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DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

GLOBAL, LOCAL AND GLOCAL BRANDS IN EMERGING MARKETS: SOURCES OF BRAND VALUE AND BRAND PURCHASE LIKELIHOOD

Miguel Angel López Lomelí

Supervisors:

Dr. Joan Llonch Andreu and Dr. Jorge Eduardo Gómez Villanueva

__In Dedication__:

"To my dear family; Gina, Montse & Bastian and Mauricio,

everything I have done in my life is for you"

"To my dear extended family: My Mother Carmelita Lomelí; my cousin

and tutor Miguel Lomelí, my cousin Luis Ernesto and The Serur De La

Torre Family."

"To Isaac Aguirre, for your courage to live, count on me."

__In Memoriam:__

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Contribution to Conferences

Presentations of research essays 1 & 2 at international peer-reviewed conferences:

Study 1 - Food Brands

> 1 - 2013 - XXV AEMARK 2013- Barcelona, Spain.
> 2 - 2013-Allied Academies–Fall Conference San Antonio-2013-U.S.A. (Distinguished Research Award).
> 3 - 2014-European Marketing Academy (EMAC) 2014-Valencia, Spain.
> 4 - 2014- 9th Global Brand Conference 2014 (GBC)-Hertfordshire, U.K.

Study 2 - Clothing Brands

> 5 - 2014 - Association for Consumer Research (ACR)-2014 -Guadalajara, Mexico.
> 6 - 2015-American Collegiate Retailing Association - ACRA/AMA 2015-Miami-U.S.A.
> 7 - 2015 -10th Global Brand Conference (GBC) 2015-Turku- Finland.

Essay 2 - Brand Categorisation:

> 8 **-** 2016 - 11th Global Brand Conference 2016 (GBC)-Bradford University, U.K.
> 9 - 2016 - American Marketing Science Annual Conference (AMS) - Lake Buena Vista, Florida, U.S.A.
> 10 - 2016 AMS World Marketing Congress - Paris, France

Awards and Grants

The research work in Chapter 2, study 1, presented at the Allied Academies - Fall Conference San Antonio-2013-U.S.A. received the "Distinguished Research Award" as the best work presented in its category.

Abstract

This doctoral dissertation aims to address three main Research Questions: RQ (1) What are the antecedents that enhance local brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets (EMs), and are there specific factors for food and clothing brands? RQ (2) How can brands present in the market be classified into Global, Local and Glocal based on consumer perceptions, and are the results of these consumer-based categorisations similar to the categorisations based on objective criteria? RQ (3) Is the relationship between previously-identified brand antecedents and brand-purchase likelihood similar for global, local and glocal brands competing in the same category, or different for each type of brand? A gap in the literature has been identified regarding these questions and this research work aims to provide insights into these relationships.

The first essay examines the antecedents of the brand purchase likelihood for local brands. The second essay examines how consumer perceptions of brand categorisation differ from the standard categorisations found in the literature, and the third essay examines how these antecedents positively influence the brand purchase likelihood of the different types of brands, and if there is a moderating role in these relationships.

The findings of these three essays suggest the following: in study 1 of essay 1, three factors positively influence local food-brand purchase likelihood and also show that, for younger consumers, an additional factor is present. In study 2 of essay 1, five factors are positively related with local clothing-brand purchase

likelihood. Essay 2 provides a categorisation of some leading brands sold in the Mexican market into global, local and glocal, based on consumer perspective. The findings suggest that there are relevant differences in the results of this categorisation of brands vs. the traditional objective approaches found in the literature. In essay 3 some antecedents are positively related with brand purchase likelihood, and, in addition, relevant to all brand categories. Our results suggest that the type of brand moderates some of these relationships.

All these surveys were conducted among Mexican consumers and data analysed with statistical tests and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

Our research work contributes to the current academic body of knowledge by highlighting the following areas:

1. By combining theories from different streams to develop and test a comprehensive model of drivers of brand purchase likelihood.

2. By developing a typology to measure four types of brands by extending Steenkamp and De Jong's theory to the branding context.

3. By hypothesising and testing the moderating role of brand type on the effects of these theoretically-grounded drivers of purchase likelihood.

All of the above takes place within an emerging-market context.

In addition, our research work contributes to the field of management by providing additional insight for brand-managers in emerging markets in the development of sustainable branding and marketing strategies, in order to help them succeed in a globally competitive environment.

Key Words: global brand, local brand, glocal brand, brand categorisation, consumer perception, brand purchase likelihood, emerging markets.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE DISSERTATION

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE DISSERTATION

1.1 Global and Local Brands in Emerging Markets

While the focus of both managers and academics in relation to the phenomenon of globalisation of markets and global brands is on understanding the successful globalisation strategies required to conquer diverse local markets at international level, in those markets certain local brands have successfully faced the entry of global brands without seeing a resultant loss of business.

Globalisation strategies and the factors that foster the success of global brands in local markets have been an important subject of research, deepening understanding of how foreign brands conquer local consumers (Schmid and Kotulla, 2011; Tan and Sousa, 2013; Slangen and Dikova, 2014; Xie et al., 2015). However, these international brands have experienced different results in diverse local markets (Zhou et al., 2010; Talay et al., 2015; Ansah, 2016).

The literature suggests that debate continues among academics on the issue of globalisation and regionalisation (Lim et al., 2006; Tseltsova and Bohnert, 2015; Ansah, 2016). Academics still discuss whether internationalisation translates into globalisation or into regionalisation Pae et al. (2002); (Ghemawat, 2003; Rugman and Verbeke, 2004; Ghemawat, 2005; Dunning et al., 2007; Banalieva and Dhanaraj, 2013; Kim and Aguilera, 2015).

The highly intense competition in international markets challenges international firms to develop marketing strategies based on the options of standardisation or adaptation. Such strategies are necessary if they are to successfully compete in the diversity of local markets into which they expand their businesses with the aim of successfully gaining a leading market share.

Evidence of this phenomenon can be seen in such successful global consumer product companies as Procter & Gamble, which in 2012 had 25 global "billion dollar brands", as they classify some of the highest-volume sellers (1B+ USD), out of 50 leading high-yield brands available worldwide (P&G, 2012; P&G, 2014; P&G, 2015).

As a result of market globalisation, emerging markets (EMs) represent an important business opportunity. They have about 85% of the world's population, they account for almost 75% of the growth in global GDP, they have a large most-productive population segment aged between 25 and 59, and 90% of the world's proven oil reserves (Fidelity, 2013).

Emerging-market consumers represent an estimated market potential that could exceed $20 trillion (USD) annually by the end of 2020, and companies doing business in emerging markets need to focus on fulfilling the needs of the fast-growing emerging middle class (Atsmon et al., 2012; Kacprzak and Dziewanowska, 2015; Roberts et al., 2015),

Additionally, in 2014 the size of the world's population surpassed seven billion, with the under-30 age group accounting for 46.5% of EM's. This accounts for 90% of

the global population aged under 30 (Euromonitor, May, 2014a). EM's represent a strategic source of growth for consumer packaged-goods (CPG) companies; for instance, by 2020 Unilever expects to receive 70% of its total sales from EM's; Procter & Gamble (P&G) intends to add one billion new customers, of which EM consumers will account for approximately 40% of market share in 2016 (Kapoor, 2015).

The participation of successful global brands in emerging local markets has seen widespread consumer acceptance as well as significant business results (such as sales volume and market share) in the diverse local markets where they are present. Given all these facts, global brands have been quick to recognise these markets as important opportunities for expansion (Kim and Heere, 2012; Burgess and Steenkamp, 2013; Roberts et al., 2015). For example, for the multinational Unilever, in 2013 EMs represented 57% of global business. However, in spite of this global brand growth, in local markets consumers can choose between their preferred global or local brands (Batra et al., 2000; Özsomer, 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016) resulting in complex and intense competition.

Emerging Markets are markets with unique characteristics that make them different from the Developed Markets (DMs) also known as High Income Countries (HICs). The literature evidences the relevant differentiation between the characteristics of DMs and EMs and states that the analysis of important marketing issues made only in DMs is an important limitation for the generalisation of the findings

(Burgess and Steenkamp, 2006; Roberts et al., 2015) and suggest that additional research needs to be conducted in emerging markets (EMs). Among the unique characteristics of EMs that differentiate them from DMs, the literature suggest that emerging markets are: (1) highly local oriented, (2) on top of the institutional government, the role of faith-based sociopolitical institutions is strong, (3) EMs have an underdeveloped infrastructure and in some cases chronic shortage of resources, (4) they also have a lot of competition from unbranded products or services (Sheth, 2011). Researchers in the financial field also suggest fundamental economic structural differences between developed and emerging markets (Berman et al., 2014; Hakim et al., 2015). The literature suggests fundamental characteristics that clearly differentiate EMs from DMs (Burgess and Steenkamp, 2006; Burgess and Steenkamp, 2013; Roberts et al., 2015). Burgess and Steenkamp (2006) classify them into three categories; Socioeconomic, Cultural and Regulative. We follow their classification incorporating the dimensions suggested by Roberts et al. (2015), which are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Comparison of institutional subsystems in Emerging and Developed markets		
Institutional subsystems	Emerging markets (EMs)	Developed markets (DMs)
Socioeconomic subsystem		
Dynamics	Rapid social, political, and economic change	Moderate social, political, and economic change
Demographics	Large and growing pool of young, under-educated people	Older, stagnant, well-educated
Diversity and fragmentation of markets	Extreme differences in consumers across markets	Smaller differences in consumers across markets
Diversity in segmentations of markets	Extreme differences in household size and income, living standards, access to	Smaller differences in household size and income, living standards, access to

Table 1: Comparison of institutional subsystems in Emerging and Developed markets		
	human development resources	human development resources
Differences in market growth	Extreme differences in market growth rate across segments. Contrast according to geographic settlements and SELs	Smaller differences in market growth rate across segments. Contrast according to geographic settlements and SELs
Market and product life cycle	Diverse stage of development of same categories and products in different markets within a region	Similar stage of development of same categories and products in different markets within a region
Competitive intensity	Diverse according to each country/market economic performance	Similar in each country/market
Marketing strategy	Diverse risks for the implementation of the marketing strategy according to each country/market economic performance and government's regulative system	Equal risk level for the implementation of the marketing strategy due to similarities in country/market economic performance and government's regulative system
Cultural subsystem		
Hierarchy vs. egalitarianism	Hierarchy emphasized	Egalitarianism emphasized
Embeddedness vs. autonomy	Embeddedness emphasized	Autonomy emphasized
Regulative subsystem		
Rule of law	Moderate abuse of public office for private gain, moderate reliance on legal rights enforceable in courts of law, investor rights lower, legal outcomes more unlikely	Low abuse of public office for private gain, high reliance on legal rights enforceable in courts of law, investor rights higher, legal outcomes more likely
Institutional evolution	Diverse stages of evolution in different institutions both public and private	Similar stages of evolution in different institutions both public and private
Stakeholder influence on corporate governance	Government, civil society, supply chain stakeholders influence high.	Government, civil society, supply chain stakeholders influence moderate
Source: Adapted from Burgess and Steenkamp (2006) and Roberts et al. (2015).		

Another key characteristic of EMs is their wide variety of important channel formats, which have structural differences. Marketing mix elements need to be especially adapted to the right commercialisation for final consumers purchasing in a wide variety of formats; this adaptation includes package size diversity, pricing, and in-store merchandising (Venkatesan et al., 2015). The literature suggests significant differences between consumers in developed economies compared with consumers in emerging markets in relation to the effect of perceived quality and perceived value on customer satisfaction. There are also differences on customer satisfaction as a determinant of customer loyalty (Morgeson III et al., 2015) as well as the rapid emergence of middle class consumers resulting from intense neoliberal economic regulative changes (Kravets and Sandikci, 2014).

Marketing theories developed in DMs may not have the same effectiveness/applicability in EMs given their differences. As a result, many of the fundamental practices in Marketing, such as market segmentation, market orientation, pricing strategies etc. may be applied differently when competing in emerging markets. Theoretically, EMs with these unique socioeconomic, cultural, and regulative characteristics represent a fertile ground for testing established marketing theories and empirical generalisations. They provide real-world contexts for verifying or developing new approaches to theory and practice (Burgess and Steenkamp, 2013; Roberts et al., 2015).

1.1.1 Mexico as Emerging Market

The literature suggests that in heeding this call, the researcher needs to select a particular emerging market as testing ground, with future research focused on generalising those insights to other markets. The value of this approach is shown by articles like Batra et al. (2000) and Steenkamp and Burgess (2002), who test theories in particular countries: India and South Africa respectively.

Emerging Markets (EMs) are mainly classified by three important organisations, the World Bank (WB), the United Nations (UN) and the World Trade Organisation (WTO) based on economic performance criteria. Of those three, the most relevant criteria for the Marketing discipline is the World Bank classification, which considers available monetary resources (Burgess and Steenkamp, 2006). Mexico meets all the criteria of an emerging market economy and is considered among the top twenty emerging economies in the world (Bloomberg, 2013).

The importance of Mexico as an Emerging Market is recognised as it forms part of the Emerging and Growth Leading Economies (EAGLEs) and is ranked fourth among the top 15 Emerging Economies (BBVA, 2016) forecasted to lead global growth for the next ten years (Wassener, 2010). Furthermore, several banks and professional services, including Goldman Sachs and PricewaterhouseCoopers Economics, predict that Mexico will become the world's fifth-largest economy by 2050 (González et al., 2015), for all these reasons, Mexico a is a good representative of the essential characteristics of emerging economies.

This research work contributes to the knowledge gap relating to emerging markets by presenting the results from 4 studies conducted in Mexico.

1.2 Problem statement

As a result of their entry into EM's, global brands have encountered strong competition from local brands in the markets into which they are expanding (Özsomer, 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Roberts et al., 2015). Despite the fact that local brands in emerging markets are facing competition from foreign/global brands expanding into their markets (Holt et al., 2004; Roberts et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2015), there are some local brands that have manage to successfully confront the entry of these new products.

The literature shows the interest of researchers in identifying the factors that enhance brand purchase likelihood, but it is mainly focused on global brands (Eckhardt, 2005; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016). Recently the focus on local brands has increased in importance, although research has concentrated on the interplay of global and local brands, with the aim of trying to explain the success of local brands and highlighting some of the factors behind the choices made by consumers, given the availability of both global and local products (Özsomer, 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Xie et al., 2015; Halkias et al., 2016).

While the literature suggests that brands are classified into two categories (global and local), Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) suggest that consumer attitudes

towards global and local products can be classified more precisely on four types: Global, Local, Glocal (consumers who prefer to buy both global and local brands) and Glalineated (consumers who avoid purchasing commercial brands). Building on consumer attitudes to brands also allows them to be classified in a more precise way into Global, Local, Glocal and Functional. Functional brands are brands that are neither seen as global or local. They have not been effective as positioning themselves as either symbolic of the global world nor are they strong icons of the local culture. These brands have to sell based on 'rational' arguments of adequate quality and good value for money (Steenkamp, 2016). Store brands and low priced brands often fall into this category (Kumar and Steenkamp, 2007). Their appeal is to low income consumers.

Since in today's global marketplace consumers are faced with a choice between global, local and glocal brands, it is important for scholars and practitioners in the marketing field to understand how consumers, when faced with three categories of brands, make a choice, and what factors drive these decisions (Özsomer, 2012; Xie et al., 2015; van der Lans et al., 2016).

This research is motivated by the need to further understand the brand factors which enhance brand purchase likelihood when global, local and glocal brands are competing in same product categories (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010; Özsomer, 2012; Halkias et al., 2016).

1.3 Literature gap, objectives and research questions

As previously mentioned, the current literature on branding shows that the study of local and glocal brands presents research opportunities due to the fact that academics have initially focused on the phenomenon of brand globalisation (Eckhardt, 2005; Liu et al., 2014; Halkias et al., 2016). As a result of the strong competition from local brands encountered by global brands expanding into emerging markets (Özsomer, 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015), the understanding of local brands, initially neglected by researchers, has gained new relevance (Ger, 1999; Kapferer, 2002; Xie et al., 2015). Strong local brands now represent strategic advantages for firms (Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015)

There is a considerable gap in the literature on the issue of the brand factors that enhance the brand-purchase likelihood of local and glocal brands. Some research suggest that local brands merely need to capitalize on their local cultural capital to compete with global brands; there is little literature currently available which concentrates on analysing factors that may enhance the purchase-likelihood of local brands, such as Perceived Brand Localness (Swoboda et al., 2012; Xie et al., 2015), or Prestige, Quality and Perceived Brand Icons (Özsomer, 2012; Xie et al., 2015; Halkias et al., 2016).

There are still research opportunities in the literature therefore to assist in the understanding of the brand factors that enhance brand-purchase likelihood. For example, focusing specifically on each one of the categories of local or glocal brands in order to analyse what these brands can do when they are competing

against their global counterparts, and determine the specific factors on which they rely. As a result, purchase-likelihood could be enhanced by exploiting specific strengths when developing both local and glocal brand strategies.

Given the increased competition between global, local and glocal brands, it is critical in the marketing field to identify what are the key factors that could enhance brand- purchase likelihood among consumers who face this brand choice. This would enable both local and glocal brand-marketing strategies to have more chances to succeed against competition from global brands (Peñaloza and Gilly, 1999; Kapferer, 2002; Gineikiene et al., 2016).

1.3.1 General objective

Based on the above therefore, the general objective of this research is to determine relevant brand factors in relation to brand-purchase likelihood for each of the three types of brand competing in the same product category, and the moderating effects of the type of brand (global, local and glocal) on the antecedents of brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

The first objective of this research is to determine the brand factors that positively influence the Brand Purchase Likelihood (BPL) of Local Brands.

In addition, as previously mentioned, and building on the consumer attitudes toward global and local products suggested by Steenkamp and De Jong (2010), this research will aim to classify brands present on the market into three types: Global, Local and Glocal, based on consumer perceptions (the functional type is

not relevant for this research, since consumers who prefer this category avoid traditional consumption patterns). The second objective of this research is to classify the brands present on the market into these three types of category.

The existing literature is focused on the brand factors that enhance global brand-purchase likelihood (Batra et al., 2000; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Özsomer and Altaras, 2008; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015). However, there is a need to better understand if these factors also enhance the brand-purchase likelihood when other types of brand (local or glocal) are analysed. Thus each type of brand can build on its unique factors in order to better build competitive advantage.

The third objective of this research therefore is to determine the factors that enhance the brand-purchase likelihood for different types of brands interacting in the same product categories.

Additionally, the works in the literature have focused on how brand category, the global category for example, influences consumer product choice, since consumers may choose products differently. The literature suggests that the perception of a product being global influences consumer perception of the superiority of some brand factors such as brand quality and image (Batra et al., 2000; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Özsomer, 2012; Steenkamp, 2014; van der Lans et al., 2016; Halkias et al., 2016). Some global brands, including global luxury brands, may become symbols of social signalling value (Han et al., 2010; Punyatoya, 2013; Xie et al., 2015). However, there is a need to also understand how other types of

brands such as local or glocal may moderate the relationship between the antecedents that enhance the likelihood of consumer purchase.

Considering the aforementioned factors, the fourth objective of this study is to analyse the moderating role of the type of brand in the relationship between brand factors and brand purchase likelihood.

1.3.2   Basic research questions

The basic research questions are:

1. Could factors previously identified in the literature that enhance Global Brand Purchase Likelihood also enhance Local Brand Purchase Likelihood in Emerging Markets? Are there specific factors for local food and clothing brands?

2. How can brands competing in the same product categories be classified into Global, Local and Glocal based on EM consumer perceptions? Are the results of this consumer-based categorisation similar to the categorisation based on objective criteria?

3. Is the relationship between those brand factors previously identified and Brand Purchase Likelihood, similar or different for Global, Local and Glocal Brands competing in the same category?

4. Do the different types of brands (Global, Local or Glocal) have a moderating effect on the relationship between those factors previously identified and Brand Purchase Likelihood?

1.4 Why is this research relevant for researchers and managers?

From a theoretical perspective, this work aims to provide a direct contribution by proposing a new theoretical model with the key antecedents that explain brand purchase likelihood specifically for brand-type (whether global, local or glocal), and the moderating effects of the different types of brands on such relationships.

From the empirical perspective, this work aims to obtain evidence to determine:

a) Brand factors that positively influence the Brand Purchase Likelihood of Local Brands in emerging markets.

b) A method to properly classify brands of the same category into Global, Local and Glocal based on consumer perceptions.

c) Brand factors that might influence the Brand Purchase Likelihood of those types of brands in emerging markets.

d) The moderating effects of the different types of brands on the above-mentioned relationships.

From the managerial perspective, this work aims to obtain evidence to provide marketing practitioners with the brand factors and relevant moderating variables that might work better with each brand type. This will allow marketing managers to better address specific target consumers by developing more competitive brand-

positioning strategies based on a more specific market segmentation by type of brand. Likewise, by leveraging these factors, marketing managers may develop a brand marketing mix to successfully compete with the three types of brands in emerging markets. Additionally, marketers may develop more successful brand portfolios by deciding to include a mix of the different types of brands.

1.5 Research approach and brief description of chapters

In an effort to respond to the aforementioned concerns and in view of the gaps in the current literature, this research suggests a conceptually-grounded model for the factors that enhance global, glocal and local brand purchase likelihood and the moderation of the different types of brands. The research approach consisted of several stages (see Table 2).

Chapter 2 addresses the first set of research questions: could factors that have been previously identified in the literature that enhance Global Brand Purchase Likelihood in emerging markets also enhance Local Brand Purchase Likelihood? Are there specific factors for local food and clothing brands? This chapter relies on the results of empirical research carried out by two surveys of Mexican consumers; study 1 made for local food brands and study 2 made for local clothing brands. The data was analysed using several statistical techniques; Cronbach's alpha, Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

The survey questionnaires were developed with items drawn from the literature. The questionnaires (study 1 and study 2) were administered to a representative

sample of the Mexican population (further details are presented in Chapter 2). Results from Study 1 suggest that brand quality and prestige, bias in favour of local brands and brand familiarity, positively influence local brand purchase likelihood. For younger consumers, in addition to the previous three factors, perceived brand localness should also be considered as a factor that positively influences local brand purchase likelihood. Results of Study 2 suggest that brand attitude, brand image, brand as social signalling value, susceptibility to normative influence and bias in favour of local brands positively influence local clothing brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

Chapter 3 seeks to respond to the second set of research questions: how can brands competing in the same product categories be classified into Global, Local and Glocal based on EM consumer perceptions? Are the results of these consumer- based categorisations similar to categorisations based on objective criteria? There is misalignment between how brands are categorised in the literature vs. how consumers actually view these brands. The works found in the branding literature related to the antecedents of the different typologies of Brands (global, local, etc.) are rooted in categorisations based on objective criteria: the academic brand definitions which have been formally used by academics and managers of firms, or founded on diverse approaches such as qualitative studies which aim to capture consumer perceptions.

On the other hand, consumers do not know these academic definitions and might see the brands differently. The antecedents relating to the determination of a

specific brand typology should be defined by the consumers who make the purchase decision. Therefore, the logical way to classify brands would be based on the consumers' perspective and not that of company managers or academics.

This investigation relies on the results of empirical research through a survey carried out on Mexican consumers and which was based on a methodology which follows the attitudinal categorisation principles suggested by Steenkamp and De Jong (2010). The results provide a categorisation of the leading brands available on the Mexican market into Global, Local and Glocal based on the consumers' perspective, and demonstrate that there are important differences in the categorisation of brands vs. the traditional objective approaches found in the literature. This research work introduces a new brand-categorisation methodology.

Chapter 4 seeks to respond the final set of questions: the relationship between the brand factors previously identified and brand purchase likelihood: is it similar for global, local and glocal brands competing in the same category, or is it different? Is there a moderation effect of the type of brand on the relationship between those factors previously identified and brand purchase likelihood? The expansion of global firms into new markets has presented challenges in terms of whether brand strategies should be adapted or standardised and how to create the appropriate mix of global and local brands in their brand portfolios. However, recent works on consumer attitudes toward global and local brands suggest new brand categorisations: Global, Glocal, Local and Functional. Based on this new categorisation firms need to re-configure their brand portfolios and develop new

successful marketing strategies for each type of brand (Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010; Depecik et al., 2014; Vidal and Mitchell, 2015).

Therefore, it is critical to understand which factors influence the brand purchase likelihood for each one of these brand categories. Based on a survey among Mexican consumers this chapter identifies key antecedents in predicting the brand purchase likelihood of global, glocal and local brands in an emerging market like Mexico. Results suggest that brand quality, brand familiarity, price, brand attitude, brand image and the brand as social signalling value are common factors for the three brand categories. Results also suggest that the type of brand (global, local or glocal), moderates some of these relationships. This study extends the previous research in this field by determining the specific factors that each type of brand can use to succeed in emerging markets.

Finally, Chapter 5 presents the conclusions and implications for the research. The chapter outlines the main contributions of the research and suggests future research directions.

	Table 2: Research Chapters		
Chapter	**Two**	**Three**	**Four**
Research questions	• Could factors that have been previously identified in the literature that enhance the Global Brand Purchase Likelihood, also enhance Local Brand Purchase Likelihood in Emerging Markets? • Are there specific factors for local Food and Clothing brands?	• How can brands competing in same product categories be classified into Global, Local and Glocal based on EM consumer perceptions? • Are the results of this consumer-based categorisation similar to the categorisation based on objective criteria?	• Is the relationship between the previously-identified relevant antecedents and Brand Purchase Likelihood similar for Global, Local and Glocal Brands competing in the same category or is it different? • Is there a moderating effect of the different type of brands on the relationship between those previously-identified antecedents and Brand Purchase Likelihood?
Theoretical Framework	• Consumer Culture Theory • Signalling theory	• Consumer Culture Theory • Signalling theory	• Consumer Culture Theory • Signalling theory
Research design	• Empirical study • Survey 1 with 700 Mexican consumers • Survey 2 with 700 Mexican consumers • Cronbach Alpha, Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)	• Empirical study • Survey with 400 Mexican consumers • Mathematical analysis	• Empirical study • Survey with 400 Mexican consumers • Cronbach Alpha, Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)
Key findings	• Specific factors that enhance Brand Purchase Likelihood for Local Brands in emerging markets.	• A new methodology for categorising brands based on consumer perspectives • The results of this methodology show important differences between categories based on objective criteria.	• Specific antecedents that enhance Brand Purchase Likelihood for Global, Local and Glocal Brands • Some moderating effects of the type of brand on the relationship between the antecedents and brand purchase likelihood.
Source Self-devised			

Global, Local and Glocal Brands in Emerging Markets. Doctoral Dissertation. M. A. Lopez 2015

CHAPTER 2

ESSAY 1

CHAPTER 2

ESSAY 1 - LOCAL BRANDS IN EMERGING MARKETS: FACTORS FOR SUCCESS

Abstract

As a result of the efforts of multinational companies to build international brands, the expansion of foreign brands into domestic markets has threatened the market share of local companies. However, some local brands have successfully resisted the entry of foreign brands into their markets. This essay aims to determine some of factors that might enable local brands to be more attractive for consumers in emerging markets, and employs results from two empirical studies carried out on Mexican consumers. The first study analyses local food brands while the second analyses local clothing brands; these two categories were chosen given their importance in the marketing field as evidenced by the number of empirical studies found in the literature. Two surveys were conducted and the data was analysed with statistical tests such as Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). For study 1 the results suggest that brand quality and prestige, bias in favour of local brands, and brand familiarity positively influence local food brand purchase likelihood. For younger consumers, in addition to the previous three factors, perceived brand localness should also be considered as a positive influence on brand purchase likelihood. For study 2 the results suggest that for local clothing brands, brand attitude, brand image, brand as social signalling value, susceptibility to normative influence and bias in favour of local brands are factors

positively related to local brand purchase likelihood. This is the first attempt to determine these factors via an empirical study carried out in an emerging Latin American market. For academics the main contribution of these studies is to provide additional research material for the foreign and local brand phenomenon and for local brand managers in emerging economies to offer a set of relevant criteria to assist in the development of more successful marketing strategies for the brands they manage.

2.1 Introduction

The process of globalisation has resulted in a global marketplace that serves millions of consumers across the world and international expansion by firms is still ongoing (UnitedNations, 2012; WorldTradeOrganization, 2012; Tan and Sousa, 2013; UnitedNations, 2014; WorldTradeOrganization, 2014). International firms view globalization as a critical advantage with expected benefits which result from delivering a high-quality offer via standardised products at lower prices (Levitt, 1983; Punyatoya, 2013; Tan and Sousa, 2013; Steenkamp, 2014) or gaining global recognition (Elinder, 1962; Elinder, 1965; Sorenson and Wiechmann, 1975; Quelch and Hoff, 1986; Alden et al., 1999; Punyatoya, 2013; Steenkamp, 2014).

The competitive intensity among global and local brands prompts international firms to develop successful marketing strategies by choosing between standardization or adaptation of their international marketing strategies (Schmid and Kotulla, 2011; Tan and Sousa, 2013; Hofer, 2015; Kraus et al., 2015; Ansah, 2016; Parry et al., 2016). In spite of the successful commercialization of global

brands in local markets, international brands have different results in diverse local markets (Zhou et al., 2010; Talay et al., 2015; Ansah, 2016).

Emerging markets (EMs) represent an important business opportunity for international firms (Fidelity, 2013). In EM's the population segment under the age of 30 is larger than in developed economies (Euromonitor, February, 2012; Euromonitor, May, 2014b). Global brands have recognised these markets as important expansion opportunities (Kim and Heere, 2012; Roberts et al., 2015), and as a result local brands in emerging markets often face tough competition from foreign brands (Holt et al., 2004; Moslehpour and Yumnu, 2014).

As previously mentioned, the literature shows that academics initially focused on the brand globalisation phenomenon (Eckhardt, 2005; Xie et al., 2015), and accordingly there is a need for research focused on understanding the factors that enhance local brand purchase likelihood in order to develop marketing strategies able to successfully compete against global brands.

In emerging markets certain local brands have successfully absorbed the entry of global competitors into their markets without damage to their business. It is critical therefore to understand what makes one local brand more attractive for consumers than others (Batra et al., 2000; Özsomer, 2012); the reasons behind this are largely unknown and this paper therefore aims to address this phenomenon.

2.2 Theoretical framework

I draw upon the extant literature on Consumer Culture theory and Signalling theory, to develop a theoretical framework for studies 1 & 2.

2.2.1 Consumer Culture Theory

Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) is a theoretical framework, used extensively in research in the past two decades, which focuses on studying the consumption and marketplace behaviours which explain the socio-cultural, experiential, symbolic and ideological aspects of consumption (Arnould and Thompson, 2005; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015).

CCT is a research field that has advanced knowledge of consumer consumption culture and has generated empirically grounded findings (Hirschman, 1993; Arnold and Fischer, 1994; Firat and Venkatesh, 1995; Sherry and Belk, 2007; Thompson et al., 2013) and advances in theory that are relevant to many social science and managerial disciplines and public policy regulations (Sassatelli, 2007; Thompson et al., 2013). The most important theoretical contributions of CCT are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Theoretical contributions of Consumer Culture Theory	
Theoretical group	**Description**
Self-representation	Theoretical perspectives that support the understanding of subjective expressions and identity-building through consumption practices. Examples are theories of "Self" (i.e. transformation of me) and "Identity" (i.e. reconstruction of the personal identity, social identity and cultural identities).
Cultural production systems	This theoretical dimension considers the power of economic and cultural globalization in the transformation of cultural ideas into material realities. The topics in this group include: cultural commercialisation, mass-communication, advertising systems, myths of consumption, extraordinary experiences, consumption in spectacular ambiences, among others.
Distinctions and social structures	This focuses on the structural forces that act on consumption activities and their repercussions on both society and individual consumers. This dimension is focused on conspicuous consumption, maintenance of frontiers and hierarchical structures, "gift giving, sacred vs. profane consumption and cultural capital".
Consumer	Considers the communities formed with a basis in consumption practices with

Table 3: Theoretical contributions of Consumer Culture Theory	
communities	emphasis on brand communities and specific lifestyles (especially those dictated by current social practices), and also focused on "*ethos*" through a shared feeling of belonging, cosmopolitanism, rites of passage, subcultures and neotribalism, among others.
Market ideologies and discourses	This dimension sees the market as an ideology of systems of production and mediator of social relations in various spheres, as well as a locus of minority resistance. Examples of this approach are: consumer agency, consumer emancipation, global consumption, feminism, ethnicity, cultural studies, and consumer ideologies.
Source: Gaião et al. (2012)	

2.2.1.1 Consumption and Consumer Culture

Consumption is one of the central concepts in Consumer Culture Theory (CCT). The literature in this field suggests that consumption is shaped by the sociocultural practices of consumers, and has historically evolved from consumer ideology and commercial practices within dynamic marketplaces. CCT focuses on the cultural effects: socio-historic influences, social dynamics that shape consumer experiences and identities (Holt, 1998; Fournier, 1998; Arnould and Thompson, 2005; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015).

CCT focuses on understanding consumer behaviour as the result of sociocultural processes related to consumer identity building, marketplace cultures, the historical social patterns of consumption, mass media ideologies and the corresponding consumer interpretations (Sassatelli, 2007; Cova and Cova, 2014).

CCT explores how consumers relate their identity and personal goals in life and lifestyles and the way in which they translate the symbolic meanings encoded in material goods, brands, commercial communication (ads) and in-store retail scenery (Kozinets, 2001; Peñaloza, 2001; Holt, 2002; Cova and Cova, 2014) to

their particular personal and social contexts.

The literature on CCT suggests that consumers use consumption to experience diverse realities which evoke personal desires, evolving personal identity, and the dreams unique to every individual (Arnould and Thompson, 2005; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015).

CCT analyses how consumers consume (Holt, 1995; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015) across various social contexts such as diverse retail settings, home, online, leisure facilities and tourist sites (Arnould and Price, 1993; Belk et al., 2003; Grayson and Martinec, 2004; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015). Consumer Culture theory is a cumulative theoretical body which in the last two decades has become one of the major pillars of consumer research (Arnould and Thompson, 2007; Thompson et al., 2013).

2.2.1.2 Products, Brands and Consumer Culture Theory

Researchers on CCT encouraged the study of the contextual, symbolic, and experiential aspects of consumption during the consumption cycle, which is composed of the acquisition, consumption, possession and disposition processes of products (Arnould and Thompson, 2005; Cova and Cova, 2014).

CCT has analysed the consumption cycle through the explanation of the symbolic, personal, and experiential aspects of acquisition behaviours (Otnes et al., 1997; Joy and Sherry Jr, 2003; Cova and Cova, 2014) and the complexity of the sociocultural aspects of exchange behaviours (Belk, 1988; Peñaloza and Gilly,

1999; Sherry and Belk, 2007; Cova and Cova, 2014).

One of the central subjects of CCT is the study of the consumption of produced goods and the marketing development of brands as symbols; this systematic consumption depends on personal consumer choice (Holt, 2002; Cova and Cova, 2014). CCT also analyses the relations between consumer culture and social resources and the role of markets as mediators between the consumers' ways of life and the symbolic and material resources on which they depend (Arnould and Thompson, 2005; Thompson et al., 2013).

CCT also conceptualises a system of commercially produced images, texts, and objects that groups of consumers use to orient their members' experiences and lives (Kozinets, 2001; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015).

In addition, CCT explores the distribution of goods and the multiple cultural groups that exist within the frame of globalisation and marketplaces. These goods are bought by consumers in specific social contexts, roles and relationships (Arnould and Thompson, 2005; Thompson et al., 2013).

Özsomer and Altaras (2008) suggest that CCT is useful to explain the behaviour of consumers and their purchase decisions for the following reasons:

1. CCT analyses how a consumer's culture influences their purchase decisions.

2. CCT investigates the different types of brand associations.

3. CCT assesses the influence of country of origin on brand judgments.

4. CCT studies the drivers of consumer attitudes and purchase likelihood of

brands.

5. CCT studies the role of consumer characteristics in the purchase decision.

2.2.2 Signalling Theory

Introduced by Spence (1973), Signalling Theory is a proper theoretical framework to describe behaviour when two parties, the sender and the receiver (individuals or organisations), exchange information. Each party may have a particular way of interpreting the information sent.

The importance of signals is related to the capacity to provide the consumer with relevant information that helps distinguish between good or bad products available on the market and to allow them to choose the best options that satisfy their desires and needs.

Initially researched by Cox (1967) and Olson (1972), signals play different roles in relation to diverse consumer associations (van der Lans et al., 2016), for example the degree of association with product quality and the effectiveness of a product in solving a specific consumer need or task; the signals can be extrinsic, such as price, brand name, and packaging which are not part of the product nature; or intrinsic, such as ingredients that are an essential part of the product's nature (Richardson et al., 1994; van der Lans et al., 2016).

In a free market, producers seek to develop the ability to provide consumers with the products that fulfil their desires and needs at a price that satisfies both parties.

Nevertheless, in general the free market offers imperfect information, therefore it is not guaranteed that the level of a given benefit or characteristic of the product offered by manufacturers necessarily matches what consumers are willing to pay for (Alhabeeb, 2007; Schena et al., 2015).

2.2.2.1 Key elements in Signalling

Following Connelly et al. (2011), there are four main moments in the signalling process , presented in **Figure *1*: Signalling timeline** Figure 1 as follows:

Figure 1: Signalling timeline
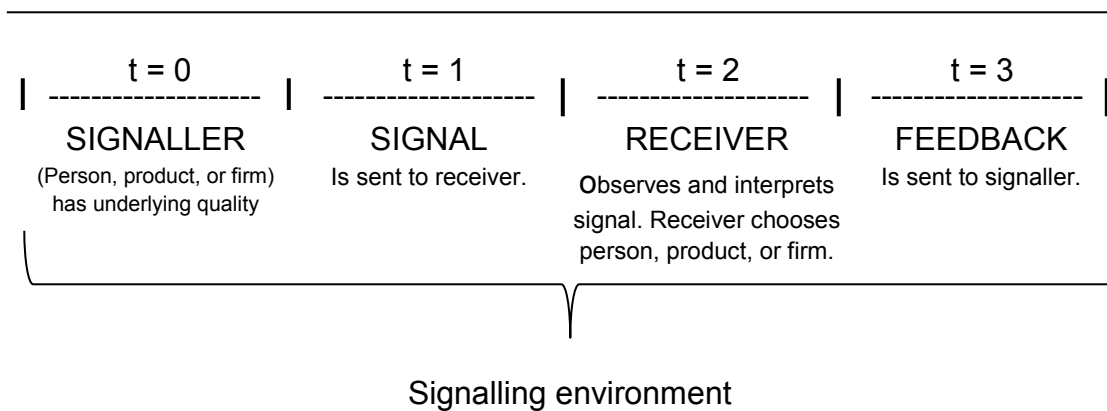
Note: t = time.

Source: Connel

Taj (2016) highlight that the three fundamental elements of the signalling theory are the signaller. Table 4 summarises the key elements of signalling.

Table 4: Key elements of signalling	
Element	Explanation
The Signaller	Signallers are: • Insiders (executives or managers) who obtain information about ○ An individual

Table 4: Key elements of signalling	
	○ A Product ○ An Organisation That is not available to outsiders and that outsiders would find useful. • The signaller should benefit by some action from the receiver.
The Signal	Positive or negative information in an effort to convey positive organisational attributes to outsiders (consumers).
The Receiver	• Receivers are outsiders who lack information about the organisation in question but would like to receive this information. • The receiver may make a choice about hiring, purchasing, or investing.
Source: Adapted from Connelly et al. (2011)	

To make this process effective, senders must be sure whether to send the signal, when to send it, and to whom the signal should be sent (Eliashberg and Robertson, 1988; Schena et al., 2015).

2.2.2.2 Signalling theory application in fields of research

The literature evidences that signalling theory has been the theoretical foundation in the past three decades of many fields of research such as Management, Psychology, Finance and Marketing (Karasek III and Bryant, 2012; Basoglu and Hess, 2014).

In the field of marketing, especially in terms of consumer behaviour, Signalling Theory provides a framework for explaining how companies can use signals to communicate certain information to potential consumers. In this field "A signal is an action that the seller can take to convey information credibly about unobservable product quality to the buyer" (Rao et al., 1999, p.299). Thus consumers become

the primary audience for the product information signals produced by companies (Eliashberg and Robertson, 1988; Schena et al., 2015).

Products and brands may represent an assortment of signals that serve as indicators of different attributes to consumers and therefore signals are associated with several consumer perceptions such as brand quality (Richardson et al., 1994; Schena et al., 2015) or product superiority (Kozinets, 2001; Schena et al., 2015).

In general, consumers do not know the true quality or reliability of a product until they buy it and evaluate it during or after consumption. For instance, consumers can only evaluate and reach a conclusion about the true quality of an automobile, household appliance or cell phone after they have used them. That is why one of the main concerns of manufacturers and retailers is to send the information through diverse signals that are easily received by consumers. In terms of the commercialisation of products, consumers would like to get information that allows them to make a purchase decision by distinguishing between products with a high versus low-level of a specific characteristic or benefit. Therefore sellers need to send this information through different signals (Boulding and Kirmani, 1993; Taj, 2016).

Signalling Theory also analyses the use of signals in advertising through brand names (Kirmani, 1990; Schena et al., 2015) and provides information in relation to the attributes of a given item (Richardson et al., 1994; Basoglu and Hess, 2014).

2.2.3 Internationalisation of marketing strategies and local markets

During the 20th and 21st centuries marketplaces globally have experienced an increased internationalisation of business (Schmid and Kotulla, 2011; Parry et al., 2016). Internationalisation is defined as the process of increasing participation in international markets, with product/marketing strategies being a significant part of the business approach of many enterprises (Bell et al., 2004). The marketing strategies of many companies have therefore focused on this international expansion to local markets.

2.2.3.1 Foreign brands into local markets

An important part of understanding the internationalization of products and brands is the choice by firms to pursue either a standardised or adapted international marketing strategy. This choice is highly relevant for the successful expansion of multinational businesses and the academic debate on standardization versus adaptation after more than 50 years still continues (Schmid and Kotulla, 2011; Tan and Sousa, 2013; Yap and Yazdanifard, 2014; Hofer, 2015; Kraus et al., 2015; Ansah, 2016).

"Standardisation of the international marketing strategy refers to using a common product, price, distribution, and promotion program on a worldwide basis" (Jain, 1989, p. 70). Initially researched by Elinder (1962) in advertising practices, additional studies were undertaken to understand the process and program of standardisation (Sorenson and Wiechmann, 1975; Tan and Sousa, 2013), to

investigate degrees of standardisation (Quelch and Hoff, 1986), to discover additional internal and external factors (Douglas and Wind, 1987) and also to see the effect of standardization on advertising (Peebles, 1977; Killough, 1978.)

Jain (1989) concludes that successful standardisation is not only based on the two components presented by Sorenson (1975) but that in addition it depends on five key factors that must ensure that a company makes a profit. Adaptation is the other important pillar marketing strategy internationalisation. It has been recognised in the literature as the other strategic alternative to standardisation when looking to successfully internationalise products and brands. Firms adapt their strategies, products and brands to local markets in the countries into which they are seeking to expand. Since Jain (1989), the work by Schmid and Kotulla (2011) analyses 50 years of research in this area and presents an innovative framework for the analysis of this phenomenon, concluding that managers must consider both options and, if needed, find the right balance between them. The most important contributions to this stream of research are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Most important contributions to the theory of standardization and adaptation of the international MKT strategy		
Standardization		
Marketing area	**Key findings**	**Author(s)**
Advertising	When firms count with high level of brand familiarity among foreign consumers.	(Pae et al., 2002)
	High foreign consumer familiarity with the brand. Durable product.	(Tai and Pae, 2002)
	Firms count with cross-national consumer segments.	(Ko et al., 2007)

Table 5: Most important contributions to the theory of standardization and adaptation of the international MKT strategy		
	Media infrastructure and promotion standardization are positively related. Promotion standardization and brand vision impact on firm performance in the target market.	(Hofer, 2015)
Price	When there is high cross-national similarity in the environment. Requires long international experience.	(Sousa and Bradley, 2008)
Price and distribution	High cross-national psychic difference.	(Sousa and Lengler, 2009)
Product and price	High cross-national similarity in the economic and cultural market environments.	(Chung, 2009)
Product, price and advertising	Firms that require long international experience.	(Zou and Cavusgil, 2002)
Product, distribution and advertising	When aiming to get a cost leadership strategy, high degree of international coordination of marketing activities, operation in high number of foreign markets, high product homogeneity and large firm size.	(Hultman et al., 2009)
Marketing strategies	Firms that manage high-tech industrial products, require long marketing experience.	(O'Donnell and Jeong, 2000)
	When firms have international similarity in regulatory conditions, in customs and traditions, in consumer characteristics, in the stage of the product life cycle and in the level of competitive intensity, high technological intensity and velocity is required.	(Katsikeas et al., 2006)
	High similarity in consumer tastes and preferences, absence of foreign regulations, high potential for economies of scale in marketing, presence of global competitors, and the foreign subsidiary is a specialized contributor.	(Lim et al., 2006)
	When firms need to have a global organizational structure and global management processes.	(Xu et al., 2006)
	Standardization can be done regardless of international cultural and business distance.	(Evans et al., 2008)
	Low dependence on high dynamics of the foreign task environment.	(Grewal et al., 2008)

Table 5: Most important contributions to the theory of standardization and adaptation of the international MKT strategy		
	The degree of standardization will depend on the market, on management judgment, the fit of business environment and the strategy, and the effectiveness of execution.	(Tan and Sousa, 2013)
Adaptation		
Marketing area	**Key findings**	**Author(s)**
Advertising, branding, and sales force	High intensity of foreign competition and long transportation time.	(Dow, 2006)
Advertising, branding, and sales force	High intensity of foreign competition and long transportation time.	(Dow, 2006)
Price	When export assistance by public policy makers is needed and to customize pricing to specific national markets it is required long international experience from the firm.	(Lages and Montgomery, 2005)
	Element Most adapted in manufacturing firms internationalization	(Ansah, 2016)
Product	High export dependence, high degree of international product adaptation practiced in the industry, high differences in the business environment.	(Calantone et al., 2006)
	High cross-national differences in the economic and sociocultural macro-environments. High cross-national differences in the marketing infrastructure and stage of the product life cycle. Specific experience with the export venture market. Long duration of the export venture.	(Schilke et al., 2009)
Products and advertising	Firms with high degree of international competence.	(Cavusgil and Zou, 1994)
	High relative cost and quality of the factor inputs for the foreign competitors; long transportation time to the foreign country.	(Dow, 2006)
	High cross-national psychic distance	(Sousa and Lengler, 2009)
Products' brand image	High differences exist in cultural power distance, individualism, local socioeconomic conditions among	(Roth, 1995)

Table 5: Most important contributions to the theory of standardization and adaptation of the international MKT strategy		
	the markets.	
Product lines, price and distribution channels	Firms need to have a high development of planning processes / tools.	(Shoham, 1996)
Marketing strategies	Recommended for small firm size, unique product features high cross-national differences in the political / legal macro-environments and in industry characteristics.	(O'Cass and Julian, 2003)
	Firms with long international experience.	
	The level of marketing adaptation is positively related to the likelihood that the subsidiary will be established through an acquisition	(Slangen and Dikova, 2014)
	Psychic, cultural and geographical distance have a significant moderating effect on the degree of marketing mix adaptation the larger the distance towards a market, the more inclined the managers are to decide in a larger degree of adaptation of the four Ps.	(Kraus et al., 2015)
Combination of standardization and adaptation		
Marketing area	**Key findings**	**Author(s)**
Marketing Strategies	Use of a combination of both for Multinational Manufacturing firms	(Ansah, 2016)
	Use of a combination of both to re-engage out of touch consumers for supply of products and services.	(Parry et al., 2016)
	Use of a combination of both for grocery Retailers when internationalizing	(Tseltsova and Bohnert, 2015)
	Use of a combination of both to get a right balance according to the characteristics of the different firms and markets	(Yap and Yazdanifard, 2014)
Source: Self-devised		

As the downside to internationalisation, the phenomenon of local brands in their local markets is also an important issue for analysis. Local brands have to confront the reality of foreign brands attempting to gain entry to their local markets; some can successfully protect their business against the foreign invaders but others are unable to compete.

Additionally, analysis of the phenomenon of local brands is important due to the fact that some of these brands, which initially enjoyed local success, have now gone on to compete at international level.

Strategic brand management of international firms transitioned from an initial focus on the development of large international brand portfolios to international brand portfolio rationalization, requiring a good balance between strong global and local brands (Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004; Godey and Lai, 2011; Depecik et al., 2014; Vidal and Mitchell, 2015). A byproduct of internationalisation is increased competition for local brands (Özsomer, 2012; Roberts et al., 2015), and as the focus of this paper is how local brands can compete in this increasingly competitive environment, at this stage I will proceed to examine the phenomenon of how local brands compete in a global market.

2.2.3.2 Local brands facing a global market

Local brands face both local and global competitors, making competition more complex and intense (Özsomer, 2012; Xie et al., 2015). The central objective of the marketing strategy of local brands is to succeed against their global competitors.

Local brands have strategic advantages over global brands; they provide better satisfaction of local consumer needs or satisfy specific needs not covered by international brands; they have faster market entry, more flexibility in their pricing strategies and the capability to respond to local or international competitors (Kapferer, 2002; Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004; Xie et al., 2015). One of the most relevant questions for local brand managers therefore is to identify the key factors that enable local brand marketing strategies to succeed. Table 6 presents the advantages of Global and Local Brands.

Table 6: Global vs. local brands advantages	
Arguments in favour of global brands	**Arguments in favour of local brands**
- Economic sources: optimization of costs based on high economies of scale due to the standardization of product platforms. - Technological sources: global technology present in most products it's a homogenizing force. - Marketing sources: economies of scope in marketing and by superior marketing programs, using global media, internet, Cable TV, CNN, and global segmentation level. - Consumer sources: brands perceived as "global made better" quality ratings, which in turn increased desire to buy. - Organizational Sources: global brands offer important organizational benefits, over and above consumer, economic, and marketing benefits. - Global distributors also look for global suppliers.	- Structural factors (frequency of purchase). - Brand equity factors (perception of an institution). - Competitive factors (corporate general strategy). - Organizational factors (corporate culture and orientation). - Cultural factors (nationalistic feelings of the country adaptation to local culture and preferences and local brand symbolism and prestige). - Signalling functions (quality- and identity). **Local brands' unique sources of equity:** Strength in being local- considerably-felt psychological proximity (associated by the majority of consumers with their own local life) - Endowed with a high awareness level. - Considerable trust.

Table 6: Global vs. local brands advantages	
Arguments in favour of global brands	**Arguments in favour of local brands**
	• High level of personal connections. • Are more than brands, they are institutions. Advantage: • Extensive and well-known distribution network. • Faster service to customers. Unique psychological value of the local brand can be pride. Economic value: local cost factors leading to more competitive prices.
Source: Adapted from Kapferer (2002) and Steenkamp (2014)	

The perception of localness (perceived as a locally-commercialised brand) among consumers might be one of the key strengths for local brands, founded on psychological closeness as a result of the brand's association with consumers through their own life (Kapferer, 2002; Xie et al., 2015).

One important element of consumer perception of the globalness or localness of a brand is the Country of Origin effect (COO) which results from consumers' perceptions of a given country in relation with the product or brand origin (Roth and Romeo, 1992; Halkias et al., 2016). This extends to perceptions of the country where the product or brand is manufactured, assembled or designed as well as to where their corporate headquarters are located (Ahmed and d'Astous, 1996;

Halkias et al., 2016); examples of COO are Mercedes-Benz and Germany, Apple and USA, Christian Dior and France, Corona beer and Mexico.

Researchers have analysed how consumers use a brand's country of origin (COO) to evaluate its quality and acceptability (Bilkey and Nes, 1982; Baughn, 1993; Yu et al., 2013). However, according to the consumers' nationality, their perception of country image and brand image differ (Bandyopadhyay and Banerjee, 2003; Yu et al., 2013).

Perceived origin forms brand image and brand perception, which leads to a positive/ negative brand attitude (Thakor and Lavack, 2003; Yu et al., 2013). The COO effect influences consumer evaluation of foreign products on the perception of quality and purchase value (d'Astous and Ahmed, 1999; O'Cass and Lim, 2002; Yu et al., 2013).

According to the literature, for international brands in local markets the perceived brand non-localness (or foreign-ness) effect was stronger for consumers with two characteristics: (1) those who have a high admiration for lifestyles in economically developed countries, and (2) those who were high in susceptibility to normative influence, particularly for those product categories with high social-signalling value (Batra et al., 2000; Khare, 2014).

Within the COO effects analysis, the concept of country image, defined as "the general perception of consumers for the quality of products made in the given country" (Han, 1989, p. 222) is present.

2.3 Study 1: Factors for success for local food brands in emerging markets

Study 1 analyses some key factors that may influence the success of local consumer brands among consumers in emerging markets.

The consumer packaged goods industry (CPGs) markets items that are frequently purchased, quickly used up and constantly replaced by consumers. Product categories included in CPGs are food and beverages, clothing, tobacco and household products (INVESTOPEDIA, 2015). The CPGs is one of the most important industries in the world valued at approximately $8 trillion USD (Hirose et al., 2015). In Mexico sales in the Packaged Food Category in 2014 reached 6.85 Million tonnes (Euromonitor, Nov,2014), and in the academic field, the relevance of this category is evidenced by the fact that CPGs have been a major focus of empirical research in marketing (Bronnenberg et al., 2007; INVESTOPEDIA, 2015; Hirose et al., 2015).

The objectives of this research therefore are twofold:

-To identify relevant factors related to local food brand purchase likelihood.

-To determine if these factors apply for all segments of the population.

Study 1 is organised as follows: section 1 contains the proposed hypotheses and our theoretical model. In section 2 we discuss the survey and methodology applied. Empirical results are presented in section 3. Finally, conclusions, managerial implications, limitations and future research directions are discussed in section 4.

2.3.1 Proposed model and hypothesis

Our motivation for developing our proposed model was to use the factors identified, discussed, and found relevant in the research work by Steenkamp et al. (2003) to test them in a more modern context in an Emerging Market. Additionally these factors are used in relevant research works found in the literature in relation with the object of study (Zhou et al., 2010; Baek et al., 2010; Özsomer, 2012; Zhu and Chang, 2015).

2.3.1.1 Perceived brand foreignness or localness

The Perceived Brand Foreignness (PBF) concept refers to consumer perception of a brand to be of foreign or non-local origin (Zhou et al., 2010). The PBF concept is an important and frequently-used element in international brand positioning strategies (Alden et al., 1999; De Meulenaer et al., 2015).

The PBG is defined as "a perception that can be formed only if consumers believe the brand is marketed in multiple countries and is generally recognised as global in these countries" (Steenkamp et al., 2003, p. 54).

However, the proven success of global brands does not suggest that PBG is the only factor for purchase likelihood (Steenkamp et al., 2003). Consumers in emerging markets have preferences for both global and local products (Belk, 2000; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016). Consumers also have a preference for local brands given their strong connections to consumer identity (Zambuni, 1993; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015). Local culture

still plays a critical role in impacting consumer behaviour (Samli, 1995; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015), although cultural factors are not uniform across markets (Ger et al., 1993; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015).

Local brands can achieve competitive success by using these factors (Ger, 1999; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015). Local brand distinctive perceived values are assets that firms may use to build competitive advantages (Swoboda et al., 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015).

Furthermore, perceived brand globalness (PBG) or perceived brand foreignness (PBF) are not based only on company actions but on the combination of company positioning and consumer perceptions of the company's PBG or PBL (Akaka and Alden, 2010; Halkias et al., 2016). This may also create a Perceived Brand Localness effect (PBL) that can be considered the opposing concept to PBG.

The results of empirical research carried out in developed markets such as Korea or the USA) suggests the existence of a relationship between PBG and purchase likelihood of global brands (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Halkias et al., 2016). In the present research we propose that Perceived Brand Localness (PBL) could also be related to purchase likelihood for local brands. Steenkamp et al., (2003) when analysing this type of relationship, recommend using a sample encompassing a wider set of countries in which emerging markets are included. Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Perceived brand localness is positively associated with local brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

2.3.1.2 Brand quality and prestige

Product price and quality are more significant and critical factors for consumers than the COO effect (Elliott and Cameron, 1994). The absence of superior quality and value of brands with a "global image" versus local competition negates consumer preference (Shocker et al., 1994; Kapferer, 1997).

The literature suggests that consumer preference for global brands is associated with higher prestige (Kapferer, 1997; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015). This can also be argued for leading local brands due to their localness effect.

For consumers in specific emerging markets such as Pakistan where a combination of both global and local brands are purchased (Belk, 2000; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016), this choice is more critical (Akram et al., 2011; Roberts et al., 2015). Research on the relationship between brand quality and prestige and purchase likelihood has been analysed in the developing market in Pakistan, with the suggested recommendation for future research that this relationship be tested in additional emerging markets (Akram et al., 2011). Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: Perceived brand quality and prestige in emerging markets is positively associated with local brand purchase likelihood.

2.3.1.3 Bias in favour of local brands

The literature suggests another important factor; consumer prejudice/inclination or favouritism (bias) towards local brands. Consumer bias in favour of local brands focuses on the interest of target consumers in the uniqueness of brands from their country (Ger, 1999; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Halkias et al., 2016), since local product alternatives from the local culture are better aligned to local quality needs (Ger, 1999; Verlegh, 2007; Xie et al., 2015). Thus, consumer bias in favour of local brands should affect the purchase likelihood of local products over foreign ones (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Netemeyer et al., 1991; Halkias et al., 2016).

Consumers may return to local products as their knowledge of both products and brands increases (Arnould, 1989). Perceived Brand Foreignness (PBF) was weaker for individuals who have higher levels of bias in favour of local brands (Zhou et al., 2010; Salman, 2015). Additionally consumer ethnocentrism (CET), defined as "the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products" (Shimp and Sharma, 1987, p. 280), suggests that, for highly ethnocentric consumers there is a bias in favour of local products. Thus we propose:

> H3: Bias in favour of local brands is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood.

2.3.1.4 Brand familiarity

Brand familiarity is a factor that results from a consumer's direct and indirect experience with a brand (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Kent and Allen, 1994; Campbell et al., 2003; Türkel et al., 2015; Calvo Porral et al., 2016).

Strong local culture orientation (Samli, 1995; Belk, 2000) along with consumer closeness to products within their local market environments (Kapferer, 2002) is likely to result in a stronger familiarity with local brands (Calvo Porral et al., 2016).

Brand familiarity plays a critical role in relation to the brand purchase likelihood of global and local products (Özsomer, 2012; Türkel et al., 2015). Researchers have used brand familiarity as a factor that can be related to perceived brand quality, prestige, and brand purchase likelihood (Steenkamp et al., 2003). Brand familiarity enhances the purchase intention when skeptical consumers are also considering price (Hardesty et al., 2002; Xie et al., 2015), as well as reducing perceived consumer risk and increasing purchase intention in intimate apparel brands (Rose, 2015).

Reviewing the literature, to my knowledge there is no evidence that the relationship between brand familiarity and local brand purchase likelihood has been analysed in Latina American emerging markets. Thus we propose:

H4: Brand familiarity is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood.

2.3.1.5 Proposed model

Building on the presiding discussion and existing literature (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010; Zhou et al., 2010), we have developed a theoretical model (see Figure 2) that incorporates each of the effects discussed. This model has been constructed by the author using contributions from both the brand purchase likelihood model (Steenkamp et al., 2003), and the multi-level brand value model (Zhou et al., 2010).

Figure 2: Factors that influence local consumer brand purchase likelihood
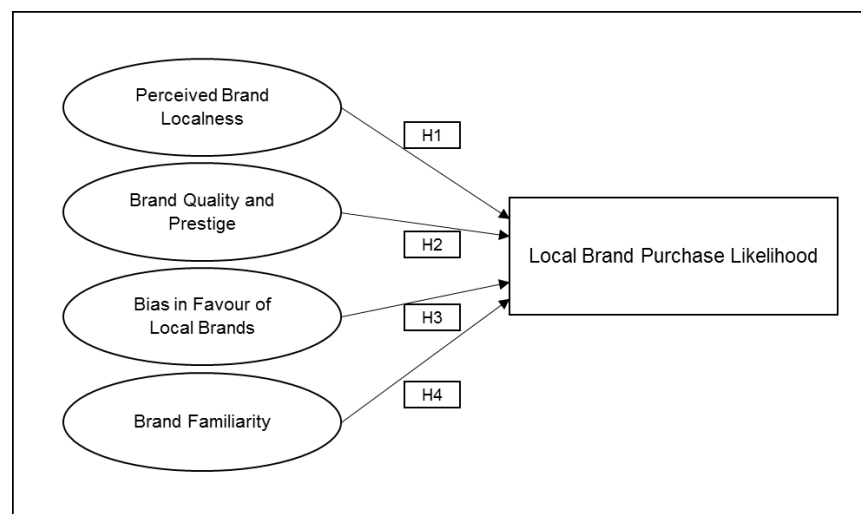
Source: author's own

2.3.2 Methodology

2.3.2.1 Selection of product categories and brands for the survey

Four leading local brands were selected based on their market share (Euromonitor, December, 2012a; Euromonitor, December, 2012b; Euromonitor, January, 2013a; Euromonitor, January, 2013b). These sets of product categories were created to provide variance across constructs of interest (Batra et al., 2000). Interviews were

carried out with a selected group of consumers representing the sample to ensure that the selected products and brands were familiar to the respondents.

The four brands chosen were:

Atun Tuny: a canned tuna brand produced by Grupomar, which for 25 years has been involved in the fishing, processing and commercializing of tuna and other sea products. Atun Tuny has become a local leading brand with a 6.4% market share of the canned tuna market in Mexico (Euromonitor, December, 2012a).

Sopas La Moderna: founded in 1920, Grupo La Moderna has become the most important producer of pasta products in Mexico; it holds a massive 59% share of pasta sales in Mexico (Euromonitor, January, 2013a).

Yogurt Lala: founded in 1949 and owned by Grupo Lala, it has consolidated as one of the most important milk producers in Mexico. Lala yoghurt is the third leading brand in the Yoghurt and Sour Milk product category in Mexico with a 10.8% retail value share (Euromonitor, December, 2012b).

Bimbo: founded in 1945, it is the largest bakery company in Mexico and has become the generic name given to loaf bread (GrupoBimbo., 2012), and a local leading brand which now has a 26% market share of the bakery category (Euromonitor, January, 2013b).

2.3.2.2 The instrument

The survey questionnaire was developed with items drawn from extant literature; the sources are detailed in the 'Measurement' section. A pre-test was conducted with a small group of target respondents to ensure both readability and understanding of the questions in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire survey was administered to the target respondents via face-to-face personal interviews. Respondents completed the questionnaire which included questions on age and gender and were asked to evaluate each brand on perceived brand localness, brand quality and prestige, bias in favour of local brands and brand familiarity as well as on brand purchase likelihood.

Data was collected from the respondents on the basis of one brand per product category. Due to time limitations, the product categories were rotated randomly across questionnaires (Batra et al., 2000).

2.3.2.3 Measures

Measures for this study were drawn or adapted from previous scales established in the existing literature. The dependent variable is brand purchase likelihood. Drawn from Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal (1991), two items were used: "I would buy it" and "I would certainly buy it".

Four independent variables were analysed. First, "perceived brand localness" was assessed with three items adapted from Steenkamp et al. (2003): "To me, this brand represents what Mexico is all about", "I do think consumers in other countries would buy this brand", "To me, this brand is a very good symbol of

Mexico". Second, brand quality and prestige was a two-item scale drawn from Han & Terpstra (1988) and Sweeney & Soutar (2001): "This brand shows a very high level of overall quality" and "This is a very prestigious brand". The third independent variable was bias in favour of local brands. Six items were used, adapted from Shimp and Sharma (1987) and Zhou et al (2010): "Local brands are in general: excellent in overall quality, excellent in design and styling, have a high degree of technological advancement, a high level of quality and price ratio, are more connected to the minds and hearts of local consumers, and Mexicans should not buy foreign products because this hurts the Mexican firms' business and causes unemployment". Finally, to assess brand familiarity three items were used, drawn from Steenkamp et al. (2003): "I am very knowledgeable about this brand", "Most people have heard about this brand" and "I have seen many advertisements about this brand in magazines, radio and TV".

Multiple items were used to measure each of the factors with a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree') aligned with previous research in this field (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

2.3.2.4 Sample

Following Sekaran's (1983) suggestions for establishing sample comparability, a matched representative sample was used. Based on the population of Mexico, and using statistics supplied by the National Institute of Geography and Statistics (INEGI, in Spanish) through the national population census of 2010 (INEGI, 2010),

segments were determined by age, as shown in Table 7. For practicality in the implementation of the survey, groups were age-segmented in 15-year increments.

The matched sample was initially intended to be administered to 1,000 respondents. However, the segment spanning 0-14 years of age was ultimately not considered in the study, given that their purchasing capacity is not relevant (Ming-Sung et al., 2007) and given the focus of this research work. Since this segment represents 30% of the total Mexican population, 700 questionnaires were actually used. Finally, the survey collected 679 responses, as can be seen in Table 7.

Table 7: Age of the sample vs. national population				
Age segment	National population	% vs total	Matched sample	Final sample
0 -14	32,515,796	29	Not eligible	Not eligible
15-29	29,706,560	27	270	294
30-44	23,773,011	21	210	223
45 and above	24,943,765	22	220	162
Not specified	1,397,406	1	N/A	N/A
Total	**112,336,538**	**100**	**700**	**679**
Source: INEGI. Population and Household Census, 2010 (INEGI, 2010).				

The gender of the sample versus the national population is shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Gender of sample vs. national population				
Gender	National population	%	Final sample	%
Female	57,481,307	51	358	53
Male	54,855,231	49	321	47
Total	112,336,538	100	679	100
Source: INEGI. Population and Household Census, 2010 (INEGI, 2010).				

In line with other emerging economies, the younger population in Mexico represents 56% of the total population (INEGI, 2010). It is therefore vital for international firms to understand young people's brand perceptions and

evaluations in order to successfully target this segment (O'Cass and Lim, 2002; Kacprzak and Dziewanowska, 2015), particularly as young consumers may prefer global brands for their socialising effects (Strizhakova, 2008; Kacprzak and Dziewanowska, 2015).

With the objective of understanding if the factors analysed relate to local brand purchase likelihood and whether these effects also apply to the young adult segment, an extended survey with a target of 500 questionnaires in 15-30 age-group segment was also applied, with a final response of 437 questionnaires received. This sample data was built using the 294 responses already received from this segment from the match sample and 437 additional responses.

As a result of this, two sets of samples were obtained, one which included 679 older respondents and a second sample which included 731 younger respondents.

The survey questionnaire was administered to the two sets of aforementioned samples. The data obtained was analysed using statistical techniques (factor analysis, Cronbach alpha test) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). A factor analysis for the multiple-item variables was conducted along with Cronbach alpha tests to verify the validity of the factors. To test the hypotheses a Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis using AMOS 21 software was conducted to validate the relationship between the independent variables: perceived brand localness, brand quality and prestige, bias in favour of local brands, brand familiarity and local brand purchase likelihood.

2.3.3 Results

As shown in Table 9, in the two sets of samples the factors used for the survey show Cronbach alpha values higher than 0.7, KMO values superior to 0.5 and Bartlett's sphericity test significant at 99%, which validates the measures used in the resulting factors for the tests of the hypotheses.

Table 9: Cronbach alpha and factor analysis results						
Factor	Cronbach alpha	Number of factors	% of variance	KMO	Bartlett sphericity test (χ^2)	Sig.
Brand purchase likelihood	.936	1	93.981	.500	1005.306	.000
Perceived brand localness	.765	1	68.088	.692	520.444	.000
Brand quality and prestige	.880	1	89.300	.500	650.677	.000
Bias in favor of local brands	.843	1	58.206	.834	1890.346	.000
Brand familiarity	.720	1	64.307	.636	440.010	.000
Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis. Source: Self-devised						

2.3.3.1 Test of hypotheses

A SEM process was conducted for the matched sample (679 data) and for the younger 15-29 segment sample (731 data). Results of the Goodness-of-Fit Indicators for the model tested are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Goodness-of-Fit Indicators for the tested model		
	Matched sample	Younger segment sample
GFI (Goodness of Fit Index)	0.96	0.97
RMR (Root Mean Square Residual)	0.098	0.064

AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index)	0.94	0.96
χ2NORM (Chi Square Normalized)	1.94	1.61
Source: Self-devised		

All of the Goodness-of-Fit Indicators for the Tested Model meet the established criteria. Table 11 shows the standardized paths and significance of factors for matched and younger segment samples.

Table 11: Standardised paths and significance of factors for matched and younger segment samples												
Regression Weights:												
Matched sample							**Younger segment sample**					
			Estimate	**S.E.**	**C.R.**	**P**				**Estimate**	**S.E.**	**C.R.**	**P**
LBPL	<---	PBL	.057	.056	1.022	N.S	LBPL	<---	PBL	.196	.047	4.196	***
LBPL	<---	BQP	.411	.095	4.326	***	LBPL	<---	BQP	.162	.037	4.361	***
LBPL	<---	BFLB	.226	.058	3.926	***	LBPL	<---	BFLB	.231	.039	5.850	***
LBPL	<---	BF	.109	.061	1.793	*	LBPL	<---	BF	.331	.052	6.376	***
Source: author's own Correlations are statistically significant at : *** = .01; ** =.05, * =.10 / N.S. = not significant												

As shown in Table 11, results of the SEM analysis for the matched sample suggest that for H1, PBL and the brand purchase likelihood are not positively related, given that the P Label is not statistically significant and showing that in general consumers do not give a strong weight to this factor for purchase decision-making.

For H2, brand quality and prestige is positively related to brand purchase likelihood, confirming that for consumers in emerging markets this factor is relevant for leading local brands (Kapferer, 1997; Akram et al., 2011; Halkias et al., 2016). For H3, bias in favour of local brands is also positively related to brand purchase likelihood, confirming the attraction of consumers in emerging markets to the

distinctiveness of brands from their own country (Ger, 1999; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010; Halkias et al., 2016).

Finally for H4, brand familiarity is also positively related to brand purchase likelihood since it was significant at 90%, confirming that it plays an important role in consumer purchase-decision in emerging markets (Batra et al., 2000; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010; Özsomer, 2012).

Interestingly, results of the SEM analysis for the younger segment sample also shown in Table 11, suggest that for H1, PBL and brand purchase likelihood is positively related. Given that now the P label is statistically significant; this might be explained by the fact that in emerging markets the glocalness identity (preference for both global and local brands) of young consumers is stronger (Zambuni, 1993; Strizhakova, 2008; Kacprzak and Dziewanowska, 2015), as is a possible culturally-stronger proximity to these brands (Belk, 2000; Kapferer, 2002; Kacprzak and Dziewanowska, 2015) vs. the other consumer segments. In addition, H2, H3 and H4 were also confirmed in the matched sample, therefore, brand quality and prestige, bias in favour of local brands and brand familiarity are positively related to brand purchase likelihood among young consumers, as discussed in the matched sample. Figure 3 shows the proposed model resulting from the structural equation modelling analysis.

Figure 3: Proposed model derived from Structural Equation Modelling
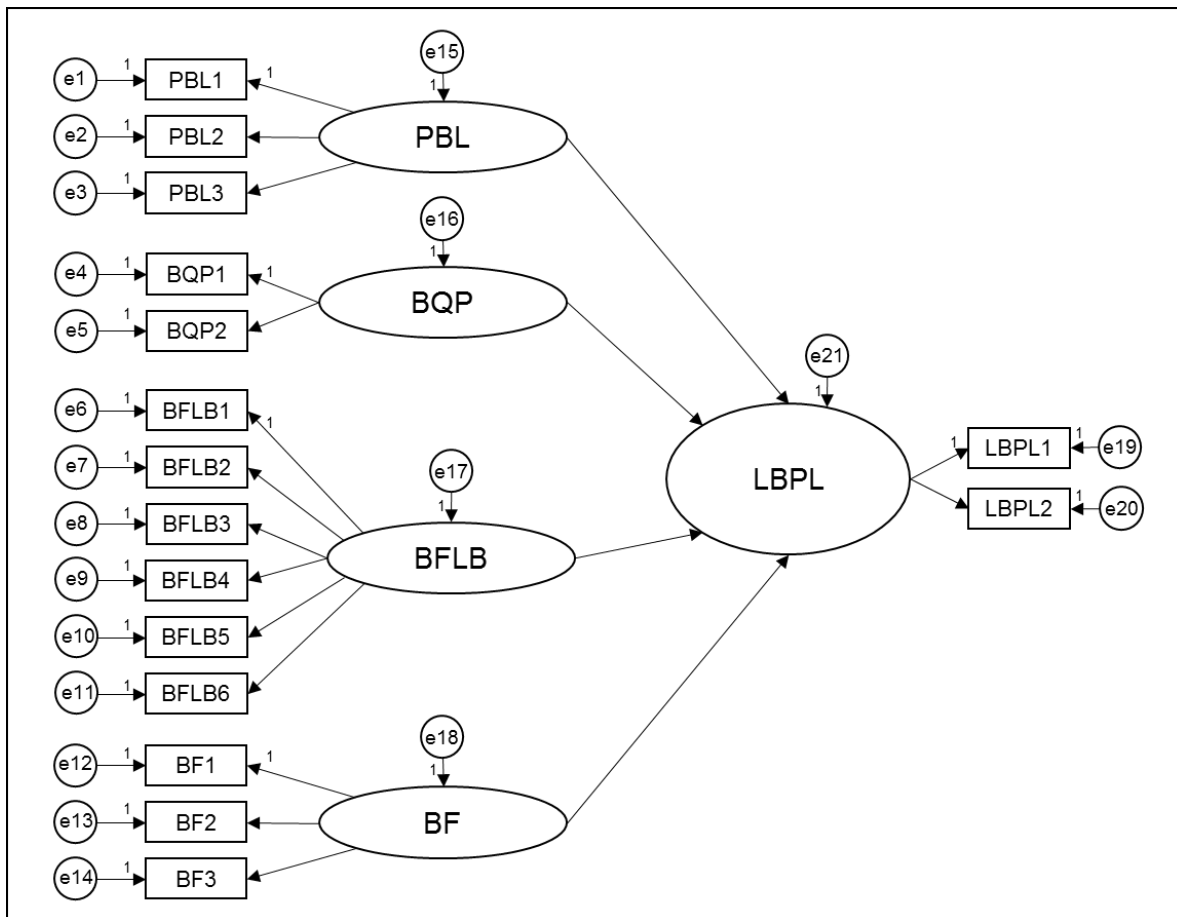
Source: Self-devised

2.3.4 Conclusions, managerial implications and future research directions.

2.3.4.1 Conclusions

This study contributes to the knowledge of consumer preference for local brands in EMs; the literature does not deliver similar works on the subject focused on EMs. The key contribution of this study is to determine that, for local brands, perceived quality and prestige (BQP), bias in favour of local brands (BFLB) and brand familiarity (BF) are factors positively related with brand purchase likelihood.

For younger consumers, an additional factor was confirmed to be relevant; perceived brand localness (PBL), suggesting that for younger generations, probably due to their stronger glocal attitude and cultural proximity, PBL is relevant (Zambuni, 1993; Kapferer, 2002; Strizhakova, 2008; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Kacprzak and Dziewanowska, 2015). The other three elements, BQP, BFLB, BF, might increase their importance among those consumers who, with time and experience, might have greater exposure to both global and local brands (Belk, 2000; Halkias et al., 2016) and thus regard them differently (Ming-Sung et al., 2007).

This study also contributes to understanding how local brands may use these factors to build strategies for success while simultaneously facing the entry of global brands into their markets.

2.3.4.2 Implications for local brand managers

Local brand managers can build marketing strategies based on these factors that enhance local brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets by local consumers.

They can use the three factors of brand quality and prestige, bias in favour of local brands and brand familiarity in their marketing strategies to counteract the customisation-adaptation efforts of foreign brands into local markets (Schmid and Kotulla, 2011; Kraus et al., 2015; Ansah, 2016). Local brand managers can use also these three factors to capitalise on the distinctiveness of their local brand and underline the characteristics and benefits that better meet local cultural

consumption needs and wants, thus building a stronger connection with consumers (Zambuni, 1993; Ger, 1999; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Xie et al., 2015; Halkias et al., 2016). Additionally they can apply these factors to take advantage of consumer familiarity with the local brand (Zhou et al., 2010); since brand familiarity is based on consumer brand knowledge, managers may develop stronger communication and positioning efforts to develop close and more intense connections while providing additional knowledge of the local brands to target consumers. Based on its brand familiarity, the Herdez food company developed a slogan for the Mexican market that has endured the test of time; *with confidence….Herdez* (Herdez, 2015), and brand managers may, additionally, endeavour to build local brand connections with consumers while they are still young.

Local food brand managers may develop positioning strategies with target consumers by focusing on building a stronger brand quality and prestige effect. This could be translated by consumers into a perception of higher value through emphasising the unique sources of brand equity (Kapferer, 2002; Halkias et al., 2016).

For local brands going global, effective communication with consumers in the foreign market is suggested (Özsomer, 2012). This can be achieved by enhancing brand personality and cultural background via positioning these brands as "cultural brands" (Guzmán and Paswan, 2009; Chailan and Ille, 2015).

With younger consumers, local brand managers can use the fourth factor previously identified to enhance the brands' local origin identity (Zhou et al., 2010; Kacprzak and Dziewanowska, 2015). By emphasising their local positioning they can build a stronger local brand role within the glocal purchase behaviour phenomenon (Strizhakova, 2008; Xie et al., 2015), and in combination with the other three factors, as previously suggested, build strategies to create a stronger brand equity among younger consumers.

2.3.4.3 Limitations and future research directions

One of the limitations of this work is that it was only conducted in Mexico; a wider study in other emerging markets in Latin America or worldwide is suggested to validate generalisation of the results (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

This study only included four brands in different consumer product categories; a wider study including a larger number of brands and product categories is also suggested (Özsomer, 2012).

Further analysis would also be useful in order to validate the role of PBL in the younger consumer segments in other emerging markets (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

2.4 STUDY 2: Success factors for local clothing brands in emerging markets

Study 2 analyses some key factors that may influence the success of local clothing brands among consumers in emerging markets.

As mentioned in Study 1, the Consumer Packaged Goods industry (CPGs) markets items that are frequently purchased, quickly used up and constantly replaced by consumers. Clothing is one of the product categories included in CPG (INVESTOPEDIA, 2015) and one of the most important industries in the world, valued at approximately $8 trillion USD (Hirose et al., 2015). In Mexico, the value of the clothing category in 2014 was $380.5 MXN billion (Euromonitor, May,2015); this category includes also footwear and sportswear. Additionally, in the academic field the relevance of this category is evidenced by the fact that consumer packaged goods (CPGs) have been a major focus of empirical research in marketing (Bronnenberg et al., 2007).

Study 2 focuses on local clothing brands, since clothing brands by their nature provide research opportunities for analysing factors additional to those seen in Study 1 with local food brands. Local food brands, by their nature, allowed us to research antecedents such as perceived brand localness, quality and prestige, brand familiarity and bias in favour of local brands.

The extant literature evidences that clothing brands have a functional use as well as a communication function. Clothing indicates something about the individuals wearing it and there is a relation between product image and self-image (Lessig

and Park, 1978; Swartz, 1983; Cova and Cova, 2014). In addition, consumers may wear clothing brands which are used by their individual reference groups (Escalas and Bettman, 2005; Thompson et al., 2013; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015). Clothing brands therefore satisfy a wide variety of consumer needs and desires, ranging from protection against environmental and weather conditions, to self-expression, lifestyle and social status acquisition (Phau and Ong, 2007; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015).

Clothing is a product category with an extensive set of brand options, it generally has a short purchase cycle and switching is highly frequent (Michaelidou and Dibb, 2009; Naderi, 2013). Therefore, the objective of this research is to analyse some relevant factors that could be related to the purchase likelihood of local clothing brands.

Study 2 is organised as follows: section 1 contains the proposed hypotheses and our theoretical model. In section 2 we discuss the survey and methodology applied. Empirical results are presented in section 3. Finally, conclusions, managerial implications, limitations and future research directions are discussed in section 4.

2.4.1 Proposed model and hypothesis

Our motivation for developing our proposed model was to use the factors identified, discussed, and found relevant in the research work by Batra et al (2000) to also test them in a more modern context in an Emerging Market. Additionally these factors are used in relevant research works found in the literature in relation with

the object of study (Zhou et al., 2010; Baek et al., 2010; Özsomer, 2012; Zhu and Chang, 2015).

2.4.1.1 Brand Attitude

Brand attitude is defined as the way a person thinks and feels about a brand (Boyd Jr et al., 1972). Literature on branding suggests that brand attitude influences consumer evaluations of the brand (Aaker and Keller, 1990; Spears and Singh, 2004; Zhang and Kim, 2013; Ahmed and Rouf, 2015) and that it is also one of the key components of consumer brand equity (Lane and Jacobson, 1995; Halkias et al., 2016). This is the value of a brand based on consumer attitudes about positive brand characteristics and the benefits of brand use (AMA, 2014b).

Understanding consumer attitudes towards products and brands has been an important subject in the literature; several works have analysed how other factors such as perceived localness or foreignness (Batra et al., 2000; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016), country image (Saran and Gupta, 2012) and the attitude toward global and local products (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010; Halkias et al., 2016) might influence the attitude of consumers towards a brand and thus influence purchase likelihood.

Consumers in emerging markets have preferences for both global and local products (Belk, 2000; Özsomer, 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016). Consumer preference for local brands is based on the strong connections they have with them (Zambuni, 1993; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor

and Okazaki, 2015), and local culture still plays a critical role in impacting consumer behaviour (Samli, 1995; Liu et al., 2014; Xie et al., 2015); this might result in a better attitude towards local brands.

Local brands can achieve competitive success by effectively utilising the factors mentioned above (Ger, 1999; Liu et al., 2014; Xie et al., 2015). The distinctive perceived values of local brands are assets that firms may use to build competitive advantages (Swoboda et al., 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015) and which may translate into a positive consumer attitude towards the brand.

Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Brand attitude is positively associated with local brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

2.4.1.2 Brand Image

Brand image is defined as the perception of a brand in the minds of consumers (AMA, 2014a) and as "perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in memory" (Keller, 1993, p.3). Positive brand information has a positive effect on consumer disposition to purchase (Dodds et al., 1991; Wang and Tsai, 2014), and conveying a positive brand image to target consumers is essential in marketing strategy (Park et al., 1986; Wang and Tsai, 2014).

The relevance of the relationship of brand image and consumer purchase intention is an important subject of research, as evidenced by the different works found in

the literature. Such studies cover the following: investor purchase intentions in the financial field (Wang and Tsai, 2014), purchase intention for cosmetic products (Eze et al., 2012), purchase intention for foreign products (Batra et al., 2000), the impact of brand equity and its influence on purchase intentions in services (Chang and Liu, 2009).

There are few works in which this relationship has been analysed in emerging markets. Some examples of those which do exist are a study conducted in Iran (Fakharmanesh and Miyandehi, 2013), another in Malaysia (Eze et al., 2012) and a third in Taiwan (Wang and Tsai, 2014). All these studies suggest that there is a need for this relationship to be analysed a) in a different and/or wider set of brand categories and b) in other developing countries and c) with larger sets of data. Additionally, the literature does not provide studies in which this relationship has been analysed in developing markets in Latin America. Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

> H2: Brand image is positively associated with local brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

2.4.1.3 Brand as social signalling value

The literature suggests that another important factor is the role of brands as signals in the minds of consumers. A signal must enable signallers to differentiate it from the rest (Karasek III and Bryant, 2012; Taj, 2016). The Signalling Theory introduced by Spence (1973) is a theoretical foundation for many streams of

research, for example psychology and marketing. When related with branding, brand signalling theory explains consumer brand preference based on the signals that brands transmit to them (Wallin, 2006; Atkinson and Rosenthal, 2014). A brand might transmit several signals such as name, advertising and price, among others (Dawar, 1998). The role of brands as a signal of social identification has been also a subject of research interest since many eventually become signals of social status (Wang and Wallendorf, 2006; Han et al., 2010). The literature does not provide evidence of works in which this relationship has been analysed in developing markets in Latin America. Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

> *H3: The brand as a social signalling value is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood.*

2.4.1.4 Susceptibility to normative influence

Susceptibility to normative influence (SNI) is a construct that evolved from the need to understand those consumers looking for approval from others or seeking to gain status. Some consumers buy brands due to the benefits of the status the brands provide to them: self-image and approval from their reference groups. "Reference groups are groups used as standards for self-appraisal or as sources of personal norms and attitudes" (Batra et al., 2000, p.88).

Normative Influence was defined as "the tendency to conform to the expectations of others" (Burnkrant and Cousineau, 1975, p.207). Additionally, the susceptibility to interpersonal influence concept was defined as "the need to identify or enhance

one's image with significant others through the acquisition and use of products and brands" (Bearden et al., 1989, p.474). Bearden et al. (1989), developed a scale to measure susceptibility to interpersonal influence containing two dimensions: normative (with utilitarian and value expressive measures) and informational (choosing products by gathering information from others).

The literature evidences that researchers have focused on the normative dimension due to its stronger correlations and measures of behaviour (Martin et al., 2008; Orth and Kahle, 2008) also known as susceptibility to normative influence (SNI). As previously mentioned, consumers in emerging markets buy combinations of both global and local brands (Belk, 2000; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016), thus this choice is more critical in these markets (Akram et al., 2011; Roberts et al., 2015). In the review of literature this factor has been analysed as a key mediator of wine brand choice (Orth and Kahle, 2008), as a moderator of the effect of perceived foreignness of a brand's origin on brand attitudes (Batra et al., 2000) and in relation to consumer values as a precursor to SNI (Batra et al., 2001). The literature does not provide evidence that the relationship between susceptibility to normative influence and purchase likelihood has been empirically analysed, thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4: Susceptibility to normative influence is positively associated with local brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

2.4.1.5 Bias in favour of local brands

The literature suggests that another important factor is consumer prejudice/ inclination or favouritism (bias) in favour of local brands. Consumer bias in favour of local brands focuses on the interest of target consumers in the uniqueness of brands from their own country (Ger, 1999; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Halkias et al., 2016). Since local cultural product alternatives are better aligned to local quality needs (Ger, 1999; Verlegh, 2007; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015), consumer bias in favour of local brands may affect the purchase likelihood of foreign vs. local products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987; Netemeyer et al., 1991; Halkias et al., 2016). Consumers may return to local products as their product and brand knowledge grow (Arnould, 1989). Additionally consumer ethnocentrism (CET), defined as "the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products" (Shimp and Sharma, 1987, p. 280), suggests that, in highly ethnocentric consumers, there is a bias in favour of local products.

Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5: Bias in favour of local brands is positively associated with local brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

2.4.1.6 Proposed model

The proposed model that contains these hypotheses and their relations is presented in Figure 4; it presents brand purchase likelihood as dependent variable and brand attitude, brand image, brand as social signalling value, susceptibility to normative influence and bias in favour of local brands as independent variables.

This model is constructed by ourselves using the contributions from the brand purchase likelihood model (Steenkamp et al., 2003), and the multi-level model of brand value (Zhou et al., 2010).

Figure 4: proposed model
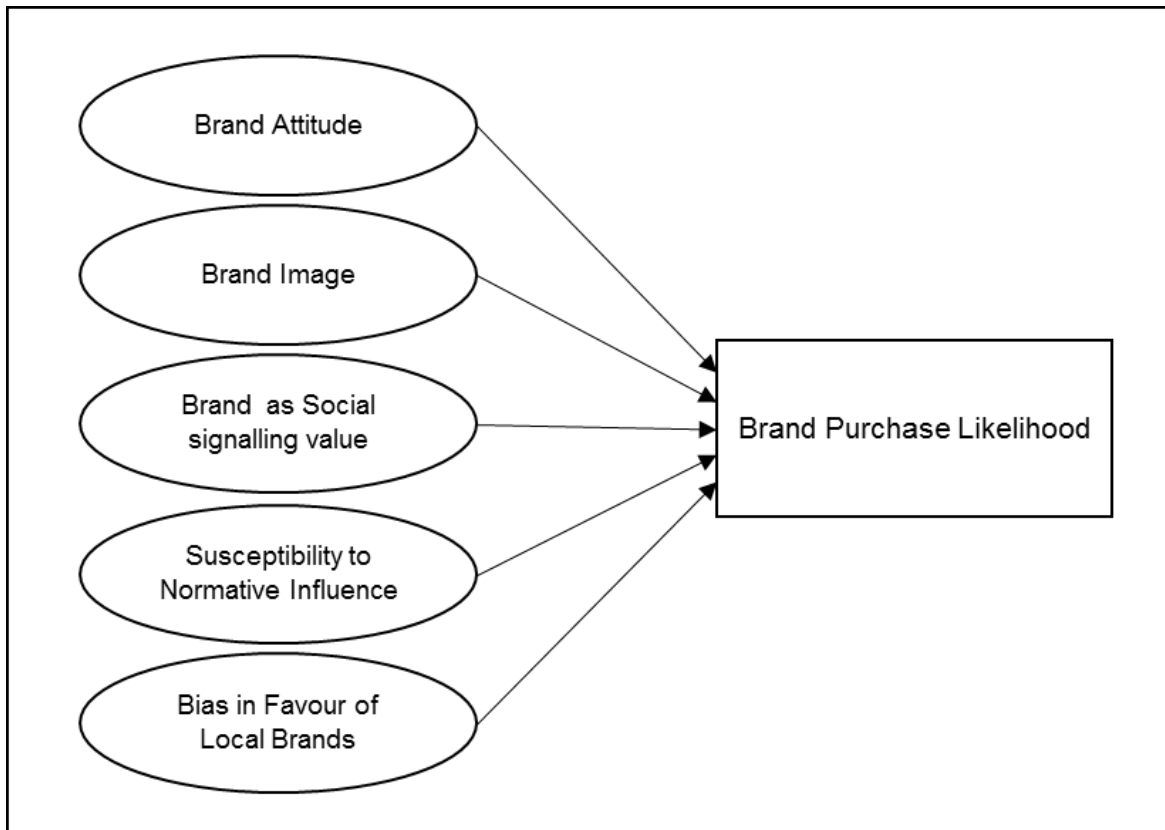
Source: author's own

2.4.2 Methodology

2.4.2.1 Selection of product categories and brands for the survey

Four leading local clothing brands were selected based on their leading market share position (Oficina Económica y Comercial de la Embajada de España, Junio, 2010; Euromonitor, Julio, 2012; Squalo, 2012). These sets of product categories

were created to provide variance across constructs of interest (Batra et al., 2000). Interviews were conducted with a selected group of consumers representing the sample to ensure that the selected products and brands were familiar to the respondents.

The four brands chosen were:

Andrea: founded in 1973, it is the leading local footwear brand in Mexico with a 10.7% market share (Euromonitor, Julio, 2012). After 38 years it has consolidated its position as the leading brand sold by catalogue and the internet and has 130 stores in Mexico. Its product lines include: closed shoes (for all occasions), comfort shoes, the men´s line Ferrato, sandals, shoes for teens, and for kids and babies. Andrea has expanded internationally and has 14 stores in U.S.A. (Andrea, 2012).

Zapatos Flexi: founded in 1935, it is the second leading local brand with a 9.8% market share in the footwear brand category (Euromonitor, Julio, 2012). Flexi differentiates itself by concentrating on designs and materials used to combine comfort with quality. Flexi has 253 stores in Mexico, and offers a variety of product lines for all occasions for men, women and children. It has expanded internationally to U.S.A., Spain, Costa Rica and Guatemala (Flexi, 2013).

Atlética: a well-known local sportswear brand that sponsors several well-known professional soccer teams in Mexico (Oficina Económica y Comercial de la Embajada de España, Junio, 2010). It offers sports clothing for men, women, and children at competitive prices, with excellent quality and unique designs. Its product

categories include: official soccer team uniforms, exercise clothing and a wide variety of sports accessories. Atlética has also expanded to the U.S.A (Atletica, 2014).

Squalo: a local beachwear brand that was included because of its growing popularity among youngsters in Mexico, positioned in surf and beach wear and promoting a casual free lifestyle targeted at youngsters. The company vision is to be the Mexican brand recognised internationally for its lifestyle proposal and content based on culture and tradition. Its product line includes surf and beach wear, accessories and casual wear for men and women (Squalo, 2012).

These sets of product categories were created to provide variance across constructs of interest (Batra et al., 2000).To ensure that the selected products and brands were familiar to the respondents, interviews were conducted with a selected group of consumers representing the sample.

2.4.2.2 The instrument

The survey questionnaire was developed with items drawn from extant literature; the sources are detailed in the 'measures' section. A pre-test was conducted with a small group of target respondents to ensure both readability and understanding of the different questions.

The questionnaire survey was administered to a representative matched sample via face-to-face personal interviews. Respondents completed the questionnaire

which included questions on age and gender and were asked to evaluate each brand on brand attitude, brand image, brand as social signalling value, susceptibility to normative influence and bias in favour of local brands, as well as on brand purchase likelihood. Data was collected from respondents, one brand per product category. Due to time limitations, product categories were rotated across questionnaires (Batra et al., 2000).

2.4.2.3 Measures

Measures for this study were drawn or adapted from existing literature. The dependent variable is brand purchase likelihood, drawn from Dodds, Monroe, & Grewal (1991); two items were used: "I would buy it" and "I would certainly buy it". Five independent variables were analysed. First, "brand attitude" was assessed with two items drawn from Batra et al. (2000): "I like this brand" and "I have a positive opinion of it". Second, "brand image" was assessed with two items drawn from Batra el al. (2000): "This brand has a very good image" and "This brand really makes me look good in front of my friends". The third independent variable "brand as social signalling value" was assessed with two items drawn from Zhou et al (2010) "This brand would help me feel trendy/up-to-date" and "I think it is particularly appropriate to use this brand in social contexts". Fourth, "susceptibility to normative influence" was assessed with two items drawn from Batra et al (2000): "If I want to be like someone, I often try to buy the same brands they buy" and "I admire the lifestyle of people who live in more economically developed countries, such as the United States and Western Europe". Finally, "bias in favor of local

brands" was assessed with six items adapted from Steenkamp (2003) and Batra, (2000): "Local brands are in general": "Excellent in overall quality", "Excellent in design and styling", "High degree of technological advancement", "High level of quality and price ratio", "More connected to the minds and hearts of local consumers", and "Mexicans should not buy foreign products because this hurts Mexican companies and causes unemployment".

Multiple items were used to measure each of the factors with a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree') aligned with previous research on this field (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

2.4.2.4 Sample

Following Sekaran's (1983) suggestions for achieving sample comparability, a matched representative sample was used. Based on the population of Mexico according to statistics supplied by the National Institute of Geography and Statistics (INEGI in Spanish) from the national population census of 2010 (INEGI, 2010), segments were determined by age, as shown in table 12. The segmentation was made in blocks of 15 years for practicality in survey implementation.

The matched sample was initially intended to be administered to 1,000 respondents, however the segment covering the 0-14 age group was not ultimately considered in the study, given that their purchasing capacity is not relevant (Ming-Sung et al., 2007). Since this segment represents 30% of the total Mexican population, the final target of the responses was determined to be 700

questionnaires. Finally, the survey collected 679 responses, as can be seen in Table 12.

Table 12: Age of sample vs. national population				
Age segment	National population	% vs total	Matched sample	Final sample
0 -14	32,515,796	29	Not eligible	Not eligible
15-29	29,706,560	27	270	294
30-44	23,773,011	21	210	223
45 and above	24,943,765	22	220	162
Not specified	1,397,406	1	N/A	N/A
Total	**112,336,538**	**100**	**700**	**679**
Source: INEGI. Population and Household Census 2010. (INEGI, 2010) Self-devised.				

Table 13 presents the percentages per gender of the matched sample versus the national population.

Table 13: Gender of sample vs. national population				
Gender	National population	%	Final sample	%
Female	57,481,307	51	358	53
Male	54,855,231	49	321	47
Total	112,336,538	100	679	100
Source: INEGI. Population and Household Census, 2010. (INEGI, 2010). Self-devised.				

Two statistical techniques were used; factor analysis and structural equation modelling (SEM). A factor analysis (FA) for the multiple-item variables was conducted along with Cronbach's alpha to test the validity of the factors.

2.4.3 Results

As shown in Table 14, the factors used for the survey show Cronbach alpha values greater than 0.7, KMO values superior to 0.5 and Bartlett's sphericity test significant at 99%, which validates the measures used in the resulting factors for

the tests of the hypotheses. Based on this, the building of the factors used in the model with the items of the questionnaire is validated. The results of this analysis comply with the established parameters for the reliability of the model.

Table 14: Cronbach alpha and factor analysis results						
Factor	Cronbach's alpha	Number of factors	% of variance	KMO	Bartlett's sphericity test (χ^2)	Sig.
Brand Attitude	.922	1	92.730	.500	886.580	.000
Brand Image	.851	1	87.219	.500	546.397	.000
Brand as social signalling value	.863	1	87.955	.500	580.840	.000
Susceptibility to normative influence	.861	1	87.786	.500	572.715	.000
Bias in favor of local brands	.923	1	72.489	.887	2991.853	.000
Brand purchase likelihood	.983	1	98.353	.500	1851,420	.000
Factor analysis Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Source: Self-devised						

To test the hypotheses a SEM analysis using AMOS 21 software was conducted to validate the relationship between brand purchase likelihood and brand attitude, brand image, brand as a social signalling value, susceptibility to normative influence and bias in favour of local brands.

2.4.3.1 Test of hypotheses

Table 15 shows the Goodness-of-fit Indicators for the tested model which indicate a well-fitting model (Hooper et al., 2008). The resulting model is presented in Figure 5.

Table 15: Goodness-of-Fit Indicators for the tested model	
GFI (Goodness-of-fit Index)	**0.93**
RMR (Root Mean Square Residual)	**0.097**
AGFI (Adjusted Goodness-of-fit Index)	**0.91**
χ2NORM (Chi Square Normalized)	**4.36**
Source: Self-devised.	

Results of the SEM analysis shown in Table 16 suggest that all five factors (Brand Attitude (BA), Brand Image (BI), Bias in favour of local Brands (BFLB), Susceptibility to Normative Influence (SNI) and Brand as Social Signalling Value (BSSV)) are positively related with Local Brand Purchase Likelihood (LBPL), given that all factors were statistically significant.

Table 16: Standardised paths and significance of factors						
Regression Weights:						
			Estimate	**S.E.**	**C.R.**	**p**
LBPL	<---	**BA**	.203	.021	9.649	***
LBPL	<---	**BI**	.314	.026	12.253	***
LBPL	<---	**BFLB**	.182	.029	6.178	***
LBPL	<---	**SNI**	.331	.039	8.458	***
LBPL	<---	**BSSV**	.236	.029	8.152	***
Source: Self-devised. Correlations are statistically significant at : *** = .01; ** =.05, * =.10 / N.S. = not significant						

The results of the SEM analysis suggest that for H1, brand attitude is positively related to brand purchase likelihood, confirming that for consumers in emerging markets this factor is relevant for local clothing brands. For H2, brand image is positively related to the brand purchase likelihood, confirming that for consumers in emerging markets this factor is also relevant for local clothing brands. For H3,

brand as social signalling value is positively related to brand purchase likelihood, confirming that for consumers in emerging markets this factor is relevant for local clothing brands. For H4, susceptibility to normative influence is positively related to brand purchase likelihood, confirming that for consumers in emerging markets this is a relevant factor. And finally for H5, bias in favour of local brands is positively related to brand purchase likelihood, confirming that for consumers in emerging markets this is also relevant for local clothing brands.

Figure 5: Proposed model for Structural Equation Modelling.
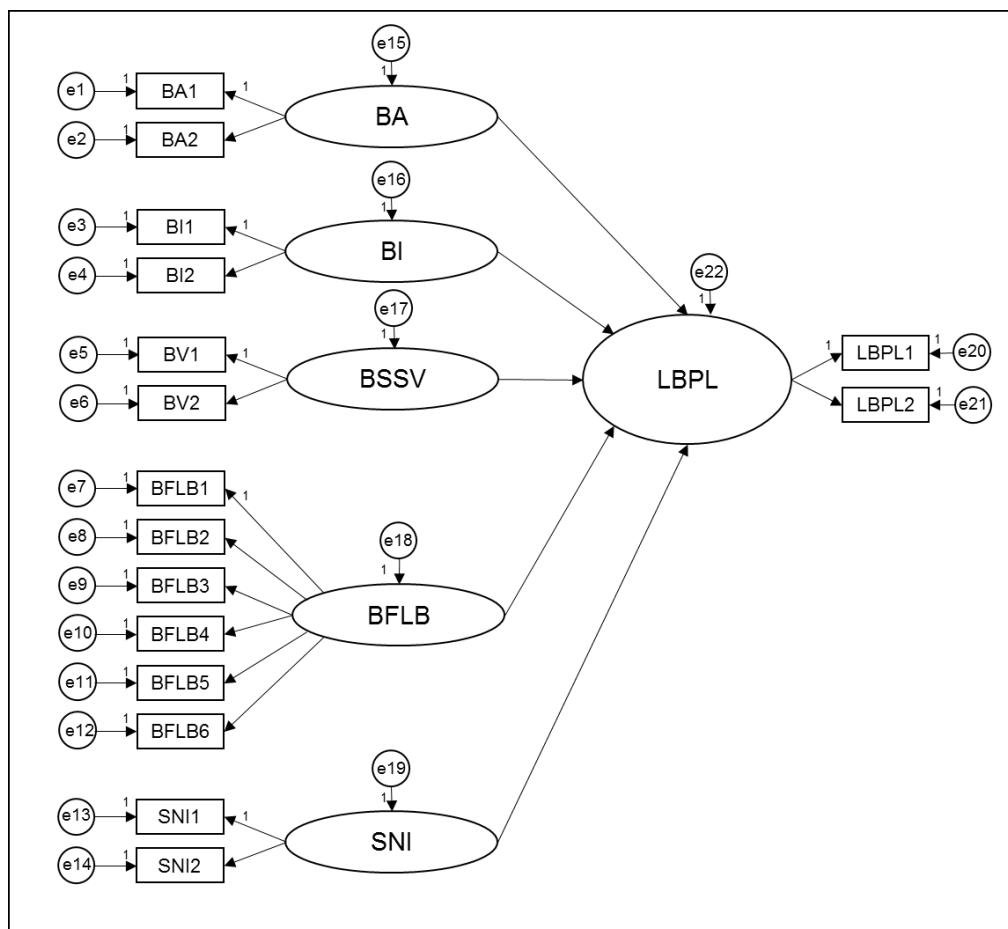
Source: author's own

2.4.4. Conclusions

This study contributes to the knowledge of consumer preference for local brands in EMs; the literature does not deliver similar works focused on local clothing brands in EMs. The key contribution of this study is to determine that for local clothing brands: brand attitude, brand image, brand as social signalling value, susceptibility to normative influence and bias in favour of local brands are factors positively related with local brand purchase likelihood. This contributes also to understanding how local brands may use these factors to build strategies for success while facing the entry of global brands into these markets.

Our results suggest that local clothing brands in emerging markets may benefit from focusing on building a positive brand attitude (Aaker and Keller, 1990; Halkias et al., 2016) since this will enhance the local brand purchase likelihood among consumers and thus capitalise on the strong cultural connections (Zambuni, 1993; Samli, 1995; Cova and Cova, 2014; Xie et al., 2015; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015). Additionally local clothing brands may also benefit from focusing on building a positive brand image which will also enhance the local brand purchase likelihood (Dodds et al., 1991; Batra et al., 2000; Eze et al., 2012; Wang and Tsai, 2014). Local clothing brands may focus also on a positioning strategy of social value signalling since consumers who value the social significance of local clothing brands might purchase them in order to enhance their social classification or affiliation in desired social circles (Wallin, 2006; Khare, 2014). This is also related to those consumers susceptible to normative influence who may buy local clothing

brands when looking to gain approval or status from others (Burnkrant and Cousineau, 1975; Batra et al., 2000; Khare, 2014). Local clothing brands may also capitalise on consumer bias which favours local brands and who are attracted by the distinctiveness of the brands from their own country (Ger, 1999; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010; Halkias et al., 2016).

2.4.4.1 Implications for local brand managers

Clothing is a product category with a distinctive characteristic; it is used by consumers to express themselves. It integrates individual self-expression, interests and consumption patterns (Kumar et al., 2009; Khare, 2014; Halkias et al., 2016) and the consumers of clothing brands are distributed across a widespread variety of fashions and behaviours (O'Cass, 2004; Nenni et al., 2013). Local clothing brand managers usually face the challenge of making their brands attractive, distinctive and competitive vs. their global counterparts. Therefore, these antecedents that enhance local clothing brand purchase likelihood among local consumers in emerging markets should be critical when developing strategies that enable local clothing brands to successfully face their competitors.

The literature suggests that fashion clothing preference varies across gender and age, with women and younger adults/ teenagers more concerned with their clothing (O'Cass, 2004; Afonso Vieira, 2009; Khare, 2014). Local clothing brand managers

can target their marketing efforts to build a strong local identity and capitalise on unique characteristics better aligned with local culture (perceived brand localness was positively related with local brand purchase likelihood among younger consumers in study 1) and by doing so create a highly positive brand attitude towards them (Zambuni, 1993; Ger, 1999; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Swoboda et al., 2012; Halkias et al., 2016).

The clothing business is seasonal; local clothing brand managers can also build a stronger local brand image (Park et al., 1986; Dodds et al., 1991; O'Cass and Siahtiri, 2014) by translating clothing trends to their own brand, giving them a "fresh/ trendy image".

The acquisition of status justifies the importance of purchasing products which are visible to others, such as clothes (O'Cass and Siahtiri, 2014). Managers can also focus on developing strategies to make their local clothing brands become a signal of social status, thus promoting the brand among consumers who recognize this benefit and who may purchase the brand to improve their self-image within specific social contexts and to gain the approval of their preferred reference group (Bearden and Etzel, 1982; Khare, 2014).

Local clothing brands may capitalise on their connections with consumers (Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou, 2013) who have a preference (bias) for local brands in order to develop a perception of a higher value equation and thus underline their exclusive characteristics and benefits as important elements making up brand equity (Aaker and Keller, 1990; Lane and Jacobson, 1995; Kapferer, 2002; Halkias et al., 2016).

As well as local food brands, local clothing brands are expanding into the global market, a fact which may be beneficial to the brand if communicated to local consumers (Özsomer, 2012). At the same time, local clothing arriving in new foreign markets may enhance brand character by emphasizing associations with the brand´s cultural background (Guzmán and Paswan, 2009; Chailan and Ille, 2015).

2.4.4.2 Limitations and future research directions

One of the limitations of this work is that it was only carried out in Mexico; a wider study among other emerging markets in Latin America or worldwide is suggested in order to validate generalisation of the results (Steenkamp et al., 2003). This study only included four clothing brands; a wider study including a larger number of brands and product categories is also suggested (Özsomer, 2012).

CHAPTER 3

ESSAY 2

CHAPTER 3

ESSAY 2 - CATEGORISATION OF GLOBAL, GLOCAL AND LOCAL BRANDS: A CONSUMER-PERSPECTIVE METHODOLOGY

Abstract

There is misalignment between how brands are categorised in the literature vs. how consumers actually view them. Most of the works found in branding literature relate to the antecedents of the different typologies of brands (global, local, etc.) are based on categorisations based on objective criteria and academic brand definitions, which have been formally used by academics and company managers or have been founded on qualitative techniques with the aim of compiling information on consumer perceptions. However, consumers do not know these academic definitions and might see brands differently. Antecedents relating to the determination of a specific brand typology should be defined by consumers, who ultimately make the purchase decision. Therefore, the logical way to classify brands would be based on consumer perspectives and not the way in which company managers or academics classify them. Existing research on categorising brands from a consumer perspective is conducted with qualitative techniques using small samples, so the results obtained are difficult to generalise. What is required therefore is a quantitative instrument to assess consumer perceptions of local/global brand categorisation with representative samples. This article relies on the results of empirical research carried out by a survey with Mexican consumers and based on a methodology which follows the suggested attitudinal

categorisation principles of Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) . The results obtained with this methodology provide an accurate categorisation of leading brands into "global", "local", "glocal" and "functional" from a consumer perspective, and show important differences in the categorisation of brands vs. the traditional approaches found in the literature. This research work introduces a new methodology for brand categorisation, and by employing it managers may better define marketing strategies for current brands or for brand re-launch efforts.

3.1 Introduction

Branded products play an important role in the marketing field and company success (Fournier, 1998; Keller, 2003; Holt et al., 2004; Steenkamp, 2014), and are considered essential for business. The commercialisation of brands (whether goods or services) translates into increased sales and profits, market share, customer loyalty, and increased market competitiveness in the market (Steenkamp, 2014), brands have different functions, one of them is to promote the company's variety of offerings facilitating the process of consumers' choice (Veloutsou, 2015) . For these reasons, company strategic focus has concentrated on building strong brands along with a "brand architecture" that may cope with the competitive requirements of multiple markets (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000; Steenkamp, 2014).

The global economic environment helped the market in consumer goods to evolve into a global marketplace, serving millions of consumers worldwide, and global business expansion is still continuing (UnitedNations, 2012;

WorldTradeOrganization, 2012; Tan and Sousa, 2013; UnitedNations, 2014; WorldTradeOrganization, 2014). Due to the spread of globalisation, companies have focused continually on building global brands (Steenkamp, 2014) in order to derive critical competitive advantage based on the expected benefits of global marketing strategy standardisation (Levitt, 1983; Tan and Sousa, 2013), and have targeted consumers with the idea of creating internationally homogenised and cost-efficient recognition among customers (Elinder, 1962; Sorenson and Wiechmann, 1975; Quelch and Hoff, 1986; Alden et al., 1999; Tan and Sousa, 2013). Evidence of this is borne out by the strategies of multinational companies such as Procter & Gamble and Unilever. In spite of the fact that Procter & Gamble already own 25 global leading "billion dollar brands" (P&G, 2012; P&G, 2014; P&G, 2015), in 2015 it announced the sale of approximately 100 brands as part of a plan to reinvigorate growth by re-focusing on larger and more profitable areas (Hammond et al., 2015). Unilever took advantage of this opportunity by acquiring the Camay and Zest brands from P&G as part of its strategy to consolidate its position in the global personal care market (Forbes, 2015).

Brands have evolved to become complex entities, with consumers perceiving individual brand personalities, characteristics and identities. In a globalized multicultural market individuals can have multiple perceptions of the same brand, requiring brand managers to differentiate and position their products distinctly from those of their competitors (Veloutsou, 2008).

Consumers prefer brands positioned around their individual identities (Bhattacharjee et al., 2014), and for this reason brand managers seek to create a close relationship between the feelings of target consumers and the brands they manage (Sela et al., 2012; Chen and Lin, 2015) in order to create a more effective link to target consumer segments.

In spite of the emphasis on global brands, consumers worldwide have the option to select both global and local options. In today's global marketplace, it is important for marketers to understand the dynamics behind the way consumers select either a global or local product (Özsomer, 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Xie et al., 2015; Halkias et al., 2016; van der Lans et al., 2016). Given the importance of emerging markets globally this is especially critical for consumers in those markets, who are exposed to the brand-globalisation efforts of firms. Emerging markets (EMs) represent about 85% of the world's population, they account for almost 75% of global GDP growth and 90% of the world's proven oil reserves (Fidelity, 2013).

To succeed in such an environment it is imperative for firms to understand the reasons behind consumer preference for global or local brands (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Xie et al., 2015; Halkias et al., 2016) First however, a critical step is to ascertain whether consumers view their brand portfolio as truly global or local. This categorisation based on consumer perspectives is critical for the construction of appropriate and well-differentiated marketing and positioning strategies for each brand-type as they capitalise on different factors. For global brands, strategies capitalise on global recognition, superior perceived

quality (Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004; Halkias et al., 2016) and superior value (Steenkamp, 2014). Local brands on the other hand capitalise on the perceived distinctiveness, originality and iconness of local culture, and better satisfy the specific needs and desires of local consumers (Özsomer, 2012; Liu et al., 2014; Xie et al., 2015).

Works found in the branding literature related to the antecedents of the different brand typologies (global, local, etc.) have been rooted in categorisations based either on objective criteria (academic brand definitions or practitioner databases), or approaches which aim to ascertain consumer perceptions of brand categorisation through qualitative techniques, such as focus groups. Such qualitative techniques usually use small samples, and so the results obtained are difficult to generalise.

On the other hand, since consumers do not know these definitions, they might see brands differently. The antecedents leading to the determination of a specific brand typology should be defined by those consumers who make the purchase decision. The logical way to classify brands therefore would be based on consumer perspective, using a method widely available to all researches and managers and one not based on either objective criteria or on qualitative techniques.

The literature evidences that brand categorisation relating to the extent to which consumers can correctly identify a branded product has not been given much attention; there is a clear need to use quantitative methodology to categorise competing brands in the marketplace based on a consumer perspective. Thus,

what is required is a quantitative instrument for assessing consumer perception of the local/global brand categorisation with representative samples.

This research aims to categorise leading competing brands available on the market through an empirical study among consumers in an emerging market. Thus the objectives of this research are twofold:

1. To establish a quantitative methodology that allows an appropriate categorisation of brands based on consumer perspectives.

2. To determine if the conclusions of the brand categorisation using methodology based on consumer opinions coincides or not with the categorisation based on the traditional "objective" approach used in the works found in the literature.

Chapter 3 is organised as follows; drawing upon relevant literature on consumer culture theory, consumer attitudes, and brand management, the theoretical framework and propositions are presented in section 2. In section 3 we discuss the survey and the methodology applied. Empirical results are presented in section 4. Finally, section 5 deals with the conclusions, managerial implications, limitations and future research directions.

3.2 Theoretical framework and research objectives

In this research, brands refer to everything that can be consumed, either "branded goods or services". To understand why consumers have generalised attitudes towards global and local products we rely on consumer culture literature (Arnould

and Thompson, 2005; Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015).

Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) is a distinct body of theoretical knowledge about consumption and marketplace behaviours (Arnould and Thompson, 2005; Thompson et al., 2013; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015), and it focuses on how consumers consume across diverse social contexts (Arnould and Price, 1993; Holt, 1995; Belk et al., 2003; Grayson and Martinec, 2004; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015). People that embrace a culture of consumption seek personal realisation through consumption of products (Tomlinson, 1999; Holt, 2002; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015). Modern consumer culture is strongly influenced by both the "globalisation and "localisation" factors observed in the markets (Tomlinson, 1999; Liu et al., 2014), which resulted in the development of global and local brands.

3.2.1 Globalisation and brands

The consumption of locally-produced products in one's own country has been a natural pattern of consumption, one referred to as Local Consumer Culture (LCC) (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010). The preference of consumers for locally-produced products under the LCC has been a significant globally-influential factor in marketing (Ger, 1999; Özsomer and Altaras, 2008; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015). Consumers find a special value in products strongly connected with their local consumer culture (Strizhakova et al., 2007; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015).

The globalisation of markets has resulted in a new global consumer culture (Ritzer, 2007; Steenkamp, 2014), one which is particularly influential for those consumers who believe in "global citizenship" and desire to be part of the globalized world (Strizhakova, 2008; Halkias et al., 2016). These consumers value the homogenization of the consumption patterns which result from the global strategies of international companies (Alden et al., 1999; Halkias et al., 2016). In this globalised market, consumers constantly face the choice between purchasing global and local brands (Batra et al., 2000; Özsomer, 2012; Swoboda et al., 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015).

The differences in the consumer culture of international markets required companies to make "glocalisation efforts" (Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010; Godey and Lai, 2011; Liu et al., 2014). Glocalisation is defined "as the creation of products or services intended for the global market, but customised to suit the local cultures" (Khondker, 2004, p.15). Therefore consumers now face the choice between three types of brands: global, glocal and local (Strizhakova, 2008; Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010; Liu et al., 2014).

A global brand is "a brand that uses the same name and logo, has awareness, availability, and acceptance in multiple regions of the world, derives at least 5 percent of its sales from outside the home region, and is managed in an internationally coordinated manner" (Steenkamp, 2014, p.7). In general, competitive advantages of global brands come from their standardisation and homogenisation strategies, which result in better economies of scale, global

technology standards, standardised global media, and global segmentation, as well as standard global distribution among global retailers and a perception of superior quality and prestige (Kapferer, 2002; Hofer, 2015).

Local brands are those that exist in one country or in a limited geographical area (Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004; Halkias et al., 2016) or have been developed for and tailor-made to the unique needs and desires of local markets (Özsomer, 2012; Xie et al., 2015). The competitive advantages of local brands come from their perceived brand equity, consumer perception of them as icons of local culture, from better product tailoring to local consumer needs and from social factors such as nationalistic feelings which translate into consumer preference for local brands (Kapferer, 2002; Xie et al., 2015).

Glocal brands are either local brands positioned globally (Godey and Lai, 2011; Patel and Lynch, 2013; Sharma, 2013; Halkias et al., 2016) or brands intended for the global market and tailored to appeal to local cultures (Khondker, 2004; Liu et al., 2014; Xie et al., 2015; Halkias et al., 2016). Glocal brands are the result of a "Glocal marketing strategy" which refers to the idea of "think global, act local", in other words, a well-balanced combination of global and local elements providing a global offer (brand) while taking locally-related issues into account (Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010; Liu et al., 2014). They benefit from a combination of the competitive advantages of both global and local brands, depending on the combination of their marketing strategies and marketing mix.

3.2.2 Consumer attitudes towards global and local brands

An attitude "is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Eagly and Chaiken, 1998, p.269). The literature suggests that entities of interest could be represented by both global and local products and that "products" may refer to anything that can be consumed (Tomlinson, 1999).

Consumers have attitudes toward global and local products which are present in many product categories (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010), as well as individual perceptions of global and local products. Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) is defined as "a perception that can be formed only if consumers believe the brand is marketed in multiple countries and is generally recognised as global in these countries" (Steenkamp et al., 2003, p. 54). Conversely, Perceived Brand Localness (PBL) is consumer perception that the brand is marketed only locally (Batra et al., 2000). The concept of PBL does not focus on achieving a local brand dimension; instead, it focuses on the brand's cultural component, which is also denoted by local consumer culture positioning (Alden et al., 2006).

As a result of market globalisation there has been a re-evaluation by consumers of local products, especially among ethnocentric consumers who oppose global consumption standards (Sharma et al., 1995; De Meulenaer et al., 2015). In contrast, another important consumer segment is concerned about the

obsolescence of local products and is attracted to globally-commercialised products (Riefler et al., 2012).

Based on the local and global distinctions in consumer culture, Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) introduced a new categorisation of attitudes towards local and global products. The authors introduced two basic types of attitudes: Attitude Toward Local Products (ALP) and Attitude Toward Global Products (AGP). ALP exists when consumers have a positive attitude and preference for purchasing buying local products in general (and consequently a negative attitude toward buying global products). AGP exists when consumers have a preference for and positive attitude towards buying global products in general. Consumers have "attitudinal polarities", explaining that a positive attitude toward the one goes together with a negative attitude toward the other. Steenkamp and De Jong (2010), suggested four new categories, resulting from the combinations of positive or negative consumer attitudes towards local and global brands.

Based on the consumer attitudes towards local and global products introduced by Steenkamp and De Jong (2010), we have adapted the 2x2 matrix they suggested which was founded on two basic types of attitudes: Attitude Toward Local Products (ALP) and Attitude Toward Global Products (AGP), and substituted it with Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) and Perceived Brand Localness (PBL). The resulting consumer perceptions about four types of brands and the combination of positive and negative PBG and positive and negative PBL results is shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Combinations of Perceived Brand Globalness and Perceived Brand Localness.
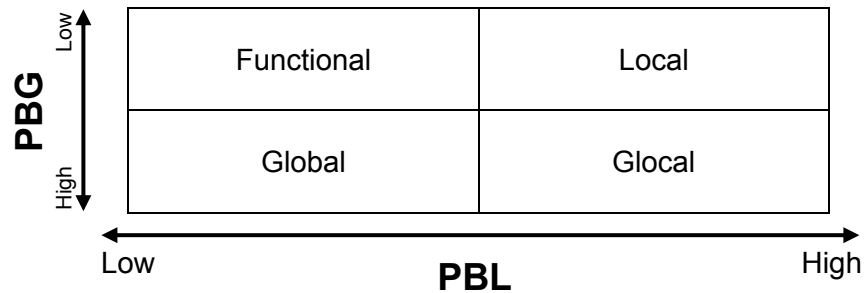
Source: Adapted from Steenkamp and De Jong (2010)

As previously mentioned, this combination of a positive and a negative PBG and of a positive and a negative PBL yields four new categories, which can be explained as follows:

1. Global Brand: consumers with a positive PBG combined with a negative PBL.

2. Local Brand: consumers with a negative PBG combined with a positive PBL

3. Glocal Brand: consumers with a combined positive PBG with a positive PBL.

4. Functional Brands: consumers with a negative PBG and a negative PBL.

This categorisation suggested by Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) has many implications for research in the branding field, as well as managerial implications for building more effective brand portfolios.

3.2.3 Importance of a brand categorisation methodology

The literature shows that researchers have based their works on diverse methodological approaches. Some works have used an objective criteria based on academically-accepted brand definitions, while others have used qualitative approaches with the aim of uncovering consumer perceptions useful in brand categorisation. According to Özsomer and Altaras (2008) or Steenkamp (2014) global brands have been defined in the literature from three different perspectives, first, from the standpoint of marketing strategy standardization; second, based on the percentage of international sales according to databases; and third, on consumer perceptions of brand globalness/localness.

The literature reveals that some researchers have used qualitative approaches such as focus groups to categorize brands from the consumers' perspective. Although in the context of international business qualitative research has its own special added values (Pawle, 1999), using qualitative techniques such as in-depth interviews or focus groups for categorising brands has two important drawbacks. First, since those studies are usually conducted with small samples, "we should be mindful of the difficulties inherent in any attempt to make generalisations about populations from small samples" (Bock and Sergeant, 2002 p. 240). And second, with this methodology consumers classify brands into global or local, but they do not identify glocal brands, because a glocal brand is a blended approach to brand positioning which consumers do not consciously perceive (Baker et al., 2007; Strizhakova et al., 2012).

Following these main approaches Table 17 shows empirical relevant works found in the literature and the categorisation methodology used.

Table 17: Relevant works found in the literature over the last 15 years on the phenomenon of global and local brands.		
Classification Method	Author	Methodology applied
Researcher's selection based on objective criteria	Talay et al. (2015)	Empirical survey on global brand architecture and market-based performance
	Guo (2013)	Empirical survey on attitudes towards global brands from developed versus emerging countries
	Swoboda et al. (2012)	Empirical survey of Perceived Brand Globalness and Perceived Brand Localness among retailers in China
	Akram et al. (2011)	Empirical survey on the impact of perceived brand globalness (PBG) on consumer purchase intention.
	Pina et al. (2010)	Empirical survey with global brands in relation to effects of brand extensions in brand image.
	Erdem et al. (2006)	Empirical survey of brand equity and consumer brand choice.
Consumer perspective	Steenkamp et al. (2010)	Empirical survey on consumer preference for Global/Local brands.
	Zhou (2010)	Empirical survey on the effect of Perceived Brand Foreignness on consumer evaluations of brand value.
	Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2008)	Empirical survey on consumer perception of brand country of origin.
	Steenkamp et al. (2003)	Empirical survey on the degree of PBG.*
	Farías (2015)	Empirical survey using databases of top brand rankings in Latin American markets.
	Strizhakova and Coulter (2015)	Empirical survey using Euromonitor's GMID country-level brand data.

Table 17: Relevant works found in the literature over the last 15 years on the phenomenon of global and local brands.		
Practitioner databases	(Özsomer, 2012)	Empirical survey using ACNielsen.
	Veflen Olsen and Sallis (2010)	Empirical survey using AC Nielsen.
	An (2007)	Empirical survey using BusinessWeek / Interbrand world top 100 global brand database.
	Schuiling and Kapferer (2004)	Empirical survey using Y&R database.
Source: Self-devised. *These studies do not classify brands into different categories, but measure the degree of "globalness" or "localness" of a brand. Existing studies classify brands from the consumer perspective using only qualitative and not quantitative techniques.		

The literature shows that brand globalness and localness really matter for marketing decisions. However, brand categorisation issues relating to the extent to which consumers can correctly identify a branded product has not been given much attention. The literature does not provide works classifying brands into global, local and glocal using methodology based on consumer perspectives; there is a clear need to use a quantitative-based methodology to categorise competing brands into these three types from a consumer perspective, but how do we fulfil this need? From a theoretical standpoint, developing a brand-classification method using the Steenkamp and De Jong consumer-attitude categorisation methodSteenkamp and De Jong (2010) seems to be the most appropriate; however, it has not been adopted for use in empirical studies.

The traditional "objective" brand categorisation approach (based on accepted brand definitions or on practitioner databases) and consumer-based ("subjective")

brand categorisation do not necessarily need to propose the same brand categorisations; consumers in the global multicultural market do not know these brand-categorisation definitions and might perceive the brands differently (Batra et al., 2000; Suh and Kwon, 2002; Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004).

It is critical for both researchers and managers to understand how brands competing in the market are really perceived by consumers, and what their real categorisation would be based on consumer perspectives vs. their formal academic categorisation. The objectives of this research work are thus twofold:

First, to develop a methodology that allows the classification of brands in different product categories through a measurement instrument which allows them to be assessed from the consumer perspective into global, local and glocal categories.

Second, to empirically apply this instrument to a set of existing brands and compare the categorisation obtained to the categorisation that those brands would have had according to non-consumer perspective approaches found in the literature.

In order to accomplish these research objectives an exploratory survey was conducted in an emerging market; in this case Mexico.

3.3 Methodology

Selection of product categories and brands for the survey.

24 Brands were selected based on their market share, the probability that their category would produce the three types of brands (global, local and glocal) and

consumer familiarity with both category and brands (categories and brands well known to consumers). The categories selected in the Mexican market with these characteristics were yogurt, chocolate confectionery, sportswear, footwear and beer.

In the case of Corona Extra beer, although it is categorised as a Global Brand, in Mexico consumers in general consider it an icon of local culture. This means that Mexican consumers may see it as a local brand, as it has been manufactured and sold in Mexico by Grupo Modelo with great success since 1925. By 1930 Corona Extra had become the top-selling brand on the Mexican market, and 60 years after its introduction to the country the company started global expansion efforts. By 1997 Corona Extra had become the best-selling brand in the US, and in 2013 Grupo Modelo was acquired by Anheuser-Busch InBev in a $20.1 billion deal (Cimilluca and Esterl, 2012; Corona-Extra, 2015; Modelo, 2015).

Focus groups were conducted among consumers to confirm their familiarity with the brands prior to the application of the study. Table 18 presents the brands selected for the survey along with their categorisation according to the academically-accepted brand definitions suggested in the literature referred to previously.

Table 18: Participating categories / brands in the survey (with the corresponding academic categorisation)				
Yogurt	Yoplait (global)	Lala (local)	Vitalinea (global)	Dan'Up / Danone (global)
Chocolate Confectionery	Snickers (global)	Carlos V (local)	Kinder (global)	Turin (local)

Table 18: Participating categories / brands in the survey (with the corresponding academic categorisation)				
Sportswear	**Nike (global)**	**Atletica (local)**	**Adidas (global)**	**Pirma (global)**
Footwear	**Flexi (local)**	**Emyco (local)**	**Brantano (local)**	**Nine-West (global)**
Beer	**Corona Extra (global)**	**TECATE (local)**	**Heineken (global)**	**XX Lager (local)**
Breakfast cereal	**Kellogg´s (global)**	**Nestlé (global)**	**Maizoro (local)**	**Great Value (global)**
Source: Self-devised				

A questionnaire was developed to classify brands into global, glocal local and functional using the Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) and the Perceived Brand Localness (PBL) categories.

The questionnaire was developed with items drawn from the literature. The pre-test was applied to groups of target respondents to guarantee readability and understanding of the questions, and was conducted in two phases:

1. 2 focus groups were conducted each comprising 10 participants, with the objective of ensuring that participating brands were well-recognized by consumers.

2. 40 questionnaires were applied to ensure the clarity and readability of survey items among consumers.

The questionnaire included questions on age and gender and respondents were asked to evaluate each brand on its Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) and Perceived Brand Localness (PBL).

The survey consisted of four sets of questionnaires, rotated among the respondents and each featuring questions relating to six different brands (Batra et al., 2000).

3.3.1 Measures

Based on the literature reviewed, we followed Batra et al (2000) and Steenkamp et al. (2003), and used the factors for Perceived Brand Globalness and Perceived Brand Localness identified, discussed and found relevant in those studies. Additionally these factors are used in relevant research works found in the literature in relation with the object of study (Zhou et al., 2010; Özsomer, 2012; Swoboda et al., 2012; Halkias et al., 2016).

For "Perceived Brand Globalness" (PBG) three items were used, drawn from Batra et al. (2000). For "Perceived Brand Localness" (PBL), three items were used, drawn from Steenkamp et al. (2003) (see Table 19) We selected these two scales because previous studies have demonstrated that they are useful for assessing brand globalness and localness (Özsomer, 2012; Swoboda et al., 2012). In both constructs one of the items is reverse-coded to ensure consistency in survey answers, as suggested in the literature.

Table 19: Scales on PBG and PBL		
Construct:	**Items:**	**Source:**
Perceived brand Globalness (PBG)	"To me this is a global brand" "I think consumers in other countries buy this brand" "This brand is only sold in Mexico"- (Reverse-coded)	Batra et al. (2000)

Table 19: Scales on PBG and PBL		
Perceived Brand Localness (PBL)	"I associate this brand with things that are from Mexico"	Steenkamp et al. (2003)
	"To me, this brand does not represent what Mexico is about"- (Reverse-coded)	
	"To me, this brand is a very good symbol of Mexico"	
Source: Self-devised		

Multiple items were used to measure each of the factors with a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree') aligned with previous research in this field (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

3.3.2 Sample

The survey was administered via the probabilistic method, using a matched sample (Sekaran, 1983) based on the population of Mexico, which was supplied by the National Institute of Geography and Statistics (INEGI, 2010). Segments were determined by age, with 10-year divisions, for practicality in the implementation of the survey, and following the percentage (%) of gender vs. the national population. Since the survey includes the beer products category, consumers below the legal drinking age in Mexico (18+) were not included. Table 20 shows the national population data used for the matched sample.

Table 20: Mexican population by age segment (not including those below the age of 17)*						
Age segment	Men	Women	TOTAL	% Men	% Women	% of segment vs. total population
18 a 19	2,143,673	2,171,491	4,315,164	50%	50%	6%
4.320 a 29	9,019,179	9,661,269	18,68,0448	48%	52%	26%
30 a 39	7,990,769	8,77,3016	16,763,785	48%	52%	23%
40 a 49	6,174,686	6,763,270	12,937,956	48%	52%	18%
50 o more	8,951,526	10,063,509	19,015,035	47%	53%	27%

Total general	34,279,833	37,432,555	71,712,388	48%	52%	100%

Source: Mexican National Institute of Geography and Statistic (INEGI, 2010). *Segments below the Mexican legal drinking age (18 years) were not considered since the survey included beer brands.

The survey applied 400 questionnaires via face to face personal interviews (paper pencil-personal interview) with the assistance of a market-research agency. The questionnaires were distributed by age segment following a matched national representative sample as shown in Table 21.

Table 21: Distribution of the sample by age and gender vs. distribution of the population							
National population			Men	Women	Total	% of responses by age	% of segment vs. national population
Age Segment	% Men	% Women					
18-19	50%	50%	12	13	**25**	6.3%	6%
20-29	48%	52%	54	53	**107**	26.8%	26%
30-39	48%	52%	46	48	**94**	23.5%	23%
40-49	48%	52%	32	38	**70**	17.5%	18%
50 +	47%	53%	50	54	**104**	26.0%	27%
Total	48%	52%	194	206	**400**		
			48.5%	51.5%	**100.0%**	100.0%	100%

Source: Self-devised

The survey was conducted in the Guadalajara metropolitan area, Guadalajara being the second most important city in Mexico. It is also city that most international companies, including P&G, have used for market-testing new brand introductions before national expansion. The reason for this is that the city offers a nationally-representative sample in terms of commerce, communication media and population.

3.4 Results

The survey produced a set of 2400 data: 100 data for each of the 24 participating brands.

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted to verify the existence of two factors (PBG and PBL) which was confirmed.

To evaluate the measurement reliability and validity of the scales used in the PBG and PBL constructs, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) made up of the items in the two constructs was estimated with AMOS 22 through the robust maximum-likelihood method. As a first step in assessing model validity, we verified the model fit according to several indexes; the indicators show values greater than the recommended 0.9, in addition to the results obtained in the t value test which were significant at p 0.001 confirming an acceptable model fit. The reliability was also strong as all values of the Cronbach alpha statistics are above the recommended value of 0.7 (Churchill Jr, 1979), the composite reliability indexes (CR) are above 0.7, and average variance extracted (AVE) indexes are above 0.5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). To analyse convergent validity and confirm that the scale items are strongly and significantly related, we checked that the factor loadings are statistically significant and substantial (they are above 0.7 on average for each construct). Table 22 shows the results of these analyses.

Table 22: Convergent Validity						
Variables	Indicators	Factor loadings	Robust *t* value*	Cronbach alpha	Composite reliability	AVE
PBG	PBG1	0.941	86.438	0.94	0.95	0.86
	PBG2	0.923	93.876			
	PBG3	0.921	85.220			
PBL	PBL1	0.850	89.856	0.88	0.89	0.73

	PBL2	0.854	89.991			
	PBL3	0.854	84.134			
CFI = 0.972; NFI = 0.971; IFI = 0.972; NNFI= 0.927; RFI = 0.925.						
* *P* < 0.001						

We subsequently evaluated the discriminant validity to confirm that the scales do not measure constructs other than those intended. This was done by observing the correlations between constructs and applying the confidence-interval and variance-extracted test, both of which confirm that all the scales have discriminant validity. Results are shown in Table 23.

Table 23: Discriminant Validity		
	PBG	PBL
PBG	0.86	[-0.469, -0.393]
PBL	0.221	0.73

In order to categorise each one of the brands from the data obtained in the survey three main steps were followed:

1. The median values were calculated for each one of the constructs corresponding to Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) and Perceived Brand Localness (PBL).

2. The medians obtained were classified into positive or negative, negative from ≤ 3, neutral = 4 and positive ≥ 5.

3. It is possible therefore for each brand to have four possible combinations: positive PBG and negative PBL, negative PBG and positive PBL, positive PBG and positive PBL, negative PBG and negative PBL. Following the principles of Steenkamp and De Jong (2010), these will translate into any of

the four categorisations, Global, Local, Glocal and Functional, as shown in Table 24.

Table 24: Brand categorisation method			
Possible result	**PBG** **(-) 1-2-3-4-5-6-7 (+)**	**PBL** **(-) 1-2-3-4-5-6-7 (+)**	**Brand categorisation**
Case 1	**Positive (+)**	Negative (-)	**Global**
Case 2	Negative (-)	**Positive (+)**	**Local**
Case 3	**Positive (+)**	**Positive (+)**	**Glocal**
Case 4	Negative (-)	Negative (-)	**Functional**
Source: Adapted from Steenkamp and De Jong (2010)			

As an alternative method to the median calculation, the mean and mode values were also calculated in order to corroborate the results; the calculation of the mean and mode for each one of the items (3 items for PBG and 3 for PBL) and their overall average were obtained to compare them with the median. The mode calculation process was similar to the median process previously-explained. For the mean, decimals were used and the neutral value was established between 3.76 and 4.24. Based on the overall average obtained for PBG and PBL, we followed the same categorisation criteria presented in Table 24. The results obtained with these three approaches using median, mean and mode were virtually equal, although we followed the median calculation method to present results.

Based on the methodology described in the previous section, the results of the empirical study for the categorisation of participating brands are presented in Table 25.

Table 25: Results of the brand categorisation study					
Brand	**Median PBG**	**Median PBL**	**PBG**	**PBL**	**Results**
1. Nine-West (footwear)	7	1	Positive	Negative	Global
2. Adidas (sportswear)	7	2	Positive	Negative	Global
3. Nike (sportswear)	7	2	Positive	Negative	Global
4. Snickers (chocolate)	6	2	Positive	Negative	Global
5. Great Value (breakfast cereal)	6	2	Positive	Negative	Global
6. Kinder (chocolate)	6	3	Positive	Negative	Global
7. Heineken (beer)	6	2	Positive	Negative	Global
8. Kellogg´s (breakfast cereal)	7	3	Positive	Negative	Global
9. Nestlé (breakfast cereal)	6	3	Positive	Negative	Global
10. Brantano (footwear)	5	3	Positive	Negative	Global
11. Flexi (footwear)	5	3	Positive	Negative	Global
12. Corona Extra (beer)	7	5	Positive	Positive	Glocal
13. Dan'Up / Danone (yogurt)	7	5	Positive	Positive	Glocal
14. TECATE (beer)	7	5	Positive	Positive	Glocal
15. Vitalinea (yogurt)	5	5	Positive	Positive	Glocal
16. Maizoro (breakfast cereal)	2.5	7	Negative	Positive	Local
17. Atletica (sportswear)	3	7	Negative	Positive	Local
18. Pirma (sportswear)	3	6	Negative	Positive	Local
19. Carlos V (chocolate)	2	6	Negative	Positive	Local
20. XX Lager (beer)	2	5	Negative	Positive	Local
21. Turin (chocolate)	3	5	Negative	Positive	Local
22. Lala (yogurt)	2	5	Negative	Positive	Local
23. Yoplait (yogurt)	2	5	Negative	Positive	Local
24. Emyco (footwear)	3	3	Negative	Negative	Functional
Source: Self-devised					

Based on the results of the survey, we can see that this measurement instrument allows brand classification and permits the categorisation of the brands as either global, local or glocal from the consumer perspective.

Results suggest important differences in brand categorisation from the consumers' perspective vs. traditional categorisation, as shown in Table 26.

Table 26: Traditional brand categorisation vs. brand-categorisation by consumers.		
Brand	**Traditional brand categorisation**	**Brand-categorisation by consumers.**
1. Nine-West (footwear)	Global	Global
2. Adidas (sportswear)	Global	Global
3. Nike (sportswear)	Global	Global
4. Snickers(chocolate)	Global	Global
5. Great Value (breakfast cereal)	Global	Global
6. Kinder (chocolate)	Global	Global
7. Heineken (beer)	Global	Global
8. Kellogg´s (breakfast cereal)	Global	Global
9. Nestlé (breakfast cereal)	Global	Global
10. Brantano (footwear)	Local	Global
11. Flexi (footwear)	Local	Global
12. Corona Extra (beer)	Local	Glocal
13. Dan'Up / Danone (yogurt)	Global	Glocal
14. TECATE (beer)	Local	Glocal
15. Vitalinea (yogurt)	Global	Glocal
16. Maizoro (breakfast cereal)	Local	Local
17. Atletica (sportswear)	Local	Local
18. Pirma (sportswear)	Global	Local
19. Carlos V (chocolate)	Local	Local
20. XX Lager (beer)	Local	Local
21. Turin (chocolate)	Local	Local
22. Lala (yogurt)	Local	Local
23. Yoplait (yogurt)	Global	Local
24. Emyco (footwear)	Local	Functional
Source: Self-devised.		

Interestingly, of the 24 brands participating in the survey, 9 brands (38%) were awarded a categorisation different from that given using the traditional approach. Not all brands with foreign/global names or connotations and global sales were perceived as global brands by Mexican consumers, who prefer globally commercialized products. This was confirmed by the fact that some global brands were not categorised as global: Dan'Up / Danone and Vitalinea (Danone). Brands

with local names or connotations were also not all categorised as local by consumers: for example, Brantano and Flexi, both of which were classified as global). In the glocal category, culturally-strong local brands could also be categorised as glocal. Some examples of this are: TECATE (beer), well-known global brands such as Corona Extra (beer) (which, as previously-mentioned, could also be strongly perceived as a local brand), and Dan'Up / Danone and Vitalinea (also by Danone). Only one brand was categorised as functional; Emyco, a traditional local brand. In sum, of the 24 brands participating in the survey, 11 were categorised as global (46%), 8 as local (33%) and four as glocal (17%).

An additional analysis was conducted as a safeguard, the results of which also support these findings:

- 14.3 % of brands that are traditionally classified as global, were perceived as local by consumers.

- 30 % of brands that are traditionally classified as local, were perceived as global or glocal by consumers.

A Cohen kappa coefficient was also calculated, which resulted in a kappa=0.4894. Based on this, we can say that there is moderate agreement between traditional academic classification and consumer perception of brands.

3.5 Conclusions, managerial implications and future research directions

3.5.1 Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the categorisation of brands from the consumer point of view versus the traditional, objective brand-categorisation methods found in the literature.

Categorisation of brands based on the consumer perspective has been applied previously using qualitative techniques such as in-depth interviews or focus groups. In this study we introduced a methodology, founded in consumer culture theory, that allows an appropriate categorisation of brands based on a consumer perspective. We tested this methodology with a measurement instrument which provided insights into the different results yielded by the consumer-based and traditional brand- categorisation methods.

The study involved 24 leading well-known brands from different areas present in the contemporary Mexican market. These brands belonged to the four types previously mentioned, and in accordance with consumer responses to the joint forces of globalisation and localisation they were divided into global, glocal, local and functional categories. Results confirm that consumer-based brand categorisations differed significantly from traditional "objective methods", such as those based on marketing-strategy standardisation studies or on the practitioner databases used by researchers and managers.

It is important to mention that consumers have a "subjective" idea of the different types of brands available in their markets (Koubaa et al., 2015), based on the different individual meanings and personal associations with those brands (Holt, 2002; Strizhakova et al., 2007; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015).

Therefore, it should be recognised that consumer brand-categorisation is ultimately what counts, as this determines the market benefits that will increase the value of each type of global, local and glocal brand; categorisation from a consumer perspective is therefore critical for both academics and managers.

Our findings confirm that the combination of perceived brand globalness and localness translates into a consumer perception of four brand types, and these results are borne out across diverse product categories on the market. The findings also confirm the "glocalisation effect" on consumers; the new "glocal perception" of consumers who view and can translate certain local or global products within this new categorisation.

3.5.2 Implications for brand managers

Despite the 21st. century business trend of international firms focusing on building global brands (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Steenkamp, 2014) and divesting themselves of or eliminating local brands in their brand portfolios (Findley, 2015) our results also suggest that local brands are still very much present in Mexico.

While developing this study we found that a brewing company which has had significant success in following this strategy of a well-balanced combination of different types of brands is Cerveceria Moctezuma-HEINEKEN México (CM-HEINEKEN-MÉXICO, 2015) with a brand mix of Heineken (global), TECATE (glocal) and XX Lager (local) among others in their brand portfolio.

Our empirical findings suggest that managers should apply this methodology based on consumer perspective to verify how consumers categorise brands already present in their specific markets in order to establish a comparison between this viewpoint and the official internal categorisation. By obtaining this categorisation, managers can build well-differentiated positioning strategies based on consumer attitudes and the characteristics of each of the four categories of brands. With global brands managers may focus on building strategies based on the "halo effect" of global brands targeted at consumers who have dreams of success and global citizenship and who are low on ethnocentrism (Batra et al., 2000; Steenkamp et al., 2003) .

Local brands focus on the strength of local-culture ties (Ger, 1999; Kapferer, 2002; Cova and Cova, 2014; Taylor and Okazaki, 2015), and are targeted at ethnocentric consumers who are generally older and value tradition and conformity. Interestingly for the glocal category, managers should focus on developing strategies that highlight the dual global and local nature of their product for consumers who prefer to consume a mix of local and global products, and who tend to be forward-looking and value materialism (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010; Liu et al., 2014). For instance, in the case of local brands going global, a communication effort which makes local consumers think of being in foreign countries is suggested (Özsomer, 2012). At the same time it is important to enhance the personality of these brands and their ties to the cultural background of local and foreign markets by positioning them as "cultural brands" (Guzmán and Paswan, 2009; Chailan and Ille, 2015).

3.5.3 Limitations and future research directions

One of the limitations of this work is that it was restricted to Mexico; a wider study conducted in other emerging markets or worldwide is suggested for the generalisation of the results (Steenkamp et al., 2003). In addition, this study only included 24 brands in four different consumer product categories; a wider study including a larger number of brands and product categories is also suggested (Özsomer, 2012).

Additional research focused on younger consumer segments would also be useful in order to explore and validate this study of brand categorisation, given the growing importance of this segment as they become economically active and acquire a higher purchasing capacity. This segment is also important due to its dynamic changes in consumption, particularly as this relates to information and media management; both of these are strongly related to their purchase decisions.

CHAPTER 4

ESSAY 3

CHAPTER 4

ESSAY 3 - MODERATING EFFECTS OF THE TYPE OF BRAND ON THE KEY ANTECEDENTS OF CONSUMER BRAND PURCHASE LIKELIHOOD IN EMERGING MARKETS

Abstract

Brands are highly important in the marketing field and are essential assets for a company in achieving its financial objectives. The commercialisation of brands translates into increased sales and profits, market share, customer loyalty, and increased competitiveness in the market. For these reasons, businesses have concentrated on building strong brands that have the capacity to be competitive in multiple markets.

Brands have a special relevance for consumer products; for example, they have critical importance in the consumer packaged goods industry (CPG). Consumers care very much how branded products meet their needs and expectations as well as their value, thus specific brand names provide consumers with information, credibility and confidence when presented with the extensive variety of options available in a wide and complex market.

When talking about brands we can differentiate between global, local and glocal; this categorisation is particularly relevant in emerging markets because in these markets there is strong competition between these types of brands.

The literature has identified the different antecedents of brand purchase likelihood; additionally, the marketing literature suggests that the type of consumer brand

might have an influence on the different antecedents of brand purchase likelihood. However, this proposition has not been empirically researched in an emerging market with a set of local, global and glocal consumer brands.

Based on a survey of 400 consumers this paper identifies key antecedents in predicting the success of consumer brands in an emerging market such as Mexico. Results suggest that brand quality, price, familiarity, image, attitude and brand as social-signalling value are common factors for the three brand categories that positively influence their brand purchase likelihood. Our results also suggest that the type of consumer brand moderates some of these relationships.

This study extends the previous research in this field by determining the specific factors that consumer brands can use to succeed in emerging markets. Moreover, this research is the first attempt to empirically analyse the moderating role of the type of brand (local, global and glocal) in those specific factors. For academics it provides an additional agenda for the global, local and glocal brand streams of research, and for managers in emerging markets it offers a relevant perspective for the development of sustainable marketing strategies in a globally competitive environment.

4.1 Introduction

Consumers worldwide have the option of selecting between global and local brands (Batra et al., 2000). In the current global marketplace, it is important for marketers to understand the dynamics behind how consumers choose between

global and local brands (Özsomer, 2012). In today's marketplace brand managers face a very complex competitive scenario; on one side, international firms bring to bear the competitive advantages of high-quality, standardised products that offer better consumer value and have international recognition (Alden et al., 1999; Kapferer, 2002; Özsomer, 2012; Steenkamp, 2014). In contrast to the efforts of brands to globalise efforts, some consumers also have a preference for local brands, given the strong connections they have with them (Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015). Local culture still plays a critical role in impacting consumer behaviour (Petersen et al., 2015) although cultural factors are not uniform across markets (Aguilera-Caracuel et al., 2015).

Strategic brand management by international firms went from initially focusing on developing large portfolios of international brands to the rationalization of these portfolios, which requires a good balance between strong global and local brands (Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004; Godey and Lai, 2011).

Traditionally the branding literature has acknowledged two categories of brands: global and local. Based on the distinctions between local and global consumer culture, Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) analysed consumer' attitudes towards both global and local products and introduced four types of brand category based on consumption attitudes: global, glocal (a combination of global and local products), local and functional (brands that don´t fit with traditional consumption standards and are associated with commodified products). Therefore, consumers in global markets really face a new categorisation of four types of brands instead of

the traditional two. As a result of this, marketers need to clearly understand consumers' attitudes and responses to these new categories of brands (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010) in order to develop effective global, glocal and local brand strategies to succeed in globalised markets (Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010).

The literature shows that local and glocal brands have not been given much attention by academics and practitioners (Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004; Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010) and that the competition between local and global brands needs further research (Özsomer, 2012). The literature also provides evidence of the moderating role of the type of brand. For example in the 'global' brand-type, the degree of perceived nonlocal brand origin has a significant, positive effect on consumer attitudes towards brands; the perceived brand globalness influences the perceived brand quality and (Batra et al., 2000; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Holt et al., 2004; Özsomer, 2012). In addition, perceived brand localness influences the perceived unique brand value and emphasises the local cultural connections and better characteristics in order to better to satisfy consumer needs (Zambuni, 1993; Ger, 1999; Swoboda et al., 2012), therefore moderating the consumers' purchase decision.

The present research contributes to branding literature streams; first of all, by proposing and finding support for factors that positively influence consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets. And second and more important, by identifying some moderating effects of the type of brand on the previous factors.

Our findings provide a basis that could be used by managers to develop more effective global, glocal and local marketing strategies.

Therefore, the main objectives of this research are twofold:

1. To determine the key antecedents of consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

2. To analyse the influence of the type of brand (local, global or glocal) on these different antecedents of consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

Chapter 4 is organised as follows; drawing upon relevant literature on consumer culture theory and signalling theory and country of origin, the theoretical framework, the proposed hypotheses and our theoretical model are presented in section 4.2. In section 4.3 we discuss the survey and the methodology applied. Empirical results are presented in section 4.4. Finally, section 4.5 describes the key theoretical and practical implications and the originality/value of the research.

4.2 Theoretical framework

4.2.1 Conceptual foundation and research hypotheses

This study integrates two theoretical approaches, Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) and Signalling Theory (presented in chapter one of this work), to explain the key antecedents of consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

Previous research has used CCT (Özsomer and Altaras, 2008; Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010) and signalling theory (Erdem et al., 2006; Özsomer, 2012) as

frameworks for explaining consumer brand evaluations and choice when confronted with different types of brands (global and local).

CCT analyses how consumers relate their identity and lifestyle with the symbolic meanings encoded in products and brands, commercial communication (ads) and retail settings in stores (Kozinets, 2001; Peñaloza, 2001; Holt, 2002). Prior works therefore focus on the consumer reaction to some types of brands and their impact on the brand purchase likelihood (Özsomer and Altaras, 2008; Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010)

Signalling theory, which is based on information economics, argues that firms may use signals to deliver information about their characteristics to eliminate consumer uncertainty. Prior work on brands as signals evidences the role of brands as signals of product positioning and the positive effect of brand credibility on consumer preference (Erdem et al., 2006).

The literature suggests that some antecedents such as brand quality, brand familiarity, price, brand attitude, brand Image and brand as social signalling value can influence consumer brand preference.

Our motivation for developing our proposed model was to use the factors identified, discussed, and found relevant in the research works by Batra et al. (2000), Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), (Ajzen, 2001),Theory of Reasoned Action, and Steenkamp (1989) work on product quality. Batra et al. (2000) studied and documented the effect of brand quality, brand familiarity, and brand image on consumer attitudes

toward the brand. Azjen and Fishbein's theory specifies that brand purchase intention is driven by brand attitudes and the social context. The social context is captured by the factor social signalling value. As psychologists, Ajzen and Fishbein do not explicate the role of price, but it is a cornerstone of microeconomic theory that purchase likelihood is affected by price. In marketing, building on Steenkamp (1989) who theorised and showed that price is an important factor in purchase likelihood. Additionally these factors are used in relevant research works found in the literature in relation with the object of study (Zhou et al., 2010; Baek et al., 2010; Özsomer, 2012; Zhu and Chang, 2015; Steenkamp and Maydeu- Olivares, 2015).

4.2.1.1 Brand quality

The quality and price of products are two of the more critically, significant factors for consumers taking purchase decisions (Elliott and Cameron, 1994).

The branding literature suggests quality for consumers falls into two types; the objective product or brand quality and the perceived product or brand quality. Objective quality is defined as "the aggregate performance of all vector product attributes, i.e. those attributes for which customers prefer either a higher or a lower magnitude" (Mitra and Golder, 2006. p. 231). While perceived quality is defined as "the overall evaluation and judgment about the quality or advantage of the product or service by consumers" (Jing et al., 2013. p. 1001) or as "the consumer's evaluation of a brand's overall excellence based on intrinsic, i.e., performance, durability, and extrinsic cues i.e., brand name, warrant" (Kirmani and Baumgartner,

2000. p. 300). These consumer expectations are based on consumers' own experiences and on other consumer recommendations, in addition to brand reputation, price, and advertising (Mitra and Golder, 2006). Perceived quality has been widely suggested as one of the key antecedents positively influencing consumer purchase intention (Azizi, 2014)

The literature evidences the relevance of the role of brand quality in consumers' purchase decisions (Alden et al., 2006; Özsomer and Altaras, 2008; Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010; Akram et al., 2011; Özsomer, 2012). Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) is positively associated with perceived brand quality (Batra et al., 2000; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Özsomer and Altaras, 2008; Akram et al., 2011).

The absence of superiority in the quality and value of brands with a "global image" vs. the local competition makes consumer preference even for both options (Shocker et al., 1994; Kapferer, 1997). The same could also arguably be true for glocal brands given the fact that they have a partially-recognised globalness in their combined global and local nature (Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010).

In general, consumer perceptions about the quality of global brands in emerging countries is higher vs. the quality perceived in local brands, with the exception of those consumers who prefer locally-made products, and who have the opposite view; they have a perception of higher quality and value in local brands. Therefore, the role of perceived quality influences the purchase intentions in both cases (Ger, 1999; Kapferer, 2002; Alden et al., 2006). Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Brand quality is positively associated with consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

4.2.1.2 Brand familiarity

The branding literature has focused on the effect of consumer familiarity in brands. The definition of brand familiarity in the literature states that "Brand familiarity reflects the extent of a consumer's direct and indirect experience with a brand" (Campbell et al., 2003. p. 293).

Researchers have focused on understanding the role of brand familiarity and consumer brand evaluation and preference. Research suggest that brands familiar to consumers are more easily noticed on the shelves at points of purchase as well as in the overloaded advertising media; the benefits claimed are more persuasive and are therefore less affected by the claims of competitors (Dahlén and Lange, 2004).

Additionally, research has analysed the relevant influence of product/brand familiarity on the effectiveness of TV and online advertising (Campbell et al., 2003) and on consumer product evaluations (Vaidyanathan, 2000).

Brand familiarity is an antecedent that influences consumer purchase intentions (Shagerdi et al., 2013). It provokes significantly different responses between familiar and unfamiliar brands and influences advertising attitude toward the brand and consumer purchase intentions (Türkel et al., 2015). Research works on reference price claims suggest that brand familiarity enhances the purchase

intention of skeptical consumers (Hardesty et al., 2002). Brand familiarity reduces perceived consumer risk and enhances the purchase intentions of intimate apparel brands (Rose, 2015); studies on private label brands suggest brand familiarity has an important role in loyalty and consumer purchase intention (Calvo Porral et al., 2016).

Brand familiarity plays a critical role in relation to brand purchase likelihood for both global and local products (Özsomer, 2012), the brand familiarity of local brands is linked with consumers' emotional ties and influences purchase decisions (Hardesty et al., 2002; Kapferer, 2002). Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

> H2: Brand familiarity is positively associated with consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

4.2.1.3 Price

Price is one of the most important factors for consumers when making purchase decisions (Elliott and Cameron, 1994). It represents to all consumers the amount of money that must be given up (sacrificed) when deciding whether or not to make the purchase. Price has two roles in consumer evaluations of products: (1) as a measure of sacrifice and (2) as an informational reference (Völckner, 2008). In the area of luxury goods, price has a positive relationship on purchase intention (Erickson and Johansson, 1985; Hwang et al., 2014) and is a complex stimulus. With the exception of luxury goods, in general higher prices negatively affect

purchase probabilities (Zeithaml, 1988; Lichtenstein et al., 1990; Lichtenstein et al., 1993). Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Price is negatively associated with consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

4.2.1.4 Brand attitude

An attitude "is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Eagly and Chaiken 1998, p. 269). Entities (objects) of interest could be represented by global and local products (Tomlinson, 1999). Consumers have attitudes toward global and local commodities which are present in many product categories (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010). Brand attitudes are positively related with brand purchase intentions (Spears and Singh, 2004; Ahmed and Rouf, 2015). Positive consumer attitudes to global brands impact their purchase likelihood (Özsomer and Altaras, 2008), and the same can be argued about glocal brands, given their "globalness element". Local products may also build positive brand attitudes and impact consumer purchase intentions through emphasis on better meeting local needs (Ger, 1999). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4: Brand attitude is positively associated with consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

4.2.1.5 Brand image

Brand image has been defined as "perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory" (Keller, 1993, P.3). Firms assess the brand equity consumers award their products based on awareness and image, which are considered critical elements for building build brand preference (Godey and Lai, 2011). Brand image enhances consumer preference for brands with a global image (Shocker et al., 1994), for instance brand image influences purchase intention in the cosmetic products category in China, which is mainly comprised of imported brands (Eze et al., 2012). On the other hand, the advantages enjoyed by local brands include a higher level of awareness and image linked to a better response to local needs and cultural values (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Guzmán and Paswan, 2009; Chailan and Ille, 2015). Local brands can enhance these advantages by being perceived as glocal (Swoboda et al., 2012). Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5: Brand image is positively associated with consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

4.2.1.6 Brand as a social signalling value

As previously mentioned in chapter 2 of this research work, Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) is a theoretical framework which focuses on studying consumption behaviours and the symbolic and ideological aspects of consumption (Arnould and Thompson, 2005); CCT focuses on the understanding of how consumers consume and their behaviour as the result of the sociocultural processes related to

consumer identity building (Sassatelli, 2007), analysing how consumers relate their identity, personal goals and lifestyles with material goods and brands (Kozinets, 2001; Peñaloza, 2001; Holt, 2002), and with the marketing development of brands as symbols (Kozinets, 2001).

The literature suggests that products have meanings that are symbolic for, constructive of and derived from self-identity; consumers can buy shoes, sportswear, an automobile, sunglasses, a smartphone etc., however specific brands of these products are a distinguishing characteristic for certain groups of consumers in certain social contexts (Wang and Wallendorf, 2006). Symbolic brand meanings have been an important focus in the research agenda (Strizhakova et al., 2007), especially in the field of brands as signals of social status (Bhat and Reddy, 1998).

Status is defined as a higher position compared to others, which is considered important by society (Hyman, 1942). Status was an essential component of ancient societies where each person had a place in the social pyramid; throughout history wealth and success were socially linked but what today really confers social status is the evidence of personal wealth (Han et al., 2010).

Brands represent signals and symbols to consumers in global markets (Wallin, 2006). Some brands have become symbols of social status, especially luxury brands which are considered by consumers as strong symbols of social status and are preferred by them due to a desire to associate with specific social contexts or

groups (Han et al., 2010). Status consumption is the purchase of those products that confer and symbolise social status (Goldsmith and Clark, 2012).

Global brands are in general considered by consumers as a signals of product superiority (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Verlegh et al., 2005). This also can be argued for glocal brands (Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010). Local brands are symbols of local culture (Kapferer, 2002), therefore consumers might also purchase local brands to enhance their social status (Wallin, 2006) and use some specific product categories to signal it (Wang and Wallendorf, 2006). Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

H6: Brand as a social signalling value is positively associated with consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

4.2.2 The moderating role of the type of brand

In terms of the moderating role of some variables in the relationships between independent and dependent variables, the literature suggests that "a moderator is a qualitative or quantitative variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relationship between an independent a dependent variable" (Baron and Kenny, 1986. p. 1147). It is an intervening variable which is supposed to account for the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable (Breitborde et al., 2010). In other words, for the purpose of analysing these relationships, it is the division of an independent variable into subgroups that

establishes their respective strength in relation to a given dependent variable (Casablancas, 2015).

The review of the literature related to the moderation role of specific factors in the relationship between some antecedents and brand purchase likelihood, purchase intention or consumer preference, suggests the moderating role of product familiarity, consumer trust, product similarity and perceived product innovativeness (among others) in the relationship between some antecedents and purchase intention. The most relevant works found in the literature are presented in Table 27.

Table 27: Relevant works found in the literature on moderation effects in relation to purchase intention and/or consumer preference in the past 15 years			
Moderating Variable	**Moderating Effect on the relationship between**	**Methodology Used**	**Author**
Store brand image	Store brand loyalty and Purchase intention	Empirical Study	Calvo-Porral et al. (2016)
Consumer trust in private-label food brands	Private Label brand familiarity and purchase intention.	Empirical Study	Calvo Porral et al. (2016)
Product Familiarity	Positive Emotion + Product Interest and Initial Purchase Intention	Empirical Study	Zhu and Chang (2015)
Consumer Education	Consumer personality and Intention to buy a high-risk product online	Empirical Study	Dillard and Johnson (2015)
Product Similarity	Brand Extension + Brand Globalness and Consumer Evaluation	Empirical Study	Punyatoya (2013)
Perceived product innovativeness Product knowledge	Attitude towards product + Subjective norm and Purchase Intention	Empirical Study	Fu and Elliott (2013)
Materialism	Country Image and Product Preference	Empirical Study	Demirbag et al. (2010)

Table 27: Relevant works found in the literature on moderation effects in relation to purchase intention and/or consumer preference in the past 15 years			
Perceived Risk Reference Groups	Purchase Intention and Repurchase Decisions	Empirical Study	Lin and Chen (2009)
Consumer attachment style	Brand personality and Brand attachment, Purchase likelihood, choice	Empirical Study	Swaminathan et al. (2009)
Consumer Personality characteristics	Website Satisfaction and Online Purchase Intention	Empirical Study	Ranaweera et al. (2008)
Multicultural Competence	Country of Origin + Product Attributes and Product Quality Evaluation	Empirical Study	Peng and Zou (2007)
Product Familiarity	Unique product features and	Empirical Study	Zhou and Nakamoto (2007)
	new product preference		
Celebrity Adoration	Attitude toward the act and Purchase Intention	Empirical Study	Chiou et al. (2005)
Cause Involvement and Donation Size	Cause-Related Marketing/Ordinary Marketing effect on Consumer Attitudes and Purchase Intentions	Empirical Study	Hajjat (2003)
Ethnocentrism	Brand globalness and Purchase likelihood	Empirical Study	(Steenkamp et al., 2003)
Country of Origin	Attitude and Purchase Intention	Empirical Study	Chao (2001)
Source: Self-devised			

The literature does not provide evidence of research works which analyse the moderating role of the different categorisation of brands (global, local and glocal) on the relationship between key antecedents and brand purchase likelihood (BPL). Furthermore, Steenkamp (2003) and Ozsomer (2012) suggest the need for additional research on additional moderating variables in this relationship. This represents a gap in the literature which is an opportunity for further research to address this.

As previously mentioned, global, local and glocal brands interplay in many product categories in emerging markets. However, each brand category has unique characteristics, benefits and competitive strengths by which consumers differentiate them. Given their differentiation, the type of brand may moderate the relationship between some relevant antecedents and brand purchase likelihood. This moderation role is discussed as follows:

Perceived quality is defined as the consumers' overall evaluation of the quality or advantage of the product or service (Jing et al., 2013); these evaluations are based on consumers' own experiences and on other consumer recommendations, in addition to brand reputation, price, and advertising (Mitra and Golder, 2006). Consumer perception of brand globalness enhances the perception of higher/ superior brand quality (Batra et al., 2000; Steenkamp et al., 2003). The type of brand may influence consumer preference for consumer branded products and services. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H1(a): The type of brand moderates the relationship between brand quality and consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

Brand familiarity is the degree of a consumer's direct and indirect experience with a brand (Campbell et al., 2003). There are significantly different responses between familiar and unfamiliar brands which influence advertising attitudes toward the brand and consumer purchase intentions (Türkel et al., 2015). Brand familiarity reduces the perceived risks for consumers (Rose, 2015) and influences consumer

purchase intentions (Shagerdi et al., 2013). The familiarity of local brands is linked to emotional ties for consumers and influences their purchase decisions (Hardesty et al., 2002; Kapferer, 2002); it is a critical antecedent relating to the brand purchase likelihood of both global and local products (Özsomer, 2012). The type of brand (global, local or glocal) may influence consumer preference for branded products and services. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

> H2(a): The type of brand moderates the relationship between brand familiarity and consumer brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets.

Price is one of the most important factors for consumers when making purchase decisions (Elliott and Cameron, 1994). Price has two roles in consumer evaluation of products: (1) as a measure of sacrifice and (2) as an informational reference (Völckner, 2008). In general, higher prices negatively affect purchase probabilities (Zeithaml, 1988; Lichtenstein et al., 1990; Lichtenstein et al., 1993), with the exception of luxury goods, in which price has a positive relationship with purchase intention (Erickson and Johansson, 1985; Hwang et al., 2014). The literature suggests that when consumers perceive a high level of risk when making a doubtful product choice, they prefer to buy higher-priced products (Zeithaml, 1988). Many global brands have a perception of superiority (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Alden et al., 2006), and thus in many cases consumers are willing to pay higher prices for global products. The type of brand (global, local or glocal) may influence consumer preference when it comes to branded products and services. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H3(a): The type of brand moderates the relationship in emerging markets between price and brand purchase likelihood by consumers.

An attitude towards a product is expressed positively or negatively through the evaluation of a particular entity (Eagly and Chaiken, 1998), and entities of interest could be represented by global and local products (Tomlinson, 1999). Consumers have different and observable attitudes toward global and local brands in many product categories (Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010); this is significant because brand attitudes are positively related with the brand purchase intentions (Spears and Singh, 2004; Ahmed and Rouf, 2015). Positive consumer attitudes to global brands impacts purchase likelihood (Özsomer and Altaras, 2008), and they might be willing to pay a higher price for perceived global brands (Davvetas et al., 2015). In a similar way, positive consumer attitudes to local brands may also impact their purchase intentions (Ger, 1999). The type of brand (global, local or glocal) may influence consumer preference for branded products and services. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H4(a): The type of brand moderates the relationship in emerging markets between brand attitude and brand purchase likelihood.

Brand image is consumer perception about and associations with a specific brand (Keller, 1993) and is one of the critical antecedents for building brand preference (Godey and Lai, 2011). It is significant because brand image enhances consumer preference for brands with a global image (Shocker et al., 1994; Eze et al., 2012). On the other hand, the advantages of local brands include a higher level of image

linked to local needs and cultural values (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Guzmán and Paswan, 2009; Chailan and Ille, 2015). The type of brand (global, local or glocal) may influence consumer preference for branded products and services. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H5(a): The type of brand moderates the relationship in emerging markets between brand image and brand purchase likelihood.

Brands represent signals and symbols to consumers (Wallin, 2006), and research in this field has focused on symbolic brand meanings (Strizhakova et al., 2007), especially on brands as signals of status (Bhat and Reddy, 1998). Status consumption is the purchase of those products that confer and symbolise status (Goldsmith and Clark, 2012). Some brands have become symbols of social status, especially luxury brands, which consumers consider are strong symbols of status and are preferred due to their desire to associate with specific social contexts or groups (Han et al., 2010). Global brands are in general considered by consumers as signals of product superiority and global citizenship (Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Verlegh et al., 2005), and the same can also be said for glocal brands (Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010). Local brands are symbols of local culture (Kapferer, 2002), and therefore consumers might also purchase local brands to enhance their social status in specific local social contexts (Wallin, 2006) and use specific product categories to signal it (Wang and Wallendorf, 2006). The type of brand (global, local or glocal) may influence consumer

preference for branded products and services. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H6 (a): The type of brand moderates the relationship in emerging markets between the brand as a social signalling value and brand purchase likelihood.

The proposed model that contains this hypothesis and their relations is presented in Figure 7. This model is the author's own using contributions from the brand purchase likelihood model (Steenkamp et al., 2003), and the multi-level model of brand value (Zhou et al., 2010).

Figure 7: Proposed model
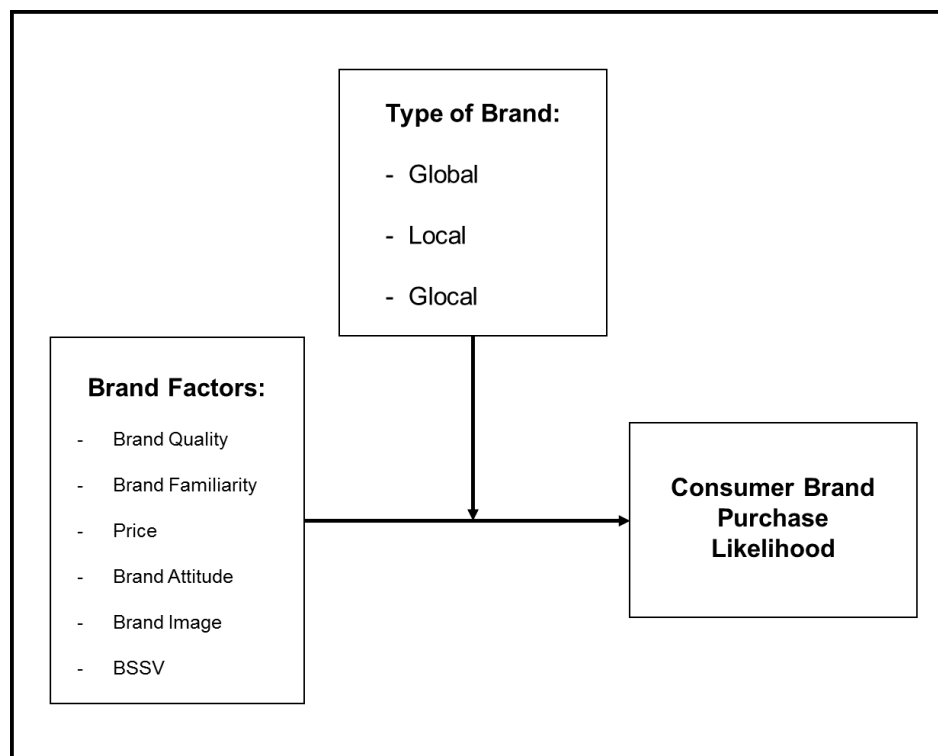
Source: Self-devised

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Selection of product categories and brands for the survey

For this research work we selected 12 brands, 4 of each type; global, glocal and local, and classified them based on the results of a previous empirical study conducted by the authors and explained below in the pre-study section.[1]

4.3.2 Pre-study

24 Brands were selected based on their market share, the probability that their category would produce the three types of brands (global, local and glocal) and consumer familiarity with the category and brands (those well-known to consumers); the categories selected with these characteristics in the Mexican market were Yogurt, Chocolate confectionery, Sportswear, Footwear and Beer. The methodology for the categorisation of brands follows the categorisation principles suggested by Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) and is the research objective covered in essay 2.

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[1] This refers to essay 2 - Categorisation of global, glocal and local brands: a consumer's perspective methodology presented in Chapter 3.

A questionnaire was developed to classify brands into global, glocal and local using two variables; Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) and Perceived Brand Localness (PBL) with items that were drawn from the literature; For "Perceived Brand Globalness" (PBG) three items were used, drawn from Batra et al. (2000). For "Perceived Brand Localness" (PBL), three items were used, drawn from Steenkamp et al. (2003). The scales used are also shown in Table 19 in essay 2.

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was conducted to verify the existence of two factors (PBG and PBL), which was confirmed. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) containing the items of the two constructs was conducted to evaluate the measurement reliability and validity of the scales used in the PBG and PBL constructs. The results confirm that all the scales comply with the measurement reliability and validity. Multiple items were used to measure each of the factors with a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree') aligned with previous research in this field (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

The survey was administered using the probabilistic method, via a matched sample (Sekaran, 1983) based on the population of Mexico, which was supplied by the National Institute of Geography and Statistics (INEGI, 2010). The survey was carried out by a market-research company who applied 400 questionnaires via face to face personal interviews (paper pencil-personal interview) which were collected in the Guadalajara City area. Guadalajara was chosen as it is not only the second largest and most important city in Mexico, but it also offers a commercial, communication media and population scenario which is nationally representative.

The survey consisted of four sets of questionnaires, each including six different brands, and which were rotated among the respondents (Batra et al., 2000). Respondents were asked to evaluate each brand on its Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) and Perceived Brand Localness (PBL).

Following the Steenkamp and de Jong (2010) principles, and based on the combination obtained from the overall PBG and the PBL of the responses in the survey, brands had four possible combinations and these could translate to any of the four categorisations shown in Table 28.

Table 28: Brand categorisation method			
Possible result	**PBG** (-) 1-2-3-4-5-6-7 (+)	**PBL** (-) 1-2-3-4-5-6-7 (+)	**Brand Categorisation**
Case 1	**Positive (+)**	Negative (-)	**Global**
Case 2	Negative (-)	**Positive (+)**	**Local**
Case 3	**Positive (+)**	**Positive (+)**	**Glocal**
Case 4	Negative (-)	Negative (-)	**Functional**
Source: Steenkamp and De Jong (2010)			

The survey produced a set of 2400 pieces of data: 100 for each of the 24 participating brands. In order to categorize each one of the brands from the data obtained in the survey two steps were followed:

1. The Median values were calculated for each one of the constructs corresponding to Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) and Perceived Brand Localness (PBL).

2. The Medians obtained were classified into positive or negative, negative from ≤ 3, neutral = 4 and positive ≥ 5.

3. From that, each brand has a possible four combinations, as previously shown in Table 28.

As an alternative method to the Median calculation, the Mean and Mode values were also calculated in order to corroborate the results; the calculation of the Mean and Mode for each one of the items (3 items for PBG and 3 for PBL) and their overall average were obtained to compare them with the Median. The Mode calculation process was similar to the Median process previously explained. For the Mean, decimals were used and the neutral value was established between 3.76 and 4.24. Based on the overall average obtained for PBG and PBL, we followed the same categorisation criteria presented in Table 28. The results obtained with these three approaches using Median, Mean and Mode were practically equal, although we followed the Median calculation method to present results.

The results of the empirical study for the categorisation of participating brands are shown in Table 29.

Table 29: Results of the brand categorisation study					
Brand	Median PBG	Median PBL	PBG	PBL	Results
1. Nine-West (footwear)	7	1	Positive	Negative	Global
2. Adidas (sportswear)	7	2	Positive	Negative	Global
3. Nike (sportswear)	7	2	Positive	Negative	Global
4. Snickers (chocolate)	6	2	Positive	Negative	Global
5. Great Value (breakfast cereal)	6	2	Positive	Negative	Global
6. Kinder (chocolate)	6	3	Positive	Negative	Global
7. Heineken (beer)	6	2	Positive	Negative	Global

Table 29: Results of the brand categorisation study						
8. Kellogg´s (breakfast cereal)	7	3	Positive	Negative	Global
9. Nestlé (breakfast cereal)	6	3	Positive	Negative	Global
10. Brantano (footwear)	5	3	Positive	Negative	Global
11. Flexi (footwear)	5	3	Positive	Negative	Global
12. Corona Extra (beer)	7	5	Positive	Positive	Glocal
13. Dan'Up / Danone (yogurt)	7	5	Positive	Positive	Glocal
14. TECATE (beer)	7	5	Positive	Positive	Glocal
15. Vitalinea (yogurt)	5	5	Positive	Positive	Glocal
16. Maizoro (breakfast cereal)	2.5	7	Negative	Positive	Local
17. Atletica (sportswear)	3	7	Negative	Positive	Local
18. Pirma (sportswear)	3	6	Negative	Positive	Local
19. Carlos V (chocolate)	2	6	Negative	Positive	Local
20. XX Lager (beer)	2	5	Negative	Positive	Local
21. Turin (chocolate)	3	5	Negative	Positive	Local
22. Lala (yogurt)	2	5	Negative	Positive	Local
23. Yoplait (yogurt)	2	5	Negative	Positive	Local
24. Emyco (footwear)	3	3	Negative	Negative	Functional
Source: Self-devised					

4.3.3 Study

Based on the results of the previously-described pre-study, the brands selected for this research were those with the strongest overall average for the categorisation (the stronger global, glocal and global brands regardless of their category). Four sets containing the three types of brands were defined for use in this research. The selected brands and sets are shown in Table 30.

Table 30: Selected brands and sets for the survey			
Set No.	Brand categorisation		
	Global	Local	Glocal

Table 30: Selected brands and sets for the survey			
Set 1	Adidas (sportswear)	Maizoro (cereal)	TECATE (beer)
Set 2	Snickers (chocolate)	Atletica (sportswear)	Dan'Up / Danone (yogurt)
Set 3	Nike (sportswear)	Carlos V (chocolate)	Vitalinea (yogurt)
Set 4	Heineken (beer)	XX Lager (beer)	Corona Extra (beer)
Source: Self-devised			

The set of brands chosen to participate in the survey constitutes a well-balanced sample since it contains the same number of global, local and glocal brands. As a result, the results obtained by the survey may be generalisable to any these three types of brands.

A questionnaire was developed based on the theoretical model presented in Figure 7. Brand Purchase likelihood was the dependent variable and Brand Quality, Price, Brand Familiarity, Brand Image, Brand Attitude and Brand as Social Signalling Value were the independent variables. To ensure that the selected products and brands were familiar to the respondents and that the questionnaire was clear and readable a focus group was conducted with a selected group of consumers before the application of the study in the field.

The survey was conducted via a market research agency which applied 400 questionnaires to a representative sample of the Mexican population. The interviews were conducted face-to-face and the sample was representative in accordance with the results of the 2010 Mexican population census (INEGI, 2010)

from the most important cities of the country: Mexico City, Guadalajara and Monterrey.

4.3.4 Sample

The survey was administered to a representative sample of the Mexican population using data supplied by the National Institute of Geography and Statistics (INEGI, 2010); a matched sample was used. Segments were determined by age using groupings of 10 years for practicality in the implementation of the survey, following the percentage (%) of gender vs. the national population. Since the survey includes the beer products category, consumers under the Mexican legal drinking age (18+) were not included. Table 31 shows the data of the national population used for the matched sample.

Table 31: Mexican population by age segment (Does not include population under 17 years)						
Age segment	Men	Women	TOTAL	% Men	% Women	% of segment vs. total population
18 a 19	2,143,673	2,171,491	4,315,164	50%	50%	6%
4.320 a 29	9,019,179	9,661,269	18,68,0448	48%	52%	26%
30 a 39	7,990,769	8,77,3016	16,763,785	48%	52%	23%
40 a 49	6,174,686	6,763,270	12,937,956	48%	52%	18%
50 o more	8,951,526	10,063,509	19,015,035	47%	53%	27%
Total general	34,279,833	37,432,555	71,712,388	48%	52%	100%
Source: Mexican National Institute of Geography and Statistics (INEGI, 2010)						

The survey applied 400 questionnaires distributed by age segment following a matched nationally representative sample as shown in Table 32.

Table 32: Distribution of the sample by age and gender vs. distribution of the population							
National population							% of segment vs. national population
Age Segment	% Men	% Women	Men	Women	Total	% of responses by age	
18-19	50%	50%	12	13	**25**	6.3%	6%
20-29	48%	52%	54	53	**107**	26.8%	26%
30-39	48%	52%	46	48	**94**	23.5%	23%
40-49	48%	52%	32	38	**70**	17.5%	18%
50 +	47%	53%	50	54	**104**	26.0%	27%
Source: Self-devised							

Brands were distributed into the 4 sets presented in Table 28; these sets of brands were rotated among questionnaires to provide consistency (Batra et al., 2000).

4.3.5 Measures

Measures for this study were drawn from previous items/measures used in the literature. The dependent variable is "Brand Purchase Likelihood", and seven independent variables were analysed: Brand Quality, Brand Familiarity, Price, Brand Attitude, Brand Image, Brand Prestige and Brand as Social Signalling Value. Annex 1 presents the sources of the items / measures for every variable used in this work.

Multiple items were used to measure each of the factors with a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree') aligned with previous research in this field (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

Two statistical techniques were used; factor analysis and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). A factor analysis (FA) for the multiple-item variables was

conducted along with key statistical Cronbach alpha tests to assess the validity of the factors.

4.4 Results

The survey produced a set of 1200 data: 400 sets for global brands, 400 for glocal brands and 400 for local brands.

The results of the factor analysis and the Cronbach alpha tests, shown in Table 33, comply with the established parameters for the reliability of the model.

Table 33: Cronbach alpha and Factor Analysis results						
Factor	Cronbach alpha	Number of factors	% of variance	KMO	Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi 2$)	Sig.
Brand Quality	0.888	1	81.91	0.748	2051.824	.000
Brand Familiarity	0.799	1	71.731	0.705	1154.218	.000
Price	0.858	1	78.369	0.707	1795.397	.000
Brand Attitude	0.894	1	82.572	0.751	2129.284	.000
Brand Image	0.764	1	80.967	0.5	579.393	.000
BSSV	0.85	1	77.026	0.718	1587.178	.000
Brand Purchase Likelihood (BPL)	0.921	1	92.722	0.5	1568.196	.000
Source: Self-devised. Factor analysis extraction method: Principal Component Analysis.						

To test the hypotheses, a SEM analysis using AMOS 22 software was conducted to validate the relationship between independent and dependent variables as well as to validate the proposed moderating effects. We conducted a Multigroup structural equation model (considered one of the dominant approaches to multi-

group data analysis), to compare the different groups identified for each moderator effect (Hair et al., 2006), but we first conducted a measurement invariance test.

4.4.1 Test of hypotheses

As mentioned before, the main objective of this research work is to confirm whether the type of brand moderates the relationship between the antecedents and the brand purchase likelihood. Brands are categorised in three types global, local and glocal. Through the metric invariance test presented in Table 34, the existence of metric invariance (Dif. X2= 30.435) was confirmed; therefore, we can proceed to assess the significance of the moderating effect of the type of brand.

Table 34: Measurement invariance test								
Model	x^2	d.f.	Dif. X^2	Dif.d.f.	p	RMSEA	GFI	CFI
Single group solution								
Global(n=400)	1373.773	146				0.074	0.900	0.938
Local(n=400)	1868.585	146				0.076	0.900	0.950
Glocal(n=400)	1667.707	146				0.062	0.918	0.962
AVERAGE	4910.065	438						
Measurement invariance (n= 1200)								
Equal form	4910.065	438				0.042	0.905	0.950
Equal factor loadings	4940.500	462	30.435	24	0.171	0.041	0.902	0.949
Source: Self-devised								

In this way we compared the multi-group model without restriction with each of the models with each of the constraints, meaning six different models. These are presented in Table 35.

Table 35: Moderating effect of type of brand towards the chi-square test for each of the Multigroup restrictions					
Model	**X^2**	**d.f.**	**Dif X^2**	**Dif d.f.**	**P**
Multi sample model	4910.065	438			
Multi sample model with restriction:					
BQ-BPL	4914.486	440	4.421	2	0.110
BF-BPL	4914.607	440	4.542	2	0.103
PR-BPL	4910.437	440	0.372	2	0.830
BA-BPL	4917.093	440	7.028	2	0.030*
BI-BPL	4910.506	440	0.441	2	0.802
BSSV-BPL	4915.135	440	5.070	2	0.079*
*p<0.10					
Source: Self-devised					

The results of the multi-group analysis are shown in Table 36.

		Total sample			Global			Local			Glocal			Type of brand moderator effect	
Hip	**Path**	**Standardised path coefficients**		**t value**	**Standardised path coefficients**		**t value**	**Standardised path coefficients**		**t value**	**Standardised path coefficients**		**t value**	**Dif X2 (d.f.=2)**	**p**
H1	BQ-->BPL	0.249	***	11.380	0.343	***	8.305	0.157	***	4.895	0.252	***	5.416	2	0.110
H2	BF-->BPL	0.170	***	6.678	0.285	***	5.005	0.078	0.042	2.038	0.200	***	4.655	2	0.103
H3	PR-->BPL	-0.133	***	-6.744	-0.127	***	-3.467	-0.143	***	-3.873	-0.111	***	-3.723	2	0.830
H4	BA-->BPL	0.559	***	25.074	0.534	***	14.010	0.683	***	18.668	0.402	***	9.657	2	0.030
H5	BI-->BPL	0.244	***	8.139	0.246	***	3.306	0.241	***	4.733	0.307	***	5.917	2	0.802
H6	BSSV-->BPL	0.116	***	6.129	0.104	0.001	3.280	0.195	***	5.155	0.075	0.020	2.33	2	0.079

Table 36: Hypotheses testing

***p<=0.01; **p<=0.05; *p<=0.1; ns=non-significance. X2 = 4940.500, d.f.462, GFI= 0.91, CFI=0.95, RMSEA= 0.04

Source: Self-devised

The first objective of this research work was to determine the key antecedents in emerging markets of brand purchase likelihood by consumers. In terms of the relationship of these antecedents with brand purchase likelihood, the results confirmed that all antecedents are positively related to brand purchase likelihood. These results are consistent with the findings of studies 1 and 2 presented previously in chapter 2 of this research work as well as with relevant works found in the literature.

As shown in Table 36, results of the SEM analysis suggests that for H1, brand quality (BQ) and brand purchase likelihood are positively related as this was significant at ($p<=0.01$), confirming that for consumers in emerging markets this factor is relevant (Kapferer, 1997; Akram et al., 2011). In the case of H2, brand familiarity (BF) is also positively related to brand purchase likelihood, with a significance level at ($p<=0.01$). This confirms that it plays an important role in consumer purchase decisions in emerging markets (Batra et al., 2000; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010; Özsomer, 2012). For H3, price (PR) is also positively related to brand purchase likelihood since it was significant at ($p<=0.01$), confirming that it plays an important role in emerging markets in consumer purchase decisions (Elliott and Cameron, 1994); it is important to underline that the results in this relationship also confirm that the antecedent of price has a negative relationship with brand purchase likelihood; the literature suggests that in general, the higher the price the lower the probabilities of purchase (Zeithaml, 1988; Lichtenstein et al., 1990; Lichtenstein et al., 1993). Results also suggest that

for H4, brand attitude (BA) is also positively related to brand purchase likelihood since it was significant at (p<=0.01, confirming that this factor is also relevant for consumers in emerging markets (Aaker and Keller, 1990; Spears and Singh, 2004; Ahmed and Rouf, 2015). For H5, brand image (BI) is positively related to brand purchase likelihood, with a significance level of (p<=0.01), confirming its relevance for consumers in emerging markets (Batra et al., 2000; Chang and Liu, 2009; Eze et al., 2012). For H6, brand as social signalling value is positively related to brand purchase likelihood; it was significant at (p<=0.01), confirming that for consumers in emerging markets this is relevant (Wang and Wallendorf, 2006; Han et al., 2010).

According to these findings the antecedent with the strongest influence in relation to brand purchase likelihood is brand attitude (BA) with a standardised path of (0.559). This may be due to the subjectivity of consumer attitudes in their evaluations of brands (Eagly and Chaiken, 1998) which subsequently influence the purchase   intentions of consumers (Spears and Singh, 2004; Steenkamp and De Jong, 2010; Ahmed and Rouf, 2015).

Brand quality was the second strongest antecedent that positively influences brand purchase likelihood with a standardized path coefficient of (0.249), confirming the relevance of perceived brand quality as an antecedent in consumer purchase decisions (Alden et al., 2006; Özsomer and Altaras, 2008; Dumitrescu and Vinerean, 2010; Akram et al., 2011; Özsomer, 2012). The third strongest antecedent was brand image, with a standardised path coefficient of (0.244),

confirming that brand image is a relevant antecedent which influences brand purchase likelihood (Shocker et al., 1994; Godey and Lai, 2011); given the fact that brand image is the perception of a brand in the minds of consumers (AMA, 2014a), a positive brand image may therefore have a positive effect on consumer disposition to purchase.

The second objective of this research work was to analyse the influence of the type of brand (local, global or glocal) among these antecedents and brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets. Our results suggest that the type of brand moderates the relationship between two antecedents and brand purchase likelihood (BPL) since a significant difference is obtained only for the relationships related to hypotheses H4(a) ($p < 0.05$) and H6(a) ($p < 0.10$), suggesting the existence of a moderating effect of the type of brand on the relationship between brand attitude (BA) and brand purchase likelihood (BPL) as well in the relationship between brand as social signalling value (BSSV) and BPL. No moderation effect on the relationship between brand quality (BQ), brand familiarity (BF), price (PR) and brand Image (BI) and the BPL was identified since the results were not significant.

The moderation effect of brand attitude (BA) was stronger in local brands (βlocal = 0.683, $p < 0.01$) suggesting that for local brands consumer attitude is a critical antecedent that has a strong impact on the relationship between this antecedent and brand purchase likelihood. This may be explained by the connections of local brands with local culture, and how consumers with a better attitude towards brands

have higher probabilities of purchase intentions. This is followed by global brands (βglobal = 0.534, p < 0.01) suggesting that for global brands BA is also relevant in the relationship between this antecedent and brand purchase likelihood. Traditionally consumers in emerging markets have a positive attitude toward global brands (Steenkamp et al., 2003). Glocal brands had the lowest values (βglocal = 0.402, p < 0.01) suggesting that these types of brands are probably less clearly identified by consumers in emerging markets given their hybrid nature.

In the case of brand as social signalling value, the effect is also higher in local brands (βlocal = 0.195, p < 0.01), suggesting that local brands which consumers recognise as symbols of social status have higher purchase probability.

Followed by global brands (β_{global} = 0.116, p < 0.01) which have traditionally played a role of signalling status among consumers in emerging markets due to their globalness, the moderation effect was lower in glocal brands (β_{glocal} = 0.075, p < 0.05) and this may well be explained by their hybrid positioning among consumers.

 The proposed model from the SEM previously discussed is presented in Figure 8.

Figure 8: Proposed model for Structural Equation Modelling
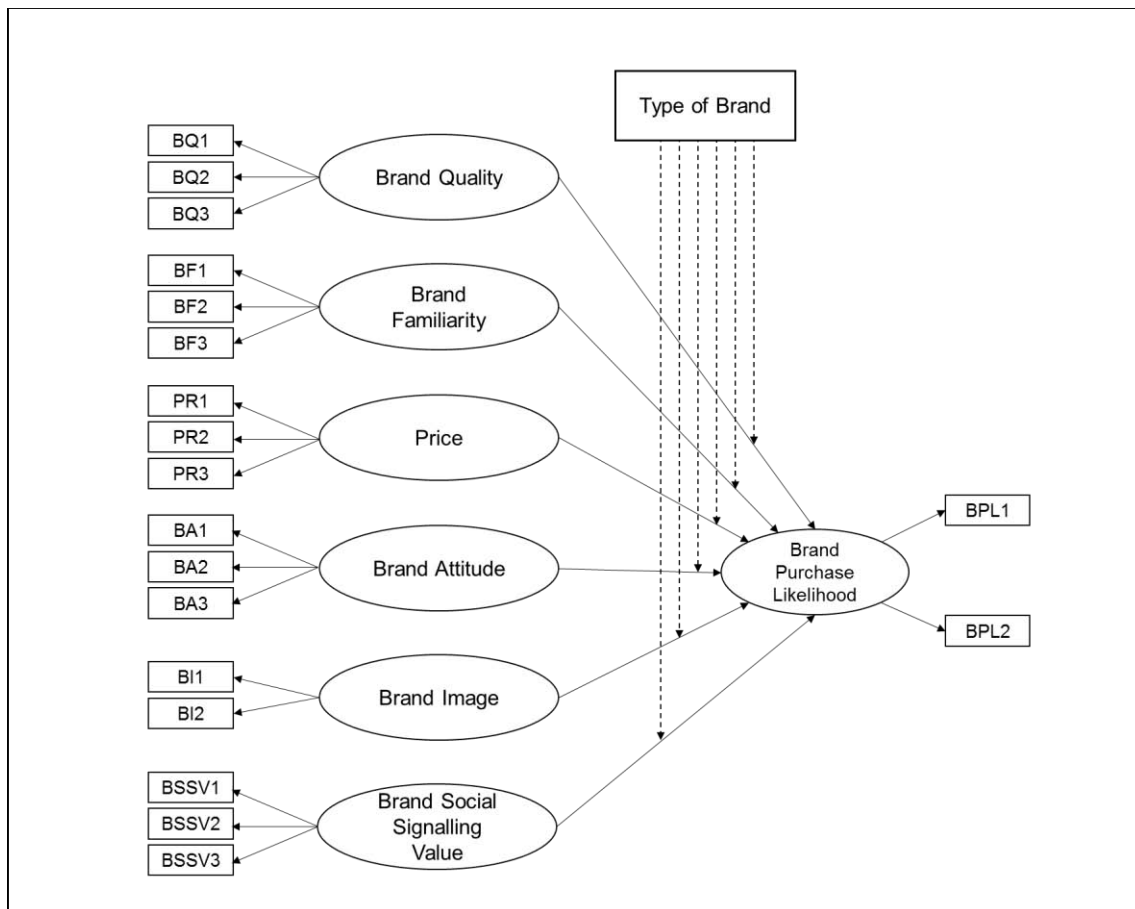
4.5 Conclusions, managerial implications and future research directions

4.5.1 Conclusions

This study contributes to the knowledge of the antecedents of consumer purchase likelihood for consumer brands in emerging markets (EMs). Our major contribution comes from analysing the moderating effect of the type of brand on such antecedents.

The design and the findings of the empirical analysis based on consumer data from an emerging market (Mexico) contributes to the branding literature in several ways:

First, this work contributes to the literature by providing additional insightful research into the specific factors that increase the purchase likelihood of global, local and glocal brands by using a categorisation methodology based on the consumers' perception of brands.

Second, in terms of the relationships of these antecedents to brand purchase likelihood, this work contributes by suggesting that all antecedents are positively related with brand purchase likelihood in emerging markets. These results are consistent with the findings of studies 1 and 2 previously presented in essay 1 of this research work and with relevant works found in the literature.

Brand quality is confirmed to be a relevant antecedent which enhances the brand purchase likelihood for the three types of brands among consumers in emerging markets (EM's). This is an important contribution because it suggests that this antecedent is equally important for all types of brands to enable them to successfully compete and conquer consumer preferences in EM's. Local and glocal brands need to focus on achieving a higher perceived quality to successfully face global brand competition.

Brand familiarity is also confirmed to be a relevant antecedent which enhances brand purchase likelihood. This is another important contribution which suggests that this antecedent is equally relevant for the three types of brands. Consumers in

EM's have a greater preference for brands which are familiar to them; therefore, global, local and glocal brands alike need to focus their efforts on constructing a strong familiarity with their brands by aiming to positively influence the consumer's purchase decision.

The relevance of the role of price was confirmed as an antecedent which enhances brand purchase likelihood. This is another important contribution which also suggests that this antecedent is equally relevant for the three types of brands and that it plays an important role in consumer purchase decisions. All three types of brands need to consider these findings in order for their pricing strategies to successfully compete in EM's.

Brand attitude (BA) is confirmed to be another relevant antecedent which enhances the brand purchase likelihood among consumers in emerging markets (EM's) for the three types of brands. This is an important contribution because it suggests that this antecedent is important for all types of brands to successfully compete and conquer consumer preference in EM's.

The relevance of the role of brand image was confirmed as an antecedent which also enhances brand purchase likelihood. This contributes by suggesting that this antecedent is equally relevant for global, local and glocal brands as it plays an important role in consumer purchase decisions in emerging markets.

Brand as social signalling value is also confirmed as a relevant antecedent of brand purchase likelihood. This contributes by suggesting that this antecedent is

equally important for the three types of brands among consumers in EM's. Local brands that become signals of status in specific local cultural contexts may significantly enhance their purchase likelihood. Similar results may be obtained by glocal brands.

Finally, according to these findings, the antecedent with the strongest influence in relation to brand purchase likelihood is brand attitude. Brand quality was the second strongest antecedent that positively influenced brand purchase likelihood and the third strongest antecedent was confirmed to be brand image.

Third, this study also confirms the existence of the moderating effect of the type of brand on the relationship between brand attitude and brand purchase likelihood, as well in the relationship between brand as social signalling value and BPL. No moderation effect in the relationship between brand quality (BQ), brand familiarity (BF), price (PR) and brand Image (BI) and the BPL was confirmed.

The moderation effect of brand attitude (BA) is strategic for the three types of consumer brands when connecting with target consumers, although the moderation effect was higher in local brands. Local brands may impact consumer purchase likelihood by capitalizing on building a positive brand attitude. Since consumer attitude is the result of a subjective psychological position towards the brand, local brands may use different elements to build positive attitudes towards them; a key element for this is to capitalize on consumer awareness of the local

brand, capitalizing on the connections built through the consumer's lifetime and local brand knowledge.

Additionally, local brands may capitalize on their brand characteristics and benefits connecting them with the local culture, underlining their uniqueness and capacity to better fulfil the needs and desires of local consumers; aiming to build a positive brand attitude towards them, this will importantly appeal to consumers when evaluating local versus global brands purchase options. This moderation effect is followed, in the second place, by global brands; suggesting that also for global brands brand attitude is also relevant in the relationship between this antecedent and the brand purchase likelihood. Glocal brands had the lowest values suggesting that these type of brands are probably less clearly identified by consumers in emerging markets given this hybrid nature.

In the case of brand as a social signalling value, the moderation effect was higher in local brands as well, suggesting that local brands may enhance their brand purchase likelihood by becoming signals of social status. In general, most brands that signal social status are either luxury or global brands; our results demonstrate that this antecedent has a higher moderation effect in local brands, meaning that those local brands that achieve a positioning of brands as symbols of social status, might strongly enhance their brand purchase likelihood versus competitors. Followed by global brands which due to their globalness effect have played a role of signalling status among consumers in emerging markets; the moderation effect

was lower in glocal brands and this may also be explained by their hybrid positioning among consumers.

4.5.2 Managerial implications

Brand managers can build specific marketing strategies for consumer brands based on the antecedents that enhance purchase likelihood of their brand in emerging markets.

Local brand managers may use the distinctiveness of being local in their marketing strategies to build a stronger brand attitude and better target local consumers by connecting the brand with local culture (Zambuni, 1993; Ger, 1999; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Swoboda et al., 2012).

Local consumer brands may become symbols/icons of local culture, like Cerveza Corona Extra. This is now a globally-successful brand, and for more than 60 years has been considered by consumers in Mexico as an icon of local culture. Corona has built a strong and positive brand attitude, for instance in 1943 Corona launching one of the most memorable marketing slogans in the Mexican history: "and twenty million Mexicans can't be wrong" (Corona-Extra, 2015). A similarly successful case of a leading consumer local brand which has built a positive brand attitude among consumers is Carlos V chocolate, which was a leading local brand for more than 50 years. In 1970 the local firm Fábrica de chocolates la Azteca was acquired by the Quaker Oats Company. In 1995 it was subsequently acquired by Nestlé and is today one of their strategic brands.

Given the relevant moderation effect of the brand as social signalling value on brand purchase likelihood in local brands, managers may build positioning strategies which aim to convince local consumers to consider them as signals of social status by capitalizing on their social affiliation with desired social circles, as well as on consumer identification with their "local cultural nature" and by enhancing the benefits of status on consumer self-image and approval from their reference groups (Bearden and Etzel, 1982).

As previously mentioned, in general global and luxury brands are normally those considered by consumers as brands that enhance social status, and some local brands may significantly enhance brand purchase likelihood by developing strategies which position them as brands which consumers consider symbols of social status.

For local brands going global, Özsomer (2012) suggests making sure consumers are aware that the product is marketed abroad, as well as enhancing brand personality and ties to cultural background in foreign markets by positioning these brands as "cultural brands" (Guzmán and Paswan, 2009; Chailan and Ille, 2015).

4.5.3 Limitations and future research directions

One of the limitations of this work is that it was only conducted in Mexico; a wider study in other emerging markets in Latin America or worldwide is suggested for generalization of the results (Steenkamp et al., 2003).

This study only included twelve brands in different consumer product categories, a wider study including a larger number of brands and product categories is suggested (Özsomer, 2012).

This study only included six antecedents in relation to brand purchase likelihood by consumers; further research with additional antecedents related to brand purchase likelihood, such as susceptibility to normative influence, is suggested.

This study analysed the moderating effect of the type of brand on the antecedents and brand purchase likelihood. Additional research focused on analysing the moderating effect on these relationships of consumer characteristics such as cosmopolitanism, materialism and ethnocentrism, is also suggested.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE DISSERTATION

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE DISSERTATION

This doctoral dissertation advances our understanding of the relationships between relevant antecedents and brand purchase likelihood of global, local and glocal brands in the brand strategy area of interest in the marketing field.

Furthermore, it has important implications for the literature and for brand strategy and management. Although it has several limitations, it also suggests several possibilities for future research. In this chapter we present the final remarks of this research work through a summary of the dissertation, the contributions of the dissertation, implications and limitations and suggestions for future research work. It is expected that this thesis will provide new features, as well as reinforcement of the findings of previous research made in this area of academic interest.

5.1 Summary of the dissertation

The present dissertation has been designed in the form of three interdependent essays, each with its research questions, analysis of methodology and empirical results.

The primary objective of this doctoral dissertation was to determine those antecedents that enhance the purchase likelihood of local brands. Based on the branding literature, we argued that some of the antecedents that enhance global brand purchase likelihood could also enhance the likelihood of local brand purchase by consumers. This research therefore complements and reinforces

existing studies of consumer preference for local brands in emerging markets (EMs) and suggests some antecedents that enhance brand purchase likelihood for local food brands, as well as some additional antecedents that enhance brand purchase likelihood for local clothing brands.

Recognizing the importance of the brand categorisation for brand strategy development, and consistent with the gap found in the literature, our second objective was to investigate the categorisation of brands from the consumer point of view versus the traditional objective brand categorisation method found in the literature. In this work we introduced a methodology that allows an appropriate categorisation of brands based on consumer perspective and founded in consumer culture theory.

Our third objective was to determine the factors that enhance the Brand Purchase Likelihood for the different types of brands interacting in the same product categories. Therefore, the empirical study proposed an essay which analyses the relevant antecedents found in the literature that enhance brand purchase likelihood in three categories: global, local and glocal, the antecedents that are common for all three of them and the moderating effects of the type of brand category which might influence the above-mentioned relationships. Our results suggest that there are common relevant factors that enhance the purchase likelihood of the three types of brands and that there is moderating effect of the type of brand on some of these relationships.

5.2 Contributions of the Dissertation

In the introductory chapter of this dissertation we focused our attention on four critical aspects in brand management and consumer preference for brands: (1) the brand antecedents that positively influence brand purchase likelihood by consumers of local brands; (2) a method to properly classify brands into global, local and glocal based on consumer perceptions; (3) the brand antecedents that might enhance brand purchase likelihood specifically or equally for each category of brand (global, local and glocal), and (4) the moderating effects of the typology of brand which might influence the above-mentioned relationships.

Considering the increased and complex competition among global and local brands in emerging markets our research contributes by suggesting factors that enhance brand purchase likelihood and considering the interplay of three categories of brands; global, local and glocal.

In the first empirical essay in Study 1, our findings suggest that, for local brands, perceived quality and prestige (PQP), bias in favour of local brands (BFLB) and brand familiarity (BF) are factors positively related with brand purchase likelihood.

For younger consumers, an additional factor was confirmed to be relevant; perceived brand localness (PBL), suggesting that to younger generations PBL is relevant probably due to their stronger glocal attitude and cultural proximity (Zambuni, 1993; Kapferer, 2002; Strizhakova, 2008; Patel and Lynch, 2013; Roudometof, 2015). The other three groups, PQP, BFLB, BF, might increase their

importance among the remaining consumers who with time and experience are increasingly exposed to both global and local brands (Belk, 2000; Xie et al., 2015; Halkias et al., 2016), and come to regard them differently (Ming-Sung et al., 2007; Chang and Ko, 2014). In Study 2, our findings suggest that for local clothing brands, image, brand attitude, brand as social signalling value, susceptibility to normative influence and bias in favour of local brands are factors positively related with local brand purchase likelihood.

In the second empirical essay, our results confirm that the categorisation of brands based on consumer opinion differs substantially from the traditional "objective method" used by researchers and company managers. We categorised 24 leading well-known brands from different areas present in the Mexican market. The categorisations were based on the four types of consumer responses (global, glocal, local and functional) to the joint forces of globalisation and localisation. Our findings contribute to the literature by suggesting and introducing a methodology that allows an appropriate categorisation of brands based on the consumers' perspective.

An additional empirical study (essay 3) using this methodology to categorise brands in an emerging market such as Mexico, contributes to global, local and glocal brand understanding by offering evidence of the factors that enhance the brand purchase likelihood of these different items.

In the third essay our findings contribute by suggesting that the all these antecedents, Brand Quality, Brand Familiarity, Price, Brand Attitude, Brand Image

and Brand as Social Signalling Value are positively related to brand purchase likelihood (BPL) in all of the three types of brands. This is especially relevant to research into glocal brands, since little attention is given in the literature to these (Thompson and Arsel, 2004; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016), or to reviewing factors that may influence glocal brand purchase likelihood. The findings also suggest the relevance and strategic role of the global, glocal and local brand mix in the portfolio of international firms competing in emerging markets (Schuiling and Kapferer, 2004; Parry et al., 2016).

In addition, our results suggest that the type of brand moderates the relationship between brand attitude and brand purchase likelihood as well as between brand as social signalling value and brand purchase likelihood. In both cases the moderation effect is higher for local brands.

Consumer attitudes encompass a person's internal feelings about a specific object and their evaluation of its benefits (Spears and Singh, 2004; Ahmed and Rouf, 2015). In this case an attitude is focused on a brand; therefore, the fact that brand-type moderates the relationship between brand attitude and purchase likelihood and that this moderation is stronger for local brands is important, because building a more positive brand attitude can positively influence local brand purchase likelihood.

One advantage for local brands is to capitalise on their strong cultural connections with local consumers (Aaker, 1990; Zambuni, 1993; Samli, 1995; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016) and translate those into a better, more

competitive, brand value that could lead them to become icons of local consumer culture.

Additionally, a moderation effect was also suggested in the relationship between brand as social signalling value and brand purchase likelihood. This is in fact higher for local brands, meaning that local consumer brands could position themselves as signals of social value. By becoming signals of social status or of social links to determined desired social groups or contexts, those brands will also enhance their purchase likelihood among those consumers who understand their significance and   might purchase them to enhance their social classification or affiliation in their desired social circles (Wallin, 2006; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; van der Lans et al., 2016).

Table 37 summarises the above and reinforces the main contributions of this dissertation though the hypotheses tested in our study.

Table 37: Summary of contributions through hypotheses and research objectives		
Essay	**Hypotheses (essays 1 and 3) and Research objectives (essay 2)**	**Result**
1 **Study 1**	H1: Perceived brand localness is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood	Not supported (Supported in the younger segment)
	H2: Perceived brand quality and prestige is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood	Supported
	H3: Bias in favour of local brands is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood	Supported
	H4: Brand familiarity is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood.	Supported
1 **Study 2**	H1: Brand attitude is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood.	Supported
	H2: Brand image is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood.	Supported
	H3: Brand as a social signalling value positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood.	Supported
	H4: Susceptibility to normative influence is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase	Supported

Essay	Hypotheses (essays 1 and 3) and Research objectives (essay 2)	Result
	Table 37: Summary of contributions through hypotheses and research objectives	
	likelihood.	
	H5: Bias in favour of local brands is positively associated in emerging markets with local brand purchase likelihood.	Supported
2	R. Obj.1: To develop a new methodology based on the attitudinal categorisation principles by Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) that allows brands of different categories competing in the market to be clearly classified into different product categories based on consumer perception.	Confirmed
	R. Obj.2: To analyse the differences on the results of brand categorisation methods based on both objective criteria and consumer perception.	Confirmed
3	H1: Brand quality is positively associated with brand purchase likelihood	Supported
	H2: Brand familiarity is positively associated with brand purchase likelihood	Supported
	H3: Price is negatively associated with brand purchase likelihood	Supported
	H4: Brand attitude is positively associated with brand purchase likelihood	Supported
	H5: Brand image is positively associated with brand purchase likelihood	Supported

Essay	Hypotheses (essays 1 and 3) and Research objectives (essay 2)	Result
Table 37: Summary of contributions through hypotheses and research objectives		
	H6: Brand as a social signalling value is positively associated with brand purchase likelihood	Supported
	H1 (a): The type of brand moderates the relationship between brand quality and brand purchase likelihood.	Not Supported
	H2 (a): The type of brand moderates the relationship between brand familiarity and brand purchase likelihood.	Not Supported
	H3 (a): The type of brand moderates the relationship between price and brand purchase likelihood.	Not Supported
	H4 (a): The type of brand moderates the relationship between brand attitude and brand purchase likelihood.	Supported
	H5 (a): The type of brand moderates the relationship between brand image and brand purchase likelihood.	Not Supported
	H6 (a): The type of brand moderates the relationship between the brand as a social signalling value and brand purchase likelihood	Supported
Source: Self-devised.		

5.3 Implications of the Dissertation

This dissertation has important implications for the literature on consumer preference and brand management.

5.3.1 Implications for the literature

This doctoral dissertation contributes to the current academic body of knowledge in the following areas:

1. I combine theories and insights from different streams (marketing, psychology, and economics) to develop and test a comprehensive model of drivers of brand purchase likelihood; our research contributes to the literature on brand strategy and consumer preference by extending the knowledge of the antecedents of consumer preference for specific types of brands (global, glocal and local, and their interplay in emerging markets) and by providing additional insightful research on the relationships between the antecedents of brand quality, brand familiarity, price, brand attitude, brand image and brand as social signalling value are positively related with Brand Purchase Likelihood by consumers, confirming their relevance in enhancing brand purchase likelihood with any of the three types of consumer brands. No previous research has done this.

2. I derive a typology – and measurement instrument – for four types of brands by extending Steenkamp and De Jong's theory to the branding context. This research work makes a significant contribution to the literature by introducing and suggesting a methodology based on consumers' perception of global, local and glocal brands, in order to effectively classify brands from a consumer perspective.

Some of the analysed brands were categorised as glocal due to the dual perceptions by consumers of globalness and localness coexisting in the same emerging-market brand.

Our findings confirm the implications of consumer attitudes to Global Products and perceived brand globalness (PBG), as well as attitudes to Local Products and perceived brand localness (PBL) for brands across product categories which are available on the market, additionally our findings also confirm the glocalisation response, a new "glocal attitude" from consumers who view and translate certain local and global brands within this new categorisation. The measurement instrument can be used in future academic and managerial research.

3. I hypothesise and test the moderating role of brand type on the effects of these theoretically-grounded drivers of purchase likelihood. Our findings suggest the existence of a moderating role for brand type on the relationship between brand attitude (BA) and brand purchase likelihood, and brand as social signalling value (BSSV) and brand purchase likelihood (BPL), which both presented a higher moderation effect for local brands.

In the case of the brand as social signalling value, the moderation effect was also higher in local brands, suggesting that those local brands that can become signals of social status may enhance their purchase likelihood. Usually most brands that signal social status are either luxury or global brands, but, based on our findings, the relationship of this antecedent and brand purchase likelihood has a higher moderation effect in local brands, and could therefore become a competitive

advantage for those local brands desirous of developing a positioning strategy in which consumers consider them symbols of social status. This might strongly enhance their brand purchase likelihood versus the competition. This has not been done before.

4. I test my theories in an emerging market context. Burgess and Steenkamp (2006, 2013) urge marketing academics to test their theories in emerging markets. They recognise that in heeding this call, the researcher needs to select a particular emerging market as testing ground, with future research working on generalising those insights to other markets. The value of this approach is shown by articles like Batra et al. (2000) and Steenkamp and Burgess (2002) who test theories in particular countries: India and South Africa, respectively. In terms of economic importance, Mexico is situated between these two countries. I also note that Mexico is conceptually interesting for studying the interpenetration of global and local influences as it is a much more open economy than India or South Africa, and has several hone-grown brands, like Corona, which are premier global brands in their own right. This makes Mexico as a test setting especially interesting, as its brandscape is more reflective of that of countries like Brazil or China, which also are relatively more open and have their own global brands.

5.3.2 Implications for management

First, our results support the theory that local brands are still a significant presence in the Mexican market.

Second, our empirical findings also suggest that managers should apply the suggested brand categorisation methodology based on consumer perspectives to analyse how consumers categorise the brands already present in their specific markets. This would throw light on how consumers really perceive the brand as opposed to their official internal categorisation. By obtaining this categorisation, managers can build well-differentiated positioning strategies based on the characteristics of each of the four categories of consumer attitudes.

Third, brand managers can build specific marketing strategies for global, glocal and local brands based on the antecedents that enhance brand purchase likelihood by consumers in emerging markets.

Fourth, given the moderation effect on the relationship between brand attitude and brand purchase likelihood in local brands, local brand managers may enhance purchase likelihood by capitalising on consumer awareness of their brand by way of the following: focusing on strategies that will translate into positive consumer attitudes, taking advantage of the connections built through the consumers' lifetime, and enhancing the consumers' knowledge of local brands, their characteristics and the benefits of their unique capacity to better fulfil the needs and desires of the local market. Two successful cases of leading local brands that have built a positive brand attitude are the following: Cerveza Corona Extra, which became an icon of local culture and which was a successful global brand before it was purchased by a multinational firm, and Carlos V chocolate, now owned by Nestlé after many decades of belonging to a local firm.

Fifth, given also the moderation effect in the relationship between the brand as social signalling value and brand purchase likelihood for local brands, managers may build positioning strategies with the aim of making local consumers consider the brands as signals of social status by capitalising on their affiliation with desired social circles. They may also try to capitalise on consumer identification with their "local cultural nature" and enhance the status benefits of improved self-image and approval from desired reference groups. Local brands may significantly enhance brand purchase likelihood if they achieve a position where consumers consider them as symbols of social status.

Sixth, consumer brand managers may use the suggested antecedents related to brand purchase likelihood relevant for glocal brands to enhance brand purchase likelihood.

Seventh, in line with the literature and for local brands going global, encouraging consumers to imagine being in a foreign country is suggested. This will enhance brand personality and cultural background in foreign markets by "cultural brand" positioning (Guzmán and Paswan, 2009; Chailan and Ille, 2015). Table 38 shows a summary of the implications for the literature and management.

Table 38: Summary of the implications		
Essay	Implications for the literature	Implications for management
1	This study contributes to the knowledge of consumer preference for local brands in emerging markets. The key contributions of this study are to determine that • *For local brands (Study 1):* Perceived quality and prestige, bias in favour of local brands and brand familiarity are factors positively related with brand purchase likelihood.	Local brand managers may use these factors (that enhance local brand purchase likelihood among local consumers in emerging markets), in their marketing strategies in order to better target local consumers by using the distinctiveness of being local. They can use these factors in their marketing strategies to counteract the customisation-adaptation effort of foreign

Table 38: Summary of the implications		
	For younger consumers, an additional factor was confirmed to be relevant; the perceived brand localness. This suggests that with younger generations PBL is relevant probably due to their stronger glocal attitude and cultural proximity. • *For local clothing brands (Study 2):* Brand attitude, brand image, brand as social signalling value, susceptibility to normative influence and bias in favour of local brands (BFLB) are factors positively related with local brand purchase likelihood. This contributes also to understanding how local brands may use these factors to build strategies for success while facing the entry of global brands into their markets.	brands into local markets. • *For local consumer brands (Study 1):* It is easier to build earlier brand connections with consumers in emerging markets, and this is an area which should be focused on. It is important to build a stronger prestige effect and perception of quality and prestige through unique sources of equity. The local nature of the brand should be stressed to younger and ethnocentric consumers by using the Perceived Brand Localness (PBL) with a view to enhancing the brand's origin and local identity. In order to build strategies for stronger brand equity among younger consumers, we suggest emphasising the brand's local positioning. This will help, along with the three other factors, create a stronger role for the local brand within the glocal purchase behaviour phenomenon. • *For local clothing brands (Study 2):* Better targeting local consumers by emphasising the unique local nature of the brand. This can help to build a stronger brand attitude effect and a perception of higher-value equation through highlighting the unique sources of equity. Building a stronger brand image effect and a stronger differentiation via strong signals to local consumers. Through positioning, local brands can enhance the benefits for consumers on self-image and approval status from reference groups.
2	This study makes a significant contribution by introducing a methodology, based on consumer attitudes to global, local and glocal brands, for effectively classifying brands. Our findings confirm the implications of consumer attitudes towards both global and local products via their perceived brand globalness (PBG) and perceived brand localness (PBL). These implications are significant for brands on the market in all product categories. The study also confirms the glocalisation response, a new "Glocal attitude" from consumers who view and translate certain local and global products within this new categorisation.	Managers should apply this methodology based on consumer perspective to analyse how consumers categorise the brands already present in their specific markets in order to compare this categorisation with their official internal categorisation. By using this categorisation methodology, managers can build well-differentiated positioning strategies based on the characteristics of each of the four categories of consumer attitudes. With global brands (which are low on ethnocentrism) managers may focus on building strategies based on the "halo effect": targeting consumers with dreams of success and global citizenship.

Table 38: Summary of the implications		
3	This work contributes to the literature by providing additional insightful research into the specific factors that increase the purchase likelihood of global, glocal and local brands, using a categorisation methodology based on the consumers' perception of brands. All antecedents, brand quality, brand familiarity, price, brand attitude, brand image and brand as social signalling value are positively related to brand purchase likelihood for all of the three types of brands: global, local and glocal. This study also suggests the existence of a moderating role of the type of brand on the relationship between the antecedents of brand attitude (BA) and brand as a social signalling value (BSSV) and the brand purchase likelihood (BPL) which both presented a higher moderation effect in local brands.	Local brand managers may use these factors in their marketing strategies to: • Better target local consumers by using their distinctiveness of being local, thus aiming to build a stronger brand attitude effect. • A perception of higher value equation through unique sources of equity connected to local culture. Managers may build positioning strategies knowing that local consumers consider them: • Symbols / icons of local culture. • Signals of social status to by capitalising on their social affiliation with desired social circles, and identification with their "local cultural nature".

Source: Self-devised

5.4 Limitations and Future Research Lines

There are many suggested strands of further research to pursue and limitations of this dissertation to address.

5.4.1 Essay 1: Studies 1 & 2

One of the limitations of this work is that it was only conducted in Mexico; a wider study among other emerging markets in Latin America or worldwide is suggested to validate generalisation of the results (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016).

This study only included four brands in different consumer product categories, a wider study including a larger number of brands and product categories is also suggested (Özsomer, 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016).

Further analysis is suggested to additionally validate the role of PBL with the younger consumer segments of other emerging markets (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016)

5.4.2 Essay 2

As in Essay 1, one of the limitations of this work is that it was only conducted in Mexico; a wider study among other emerging markets or worldwide is suggested for the generalisation of the results (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016). In addition, this study only included 24 brands in different consumer product categories; a wider study using a larger number of brands and product categories is also suggested (Özsomer, 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016).

Additional research is also suggested to explore and validate this study of brand categorisation focused on the younger consumer segments, given their importance as they become economically active and acquire higher purchasing capacity. This is in addition to their dynamic changes in consumption and in information and media management tied to their brand-purchase decisions.

5.4.3 Essay 3

One of the limitations of this work is that it was only conducted in Mexico; a wider study carried out in other emerging markets in Latin America or worldwide is suggested to validate generalisation of the results (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016). This study only included twelve brands in different consumer product categories. Further research is suggested by using a wider set of participating brands in combinations with an analysis in additional emerging markets worldwide. A multi-study in both Developed and Emerging markets is also recommended to validate our findings in a wider context (Özsomer, 2012; Strizhakova and Coulter, 2015; Halkias et al., 2016).

This research did not include any luxury brands. The relationship between global, local and glocal brands might be different when analysing these relationships with luxury brands (Özsomer, 2012). A future research work focused on luxury brands is also suggested.

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ANNEX 1

Variable items and sources used in Essays 1, 2 & 3

Items used in Questionnaire for Essay 1, Studies 1 & 2

Dependent Variable		
Constructs	**Items**	**Sources**
Brand Purchase Likelihood	1. I would buy it 2. I would certainly buy it	Dodds, Monroe and Grewal (1991)

Independent Variable		
Constructs	**Items**	**Sources**
Brand as icon of local (Mexican) culture- Brand Localness	1. I associate this brand with things that are Mexican. 2. To me, this brand represents what Mexico is all about. 3. To me, this brand is a very good symbol of Mexico.	Steenkamp et al. (2003)
Brand Familiarity	1. This brand is very familiar to me. 2. I'm very knowledgeable about this brand. 3. I have seen many advertisements about this brand in Mexican magazines and mass media such as TV. 4. I have never heard about this brand	Steenkamp et al. (2003)
Brand Quality	1. This is a very well-made brand. 2. This brand shows a very high level of overall quality 3. This brand has consistent quality.	Sweeney and Soutar (2001)
Brand Attitude	1. I like this brand 2. I have a positive opinion of it	Batra et al. (2000)
Brand Image	1. This brand has a very good image 2. This brand really makes me look good in front of my friends	Batra et al. (2000)
Brand as Social Signalling value	1. This brand would help me feel trendy/up-to-date 2. I think it is particularly appropriate to use this brand in social contexts	Zhou et al. (2010)
Susceptibility to Normative Influence	1. If I want to be like someone, I often try to buy the same brands that they buy 2. When buying products, I generally	Batra et al. (2000)

Independent Variable		
Constructs	**Items**	**Sources**
	purchase those brands that I think my friends and family will approve 3. This brand will make me to have a good impression with other people (adapted) 4. This brand would improve the way I am perceived by others (adapted)	
Consumer Ethnocentrism	1. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Mexican. 2. A real Mexican should always buy domestic products. 3. Mexican should not purchase imported goods, because that harms Mexican firms and causes unemployment. 4. It is not correct that Mexicans should buy foreign brands	Batra et al. (2000) which were selected from the original CETSCALE scale Shimp and Sharma (1987)
Bias in Favour of Local Brands	Domestic brands are in general: 1. Excellent in overall quality 2. Excellent in design and styling 3. High degree of technological advancement. 4. High level of quality and price ratio.	Steenkamp et al. (2003)
Source: Self-devised		

Items used in Questionnaire for Essay 2

Scales on PBG and PBL		
Construct:	**Items:**	**Source:**
Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG)	1. "To me this is a global brand" 2. "I think consumers in other countries buy this brand" 3. "This brand is only sold in Mexico"- (Reversed coded)	Batra et al. (2000)
Perceived Brand Localness (PBL)	1. "I associate this brand with things that are from Mexico" 2. "To me, this brand does not represent what Mexico is about"- (Reversed coded) 3. "To me, this brand is a very good symbol of Mexico"	Steenkamp et al. (2003)
Source: Self-devised		

Items used in Questionnaire for Essay 3

Main Study- Dependent Variable		
Constructs	**Items**	**Sources**
Brand Purchase Likelihood	1. I would buy it 2. I would certainly buy it	Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991)

Main Study - Independent variables		
Constructs	**Items**	**Sources**
Brand Quality	1. This is a very well-made brand. 2. This brand shows a very high level of overall quality 3. This brand has consistent quality.	Sweeney and Soutar (2001)
Brand Familiarity	1. This brand is very familiar to me. 2. I'm very knowledgeable about this brand. 3. I have seen many advertisements about this brand in Mexican magazines and mass media such as TV.	Steenkamp et al. (2003)
Price	1. For me the price is a decisive factor when buying a product. 2. When selecting a product, the price is important to me 3. Generally looking to buy the products at the cheapest price 4. When I buy products actually I do not look at the price	Steenkamp and Maydeu-Olivares (2015)
Brand Attitude	1. I like this brand 2. I have a positive opinion of it 3. This brand seems attractive (adapted)	Batra et al. (2000)
Brand Image	1. This brand has a very good image 2. This brand really makes me look good in front of my friends 3. This brand is one of the best in the market (adapted)	Batra et al. (2000) Pina et al. (2010)
Brand as Social Signalling value	1. This brand would help me feel trendy/up-to-date 2. I think it is particularly appropriate to use this brand in social contexts 3. This brand could improve how I'm perceived (adapted)	Zhou et al. (2010)
Source: Self Devised		