

The Interplay Between Global and Local Brands: A Closer Look at Perceived Brand Globalness and Local Iconness

Ayşegül Özsoymer

ABSTRACT

By studying consumer samples in an emerging market, Turkey, and two mature markets, Singapore and Denmark, the author tests the chain of relationships that drive consumers' likelihood of purchasing the global brand in the presence of a local brand in a linear structural relations framework. The results indicate that perceived brand globalness is positively related to local iconness in an emerging market, but the relationship is negative in advanced markets. Developing local iconness helps build the perception of prestige in all three markets. Furthermore, local iconness is positively related to local brand quality perceptions in the culturally grounded categories of food in an emerging market, whereas in nonfood categories, local iconness has no connection to quality. In terms of cross-effects, as expected, the perceived quality of the local brand is negatively associated with global brand purchase likelihood in all markets and categories studied. In contrast, local brand prestige dampens global brand purchase likelihood for older consumers in an emerging market. The article concludes with implications for global and local brand managers.

Keywords: survey, structural equations modeling, signaling theory, associative network memory model, global brand management

In many product categories, consumers are increasingly faced with a choice between global and local brands. In today's global marketplace, it is important for marketers to understand how consumers make this choice and why some consumers prefer global brands to local brands. For example, since launching its "Path to Growth" strategy in 2000, Unilever has reduced the number of brands from 1600 to 400 leading brands and fewer than 250 tail brands (Unilever 2007). This enables Unilever to concentrate resources on a portfolio of leading global brands with strong growth potential that best

meet the needs and aspirations of people around the world. At approximately the same time, Procter & Gamble also pruned its brand portfolio in favor of global brands (Pitcher 1999), and in 2003, Heinz declared its intention to focus on a smaller number of "power brands" and selling many of its local brands. These and many other companies are betting their futures on global brands: brands that consumers can find under the same name in multiple countries with generally standardized and centrally coordinated marketing strategies (Özsoymer and Altaras 2008; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden, 2003; Yip 1995). While most researchers agree that wide availability and recognition are the key features of global brands, universal relevance, global image, standardization, esteem, high

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quality, and social responsibility have been suggested as well (e.g., Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Johansson and Ronkainen 2005; Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008).

In many markets, global brands compete with strong local counterparts. Local brands are developed for and tailored to the unique needs and desires of local markets. Despite being described as “only available in a specific geographical region” (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008, p. 118), local brands have their own strengths, such as perceptions of uniqueness, originality, and pride of representing the local market. Local brands have traditionally benefited from a high level of awareness and close relationships with consumers in their countries. As Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen (2008) reveal, local brands not only reflect but also help define the character of the local market. As such, some of these brands are perceived as local icons in their markets insofar as they are associated with symbols of the local culture, heritage, and country.

The opportunities and threats of increasing globalization have created a sense of urgency for companies to succeed in not only mature but also emerging international markets (Burgess and Steenkamp 2006). In striving to succeed in emerging markets, multinational corporations (MNCs) are bringing their global brands to emerging-market consumers because most of the economic growth in the next decades will come from these markets. However, cross-national studies reveal significant differences between consumers from emerging and mature markets. For example, Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999) indicate that globally positioned brands might be more attractive than local brands, especially for emerging-market consumers. Similarly, Batra et al. (2000) find that emerging-market consumers prefer nonlocal (i.e., foreign) brands to local brands, aspiring to a greater global community and, in the process, downgrading their own brands compared with global brands. Given the influx of global brands, this research focuses on the interplay between local and global brands and, in particular, the antecedents of successful local brands and the consequences for global brands. How can local brands defend themselves against their global counterparts? Are there differences across mature and emerging markets in the usefulness of strategies that local brands can use? These questions guide this research.

Building on Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden’s (2003) work, this study suggests “local iconness” as a possible

counter strategy available to local brands when competing against global brands. Holt (2004, p. 4) defines iconic brands as consumer brands that carry “consensus expressions of particular values held dear by some members of a society.” Icons succeed because they forge a deep connection with the culture (Holt 2003). Brands that become local icons achieve dominant positions partly due to their high levels of group symbolism or associations with a group and its culture (Torelli, Tat Keh, and Chiu 2008). Similarly, a major strength of local brands is their closer connection to national identity, local culture, and heritage (Ger 1999). In this article, “local iconness” is defined as the degree to which a brand symbolizes the values, needs, and aspirations of the members of the local country. Perceptions of a brand being a good symbol of the country, embodying the local culture, and representing what the country is all about are included in the conceptual domain of local iconness. In this conceptualization, the emphasis is on local associations, and the cultural reference group is the local country culture. Thus, this research investigates the extent to which local brand iconness can help sway global preferences in an emerging and mature country setting.

The literature suggests that the interplay between local and global brands could depend on the product category and consumer segment. Local brands may be more attractive for products consumed in the household, such as foods. Global brands, however, continue to be more appealing for publicly visible goods because they are higher in aspirational value and are associated with status, modernity, cosmopolitan sophistication, and technology (Batra et al. 2000; Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008; Zhou and Belk 2004). Food and drink categories have a stronger cultural grounding because local tastes and a stronger affection for tradition give local brands the ability to challenge the marketing efforts of global brands (Schuh 2007). Studies on multidomestic versus global industry distinction also support this expectation (Porter 1986; Prahalad and Doz 1987; Yip 1995). A global industry is characterized by the presence of customers with homogeneous needs. Thus, marketing is transferable across countries, giving global brands an edge in their competition against local brands. Similarly, teenagers and younger adults are more attracted to global brands (Hassan and Katsanis 1994; Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008), endangering the feasibility of local iconness as an alternative strategy. Thus, this study examines the moderating role of product category (food and drinks vs. nonfood categories) and consumer age to

enhance understanding of the competition between global and local brands.

This study integrates two theoretical approaches, signaling theory and associative network memory model, to explicate the underlying relationship between the local brand and its global counterpart. This is accomplished by investigating local iconness more closely as a counter strategy available to local brands and determining its relationship to other local brand equity characteristics as well as the brand equity of the global brand simultaneously. By studying consumer samples in an emerging market (i.e., Turkey) and two mature markets (i.e., Singapore and Denmark), the chain of relations that drive consumers' likelihood of purchasing the global brand in the presence of a local brand is tested in a linear structural relations framework. The results indicate that global expansion (perceived brand globalness) is a feasible defense strategy for a local brand because of its positive association with local iconness in an emerging market, but the relationship is negative in mature markets. In emerging markets, going away from the home raises iconness, whereas in mature markets, it lowers iconness. Furthermore, developing local iconness helps build the perception of prestige in all three markets.

In terms of moderators, local iconness is positively related to local brand quality in the culturally grounded categories of food in an emerging market, whereas in nonfood categories it has no connection to quality. In terms of cross-effects, the perceived quality of the local brand is negatively associated with global brand purchase likelihood (hereinafter, GBPL) in all markets and categories studied. When consumers have a viable local alternative, the preference for a global alternative diminishes. Furthermore, local brand prestige dampens GBPL for older consumers in an emerging market.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Previous research has regularly used both signaling theory (Erdem and Swait 1998, 2004) and the associative network memory model (Anderson 1983; Brewer 1988; Keller 1993, 2003) as frameworks for explaining consumer-based brand evaluations and consumer brand choice (e.g., Aaker 1991; Erdem and Swait 1998, 2004). Aaker's (1991) conceptualization and Keller's (1993) framework of associative network model focuses on consumers' brand associations. Aaker suggests that brand associations such as perceived quality, prestige,

and other proprietary brand assets (e.g., patents) influence brand evaluations directly and preference indirectly. Recent research on global branding suggests that brand globalness is a distinct brand attribute that is considered and weighted in the brand evaluation process much like other attributes (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003). That is, as a brand association, globalness can add or subtract value depending on country (i.e., emerging vs. mature), category (food and drinks vs. nonfood), and consumer characteristics (consumer age).

Signaling theory, which is based in information economics, asserts that when imperfect and asymmetric information characterizes a market, firms may use signals (i.e., manipulate attributes or activities) to convey information about their characteristics (Spence 1974). According to Erdem and Swait (1998, p.131), "when consumers are uncertain about product attributes, firms may use brands to inform consumers about product positions." When a brand positions itself as a high-quality, high-prestige, and global brand, it is signaling the promised brand position.

On the basis of previous research (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003), a global brand can signal five underlying characteristics that form its promised position: (1) wide availability, recognition, and geographical reach; (2) aspirations of achievement, excitement, and happiness; (3) convenience and low risk, implying a perceived quality association; (4) environmental and ethical responsibility; and (5) uniformity and standardization (i.e., being the same everywhere, with no particular adaptation to local markets). This last dimension is where local brands signal different positions. Previous research (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Kapferer 2005) has indicated that adaptation to local preferences and culture is a key characteristic signaled by local brands. Local brands also signal uniqueness, originality (derived from local adaptation), pride of representing the local area and culture, and high awareness and availability in their local markets.

With asymmetric and imperfect information, brand globalness and local iconness can act as signals that firms use to convey brand positions of high quality and prestige. Perceived brand globalness may serve as a signal because it embodies a firm's (past and present) marketing strategies in other markets. The perception that the brand is available in other markets not only provides

direct product availability, recognition, and reach information, but also conveys indirect information on product attributes about which consumers are imperfectly informed. Similarly, availability in other markets may function as a quality (and prestige) signal by guiding consumer inferences about demand- or supply-related quality information. Perceived globalness may reflect a high worldwide demand for superior quality and/or the accumulated expertise that comes with producing larger quantities for many markets. Indeed, global brands often advertise their worldwide availability and acceptance (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999) as a signal to convey information about their quality. Similarly, if consumers in other parts of the world use the brand, consumers may perceive the brand as signaling higher prestige. In Holt, Quelch, and Taylor's study (2004, p. 74), a respondent directly articulated this association: "The more people who buy (a) brand ... the better quality it is." Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003) find support for a positive perceived brand globalness and prestige association. Thus, as a brand attribute, brand globalness functions as a signal of and holds positive associations with quality and prestige.

As mentioned previously, brand globalness by itself, independent of any effects associated with quality and prestige, may enhance brand preference. This association is called the "belongingness pathway" by Steenkamp, Batra and Alden (2003); the "global myth" effect by Holt, Quelch, and Taylor (2004); and the "aspiration component" of a global brand by Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen (2008). The argument is that global brands offer consumers the opportunity to acquire and demonstrate participation in an aspired-to global consumer culture (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999, 2006). Consumers use global brands to create an imagined identity that they share with like-minded people (Hannerz 1990; Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004). Consumers' ownership and use of global brands signal information to other consumers of membership in a worldwide consumer segment (Dawar and Parker 1994), with global brands functioning as a passport to global citizenship (Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008). In Holt, Quelch, and Taylor's (2004, p. 71) study, an Argentinean consumer stated, "Global brands make us feel like citizens of the world, and ... they somehow give us an identity." In the same study, a Costa Rican expressed the global myth effect: "Local brands show what we are; global brands show what we want to be" (p. 71). Thus, perceived brand globalness alone signals additional information for consumers and may function as a distinct brand attribute (e.g., belonging to

a global consumer segment), beyond those captured by quality and prestige.

This signaling practice is not limited only to global brands. Many local brands with a foreign presence use their availability in other markets in their communications with local consumers. Indeed, perceived globalness as a signal of quality would be particularly useful for brands in emerging countries (e.g., India, Turkey), in which the quality of local brands may vary widely in a given product category (Maxwell 2001).¹ A strong local consumer electronics brand in Turkey, Beko, has been using this route successfully for almost a decade, with the slogan "Beko—A World Brand." The competitor, Vestel, published full-page advertisements in leading local newspapers highlighting exports to 103 countries (Vestel 2006). The signal from a local brand about its global availability, acceptance, and reach informs local iconness, quality, and prestige perceptions of consumers in the local market. In an effort to defend themselves from global brands and to capture a unique balance, local brands may also signal their local symbolism and closer associations with local country culture to build local iconness as a point of difference in their competition against global brands. That is, signals of global presence may be combined with signals of local iconness in brand management strategies for local brands, particularly in emerging markets.

Local Iconness

The homogenization argument of globalization's consequences proclaims the dominance of global marketing strategies of multinationals and their global brands (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 2006; Holton 2000). However, others suggest that global interconnection and interdependence do not necessarily mean conformity and homogeneity (Ger 1999; Holton 2000; Pieterse 1995) and that local culture remains a central influence on consumer behavior (Samli 1995). According to Ger (1999), local brand managers can achieve competitive success by using local cultural capital, heritage, and targeting and positioning strategies that reflect a deeper understanding of local identity, culture, tradition, tastes, and needs. Forging a connection with the local country and culture may be one way of building perceptions of local iconness for local brands.

The relationship between perceived brand globalness and local iconness captures the marriage of global success and local (cultural, country) connections. The interpenetration of these attributes and signals may be

mutually reinforcing in emerging markets, but these signals may be in conflict in mature markets. Recall that the main signals of a local brand are its uniqueness, originality, and local cultural orientation; thus, when consumers from mature markets learn that a local brand is expanding abroad, they may fear loss of commitment to home—and with it, not only a loss of purity and the brand's iconness, but also a sense of anger or betrayal (i.e., "Who do they think they are?") In contrast, in emerging markets, seeing that a local brand is "doing well abroad" will probably stimulate pride and respect in homegrown talent.²

In general, emerging market consumers' aims are not to differentiate themselves from other consumers but to affirm their resemblances to the members of the advanced world (Batra et al. 2000) and their presence in world markets through the availability of their local brands in other markets. In contrast, consumers from mature markets may want their local icons to be original, unique, and available only for them in their local markets. While emerging-market consumers may be striving for more validation and similarity to those in the advanced world, consumers from advanced markets may be driven by a need for uniqueness (Brewer 1991). Thus, in emerging countries, going away from home raises iconness, whereas in mature markets it lowers iconness.

Furthermore, factual and spatiotemporal connection to history or a particular location captures a type of authenticity of marketing offerings (Grayson and Martinec 2004) relevant to local iconness. For mature market consumers, when their local brands are perceived to be global and sold overseas, they may lose this type of authenticity (connection to a particular location). The quest for iconness may be dampened when its degree of originality and connection to a local origin is weakened by perceptions of global presence. Therefore, mature country consumers are expected not to approve the incorporation of globalness perceptions into their local icons. They want their local icons to be pure, not mixed with brand elements that would be normally associated with global brands:

H₁: Perceived brand globalness of the local brand is positively related to perceptions of local iconness for consumers from emerging markets; the relationship is negative for mature country consumers.

The Local Iconness–Prestige Relationship. Studies have provided some evidence of a positive relationship

between the perceived globalness of a brand and its perceptions of prestige (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003). This effect is particularly strong in emerging markets (e.g., Batra et al. 2000). In their efforts to defend themselves against global brands, local brands can also benefit from higher prestige perceptions. However, the sources for creating prestige would be different for local brands. Inspired by Ger (1999) and Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003), local iconness is suggested as a unique and differentiating source of prestige for local brands in all types of markets. By tapping into local cultural capital, symbolism, and heritage; a deeper understanding of the local culture, tastes, and needs; and therefore locally responsive targeting and positioning, local iconness can help local brands create and signal prestige. Although recently, in response to enhanced competition, many global brands have tried to communicate being insiders, such local anchoring and symbolism are available to local brands to a greater extent and with more believability and sincerity. The positive relationship of local iconness to prestige has been supported by Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003) in Korean and U.S. samples for brands that vary on globalness perceptions. However, the authors do not investigate these relationships in local–global brand pairs, as the current study does. Thus, the following is proposed:

H₂: Local iconness is positively related to consumer perceptions of local brand prestige.

The Local Iconness–Quality Relationship. The relationship of local iconness to quality perceptions may be more nuanced. Local iconness captures a brand's associations with local culture that create brand value. On the one hand, local icons are expected to have a better assessment of what the consumer wants in terms of quality, because "high quality" may be interpreted differently across markets (Ger 1999). On the other hand, the symbolism of uniqueness and authenticity may be contrary to quality perceptions. Indeed, Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003) do not find a significant relationship between local iconness and quality. Thus, a main effects hypothesis is not developed. This relationship is expected to be moderated by product category (food vs. nonfood); this hypothesis is developed subsequently.

Local–Global Brand Relationships (Cross-Effects)

According to the associative network memory model, brands in a category, regardless of whether they are global or local, are related to one another. Activating

associations related to the local (global) brand should facilitate retrieval of associations related to the global (local) brand in the same category (Alba and Hutchinson 1989; Meyers-Levy and Tybout 1989). This is because the cognitive schemas of the local and global brand also share an evaluative domain (Fiske and Pavelchak 1986): They are satisfying the same need (e.g., food). Therefore, they are substitutes for one another, and their cognitive networks are related. Furthermore, the literature on competitive positioning suggests that perceptions of brands are affected by the perceptions of their competitors in the market (Carpenter and Nakamoto 1989), and the global brand and its local competitor are compared with each other. Therefore, quality and prestige perceptions of global and local brand pairs in this study are expected to be correlated.³

In the competition between global brands and their local alternatives, other cross-effects occur that need to be empirically analyzed. First, just as previous research has found that consumer perceptions of the quality and prestige of the global brand are positively associated with global brand purchase likelihood (Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003), the quality and prestige of the local alternative is expected to demonstrate the opposite association on purchase likelihood of the global brand. The perceived quality of the local brand increases the purchase likelihood of the local brand, which in turn decreases the purchase likelihood of the global alternative. Similarly, the prestige of the local brand is expected to enhance the purchase likelihood of the local brand, thus, indirectly dampening the purchase likelihood of the global brand. Thus:

H₃: Perceived quality of the local brand is negatively related to the purchase likelihood of the global brand.

H₄: Perceived prestige of the local brand is negatively related to the purchase likelihood of the global brand.

Figure 1 presents the hypotheses and the chain of relationships that drive consumers' likelihood of purchasing the global brand in the presence of a local brand alternative. In line with previous research (e.g., Erdem and Swait 1998; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003), consumer's likelihood of purchasing the brand is used as a measure of brand value or utility. To capture the net effect on global brand value or utility that the local alternative exerts, consumer's likelihood of purchasing

the local brand is subtracted from the likelihood of purchasing the same category global alternative, leading to the focal measure, GBPL.

Moderating Role of Product Category and Consumer Age

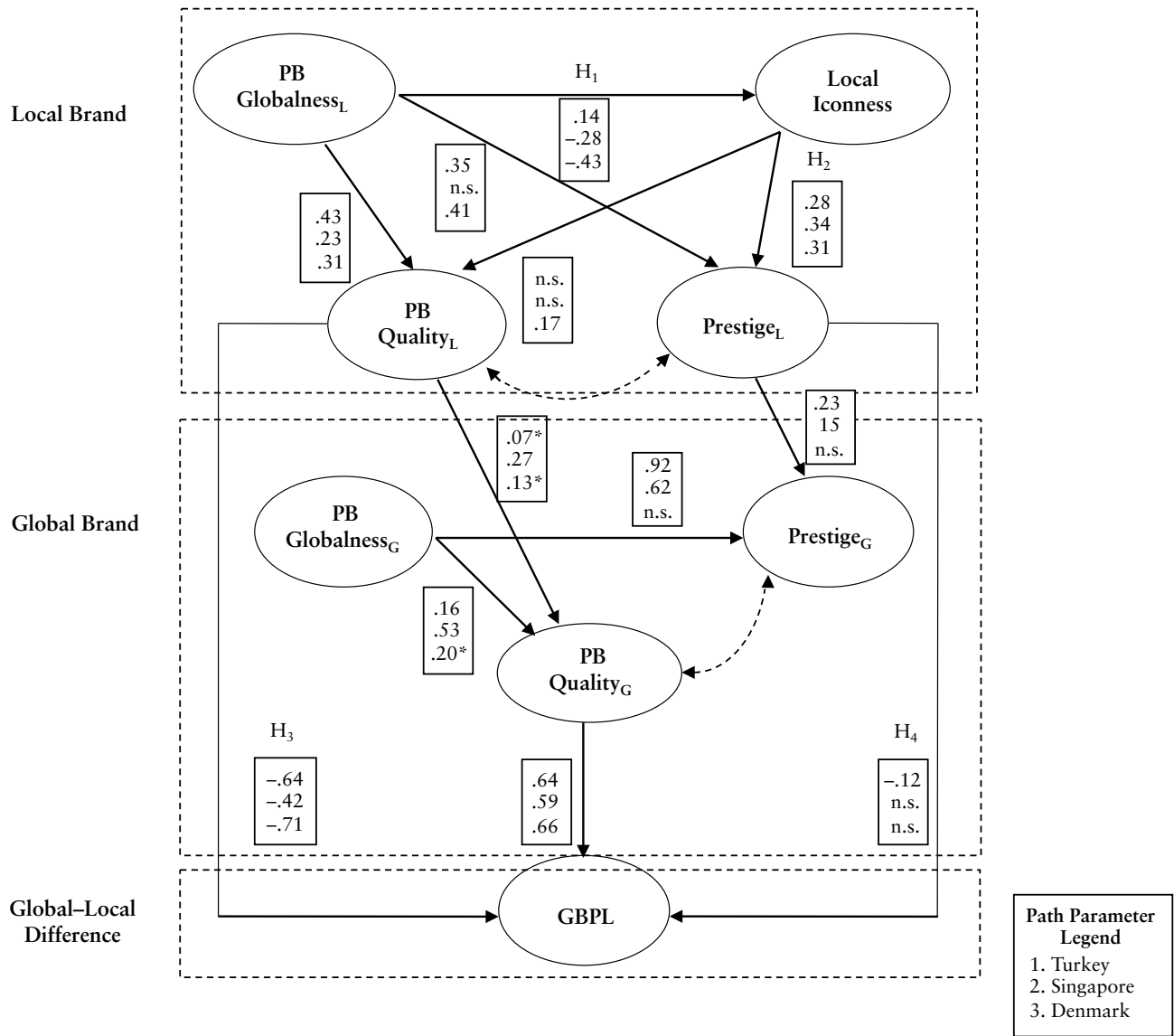
There is some recent evidence that the relationship between local and global brands may be moderated by the product category. In Zhou and Belk's (2004) study, global brands were associated with status, modernity, cosmopolitan sophistication, and technology, whereas local brands were associated with local cultural values. Food has a foundational role in defining local culture and tradition. Therefore, strong local symbolism and cultural connections may be more desirable and easy to establish for culture-bound categories such as food and drinks. The global versus multidomestic industry distinction also supports this expectation (Porter 1986; Prahalad and Doz 1987; Yip 1995). A multidomestic industry exists when customer needs are heterogeneous, making marketing nontransferable across countries. The uniqueness of local tastes in multidomestic industries gives local brands an edge in learning, understanding, and adapting to local consumers and making their marketing and brand building more believable and authentic. Kobrin (1991) identifies food and drinks as low on global integration, suggesting a multidomestic industry structure.

Özsomer, Bodur, and Cavusgil (1991) provide some indirect empirical evidence in support of the multidomestic nature by showing the standardization of the marketing programs to be lower in food and drink than in nonfood categories. Furthermore, the market penetration of global brands is lower in food and drinks in Central and Eastern European markets (Schuh 2007). Being representative of the country and the local culture and based on the strong local cultural symbolism, local iconness is expected to be associated with perceived quality only in categories like food, for which the uniqueness is more in line with local expectations, tastes, habits, needs, and definitions of quality.

H₅: Local iconness is positively related to perceived brand quality of the local brand (PBQuality_L) in food categories; the relationship is nonsignificant in nonfood categories.

The literature also suggests that teens and young adults are affected by globalization to a greater extent than their older counterparts (Walker 1996) and that global brands have a greater appeal among teenagers (Hassan

Figure 1. A Model of the Interplay Between Global and Local Brands



*Significant at ≥ 90% level. (All others significant at ≥ 95% level.)
 Notes: The L and G subscripts refer to the brand equity associations of the local and global brands, respectively. n.s. = statistically not significant.

and Katsanis 1994). In the competition between global and local brands, younger consumers may have a greater preference for global brands because they enhance their social acceptability and signal their membership in a global consumer segment (e.g., Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008). In contrast, older consumers may value the uniqueness and authenticity that local brands offer. Using this logic, this study examines the moderating role of a consumer's age. Specifically, the

cross-effects of the local brand prestige (Prestige_L) and quality (Quality_L) on GBPL are expected to be stronger for older consumers. Whereas younger consumers may downplay the brand equity of the local brand in their evaluations of the global counterpart, older consumers may put more weight on these associations.

H₆: The negative relationship between Prestige_L and GBPL is stronger for older consumers.

H₇: The negative relationship between Quality_L and GBPL is stronger for older consumers.

SAMPLES, MEASURES, AND EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The hypotheses are tested using consumers from Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark, which represent different positions relative to each other according to Hofstede's (1980) dimensions of individualism (37, 20, and 74, respectively), uncertainty avoidance (85, 8, and 23, respectively), power distance (66, 74, and 18, respectively), and masculinity (45, 48, and 16, respectively). As such, these countries represent a relatively high variability on major cultural dimensions and increase the generalizability of the results.

In terms of sample selection, Sekaran (1983) identifies two primary ways to achieve sample comparability: drawing nationally representative samples or selecting matched samples on the basis of some characteristics of interest. Budgetary constraints prevented representative sampling. Therefore, an attempt was made to match samples by collecting data in shopping malls catering to middle-income clientele in their respective countries. Middle-income consumers are expected to be reasonably familiar with global (and local) brands. With the help of local researchers, four malls were identified in Istanbul, Turkey; two in Singapore; and two in Aarhus, Denmark. The resulting sample was comparable in terms of age distribution (92%, 83%, and 95% of respondents were in the 18- to 45-year age range), gender distribution (48%, 48%, and 50% males), average daily television watching hours (2.7, 2.8, and 2.1), and education (90%, 73%, and 97.5% had a high school education or more) for Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark, respectively.⁴

In Turkey, eight product categories, including durables and nondurables, involving 16 brands were used. Categories and brands were identified in three steps. Every year, ACNielsen ranks brands in a nationwide "Brand Awareness" study, in which respondents identify the most known brands through unaided recall. The best-known global (local) brands were identified and matched with their best-known local (global) counterparts to represent both types of brands in a pairwise comparison (ACNielsen 2006). In all product categories, the global and local brands were in the top three in terms of nationwide awareness in their respective categories. It should be noted that, first, the globalness (localness) perceptions are relative and represent various degrees of globalness (localness) rather

than absolute categorizations. Second, because global brands are generally associated with higher aspirational value (e.g., Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004), brands from both utilitarian and hedonic categories (implying a higher aspirational value for hedonic brands) are included. Using Ratchford's (1987) measures, undergraduate students rated the categories that emerged on involvement, utilitarian, and hedonic dimensions separately.

Third, given the focal antecedent status of the local brand in the model, specifically that the perceived globalness of the local brand is tested for its relationship to local iconness, perceived quality, and prestige, it is important to establish that the local brand is actually perceived as local and not global by consumers. To this end, four focus groups were conducted with the help of a professional research company. After providing relevant definitions, focus group members were asked to identify brands that they perceived as global and local in any category. Local brands that were identified as being high on globalness were eliminated (Beko, Migros, and Ülker). Focus group members were also asked the following question: "If a brand were to carry the Turkish flag, which brand would it be?" Arçelik, Cola Turca, Mavi Jeans, and Vestel were among the brands identified as such.

Next, focus group results were integrated; to maximize variance on involvement and utilitarian/hedonic dimensions, the categories (brands) selected included cola drinks/low involvement-hedonic (Coca-Cola, Cola Turca), facial cream/high involvement-hedonic (Nivea, Arko), color television sets/high involvement-utilitarian (Sony, Vestel), refrigerators/high involvement-utilitarian (Bosch, Arçelik), toothpaste/low involvement-utilitarian (Colgate, Ipana), laundry detergent/low involvement-utilitarian (Ariel, Alo), jeans/high involvement-hedonic (Levi's, Mavi), and yogurt/low involvement-utilitarian (Danone, Pınar).

Respondents rated each brand separately on the manifest items. Each respondent evaluated two global-local brand pairs (a total of four brands). On average, respondents completed the survey in 25 minutes. Each respondent received 5 Turkish Lira (approximately US\$3.50) for completing the survey. A total of 480 global-local brand pair evaluations were collected.

In Singapore, three product categories involving six brands were used. Categories (brands) were identified with a procedure similar to that used in Turkey. However, involvement and hedonic/utilitarian dimensions were assessed using a focus group. The categories (brands)

studied included beer/high involvement–hedonic (Carlsberg, Tiger), consumer banking/high involvement–utilitarian (HSBC, DBS Bank), supermarkets/high involvement–utilitarian (Carrefour, NTUC Fairprice). There were two service categories because Singapore, an island of few natural resources, has few product brands, and the country is better known for its services. Respondents were paid S\$2 for their participation in the study (because the number 2 is regarded as lucky in Asian culture). The money was put in a red packet, a color considered lucky since the survey was conducted during the festive season, the Lunar New Year. A total of 202 global–local brand pair evaluations were completed.

In Denmark, similar procedures to those used in Singapore identified the categories (brands) as follows: beer/high involvement–hedonic (Heineken, Ceres), jeans/high involvement–hedonic (Levi's, Jack Jones), yogurt/low involvement–utilitarian (Danone, Arla), sports clothing/high involvement–hedonic (Nike, Hummel), and supermarket/high involvement–utilitarian (Aldi, Netto). A pretest revealed that potential respondents did not want a token in exchange of participating in the survey. Instead, the academic nature of the study was emphasized, and respondents were encouraged to “help” by participating in the study. One hundred sixty-four global–local brand pair evaluations were completed.

Categories and brands were rotated completely across participants in all three markets. Categories differed somewhat between countries because well-known global and local brand pairs were not available in all three countries. Measures were developed to accommodate such brand-level differences (a difference measure, GBPL was used). The original English questionnaire was translated into Turkish by the researchers. The resulting Turkish version was back-translated into English by a bilingual language instructor. Discrepancies were resolved in face-to-face discussions. Furthermore, some minor changes were made based on the feedback from pretests with four respondents in each country. Pretests in Singapore and Denmark revealed that respondents were comfortable with the English questionnaire, enabling the use of the original English version for the Singaporean and Danish legs of the data collection.

Measures

A unique feature of this study is that all brand associations (e.g., perceived brand globalness, local iconness) are measured separately for both the local and global brands, enabling us to empirically partial out the effects

of local brand equity associations on global brand evaluations. In terms of measurement, previously used measures and scales (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003) were used (for all scales used, their sources and their psychometric properties, see the Appendix). All items were measured on seven-point scales. Perceived brand globalness was initially measured with four items capturing the extent to which consumers believed the brand was marketed and used in other countries. Prestige was measured with a single item. Local iconness was measured with three items that captured the extent to which consumers thought the local brand was a symbol of the local country and represented what the country was all about. Local iconness of the global brand was measured as a validity check (for construct means and standard deviations, see Table 1). Two items were used to capture brand purchase likelihood. A measure of GBPL was created by subtracting responses for local brand purchase likelihood (BPL_L) from corresponding responses for GBPL (BPL_G) items ($GBPL = BPL_G - BPL_L$). Thus, positive values of GBPL imply a likelihood of purchasing the global brand, while negative values imply a preference for the local brand in the pairwise local–global comparisons. This type of difference measure also takes into account brand-level fixed effects, eliminating the need to have brand dummies in the models.

Examination of Data Pooling

To decide whether separate models should be estimated for each sample, the possibility of pooling data across countries by means of multigroup EQS analyses was investigated. Two nested models were investigated: (1) a model in which all structural paths were set equal across the country samples (equal model) and (2) a model in which all structural paths were set free across the three country samples (free model). A chi-square difference test revealed that the free model had a significantly better fit than the equal model. Therefore, the data were not pooled across countries.

Overall Measurement Model Validation

The quality of the measurement model was assessed by investigating unidimensionality, convergent validity, reliability, and discriminant validity separately for Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark. Through exploratory factor analysis, evidence for the unidimensionality of each construct was supported by appropriate items that loaded at least .60 on their respective hypothesized component and loaded no greater than .30 on other components. In the confirmatory factor analysis itself, two

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviations of Key Constructs

	Turkey		Singapore		Denmark	
	Local	Global	Local	Global	Local	Global
Local iconness	4.67 (1.51)	3.19 (1.51)	4.92 (1.41)	3.18 (1.42)	4.47 (1.59)	1.70 (1.06)
PBGlobalness	3.95 (1.71)	5.11 (1.73)	3.73 (1.72)	5.24 (1.33)	3.70 (1.63)	6.26 (1.44)
PBQuality	5.16 (1.47)	5.82 (1.21)	4.94 (1.30)	5.00 (1.22)	4.92 (1.21)	5.24 (1.26)
Prestige	4.54 (1.92)	5.06 (2.00)	4.28 (1.68)	4.44 (1.71)	3.91 (1.48)	4.65 (1.73)

Notes: All ratings are based on seven-point scales.

poorly loading items were dropped from both the local and global measures of perceived brand globalness in all three samples (Anderson and Gerbing 1988), resulting in a two-item measurement. The purified complete measurement model demonstrated a good fit for Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark (Turkey: $\chi^2 = 133.33$, d.f. = 64, $p = .000$; comparative fit index [CFI] = .98; non-normed fit index [NNFI] = .96; root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .05; and standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] = .04; Singapore: $\chi^2 = 102.56$, d.f. = 64, $p = .002$; CFI = .97; NNFI = .94; RMSEA = .05; and SRMR = .05; Denmark: $\chi^2 = 124.10$, d.f. = 64, $p = .00$; CFI = .95; NNFI = .92; RMSEA = .07; and SRMR = .04). The overall goodness of fit also supports unidimensionality (Steenkamp and Van Trijp 1991). Furthermore, the loadings of items on their respective factors were all significant and positive, standardized factor loadings were all greater than .5 in all three samples, and all t-test values were highly significant, providing support for convergent validity.

For discriminant validity, as a basic test, it was first determined whether correlations among the latent constructs were significantly different from one. In all samples, construct correlations met this criterion (for correlations, see Table 2), indicating that the constructs are fairly well discriminated. Then a series of nested confirmatory factor models were compared in which, for every pair of the constructs, a one- and two-factor model were tested to determine which would fit best (Anderson 1987; Bollen 1989). If the two-factor model fits significantly better than the one-factor model, discriminant validity of the two factors is sup-

ported (Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips 1991). Chi-square differences were significant for all model comparisons ($p < .05$) in all three samples. Third, Fornell and Larcker's (1981) test provides evidence for discriminant validity between each possible pair of latent constructs in all samples.

Cross-National Measurement Validation

To cross-nationally investigate the interrelationships between constructs in a nomological net, configural and metric invariance using multigroup confirmatory factor analyses (Mullen 1995; Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998) was also tested. This was necessary because the scale intervals of the latent constructs must be comparable across Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark. Configural invariance of the eight-factor model was supported, as the three-group confirmatory factor analysis model fit was very good ($\chi^2 = 359.9$, d.f. = 192, $p = .00$; CFI = .97; NNFI = .95; and RMSEA = .03). Following the nested sequential procedures that Bagozzi and Foxall (1996) and Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) suggest, metric invariance was assessed by comparing nested complete measurement models in terms of the difference in chi-square relative to degrees of freedom, RMSEA, and CFI. In the first model (the base model), all factor loadings, error variances, and all factor variances/covariances were allowed to be free across the three samples. (One marker item was selected, and the same marker item was used in each sample). In the second model (the equal loading model), the factor loadings (apart from the marker item) were constrained to be equal across the three samples. A model in which all

Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, and Predicted Correlations for Model Constructs

A: Turkish and Singaporean Samples ^a											
Measures		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	M	3.95	5.16	3.32	4.54	5.11	5.82	5.06	.34	5.47	5.37
	SD	1.71	1.47	1.51	1.92	1.73	1.21	2.00	2.10	1.19	1.30
1. PBGlobalness _L	3.73	1.72	.48	.24	.37	-.11	.02	-.00	-.30	.00	.00
2. PBQuality _L	4.94	1.30	.33	.25	.47	.04	.09	.12	-.57	.39	.10
3. Local iconness	3.08	1.41	-.44	.04	.38	.34	.21	.32	-.15	.37	.10
4. Prestige _L	4.28	1.68	.01	.39	.27	.22	.07	.33	-.35	.42	.11
5. PBGlobalness _G	5.24	1.33	.43	.13	.21	-.08	.30	.63	.09	.21	.41
6. PBQuality _G	5.00	1.23	.24	.35	.11	.21	.50	.39	.41	.16	.43
7. Prestige _G	4.44	1.71	-.01	-.06	.20	.15	.20	.17	.10	.24	.37
8. GBPL	-.33	1.69	.18	-.21	-.09	-.08	.27	.36	.18	-.30	.36
9. Familiarity _L	5.57	1.22	.00	.31	.41	.24	.36	.26	.11	-.16	.26
10. Familiarity _G	5.23	1.14	.00	.16	.22	.13	.66	.36	.15	.27	.53
B: The Danish Sample (n = 164)											
Measures		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	M										
	SD										
1. PBGlobalness _L	3.70	1.63									
2. PBQuality _L	4.92	1.21	.13								
3. Local iconness	3.53	1.59	-.28	.25							
4. Prestige _L	3.91	1.48	.16	.43	.27						
5. PBGlobalness _G	6.26	1.14	-.10	.04	.01	.04					
6. PBQuality _G	5.24	1.26	.04	.21	.15	.18	.37				
7. Prestige _G	4.65	1.73	-.01	.16	.15	.08	.18	.59			
8. GBPL	-.38	2.15	-.04	-.41	-.14	-.16	.33	.43	.31		
9. Familiarity _L	5.58	1.14	.00	.32	.40	.16	-.05	-.02	-.04	-.45	
10. Familiarity _G	5.20	1.28	.00	-.05	-.06	-.02	.49	.45	.32	.46	-.14

^aThe matrix's upper triangle corresponds to the Turkish sample (n = 480), while the lower triangle corresponds to the Singaporean sample (n = 202).

factor loadings were constrained to be equal yielded a significant decrease in model fit ($\chi^2 = 397.4$, d.f. = 206, $p = .00$; CFI = .96; NNFI = .94; and RMSEA = .04). Following Steenkamp and Baumgartner's (1998) approach, partial metric invariance was then tested by releasing 2 of the 14 constraints. The resulting insignificant chi-square difference at $p = .01$ ($\Delta\chi^2 = 24.57$, Δ d.f. = 12) together with an insubstantial decrease in the CFI (.004) and a .01 improvement in RMSEA suggest retaining this

constrained model. In general, equality of factor loadings is supported in that only 2 of the 14 constraints on the three-group model were released.

These findings support full invariance of the factor pattern (configural invariance) and partial invariance of the factor loadings (metric invariance) of the global and local brand-level constructs in the model. The measurement models for Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark are

clean, with evidence of unidimensionality, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and configural and metric invariance. Thus, the structural model was evaluated next.

RESULTS

Structural Model Evaluation

To test the hypotheses, structural equation modeling was used. Figure 1 presents the results for all three markets. To enhance connection with previous research, unhypothesized path results are also presented in the same figure. Table 3 reports the parameter estimates for the hypothesized paths and goodness-of-fit indicators of the structural equation system for each sample. Separate measures of local and global brand familiarity were added to each structural equation as covariates to control for possible confounds. The model fits the data very well (Turkey: $\chi^2 = 218.58$, d.f. = 98, $p = .00$; CFI = .97; NNFI = .95; RMSEA = .05; and SRMR = .06; Singapore: $\chi^2 = 155.27$, d.f. = 98, $p = .00$; CFI = .95; NNFI = .93; RMSEA = .05; and SRMR = .06; Denmark: $\chi^2 = 185.19$, d.f. = 98, $p = .00$; CFI = .94; NNFI = .91; RMSEA = .07; and SRMR = .06). Approximately 60%

of the variance of the focal endogenous construct, GBPL, is accounted for by the model for Turkey and Denmark, and 40% is accounted for in the sample from Singapore (Bagozzi and Yi 1988). Thus, overall, the model is a good representation of the data.

Local Iconness Hypotheses. H₁ and H₂ explicate the associations among local iconness and related constructs. Consistent with H₁, perceived brand globalness of the local brand is positively associated with local iconness only in the emerging market, Turkey. In the mature markets of Singapore and Denmark, this relationship is negative and significant. There is also uniform support for H₂, revealing that local iconness is positively and significantly related to the prestige of the local brand in both emerging and mature markets.

Cross-Brand-Level Hypotheses. Two interesting cross-brand effects are revealed in this study: (1) the negative relationship of local brand quality on GBPL (H₃) and (2) the negative association between local brand prestige and GBPL (H₄). H₃ is uniformly supported in all three samples, in that GBPL is negatively related to the perceived quality of the leading local brand in the same category. The mechanism behind this effect is as fol-

Table 3. Structural Parameter Estimates and Goodness-of-fit Indexes (Full Samples)

Hypothesized Path	Turkey		Singapore		Denmark	
	Estimate	T-Value	Estimate	T-Value	Estimate	T-Value
Local Iconness						
H ₁ : PBGlobalness _L → Local iconness	.14	1.98**	-.28	3.07**	-.43	2.89**
H ₂ : Local iconness → Prestige _L	.28	3.93**	.34	2.57**	.31	3.48**
Cross-Brand Level						
H ₃ : PBQuality _L → GBPL	-.64	-8.03**	-.42	-3.66**	-.71	-5.22**
H ₄ : Prestige _L → GBPL	-.12	-2.57*	.00	.02	-.09	-1.03
Goodness-of-Fit Measures						
χ^2 (98 d.f.)	218.58		155.27		185.19	
CFI/NNFI/RMSEA/SRMR	.97/.95/.05/.06		.95/.93/.05/.06		.94/.91/.07/.06	
R ² PBQ _L	.31		.20		.18	
R ² PBQ _G	.22		.33		.24	
R ² GBPL	.58		.38		.60	
N	480		202		164	

* $p < .10$.
** $p < .05$.

lows: Perceived quality of local brand increases the purchase likelihood of the local brand, which in turn decreases GBPL. The results show that when consumers have a high-quality local brand, their likelihood of purchasing the global alternative decreases. This result provides strong empirical evidence for the cross-country validation of this cross-brand relationship, which is noteworthy given that the countries studied differ considerably on demographic, economic, and cultural dimensions. H_4 is supported only in Turkey: The prestige of the local brand increases the purchase likelihood of the local brand, which in turn dampens the purchase likelihood of the global brand in an emerging market setting.

To better understand the mechanisms through which the effects of the local brand operate on GBPL, the indirect effects of PBGlobalness_L and local iconness on GBPL are considered. The indirect effects of PBGlobalness_L are uniformly significant in all three samples and the indirect effect of local iconness is significant in Denmark. In addition to the direct negative effect of PBQuality_L on GBPL, the local brand exerts an indirect negative effect on GBPL, triggered by its perceived globalness. (Significant indirect effects for Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark at $p < .10$ are $-.30$, $-.06$, and $-.18$, respectively.) Furthermore, local iconness matters in Denmark: It indirectly dampens the purchase likelihood of the global brand further ($-.13$, significant at $p < .10$).

Global Brand-Level Relationships. Although not the main focus of this study, in general, the current findings support the results of Steenkamp, Batra and Alden (2003) across three different countries, thus enhancing the generalizability of their results. Perceived brand globalness is positively associated with both perceived brand quality and prestige (barely missing significance in Denmark). Moreover, no support is found in any of the three countries for a direct relationship between PBGlobalness_G and GBPL, when perceptions of global brand quality and prestige are controlled for and when local brand equity associations are included. Thus, this path is omitted from the final model (Figure 1). However, the uniformly positive and significant indirect effects of PBGlobalness_G on GBPL (at $p < .10$, Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark are $.10$, $.32$, and $.13$, respectively) are in line with previous findings. Increased brand globalness increases quality perceptions, which in turn increase purchase likelihood. The premise that perceived brand globalness increases purchase likelihood still holds, albeit along an indirect path.

To enhance confidence in the validity of the postulated model, this study turns to three model specifications. First, rival structural models are tested. Second, effect sizes for the significant paths are tested to determine whether they are equal across the samples. Third, moderator tests on some of the hypothesized relationships are performed.

Rival Models

Bagozzi and Yi (1988) recommend that researchers compare rival models and not just test the performance of a proposed model. Therefore, three pertinent rival models were tested. The first specifies the reverse causal direction between perceived brand globalness and perceived brand quality in that perceived quality is considered an antecedent (not outcome) of perceived globalness for both the local and global brand sections of the structural model studied here. It could be argued that a global (or local) brand is considered to have higher levels of perceived brand globalness and prestige if its perceived quality is high. With respect to the overall fit, the rival model has a higher chi-square and lower CFI and NNFI than the hypothesized model in all three samples (Turkey: $\chi^2 = 411.15$, d.f. = 98, $p = .00$; CFI = .91; NNFI = .87; RMSEA = .09; and SRMR = .10; Singapore: $\chi^2 = 199.43$, d.f. = 98, $p = .00$; CFI = .91; NNFI = .88; RMSEA = .07; and SRMR = .10; Denmark: $\chi^2 = 229.89$, d.f. = 98, $p = .00$; CFI = .90; NNFI = .86; RMSEA = .09; and SRMR = .09). In addition, because the two models have the same degrees of freedom, their chi-square statistic can be compared directly, revealing that the rival model's fit is 88%, 28%, and 4% weaker for Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark, respectively. Because this model is a worse fit in all three samples, it must be discarded in favor of the original model.

In the second rival model, the causal ordering between local iconness and prestige is reversed, in that prestige is an antecedent (not outcome) of local iconness. As a reviewer suggested, a local brand could be perceived to have a higher level of local iconness when its prestige is high. To reflect cross-brand associations of the same brand equity attributes the Prestige_L → Prestige_G path was preserved in this rival model. While demonstrating good fit, this model has a higher chi-square and lower CFI and NNFI than the hypothesized model in all three samples (e.g., Turkey: $\chi^2 = 246.67$, d.f. = 98, $p = .00$; CFI = .95; NNFI = .94; RMSEA = .06; and SRMR = .08). Specifically, the increase in chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2 = 28.09$), the decline in the CFI ($\Delta\text{CFI} = -.02$), and the increase in SRMR ($\Delta\text{SRMR} = .02$) supported preserving the original model for further analysis.

However, the causal ordering between local iconness and prestige deserves further analysis, preferably with longitudinal data.

The third rival model challenged the direct effects of local brand equity constructs on GBPL. When first introducing the model, theoretical rationale for expecting direct effects of the perceived quality and prestige of the local brand on the purchase likelihood of the global brand (H_3 and H_4) was provided. For purposes of contrast, the competing model eliminates these two cross-brand effects. With respect to overall fit, this second rival model performed relatively poorly (Turkey: $\chi^2 = 342.45$, d.f. = 100, $p = .00$; CFI = .93; NNFI = .90; RMSEA = .07; and SRMR = .10; Singapore: $\chi^2 = 170.47$, d.f. = 100, $p = .00$; CFI = .94; NNFI = .92; RMSEA = .06; and SRMR = .07; Denmark: $\chi^2 = 221.38$, d.f. = 100, $p = .00$; CFI = .91; NNFI = .88; RMSEA = .09; and SRMR = .08). Because this model is a nested version of the theoretical model, chi-square difference tests indicated that for Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark, these direct paths improved model fit significantly and that the original model with these cross-brand effects was superior.

To further refine the main results, the extent to which the paths reported significant in all three samples were equal in strength was evaluated. A multiple groups approach was used to answer this question. Five paths were reported to be significant in all three samples: PBGlobalness_L → PBQuality_L, Local Iconness → Prestige_L, PBGlobalness_G → PBQuality_G, and PBQuality_L (–) → GBPL, and PBQuality_G → GBPL. A corresponding series of chi-square difference tests were performed on these paths, one path at a time. A model in which the path of interest was set equal across the three country samples (equal model) was compared with one in which the same path was set free across the three samples (free model). The chi-square differences range from 1.34 to 3.27 (Δ d.f. = 2). The insignificant decline in model fit reveals that, indeed, paths that are significant in Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark do not differ statistically in strength across countries (e.g., the negative effect of local brand quality on GBPL has the same strength in Turkey, Singapore, and Denmark). As such, the postulated model shows some consistency across countries. Overall, the testing of these rival models and effect sizes point to (1) the relative robustness and validity of the postulated model, (2) the existence of cross-brand effects of the local brand on GBPL, and (3) cross-country consistency of some portions of the model.

Moderating Effects of Product Category and Consumer Age

Moderating effects are tested through multigroup analyses, splitting the samples in each country into subsamples on the two moderating variables of interest. Table 4 displays the results for separate structural model estimations in terms of chi-square and degrees of freedom.⁵

Regarding H_5 , the formal moderation test revealed that product category moderates the relationship of local iconness to local brand quality in Turkey. (The relationship is insignificant in the full sample.) The within-country path coefficients are positive and significant in food categories in Turkey and Denmark (food categories: Turkey: $\beta = .35$, $t = 2.33$; Singapore: $\beta = .05$, $t = .25$; Denmark: $\beta = .25$, $t = 2.96$) but consistently insignificant for nonfood categories (nonfood categories: Turkey: $\beta = -.07$, $t = -.37$; Singapore: $\beta = -.01$, $t = -.07$; Denmark: $\beta = .14$, $t = 1.18$). For Turkish and Danish consumers, the data suggest that investing in local iconness enhances quality perceptions in food categories.

To test the moderating influences of consumer age, each country sample was divided into subsamples of younger (18–25 years of age) and older consumers (26–60 years of age). The results show that age significantly moderates the relationship between local brand prestige and GBPL in Turkey. For older consumers, the prestige of the local brand has a stronger dampening effect on the purchase likelihood of the same category global brand. The within-country path coefficients are consistently larger in the older than the younger subsamples in all three countries (for older consumers: Turkey: $\beta = -.21$, $t = -3.43$; Singapore: $\beta = -.13$, $t = -1.11$; Denmark: $\beta = -.28$, $t = -1.90$; for younger consumers: Turkey: $\beta = -.02$, $t = -.35$; Singapore: $\beta = .07$, $t = .95$; Denmark: $\beta = -.05$, $t = -.41$). The data suggest that for older Turkish and, to some extent, Danish consumers, investing in local brand prestige generates a higher payoff in terms of dampening the purchase likelihood of the global brand. Age does not moderate the relationship between PBQuality_L and GBPL (H_3), confirming the stability and robustness of this cross-brand effect across countries and consumer segments.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study extends previous research by analyzing both global and local brands simultaneously in an integrative model. The design of this study and the findings from the empirical analysis based on consumer data from an

Table 4. Moderating Influences

	Turkey	Singapore	Denmark
Moderator: Product Category (Food vs. Nonfood)			
Equal Model			
d.f.	208	208	208
χ^2	381.77	299.53	356.87
H ₅ : Local iconness → PBQuality _L : free			
d.f.	207	207	207
χ^2	372.97	298.83	354.84
$\Delta\chi^2$	8.80*	.70	2.03
Moderator: Consumer Age			
Equal Model			
d.f.	208	208	208
χ^2	368.48	319.48	329.18
H ₆ : Prestige _L → GBPL: free			
d.f.	207	207	207
χ^2	363.76	317.07	328.67
$\Delta\chi^2$	4.72*	2.41	0.51
H ₇ : PBQuality _L → GBPL: free			
d.f.	207	207	207
χ^2	368.26	319.44	329.14
$\Delta\chi^2$.22	.04	.04

* $p < .05$.

emerging market and two mature markets contribute to the global branding literature in several ways.

First, the study includes local iconness (e.g., Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003) as a brand signal and a critical brand attribute for local brands and investigate its relationship to brand globalness perceptions. It shows that perceived brand globalness elevates brands to local iconness status in emerging markets but not in mature markets (H₁). The findings suggest evidence of a hybridization process (Pieterse 1995) of local brands in an emerging market. The seemingly contradictory perceptions of globalness and local iconness are mutually reinforcing in consumer evaluations of local brands in emerging markets. This relationship capturing the marriage or melange of global presence and strong local (cultural, country) connections in emerging markets suggests that the globalization process is not simple or unidirectional, as the homogenization argument suggests (e.g., Levitt 1983). Instead, through a hybridization process, the local brand drives strength from associations that would nor-

mally be contrary to localness. Some elements of being global are integrated into the elements of being local, creating the many shades of gray in the hybridized world of successful local brands in emerging markets.

This study finds evidence that consumers in advanced countries do not approve the marriage of the diverse associations of globalness perceptions and local iconness. The availability of their local icons in other markets as well leads these consumers to downgrade their local iconness perceptions. The loss of spatiotemporal authenticity (Grayson and Martinec 2004) or the higher need for uniqueness (Brewer 1991) could explain the dampening of these consumers' iconness perceptions.

Second, this study finds that local iconness is a driver of prestige for local brands in both emerging and advanced markets (H₂). In line with Ger's (1999) expectation, by building strong local cultural connections and symbolism, local iconness creates unique perceived value associated with prestige perceptions in all markets studied. Third, this

study identifies the cross-brand effects of the local brand on same-category, comparable global brand evaluations. It shows that GBPL is negatively related to the quality perceptions of its local counterpart. Thus, quality of the local brand is the key association in dampening GBPL, and local brand globalness enhances local brand quality perceptions. These relationships hold even after controlling for familiarity, prestige, quality, and perceived globalness of the global brand and of its local counterpart.⁶

Fourth, by integrating the associative network memory model (Anderson 1983; Keller 1993, 2003) and signaling theory (Erdem and Swait 1998, 2004), this study develops a theoretical logic that brand globalness is a firm signal and a critical brand attribute for both global and local brands. The relevance of this conceptualization is demonstrated by the empirical evidence that perceived brand globalness is beneficial for both the global and local brands: It is positively associated with quality and prestige perceptions.

Implications for Local Brand Managers

Because local brands are increasingly faced with competition from global brands, this study has several implications for local brand managers to defend themselves against global brands. First, in emerging markets, local brands that are perceived as global enhance their local iconness perceptions.⁷ Seeing that a local brand is “doing well abroad” stimulates feelings of success and pride and respect in homegrown talent. Global expansion is one defense strategy local brands can use—defense by attaching.⁸ Therefore, it is recommended that local brand managers invest in building presence in foreign markets and using this foreign availability and success (particularly in advanced countries) in their communications with local consumers. Indeed, the leading Turkish jeans brand, Mavi, ran advertisements specifying that its brand is sold in the United States (among many other countries), the home of the original Levi’s jeans. In 2005, Asia Pacific Breweries, the owner of Singapore’s Tiger beer brand, “unleashed the new Tiger,” in which the new look exuded a stronger universal appeal. The words “World-Acclaimed Beer” were prominently displayed on Tiger’s bottle and can labels (APW 2005). In the new logo, the signature Tiger icon strode forth powerfully, “symbolising that Tiger has evolved from a local beer to a Singapore icon.”

Some other ways of building perceptions of globalness include indicating conspicuously on the packaging selective foreign countries (favorable in the mental maps of targeted consumers) where the products are available and

providing usage instructions in different languages. Global availability could also be the underpinning of print or television commercials. International quality endorsement marks, such as the ISO 9000 family of quality standards and European Commission quality standards, are also useful. Public relations departments can court the foreign media by giving them access to their key executives for opinions and comments about current issues.

However, calling attention to global expansion seems to work only for emerging markets, not for mature markets. For example, in launching the new look in 2005, Tiger beer managers tried to preserve the brand’s sense of familiarity through its brewing tradition, Singaporean origin, and exotic Asian appeal (APW 2005). NTUC Fairprice, the largest supermarket chain in Singapore and one of the brands in this study, uses “Singapore’s very own” as its brand slogan (Wikipedia 2012).

The positive relationship between local iconness and local brand prestige, uniformly supported in all three markets, deserves local brand managers’ attention. In support of Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden’s (2003) empirical results and embracing Ger’s (1999) emphasis on local culture, local brands that invest in and communicate their brands as icons of local culture can enhance their brand’s prestige perceptions. For example, one of the Turkish brands in this study, Mavi jeans, launched a communications campaign in 2007 (Mavi 2007) in which jeans were wrapped like turbans on models’ heads and several local accessories were used.

Such local symbolism and cultural connections builds local iconness, which enhances the prestige of the brand. In turn, prestigious local brands increase purchase likelihood of the local brand and indirectly dampen GBPL in an emerging market. Thus, the competition between global and local brands remains a factor. Brands high in local iconness, whether iconness is driven from perceived globalness or not, enhance their prestige perceptions in both emerging and industrialized markets.

In food categories, there are further returns to local iconness perceptions. In both Turkey and Denmark, local icons are also perceived to be of higher quality. Definitions and expectations of quality may be influenced more by cultural, traditional, and habitual needs, giving local icons an edge in food categories. Local icons may be more tuned to such local definitions and expectations of quality in food. For example, founded in 1856, Denmark’s Ceres Beer, one of the local brands in this study, preserves its high alcohol content as a way to

keep its connection to the Danish brewery tradition and origin. (In Denmark, traditionally, beers were brewed with special ingredients [some using lard], giving the beer a unique taste and higher alcohol content [Glaser 2003.]) For managers of local food brands, developing local iconness is a path worth investing in because the returns are positive in terms of quality perceptions.

Although not formally hypothesized, observing the same brand equity associations for the local and global brand (e.g., $PBQuality_L \rightarrow PBQuality_G$), it is evident that perceptions of local brand quality tend to be associated with perceptions of global brand quality at a higher level of intensity in nonfood categories (nonfood, $PBQuality_L \rightarrow PBQuality_G$: Turkey: $\beta = .14$, $t = 3.04$; Singapore: $\beta = .39$, $t = 3.91$; Denmark: $\beta = .12$, $t = 1.30$), whereas in food categories the associations tend to be weaker (food, Turkey: $\beta = -.02$, $t = -.28$; Singapore: $\beta = .16$, $t = 1.88$; Denmark: $\beta = .10$, $t = 1.01$). According to the associative network model, in food categories, the other brand may be less relevant, and therefore its attributes may not be salient. That is, because food is more culturally grounded, with local tastes, traditions, and habits playing a greater role (Schuh 2007), consumers may consider the global brand alternative less relevant in satisfying social, cultural, and traditional needs (weaker interplay). In nonfood categories, because the global brand is considered more relevant, its attributes come to the forefront, creating stronger associations (stronger interplay). This is an intriguing observation in need of further research and validation.

Finally, local brands that are perceived to be global are also perceived to be of higher quality. The consumers may be using the following inference: If the company is selling this brand in other world markets, it must be committed to this brand, and it cannot risk hurting its brand name by producing low-quality products. Other consumers around the world must be buying this brand because it is of higher quality. Thus, though not explicitly tested, the perceived globalness of a local brand may enhance its credibility (Erdem and Swait 1998). The positive association between the perceived globalness and quality of the local brand is critical in that perceived brand globalness increases perceived quality, which in turn increases local brand purchase likelihood and thus reduces the purchase likelihood of the global alternative. This study provides the first empirical validation of this chain of effects.

In terms of the effects on a comparable global brand, in emerging markets and especially for older consumers, the prestige of their local brand dampens GBPL. This effect exists also in Denmark among older consumers. Thus,

local brand managers can invest in enhancing the prestige perceptions of their brands, particularly in their targeting and communication strategies with older consumers.

Implications for Global Brand Managers

As many multinational companies are pruning their brand portfolios in favor of global brands and as they are eliminating many “successful” local brands, it is critical to understand the effects of same-category local brands on consumer global brand preference. How should global managers act if local brands build on iconness or perceptions of globalness? In a recent study on U.S. consumers, Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen (2008, p. 129) find that the self-reported indifference to or outright dislike of global brands is not representative of consumer’s true attitudes. Indirect ways of evaluating affective responses to brand globalness show that “everyone feels good about global brands and what they convey to their users.” Therefore, global brand managers should be cautious in building an “insider” status. Some of the affective “aspirational” aura (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008), the happiness, and the excitement associated with global brands may be lost as they cultivate insider associations and become “one of us.” Furthermore, the insider positioning may not be authentic, credible, and believable coming from a global brand. Local companies can “out-localize” a global brand (Ger 1999).

Global firms can respond to attacks from independently owned, nimble local brands by preserving local brands in their brand portfolios. Thus, keeping a portfolio of local brands, whether gained through past acquisitions or built in-house in previous decades when the industries were multidomestic, gives multinational corporations the strategic flexibility to respond to nimble local brand owners by building local iconness of their local brands. Indeed, many multinational corporations keep the acquired local brands in their portfolios and communicate deeper connections to the local country and culture, in many cases preserving or building the local iconness of these brands.

Considering the results of this study along with those of previous findings on global branding (e.g., Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008) and on marketing standardization (e.g., Özsomer and Simonin 2004; Zou and Cavusgil 2002), global brands should emphasize their global reach, their universal availability and recognition, and their uniform and standardized but high-quality features, reducing the

perceived risk and in turn increasing the value and utility for their target consumers. The strong positive associations between global brand quality and purchase likelihood and the lack of significant associations between global brand prestige and purchase likelihood in all three markets, taken together, reveal that investing in creating and communicating quality rather than prestige is a surer route to consumer preference for global brands. Indeed, the strong effects of quality prevail even after controlling for the quality and prestige effects of the local brand. Thus, global brands should heavily invest in perceptions of quality to enhance and protect their competitive positions (Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Steenkamp; Batra and, Alden 2003).

Global brand managers might also nurture other attributes beyond quality and familiarity to create differential advantage. Some of these points of difference might be greater attention to social responsibility in the local market (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004) and authenticity perceptions (Grayson and Martinec 2004). However, the focus groups conducted for this study during the brand selection process revealed greater suspicion and cynicism regarding the social responsibility activities of global brands. Furthermore, in line with previous research, the social responsibility expectations were also greater from global brands. Global brands are subjected to greater expectations and tougher metrics when evaluated in terms of their social responsibility, making such signals difficult to execute and manage.

While local brands can more easily and convincingly build authenticity perceptions with unique associations to their local identity and culture (Ger 1999), a handful of global brands, such as Apple, have succeeded in building and maintaining high authenticity perceptions (for further details, see Belk and Tumbat 2005) even though they are available throughout most of the world. While social responsibility and authenticity of global brands are fruitful areas for further research, these factors are beyond the scope of this study.

LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

There are many avenues of further research to pursue and limitations of this study to address. First, both perceived brand globalness and local iconness need to be conceptualized and measured more extensively. These constructs are likely to be multidimensional. Furthermore, the relationship between perceived brand global-

ness and local iconness deserves further scrutiny. For example, how would the relationship be different if globalness perceptions were driven by success in other advanced markets versus success in emerging markets? Would the relationship be different for emerging and advanced market consumers? The relationship might be expected to be positive for advanced-country consumers if globalness is driven from success in other advanced markets. Second, consumer need for uniqueness (Brewer 1991) and authenticity (Grayson and Martinec 2004) can be explicitly measured and included to provide a better understanding of why the relationship between perceived globalness and iconness is negative in advanced countries.

Third, the design of this study necessitated identification of well-known global and local brand pairs. As a result, categories differed somewhat between countries because the same global brands were either not well-known or well-known local counterparts were not available in all three countries. Using a reviewer's suggestion to control for product category differences (in addition to brand-level differences, controlled for with the difference measure, GBPL), the hypothesized model was run, dividing GBPL by the purchase likelihood of the local brand ($[BPL_G - BPL_L]/BPL_L$). This cleaner measure captured the percentage shift of the purchase likelihood of the global brand relative to its local counterpart and took care of product category-level differences. The substantial results did not change significantly. Thus, the original analysis is reported (thanks to a reviewer for providing this suggestion).

Fourth, although in most cases the local and global brands are top brands in their categories, products might still differ in pricing, which might account for differences in perceived quality, prestige, and purchase likelihood. For a subset of the brands, there is global-local price information. Their price levels are very comparable, and T-tests showed no significant differences. Moreover, the main model was run on these brands controlling for price, and the substantial results did not change significantly—significant paths were still significant. However, the lack of price information for all brand pairs is a limitation of the current study in need of attention in further research. A related point is differences in the execution of brand communication. This research did not control for communication execution variability, which might influence perceptions of brand equity elements.

Fifth, by design, this research did not include any luxury brands but rather positioned the local as an alternative

to the “normal” global brand (Ger 1999). The relationship between globalness and local iconness as well as the interplay between the global and local brands might be different when luxury brands are involved. Similarly, in times of economic distress, consumers may be expected to return to local concerns with renewed interest in local brands (Quelch and Jocz 2009). Testing the role of local iconness and globalness perceptions in times of economic crises could yield fruitful insights for global and local brand managers.

Sixth, previous research identified ethnocentrism as a moderator of the relationship between perceived brand globalness and purchase likelihood (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003) and as a mediator of the relationship between global consumption orientation and global brand attitudes (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 2006). Other consumer characteristics such as susceptibility to normative influence (Batra et al. 2000; Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 2006), materialism (Ahuvia and Wong 2002), and cosmopolitanism (Cannon and Yaprak 2002), might moderate the interplay between the global brand and its local counterpart. Specifically, ethnocentrism and susceptibility to normative influence might moderate the local iconness–Prestige_L relationship. Another area for further research would be to integrate Hofstede’s (1980) dimensions of national culture into the model by measuring them at the consumer level (in line with Erdem, Swait, and Valenzuela 2006) to investigate culture’s influence on global (local) brand purchase likelihood. Because the model presented here is already complex, such possibilities were not investigated.

Seventh, this study compares a relatively large emerging market with two small, mature markets. While Denmark has strong local brands in many categories, the availability of local brands may be more limited in Singapore. This might be one reason some of the paths were not significant in Singapore (e.g., local iconness → PBQuality_L in food categories). Future studies should include larger mature markets (e.g., Japan, the United Kingdom, South Korea) for a better test of model generalizability.

This study focuses on the interplay between local and global brand pairs. Asymmetrical relationships are identified between perceived brand globalness and local iconness in emerging and advanced markets. Evidence is found of a hybridization process in emerging markets, in which the global and local elements of a local brand’s equity are mutually reinforcing. With this research, I hope to attract greater interest in the interplay between

global and local brands. Indeed, the competition between same-category comparable local and global brands will be a fruitful and managerially relevant area of research for many years to come.

NOTES

1. Quality variation depends on the ability to implement reliable, low-defect manufacturing. Not all local manufacturers in emerging markets have access to such manufacturing sophistication, research and development, and automation levels. Thus, quality variation is expected to be higher for local brands reflected in perceptual measures as well.
2. Thanks to a reviewer for this insight.
3. The cross-brand correlations among quality and prestige control for category main effects and enable a closer investigation of how category differences (food vs. nonfood) strengthen or weaken these associations.
4. Assessing comparability through matched samples was critical, particularly in Turkey, given lower per capita gross domestic product rates at purchasing power parity (\$7,900 in Turkey vs. \$29,900 in Singapore and \$33,400 in Denmark; *CIA Factbook* 2006).
5. Considering product category a moderator, in the equal models, all paths of the structural model across food and nonfood subsamples were set equal. In the free models, all equality constraints remained in place, except the path that was potentially affected by the moderator variable. A significant decrease in chi-square from the equal model to a model in which one relationship is free implies that the moderator variable has a significant influence on that relationship.
6. In all markets, brand familiarity plays a critical role. Brand familiarity with the global brand increases the likelihood of purchasing the global brand, whereas brand familiarity with the local brand has the opposite effect on the purchase likelihood of the global brand.
7. This relationship is stable across food and drinks and nonfood categories according to chi-square difference tests.
8. Thanks to a reviewer for providing these insights.

Appendix. Measures, Composite Reliabilities, and Average Variance Extracted

Constructs	Item	Source
Perceived Brand Globalness		
PBG _L : CR _T = .62, AVE _T = .51, CR _S = .57, AVE _S = .42, CR _D = .72, AVE _D = .65		
PBG _G : CR _T = .72, AVE _T = .62, CR _S = .60, AVE _S = .47, CR _D = .71, AVE _D = .61		
PBG _L and PBG _G ^a	To me this is a global brand/To me this is a local brand.	Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003)
	I don't think consumers overseas buy this brand/I do think consumers overseas buy this brand.	Same as above
	This brand is sold only in (Turkey, Singapore, Denmark)/This brand is sold all over the world. ^b	Same as above
Local Iconness		
CR _T = .83, AVE _T = .64, CR _S = .87, AVE _S = .68, CR _D = .89, AVE _D = .72		
	I associate this brand with things that are (Turkish, Singaporean, Danish)/I do not associate this brand with things that are (Turkish, Singaporean, Danish).	Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003)
	To me, this brand represents what (Turkey, Singapore, Denmark) is all about/to me this brand does not represent what (Turkey, Singapore, Denmark) is all about.	Same as above
	To me, this brand is not a very good symbol of (Turkey, Singapore, Denmark)/to me, this brand is a very good symbol of (Turkey, Singapore, Denmark).	Same as above
Perceived Brand Prestige		
Prestige _L and Prestige _G ^a	This is a very prestigious brand/This is not a very prestigious brand.	Batra et al. (2000)
Perceived Brand Quality		
PBQ _L : CR _T = .95, AVE _T = .91, CR _S = .85, AVE _S = .74, CR _D = .91, AVE _D = .84		
PBQ _G : CR _T = .89, AVE _T = .81, CR _S = .86, AVE _S = .76, CR _D = .90, AVE _D = .82		
PBQ _L and PBQ _G ^a	This brand is very low on overall quality/This brand is very high on overall quality.	Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003)
	This is a brand of inferior quality/This is a brand of superior quality To me this brand is a very good symbol of (Turkey, Singapore, Denmark).	Same as above
Brand Familiarity^c		
Familiarity _L and Familiarity _G ^a	This brand is very familiar to me/This brand is very unfamiliar to me.	Same as above
	Everybody here has heard of this brand/Almost nobody here has heard of this brand.	Same as above
	I'm not at all knowledgeable about this brand/I'm very knowledgeable about this brand.	Same as above
	I have never seen ads for it in (Turkish, Singaporean, Danish) magazines, radio, or TV/I have seen many ads for it in (Turkish, Singaporean, Danish) magazines, radio, or TV.	Same as above

Appendix. Continued

Constructs	Item	Source
Global Brand Purchase Likelihood^d		
GBP _L : CR _T = .92; AVE _T = .86; CR _S = .82; AVE _S = .72; CR _D = .94; AVE _D = .88		
BPL _L and BPL _G ^a	I would not buy it (assuming it was available)/I would certainly buy it (assuming it was available). I'm not at all likely to buy it (if available)/I'm very likely to buy it (if available).	Same as above
Consumer Age		
	Please check the box for each that represents your age: ___ Below 18 ___ 18–25 ___ 26–35 ___ 36–45 ___ 46–55 ___ 56 and above	Newly developed
Category		
	Food and drinks versus other	Coded by researcher

^aThese questions were answered *separately* for the local and the global brand by the respondent, generating the separate constructs in the model in Figure 1. All measures are seven-point, unless otherwise specified.

^bThese items were deleted in the final analysis.

^cAn index of familiarity was developed separately for the local and global brand by averaging responses to the four familiarity items. The corresponding index was used in structural model equations.

^dResponses for local brands on the two items were subtracted from the corresponding global brand items to create the two GBPL measures. Reported CR and AVEs are for these difference measures.

Notes: CR = composite reliability, AVE = average variance extracted. T = Turkey, S = Singapore, and D = Denmark.

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