man”¹.

Functionalism is strictly related to the perceived value and the utility linked to the desired object. An alternative “*acquires social value through association between positively or negatively stereotyped demographic socio-economic and cultural-ethnic groups*” (Sheth et al., 1991, p. 162). Social value influences the consumer’s choices, because the sense of belonging and the group membership have a crucial role in our decisions, especially in buying decisions.

The decision to choose an alternative over another depends on what the group, the mass has decided as “the good one”; sometimes the alternative A is better than B because the second one is ordinary, the consumer group is bored about it and he/she prefers something new, innovative and diverse as alternative A.

The surrounding conditions influence the choices of buying, in fact the value associated to things reflects the weight of contingences: the value is provided by physical or social circumstances that enhance the social power for the consumer.

¹ The article “Why we buy what we buy” (Sheth et al, 1991) refers to a concept developed by Marshall before and then by Stigler.

These five different types of values are not autonomous, rather they are strictly connected and interdependent: within a single class of product; in each context he/she could be influenced by one, three or all of these values and these combinations of factors that condition marketing decisions inside the firms.

The general theorisation of these categories was important in the formal development of a cognitive analysis of the consumer ambiguous perceptions.

As said by Daniel Reisberg in *“The Oxford Handbook of Cognitive Psychology”* (2013, p. 87), *“(…) categorization is modelled starting from an initial point, a stimulus, that can be more or less strong depending on the level of consumer’s attention”*.

The mechanisms of perception could be decisive in the process of categorization: the information is analysed from input to mental output, activating also some intermediate forms like prototypes, images, clusters and mental figures.

The information activates then different types of categories, called evidential mechanism (like rules, associative links and decision bounds). What does it mean? The evidential mechanism reflects simply the process by which a representation is activated; Reisberg (2013) has argued that sometimes the brain can activate more than one category: it is a normal fact in our lives.

People normally categorize every day, they create implicit structures in mind, they give a specific name and identify in a class a single product.

All formal models inevitably tend to make assumptions about the nature of the information that is available to them; this is the reason why imperfect information must be much more concrete and based on empirical evidences, indeed.

1.2.1. AD HOC CATEGORIES

A lot of researches have been done on the notion of what a category is, but sometimes we consider some definitions and features that could not be identified as part of the same category; the current definition of category is strictly connected to the idea of prediction and species in living things.

For example, the human mind can consider sometimes as “Italian food”, some entities that are not coming from the same family. In that sense the verbal label categories are a form of discrimination used to extract the category.

For this reason, it is very important to study and understand more deeply these phenomena surrounding these linguistic categories.

As Anderson has argued in his work *“The adaptive nature of human categorization”* (1990), a common example of what said before is to point out that an entity is both a dog and a pet:

supposing that “dog” is chosen by the rational human mind as the true category and note that dogs can be found in homes, are faithful and have the labels dog and pet.

Perhaps there are some predictions linked to the social phenomenon of pets that this model could not make, but it is an error to think all inference is a matter of categorical generalization.

This confusion of linguistic labelling and categories (very connected to the case of the buying consumer perceptions about Italian products) was the starting point of Barsalou's (1983) study about ad hoc categories.

He has said, people can make up categories based on the spur of the moment; it is important to understand that one person can create an appropriate noun phrase, but its referent does not become a mental category immediately.

To be sure, we can reason about ad hoc categories, in particular we focus on which kind of mental processing involves causal inference and not categorical inference. These linguistic categories are presumably quite functional in communicating information, indeed.

Ad hoc categories were born when people wanted to achieve goals: an example is when a person is resolute to sell unused things in his garage and creates the imaginary category of a “garage sale”, instrumental to achieve his aim of selling useless things.

They are not well determined in mind, in memory, but they are very different from common categories such as “food”. “pasta”, “cheese”, “furniture”.

Common categories are very used, clear and established in mind, because the relationship between a concept and its properties and also these properties between themselves is very well-structured and ascertained.

Ad hoc categories sounds like “possible Italian food to sell to German people” or “places to look for Italian furniture”: they are completely different from common categories because they do not present a clear representation of category in our mind, just because people is not able to think about them.

Doubtless it represents a very complex process that presumes strong associations and profound reflections.

As Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson and Boyes-Braem (1976) have understood, the properties in the environment are dependent each other and form groups of correlated properties. For example if an entity has gills, there is a higher probability that would be a fish and swim in the sea, rather than it flies. Common categories are linked to correlated concepts, indeed ad hoc categories seem to violate the correlated structure of the environment.

So why do people perceive theme as categories? Because they are the only instrument to achieve an aim: people do not consider their role and that is why is so difficult to enumerate them.

Perhaps one of the most difficult goals is explaining how ad hoc categories are so specific and particular.

It can be possible that, when we perceive an entity, we are not able to distinguish all the ad hoc categories it belongs to; for example it is not immediate to see a chair and thinking about “possibility of emergency or firewood”, because ad hoc categories come into mind only when they are essential in achieving personal goals.

How we can predict, in that sense, which kind of categories are activated in consumer mind when we construct ad hoc categories? Any property can be constructed from property information: any property “Y” can be used to define the category of “thing possessing Y”; every new concept born in mind may be also reconstructed in others ways if it seems to be still relevant and this set of properties could give birth to a new category.

When a category is well established in memory, the direct associations become easy and they activate concepts for their category members.

Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson and Boyes-Braem (1976) have understood that people start categorizing things with basic category names: it is easier to identify an entity with four legs as a “chair” or a “seat” rather than “an office chair” or “Italian furniture”.

A given entity could be so cross-classified into a wide range of categories: for example “wine” could be cross-classified into “drinks”, “alcohol”, “something that you obtain from grapes”, “Italian Prosecco” and so on; that expresses in this way the creative nature of human mind.

Barsalou, in order to escape errors, theorised the concept of context-dependent and context-independent properties: every concept contains both of them.

Barsalou argues in the script “*Context-independent and context dependent information in concepts*” (1982) theorised this model, in order to explain how implicit cross-classifications are constituted. Its first assumption is for each possible classification, there is a set of criteria used to discriminate category instances.

The context-independent properties are activated by a word, after being frequently associated with others.

Indeed, context-dependent properties emerge only in relevant contexts and situations in which the word appears. They may be represented in a conceptual way, but these kind of properties are activated only by a stimulus associated at contexts in which a specific word appears.

What does it mean?

From one side context-independent properties are the core meanings of words, while context-dependent properties reflect their variability.

It is crucial to know that this idea was born from two opposing theories of meaning: one that says all properties of a concept appear on all occasions and another one which underlines that the active properties are completely influenced by natural human context.

As argued by Barsalou (1982, p. 84) “(...) *the property of being CI is always activated by the subject noun itself and does not depend on context for activation*”.

It is, for example, totally natural that spaghetti and pizza share common features to Italian typical food. It is not logical that basketballs or baseballs and trunks share properties similar to things that float.

1.3. PRODUCT CATEGORY PERCEPTIONS

We have previously seen that categorization is strongly linked to the perceptions of human mind; if we consider the customer's mind we could perceive how this is influenced by brand names and product category associated with products customer's buys.

In fact customer's judgments between established brand names and new product extensions are shaped by the associations that are created and elaborated upon in a given situation. That is why a firm poses considerable managerial attention to the name of a new brand or a product, if it wants to penetrate in a new market.

In order to study the phenomenon of product category perceptions, we have to distinguish three main different aspects: first, the degree to which the associations between the old and new categories are shared versus unique; secondly the salience or non-salience of these associations in memory and their implications; third, the impact of the presence or not of marketing communications cueing specific associations. The degree to which the old and new product categories have shared associations is a crucial factor: a brand name would be more able to transfer properties when an old and a new product category share more associations.

The degree of sharing unique associations is expected to be a factor that determines the likelihood of brand name transfer. A brand name would be more transferable when an old and a new product category share more associations.

Considering the second crucial point, non-salient dimensions have presented mixed and very different effects.

A complex cluster of associations may exist between an established brand name and an extension product category, but it is very difficult to categorize a priori which of these are likely to be obtained and elaborated in a judgment situation. This is the reason why is so difficult to give a priori judgments of salience/non-salience and consequently to predict fit judgments. In order to

understand more customer behaviour perceptions, we have to elaborate an empirical study, this may be done at the individual subject level and used to assign subjects to experimental groups.

Applying managerial criteria, one may look for segments of individuals who seem to be similar, stable clusters of salient and non-salient associations for a product category.

We have not to forget that the cues' effect to non-salient associations is highly variable: based on the verbal reports, the cue appears to have been successful only in some cases; self-driven elaboration took rather idiosyncratic directions. The associations cued by well-executed advertising messages may have a more uniform impact.

Normally names are less prototypical, so with less stable associations and a weaker product category member, external cues may have stronger effects.

It is important to consider, also, that the consumers' judgments provoke a significant difference between the noting or comprehending of an association and the adjustment of a fit evaluation.

It will be relevant to understand more deeply the classes of associations that might arise in relation to an established brand and a new product category.

1.3.1. CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR AND CONSUMER ACTION

Over the past 30 years the cognitive response or information processing paradigm has contributed much to the knowledge of how consumers react to marketing stimuli. Through advertising, salesperson-customer interactions, and other forms of communication, marketers influence cognitive responses to pricing, product attributes, and various marketing cues and incentives. Indeed, we can find large influence of consumer research in each of the subfields of information processing: attention, perception, categorization, memory, consumer choices (Bagozzi, 2006).

Some scholars of marketing and psychology, as Barrett, Lye and Venkateswarlu did in their article *“Consumer Perceptions of Brand Extensions: Generalising Aaker & Keller’s Model”* (1992), have studied the cost of creating brands in a competitive market because consumers are extremely influenced by promotional activities and they cause greater pressure to influence existing brands into new product categories. In fact as said by Barrett, Lye and Venkateswarlu (1992, p.2) *“(…)During these decades of globalization, cash flow premium enjoyed by a successful brand depends first of all on the purchase behaviour of consumers and ability to stretch consumers’ acceptance of a brand across the categories”*.

We have to consider the Aaker & Keller’s (1990) model of consumer brand extension attitude formation.

What we intend with brand extension? Considering the definition provided by Aaker & Keller (1990, p.27) it is the *“(…) use of an established brand name to enter a new product category”*;

leveraging existing brand equity into new product categories permits to avoid the risk associated with establishing a new brand, through convincing consumers that the positive attributes associated with the original brand are relevant to the new product and benefiting from the awareness of the original brand.

A lot of researches in the cognitive response paradigm have considered consumers as a reactor to his/her environment and not as an active participant, as an active actor in it.

What has been really unknown to theorists are first-person points of view, consumer agency, and non-deterministic explications based on causal circumstances experienced by decision makers.

According to Bagozzi in "*Explaining Consumer Behavior and Consumer Action: From Fragmentation to Unity*" (2006, p.115) " (...) *If our aim is to discover the essence of consumer behaviour, we must underline the heterogeneous manifestations of it and identify its common and universal core*".

The consumer can live his/her life with regard to consumption and he/she regulates autonomously his/her desires, decisions, and actions.

The world of consumer behaviour is chaotic; that is why we need an identification of basic, universal concepts and processes which explicate it.

As said by Bagozzi (2006) the starting point collects concepts and principles both from philosophy (considering both the theory of action and the theory of mind) and from the philosophy of science, combining these mentioned with theory development and testing of specific and defined behaviours.

But before analyzing this new perspective on consumer behaviour, we want to propose the distinction between consumer behaviour and consumer action.

Generally speaking the term 'consumer behaviour' is used to define the psychological processes that consumers activate and experience in their lives. In fact 'consumer action' refers only to what a consumer does as a conscious actor; such actions have typically a scope or an aim.

Words and language play both a crucial role in understanding consumer behaviour: the linguistic terms we use and also how we use them are modified by our thoughts and feelings and then determine our reactions and actions in the world.

Indeed, the words we react to are connected only to basic psychological events or experiences and can be imagined as inputs to descriptions of behaviour and action.

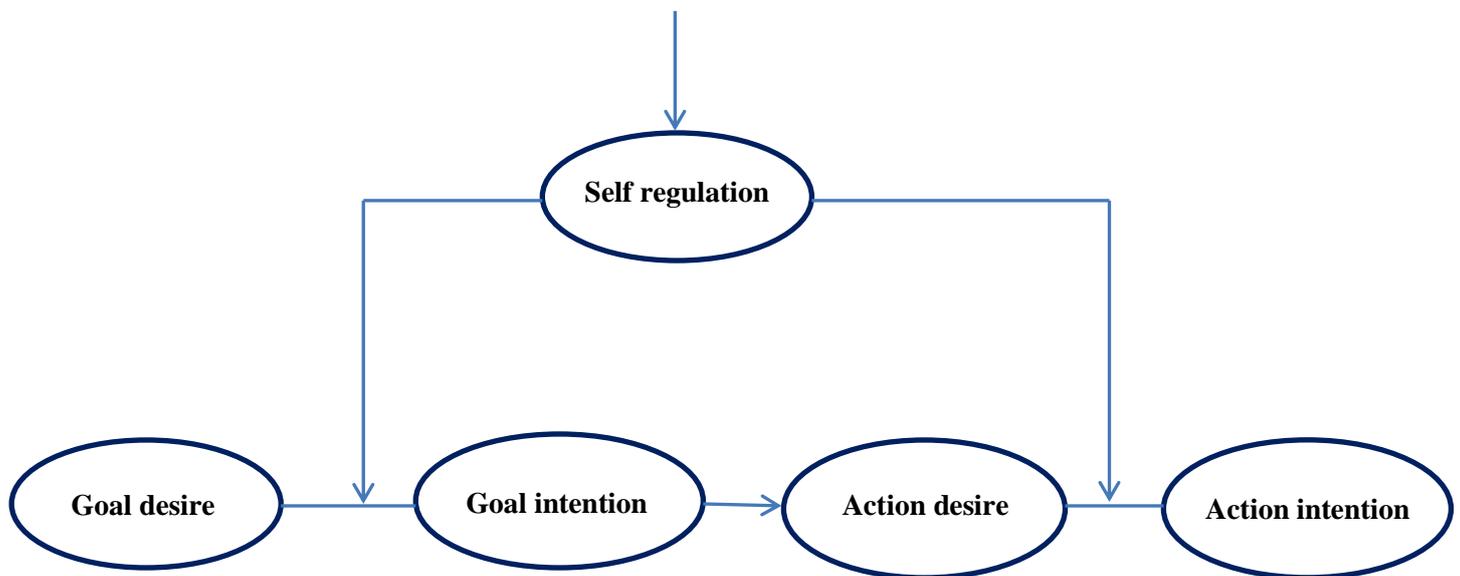
Moreover we should consider three main assumptions in order to distinguish consumer behaviour from consumer action.

Bagozzi (2006) has said that first, the languages of the world are presumed to have a common and general lexicon and grammar, whose form can be used to construct universal concepts in consumer mind.

The explication is in line with theory of emotions in psychology (Lazarus, 1991) which studies the problematic determinants of any emotion and says that it is the evaluation and interpretation that arise after comparing an actual state with a desired state.

The consumer core helps understanding the concept with this proposed diagram (Figure 1.1.).

Figure 1.1.: The Consumer Core



Source: Bagozzi, 2006

It can be seen that five central variables are presented: goal desire, goal intention, action desire, action intention, and self-regulation.

These five variables constitute the heart of consumer decision making.

There are, also, antecedents to goal desires based on goal setting processes and also psychological reactions not shown in the figure; also psychological reactions as attitudes, subjective norms, group norms are the antecedents of goal desires. As said also by Bagozzi (2006, p. 125) “ (...) *not shown in the figure but very important are the implications of action intention, such as for example mental and physical events as planning, trying, monitoring of progress toward a goal, goal attainment/failure, and post-goal outcome thinking and feeling processes*”.

Goal desire and action desire are both connected to the “will” of a person.

A goal intention can be defined by use of phrases as follows: “I will do something to make something happen”, where “something happen” refers to a specific objective or goal (e.g., acquire

X, obtain Y) and “do something” means pursue X or Y. Notice that a goal intention is stimulated by a goal desire but unlike a goal desire implies striving to attain a goal.

Indeed, an action intention, also named behavioural intention, can be described as any intention, any “want” to act at the moment, or “I will do it after now”.

Then comes the action intentions which represent when, where, how, and how long one intends to act.

And what does it mean self-regulation?

With this name Bagozzi has intended one of two processes defined reflectivity and reflexivity, respectively.

Following Bagozzi’s theory (2006, p. 128), reflective self-regulation means “*the active imposition of personal moral or self-evaluative standards to possible goal desire or behavioural desire*”.

Bagozzi means that consumers evaluate their willingness and decide whether they want to have or not in base on their desires that they experience in their buying choices.

However, it is important to underline that the variables specified in the diagram represent universal concepts: they are simply used to construct processes and hypotheses concerning how consumer behaves and acts.

The concepts analysed try to provide a conceptualization of consumer’s selfhood, considering both personal desires and personal identity, the role of the sociality (expressed in social identity) including interpersonal, group, and collective forces.

Self-regulation is different because it arises from human reflectivity and consequently creates human desires.

1.4. CONCLUSIONS

The first chapter of this thesis has made a focus on the crucial theme of categorization and models that try to deal with the taxonomic structure of a category system organized around a basic level and the categories connected to it.

Starting from a general overview we have seen the distinction between the vertical and horizontal structure of category systems, the existence of ad hoc categories and the internal subdivision between complex-dependent and complex-independent properties.

Regarding the section about prototypes, we have distinguished the empirical evidence for prototypes as structural facts about categories, from the possible role of prototypes in cognitive processing, representation, and learning.

We have considered assumptions about the nature of the attributes of real-world objects and assumptions about context that evidence there is structure in the world. At least, we have analysed

the opposite meaning of consumer behaviour and consumer action, emphasizing the concept of self-regulation in achieving consumers' aim.

Our goal in writing this chapter is to enhance that the study of consumer behaviour should be of great interest to marketing specialists, economists and social psychologists. The interest in understanding social cognition is motivated partially by the idea that the same cognitive system pervades the social world and at the same time learned about and categorized the physical world; consumer behaviour and marketing are strictly connected each other and they must not be a source of interesting examples of cognitive maps and criteria. Rather they are the core point from which starts the creation of new concepts, ideas and data.

The question is no more whether stimuli are perceived or not by human mind; rather whether the effects (subliminal or empirical) of them are understood by humans (also consumers) and applied in their buying choices.

CHAPTER 2.

“MADE IN ITALY” IN GERMANY

2.1. ITALY AND GERMANY: A LONG LASTING RELATIONSHIP

In this chapter we might try an approach on a smaller and more comprehensive scale that involves two countries that are crucial partners in the EU: Italy and Germany. The two nations share a history of recent division and unification that more ancient “state entities” like France, England or even Spain do not.

Italian - German differences are still nowadays plentiful.

The first barrier is constituted by language. Then, the two nations share different positions on politics, economics, structures, social models and culture. Entrepreneurial tradition is strong and highly developed: on the German side we found a giant economic network present all over the world, primarily involved in the heavy manufacturing sector, on the Italian side we have a small, but smart and flexible economy, living moments of crisis and post-crisis.

It is interesting to see how these two models are not “rival”, for the simple reason that the German and the Italian industry models and their internationally successful products are normally very different and therefore not in direct competition; Germany and Italy have been considered from centuries as those setting economic and social benchmarks with remarkable trade relations.

But we cannot deny that the relationship between these two countries was often very influenced by stereotyped images that favour conflict and cultural misunderstandings rather than detecting real differences of position.

From an economic point of view if we consider the last ten years of statistical data concerning import-export activity, Italy and Germany were important mutual marketplaces in several sectors and products.

According to a report made by the Federal Office of Statistics (2015), in 2015 our country has imported “Made in Germany” goods for 58.1 billion €, and sold Germans 49 billion € of Italian goods. The total volume of imports and exports of 107 billion € is back in line with pre-crisis levels and reveals Rome as the 6th-biggest purchaser of German products (beating Austria for the first time).

The Federal Office of Statistics (2015) has underlined that for the first time from 2007 the increase in the import of Italian goods to Germany in a decade is notably, too.

The respective economic turnover of Italy and Germany does not indicate any particular problem, although it remains affected by the world financial crisis.

Germany maintains its reputation in Italian mind, thanks to information and policy institutions, as a country of discipline, honesty and rigour, whilst Italy is unable to hinder the propagation of negative stereotypes abroad, which often rely on distorted versions of the truth. They do not resolve any problems and they slowly destroy a positive image of Italians abroad, and consequently make it difficult to predict how the idea of “Made in Italy” will develop.

German companies view Italy as an essential supplier in a variety of sectors, from food to furniture, from auto components to machine tools, to plastics, and pharmaceuticals.

German companies have transferred some years ago their supply chains in emerging markets, but they have now returned to Italy for components and intermediate products, which ensures quality, but also flexibility and a familiarity, both geographic and cultural.

The growth in trade was particularly concentrated in specific German Federal States, and specific sectors: in absolute terms Italy exports on average €10 billion, respectively, to Baden-Württemberg, Bavaria and North Rhine-Westphalia.

The fact that we also export fruit (15.5%) and baked goods (+18.6) reminds us that Germany, for example, is a destination market for food products with more lively internal demand.

2.1.1. FOCUS ON BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG (BW)

Baden-Württemberg is one of the sixteen *Bundesländer*² of the Federal Republic of Germany; this federal state is in terms of both its surface area and population size the third biggest of the German States. An area of 35,751 square kilometres supports a population of around 10.8 million people. Located in Germany’s Southwest (Figure 2.1.), corner and neighbour to three other German States, Baden-Württemberg lies really at the heart of Europe.

² Germany is a federal republic consisting of sixteen federal states.

Berlin and Hamburg are frequently called *Stadtstaaten* (city-states). The remaining 13 states are called *Flächenländer* (literally: area states). Initially, in 1949, the states of the Federal Republic were Baden, Bavaria (in German: Bayern), Bremen, Hamburg, Hesse (Hessen), Lower Saxony (Niedersachsen), North Rhine Westphalia (Nordrhein-Westfalen), Rhineland-Palatinate (Rheinland-Pfalz), Schleswig-Holstein, Württemberg-Baden, and Württemberg-Hohenzollern. West Berlin, while officially not part of the Federal Republic, was largely integrated and considered as a de facto state.

Figure 2.1.: Baden-Württemberg in Germany

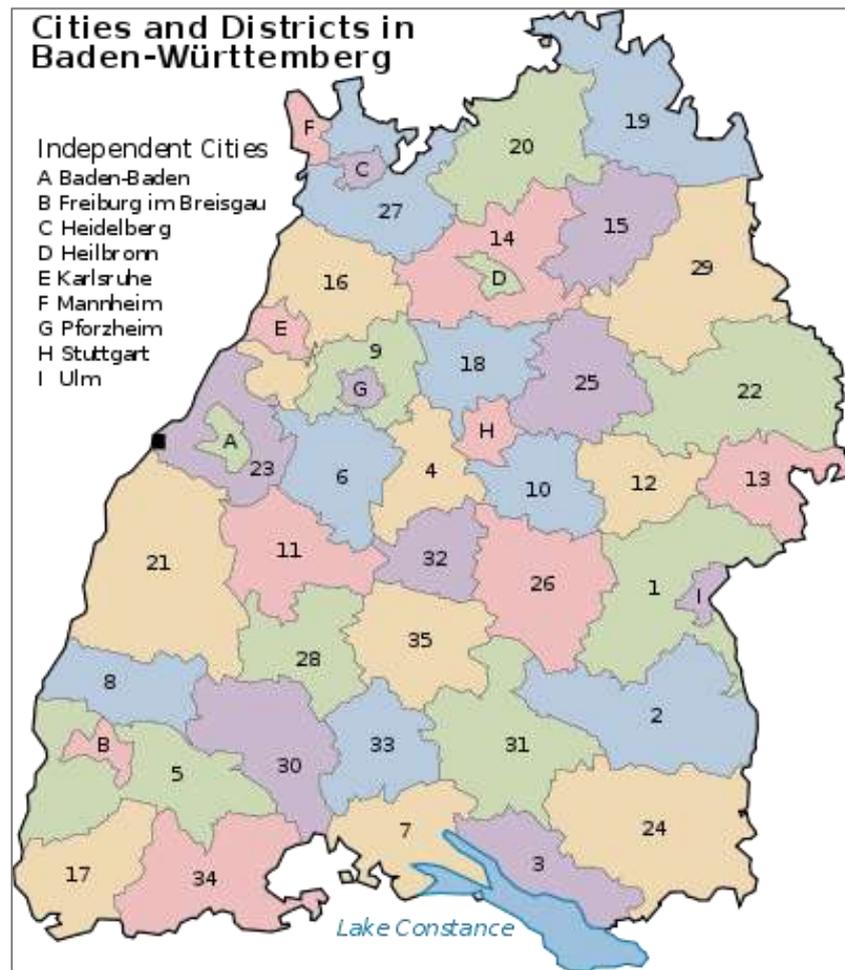


Source: www.Baden-Wuerttemberg.de, 2015

Baden-Württemberg is characterized by the diversity of its landscapes. In the West, the scenery is characterized by the Black Forest and the Rhine Plain, in the South by Lake Constance and the ridge of the Alps, in the East by the Swabian Alb hills, and in the North by the Hohenloh plain and the uplands of the Kraichgau region.

Stuttgart is the State Capital and is home to a population of around 620,000 inhabitants, making it also the biggest city in the State. The next in size are Mannheim, Karlsruhe and Freiburg (Figure 2.2.). Alongside its urban conurbations, Baden-Württemberg is a predominantly rural State.

Figure 2.2.: Cities and Districts in Baden-Württemberg



Source: www.Baden-Wuerttemberg.de, 2015

The population of Baden-Württemberg has grown continuously during these years. Today, this growth is due almost exclusively to immigration from outside. The population structure is in a fundamental process of transformation. Alongside ever-increasing life expectancy and a declining birth rate, migration is also a key factor.

According to the section “*Business Location*” of Region Baden-Württemberg Website and the journal “*The magazine: Business Baden-Württemberg. Where ideas work*”, this land is considered one of the most important economic regions not only in Germany but also in the entire Europe: here we can find internationally well-known corporations and thousands of successful SMEs: many of these medium-sized enterprises are world market leaders in their respective economic fields. They are known as developers and producers of highly specialized products and their names are associated with the idea of quality, reliability and the very highest technological standards.

These SMEs are appreciated for the innovative ideas and entrepreneurial spirit, with remarkable high level of productivity and low rates of unemployment.

However Baden-Württemberg is the home of international well-known industrial giants such as Daimler, Bosch and IBM Deutschland.

In the European Union (EU), Baden-Württemberg presents a per-capita gross domestic product similar to Luxembourg and Holland. In order to have an indicator of population's prosperity, we can consider the disposable income per household: according to it the population of Baden-Württemberg takes the lead, surpassing others German federal states and some rich countries of the EU.

Nowhere in Europe, as in Baden-Württemberg, we can find such an effort in innovations' investments and research; this degree of investment pays off: in Europe does not exist any country that has more registered patents than Baden-Württemberg.

The result is the development of important research institutions, including the Institutes of the Max-Planck Society, the German Cancer Research Centre in Heidelberg, the German Aerospace Centre, the Centre for Solar Energy and Hydrogen Research Baden-Württemberg and the Institutes of the Fraunhofer Society.

Products made in Baden-Württemberg are so well-done and popular thanks to the availability of an excellent, well-qualified workforce, strong management personnel, developed research landscape and modern infrastructures.

In this way, Baden-Württemberg has acquired the reputation of a partner which combines precision and quality with innovation and so it is Germany's number one export state (Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2015). Foreign trade has been the most powerful motor for the economy of the State for many years: the great majority of work places depend upon the export market.

This *Bundesland* is also strongly connected to Italy: about 180.000 Italians work and live there.

The great majority of foreign people in BW come from our country. As we can see from Figure 2.3., the percentage of Italians that live in this Federal State, attested at the end of December 2015 by the *Statistische Landesamt Baden-Württemberg*³ is consistently higher than other people coming from others European countries.

³ Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg is one of the most important statistical research centre in Baden-Württemberg, specialized in gaining dates about economic and social themes and issues. It depends on the Federal Department of Treasury.

Figure 2.3.: Foreign Population 2015 in Baden-Württemberg expressed in percentage



Source: Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2015

We can also consider the population present in this Federal State, analysing the numerical amount of people living here but native from other countries.

As we can see from Figure 2.4. the Italians have really “colonised” Baden-Württemberg: 178.068 are our fellow countrymen and countrywomen that live there until the end of 2015, according to the statistics published by the *Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg*.

124.435 of these are also born in Italy and then have emigrated in the past decades.

Figure 2.4.: Foreign EU Population 2015 in Baden-Württemberg expressed in numbers

3. Ausländische Bevölkerung aus den EU-Staaten in Baden-Württemberg am 31. Dezember 2015 nach Geburtsland und Alter						
Staatsangehörigkeit	Ausländer insgesamt	Im Ausland geboren	In Deutschland geboren			
			insgesamt	darunter im Alter		
				unter 6	6 – 18	über 18
Insgesamt	1 544 665	1 299 654	245 011	22 511	47 255	175 245
Europa	1 270 732	1 040 618	230 114	15 500	42 400	172 214
EU-Staaten¹⁾	781 429	662 885	118 544	10 696	16 619	91 229
Belgien	2 345	2 109	236	41	42	153
Bulgarien	31 322	30 293	1 029	864	137	28
Dänemark	1 248	1 173	75	13	22	40
Estland	972	933	39	16	16	7
Finnland	1 772	1 671	101	21	36	44
Frankreich	29 546	26 831	2 715	367	733	1 615
Griechenland	79 050	60 224	18 826	737	2 471	15 618
Irland	1 704	1 606	98	20	25	53
Italien	178 068	124 435	53 633	1 438	7 343	44 852
Kroatien	92 092	75 606	16 486	331	1 719	14 436
Lettland	3 568	3 426	142	109	20	13
Litauen	6 121	5 880	241	171	62	8
Luxemburg	1 378	1 311	67	6	3	58
Malta	65	61	4	3	1	–
Niederlande	7 767	6 651	1 116	110	196	810
Österreich	26 964	23 179	3 785	175	348	3 262
Polen	79 073	76 226	2 847	1 633	621	593
Portugal	29 208	23 735	5 473	355	1 644	3 474
Rumänien	102 070	99 023	3 047	2 642	281	124
Schweden	2 364	2 191	173	43	65	65
Slowakei	8 492	8 124	368	227	119	22
Slowenien	7 959	6 603	1 356	69	68	1 219
Spanien	24 817	20 455	4 362	240	246	3 876
Tschechien	6 618	6 355	263	133	67	63
Ungarn	44 410	43 253	1 157	828	125	204
Vereinigtes Königreich	11 586	10 707	879	98	207	574
Zypern	293	282	11	6	–	5

1) Einschließlich 557 Personen mit der Staatsangehörigkeit der ehemaligen Tschechoslowakei.

Source: Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2015

2.1.2. BADEN-WÜRTTEMBERG AND NORTHERN ITALY

Baden-Württemberg constitutes one of the most powerful regions in terms of productivity and one of the most important European industrial districts. For this reasons we can easily compare this German Federal State with the area in Northern Italy constituted by Lombardy, Veneto and Emilia-Romagna regions.

Northern Italy is, according to the study driven by Germany Trade & Invest ⁴(2015), the first economic extended “region” that trades primarily with Baden-Württemberg, thanks to nearness and cultural similarities.

⁴ Germany Trade and Invest (GTAI) is the economic development agency of the Federal Republic of Germany. The organization promotes Germany as a business and technology location and supports companies based in Germany with global market information.

The great majority of these industries are small-medium enterprises (SMEs) both in Northern Italy and in BW. The Italian firms are searching for quality, innovation and reputation, that is why they are so linked with this South-West German State.

“Nowadays it is not important where we produce in Italy, rather the quality and the innovation that we put on the techniques” (*"Heute ist nicht wichtig was oder wo in Italien produziert wird, wichtig ist, dass die Ware qualitativ hochwertig ist und innovative Techniken angewandt werden"*) has said the economic professor at the University Bocconi of Milan, Paolo Preti, in the document “*Region Norditalien*” published by AHK-Italien; so that both Northern Italy and Baden- Württemberg constitute an economic specialized environment, where industries work and cooperate together.

Baden-Württemberg expresses the force of an export master, on the top of the innovation and business culture. As Northern Italy, we find a lot of similarities within the firms present in this *Bundesland*: a thousand of small and medium enterprises that guarantee the economic development of this State.

GTAI in 2014 esteemed that they operate in the field of Medicine, Automobile, Furniture, Electronic, Environment. They are not well specialized in food but they really appreciate the Italian one.

According to the opinion expressed by Isabella Pignagnoli, senior project manager at the Italienische Handelskammer München-Stuttgart (see the interview in Appendix), the *Bundesland* Baden-Württemberg is one of the most important Germany’s regions considering import-export towards Italy: also during the years of international crisis (2009-2012) this *Bundesland* has absorbed a lot of goods from Italy (in particular in the mechanical, technical and chemical field). Germany appreciates Italy, works well with our country but we have to consider, also, that in German’s mind it is perceived not as a great economic power, rather as a “faithful friend”, even if Italy is present in all the statistics concerning economic relationship with Germany.

Even if there was crisis and a consistent economic period of slackness in this German Federal State in the recent years, too, this situation has not influenced the great appeal that Italian food and culture has on German consumer.

For Italy the recipe of success will be the export of Food, Wine and Foodstuffs, because the Germans appreciate in particular the quality and the wonderful taste of our Made in Italy products; the German market has already understood the potentialities of our food economy, from North to South Italy and the constant increase of demand of these products (+15 % in 2015) confirm the trend: the success of “Made in Italy” in this *Bundesland* could be associated with the importance of ingredients and handmade work proposed by Italian firms.

The great majority of German people visit Italy to discover primarily its culinary specialities; secondly they would discover the secret of our craftsmanship, our Italian flavour and our artistic attitude.

Bio-products, cheese, wine, milk and also finished products constitute the 50% of export from Italy to Germany. This success is strictly connected to another phenomenon: the presence in Baden-Württemberg of a thousand of branches of Italian firms, adopting the German efficiency in production, minimizing the margin of costs, implementing the industrial rhythm.

Nowadays Germany has discovered the potentiality of the trademarks, especially in the wholesale trade; as the Italians also German consumer is changing his/her consumer behaviour, opting for a more conscious buying behaviour: a lot of companies like EDEKA, Kaufland, REWE, well-known German supermarket chains, are proposing products from Italy.

The label written on them reminds Italian flavour, but these products are formally produced in Italy for these German chains, that sell them in a very precise category.

For example we can find the “EDEKA Italia”, a line of pasta, cheese, sauces, baked products and other specialities from our typical Italian cuisine. This line is entirely produced in Italy, by firms like Balocco, Consorzio Grana Padano or Pasta Zara but their names do not figure in the packaging. Only if you turn the pack, you can see the wording “*Hergestellt in Italien von...*”, that means “Produced in Italy by...”.

It means that German consumer appreciate very much Italian offer: in 2015 we have seen an increase of this consumption above of 15%.

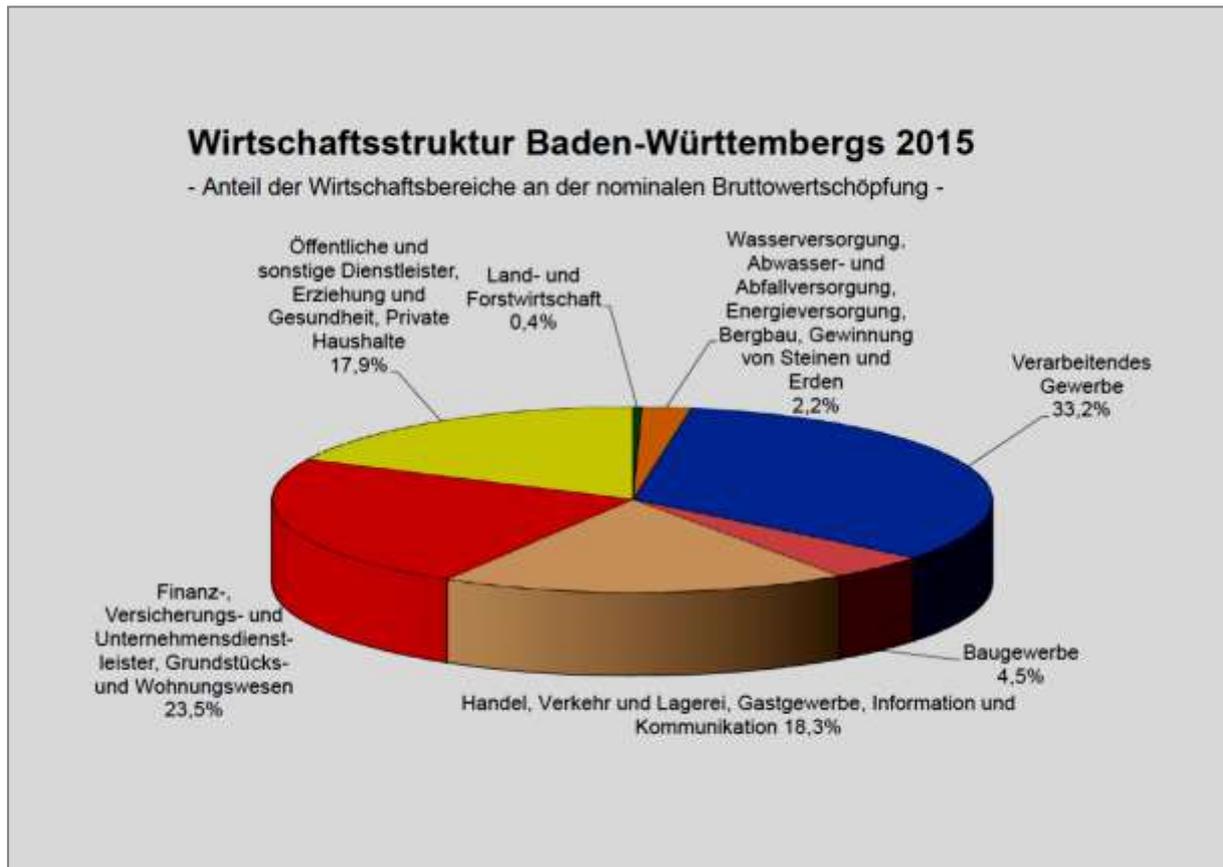
The so called “Premium Brand” (top quality goods) has seen an increase of demand over the 17% in the past year.

The Germans are able to pay for “Quality, Price and Brand”.

As we can see from the Figure 2.5., the economy of this Federal State is based primarily on manufacturing sector (33, 2%) (constituted by the blue segment of the chart), then financial sector (23,5%) (red segment), public services and insurances (17,9%).

A little quota of the Baden-Württemberg economy is based on construction (4,5%), transportation and agriculture (0,4%).

Figure 2.5.: The economic structure of Baden-Württemberg in 2015



Source: Ministerium für Wirtschaft, Arbeit und Wohnungsbau Baden- Württemberg, 2015

It is important to understand how crucial the industry is in this *Bundesland* and that is the reason why it is so connected with Northern Italy: they are truly similar, both for innovation, successful sectors and firms, and for their strong commercial relationship.

For a long period the Italian presence in this federal State was restricted exclusively to the industrial and manufacturing sectors; BW has a long tradition in innovation and manufacturing industry. Besides the automobile many other important innovations originate from there. Building on its long tradition it continues to be one of Germany's most innovative states and to have a comparatively high share of manufacturing in its overall economy.

Due to the economic importance of the industrial activities and its interest in keeping a leading position, Baden-Württemberg has a special interest in the advanced manufacturing, as well as in Northern Italy. In 2014 its Ministry for Financial and Economic Affairs published a structural study called "*Industrie 4.0 für Baden-Württemberg*".

This represents the growing attention posed on the intelligent production means in the industry of the future by the *Bundesland* government. The optimisation of the industrial processes and the developing of new business models are so becoming both crucial in BW and in Northern-Italy.

According to the *Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg*, this *Bundesland* is truly a place devoted to business, high-tech, industry and services: products “Made in Baden- Württemberg” are worldwide appreciated and desired; the 66% of its exports are addressed to European countries, the 18% to Asia and the 13% only for U.S.A. (Figure 2.6).

Figure 2.6.: The most important export countries for Baden-Württemberg



Source: *Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg, 2016*

The structure of the economy guarantees a position of prestige for this Federal state, both in the whole Germany and in the entire world. The link between Baden- Württemberg and Northern Italy is so easy to be found: this is the land of machine engineering, car manufacturing, electrical engineering and services and so very similar to the SMEs that we can find in the area around Lombardy, Veneto, Emilia Romagna regions.

As in Northern Italy also in this German Federal State the services are generating important numbers: tourism, sport, culture, free-time and assurances are there very peculiar, more and more decisive for the internal GDP.

Considering also the last press release called “*Italia rafforzata dalla crisi, livelli record per gli scambi con la Germania*” widespread by the AHK (German-Italian Chamber of Commerce) of Milan (on the 14th March 2016) in the 2015 we have seen a rapid progression in the commercial exchanges between Italy and Germany.

Italy has seen an incredible growth in its exports towards that State: 58, 1 billions € is the total amount of Italian export in Germany and 107, 1 billions € is the total amount of export and import between these European States. Italy has surpassed also Austria, a historic partner for Germany.

The chef of the German-Italian Chamber of Commerce has said in the same report (2016) that: “*These dates let us hope in a progressively growth during 2016, encouraging the reduction of Italian debit. The commercial relationship between Italy and Germany constitutes the basis for a profitable join production and an efficient industrial cooperation*”.

It has come out, also, that the great majority of services (78%) sold in Germany are created and entirely realized in Italy and the 55% of the enterprises think that their market rate will increase in the next few years.

The future expectations confirm that the great majority of firms are optimistic about the trade relationship with Germany; in fact the 86% of firms interviewed declare, they will increase the market share.

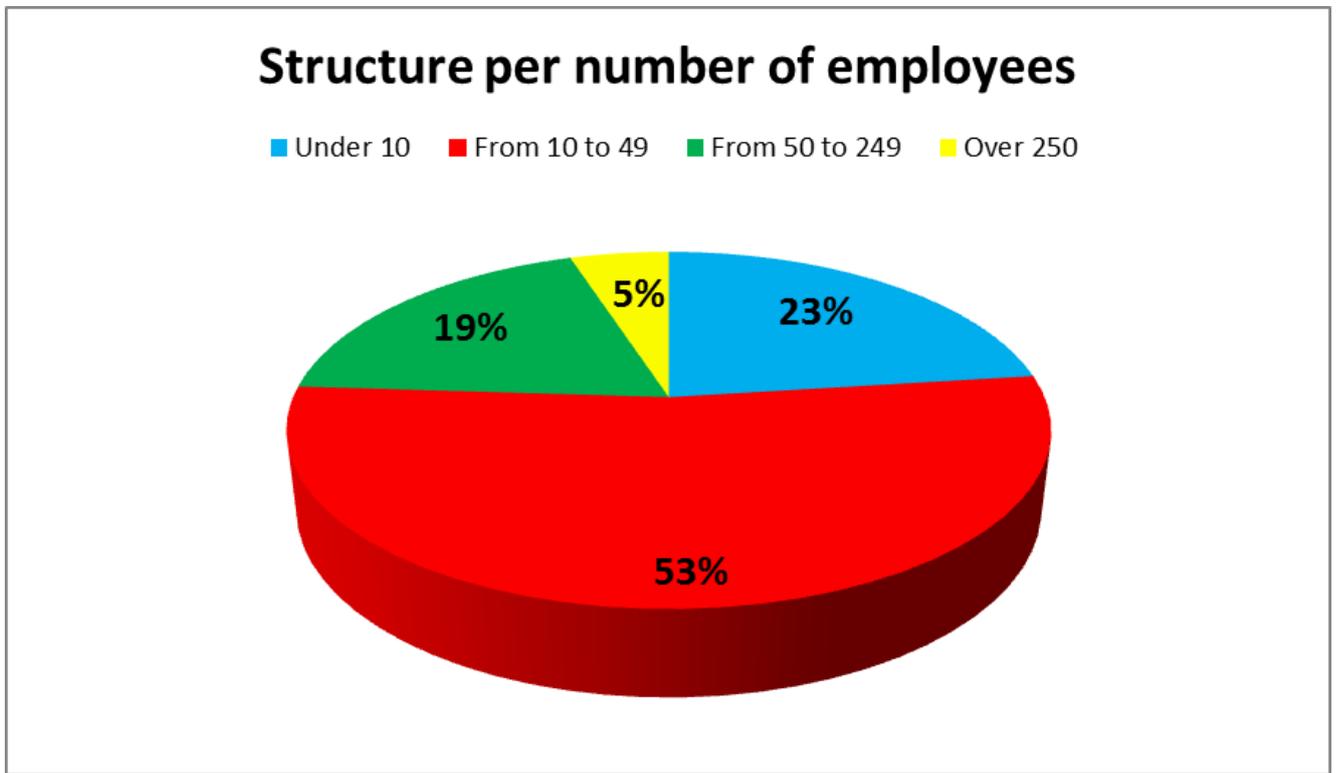
If we consider the total amount of Italian export, the most influential sectors are food and beverage, and then the metallurgic manufacture.

The Italian industrial structure is constituted as follows: considering Figure 2.7. We can imagine how important are the small-medium enterprises for the economy of Northern-Italy as well as the economy of Baden-Württemberg is strictly based on these SMEs: it is not true, in fact, that this German Federal State is full of multinational giants like Daimler or Bosch.

Rather are the medium enterprises that give power to the economy of the region.

As we can notice from the chart above, the majority of Italian enterprises have from 10 to 49 employees: in Baden-Württemberg the tendency is toward a mean of enterprises constituted by 50 to 249 employees, so that the SMEs in this *Bundesland* are bigger than Italian one.

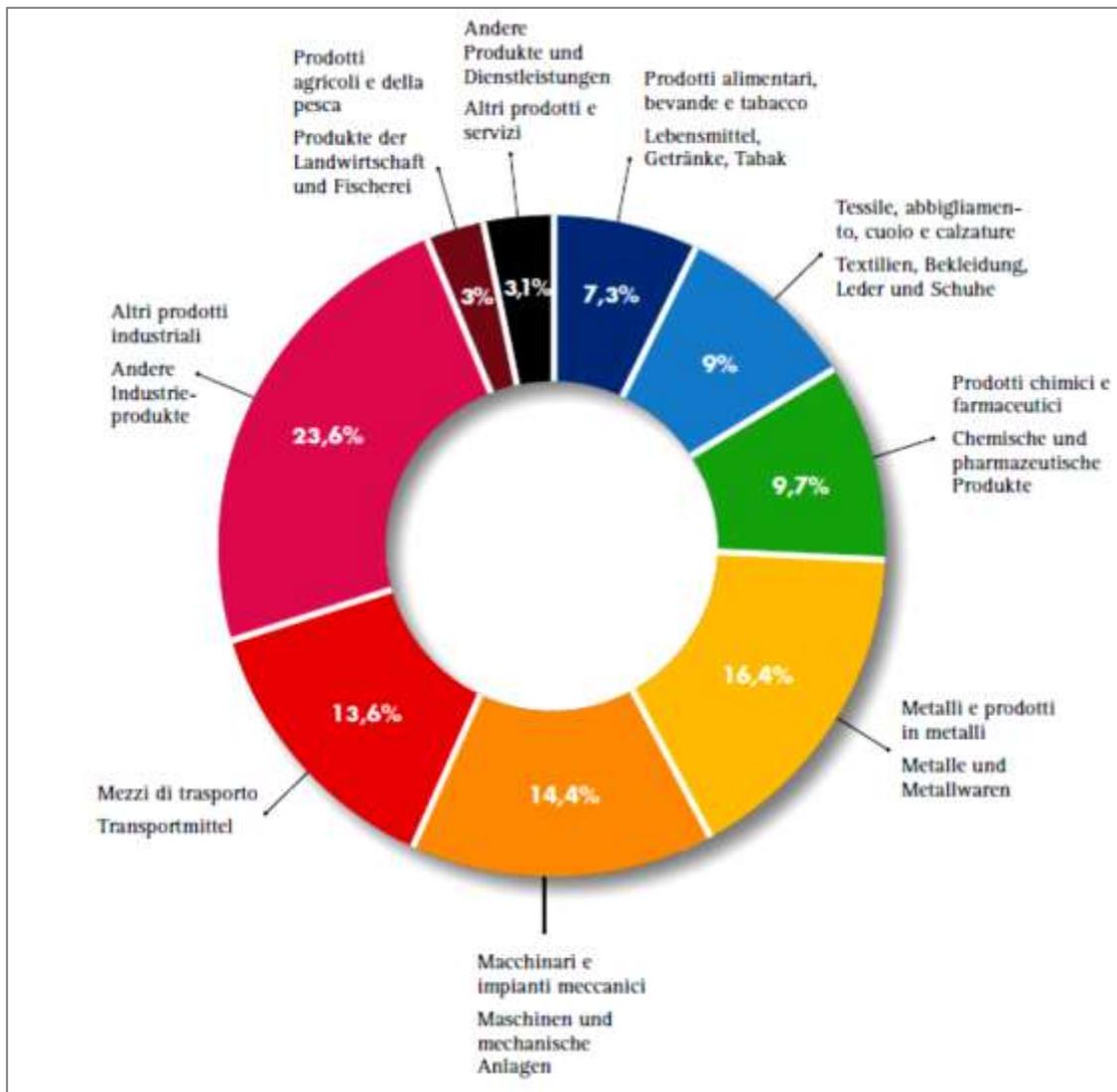
Figure: 2.7.: Structure of Italian industry per number of employees



Source: Personal analysis, 2016

Italy exports to Baden- Württemberg are mostly concerning industrial products (23, 6%), as expressed by the Figure 2.8.: the other dates identify that 16, 4% of the total amount of export to that country is represented by metallurgical products, the 14, 4% is represented by machines and mechanical plants and 10% by food and agricultural products.

Figure 2.8.: Italian export per sector (2015)



Source: Data processing made by Istat, 2015

2.2. “MADE IN ITALY” IN GERMANY: THE PHENOMENON

Before considering the powerful role of Made in Italy in Germany, we have to understand what it means this acronym.

“Made in Italy” brand has been used since 1980 to indicate the international uniqueness of Italy in four traditional industries: fashion, food, furniture and mechanical engineering (automobiles, industrial design, machineries and shipbuilding), in Italian also known as "Four A" (*Abbigliamento* (clothes), *Agroalimentare* (food), *Arredamento* (furniture) and *Automobili* (automobiles). Italian products have often been associated with quality, high specialization and differentiation, elegance, and strong links to famous Italian industrial districts.

The “Made in Italy” concept tends to underline three points: high quality standards, product innovations, optimised balance between tradition and technology.

Since 1999, “Made in Italy” has begun to be protected by associations such as *Istituto per la Tutela dei Produttori Italiani* (Institute for the Protection of the Italian Manufacturers) and regulated by the Italian law.

In recent times the merchandise mark “Made in Italy” has become decisive for Italian exports and so common worldwide to be often considered as a separate product category. In January 2014, Google Cultural Institute, in collaboration with the Italian government and the Italian Chamber of Commerce, launched an online project aimed to promote “Made in Italy” by using virtual showrooms about several famous Italian products.

These factors are completely integrated of the strategy companies which are dealing abroad and consist of the success keys of the economic growth of Italy.

The Italian law 350/2003 (legge finanziaria 2004, comma 49) has determined that “*constitute false indication the labelling "Made in Italy" above products and goods not coming from Italy, considering the European norms about the origin*”.

The Decree of the Italian Parliament 25 September 2009, n. 135 “*Disposizioni urgenti per l’attuazione di obblighi comunitari e per l’esecuzione di sentenze europee della Corte di giustizia delle Comunità europee*” (General instructions for the application of communities obligations and for the execution of European sentences of the Court of Justice of European communities”) has reinforced the rules in protection of “Made in Italy”.

The article 16 of this law says that “*(...) We intend that a product is entirely realized in Italy, a good that we call Made in Italy, when also the designing, the processing and the packaging are completely done in the Italian territory (...)*”.

In that sense, everyone who use the labelling “Made in Italy” and presents a product “100% produced in Italy”, “totally Italian”, “100% Italian” in every language, using also figures and images that influence the deceptive perception of the consumer, it will be penalized by law.

The false or misleading products let the consumer consider all Italian products, deceiving him/her because he/she is not able to distinguish them from deceptive ones.

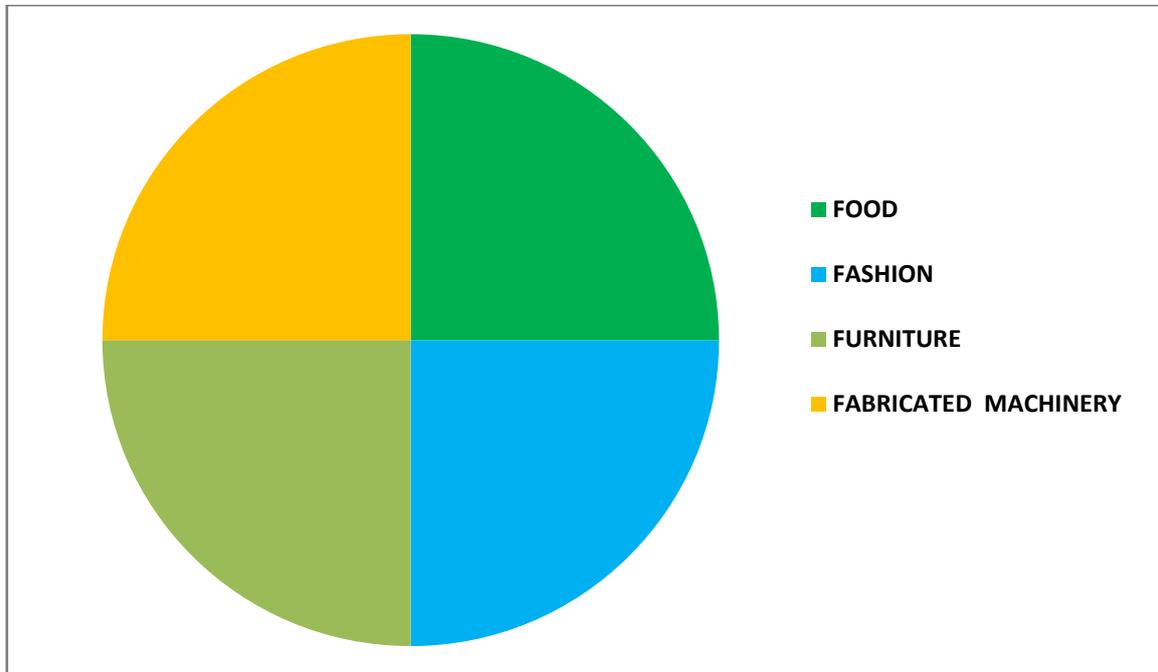
The brand “Made in Italy” is without any doubt an immaterial good, that projects abroad the image of our country.

According to Bronzini (2007, p.3), “*Made in Italy identifies not only the production localized in Italian territory, but also an asset with numerous potentialities*”; the majority of people in the world associate this brand with the concepts of aesthetics, luxury, beauty, wellness and passion.

Factors like innovation and technology are very distant from the soul of “Made in Italy”, indeed.

Consequently for the foreigners “Made in Italy” represents fashion, food, furniture, fabricated machinery (see Figure 2.9.).

Figure 2.9.: The “four F” of “Made in Italy”



Source: Personal analysis, 2016

According to the report provided by Mercato Globale (2015) about “Made in Italy”, the most important factors of competitive advantage are constituted by:

- Brand awareness
- Qualitative excellence
- Beauty and style
- Leadership in niche markets
- Flexibility

The power of “Made in Italy” was emphasized also by Google through a platform intended as both a digital shop window and a training tool for Italian brands.

“Made in Italy: digital excellence” is based on the observation that “Made in Italy” is a worldwide recognized brand: this platform is doubtless one of the greatest way to make a concrete contribution to spreading Italian excellence around the world and allow internet to discover Italy’s craftsmanship and its traditions.

Considering the document *“Le nuove norme a tutela del Made in Italy”* published in 2015 by the Italian Department of Community Policies, we can understand how important are the norms that protect and value the Italian origin of the products, and in particular the products entirely produced in our country. This norm wanted to punish the misleading or incorrect use of brands, when it persuades the consumer think it is a real Italian product, unless it presents specific indications of origin.

The declaration “100% Made in Italy”, “Entirely produced in Italy” and similar are not dependant on the willingness of the producer, rather they must emerge from a de facto demonstration.

These norms do not want to penalize the sales, rather give importance to the real “Made in Italy” and ensure the consumer about the quality and the reliability of what he/she buys.

The deceptive use of brands is sanctioned with fines from 10 to 250 thousand Euros, applying the article 517 of the Italian Penal Code.

The norms have the intent to protect Italian tradition and excellence: Italy is the second most important manufacturing country, the first in terms of products with certifications like Dop or Igp; it is truly an extraordinary cultural heritage of innovation, creativity that our country should express trough “Made in Italy”.

2.2.1. “MADE IN ITALY” AND “MADE IN GERMANY”

We have made a brief digression of what is “Made in Italy” and its meaning for the economy of Italy.

Now we want to emphasize this concept, creating a distinction between “Made in Italy” and “Made in Germany”.

The “Made in Germany” label is a hundred and twenty-six years old. The label originated in England in 1887 when was proclaimed a law that forced foreign enterprises (which manufactured copycat British products) to express clearly the origins of their products. In particular England wanted to delimitate imitation goods arriving from Germany.

According to the article *“What does the “Made in” label mean anymore?”* written by Renuka Rayasam in 2013 the origin of the name is attributable to *“(…) the British historian Ernest Edwin Williams published a book titled “Made in Germany,” lamenting England’s manufacturing decline at the hands of the Germans—whose society was able to beat the British by paying attention to “matters of detail.”*

Since decades the expression had defined the evidence of the wonderful top-quality recognizable in a German product; nowadays “Made in Germany” is used as geographic and qualitative mark of origin, which is well-known and appreciated worldwide.

“Made in Germany” is considered a hallmark of top quality and this holds true not only for industrially produced goods. Especially products from German manufactories enjoy a high reputation abroad and a wide market success.

In order to conceive the concept of “Made in Germany” we would analyse the article written by Marc Bauer, a project manager by the *IHK Region Stuttgart*⁵, in April 2016: in “*Made in Germany – Ursprungsbezeichnung und Qualitätsbegriff*” (“Made in Germany – Mark of origin and example of quality”) emerged the meaning of this sentence and the profound sense of German capabilities.

In Germany, in contrast to Italy, there is no Federal Institution or Department that proof the authenticity of labelling and brands.

The producer can give autonomously labelling to his goods: “Made in Germany” depends on the production place and, in this sense, on the land of origin, on the land of birth of a good. The provenance of a commodity depends from the place of consignment, indeed.

The German producers are able to guarantee the highest standards in their manufacturing and management.

Quality is ensured by the respect to a set of criteria: guaranteed handcraft in Germany, that means the production takes place predominantly through handcraft and is predominantly carried out in that Federal State.

The manufactories apply high standards on the quality of the material, which means high quality materials for high quality products.

But the German legislation has still underlined the need to have a formalisation of the wording “Made in Germany”, even if the German government makes no considerable pressure and the marking with these words it is totally voluntary.

However it is rare these days for German products to be made entirely in Germany; like major companies in other industrialized countries, German firms have outsourced a lot of their production to developing countries where wages are low. In response, the European Union is now considering more stringently regulating how manufacturers label where their products are made.

Their machine tools production is more than double ours. And they are always a step ahead in the world rankings, whether it’s volumes or trade balance. But that does not mean that German entrepreneurs are more competitive than Italians, in actual fact.

As said in the article of the 12th of May 2016 in the Italian journal “*Il Sole 24 ore*”, written by Ilaria Vesentini, if we consider the top end of the balance sheets of companies that produce metal-bending technologies it emerges that the most important mechanics districts in Piedmont,

⁵ It is the Chamber of Industry and Commerce, which is present and works in the Stuttgart Region.

Lombardy, Veneto and Emilia are fighting almost with Baden Württemberg, North Rhine-Westphalia, Bavaria and Thuringia.

Size and economies of scale are the elements that permit German firms to overcome their Italian competitors in terms of investments and financial soundness, but make them more unbalanced on individual markets, indeed.

“Made in Italy” and “Made in Germany” are two different expressions of excellence which are also perfectly complementary.

2.2.2. SUCCESSFUL SECTORS OF “MADE IN ITALY”

The competitiveness of the Italian industrial system in the last ten years has had a strong slowdown, derived from the reduction of costs instead of focusing on innovation and investments; also the small size of Italian firms has influenced the situation negatively. These elements represent the Italian economic model characterized by small familiar firms not so well developed; all of these elements are often perceived as a symbol of Italian backwardness.

Only “Made in Italy” sectors have succeeded in worldwide markets. The crucial role of “Made in Italy” depends first of all upon firms’ geographical location and their activity sector and then upon their innovative capacity and productivity.

“Made in Italy” sectors are the most dynamic, creative and successful sectors in economic terms: even if the entire Italian economy is still suffering from lost in competitiveness, “Made in Italy” constitutes an exception.

What we intend then with “Made in Italy” sectors?

“Made in Italy” concerns food and wines, fashion furniture, stone and ceramic, bicycles and yachts, metal products, domestic appliances, motorcycles.

These are very competitive sectors worldwide but also where the Italian economic system has had a great success during the last decades.

Italy presents a specificity connected to technological specialization and culture that has been studied by numerous scholars and was the object of economic analyses that have tried to explain the presence in our territory of the so called “Industrial districts” (IDs).

According to Becattini (2007), the industrial district is a network composed of firms, whose role concerns only the production. Then the production process is integrated also by a social environment constituted by entrepreneurs and their families that work and live in the network.

According to the article *“The concept of industrial district: main contributions”* written by Fernando Alberti (2015), a member of the International Network for SMEs, what makes the

industrial districts so particular are the characteristics and heterogeneous qualities of the local labour market, elements internal to the district and highly flexible.

The performance of the firms inside the district is difficult to be measured and analysed because it is often related to tacit knowledge and skills

But the competitiveness and success of “Made in Italy” depend on these important immaterial factors difficult to be identified; they are: learning by doing or tacit knowledge, on differences in social context, on the ability to create and form a management structure, on the economic demand for high-quality products: all of these elements can be found inside the Italian districts.

What makes the “Made in Italy” brand so unique and successful is directly explicated by the worldwide known Italian industrial districts.

In fact as emerged from an analysis made by Assocamerestero (the Association of the most important Italian Chamber of Commerce worldwide) “Made in Italy” is so successful and well-appreciated because of its ability in evocating beauty, lifestyle and humanity.

The challenge of this brand is influencing the mentality of the consumer, in a world where uniformity, competitiveness and falsification are the only aspects that influence the market.

“Made in Italy” is successful when it is proposed also as a life style, as a good philosophy of living: from an economy of things to an economy of experiences, culture and Italian practical ability.

As we normally do with international brands, also with “Made in Italy” is crucial to define two important aspects: the imagine, that characterize the consumer perception (what he/she thinks about the product itself) and the brand identity, that is what firm wants to represent with that product; an appreciated brand must has an own personality and a value worldwide recognized.

A “Made in Italy” product is reconnected to creative know-how, human qualities and abilities; it is successful because it gives a sense of human relationship and luxury with its roots in the Italian way of living, and in that sense attention to the single person, to our culture and millennial traditions.

It is emblematic that the most important Italian sectors are always linked to knowledge, which means creativity power and Italian talent.

Arguably, “Made in Italy” brand is one of the most trusted and recognisable brands around the world but, it is also a very peculiar brand as it is not directly linked to a product or service, or a single business chief, a company, a worldwide group or specific industry sector.

In conclusion, we can say that what makes “Made in Italy” a brand unique in the world is the combination of key characteristics reinforced by the strong link between firms and people (across the country) with local heritage and know-how, a typicality of Italian industrial districts.

2.3. REAL AND FAKE ITALIAN PRODUCTS

Counterfeiting is a growing and increasingly dangerous phenomenon that will destroy Italy's export capacity.

During this decade there has been an enormous growth in the illegal market for designer goods with a 'name' or trademark (counterfeit goods), as well as goods made without paying for the intellectual property rights (pirated goods).

The most affected countries (those where the largest amount of fake certified-origin products are sold) are as a matter of fact the main producers of the original products. At the top of the list there is France (with a piracy turnover of more than € 1.5 billion), followed by Italy (€ 682 million), Germany (€ 598 million), Spain (€ 266 million) and Greece (€ 234 million).

As said by Laura Cavesti in the article "*Piracy of certified-origin food products in Europe was €4.3 bn last year*" of the Italian journal "Il Sole 24 Ore" (29 April 2016) apart from having economic consequences, counterfeited articles damage the health of EU citizens, their jobs, community competitiveness, trade, and investment in research and innovation.

The food Italian production, famous all over the world for its quality and genuineness, belongs to the products that are mostly imitated. The imitation of such products risks to damage the Italian productions, especially the parameters of the quality and the food safety, that are important instruments of marketing used by the Italian producers in the international markets.

The main violations appear in the imitation and evocation of a particular brand or the country of origin; the consumer can find misleading labels and false information about ingredients and/or processing (like packaging or portioning of the product itself); forgery regards especially imitation and fake labels, but it is also common the falsification of ingredients used in the production process. The situation that emerges highlights a market where counterfeiting, label fraud and Italian-sounding "exploitation" erode an important slice of the Italian agribusiness GDP.

The amount of "fakes" on the market has now reached enormous proportions, with significant consequences for various sectors: not only food industry, but also the fashion and furniture sectors are heavily penalised by counterfeiting.

Unfortunately these imitations are always connected to aggressive market strategies which induce consumers to opt for counterfeit products, because of their low price.

The elements that mislead the consumers are the names used in the packaging, often connected to the original name of the product in Italian or other references to Italy (for example the word "Italy" used in the product's name).

The use of misleading images, regarding the history of the false Italian company and the reference to its Italian origins, is the common strategy adopted to deceive the final consumer, getting easier the selling process of the product appreciated, even if it is not “true Italian”.

What are the main consequences of this situation?

The negative effects are huge.

The three main paths of forgery’s consequences are:

1. The illegal falsification of the Protected Geographical Indication, Protected Indication and well-known brands.
2. The fake images that refer to Italy, its landscape and false symbols that deceive the consumer.
3. Food and drink sector, but also fashion and furniture top-quality products are strongly penalized by forgery

2.3.1. ITALIAN SOUNDING

The term “Italian Sounding” is paradoxically world-wide known thanks to the commercialization and the great success of “Made in Italy” in the world: the huge resonance of the quality and appreciation of Italian products activates proportionally the falsification initiatives.

“Italian sounding” refers to the commercialization of goods and products that have names which sound Italian but they are not or not produced in Italy.

It refers, also, to all of the products sold whose misleading packaging presents words, figures, brands and recipes that remind the consumer Italy.

It is a really authentic problem, it is a fraud for the consumer and for the fair producers.

This phenomenon is also ancient: most of people probably do not know, but the Italian emigrants, going in America at the end of 1800, opened restaurants and cafes without having the Italian raw materials, but inventing names and brands that reminds Italy: images like Torre di Pisa, Colosseo and Vesuvio were part of the created products sold by them.

“Italian sounding” is most of all an extended phenomenon.

The Italian quality of food, furniture and fashion is loved all over the world, but most Italian firms are small-medium enterprises that have no power and economical forces to invest in marketing campaigns and in internationalization; as expressed by the Italian National Council Anti-forgery⁶ in the document “*Piano Nazionale Anticontraffazione*”, everyday 164 million Euros Italian sounding

⁶ The so called **Consiglio Nazionale Anticontraffazione (CNAC)** is the Italian interdepartmental organism, which deals with the struggle of forgery, improving initiatives and countermeasures at a national level.

products are sold in Europe, and that are three times as much as the value of real Italian food and products.

Also in our country the numbers of the phenomenon of counterfeited products are still increasing: the artisanal ability of our enterprises is surpassed by well-branded “Italian” products with little or no real connection to the motherland.

Also in Germany some brands and supermarket-chains utilize names that sound Italian, but they have nothing to do with Italy, creating an inconceivable damage to our industries and artisanal firms and international image, too.

The “Italian sounding” constitutes a civil offense also in the Federal *Bundesland*: it is a trick for the German consumer and a cheats Italian producers: the German Federal Law permits only a determined category of Associations (like Chamber of Commerce or Associations of Entrepreneurs) and Bodies to intervene against fraud.

The consumer protection in Germany must always pass through the civil authority: the protection is very fast and efficient and it will be activated by bailiff through immediate measures.

For this reason an association, the first in the world, called “*Italian Sounding e V.*” was born then on the 24th of February 2015 in Rom and it is registered at the Stuttgart Federal Court: constituent members are the Italian-German Chamber of Commerce München-Stuttgart, the Italian Chamber of Commerce for Germany, Confagricoltura and Unioncamere have decided to establish this not-for-profit association, which would have to prevent the forgery, and then monitor the German market and make a report about the abuses of power toward “Made in Italy” products and brands.

Considering the valuations made by Isabella Pignagnoli in the interview (presented in the Appedix) the Tricolor is very fascinating and attractive for German consumers, its importance is well-appreciated and the 40% of German consumers favour “Made in Italy” products.

During the talk with Pignagnoli is emerged that the concept of “Made in Italy” is not well established in German consumer’s mind: “*They appreciate indifferently all that sound Italian but they do not know the meaning of “Made in Italy” and the value connected to it*” said us the project manager. She has confirmed that German market is attracted by Italian food and fashion, but they are not able to distinguish real and fake Italian products.

Italian names, figures and well-known words but also stereotypes can influence a not so careful and not so well informed consumer, as German consumer is, and that generates a consumer behaviour not focused on quality and appreciation of “Made in Italy”, rather a casual buying behaviour based on the “first impression”.

Pignagnoli underlines however how this phenomenon is strongly influenced by age, social status and purchasing power: people over 35 are much more interested in knowing the products they buy,

on average they have more purchasing power and they recognize an higher value at “Made in Italy” goods.

In the great majority of German supermarkets and discounts the products, foods, items evoke Italy but they have nothing to do with our country.

This phenomenon generates a turnover of 60 billion Euros. Six million Euros per hour: that’s the amount of the “Made in Italy” turnover loss – as reported by Confagricoltura in October 2015 – caused by the “Italian sounding” images, names and colours which imitate the Italian products, but actually having nothing to do with the original “Made in Italy” quality, culture and traditions.

The phenomenon is well known as much as it is widespread, but it is rather impressive to read its evaluations: only EU considered, the match between fake Italian and real Italian can be expressed in these terms: every two Italian products sold, only one is authentic.

According to Confagricoltura, the food piracy is an illicit, which plays in a grey area.

For this reason it is indispensable to launch information campaigns and promotions so that not-Italian consumers can learn how to recognize a fake.

Most importantly, the protection of the indication of geographical origin community system and definition of the standard productive process in social and environmental fields must be treated at the WTO board.

2.3.2. REAL AND FAKE ITALIAN IN GERMANY

Mozzarellas coming from Hamburg, milk coming from Poland and destined to make cheese, cheese called “*Prosecco Käse*” (see Figure 2.10.) and not coming from Veneto Region, hams coming from Germany processed in Emilia Romagna and then sold again in Germany.

Figure 2.10.: The “Prosecco Käse”



Source: Personal photo, 2016

Also Germany is “invaded” by fake Italian products or, better, by products that seem to be Italian (often the first supplies arrive from foreign countries while the workmanship is Italian and the final product is marked as Italian) and are sold as true Italian.

Two very dangerous counter-markets that are destroying quality and reputation of the true Made in Italy and a disloyal competition that is causing the closure of many Italian firms.

No chance for the consumers to defend themselves from imported products.

No chance for the true Italian producers to compete with a market altered by a disloyal foreign competition.

A situation that damages also in Germany the final consumers, the agriculturists and the breeders who try to eat and produce foods of quality, according to EU community levels on the base of precise disciplinaries.

As emerged from our analysis conducted in particular in Baden-Württemberg, a lot of products are presented with images and names that sound Italian; it is crucial to underline that they belong not only to food and drink category, but also housewares and furniture.

Some of them are sold by the numerous German supermarket chains like Aldi, Lidl.de, Netto, Kaufland and Edeka.

It is interesting to see how these chains have presented particular lines, dedicated to Italy and “theoretical” Italian products; for example Edeka offers an entire line completely influenced by Italy: “Edeka Italia”.

As we can see from the following images (2.11., 2.12., 2.13., 2.14., 2.15.), this line presents a great variety of products such as Grana Padano, Gorgonzola, pasta, sauces, oil and jam.

Figure 2.11.: Prosciutto di Parma by Edeka Italia



Source: www.edeka.de, 2016

Figure 2.12.: Grana Padano by Edeka Italia



Source: www.edeka.de, 2016

Figure 2.13.: Aceto Balsamico of Modena I.G.P. by Edeka Italia



Source: www.edeka.de, 201

Figure 2.14.: A Mixture of Italian jam by Edeka.de



Source: www.edeka.de, 2016

Figure 2.15.: Tomato souce by Edeka Italia



Source: www.edeka.de, 2016

In this particular case Edeka offers products that are “produced” in Italy: some Italian firms in fact produce for third parties. Balocco or De Cecco for example sell their products to these supermarket chains, which put their own brand and lines names.

Also when we buy “Grana Padano” of Edeka Italia line we can be sure that it is not a fake and it comes from the Consortium Grana Padano as well.

But sometimes we find also food products and housewares that have nothing to do with “Made in Italy” or “100% produced in Italy” products.

For example the line “Mondo Italiano” sold by the German supermarket chain Netto presents the German consumer items and food that seem to come from Italy: all the possible stereotypes can be found in the packaging; people driving Vespa motorbike, Tuscany landscapes (see Figure 2.16.), Colosseo, Venice and Italian flag appear everywhere.

But if you turn the package you will not find any indication of origin nor the name of the Italian producer.

The same thing appears with products of Lidl.de or Aldi chain: Italian flag or the sentences like “Original Italian product”, “Produced as Italians do”, “Typical product made following the original Italian recipe” are always present but they are not a guarantee of integrity.

Figure 2.16.: Pizza Primavera by Netto



Source: Personal photo, 2016

For example here is proposed a series of figures which give an idea of what German consumer can discover (and buy): Ravioli Bolognese (Figure 2.17.) or improbable “Prosciutto Italiano” (2.18) whose origin is totally unknown.

Figure 2.17.: Ravioli Bolognese by Netto



Source: Personal photo, 2016

Figure 2.18.: Italian jam by Lidl.de



Source: Personal photo, 2016

We could, also, find some examples of pasta, sold also with sauce in the packaging (Figure 2.19) or improbable “Salami with Parmigiano Reggiano” (Figure 2.20.)

The typical images of family, home and conviviality that clearly distinguish our country from others in the world, create the suggestion of a typical Italian product and confused the German consumer, not so aware, conscious and informed of what he/she buys.

For this reason the company take the opportunity to put on the market deceptive Italian products, which mislead the majority of German consumers.

Figure 2.19.: Spaghetti alla Napoli by Penny



Source: www.penny.de, 2016

Figure 2.20.: “Feine Salami” by Aldi



Source: Personal photo, 2016

In order to entice the consumer, the supermarket chains and retailers emphasize these foods and items as an example of “Dolce Vita” directly brought in our kitchen.

“So make the Italians” says the marketing made by Edeka or Aldi, in order to publicize these products; the stereotypes linked to Italy emerged also in product storytelling: the romantic views of Venice, the white beaches of Capri or the wonderful glimpse of Colosseo are used as a backdrop to express the lifestyle of Italians.

In German consumer’s mind, in fact, people coming from our country are life-lovers and appreciate the good and pleasure-loving food.

Italians love living with family and friends, so if a German buys these products wants to re-create the magical atmosphere of Italian life.

“Take the carefreeness of Italians on your table!” or “Cook like Mum does” shoots the description of some Aldi’s or Penny’s products (not “Made in Italy” at all), in order to tempt the consumer.

But it is also important to know that this phenomenon does not affect only the food and foodstuff, but it can also be observed in the sector of housewares and household products.

In general the connection with food is originated by the fact, that Italy is well-known in all over the world, and especially in Germany, for its food and the high attention given to quality of what we eat and how we live.

It is understandable that some German brands utilize this idea, to create a certain “Italian flavour” on their products, in order to catch attention and sales.

This is, for example, the case of the German brand “Leonardo”, a company originating from the North of Germany, which has a wonderful success also in Baden-Württemberg.

The firm sells products that are designed and produced in Germany, using names or marketing campaigns that can be misleading for the final consumer.

The motto of the brand is, for example, “*Glasliebe.Per sempre.*” (Glasslover. Forever), using the phrase “Per Sempre” both because it is Italian and well-known, too.

The housewares (coffee cups, cutleries, moka pots, glasses and other household articles) are most presented with Italian names: bowls called “Cucina” (Figure 2.21.), coffee cups named “Senso Italiano” (Figure 2.22.), a coffee maker “Caffé” (Figure 2.23.), a teapot warmer “Scaldino” (Figure 2.24.), are few examples of the great variety of Leonardo’s products that sound Italian (and German people interviewed think so).

Figure 2.21.: Bowl “Cucina” by Leonardo



Source: www.leonardo.de, 2016

Figure 2.22.: coffee cup “Senso Italiano” by Leonardo



Source: www.leonardo.de, 2016

Figure 2.23.: Coffee maker “Caffè” by Leonardo



Source: Personal photo, 2016

Figure 2.24: Teapot warmer “Scaldino” by Leonardo



Source: Personal photo, 2016

Another brand, Kela, completely Made in Germany sells housewares products using Italian names like the Moka “Italia” (Figure 2.25.), the breadbox “Frisco” (Figure 2.26.) or the teapot “Ancona” (Figure 2.27.).

Figure 2.25: Moka “Italia” by Kela



Source: www.kela.de, 2016

Figure 2.26: Breadbox “Frisco” by Kela



Source: Personal photo, 2016

We have also been tricked ourselves seeing these products, because the design and names remind us Italy and Italian brand such as Alessi or Bialetti.

Figure 2.27.: Teapot “Ancona” by Kela



Source: www.kela.de, 2016

2.4. CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter we have seen the crucial role of business relationship between Italy, especially Northern Italy and Germany; in particular we have analysed the strict relationship existing between the *Bundesland* Baden-Württemberg and our country.

Even if the political relationships between our country and Germany are not so strict, the Germans are not able to give up Italian products (food, furniture, housewares, glass and porcelain).

Two-thirds of the entire Italian export to Germany is related to industrial production, mechanics, electrotechnology, chemistry, automobiles and consumer goods and the commercial exchange between these two European countries will be greater than 100 billion Euros in the future.

The German firms recognize the quality and the value of Italian products especially in technical field; they appreciate the manufacture in our products, the design and the creativity that characterizes our know-how (in particular if we consider fashion and furniture sector).

In a positive economic situation also the Italian design would be bought by a large scale of German consumer, not only by the elite.

Nowadays “Made in Italy” brand is used as a lever to attract customer and make them spending on it.

Every zone of the German cities, every corner in the streets has an Italian restaurant, an ice-cream shop, an Italian coffee shop.

The German market associates “Made in Italy” with design, history, and life-style; but it is also very difficult to penetrate in it, because the German customer is very exacting, intransigent, profoundly careful of price and quality price ratio, he/she always pretends to be satisfied by his/her purchasing.

In most cases German consumer does not head for “Made in Italy” voluntary, he/she meets “Made in Italy” especially if it is accompanied by an accurate and incisive storytelling.

He/she needs that the product/brand makes itself known and not that he/she goes in search of it.

The reality is that Germany is going to be “Italianized” and it is a tendency that overpasses the bad phenomenon of Italian Sounding.

Anyway both countries and customers have not already known each other.

CHAPTER 3.

APPLIED ANALYSIS AND SURVEY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

We have seen how the German market is strongly influenced by the misleading idea connected to “Made in Italy”.

Do they know “Made in Italy”? Are the Germans able to discriminate real and fake Italian products? What does influence their consumer behaviour?

In order to answer these questions, we have created a questionnaire composed of twenty-six questions, with the aim of testing the answers of German consumers and understanding more about this phenomenon.

Before submitting it to the German consumer, we have explored the general perceptions, asking a small group of ten persons their general opinions about “Made in Italy” and Italian culture.

3.1.1. PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS

The German consumer, especially in Baden-Württemberg, is strongly connected with Italy and Italian products.

The region, as we have already seen in chapter two, has excellent commercial relationships with our country, in particular for food, automotive and furniture-housewares sectors.

Can this influence also the perceptions of people towards Italian products and lifestyle?

The preliminary questionnaire done to put under investigation German consumer opinions has let emerge the first preliminary perceptions.

Asking a small sample group (ten persons, between 25 and 35 years of age) what is “Made in Italy”, we have understood that people interviewed are not so informed and conscious of its meaning; the stereotypes have, also, a crucial role in determining what consumer buys and which products he/she prefers.

The first incontrovertible opinion of the Germans is that Italian products are the most fashion, valuable and expensive ones: the Italians are used to live with luxury goods, they do not care about price, if it is a “Made in Italy” product. It has come to light, that the German consumer thinks Italian lifestyle influences our perception of beauty and quality: a very “easy” life lived with “pleasure” must influence also our perception of what is good/bad.

When we ask if “Made in Italy” is appreciated or not in Germany, and if the differences between “Made in Italy” and “Made in Germany” can be strong, a lot of people say that the Germans are not conscious of what they buy, why a real Italian product is more expensive than fake one; they are

perfectly conscious of their inability in distinguishing the quality, the artisanal manufacture and the design behind the products they buy.

The general idea is that real Italian products belong only to the food or fashion sector, without considering automotive, furniture and design sectors: unfortunately the small sample categorizes “Made in Italy” as a label only for food (pizza, pasta, oil, vinegar and wine) and clothes (luxury Italian brands are very famous in Germany and well appreciated).

With great surprise no one of the respondents considers the furniture sector or house-hold accessories as great examples of Italian skill and design capabilities.

Only two persons emphasize that “Made in Italy” is connected with high quality and good workmanship, high performance and attention to details, considering so “Made in Italy” as the expression of design and high-quality production and manufacture. Surprisingly a respondent has said that “Made in Italy” means “Made with love”, and this definition is probably the best identification of what this brand means.

However it is significant, that the majority of people interviewed ignore the power of “Made in Italy” itself.

Some have also underlined the concept of regionalism, which means traditions and typicality arising from Italian regional history and culture.

A minority has said that Italian products are unsatisfactory, especially if we consider technical characteristics and features: from their answers it emerges that goods produced in Italy are cheap, because of their bad quality and simple structure. Some respondents have bought Italian furniture and they have not appreciated it, because of the unreliability of sofas and chairs and the unsatisfactory price/quality ratio.

Another important problem emerged is the theme of “association” in particular for food: German consumer associates an image, a brand, a word used in the packaging that sounds Italian as a guarantee of “Made in Italy”; familiar pictures traditionally associated with Italy (like Colosseo, Venice, the landscape of Tuscany or a typical Italian family) influence negatively the perception of German respondent.

All of these assumptions were considered in the construction of questions for the final survey.

3.2. THE SURVEY

The survey is articulated in four parts: the first, *Introduction*, was made to clarify the aim of the survey and the estimated response time.

The second part is the *Presentation*, in which we made an initial selection of the sample: the selection is based on the age and the provenience of people interviewed.

The aim is analysing only people between 20 and 50 years of age, who are living in Germany for more than ten years or are born there.

The third part constitutes the core of the survey and wants to put the *Consumer Behaviour* to the test. This part, the most significant, investigates first of all what people know about “Made in Italy” and then tests the detection capacity of respondents concerning real and not real Italian products.

The fourth and final part of the survey, *Demographics*, prefigures to understand more deeply the characteristics of the individual subject: its gender, what is its relationship with Italy, its employment.

The survey was made in two versions, one in English and the other version in German language. We have used the German version with the sample group, in order to facilitate the comprehension and to avoid any type of misunderstanding which could influence the results in a wrong way. Indeed the English version is coherent with the sense of this project work and it is available in the Appendix of this thesis.

The collection of the answers was made with interviews face to face and also per e-mail and it has taken three weeks.

The survey was created with Qualtrics⁷, an online survey software generally used by organizations as an useful tool to capture, analyse and work on insights.

Then the results were interpreted both with Qualtrics and the statistical software R⁸, a software environment for statistical computing and graphics.

3.2.1. DEMOGRAPHICS

The survey was submitted to 169 people in total, but the sample group that has been interviewed, the “population” of our survey, consist only of 125 people.

The reason is that the survey is created to analyse a particular group of people: they must be in the range of age between 20 and 50 years old, because we have assumed that this champion could be

⁷ **Qualtrics** is a software that enables users to do many kinds of online data collection and analysis including market research, customer satisfaction and loyalty, product and concept testing, employee evaluations and website feedback.

⁸ **R** is a language and environment for statistical computing and graphics; it provides a wide variety of statistical (linear and nonlinear modeling, classical statistical tests, time-series analysis, classification, clustering...) and graphical techniques.

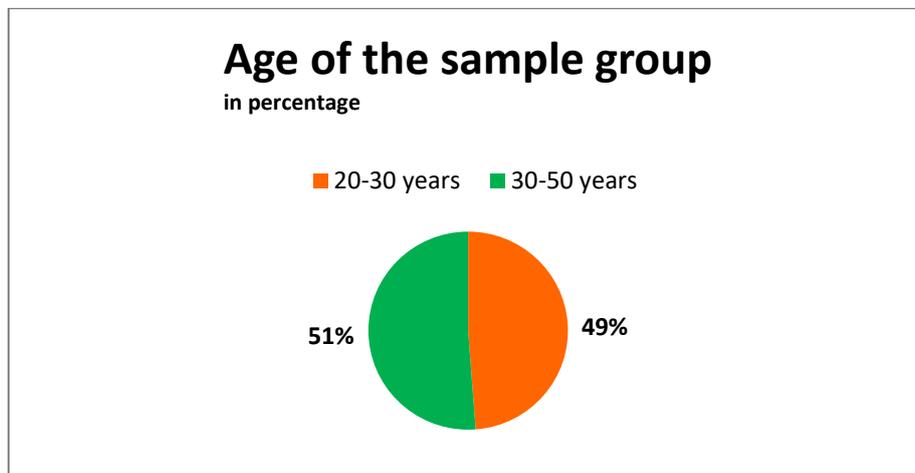
the most significant to analyse “Made in Italy” attractiveness in Germany and also it is in a large part the target to which “Made in Italy” addresses.

The second most important limitation we have imposed is that the sample must come from Germany, be born there even if the parents come from other countries or the respondents must live in Germany for more than ten years.

Why? Because we wanted to have the purest sample as possible, a group of people without any kind of Italian influence in their background.

Applying all of these assumptions the sample group is composed as follows (see Figure 3.1.):

Figure 3.1.: The age of the sample group analysed

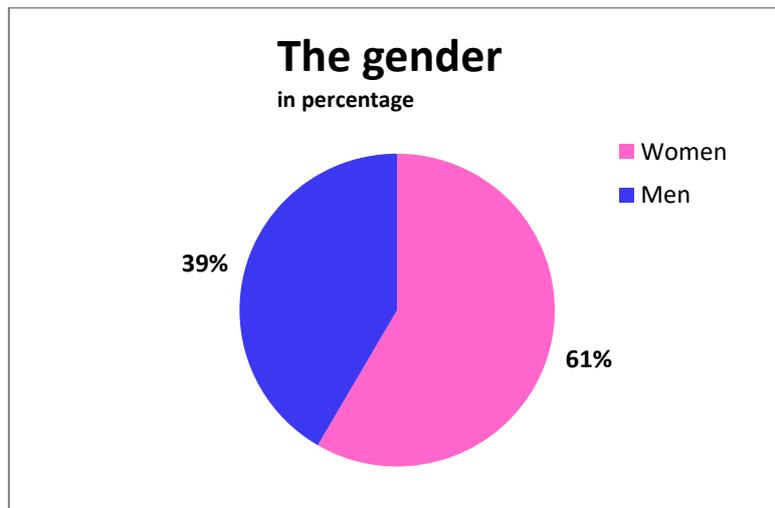


Source: Personal analysis, 2016

61 persons belong to the range of 20-30 years of age (49%), and then those who remain belong to the range of 30-50 years of age (51%).

The majority of respondents are women (61%), while men represent the 39% of people interviewed (see Figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2.: The gender of the sample group analysed

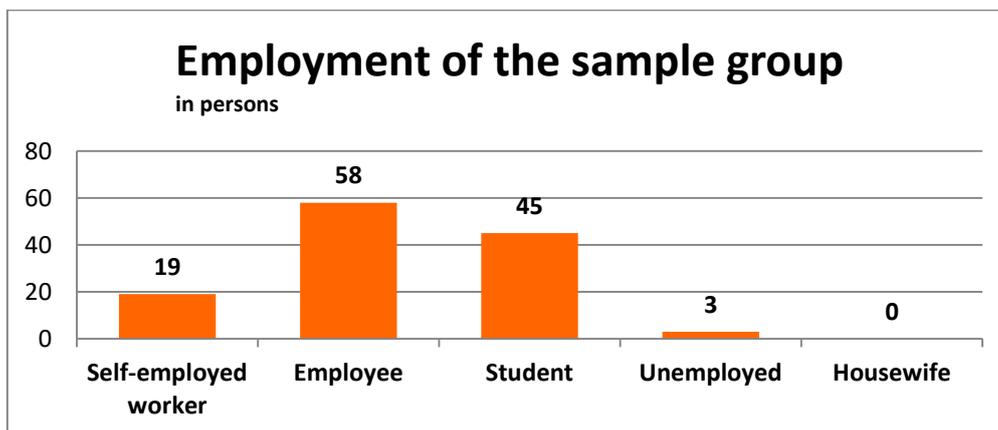


Source: Personal analysis, 2016

The sample group is made up of different people, in terms of age and gender. And what about their occupation?

The great majority of people interviewed are employees, students and self-employed worker, as we can see from Figure 3.3. .

Figure 3.3.: Employment of the sample group analysed



Source: Personal analysis, 2016

This questionnaire was not only a series of punctuated questions, but had also the aim to understand, to know, the people we have had in front of.

For this reason we have asked them the relationship, their familiarity with Italy. What is the connection between the respondents and our country?

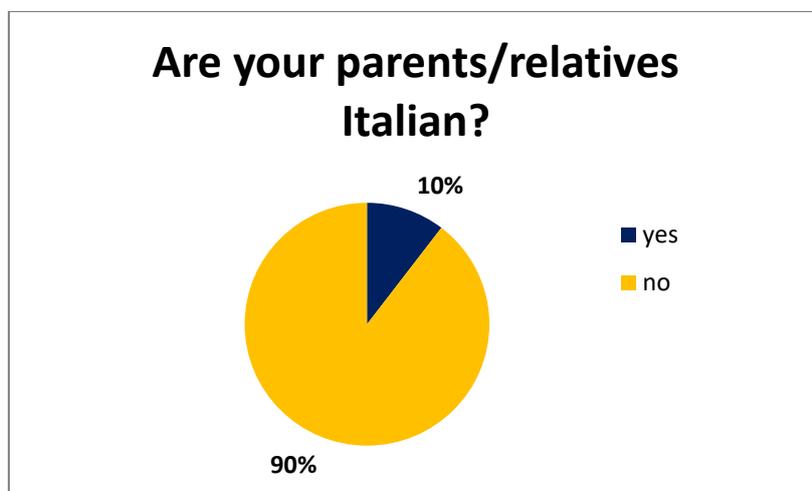
These answers are also important to provide a basis for the analysis of the third part of the survey, *Consumer Behaviour*.

In fact if the respondents have had a strong relationship with our country, this could positively influence their answers and so their detection ability.

Now we know that a great number of respondents (90%) have no familiar bonds in Italy: their parents or relatives do not come from our country (see Figure 3.4.).

Only a small group of people interviewed (10%) declare their family connection with Italy.

Figure 3.4.: Italian influences in the sample group



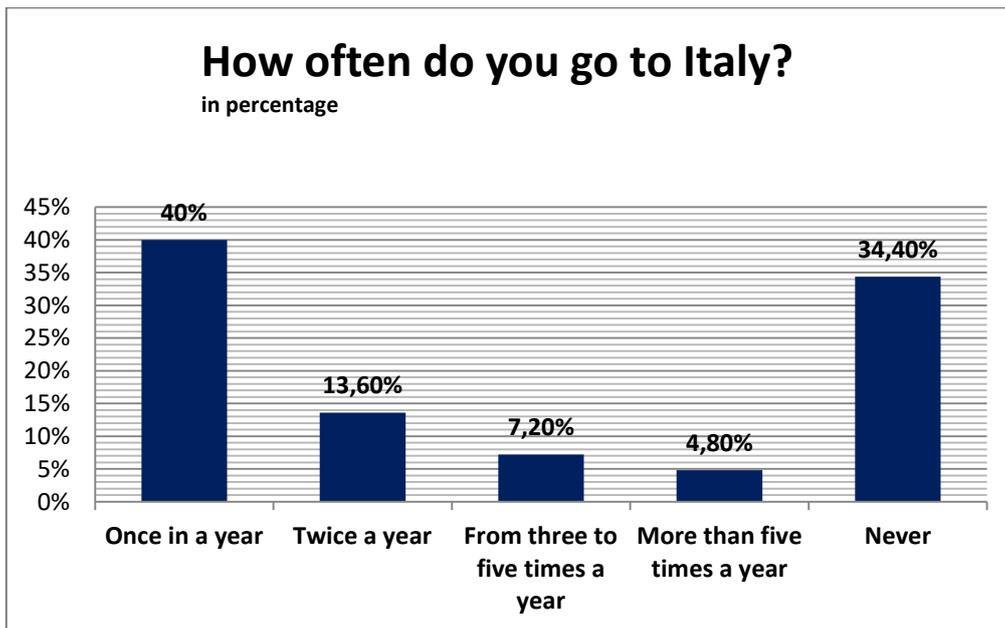
Source: Personal analysis, 2016

Even if the sample group present no particular bonds and they also do not know the Italian language (just a small percentage has declared to be able to speak easily in Italian), we have asked them how they know Italy.

For example, have they already visited Italy?

The results are expressed in the following Figure 3.5. .

Figure 3.5.: Travelling tendency in the sample group

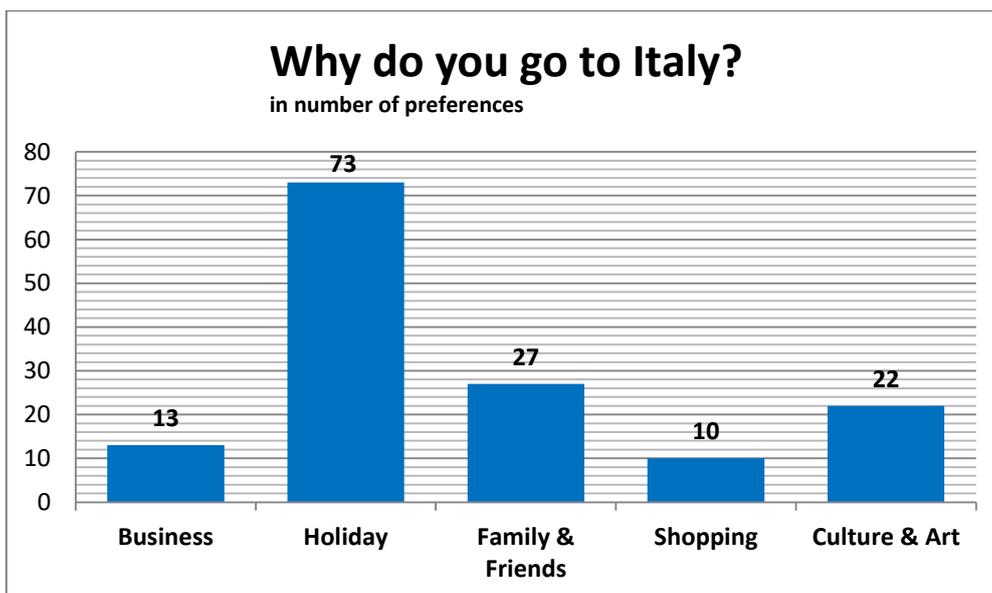


Source: Personal analysis, 2016

The figure highlights a visible split between the answer “I go to Italy once a year” and the answer “Never”; the minority of people interviewed answer “more than once a year”; why do they go to Italy?

The reasons are easily recognisable in the following graph (Figure 3.6.).

Figure 3.6.: Travelling tendency in the sample group



Source: Personal analysis, 2016

Each respondent can express maximum three alternatives: as we can see immediately the first reason why people visit our country is without any doubt for holiday; that reflects also the stereotype of the Germans as regular visitors of Italy and great lovers of our culture and lifestyle. But they also come to Italy to meet friends or relatives and to appreciate our artistic beauties.

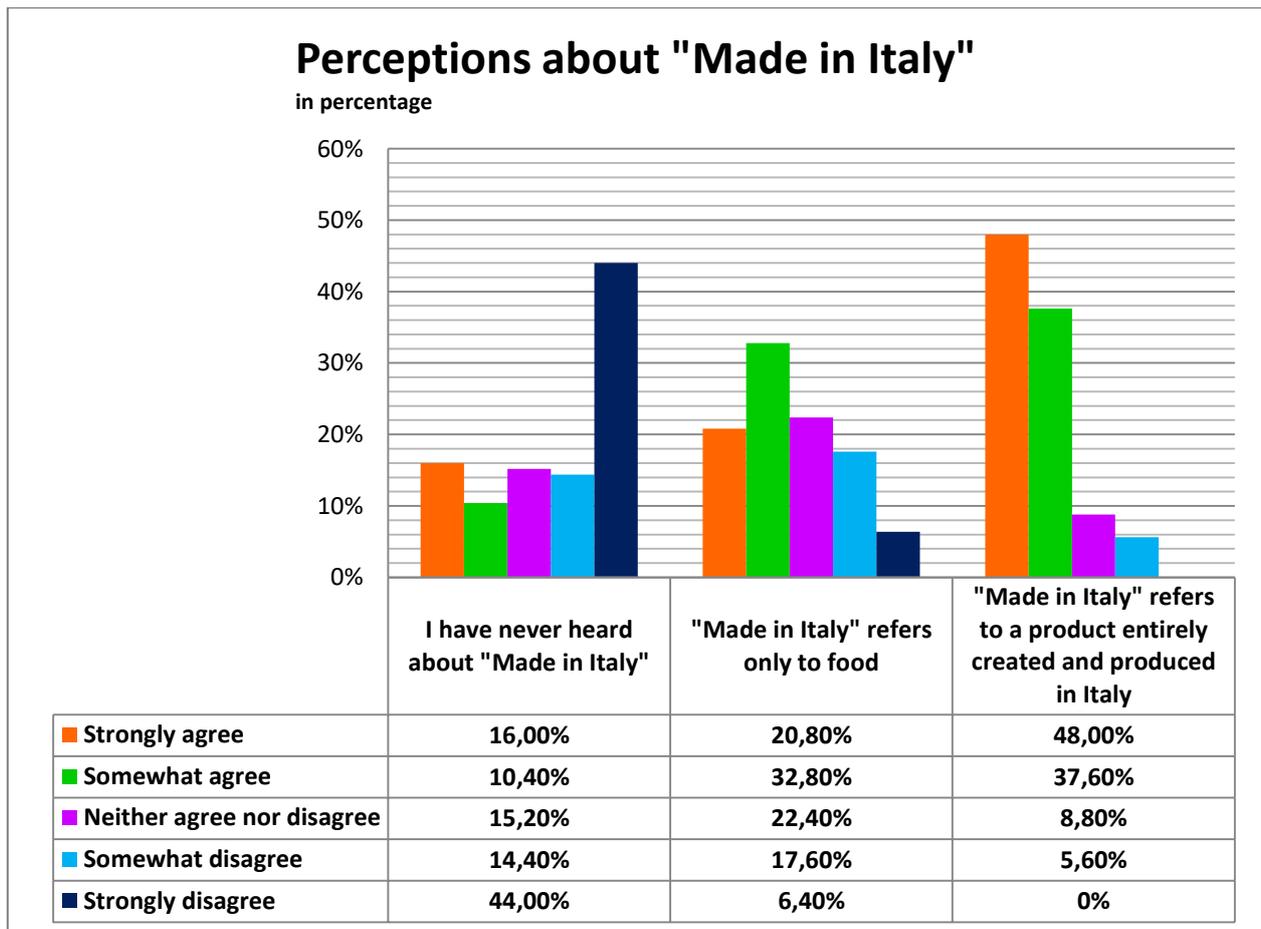
3.2.2. PERCEPTIONS ABOUT “MADE IN ITALY”

After having investigated the “population” that has taken part of the survey, having understood how they know Italy and what kind of connections have with the country; we want to focus on what are their opinions, certainties and misconceptions about “Made in Italy” and real Italian products.

The situation that emerges is a clear portrait of a German perception about “Made in Italy” and its weight in the German market.

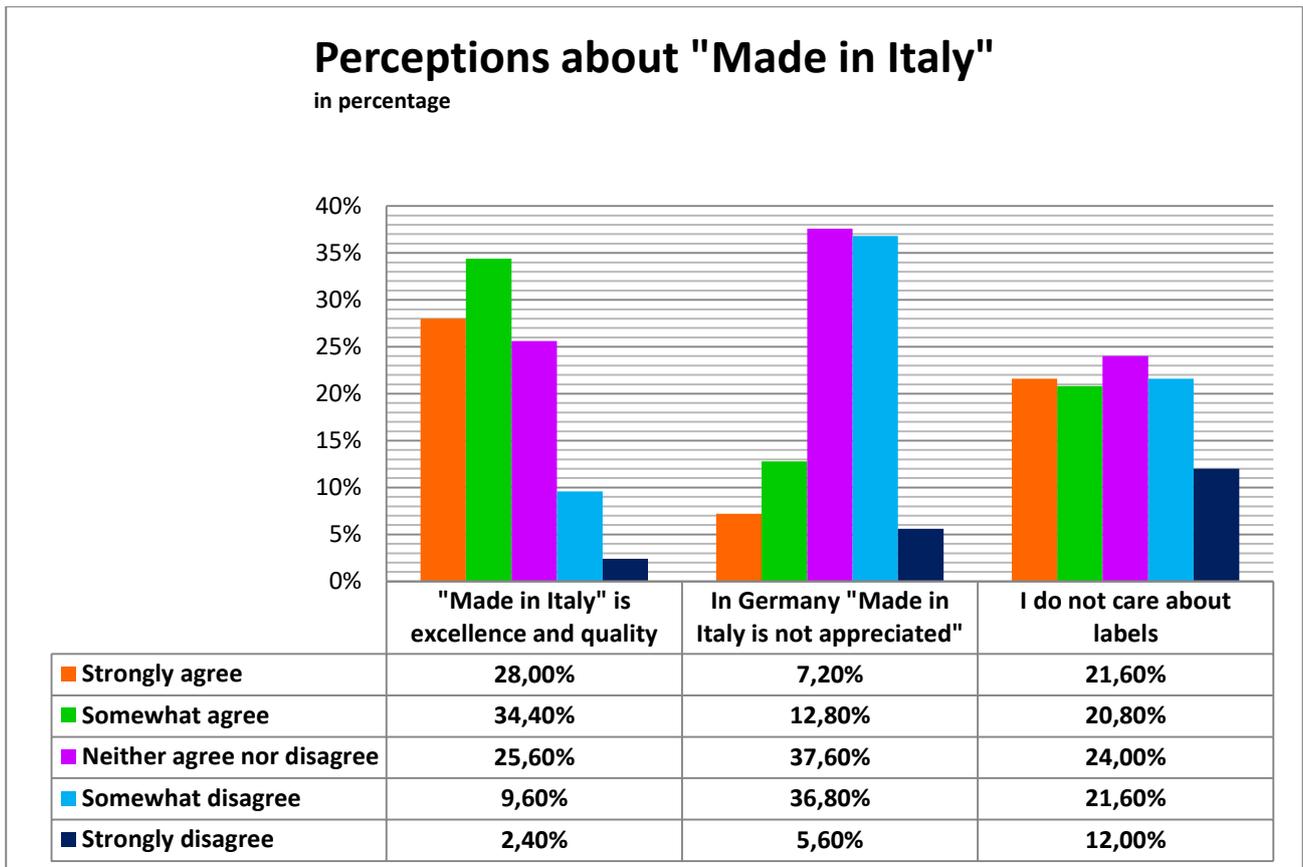
We have synthesized the results in the following figures 3.6.1., 3.6.2., 3.6.3., 3.6.4. .

Figure 3.6.1.: Perceptions about “Made in Italy”



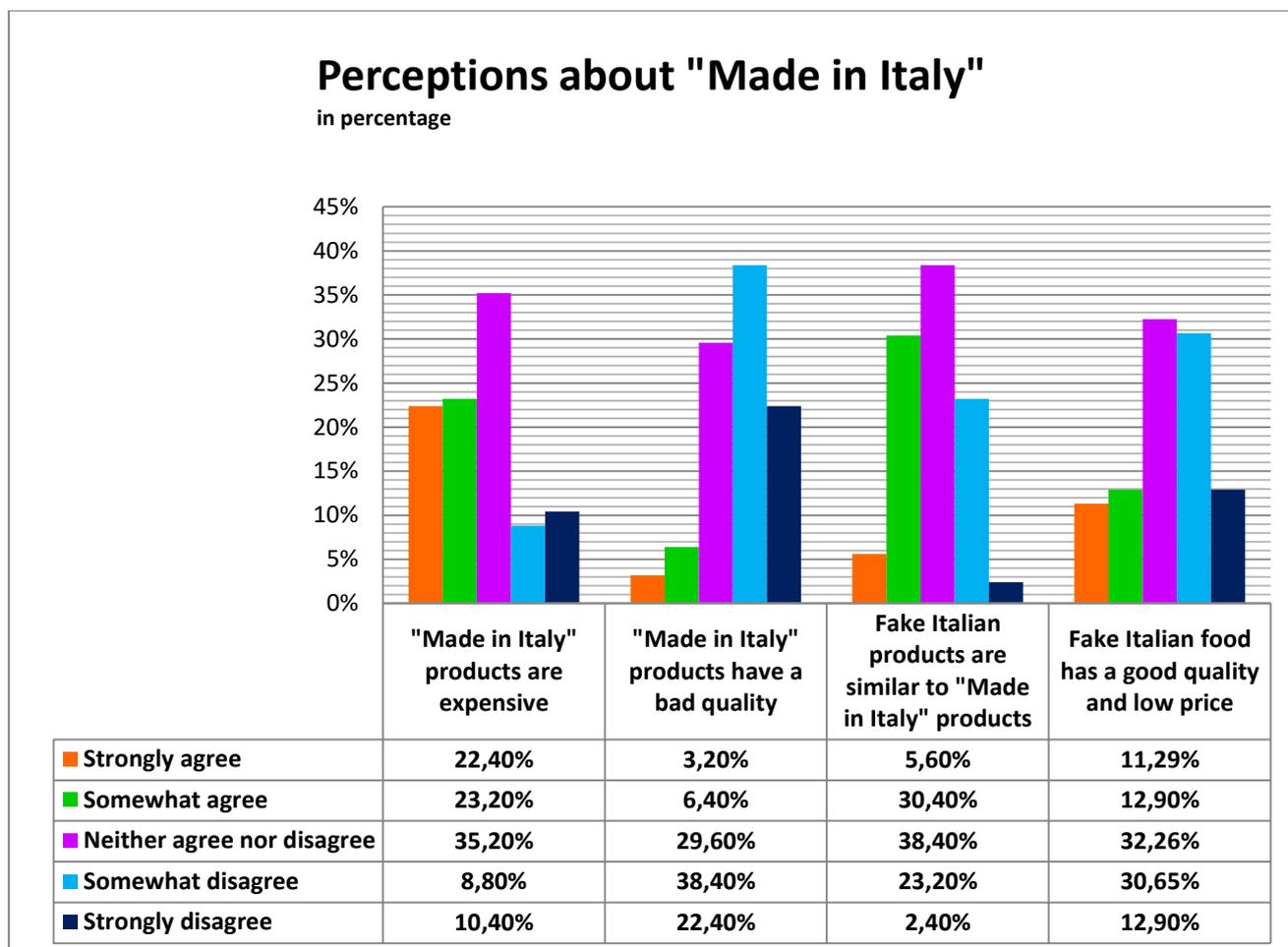
Source: Personal analysis, 2016

Figure 3.6.2.: Perceptions about “Made in Italy”



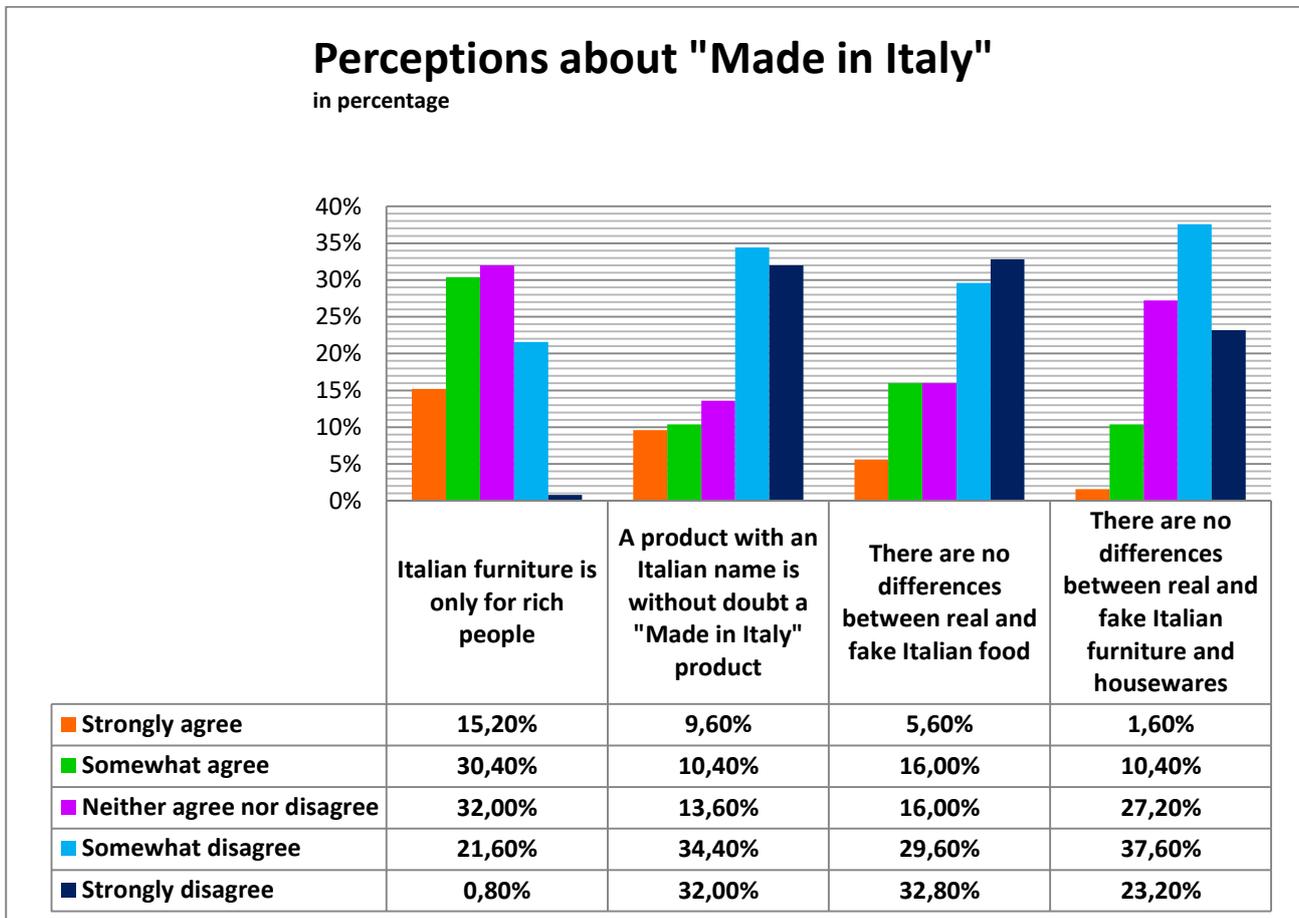
Source: Personal analysis, 2016

Figure 3.6.3.: Perceptions about “Made in Italy”



Source: Personal analysis, 2016

Figure 3.6.4.: Perceptions about “Made in Italy”



Source: Personal analysis, 2016

What these graphs tell us?

In general what emerges in this survey is a situation of contradictions and misconceptions.

In theory the German consumer declares to know “Made in Italy”. But the answers deny this assertion.

The respondents affirm to know the correct meaning of “Made in Italy” and also they seem to be perfectly conscious that an Italian name over a packaging does not mean automatically that the product is a real, authentic Italian product.

By contrast, they do not know the phenomenon of “Italian Sounding” and also they do not consider the great role it has in the commercial relationship between the two countries.

The sample group expresses, also, how German consumer loves and appreciates the products originated from our country: it is not true that the Germans are indifferent and do not appreciate our specialities and typical products.

They are simply not well-informed and conscious of what they buy: for many, “Made in Italy” is a label only for food.

The strong assumption that clearly emerges is that real Italian products (especially furniture) are perceived as expensive, luxury and “only for rich people”.

As said also in the preliminary analysis (par. 3.1.1.) the German consumer recognizes (and appreciate) the implicit quality he/she finds in a “Made in Italy” product.

The sample group perceive a certain difference between real and fake Italian goods: the respondents are aware of the non-similarities between them, but from the answers we deduce that in German consumers’ mind the gap is more accentuated and confusion prevailed when they refer to furniture and house hold items.

In general there are some contradictions that pay an important role in their detection capacity.

Considering food, the general feedback is very positive: a good appreciation of “Made in Italy” emerges but it is in contrast with the great number of people that believe, fake Italian food is quite similar to the real one, less expensive and has a medium quality.

They also admit not to take care of labels: this admission reflects the tendency of German consumer not to be conscious of what he/she buys and, in consequence, he/she pays no attention to particular details such as the provenience of ingredients or materials, the craftsmanship behind a product and also the place where food/furniture are produced.

3.2.3. ANALISYS ON THE DETECTION CAPACITY

The core of the survey’s analysis focuses on the detection capacity of the sample group.

What do we mean?

We wanted to understand if the respondents are able to identify, to distinguish real Italian products from not real.

For this reason, in the third part of the questionnaire (*Consumer Behaviour*), we have presented the sample group a series of images: it was a concrete test to study their ability in seeing similarities and differences of compared pictures, in other words their detection ability.

Then the results were analysed with the help of the statistical software R.

The questions we have analysed are recapped in the following Table 3.1. .

Table 3.1.: The summary of analysed questions

QUESTION	DESCRIPTION
Q10	Detection of real Italian pasta
Q11	Detection of not real Italian ham
Q12	Detection of real Italian cheese
Q13	Detection of not real Italian oil
Q15	Detection of not real Italian house hold item
Q20	Detection of real Italian furniture
Q21	Detection of not real Italian furniture

First of all we have studied the answers per question given by all the respondents with the function “*binomial.test*” in R, to understand if the answers are given or not at random.

How can we explain this choice?

Because we know, in each question, how many are the answers given for each single alternative and we know what is the right answer.

The right one is traditionally called "success" and the others alternatives constitute “failure”.

We also know that each single question is associated with an hypothesized probability of “success” (the probability of choosing the correct answer) that corresponds to 25% for the questions (Q10, Q11, Q12, Q13, Q20) that present four alternatives, and 33% for the questions (Q15 and Q21) that present three alternatives.

The binomial test answers the question: if the probability of "success" is what we have predicted in the null hypothesis (H_0), then how likely is it to find results that deviate exactly as far, or further, from our prediction and so indicate that the answers are not given at random?

The results of this test are expressed in the following Table 3.2..

Table 3.2.: Binomial test results

QUESTION	HYPOTHESIS	SAMPLE SIZE	TRUE PROBABILITY OF SUCCESS	P-VALUE
Q10 (pasta)	H ₀ : true probability of success is equal to 25%	125	16%	0.02247
Q11 (ham)	H ₀ : true probability of success is equal to 25%	125	34%	0.02996
Q12 (cheese)	H ₀ : true probability of success is equal to 25%	125	23%	0.5372
Q13 (oil)	H ₀ : true probability of success is equal to 25%	125	11%	0.00017
Q15 (housewares)	H ₀ : true probability of success is equal to 33%	125	34%	0.7044
Q20 (furniture 1)	H ₀ : true probability of success is equal to 25%	125	26%	0.4694
Q21 (furniture 2)	H ₀ : true probability of success is equal to 33%	125	27%	0.1554

In the second column of the Table we find the null hypothesis (H₀), that is the object of our test: H₀ refers to the concept that the respondents answer random: the choice of choosing the right alternative is simply the result of chance.

How can we accept (or not) the null hypothesis?

Only the so called “p-value” can say if we have to accept or not H₀: the p-value in fact quantifies how significant the results are in terms of rejection of the null hypothesis.

High value of p-value (>0.1) tell us that there is a total randomness in the choice so the tendency to fail or to have success does not change if the test will be made more times.

Low values of p-value (<0.1) correspond to the opposite conclusions: there is a significant evidence that the choice of the right answer is not the result of chance; in this way we have to reject the null hypothesis: it is very unlikely that the respondents answer random.

Values of p-value greater than 0.1 are recognizable with Q15 (house hold items), Q12 (cheese) and Q20 and Q21 (furniture).

P-value smaller than 0.1 emerges with question about pasta (Q10), ham (Q11) and oil (Q13): that means, there is a strong evidence that the answers are not given randomly.

The true probability of success, considering the number of right answers for each question provided by the sample (the sample size is 125), is represented in the fourth column of the table: we can easily see that the true probability of success is smaller than 25% for pasta (Q10) and oil (Q13),

expressing a tendency of the sample group to choose the right answer significantly less than the other wrong alternatives; while considering ham (Q11) the respondents have expressed a tendency toward the right answer that is greater than the hypothesized 25% probability of success.

Moreover we have analysed the discrimination capacity of the sample group, considering the comparison between the most significant couple of questions that concern different product categories: for example pasta/ham or pasta/house hold-items and also furniture/housewares and furniture 1/cheese.

The dates were analysed with the function “*T-test*” in R and summarized in the Table 3.3. as follows.

In this case we have used *Student’s t-test* to test the null hypothesis (H_0), asking the question: “Is the difference between the means of two samples different (significant) enough to say that there are differences in the answers provided by the sample group for question A or question B?”.

Table 3.3.: Discrimination analysis between different product categories

QUESTION A	QUESTION B	HYPOTHESIS	SAMPLE SIZE	MEAN A	MEAN B	P-VALUE
Q10 (pasta)	Q11 (ham)	H_0 : True difference in means = 0	125	3.064	2.488	0.0000458
Q10 (pasta)	Q20 (furniture 1)	H_0 : True difference in means = 0	125	3.064	2.520	0.000348
Q20 (furniture 1)	Q13 (oil)	H_0 : True difference in means = 0	125	2.520	2.120	0.002718
Q20 (furniture 1)	Q11 (ham)	H_0 : True difference in means = 0	125	2.520	2.488	0.8184
Q20 (furniture 1)	Q12 (cheese)	H_0 : True difference in means = 0	125	2.520	2.696	0.2157
Q20 (furniture 2)	Q15 (housewares)	H_0 : True difference in means = 0	125	2.112	2.168	0.5795

Low values of p-value (<0.1) underline that there is a significant difference between means, in other words the sample group answer in a different way for the compared questions, converging (or not) in mean towards the right answer.

For example, considering the comparison between pasta (Q10) and ham (Q11), we notice that there is a marked difference between mean A and mean B, emphasized by a very low p-value (strongly

less than 0.1): in fact the sample group tends to answer, in mean, better in the question regarding ham than question regarding pasta.

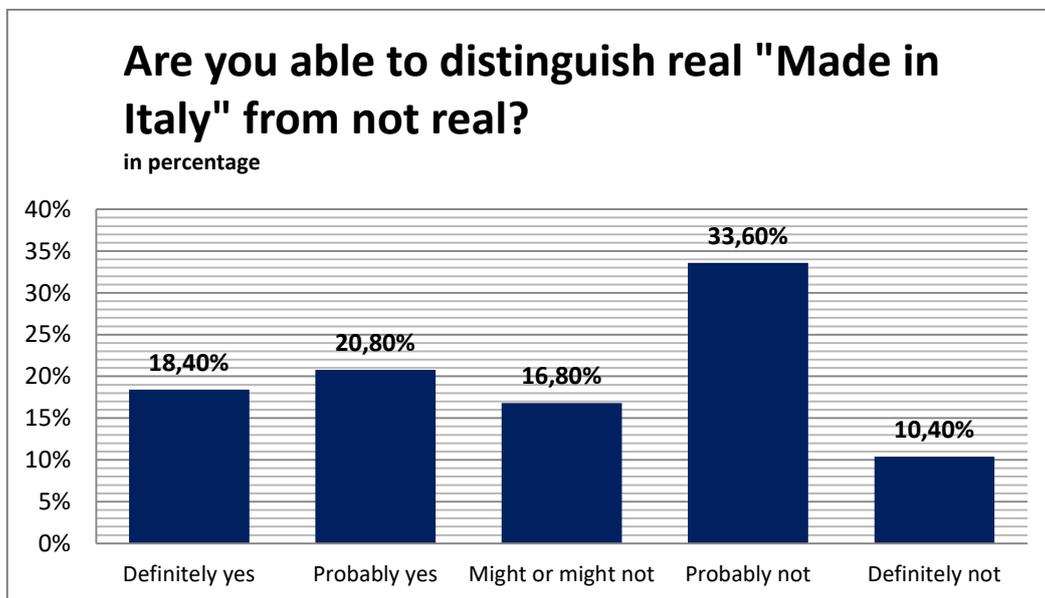
There are no substantial differences between the comparison furniture 1/ham (Q20/Q11), furniture 1/cheese (Q20/Q12) and furniture 2/housewares (Q21/Q15), indeed.

These are the inferences based on the real performance of the entire sample group, without any type of differentiation inside the sample group.

What could we infer, after introducing precise distinctions in the sample group?

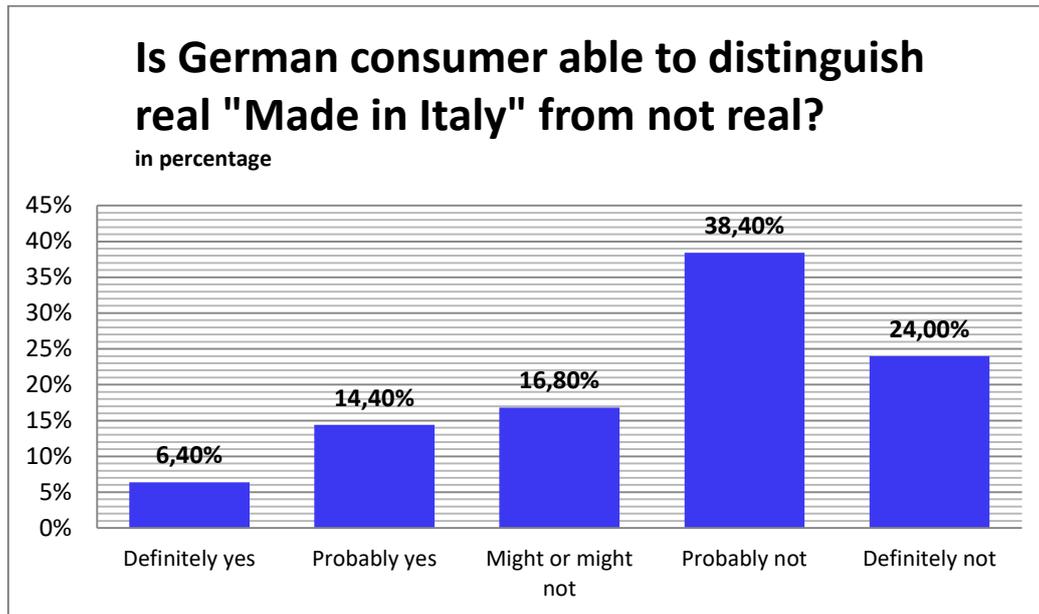
Our 125 respondents have brought out an important fact: each respondent thinks that he/she is able to distinguish better than the German consumer in general (consider Figure 3.7. and Figure 3.8.).

Figure 3.7.: Opinion about personal detection capacity



Source: Personal analysis, 2016

Figure 3.8.: Opinion about general detection capacity



Source: Personal analysis, 2016

The figures are very clear. The personal opinion is more positive than the general one: the majority of people interviewed think that their personal detection ability is better than the detection capacity of the German population, shown also by the evident predominance of negative answers in Figure 3.8. .

Is it really so? Does the self-assessment correspond to reality?

In order to answer this question, we have posed to test four questions: we have choose pasta (Q10) and oil (Q13) only because in the *binomial.test* analysed before (see Table 3.1.), it has emerged that people do not answer at random, and then furniture 1 (Q20) and furniture 2 (Q21) for the opposite reason.

We have subdivided the sample group into two class population, "gender" and "age", and then we have studied the mentioned questions from the point of view of both classes.

Each class is formed by two samples: "men" and "women" belong to "gender" and then "young" (the respondents between 20-30 years of age) and "adults" (the respondents between 30-50 years of age) belong to the class population "age".

The aim is to see if it could emerge some significant differences in detection capacity caused by the discriminations we have made.

Applying "*T.test*" in R, we have thereby obtained the comparison of means between these samples; as seen before, the null hypothesis (H_0) considers that the difference between the means of two samples is equal; the p-value represents the measure of evidence against H_0 .

The analysis starts with question about pasta (Q10), whose results are presented in the following Table 3.4. .

Table 4.4.: Discrimination analysis on pasta (Q10)

ALTERNATIVE	MEN	WOMEN	YOUNG	ADULTS
1	14	9	5	18
2	5	9	7	7
3	6 (12%)	14 (18%)	10 (16%)	10 (15%)
4	24	44	39	29
Total responses	49	76	61	64
Null Hypothesis (H₀)	True difference in means = 0		True difference in means = 0	
P-value	0.0598		0.0057	

Note: Light blue line identifies the correct answer

The detection capacity seems to be not so good for both classes; the comparison of means between “men” and “women” such as “young” and “adults” provides a portrait of overconfidence and total inability in identifying the right answer (identified by the light blue).

Low values of p-value (<0.1), like these, underline that there is a substantial difference in mean between “men” and “women” or “young” and “adults” answers.

Both samples of each class make mistakes but there are differences inside the same class.

For example women are better in discerning than men, who are not so able to understand which package of pasta comes from Italy; concerning the correct answer young and adults tend to answer in the same way, but the young respondents express the strong tendency to answer the wrong alternative 4, indeed.

Does the situation change if we consider Q13 about fake Italian oil (see Table 3.5)?

Table 5.5.: Discrimination analysis on oil (Q13)

ALTERNATIVE	MEN	WOMEN	YOUNG	ADULTS
1	14	13	8	19
2	21	49	41	29
3	6 (12%)	8 (10%)	8 (13%)	6 (9%)
4	8	6	4	10
Total responses	49	76	61	64
Null Hypothesis (H₀)	True difference in means = 0		True difference in means = 0	
P-value	0.6789		0.8894	

Note: Light blue line identifies the correct answer

The image of a bottle of oil (Q13), with clear allusion to Italy, makes the respondents converge to the same (wrong) answer; this is confirmed also by a p-value widely bigger than 0.1: so if we consider the answers given by the sample group, both from the point of view of age or gender, we see a convergence in mean to the same wrong opinion: the bottle of oil is “Made in Italy” (alternative 1 and 2).

It is remarkable that the majority of people, both “men” and “women” and also “young” and “adults” concentrate their preferences on the wrong answer “yes, it is Italian” (alternative 1) and “probably it is not Italian, but I would like to buy it” (alternative 2): it is so only the presence of an Italian flag and the image of two-people sitting on a Vespa, that makes an oil real Italian?

This fact is interesting, because when we tell the respondents that this oil is not Italian (see Q14 in the Appendix), we have appreciated an opposite tendency.

There is a discrepancy between class populations: “men” and “women” are no more interested in buying it; the “adults” have expressed their total dislike of the not real Italian oil; indeed young people would buy it even if they know it is not real Italian.

From the survey is also emerged that German consumer appreciates much more German furniture than Italian one.

But is he/she able to see the differences? What tell us the answers to the questions 20 and 21?

The results are provided in the following Table 3.6. and Table 3.7. .

Table 6.6.: Discrimination analysis on furniture 1 (Q20)

ALTERNATIVE	MEN	WOMEN	YOUNG	ADULTS
1	20	17	14	23
2	10	11	13	8
3	10	22	18	14
4	9 (18%)	26 (34%)	16 (26%)	19 (30%)
Total responses	49	76	61	64
Null Hypothesis (H₀)	True difference in means = 0		True difference in means = 0	
P-value	0.5216		0.0065	

Note: Light blue line identifies the correct answer

Table 7.7.: Discrimination analysis on furniture 2 (Q21)

ALTERNATIVE	MEN	WOMEN	YOUNG	ADULTS
1	14 (29%)	20 (26%)	16 (26%)	18 (28%)
2	18	25	23	20
3	17	31	22	26
Total responses	49	76	61	64
Null Hypothesis (H₀)	True difference in means = 0		True difference in means = 0	
P-value	0.8452		0.5735	

Note: Light blue line identifies the correct answer

The discrimination capacity regarding furniture confirms the expectations: as emerged also with *binomial.test*, we do not see a predominance of answers for a particular alternative.

The tendency in mean, confirmed also by the p-value greater than 0.1, is almost equal between the compared sample of the two classes.

Only for “young” and “adults” there is a difference regarding the discerning process of “Made in Italy” furniture (Q20).

Considering “man” and “women” , no one of the two samples expresses a peculiar ability in discerning real and not real Italian furniture: their process of choice is almost similar in mean (confirmed by p-value greater than 0.1).

The “adults”, even if they make mistakes, they meet our expectations: they are more able to discern than the “young” people.

However in Q20, they have surprisingly seen the Italian characteristics in both figures that paradoxically refer both to German furniture: in fact we can see that a lot of adult people answered the alternative 1.

Probably because they see in the pictures the characteristics of stereotyped “Italian furniture”: luxurious but uncomfortable, fashion but not simple and easy to adapt in German houses. The situation is reversed for Q21, where they have associated to German furniture an image that refers to a sofa produced by one of the most important Italian furniture firms.

3.3. CONCLUSIONS

The third chapter has analysed the answers derived from the survey, we have made to understand the opinions about “Made in Italy” and to test the detection capacity of the sample group.

It does not want to be a generalization for the entire German population, rather an example of applied analysis to pose under investigation the discrimination capacity of a group that live in Germany and has no or less connection with Italy.

In any case the results that we have obtained are interesting.

We have understood that German consumer appreciates Italy and “Made in Italy”, even if his/her awareness is not so profound and not developed in depth.

This is demonstrated by the fact the German consumer thinks that real Italian products concern only food, or that a real Italian product is fashion, valuable, luxurious but not comfortable and reliable.

They declare to appreciate Italian food, but, as we have seen in the survey, they make huge mistakes in distinguishing the misleading elements in products they buy.

False Italian references and mentions, capturing packaging, sounds-like names, misleading pictures full of clichés about the Italians fool the perception of a consumer not well accustomed to discern real and not real Italian goods.

The most important fact emerged from the survey is the total randomness expressed in answers regarding furniture, house hold-items and cheese: that means, the sample group answer alternative 1, alternative 2, alternative 3 or alternative 4 without a clear tendency.

The result is that the respondents have shot at random, because prevalent answers (which could be wrong or right) have not emerged.

That is not surprising, especially regarding the answers about furniture and house-hold items: the respondents have already expressed their declared no interest and no awareness of the well-known Italian craftsmanship; they simply have applied to all images, their personal perception about an “Italian sofa” or an “Italian housewares”.

The questions about pasta, oil and ham have underlined more consciousness in the answers provided: they have not answered randomly, rather they have choose particular alternatives.

However that not means, the respondents are able to distinguish perfectly real Italian from not real considering these product categories: surprisingly they made huge mistakes with pasta and oil, products that they consider familiar. They are good in the detection capacity of ham, indeed.

This consideration has also underlined that familiarity is not equal to detection capacity: this implies a solid background, a personal initiative in understanding how a product differs from another one and so what are the characteristics that make it a good produced in Italy, a “Made in Italy” product.

The detection capacity implies consequently a strong convergence towards the right answer: fact that is rarely emerged in this survey.

CHAPTER 4.

CONCLUSIONS

4.1. CONCLUSIONS

This thesis has dealt with the analysis of how German consumer discriminates different products associated with the image of “Made in Italy”.

Our analysis started from theories that explain the process adopted by human mind, to categorize each stimulus (in this case, each product) that appears in front of the eyes.

Then we have seen what kind of Italian product, real and not real, can be found by German consumer: the research material was obtained on field, with a particular focus on pasta, cheese, oil, house hold items and furniture.

We have analysed these categories, because from a preliminary research it has emerged that these are the most appreciated, and consequently most imitated, Italian export products in Germany.

The survey we have made and then analysed in chapter three was born from the implications of theories and real cases we have seen during this project work.

We have examined in depth the meaning of categorization, in order to understand how human mind creates logical connections between concepts.

All of the objects that the consumer can find in the world are constituted by a combination of different attributes, which are perceived in a different way from one person to another.

This perception is strongly influenced by the pre-existent category system in the society where a group live. And it is also influenced by consumption values such as utility, social circumstances, emotional values, the weight of contingences.

The perceptual mechanisms are also decisive in the process of detection and categorization: each external stimulus is modulated through intermediate forms like prototypes, stereotypes, mental figures and preconceptions.

For this reason when the respondents have answered questions dealing with discrimination of product categories, and in particular regarding the distinction between real and not real Italian products, they have unconsciously adopted mental categories, derived from influences of the surrounding environment.

And this fact explains also the overconfidence we have observed in the participants’ answers to the survey.

Their confidence in their judgments was reliably greater than the objective accuracy of their effective judgments. In this way overconfidence means also a general “miscalibration” of self-assessment.

The respondents, as we have seen in the third chapter of the thesis, have overestimated their ability in judging what are the real elements that mark an Italian product from a fake one; probably this unwarranted certainty towards the accuracy of their believes is derived from the categorization imposed by German society, that has idealised Italy as a country of well-living, no hard work but only amusement and culinary delights.

For this reason it is impressive how they make mistakes in detection between products they have expressed to know: pasta, oil and cheese mislead their eyes, strongly influenced by a culture that does not give importance to the detailed information connected to a product.

We have seen on field that the German consumer does not ask the provenience of food, especially if the packaging presents connections to Italy; we have also seen that the Germans do not ask spontaneously for “Made in Italy” product when they are buying, because in their mentality the product itself must capture their attention and their curiosity.

After testing their ability in discerning products, after having misled their perceptions trough uncertain images of Italian products and furniture, we can say that this sample group analysed has provided an interesting focus on German consumer behaviour.

This study has evoked all the stereotyped ideas, already existent and prominent in German consumer’s mind, those are the benchmark to evaluate things coming from Italy.

“Made in Italy” goods are not recognizable by the false, full of stereotypes, images and brand that characterize the products brought to market by not-Italian firms and producers.

The German consumer should start to have interest in the origin of his/her buying choices; he/she should overcome the sense of “familiarity” when they see a product, because familiar goods are always seen but never deeply known.

What can be made to avoid misconceptions and to make the German consumer aware of what he/she buys?

The Italians must work on the worldwide known capacity that an Italian product is also able to evocate the Italian flavour, the history and culture of our country: this aspect is strongly understood by the producer of not real Italian, that evocate “Made in Italy” with false and misleading images based on old and commonly known stereotypes (like Colosseo, Venice, Vespa, Spaghetti and Mandolino).

In that sense “Made in Italy” will be more appreciated (and known) in Germany if the products will catch immediately the attention of the German consumer, provoking his/her spontaneous interest and his/her curiosity. For this reason it is not possible that too often real Italian products are close to not real products in large-scale retail trade.

Italian producers and firms should overcome the great barrier, represented both by misleading images connected to Italy and the German non-habit in reading the labels.

We have seen, during the permanence in Germany, that the labelling has no great weight during buying choices of German consumers: unfortunately they are not used to turn the package and pay attention to the provenience of ingredients, of the producer and of the indication of origin (in truth these information are usually not present in the packaging).

The unique way to avoid these misconceptions is working on how the product is sold: the packaging has an important role in buying decisions as well as marketing and advertising.

For this reason Italian producers and firms that want to sell their real Italian products have to incentivize labels that are clearer and more visible on the top of the packaging, avoiding figures (like Colosseo, Venice, Vespa, Spaghetti) that are used by fake products. It is more incisive a sentence like “100% Made in Italy” or “I am made in Italy” over the product than some messy pictures put on the package without sense.

As further proof of this fact we have denoted that the ham marked as “DOP” was appreciated in the survey by a vast number of respondents as real “Made in Italy”: that is an example how German consumer can be made more aware with simple expedients such as symbols, marks and tags recognizable as proven indication of “Made in Italy”.

The collaboration both of Italian producers and German market is also very important: it could be useful that the variety shops, warehouses and department stores collaborate with Italian producers and invest in the promotion of “Made in Italy” with corner inside the shops (both for furniture and food), launching initiatives to give visibility to these products; for example there could be a week per month entirely dedicated to “Made in Italy” in their showcases.

This could be interesting to attract the desire of wealthy consumer and then the attention of middle consumer, getting him/her familiar with “Made in Italy” and provoking so his/her future buying choices.

The Italian firms and producers, especially the SMEs that produce furniture and household items, should invest in marketing campaigns and in advertising in Germany: nowadays we cannot deny the powerful role of Internet, which is the reason why online trade is a favoured mean to add value to “Made in Italy”.

To obtain this result the producers should utilize an ad-hoc logo, easy to be identified, to show their artisanal ability and their production process.

Online as well as live it is really important to focus on storytelling: the Italian producers have to emphasize the characteristics, the peculiarities, what makes that product unique, bringing out its traditional or innovative character, according as it belongs to food or design sector.

The importance of the investments in marketing, is underlined by the fact that the majority of people interviewed identify “Made in Italy” not as a brand, rather as every product or service produced in Italy or by Italian firms.

In the attitude towards real Italian products what is crucial is the value inside the product: it must be effective both in packaging, in promotion and in communication to reveal to final consumer the added value inside it.

APPENDIX

1) THE SURVEY

REAL AND FAKE ITALIAN PRODUCTS_GERMAN BUYING CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

INTRODUCTION

Q1) Welcome! This is a quick survey for an academic project, that explores German consumer perception about real and fake Italian products. Italy and Germany are strongly connected together, economically and culturally, but can this influence German consumers' choices in buying Italian food and housewares? Or not? The duration is about 8 minutes. It would be very helpful, if you could kindly spend these few minutes in filling it. Thank you for your cooperation.

PRESENTATION

Q2) How old are you?

- < 20 (1)
- 20-30 (2)
- 30-50 (3)
- > 50 (4)

If < 20 Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey If > 50 Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

Q3) Are you German?

- yes (1)
- no, but I live in Germany for more than ten years (4)
- no, but I live in Germany since birth (3)
- no (2)

If no Is Selected, Then Skip To End of Survey

CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

Q4) What is "Made in Italy" for you? Read the sentences and express your opinion: do you agree or disagree?

	Strongly agree (1)	Somewhat agree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
I have never heard about "Made in Italy" (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
"Made in Italy" refers only to food (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
"Made in Italy" refers to a product entirely created and produced in Italy (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
"Made in Italy" is excellence and quality (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In Germany "Made in Italy" is not appreciated (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not care about "Made in Italy" labels (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q5) What does it mean "Italian Sounding", in your opinion?

- When a product does not come from Italy (1)
- When a product seems to be a "Made in Italy" product but it is not (2)
- When a product name has a great sound (3)
- When a product reminds me Italy (4)
- I have never heard about it (5)

Q6) In your opinion, are you able to distinguish a real Italian product ("Made in Italy" product), from a fake one?

- Definitely yes (1)
- Probably yes (2)
- Might or might not (3)
- Probably not (4)
- Definitely not (5)

Q7) In your opinion, is German consumer able to distinguish a real Italian product from a fake?

- Definitely yes (1)
- Probably yes (2)
- Might or might not (3)
- Probably not (4)
- Definitely not (5)

Q8) Italy is very famous for its lifestyle, quality of products (especially in furniture and housewares) and foods. "Made in Italy" is become a guarantee of excellence, good ingredients and materials, design. Do you give importance to "Made in Italy" labels, when you buy these products? Please give a value from 0 (not important) to 5 (very much important).

- _____ Oil (1)
- _____ Cheese (2)
- _____ Pasta (3)
- _____ Ham (4)
- _____ Furniture (5)
- _____ Housewares (glasses, dishes, coffee machines, pots) (6)

Q9) Read the sentences below and express your opinion. Do you agree or disagree?

	Strongly agree (1)	Somewhat agree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Somewhat disagree (4)	Strongly disagree (5)
"Made in Italy" products are expensive (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
"Made in Italy" products have a bad quality (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fake Italian products are similar to "Made in Italy" products (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Fake Italian food has a good quality and low price (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Italian furniture is only for rich people (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
A product with an Italian name is without doubt a "Made in Italy" product (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There are no differences between real and fake Italian food (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There are no differences between real and fake Italian furniture and housewares (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q10) In your opinion, are they both real "Made in Italy" pasta?



- yes (1)
- only figure 1 (2)
- only figure 2 (3)
- no (4)

Q11) In your opinion, are they fake Italian ham?



- yes (1)
- only figure 1 (2)
- only figure 2 (3)
- No (4)

Q12) In your opinion, do figure 1 and figure 2 represent cheese produced in Italy?



- yes (1)
- only figure 1 (2)
- only figure 2 (3)
- No (4)

Q13) Would you buy this Italian oil?



- yes (1)
- maybe, I am not sure is Italian (2)
- no, because it is not real Italian oil (3)
- no (4)

Q14) Would you buy the same oil, even if we tell you it is not a real Italian oil but it costs only 2,50 €?

- Definitely yes (1)
- Probably yes (2)
- Probably not (3)
- Definitely not (4)

Q15) In your opinion, is it a "Made in Italy" product or it has only an Italian name but it is produced in Germany?



- yes, it is Italian (1)
- the brand sounds Italian, but it is produced in Germany (2)
- no, it is not a Made in Italy product (3)

Q16) If you have food product A and food product B (same characteristics, same quality and same price): - product A has Italian name and its packaging reminds you Italy- product B has German name and its packaging reminds you German culture What would you buy?

- Product A (1)
- Product B (2)

Q17) If you have a piece of furniture A and a piece of furniture B (same quality and same price): - product A is Italian and has a wonderful design- product B is German and it is very functional in you home What would you buy?

- Product A (1)
- Product B (2)

Q18) Have you ever bought an Italian piece of furniture?

- Yes (1)
- Maybe (2)
- No (3)

Q19) If you think about an Italian sofa, it would be: (max 5 answers)

- expensive (1)
- cheap (2)
- functional (3)
- fashion (4)
- basic (5)
- luxury (6)
- light (7)
- colourful (8)
- comfortable (9)
- accessorized (10)
- strong (11)
- poor-quality (12)
- uncomfortable (13)
- reliable (14)

Q20) See these photos: in your opinion, are they both Italian furniture examples?



- yes (1)
- only figure 1 (2)
- only figure 2 (3)
- no (4)

Q21) See these photos: in your opinion, which one is a German furniture example?



- figure 1 (1)
- figure 2 (2)
- both figure 1 and figure 2 (3)

DEMOGRAPHICS

Q22) What is your gender?

- Male (1)
- Female (2)

Q23) On average, how many times do you go to Italy in a year?

- Once a year (1)
- Twice a year (2)
- From three to five times a year (3)
- More than five times a year (4)
- Never (5)

Q24) Normally, what is the reason of your journey in Italy? (max. three answers)

- Business (1)
- Holidays (2)
- Relatives and friends (3)
- Shopping (4)
- Culture and Art (5)

Q25) You are:

- Self-employed worker (1)
- Employee (2)
- Student (3)
- Unemployed (4)
- Housewife (5)

Q26) Which languages do you speak, from these?

- Italian (1)
- English (2)
- None (3)

Q27) Are your parents or relatives Italian?

- yes (1)
- No (2)

END) The survey is now ended! Thank you for your collaboration!

2) INTERVIEW WITH ISABELLA PIGNAGNOLI, PROJECT MANAGER AT ITALIENISCHE HANDELSKAMMER MÜNCHEN-STUTTGART

1) Da quanti anni lavora presso Italienische Handelskammer München- Stuttgart?

Da 16 anni.

2) Il Suo lavoro l'ha portata a lavorare con enti e istituzioni tedesche. Come definirebbe i rapporti commerciali tra Italia e Germania riferiti a questo Bundesland?

Anche in questo Bundesland negli anni della crisi (2009-2012) si è riscontrata una leggera flessione nei rapporti commerciali tra Germania e Italia.

In generale questa relazione si può definire estremamente positiva, soprattutto per i settori del comparto meccanico, tecnico, manifatturiero e chimico.

3) Negli ultimi anni come si sono evoluti questi rapporti commerciali, secondo Lei?

I rapporti commerciali sono sempre stati buoni; tuttavia deve essere sottolineato come l'Italia sia percepita poco come potenza economica, quanto piuttosto come una serie di piccole e medie imprese (soprattutto dell'area Nord-Italia) che si interfacciano con questa regione in maniera abituale. L'Italia è percepita come un "cane fedele", pur comparando ai sempre primi posti nelle stime di import/export sia per la regione che per la Germania.

4) Quali sono le aree di business dell'economia italiana che attivano il maggior numero di richieste da parte del cliente tedesco?

Sicuramente l'ambito food riscuote un ampio successo in Germania, come anche l'ambito tecnico che rappresenta la nostra forza qui in Germania. La capacità di saper fare, la nostra maestria e il nostro know-how millenario.

5) Cosa richiede il buyer tedesco che vuole fare business con l'Italia?

Il cliente tedesco è un cliente molto esigente, preciso e puntiglioso. Sicuramente vuole essere informato, soprattutto richiede che il prodotto gli venga presentato in maniera adeguata e chiara.

Mal sopporta l'inaffidabilità, i tempi lunghi di risposta e un servizio di custode care poco affidabile.

Il cliente tedesco richiede spesso un agente/distributore che sappia gestire i rapporti commerciali aziendali con l'Italia in maniera efficiente e trasparente.

6) Secondo Lei, il concetto di "Made in Italy" è ben chiaro nella mente del consumatore tedesco?

Il concetto di "Made in Italy" si è sentito in Germania, tuttavia non reputo il consumatore/cliente tedesco in grado di distinguere in maniera cosciente un prodotto "Made in Italy" da uno che sembra tale ma non lo è.

Sicuramente non c'è ancora una coscienza del "Made in Italy" in terra tedesca, anche se negli ultimi anni il consumatore sembra essere più recettivo.

7) Il cliente/azienda tedesca cosa apprezza di più in un prodotto "Made in Italy"?

L'artigianato italiano è molto apprezzato, come anche il food e il fashion italiano. Conoscono meno la qualità dei nostri mobili. I tedeschi tendono ad apprezzare (e a comprare) di più il "Made in Italy" se si trovano nel nostro Paese. Diversamente se si trovano in Germania vanno in cerca raramente del prodotto vero italiano.

Apprezza molto il design, la qualità e lo stile.

8) Quali sono, invece, le caratteristiche del prodotto italiano che il cliente tedesco solitamente non apprezza?

Sicuramente non apprezza la scarsa affidabilità in fase post-vendita.

9) Quanto può influire, secondo Lei, il fenomeno dell'*Italian Sounding* nei rapporti commerciali tra Italia e Germania?

Credo che questo fenomeno non sia ancora totalmente chiaro in Germania. Dal punto di vista legale, che non è di mia competenza, la tutela del “Made in Italy” viene portata avanti dai legali associati alla Camera e promossa dall’associazione “Italian Spounding e.V.”

10) Come identificherebbe il cliente tedesco, se dovesse descriverlo?

Il cliente tedesco è esigente, molto più del cliente italiano; è molto attento al prezzo e al costo del servizio che riceverà. Vuole avere numerose garanzie e la certezza che ciò che compra è affidabile e sicuro.

11) Il cliente tedesco è esigente nei confronti della qualità del prodotto italiano? O è più attento al prezzo?

Il cliente tedesco si aspetta che un prodotto italiano sia di alta qualità. Non mette nemmeno in dubbio il contrario; sa che gli italiani “sanno fare bene le cose”, sono dotati di un know-how vastissimo e ritiene di poterlo riscontrare nella merce che compra.

Effettivamente tutto quello che suona italiano riscuote un appeal maggiore nella mente del consumatore tedesco e viene di conseguenza percepito in maniera estremamente positiva da esso.

12) Quali sono le forze e debolezze del “Made in Italy” se confrontate con il “Made in Germany”?

Purtroppo i punti di debolezza sono superiori ai punti di forza: i prodotti italiani sono poco spinti a livello di marketing e comunicazione, il consumatore tedesco non sa perché non li conosce.

L’after sales, necessario per vendere al meglio il “Made in Italy”, è carente.

Non sono intransigenti con il partner commerciale tedesco. L’analisi di mercato è solitamente poco sviluppata rispetto a quanto fanno i tedeschi.

Dall’altro lato i tedeschi sono estremamente intransigenti e poco customizzati nell’offerta di prodotto.

13) Secondo Lei, cosa dovrebbe fare l’Italia per valorizzare al meglio il suo “Made in Italy”?

A mio avviso dovremmo applicare il modus operandi delle aziende tedesche: tutto parte da un’accurata gestione del marchio e del marketing legato al prodotto, cosa che le piccole e medie imprese italiane non sono ancora in grado di compiere.

Come fanno i tedeschi che riescono a vedere fin dall’inizio le potenzialità del prodotto, così anche noi italiani dovremmo essere più sistematici e analitici a monte per poter poi vendere un prodotto “Made in Italy” riconosciuto e apprezzato.

Per valorizzare il “Made in Italy” bisogna potenziare molto la parte legata all’after sales, nonché porsi come obiettivo primo la customer satisfaction e monitorare costantemente i feedback da parte del cliente.

Ritengo, inoltre, che per valorizzare al meglio il nostro “Made in Italy” sia necessario lavorare molto di più sulla formazione scolastica e universitaria: il sistema scolastico italiano, pur garantendo un’ottima preparazione teorica, sviluppa poco le competenze pratiche e non permette l’applicazione sul campo della teoria appresa tra i banchi di scuola.

È necessario imparare a fare marketing a scuola, investire soldi nella ricerca e dare anche alle università l’opportunità di collaborare con le piccole e medie aziende, per favorire uno scambio continuo di idee nuove.

14) Quali sono gli stereotipi ancora presenti nella mente del buyer tedesco, nei confronti del prodotto italiano e dell’Italia?

Il buyer tedesco riconosce la qualità del nostro prodotto, tuttavia è convinto che l’alta qualità non viene compensata da una corretta gestione del prodotto sia in fase di vendita che in fase after-sales.

I tedeschi sono fermamente convinti che le caratteristiche tecniche dei loro prodotti non sono raggiungibili da un normale prodotto “Made in Italy”.

REFERENCES

Aaker, D.A. and Keller, K.L., 1990. Consumer Evaluations of Brand Extensions. *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (1), 27-41.

Ahk-Italien. *Italia rafforzata dalla crisi, livelli record per gli scambi con la Germania* (Internet).

Comunicato stampa, 14 March 2016, available at:

http://www.ahk-italien.it/fileadmin/ahk_italien/NEWS/CS_incontro_stampa_AHK_Italien_14.03.2016.pdf

Ahk-Italien. *Region Norditalien* (Internet), available at:

http://www.ahk-italien.it/fileadmin/ahk_italien/Dokumente/Publikationen/GTAI/Region_Norditalien.pdf

Alberti, F., 2015. *The concept of industrial district: main contributions*. International Network for SMEs (Internet) available at:

http://www.insme.org/files/922_distretti

Anderson, J. R., 1990. *The adaptive character of thought*. Hillsdale, N J: Erlbaum.

Baden-Württemberg, *Business Location* (Internet), available at:

<http://www.baden-wuerttemberg.de/en/our-state/business-location/>

Bagozzi, R.P., 2006. Explaining Consumer Behavior and Consumer Action: From Fragmentation to Unity. *Seoul Journal of Business*, 12 (2).

Barret, J., Lye, A., and Venkateswarlu, P., 1999. Consumer Perceptions of Brand Extensions: Generalising Aaker & Keller's Model. *Journal of Empirical Generalisations in Marketing Science*, 4 (1).

Barsalou, L. W., 1982. Context-independent and context-dependent information in concepts. *Memory & Cognition*, 10, 82–93.

Barsalou, L.W., 1983. Memory & Cognition. *Memory & Cognition*, 11(3), 211-227.

Bauer, M., 2016. *Made in Germany – Ursprungsbezeichnung und Qualitätsbegriff*. IHK Region Stuttgart, available at:

https://www.stuttgart.ihk24.de/FuerUnternehmen/international/import_export/Warenursprung/Made_in_Germany_2/675252

Becattini, G., 2007. *Il Calabrone Italia. Ricerche e ragionamenti sulla peculiarità economica italiana*. Bologna: Il Mulino.

Bronzini, M., 2007. Sviluppi giurisprudenziali e normativi in materia di Made in Italy e delle altre indicazioni di origine. *Notiziario dell'Ordine dei Consulenti in Proprietà Industriale*. Article number: 1, March 2007. Available at:
http://www.bugnion.it/marchi_det.php?id=261

Cavestri, L., 2016. Strong ties bind Italy and Germany, total imports and exports climbed to pre-crisis level at € 107 bn. *Il Sole 24 Ore*, 15 March 2016, available at:
<http://www.italy24.ilsole24ore.com/art/business-and-economy/2016-03-14/commercio-italia-germania-180106.php?uuid=ACDHLynC>

Confagricoltura. *Expo: Confagricoltura firma il Manifesto per il Made in Italy*. 6 October 2015. Available at:
http://www.confagricoltura.it/ita/press-room_anno-2015-1/ottobre-1/expo-confagricoltura-firma-il-manifesto-per-il-made-in-italy.php

Consiglio Nazionale Anticontraffazione. Piano Nazionale Anticontraffazione (Internet), available at:
<http://www.cnac.gov.it/index.php/piano-nazionale-anticontraffazione>

Decreto del Parlamento Italiano del 25 Settembre 2009, n. 135 (Internet), available at:
<http://www.parlamento.it/parlam/leggi/decreti/09135d.htm>

DELL, Multidimensional-Scaling (Internet), available at:
<http://documents.software.dell.com/Statistics/Textbook/Multidimensional-Scaling>

Dipartimento Politiche Europee. *Le nuove norme sul Made in Italy*. 7 April 2015. Available at:
<http://www.politicheeuropee.it/comunicazione/?c=Publicazioni>

EDEKA.de (Internet), available at:
<https://www.edeka.de/homepage.jsp>

Germany Trade & Invest, *Unsere Länderwissen zu Italien* (Internet), available at:
<http://www.gtai.de/GTAI/Navigation/DE/Trade/Weltkarte/Europa/italien.html>

Kela.de (Internet), available at:

<https://www.kela.de/kela/de-de/cms/welcome>

Lazarus, R. S., 1991. *Emotion and Adaptation*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Legge Finanziaria 2004, comma n. 49, available at:

<http://www.camera.it/parlam/leggi/03350l.htm>

Leonardo.de (Internet), available at:

<http://www.leonardo.de/>

Mercato Globale.it, 2015. *Export alimentare: confronto Italia-Germania* (Internet), available at:

http://www.mglobale.it/Settori/Agroalimentare/Focus_Paese/Export_Alimentare_Confronto_Italia_Germania.kl

Ministerium für Wirtschaft, Arbeit und Wohnungsbau Baden-Württemberg, *Industriegiganten und Mittelständler* (Internet), available at:

<http://wm.baden-wuerttemberg.de/de/wirtschaft/wirtschaftsstandort/wirtschaftsstruktur/>

Nosofsky, R. M., 1986. Attention, similarity and the identification-categorization relationship. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, 115(1), 39–57.

Nosofsky, R. M., 1991. Stimulus bias, asymmetric similarity, and classification. *Cognitive Psychology*, 23, 94–140.

Penny.de (Internet), available at:

<http://www.penny.de/startseite/>

Rayasam, R. . What does the “Made in” label mean anymore? *The Newyorker*, 30 August 2013, available at:

<http://www.newyorker.com/business/currency/what-does-the-made-in-label-mean-anymore>

Reed, S. K., 1972. Pattern recognition and categorization. *Cognitive Psychology*, 3.

Reisberg, D., 2013. *The Oxford Handbook of Cognitive Psychology*. Oxford: Oxford Library of Psychology.

Rosch, E., 1978. Principles of Categorization. *Cognition and categorization*, 27-48.

Rosch, E., Mervis, C. B., Gray, W.D., Johnson, D.M., and Boyes-Braem, P., 1976. Basic objects in natural categories. *Cognitive Psychology*, 8, 382-439.

Rosch, E. and Mervis, C. B., 1975. Family resemblances: Studies in the internal structure of categories. *Cognitive Psychology*, 7, 573-605.

Sheth, J.N., Gross, B.L. and Newman, B., 1991. Why We Buy What We Buy: A Theory of Consumption Values. *Journal of Business Research*, 159-170.

Statistische Berichte Baden-Württemberg, *Bevölkerung und Erwerbstätigkeit*. Article number: 3124 15001, 15 April 2016. Available at:

http://www.statistik.baden-wuerttemberg.de/Service/Veroeff/Statistische_Berichte/312415001.pdf

Statistisches Landesamt Baden-Württemberg (Internet), available at:

<http://www.statistik.baden-wuerttemberg.de/>

The magazine: Business Baden-Württemberg. Where ideas work (Internet), available at:

<http://businessbw.de/>

Vesentini, I. .Italy challenges Germany in advanced machine tool technology. *Il Sole 24 Ore*, 12 May 2016, available at:

<http://www.italy24.ilsole24ore.com/art/business-and-economy/2016-05-11/robot-italy-versus-germany-134108.php?uuid=ADl9egF>

Wirtschaft in Baden- Württemberg, available at:

<http://www.wirtschaft-in-bw.de/>

I would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Massimo Warglien.

A special thanks to my tutor at Italienische Handelskammer München-Stuttgart: Isabella P. without your support and your suggestions during my six months in Stuttgart, I could not have all the important feedback and experiences necessary for my thesis.

Julia W. and Julia K. have given me a wonderful (and indispensable) help with German language.

I would thank also all of my friends, both German and Italian, that I have met during my experience in Germany: thank you for spurring me to do my personal best.

Thanks to my family for the support I have obtained, especially in the last period.

I would thank Mattia, who has suffered with me and has been so patient with his girlfriend.