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„Global vs. Local brand consumer evaluations: a multi-category experimental investigation in a recently graduated developed country“

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Abstract

The ongoing battle between global and local brands has for long attracted the attention of marketing practitioners and academics alike. The focus of most of the studies was on the associations connected with these brands, for the purpose of identifying which, global or local brands, are more favored by the consumer. The focal concept – Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) by Steenkamp et al. (2003), was often found to positively influence consumer attitudes and decisions. However, individual studies identified consumer, product and country characteristics which affect the relationship. One of the main purposes of this study is to incorporate these characteristics (some not tested previously) into an overall model and provide an overview of the boundary conditions, under which they influence the PBG – outcome relationship. At the same time outcome variables, which were not or insufficiently tested, will be included in the model. This study employed a 2 X 4 between subject experimental design: Designation (Global vs. Local) and Product category (Chocolate bar, Shower gel, Tablet and Bag) with four fictitious brands. An online survey was conducted in a recently graduated developed country – Slovakia, with 296 Slovak participants. Using descriptive statistics, single and multiple regression analyses the research showed (1) main effects of PBG on Brand Purchase and Word-of-mouth Intentions only for two product categories, (2) moderating effect of Local Identity, Ethnocentrism and Visibility (of the product) for all product categories, (3) moderating effect of Product Involvement for two product categories and Ethnocentrism just for one. This study added valuable insights into the relationship between PBG and the proposed outcome variables, when fictitious brands are considered. Moreover, boundary conditions were displayed, under which the PBG and outcome relationships are significant, with the direction of the relationships explained. Last but not least, effects were shown, which are likely to occur only in product category specific context.

Keywords: perceived brand globalness, consumer & product characteristics, brand purchase & word-of-mouth intentions, anticipated regret for (not) purchasing, willingness to pay, fictitious brands

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List of Abbreviations

ARNP – Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing

ARP – Anticipated Regret for Purchasing

BPI – Brand Purchase Intentions

CET – Consumer Ethnocentrism

COSMO – Cosmopolitanism

GI – Global Identity

LI – Local Identity

MT – Master Thesis

PBG – Perceived Brand Globalness

PINV – Product Involvement

UTIL/HED – Utilitarian/Hedonic Value

VIS – Visibility

WOM – Word-of-mouth Intentions

WTP – Willingness to Pay

1. Introduction

1.1. Background

With ever increasing market competition companies strive to identify drivers of success in order to achieve competitive advantage. Managers are challenged with the task to develop strategies which would enable sustainability and secure business continuity. The vast amount of available brands impose a challenge just as a blessing on the consumer, as he is now granted access to a variety of brands for nearly each product category, but is at the same time faced with a choice among an ample amount of options. In order to win the customer, his preferences have to be understood and corresponding marketing and positioning strategies developed. However, which positioning strategies succeeded is ultimately manifested at the cashier. Therefore, aware of the voluminousness of brands on the market, companies try to attract the consumer by, among other things, inducing favoring perceptions which would win the customer over. Their focus lies on the consumer – the potential customer, a building block of a profitable company. What seeks the customer? What drives his preference? These and other questions related to consumer affinities try companies, but also researches, to understand and consequently dive more and more into the depths of customer's attitudes and decisions.

Of particular interest for marketing practitioners and academics alike is the rivalry between global and local brands. Levitt's (1983) globalization theorem was accompanied by the emergence of global brands, which as the name suggests, approached the markets from a global perspective (e.g. Branch 2001; Özsomer & Altaras 2008; Özsomer 2012; Yip 1995). Although his proposed globalization facilitated and helped the expansion of many now multinational companies (via their global offerings), it made the market crowded with brands. The consumer was now offered brands, which were available nearly all over the world, usually with the same name, logo and package (Cateora & Graham 2007). They were in sharp contrast to local offerings, which till the arrival of their global counterparts enjoyed a long standing presence in their respective markets (Ger 1999, Schuiling & Kapferer 2004). Through positive associations, like quality (e.g. Alden et al. 1999; Steenkamp et al. 2003), and also under the influence of homogenization of needs (Levitt 1983), global brands enjoyed wide spread acceptance and recognition. Threatened local brands, however, did

not yield under the pressure of their mighty counterparts. Quite the contrary, they have achieved success by following their own strategy, namely by relying on their long standing ties to the markets and better understanding of consumer tastes and needs (Ger 1999, Schuiling & Kapferer 2004). Many global brands, acknowledging the meaningfulness of customized approach, even tried to replicate the strategy by adopting a glocal approach (Holt et al. 2004; Kapferer 2012). One prime example is Coca Cola's allowance for a customized approach of its subsidiaries with regard to marketing and branding (Schuiling & Kapferer 2004). Both groups, marketing practitioners and academics, are interested which brands (global or local) would arise victorious in the battle for the customer, at what conditions and what the reason for their success would be.

The topic of brand 'globalness', which global brands inherently possess, is implied to give them a certain appeal in contrast to local brands (e.g. Friedman 1990; Steenkamp et al. 2003). Yet, controversy accompanies the results of this research endeavor, as no uniform conclusion on this topic can be uttered and contradictory assumptions were made by other authors (Dimofte et al. 2008; Holt et al. 2004; Nguyen et al. 2008; Schuiling & Kapferer 2004; Riefler 2012). Studies indicate that whether a global or local brand is expected to triumph depends on many things, be it consumer and product characteristics, or country of the respective study. The unanimity of findings with regard to global vs. local preferences validates further research and at the same time calls out for a more encompassing approach.

Most of the studies try to understand what drives the preferences, like the usually for global brands associated perception of quality and prestige (Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003), but the consequences of these associations on consumer's mindset and behavior are often neglected. Truly, even though concepts like Willingness to pay (e.g. Koschate-Fischer et al. 2012; Sichtmann et al. 2011; Voelckner 2006) or Anticipated Regret (Zeelenberg 1999) are well presented in the literature , they interpretation as outcome variables is lacking. Their analysis would, however, shed light on intrinsic emotions towards global/local brands while providing useful guidance on consumer decision process and behavior.

The insufficient representation of these and other focal concepts is to be mitigated by their incorporation into this study, providing an overview of outcomes not previously

tested. It is to be interpreted if either global or local brands fare better with respect to these outcomes and provide an extensive overview of consumer and product characteristics which may influence the results.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is multifaceted. One of the main goals is to expand the knowledge on global vs. local brands rivalry with regard to consumer attitudes and decisions. As the focus lies on consumer preference with regard to global/local brands, the globalness aspect of brands, captured by the concept of Perceived Brand Globalness (Steenkamp et al. 2003) is to play a key role in this study. Although the research on this topic is considerable in volume, most studies provided predominantly self-reported evaluations rather than consequence oriented interpretations. Even in cases, were consumer behavioral models were tested, inclusion of a limited amount of outcome variables in the research model narrowed down the scope of the findings. This study aims at mitigating the scarcity of tested consumer concepts and broadening the interpretable domains of consumer emotions/decisions. This is to be achieved by including a variety of outcome variables: Brand Purchase/Word-of-mouth Intentions (BPI/WOM), Anticipated Regret for (not) Purchasing (ARP/ARNP) and Willingness to Pay (WTP), several of which were not, insufficiently or only separately tested before.

Furthermore, several consumer characteristics where proposed and identified to influence the impact of the perceived globalness characteristic on consumer preferences. The most notable: Global/Local Identity (GI/LI), Cosmopolitanism and Consumer Ethnocentrism (CET) are accounted for in this study, to provide a broadened and more encompassing understanding of their various roles in relationships between PBG and the proposed outcome variables.

Product category characteristics: Product Involvement, Visibility and Hedonic/Utilitarian dimension are expected to add value to the findings by demonstrating their influence on the aforementioned relationship, something, which is only insufficiently or not at all covered by the current research. This necessity is also accentuated by the fact that as concepts capturing the product characteristics, they are well presented in the literature and proposed to represent meaningful dimensions in product oriented research. However, the investigation of the moderating influence these

characteristics could have on the effect of PBG towards outcome variables was markedly neglected. By incorporating them as moderator variables into the research model it is expected that a better understanding of product category influences on the effectiveness of brand 'globalness' will be achieved.

Majority of the previous research involved the use of real brands to test and observe consumer attitudes, which was criticized by some authors for providing biased findings, as a result of their inherit brand equity, strength or familiarity (Dimofte et al. 2008). Although the remedy to this issue, i.e. controlling for these inherit attributes, was taken into account by some studies (e.g. Steenkamp et al. 2003), it is questionable whether the bias could be eliminated completely and the results would reflect the true nature of the situation. Incorporation of fictitious brands into this study, an approach also applied by few other studies, is expected to provide more generalizable results.

The findings of this study are to deepen the understanding of the influences the globalness characteristic of brands might exert on consumer attitudes/decisions and, at the same time, identify factors (consumer and product characteristics), which might affect the way in which these influences are manifested. Consequently, the contemporary relevance of PBG in consumer attitudinal/behavioral research can be assessed, and conclusions on the importance of established consumer and partly newly introduced product characteristics can be drawn. This will not only benefit/supplement the current research but also expand the horizon on viable further research. Furthermore, managers and practitioners are proposed to benefit from the findings, as implications on the relevance and indications for preferable positioning strategies can be drawn from the results. It will also be shown, how the handling of the fictitious brands contributed to the perceptions of consumer with regard to the globalness characteristic, giving guidance to positioning efforts and application. Last but not least, the results will indicate the relevance of certain consumer and product characteristics in positioning, pricing and marketing considerations.

1.3. Overview of the Study

This overview is to guide the reader and introduce him to the structure of this thesis and the contents of the chapters. The introduction to this study and explanation of its purpose, as presented above, will be followed by *chapter two* with a thorough review of

the literature, demonstrating the state of the current research on topics covered in this thesis. The chapter should provide the reader with insights on what has been done in this field, what has been omitted and what limitations concerned the previous studies. Furthermore, subsequent chapters of this thesis will build on the knowledge gained and explained in the literature review. *Chapter three* is to present the applied methodology, introduce the reader to the research design and provide details on the chosen research approach. In the next section, *chapter four*, analyses will be displayed, corresponding results listed and findings described. This chapter represents the pivotal part of the thesis and will be followed by a critical discussion in *chapter five*. Based on the results in *chapter four* and considering the criticalities mentioned in *chapter five,* the following part – *chapter six*, will conclude the findings and summarize theoretical and managerial implications. Finally, *chapter seven* will explain the limitations of this study and give suggestions and recommendations for further research.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Global & Local Brand Definitions

The trend of globalization has proven to be a dominant force influencing and changing many structures in our society, most notably in the past few years. But it was not at the brink of the millennium that the concept of globalization started to gain on importance. The influence it had had on branding has already drawn the attention of both academics and practitioners since the late of the last century. Neither cultural differences, nor vast distances were enough to stop globalization and hinder large companies from exploiting economies of scale in production, distribution and marketing, all owing to the recent and rapid developments in technology (Levitt 1983).

This change brought upon the emergence of "global brands", a term defined differently, but in close relation to each other, by many authors. To find a uniform and comprehensive definition of the term global brands proves difficult, as the notion what constitutes a global brand differs among academics and practitioners alike. The definitions, however, can be split on the basis of the perception from which they are drawn. Some authors define a brand that uses the same name in multiple countries, with similarity also applying for the usually centrally coordinated marketing strategies, as a global brand (e.g. Branch 2001; Özsomer & Altaras 2008; Özsomer 2012; Yip 1995). A more restricted and simplified definition regards global brands as those for which exactly the same marketing strategy and mix is applied, irrespective of target country (Levitt 1983). These definitions could be characterized to be from the perspective of companies owning the brands as they emphasize the possibilities of economies of scope and scale, backed up by globalization (Hassan and Katsanis 1994; Yip 1995) and the corresponding advantages in reduced costs (Holt et al. 2004). According to Dimofte et al. (2008) all internationally available and easily recognizable brands can be defined as global. The addition of recognition of the brand in the definition implies that consumers play also a role in defining global brands. This leads to the second stream of authors, who observe global brands from the perspective of consumers and relate their definitions more closely to what consumers see, believe or think the brand in question represents. Steenkamp et al. (2003), addressing this view, regards brands' globalness characteristic as "a perception that can be formed only if consumers believe the brand is marketed in multiple countries and is generally recognized as global in these

countries.", forming a definition adopted also by other authors (e.g. Batra et al. 2000; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005). As the focus of this Master Thesis (MT) lies on consumer evaluations, the globalness of brands will be assessed from the perspective of consumers and global brands will be interpreted in coherence with the last definition. It has to be mentioned that according to Özsomer et al. (2012) both, company and consumer perspectives, complement each other and propose that the definition of global brands should incorporate both views. Accordingly, they suggest one of the most recent definitions (Özsomer et al. 2012, p.2) : „Global brands are those that have global awareness, availability, acceptance, and desirability and are often found under the same name with consistent positioning, image, personality, look, and feel in major markets enabled by standardized and centrally coordinated marketing strategies and programs.".

The number and variety of local brand definitions is rather scarce in comparison to global brands. So is also the focus on local brands in academic research. Local brands are defined as brands having a very limited geographic reach, or being available only in one country (Dimofte et al. 2008; Eckhardt 2005; Schuiling & Kapferer 2004; Wolfe 1991). According to Batra et al. (2000) is their distinction from global brands easier in countries, where nearly all local brands have a local origin and are sold only domestically. Supporting this notion, Steenkamp and De Jong (2010) also view local brands in connection with limited home country distribution, but at the same time emphasize their tailored nature with regard to the local market. Similarly, Özsomer (2012) regards local brands to be adapted to local requirements and tastes, in fact defining the market, in contrast to global brands. Again, not only a limited reach but also the perception of consumers constitutes a brand's localness. However, this aspect is covered only in few definitions (e.g. Ger 1999; Steenkamp et al 2003). As mentioned before, in coherence with the consumer oriented focus of this MT, local brands will be observed from consumer perspective and thus defined as brands that are perceived as local (Ger 1999; Steenkamp et al. 2003).

2.1.1. Introducing Perceived Brand Globalness

The globalness aspect of brands was brought into being together with the emergence of global branding. Research suggests that the globalness of brands is as important a characteristic as any other, if not even more important, and that it has to be taken into account when evaluating brands (Dimofte et al. 2008; Steenkamp et al. 2003). In line

with this notion and closely following the stream of authors, who were interested in the globalness perceptions of consumers a relatively new, but already widely used concept of Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG) was established. This term, introduced by Steenkamp et al. (2003), was intended to capture the extent to which consumers perceive a particular brand to be global. This is in line with the second stream of authors, who were interested in consumers' perspective, rather than the company oriented geographical reach of brands (e.g. Batra et al. 2000; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003). Consequently, brands perceived by consumers to be strongly global ought to have a high PBG. Moreover, consumers are not brand specialists, easily determining which brand is truly global and which is not. It is therefore meaningful to evaluate their attitudes based on their perceptions of globalness, as brands only benefit from the globalness characteristic when consumers believe it encompasses the brand. In line with these notions PBG will represent a key measure of this work with regard to consumer evaluations.

It has to be mentioned that studies analyzing the effect of brand globalness on consumer evaluations are not uniform in results, owing partly to the different settings, but also in some extent to the limitations of those studies. The following part is intended to explain the associations connected with global/local brands and introduce the effects of brand globalness on consumer evaluations as presented in the literature. At the same time explanation will be given on how the aforementioned settings and limitations attributed to the often contradictory outcomes. This is by no means a complete list, but rather a selection of particular setting attributes followed by an explanation of how these will be accounted for in this thesis in order to provide more generalizable findings.

2.1.2. Distinguishing between Global & Local Brands

To distinct among the vast number of available brands, which are global and which local, is not easy nor is it unambiguous. Özsomer (2012) points out that in the end it is the consumer who has to cope with the variety of global and local brands when making decisions. The situation became more complicated when companies started to intentionally position their brands as being either global or local, not reflecting their true nature according to geographic reach, sometimes even simply as foreign (Alden et al. 1999). Alden et al. (1999) found support for their notion that companies use positioning strategies to affect consumer evaluations. By examining advertisements in Asia, North

America and Europe they pointed out the use of a set of symbols by companies (e.g. signs and themes, but also different languages) with the goal to position the brands favorably in the respective countries. Their study has shown that dependent on the country and product category in question companies used various symbols to induce a meaning of the brand and subsequently present it as global, local or foreign. Alden et al. (1999) also pointed out how certain brands happen to be naturally perceived as global, stressing out the cues which are likely to form this perception in consumer's evaluations, most notably the use of English language. This only supports the fact that consumers' perceptions matter for the companies and that the benefits of cost saving via standardization (predominantly global brands) are not always the most important factor. It is, however, important to understand what position (i.e. global or local) is favorable and where. The results of this MT should, among other things, provide guidance to what positioning is favorable, when application in a certain country setting is considered.

Expanding on the aforementioned study, Gammoh et al. (2011) tested whether positioning brands as either global or local would indeed affect consumer evaluations. Truly, the results have shown that positioning the brand as global, i.e. trying to manipulate the consumer's perception of a brand's globalness, has a positive effect on the evaluation. Although the study's contrasting setting of U.S. and India, representing a developed and developing country respectively, improved the generalization of the results, the use of just one product category (digital camera) limited it at the same time. To provide more generalizable data this MT will include in similar fashion several product categories differing in involvement, visibility and utilitarian/hedonic value. It is apparent that it is the combination of the effort of the company to position its brand together with the particular perception it receives from the consumer, which constitutes a brand's meaning (Holt et al. 2004).

2.2. Global vs. Local brand Associations

The notion that global brands inherit a certain edge over local brands, resulting from their global presence, was the focus of research already for a long time (e.g. Douglas et al. 2001; Levitt 1983). The most commonly mentioned attributes, when it comes to global brands, are quality and prestige (Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003). Benefits attributable to global brands, i.e. higher perceptions quality and prestige, were already well described and strongly

present in the literature at the end of the last century, but not thoroughly tested (e.g. Kapferer 1997). Lately, building on the PBG measure, studies gave support to these implied benefits indicating that a higher PBG has a positive impact not only on the prestige associated with a particular brand, but also on the quality attributed to it (Steenkamp et al. 2003). This finding was also validated by other studies (e.g. Akram et al. 2011; Holt et al. 2004). Dimofte et al. (2008), on the other hand, disregard the quality association and propose that global brands intrinsically evoke favoring associations, with their "globalness" characteristic operating as a halo effect. However, not all researchers acknowledge the favorability of global brands. For example Holt et al. (2004) argue that certain consumers abscond from global brands and Riefler (2012) found strong consumer affinity for local alternatives.

Aside from quality and prestige associations, global brands are highlighted to have the ability to raise consumer's self-image, signalizing cosmopolitanism, sophistication and modernity (Friedman 1990). Research of 150 brands in eight countries done by Johansson & Ronkainen (2005) adds that rather esteem is positively related to PBG than quality. Furthermore, global brands are often thought by consumers to represent symbols of culture and cultural ideals and are more recently brought into connection with strong social responsibility (Holt et al. 2004), which is often in itself a strengthening factor for the consumer (Torres et al. 2012).

Local brands, too, have inherent positive attributes recognized by consumers. These positive associations are, however, scarcely considered in the marketing research, as more focus was pointed towards global brands (Kapferer 2005). Still, local brands were found to enjoy the status of high awareness and often possess a longtime emotional linkage to consumers (Kapferer 2002). Truly, local brands can benefit from their longstanding presence in the market and can even dominate it, by representing the pride and uniqueness of the country, as Kapferer (2002) argues. This often results in increased trust towards, as well as closer relationship with, local brands, which is only strengthened the more they are culturally connected with the market (Batra et al. 2000). Such an embedment often evokes the feeling of consumers that local brands better understand local tastes and needs and adhere more to local quality standards (Ger 1999, Schuiling & Kapferer 2004). Ger (1999) points out that this embedment is the result of the long time build familiarity with consumer preferences in the respective markets which often unveils opportunities to local brands, which are not noticeable to global

ones. As mentioned before, global brands are often associated with quality and prestige (Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003). However, Schuiling and Kapferer (2004) found almost equal quality and prestige perceptions for global and local food brands, adding that prestige was found to be of minor importance. Furthermore, their study revealed that favoring of global brands did not go hand in hand with purchase decisions as respondents preferred local over global brands in their purchases. As their study focused on food brands, it can be argued that consumer evaluations of global vs. local brands might well be product category specific.

It has to be pointed out that most of the studies mentioned before imply the ways in which global or local brands win the consumers in their favor, exploring associations and providing self-regulated evaluations. However, less was done in comparing them directly with respect to consumer preference. First studies confronting global and local brands with regard to consumer attitudes were done by Schuiling and Kapferer (2004), who were keen to identify differences between them. Another comparison was made by Öszomer (2012), who focused on their globalness vs. local iconness aspects. Still, marketing research is scarce on a comprehensive study of the preferences of consumers for either global or local brands and conditions under which these preferences apply.

2.2.1. Source of Goodwill

Currently there is a disagreement to what global brands owe their perception of higher quality, pointing out that there may be other factors than the globalness of a brand affecting it. More recent research even disapproves with the quality connection (Johansson & Ronkainen 2005). Dimofte et al. 2008 argue that the positive evaluation of a brand's quality is more related to the sheer brand's strength, resulting from high brand equity, rather than the perceived globalness. It is pointed out that the question whether globalness or brand equity has an effect on quality, and other attributes for that matter, is difficult to ascertain when studies with real brands are conducted (Dimofte et al. 2008). Real brands take advantage of their names in ways, which are problematic to incorporate in research models from a conceptual view and even more troublesome to account for statistically. It can be therefore assumed that intrinsic and immeasurable aspects of well established brands may exist, which transcend the concepts of equity and globalness and subconsciously drive consumer's preference for global brands (Dimofte et al. 2008; Hsieh 2004). These inherent attributes might well be responsible

for inaccurate and biased results. Although Steenkamp et al. (2003) to address this issue included brand familiarity in their study, it is still questionable whether accounting for all inherent attributes of real brands could be achieved that way.

Similar to the strength of brands, country-of-origin effects, too, play a role when real brands and effect of their globalness characteristic is analyzed. Late of last century Samiee (1994) pointed out that global sourcing, manufacturing and marketing will make country-of-origin nearly impossible to determine and thus play no role in consumer evaluations. It is true that owing to manufacturing developments in particular, most of the consumers all around the world are not aware of the country-of-origin of many brands (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2008). Moreover, Holt et al. (2004) found out that country-of-origin is not nearly as important as it was before, with globalness having a three times stronger effect on quality perceptions. Nevertheless, Sichtmann & Diamantopoulos (2013) found nearly 20 years after Samiee's prediction that brand origin image, thus the image of the country the brand is associated with, still plays a significant role in consumer evaluations, even a stronger one than PBG. Other research also suggests that brand origin's impact on evaluations and attitudes, most notably purchase intentions, is present even now (Diamantopoulos et al. 2011; Magnusson et al. 2011). Riefler (2012), for example, proposes to always include brand origin when studying global brands, arguing that even studies with cross-national samples might not generate unbiased results, as particular global brands are considered domestic in country and foreign in other. As mentioned above, it is apparent that real brands carry associations with them for which it is difficult if not impossible to account for. As there is a discrepancy in the literature as to whether PBG alone affects consumer attitudes, or rather there is a compound or even a substitutive effect of brand origin (or familiarity and equity for that matter), this study aims at circumventing this problem by using fictitious rather than real brands.

Another matter is the question, whether globalness affects consumer preferences via quality and prestige associations or directly. Although quality and prestige are seen as the most important attributes through which global brands can achieve preference over local ones, literature suggests that when observing brand globalness independently, disregarding the effects through quality or prestige, may have a positive impact on attitudes (Dimofte et al. 2008; Holt et al. 2004; Steenkamp et al. 2003). Furthermore, the purpose of this MT is not contribute to the research on pathways through which

globalness of brands affects consumer evaluations, but rather to understand the effects per se, ignoring the brand attributes (i.e. quality, prestige or other) through which the influence comes to existence. Consequently, the direct effect of PBG on consumer evaluations will be analyzed, and effects of several moderators will be analyzed, which may affect the outcome. Quality or prestige effects or other pathways for that matter will be therefore intrinsically taken into account, irrespective of their contribution to the effect.

2.2.2. Country and market specific differences in consumer evaluations

With globalization, the reach of multinational companies expanded and so did the number and type of sales areas. The focus shifted and developed and mature markets proved to be insufficient as the only outlets. Consequently, many companies started to approach developing countries and emerging markets to maintain or even increase their sales. For both, practitioners and academics, it was apparent that this shift will bring new challenges but also significant opportunities for the companies. Many studies and experiments focus on cross-country samples, comparing the effect of global brands on consumer evaluations in contrasting settings (i.e. developed vs. developing country, mature vs. emerging market). This gave new insights into the effects of PBG, an example being that PBG can be in positive relationship with other attributes, such as status in emerging markets (Batra et al. 2000). Furthermore, researchers found out that the PBG's effect is stronger (or likely more potent) in developing countries and emerging markets than developed countries or mature markets (Alden et al. 1999; Batra et al. 2000; Ger & Belk 1996, Holt et al. 2004), mainly due to conspicuous consumption. On the other hand, local brands were often found to be associated with higher quality and liking in European mature markets (Schuiling & Kapferer 2004) and outperforming their global counterparts in Asian, Pacific and Latin America countries (Zagani 2013).

A recent online survey further underpins the fact that country and market specifics influence the preference for either global or local brands. Conducted by Nielsen (2013), an information and research company, this survey of 58 countries demonstrates that when consumers consider a new product purchase, their preference with regard to global vs. local brand differs across countries. A prime example being US citizens, who mostly preferred local brands, whereas consumers from Asia and the Pacific region

were not in their favor, which is in contrast to the previously mentioned findings by Zagani (2013). This only underpins the discrepancies observable in marketing research with regard to the rivalry between global and local brands, validating further research.

According to Levitt's homogenization of consumer needs national tastes were to diminish, however, Kapferer (2012) stresses out that differences in preferences across the world's nations still exist. Moreover, he argues that it were the companies that strived for a global approach, not the consumers. Therefore, according to Kapferer (2012), the consumer never completely loses his local affiliation and will always have an inherent preference to locally tailored products.

Studies which focus on globalness of brands, as a factor influencing consumer attitudes and decisions are, as mentioned before, conducted in different settings. Either a single country and market is observed or a contrasting setting comparing the results of developed vs. developing countries, or mature vs. emerging markets is applied. Studies with single country design can also be compared to each other, as often established constructs of measure are used, generalizing the results across the countries. However, in both single and multi-country designs, mostly countries at the different ends of economic evolution are observed, ignoring countries which are currently in transit, underwent rapid economic changes or even were recently promoted (i.e. reclassified from developing to developed). This Master Thesis aims at filling this gap by evaluating the effects of PBG on consumer attitudes and decisions in such a country, namely Slovakia.

2.2.3. Product category specific differences in consumer evaluations

Another factor influencing the effects of perceived globalness on consumer evaluations and affecting the choice between a global and local brand is the category of products in question (e.g. Verlegh 2007; Strizhakova et al. 2008). One prime example is the food category, which was before the time of major exports and imports strongly linked to each country's separate agriculture. According to Schuh (2007) the resulting traditions and preferences are often mementos of the times before and local brands are encouraged to adhere to these local tastes and needs, as they should be able to go toe-to-toe with global brands, following this strategy. Schuiling and Kapferer (2004) support this notion with their study, which revealed that local food brands enjoy higher awareness and trustworthiness, improve the feeling of authenticity and traditionality. They also argue

that such a status can be achieved by global brands only with enormous difficulty, as financial power may not suffice in order to succeed in this regard, most notably in the case of trustworthiness. Similarly to the previous findings, but from other perspective, Özsomer (2012) found out that globalness might not be a strong driver for preference of food products. On the other hand, visible and publicly easily recognizable or highly technological product categories gain from perceived globalness, being considered modern and cosmopolitan as an example (Batra et al. 2000; Dimofte et al 2008). This divergence of preferences was also found in the study by Bauer et al. (2007), indicating that whereas for food product categories local brands have the upper hand, electronics and cars are dominated by global brands.

To account for the variance in effects of brand globalness with regard to different categories of products and to expand the generalizability of the results in this study, several product categories were chosen for the experiment. These categories were selected not only to cover the bias towards the aforementioned categories but also on the basis of three dimensions. Four categories were identified that should approximately cover the spectrum on the dimension of involvement, visibility and utilitarian vs. hedonic value. Yip's (1995) argument about commonality of consumer needs was also taken into account when selecting the categories, as he suggests that commonality goes down from high-tech durables at the top, to personal care, ending with food categories. The identified products are chocolate bar, shower gel, bag and tablet.

2.3. Main Effects of Perceived Brand Globalness

Based on the previous chapters and their implications several conclusions can be drawn. Discrepancy exists whether PBG has a positive effect on consumer emotions and intentions towards global brands. Variation in findings increases as more countries and product categories are considered. Moreover, certain consumer characteristics are prone to reverse the effect of PBG on particular outcome variables. Also, the proposed homogenization of needs (Levitt 1983) did not expand swiftly and all-encompassing as suggested. It is therefore that much more important to look at the proposed outcome variables (Brand Purchase/Word-of-mouth Intentions, Willingness to Pay, Anticipated Regret for (not) Purchasing) and their standing in the literature in order to establish meaningful hypothesis with regard to PBG's effect on them. For this purpose, previous

findings, conceptual implications and theoretical foundations of these outcome variables will be taken into account.

2.3.1. Brand Purchase Intention

What drives consumer purchase intention has been the focus of many researcher studies. To name a few: brand's awareness (Macdonald & Sharp 2000, Yaseen et al. 2011), brand familiarity (Laroche et al. 1996) or perceived quality (Aeker 1991; Garretson & Clow 1999; Yassen et al. 2011; Zeithaml 1988) were identified to positively influence purchase intentions. However, less empirical research was done on whether perceived globalness of brand has an impact on brand purchase intentions (BPI), either directly or indirectly through the aforementioned and other brand attributes. For example Shocker et al. (1994) and Kinra (2006) propose that PBG has a positive impact on brand's superiority and thus lead consumer preferences, but the effect on purchase intentions was not tested. Similarly for Batra et al. (2000) who found that PBG increases social status and strengthens self-identity in developing countries, implying a stronger preference for global brands.

The available research examining the influence of brands' globalness on purchase likelihood indicates that global brands benefit not only indirectly from globalness (i.e. via positive associations of status, quality and/or prestige) but also directly, their global position being a drive for purchase likelihood (Akram et al. 2011; Han 1990; Holt et al. 2004; Steenkamp et al. 2003, Moslehpour et al. 2014). This was also proven by Gammoh et al. (2011), who found that brands that are positioned as global benefit from higher purchase likelihood. However, it has to be mentioned that consumer characteristics intrinsically not favoring globalness render global brands weaker with regard to purchase intentions (Holt et al. 2004; Riefler 2012). Similarly, when local brands enjoy perceptions of quality and prestige, damped purchase intentions for global brands can be expected (Özsomer 2012). Last but not least, Sichtman & Diamantopoulos (2013) found contradictory results in their study, where a positive indirect effect of PBG was accompanied by a direct negative effect on purchase intentions.

In coherence to the implications and findings of Dimofte et al. (2010) it is proposed that Brand Purchase Intentions are positively related to the positive associations a consumer has towards global and local brands. As literature and previous research suggests more

positive associations with regard to global brands, it is proposed that PBG will have a positive impact on Brand Purchase Intentions.

H_{1a}: Perceived Brand Globalness positively influences Brand Purchase Intention (BPI) of consumers.

2.3.2. Word-of-Mouth Intentions

Westbrook (1987) defines word-of-mouth (WOM) communication as one that is informal, directed at other consumers and conveys information about ownership, usage or characteristics of the product/service in question. Similarly, Arndt (1967) implies that in word-of-mouth communications a non-commercial communicator transmits information about a brand, product or service to another person. There is vast number of studies which incorporate WOM as outcome behavior related to psychological concepts like satisfaction (e.g. Heckman & Guskey 1998). However, research primarily on WOM, examining relationships with other constructs is rather scarce (De-Matos & Rossi 2008). It has to be mentioned that many authors (e.g. Christopher et al. 1991; Reichhald 2003) consider WOM as one of the most important outcomes with regard to company-consumer interactions as it can directly affect the company's success, which makes the scarcity of research surprising. Even less was researched with regard to WOM intentions in global vs. local brand context. One example being Gammoh et al. (2011) who argue that apart from Brand Purchas Intentions, as mentioned previously, global brands in particular enjoy strong WOM intentions. Matos & Rossi (2008) found out that WOM intention is positively related to perceived value, quality and trust. It can be thus argued that for customers who identify these merits in a global/local brand are likely to have stronger WOM intentions. As previous studies largely imply value and quality connections with global brands (Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003), it is proposed that PBG has a positive effect on WOM intentions.

H_{1b}: Perceived Brand Globalness positively influences Word-of-mouth Intentions (WOM) of consumers.

2.3.3. Willingness to Pay

The concept of WTP dates back to 20th century (Davenport 1902), but has since changed in respect to how it is used in marketing related research – its deterministic role with regard to prices submitted to perceptions of attributed value (Le Gall-Ely 2009). This was, among other, facilitated by the increased attention of marketing experts towards consumer behavior research, where WTP recently gained on importance as a concept. WTP can be defined in terms of the highest sum of money a consumer would be willing to pay for a particular product or service (Voelckner 2006, Wertenbroch & Skiera 2002). How it should be measured and which method yields the most potent results (closest to reality) is still a matter of discussion (Voelckner 2006). In WTP research potential problems arise from consumers' uncertainty about the usual prices, their intentional downplaying of the prices with the intent to reduce the market prices, or even exaggerating the price in order to enhance the image of themselves (Miller et al. 2012; Le Gall-Ely 2009).

Voelckner (2006) argues that a non-hypothetical measurement of WTP would provide the sturdiest results as the consumer's commitment would be displayed, noting that in a hypothetical context one has to expect a hypothetical bias. As a consequence of this bias the obtained values most likely exceed the real ones (Harrison & Rutström 2002; Miller et al. 2012), usually by 15-30% (Voelckner 2006). However, a hypothetical version is more easily implemented when higher value product categories (like the tablet in this study) are considered, as liquidity problems are not an issue (Voelckner 2006). Furthermore, when the focus lies on relative comparison between two alternatives, rather than measurement of achieved absolute value, hypothetical measurement of WTP is sufficient. It can be also argued that such results provide a good basis for further research.

Koschate-Fischer et al. emphasize that WTP represents a neglected outcome variable and call out for remedy by addressing it in further research. The implications of this variable should not be underestimated, as the price a consumer would be willing to accept is a crucial factor for companies. According to Miller et al. (2012) is the price pivotal for company profits, which are the inherent reason for existence of most of the companies. Thus, understanding which of the brands, global or local, would achieve a higher upper limit for the price is an important consideration for future pricing

decisions. It is important to note, however, that the price limit set up internally by the consumer at each purchase situation is the result of complex mental processes and evaluations. Zeithaml (1988) notes that the price indicates what the consumer is willing to sacrifice to get the product or service, implying more than monetary considerations. What drives his motivation to pay more and what influences the upper boundary of his cost limit is intriguing to researchers, who are, not surprisingly, more interested in his consumer perspective than the profit oriented perspective of companies.

In the limited research that was done, the focus was predominantly on WTP as an outcome variable of consumer attitudes (e.g. Koschate-Fischer et al. 2012; Sichtmann et al. 2011; Voelckner 2006). Koschate-Fischer et al. (2012) contemplate that incorporating WTP outcome variable into consumer behavioral research is advantageous as it would provide, in contrast to Brand Purchase Intention, more rigid results and measure the extent of consumer decisions more complexly. Also, comparisons between alternatives (in this case global and local version of the products) with regard to this variable would be more explanatory as difference in purchase intentions (BPI) may not be also reflected in different price considerations (WTP). The aggravation of the discrepancy between proposed purchase intentions and actual willingness to take the costs of purchase in real world conditions is stressed out by several researchers (Lange et al. 2002; Manski 1990; Sun & Morwitz 2010). They postulate that depending only on measured purchase intentions may provide inaccurate results not reflecting the true intentions of the consumer and that incorporation of willingness to pay may provide insights into the actual behavior of consumers.

As mentioned before, research on WTP is rather scarce, even more in connection with the globalness characteristic of brands. A distinctive study by Zwinger (2013) already tapped this topic, where the researcher found a positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and WTP. As previous studies largely imply value and quality connections with global brands (Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003), it can be argued that these and other associations influence consumers, who can find it adequate to respond to these positive associations by accepting a premium price for global brands. Support for this notion can be found in the work of Hardie et al. (1993), who argue that consumers generally exhibit a stronger loss aversion for quality than for the price of the product. Therefore, in order to ensure quality of the product, which is, as mentioned before, associated with

global brands, consumers are willing to endure higher cost. As a result, global brands would achieve a higher Willingness to Pay simply because of higher expectations (notably with regard to quality), which consumers have towards them. Similarly, O'Cass & Choy (2008) found out that brand's perceived status (as a symbol of success) has a positive relationship to WTP. The strong worldwide presence of global brands might well symbolize success, supported by global acceptance and far reaching awareness, inducing perception of status along the way. In respect of the above mentioned implications WTP is proposed to be higher for brands perceived as global.

H_{1c}: Perceived Brand Globalness positively influences Willingness to Pay (WTP) of consumers.

2.3.4. Anticipated Regret for (Not) Purchasing

The concept of regret has caught the attention of researchers only recently. It was not before it was acknowledged to be an important factor in decision theory alongside the expected utility in the early 80s (Landman 1987). In contrast to Expected Utility Theory, were not chosen alternatives are irrelevant (Neuman & Morgenstern 1947), in Regret theories the loss of the not chosen alternative is considered (Loomes & Sugden 1982). According to Bell (1982) is regret the consequence of an uncertain decision in which the person deciding made the wrong choice, even though it seemed correct with the a priori information. Loomes & Sugden (1982) measure regret in how much better the decider would have fared with the alternative decision, whereas Landman (1987) regards it a painful state of loss feeling. Zeelenber (1999, p. 93) provides probably the most encompassing definition by stating:„Regret is a negative, cognitively based emotion that we experience when realizing or imagining that our present situation would have been better had we acted differently". His definition incorporates two important aspects of regret, namely that it possesses a cognitive (processing of information) and emotional (mental state) aspect. It has to be mentioned, that regret was identified as the most intense of a variety of negative emotions in the unpublished manuscript of Saffrey & Roese, cited by Zeelenberg & Pieters (2007), which stresses out its importance in consumer behavioral research. Bell (1983) proposes that consumers are even willing to pay a premium in order to avoid it.

The opposite of regret is rejoice and according to Loomes & Sugden (1982) can be explained as the pleasure of the decision maker of knowing that he or she made the best

decision. Zeelenberg (1999) notes that although regret or rejoice are felt after the decision maker finds out about the outcome of the decision, the anticipation of the feeling is an important consideration in decision making.

Regret can be of two types. It can be felt after the decision was made and the choice is revealed to be suboptimal – experienced regret, or before the decision, where the decider expects to make a suboptimal decision and find it out afterwards – anticipated regret (Zeelenberg & Pieters 2007). As the focus of this MT lays on consumer evaluations of global vs. local brands, it will be measured whether consumers exposed to the global brand version of the products would anticipate more (less) regret for (not) purchasing that brand than those to which the local version was shown and vice versa.

Zeelenberg & Pieters (2007) argue that consumers are generally regret averse and try to regulate or avoid it. The aforementioned authors propose several regulation strategies for anticipated regret, the relevant for this study is likely the increase of decision justifiability. When the consumer bases his decision on the notion that global brands associations of quality and prestige (Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003) will shield him from a wrong choice, less (more) anticipated regret is expected for (not) purchasing the global brand. Moreover, Janis & Mann (1977) note that anticipated regret is expected to be lower when a superior alternative (from consumer's perspective) is chosen. Simonson (1992), in support of this notion, found out that consumers are more likely to choose a well-known, even higher priced brand in order to mitigate potential regret. Conceptually similar findings were made by Richard et al. (1996). Rosenbloom & Haefner (2009) conclude that generally with increased perceived risk, in this case risk of post-decision (anticipated) regret, consumers prefer brands which are perceived as global. Global brands are also regarded as having a more favorable position in consumer evaluations and decisions according to the literature. As fictitious brands with no brand equity implications were used for this study, consumers are proposed to rely on the general preference and positive associations of global brands and thus anticipate less (more) regret for (not) purchasing the global brand than in the case of the local counterpart. However, this effect is likely to be moderated by the proposed moderator variables. It is important to note that to each participant in this study, only one version of the ad (global or local) was shown, therefore no choice based scenario was incorporated. Furthermore, no subsequent feedback was provided. However, research on counterfactual thinking

(Kahneman & Miller 1986, Roese 1997) indicates that consumers tend to mentally construe alternatives to which they compare the choice at hand.

In sight of the above mentioned implications/suggestions from literature and previous research it is proposed that higher PBG will reflect in lower Anticipated Regret for Purchasing the brand and the reverse effect for Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing the brands is expected.

H_{1d}: Perceived Brand Globalness negatively influences Anticipated Regret for Purchasing of consumers.

H_{1e}: Perceived Brand Globalness positively influences Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing of consumers.

2.4. Moderating Effects

2.4.1. Consumer Characteristics

In the domain of consumers several concepts were developed to capture the characteristics of consumers which influence or steer their evaluations and subsequent decisions with regards to brand preferences. To enable the measurement of these characteristics, constructs were developed and tested to validate their meaning and ascertain their reliability. This Master thesis will focus on four dimensions of consumer characteristics, which were well tested in the literature, in order to ascertain their moderating effect on the PBG and consumer attitudes/decisions relationship in Slovakia.

2.4.1.1. Consumer Ethnocentrism

Consumer Ethnocentrism (CET) is built upon the attitude that one's group is pivotal for determining individual's beliefs and opinions and that adherence to and maintenance of the group is most important. Members of such groups are proud and protective of their culture and symbols and prefer products in consonance with it. This affection often makes them reject or even contemn other cultures and products, which are in contradiction to their attitude. Such individuals feel reluctant to buy foreign products, as they believe that it not only hurts the economy, in which the live in, but also as a consequence endangers jobs (Shimp & Sharma 1987). Ethnocentric individuals often go

as far as to avoid foreign culture and products altogether, even accepting lower quality and/or higher price of local brands, just to stay true to the in-group principles (Baughn & Yaprak 1996).

In this regard it is important to note that foreign is not the same as global, but for many consumers, global brands can easily be interpreted as foreign. The reach of global brands can make them look as intruders in domestic market, hurting economy. As mentioned earlier, consumers are not brand experts and are often not able to differentiate if the global brand is not global and domestic at the same time. On the other hand, local brands may easily enjoy acceptance as they are more likely to be considered domestic. A real brand, like e.g. Coca-Cola, can be considered both global and domestic at the same time in the U.S., rendering it as not harmful to the economy in the domestic market. But it can easily be interpreted as posing a threat in a different market. The different evaluations of global brands could thus easily be a result of false international/domestic associations. Again, this bias is connected to real brands, for which false preconceptions can exist. Therefore, fictitious brands will be used in this thesis as it is less likely that they would be a priori categorized on the basis of their (possible) non-domestic nature.

It has to be noted that findings on the direct and moderating role of CET on consumer attitudes, preferences and decisions vary. In general, CET was proven to be in positive association with local brand preference (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos 2004; Verlegh 2007) and have a negative relation with global/foreign brands (Sharma et al. 1995). But, it was also found that in developing countries, where global brands have strong quality and status associations, CET is not as important consideration (Wang & Chen 2004). The research literature on CET implies in general that the country of study has a considerable impact on whether ethnocentrism will play a role in consumer attitudes and decision. For example CET was found to *moderate the effect* of PBG on purchase likelihood in the U.S. and South Korea context, negatively influencing the attitudes to global brands (Steenkamp et al. 2003). This was also proven by Akram et al. (2001) in an emerging market (Pakistan) and Nguyen et al. (2008) in a developing country (Vietnam), but no effect was found in India (Batra et al. 2000). Another study in the U.S. has proven that CET has no *direct effect* on consumer attitudes, regardless of the brand global or local position (Dimofte et al. 2008). On the other side, in India, a

country with strong ethnocentrism, positive attitudes were found for both global and local brands (Kinra 2006).

The issue with the aforementioned studies is proposed to lay in their predominant use of real brands for the research, which raises concerns regarding potential brand equity and familiarity bias (Dimofte et a. 2008). Closely related to this issue are the consumer's preconceptions about the brand. Samsung, a real brand, was found to be favored by ethnocentric consumers in South Korea (Steenkamp et al. 2003), who consider it local, although it clearly represents a global brand. However, if a South Korean ethnocentric consumer does not possess the knowledge to link it to local roots, he will consider it purely global and most likely not favor it. Although the PBG measure differentiates between their perspective, i.e. if the brand is perceived as global or local, brand equity and familiarity is likely to influence the outcome. An example being the case, when according to PBG the South Korean ethnocentric consumer considers the brand Samsung to be global, but because of the brand equity (e.g. being proud that it achieved global success), expresses positive attitudes towards it. Fictitious brands, on the other hand, have no a priori preconceptions and thus effects of perceived globalness on outcome variables can be measured without the aforementioned form of bias. Still, it is proposed that ethnocentric consumers are more likely to prefer local brands simply because of their affiliation to local economy and culture. Although the brand will be unknown to them, the fact that it is available only locally will enhance their positive attitudes towards it as it represents part of their own local and economical domain. As the country of study – Slovakia, represents a country which only recently transcended from developing (and closed economic system) to developed, it is expected that highly ethnocentric consumers will feel nostalgic towards the previous system and oppose global brands. On the other hand, consumers with weak ethnocentric personalities will be less linked to local domain and welcome the globalness appeal of global brands. In line with these considerations and the above inputs from literature the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_{2a} – H_{2b}: High-ethnocentric consumers show lower (a) Brand Purchase and (b) Word-of-mouth Intentions for brands that are perceived as global than low-ethnocentric consumers.

H_{2c}: High-ethnocentric consumers show a lower Willingness to Pay for brands that are perceived as global than low-ethnocentric consumers.

H_{2d} – H_{2e}: High-ethnocentric consumers show higher (d) Anticipated Regret for Purchasing and lower (e) Anticipated Regret for not Purchasing brands that are perceived as global, than low-ethnocentric consumers.

2.4.1.2. Cosmopolitanism

Similarly to ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism is also a concept trying to classify certain personal traits with regard to culture, its symbols and group adherence. Introduced by Merton (1957), cosmopolitanism refers to the inclination towards the world (in contrast to locally oriented ethnocentrism), representing an aspired world citizenship (Riefler & Diamantopoulos 2009). Cosmopolitans embrace global culture and want to be a part of it. Their aspiration toward a global community is often expressed via increased travel and engaging with people from different cultures (Cleveland et al. 2009). Most of the studies agree upon cosmopolitans' open-mindedness, appreciation and positive disposition towards different nations, culture and products (Riefler & Diamantopoulos 2009; Riefler et al. 2012). This is, from a social perspective, the opposite to in-group commitment of ethnocentric consumers. Indeed, research indicates that consumers low on ethnocentrism tend to be more cosmopolitan and vice-versa (Baughn & Yaprak 1996; Steenkamp et al. 2003). However, similarly to global/local identity (Arnett 2002), pure forms of cosmopolitanism seldom manifest and most people shift between a more cosmopolitan or local orientation (Thompson & Tambyah 1999) or adopt partially both (Beck 2002, Riefler et al. 2012).

Whereas in the past cosmopolitanism was a trait of higher classes and intellectuals, nowadays it encompasses people irrespective of class or nationality. The same applies for ethnocentrism and its implicit nationalism (Levitt 1983). Molz (2011) argues that cosmopolitanism is not just a philosophical concept, but that its hypothetical implications manifest in everyday affairs, represented by real actions or simple ideas, thus extending its reach also to consumer consumption behavior. Levy et al. (2007), too, imply that cosmopolitanism reveals itself via consumers' outside orientation and inclination towards alternatives.

Similarly to ethnocentric consumer, cosmopolitans have traits which guide their preferences for certain brands. Levy et al. (2007) note that cosmopolitanism are generally more inclined towards global brands, which enforce their cosmopolitan and modern self-image (e.g. Friedman 1990; Hannerz 1990; Nijssen & Douglas 2011; Özsomer & Altaras 2008). Similarly, but from other perspective, Dimofte et al. (2008) found out that global brands are viewed as more cosmopolitan. However, cosmopolitans are often faced with a dilemma. On the one hand, they aspire to be part of the world, inclining towards global brands, which enforce their cosmopolitanism, as mentioned above. On the other hand, they seek alternatives and aspire to cultural diversity and distinction, which is in sharp contrast to the homogenized and standardized nature of global brands (Beck 2002). However, the self-expressional value of global brands, reflecting a modern self-image on the consumer, might dominate the alternative seeking aspiration. Moreover, as cosmopolitans exhibit a higher desire for quality, a trait in which global brands were proposed to dominate (e.g. Alden et al. 1999; Steenkamp et al. 2003) they are more likely to prefer global products (Cannon & Yaprak 2002).

Research on the effect of cosmopolitanism on consumer evaluations and decisions is rather scarce. Riefler & Diamantopoulos (2009) note that previous research (some of it mentioned above) was predominantly qualitative and aimed at grasping the concept, and facilitating the forming of a suitable construct. They attribute the shortage on empirical insights to the unavailability of a sound scale, which would measure cosmopolitanism on all relevant dimensions. The C-COSMO scale introduced Riefler et al. (2012) was to address this issue. The same study, however, produced results which contradict the implications of the aforementioned studies, in that they indicate that perceived brand globalness does not positively influence willingness to buy of global brands for cosmopolitan consumers. This MT will, among other things, partly fill the gap in empirical research by examining the moderating effect of cosmopolitanism on the PBG and consumer attitudes/decisions relationship.

In light of the above, it is questionable whether consumer's cosmopolitan nature increases the favorability of global brands in contrast to local counterparts. The implications of the qualitative literature support this notion, however, the more recent empirical study of Riefler et al. (2012) disagrees with this association. Without hypothesizing a possible influence or relation this MT will, among other things, partly

fill the gap in empirical research and explore the effects of Cosmopolitanism in PBG and consumer attitudes/decisions relationship.

2.4.1.3. Global and Local Identity

With globalization on rise it was only natural that consumers started to develop identities in consonance or dissonance with it. As any change, globalization too has found consumers, who identified themselves with it, but also those, who did not. For the latter globalization often represents a process of homogenization of cultures and tastes and regard it an abomination. If a person holds favorable and affirmative position towards globalization, is keen on global events or appreciates global likeness of people, than he is believed to have a global identity. On the opposite, a person who cherishes local traditions, is interested in local affairs and acknowledges his community as unique possesses a local identity (Tu et al. 2012; Zhand & Khare 2009) It has to be noted that research suggests that most people have a global as well as local identity in themselves (Arnett 2002). Nonetheless, dominance of one dimension is most likely. Furthermore, global/local identity, similarly to CET, is strongly country specific. Research clearly indicates that global identity is more prevalent in developing countries (Arnett 2002) and emerging markets (Holt et al. 2004). Aspiration towards globalization, in such countries and markets, has a positive effect on global brands evaluation, as these are often regarded as symbols of globalization. This makes them preferable over local brands in such countries. Generally, consumers with strong global identity perceive the purchase of global brands as means to take part in the global citizenship (Strizhakova et al. 2011). However, the opposite is also true, and while consumers with high global identity prioritize global brands, consumers with strong local identity aspire more to local brands (Zhang and Khare 2009). In line with the aforementioned arguments a positive consonance of Global Identity and Perceived Brand Globalness with regard to the used outcome variables is proposed and a reverse effect is expected for consumers with Local Identity.

H_{3a} – H_{3b}: Consumers with strong Global/Local Identity show higher/lower (a) Brand Purchase and (b) Word-of-mouth Intentions for brands that are perceived as global, than consumers with weak Global/Local Identity.

H_{3c}: Consumers with strong Global/Local Identity show higher/lower Willingness to Pay for brands that are perceived as global than consumers with weak Global/Local Identity.

H_{3d} – H_{3e}: Consumers with strong Global/Local Identity show lower/higher (d) Anticipated Regret for Purchasing and higher/lower (e) Anticipated Regret for not Purchasing brands that are perceived as global than consumers with weak Global/Local Identity..

2.4.2. Product Category Characteristics

Chapter 2.2.3. has shown that apart from consumer characteristics, product category attributes also play a role in consumer decision process when preference for either global or local brand is considered. However, the empirical research incorporating product characteristics was largely neglected. In the following subchapters consumer-product category relevant concepts will be introduced, which are proposed to moderate the relationship between PBG and the selected outcome variables. Although conceptually they have drawn considerable attention in the literature, testing of their influence in consumer attitudinal and behavioral domain is scarce, even more so in global vs. local brands related research. The proposed product characteristics are: Product Involvement, Visibility and Hedonic/Utilitarian value.

2.4.2.1. Product Involvement

There are various levels at which involvement could be defined, but in general it represents a consumer's sense of personal relevancy with regard to a product or service (Warrington & Shim 2000). The intensity of involvement varies from low to high. Research indicates that high involvement, which consumers express towards certain product categories, increases not only the levels of comparison, but also the intensity of information processing (Mantel & Kardes 1999). It is only logical that some products are perceived as more important than others and for these categories of products decisions are made with more gravity and carefulness. As a result, the concept involvement represents an important dimension in consumer decisions. With increased involvement various considerations rise on importance and it can be expected that globalness of brands will be one of them. Such heightened interest is expected to influence subsequent decision making. Although some authors (e.g. Prendergast et al.

2010) imply a direct positive relationship between involvement and purchase intention, the moderating effect of involvement, also with regard to purchase intention, has drawn much more attention (Celsi & Olson 1988; Suh & Yi 2006).

It has to be noted that each consumer has his own set of product categories, in which he or she is highly involved, but high involvement for certain categories (e.g. clothing) is more common than for other (Hupfer & Gardner 1971). Furthermore, if consumer satisfaction with regard to these high involvement categories is achieved, stronger consumer connection with the chosen brand and thus easier retention is to be expected (Warrington & Shim 2000).

According to Petty et al. (1981) and their Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) consumers process brand messages through one of two pathways: cognitively through information and hard facts consideration, or by evaluating the positive vs. negative cues. They state that the level of involvement governs the choosing between the two pathways. High involved consumers follow the first pathway and consider the presented product attributes. On the other hand, low involved consumers take peripheral cues into account, e.g. origin. The use of fictitious brands in this MT is intended to remove any country associations (branding or origin), subsequently highlighting the manipulated globalness aspect as the peripheral cue, making it de facto the one to consider in low involvement situations. Erdem & Swait (2004) also note that for low-involvement choices simplification is applied and quick decisions are made on the basis of few extrinsic cues. The globalness aspect of the brands considered in this MT is intended to represent such a cue. It can be thus argued that PBG will play an important role in low involvement product considerations and function as basis point for evaluations, influencing consumer attitudes and behavior. This is in accordance to findings of Erdem & Swait (2004) who argues that brand globalness might be used as a quality signal, facilitating the decision process for low involvement product choices. This indirect halo effect is also supported by Dimofte et al. (2008).

With coherence to the considerations above it is proposed that low involvement will have a strengthening effect on PBG influence on consumer evaluations and thus serve as a moderator for PBG and outcome relationships. Increased brand ‘globalness’ is thus expected to positively influence the outcome variables when consumer’s product involvement is low.

H_{4a} – H_{4c}: Product Involvement moderates the effect of PBG on (a) BPI, (b) WOM and (c) WTP such that for categories with high product involvement the positive effect of PBG on (a) BPI, (b) WOM and (c) WTP gets weaker.

H_{4d} – H_{4e}: Consumer' low Product Involvement negatively influences (d) Anticipated Regret for Purchasing and positively influences (e) Anticipated Regret for not Purchasing brands that are perceived as global.

2.4.2.2 Visibility

When faced with the choice between a global and local brand the consumer takes many aspects into consideration. Literature suggests that one important and by the consumer thoroughly considered aspect is the visibility of the product (Wysong et al. 2012). However, the orientation of the consumer is not on the inherit product attribute, i.e. if the product is physically visible, but rather more outside oriented – if the product is visible to others when used/consumed. Accordingly, Bearden and Etzel (1982) define a publicly visible product in terms of others ability to acknowledge possession or usage by the owner of the product. With concordance to this definition, a visible product is one that the owner uses/consumes publicly or in places, where it is observable to others (family, friends etc.). Such visible use or consumption conveys information to others, which is proposed to be of relevance to the owner. Already a century ago Veblen (1899), the pioneer of conspicuous consumption theory, indicated that visible consumption goes hand in hand with the communication of one's status. Moreover, consumption of status enhancing products became an important part in consumer decision making process (Chiagouris & Mitchell 1997), observable mostly in US as part of the American way of life (Dawson & Cavell 1986). Social research indicates that material values gained on importance in the last few decades and demonstration of status, material possessions or affiliation to a higher social class became even more important (Dawson & Cavell 1986). Truly, Witt & Bruce (1972) found out that consumption and particularly brand choices became more similar within groups as more publicly visible products were considered, indicating signaling value of the consumption.

The signaling value comes also in play when global vs. local brand choices are made. Bauer et al. (2007) accredit the preference for global brands, when a visible and easily recognizable product is considered, to the self-expressional value, consistent with the

previously mentioned studies. They also note that product categories generally differ in terms of visibility, stressing out that for some product categories visibility may be a more important factor in consumer decision process than for others. Consequently, in line with their findings, product categories which are generally more visible are more likely to be dominated by global brands, because of their self-expressional value. Truly, Holt et al. (2004) supports the self-expressional role of brands and emphasizes the connection between brands and a consumer's identity. What information the product is to convey is up to the consumer, but when status enhancing and modernity signals are to be conveyed, global brands are likely to dominate. Dawson & Cavell (1996) support this notion with the argument that the perceived status of the product influences the consumer, as passing of that status onto the consumer is expected with its consumption. Researchers in general propose that global brands are more likely to be preferred over local brands when they are visible and more easily recognizable (e.g. Batra et al. 2000; Dimofte et al. 2008, Strizhakova et al. 2008; Zhou & Belk 2004). They also note that global brands triumph over local counterparts as far as modern, sophisticated, or technologically appealing product categories are concerned and even more when they are highly visible. As empirical research on the aforementioned relations is lacking, Visibility will be introduced as moderator variable for the PBG and outcome variables relationship. In light of the above theoretical implications following hypotheses are proposed:

H_{5a} – H_{5c}: Visibility moderates the effect of PBG on (a) BPI, (b) WOM and (c) WTP such that for categories with high visibility the positive effect of PBG on (a) BPI, (b) WOM and (c) WTP gets stronger.

H_{5d} – H_{5e}: High visibility of product category negatively influences (d) Anticipated Regret for Purchasing and positively influences (e) Anticipated Regret for not Purchasing brands that are perceived as global.

2.4.2.3. Utilitarian vs. Hedonic Value

Literature suggests that consumers' consumption is the result of one of two motives: hedonic satisfaction or utilitarian expectations (Holbrook & Hirschman 1982). Consequently, product categories can be divided on the basis of one of the aforementioned motives, for which they were bought. Although a product category may have both, hedonic and utilitarian attributes for the consumer, the motive for

consumption is decisive for consumer's perception of either the hedonic or utilitarian value (Pham 1998). Crowley et al. (1992) also suggest that consumers have a fairly certain concept of the position of product categories on the hedonic/utilitarian dimensions. The relevance of this concept and there reason for its inclusion was validated by previous studies, e.g. Batra & Ahtola (1990) who found out that the hedonic/utilitarian dimension as an important and distinct component of consumer attitudes and behavior towards brands. However, empirical research building on this concept is scare. Even more so with regard to the global vs. local brands rivalry and the topic whether utilitarian or hedonic product categories benefit more from the brand's perceived globalness.

In one of the few studies global brands were proposed to benefit from so called utilitarian convenience (Alden et al. 1999), as their globalness aspect can convey quality associations (for those favoring global brands), which facilitate consumer's buying process (Holt et al. 2004; Hsieh 2002). Dimofte et al. (2008) also note a similar pathway leading to global brands preference in utilitarian product choices, although he disregards the quality association. It can be therefore argued, that when consumer is faced with a choice between a global or local brand of a utilitarian product category, he is likely to choose the former simply because of the inherent positive associations. However, the researches argue that this is more probable when the consumer has positive attitudes towards globality.

Dimofte et al. (2008) note that the self-expressional value and psychological gains are more potent in hedonic products and imply that a brand's globalness characteristic may enhance these benefits, resulting in favorable consumer response. Consumers would therefore prefer global brands over their local counterparts in hedonic product decisions as the former would amplify the motives/benefits surrounding the buying decision in such a product category.

The above mentioned arguments indicate that global brands are likely to be preferred in both hedonic and utilitarian product buying decisions, as proposed by Dimofte et al. 2008. However, in utilitarian choices the only pathway through which global brands are proposed to achieve preference over local ones is the quality pathway or where the former's globalness acts as a halo effect for positive associations (Dimofte et al. 2008). On the other hand, in hedonic product choices several pathways can be identified. Apart

from the self-expressional value, psychological gains of hedonic products can be amplified by global brands. Psychological gains from global brands like prestige (e.g. Steenkamp et al. 2003), esteem (Johansson & Ronkainen 2005) or status (Batra et al. 2000) can drive the preference in hedonic product choices. As there are more pathways through which PBG positively influences consumer attitudes and decisions in hedonic product choices, than in utilitarian choices, one can argue that with rising hedonic value of the product PBG has a stronger and positive influence on the used outcome variables.

However, insufficient qualitative and quantitative research does not provide for a clear direction, thus it remains ambiguous whether utilitarian or hedonic product orientation benefits PBG's influence on consumer attitudes/decision more. Still, it is proposed that the Utilitarian or Hedonic Value moderates the effect of PBG on the proposed outcome variables.

H_{6a} – H_{6c}: Utilitarian/Hedonic Value moderates the effect of PBG on (a) BPI, (b) WOM and (c) WTP.

H_{6d} – H_{6e}: Utilitarian/Hedonic Value moderates the effect of PBG on (d) Anticipated Regret for Purchasing and (e) Anticipated Regret for not Purchasing.

3. Methodology

This chapter aims at explaining and describing the research approach that has been applied in this MT. Firstly, the research design will be presented to provide an overview of the experimental conditions of the study. Secondly, the chosen product categories together with the corresponding brand name considerations will be explained in more detail. Thirdly, the stimuli applied for the purpose of this study will be described and measures used to capture the characteristics and outcomes will be listed. Next the reliability of the proposed measurement scales will be presented, the country of study – Slovakia introduced and data collection approach will be discussed. Last but not least, results of the pre-study, description of the final sample and manipulation check in the final sample will be presented.

3.1. Research Design

In order capture the effects of globalness on consumer attitudes/decisions and at the same time generalize this outcomes by including several product categories a between subject design was chosen for the study. The 2 (Designation: Global vs. Local) x 4 (Product categories) research design can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1 - Between-Subjects Experimental Design (2 x 4)

Version	Product category 1	Product category 2	Product category 3	Product category 4
Global	Shower gel	Chocolate bar	Tablet	Bag
Local	Shower gel	Chocolate bar	Tablet	Bag

As illustrated in Table 1, for each of the four product categories (i.e. Shower gel, Chocolate bar, Tablet and Bag) two versions of stimuli were created in order to allow for comparison with regard to consumer attitudes and intentions. The same approach was used for all four product categories to observe whether the effect of globalness is uniform across different product categories.

3.1.1. Product Categories

The selection of the right product categories was pivotal for the purpose of this study. The chosen dimensions across which the product categories should differ, as mentioned before, were involvement, visibility and the utilitarian vs. hedonic value. Each of these dimensions was proposed to have moderating effects with regard to the effect of globalness on consumer attitudes and intentions. The difference across the categories with regard to these dimensions had to be noticeable, but at the same time comparability had to be maintained. The goal was to refrain from extreme ends of the product category spectrum, e.g. comparing a chewing gum with a car, but nonetheless cover a variety of points on the particular dimensions, like involvement in this particular example. Ideally, the chosen product categories would cover a spectrum from low to high involvement, low to high visibility and strongly utilitarian to strongly hedonic products. To achieve this, several considerations were taken into account.

Involvement represents a consumer's sense of personal relevancy (Warrington & Shim 2000) and each consumer has his own set of product categories, in which he or she is highly involved, but high involvement for certain categories (e.g. clothing) is more common than for other (Hupfer & Gardner 1971). Visibility, indicating how visible the product is to others when it's consumed or used, is more easily generalizable and certain product categories are almost predominantly used either with or without the observing of other people. Utilitarian or hedonic value of a product, on the other hand, is similarly to involvement consumer dependent and the same product can be regarded as strongly utilitarian for one consumer and strongly hedonic for other (Crowley et al. 1992).

Literature also suggests that certain product categories gain more from globalness than others. Food products in particular are less likely to gain from globalness when, for example, local tastes are of high importance (Schuh 2007; Özsomer 2012). On the other hand, highly technological products are more likely to benefit from globalness (Batra et al. 2000; Dimofte et al 2008). Last but not least, according to Yip (1995) commonality of consumer needs goes down from high-tech durables at the top, to personal care, ending with food categories. It has to be noted that in order for the fictitious brands of the products to be believable, categories had to be selected which are likely to have a local and global counterpart in the proposed market (Slovakia).

By incorporating these various considerations concerning the three dimensions (i.e. involvement, visibility and utilitarian vs. hedonic value) together with the suggestions from the literature, four product categories were identified: Chocolate bar, Shower gel, Tablet and Bag. These four product categories cover the proposed food, personal care and high-tech durable products, also adding bag as the one with fashion appeal. Here it has to be mentioned that a fifth product category – Skiis, was considered as a backup in case the four product categories would not sufficiently cover the proposed dimensions. However, it was dropped out because of not satisfying pre-study results. For the product category Tablet a small research was conducted to analyze, whether local variants of such product category exist in real world conditions, in order to assess the believability of the local version. Examining the availability of brands on tablet market in Slovakia (and in other markets for that matter) has shown, that many small relatively unknown tablet brands exist which have only a small geographic reach. This state of events is likely the result of the tremendous popularity tablets have gained recently, with many small electronics producers trying to catch onto its success.

3.1.2. Fictitious Brands

To mitigate the limitations of previous and similar studies and provide more generalizable results fictitious brands were used in this study. As a result a priori brand origin associations, which would strongly affect consumer evaluations (Diamantopoulos et al. 2011; Magnusson et al. 2011; Riefler 2012; Sichtmann & Diamantopoulos 2013), could be limited considerably if not eliminated completely. Furthermore, accumulated brand equity, the result of strong and long standing market presence, can be removed (Dimofte et al. 2008). Unknown fictitious brands have neither established equity nor familiarity, they are free of associations or any form of prior categorization. Their origin is also unknown and it is only up to consumer's mental evaluation process based on the information accompanying a particular brand to assess the brand. As this MT's focus lies on consumer perceptions of globalness, and the resulting consumer attitudes, information accompanying the fictitious brands will focus around cues of globalness/localness. Consequently, effects of only the perception of the brand's globalness on consumer attitudes can be measured and more generalizable results ought to be obtained. This is supported by the fact that when intrinsic cues are scarce, which is the case of fictitious brands ads, extrinsic cues (like globalness characteristic) take lead in the evaluation of the product (Steenkamp 1989). Moreover, extrinsic cues are often

used by consumers to forecast product's performance, which can increase the appeal of the brand in cases where the cues are in line with consumers' mindset (Bearden & Shimp 1982).

The brand names were carefully chosen and spell-checked for similarities with existing brands, in order to avoid evoking or recalling of a real brand by the consumer. Although the finally selected brand names for the product categories represent an arbitrary decision, it has to be noted that as mentioned above consonance with the globalness manipulation efforts was important and taken into account. How this was incorporated into the stimuli will be discussed in more detail in the following subchapter, describing the approach in creating the experimental stimuli. Finally, it has to be noted that for the outcome variable WTP in particular, using real brands would impose considerable difficulties with regard to comparison of the global and local counterparts not only from a theoretical but also from statistical point of view

3.1.3. Experimental Stimuli and Brand Globalness

To introduce the product categories and the corresponding brands to the consumer advertisements in the form of pictures were developed. These were made from scratch to mitigate potential resemblance to other brands and designed with the help of a professional graphic designer in order to make the advertisements more realistic and believable. It was essential to make the study's participants believe that the advertisements are that of real brands. The effort was to conceal their fictitious character throughout the whole experiment including the data collection.

As the Research Design indicates (see Table 1) 8 versions of advertisements had to be developed, two versions (global vs. local) for each product category. As this MT's focus lays on consumer perception of a brand's globalness and its subsequent effect on consumer attitudes, manipulation of the globalness aspect was pivotal in the creation of the stimuli. At the same time it was important to make the two versions identical, changing only the cues which referred to the globalness aspect of the brands. Otherwise comparability would be endangered as the difference in ads would bias the results. Any cue indicating a global brand on the global ad version of the product had to be mirrored to the local version. Only the text or small graphic elements were adjusted to indicate locality or vice versa. Information and feedback about what cues are suitable for stressing out a brand's global or local character were drawn from courses of

International Marketing at the University of Vienna but also from literature. One example being the positioning framework explained by McCracken (1993) intended to transfer the meaning of the brand global or local associations via verbal, visual or other signs. Another example is the observation made by Alden et al. (1999), who emphasize the use of English in advertising of global brands, as it symbolizes a worldwide/global approach. As the experiment was conducted in Slovakia, were only certain part of the population understands English, necessary informational parts were still kept in Slovak language, but the language of global versions was (were appropriate) predominantly English. One of the main cues were texts to indicate (directly or hinting to) a global/local availability applied to each ad, awards denoting a global/local competitiveness, but also sources of information which referred to either a global or a purely local website (or social web). Availability of the product category Tablet was extended by Czech Republic (apart from Slovakia) for the local version, as it would still present a limited geographical reach, but make the brand more believable as the market would be now large enough to be considered. Moreover, Czech and Slovak Republic formed till 1993 a single country (Czechoslovakia), with many former brands presented in both markets, which validates this approach even more. As mentioned in the previous subchapter, brand names were made up and chosen with respect to the manipulation efforts of this experiment. As brand names had to be identical on both versions the objective was to make the names appear to have both global and local traits, so the participant would believe this could be both a global and local brand name, or could not distinguish it with certainty. This was achieved by using a partial English spelling but denoting and invoking a Slovak word or meaning. As a result, in case of a global brand the participants would likely consider the similarity to Slovak language to be just a coincidence. On the other hand, in the local version the participant would more easily recognize the Slovak denotation. The whole weight of globalness manipulation was put on the cues, as these could slightly differ in the two versions without biasing the results, something different (real) brand names would definitely do. The brand names chosen for the Chocolate bar, Shower gel, Tablet and Bag were Chockina, BEE, iCona and VERA respectively. It has to be noted, that in order to appeal to both genders the ads were promoting either a unisex product or show both the male and female variant of the product at same time. All 8 advertisements (i.e. global and local versions of all four product categories) can be found in Appendix A.

3.2. Measures

In order to capture the perceived dimensions of the products, characteristics of the consumers and the attitudes/outcomes expressed towards the presented brands, established scales were used. In the majority of the scales a 7-point Likert or Semantic Differential scale was applied. All questions were translated and back-translated with the help of a professional translator.

The Brand/Ad Knowledge which was used to check whether the participant did not confuse the fictitious brand with another probably similar real brand was evaluated using a simple Yes/No answer. To assess whether the manipulation was successful the already widely used semantic differential scale published by Steenkamp et al. (2003) measuring Perceived Brand Globalness and containing 3 items was applied.

For Product Involvement Mittal and Lee's (1988; 1989) three items scale was used (Likert format). The construct measuring Visibility by Wright (2005), containing two items, was updated by a third item developed to cover more of the visibility dimension. This item stating "The promoted product is used predominantly…" used like the other two items a semantic differential scale, now with one end stating "in private" and the other "in public". For Hedonic vs. Utilitarian value a simple one item semantic differential scale was incorporated, indicating the hedonic value of the product on one side and utilitarian value on the other. The Willingness-To-Pay was measured by using an open-ended question (Voelckner 2005).

A two item construct was included evaluating the attitude towards the presented ad measuring whether the participant considers it bad/good or authentic/not authentic (semantic differential). Although the purpose of this construct was informative in nature, it provided important feedback as to whether the participants embraced the ads and whether they believed them to be of real brands.

The outcomes were measured using various constructs on 7-point Likert scale. Voelckner's (2005) Willingness-To-Pay open question, which was mentioned before, was followed by Brand Purchase Intention 3-items construct of Putrevu and Lord (1984). The next was Word-Of-Mouth with 2 items (Brown et al. 2005) capturing the intentions of consumers to spread the word about the brand, when a relative or friend would be interested in the particular brand's product category. An important addition

was the incorporation of two Anticipated Regret constructs, which were chosen to capture the proposed connection between globalness and corresponding levels of anticipated regret. To measure the Anticipated Regret for Purchasing the particular brand the construct of Zeelenberg (1999) was applied followed by a one item question measuring the extent to which the participant anticipates to regret the purchase of the brand (Zeelenberg 1996). Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing the product was measured by the construct of Stone and Wardrop (1989). Including the Anticipated Regret to the outcome variables was is important, as only few studies consider them in their experiment, although they represent a focal concept in consumer's mindset, strongly affecting the decision making process. Moreover, it was proposed that the globalness aspect has a direct influence on whether higher or lower regret is anticipated.

Established constructs used to measure consumer characteristics were included to test their moderating effect on the globalness and outcomes relationships. Consumer Ethnocentrism was captured using the 5 items construct of Verlegh (2007). For cosmopolitanism the updated construct of Riefler et al. (2011) was integrated. Finally Global and Local Identity were measured by the construct of Tu et al. (2012). All constructs measuring consumer characteristics used a 7-point Likert format.

A common method bias check question (Likert format), asking the participants how often they play videogames, was used to recapture the focus of participants and prepare them for the last part of the questionnaire, the questions summarizing the demographic facts. These multiple choice questions were intended to provide answers about the participant's education, occupation, net income, nationality and gender. A complete list of the scales and their items together with the references can be found in Appendix B.

Excursus: Handling the Willingness to Pay variable

The WTP variable values had to be standardized in each category and subsequently merged into one. This is due to the fact, that certain product categories are by nature more expensive than others and direct comparison would yield incorrect results. The merged variable thus represents a generalized standardized WTP measure. This was measure was used in all subsequent analyses.

3.2.1. Validity and Reliability of Measurements

Most of the constructs explained above are measured with multiple items. For further analysis a summated scale of these items has been calculated for each of the constructs. These composite measurements incorporate all the information of the items from which they were created. Although most of the aforementioned constructs are well established, validity and reliability has nevertheless been checked for. This was done to see how much variance can be explained and whether there are items which behaved in a strange manner and should be potentially excluded. The following statistical conclusions are made with reference to Field (2009).

Firstly, an exploratory factor analysis, a dimension reduction technique, was conducted on the items of each construct using an oblique rotation (direct oblimin). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin criterion was always at least 0.7 which verifies at least good sampling adequacy (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). The Bartlett's Test of sphericity was always significant which represents a good result as it indicates that the variables are correlated, hence a factor analysis makes sense. Lack of multicollinearity was proven with no between-item correlation above 0.9 and a determinant of the R matrix higher than 0.00001. Applying the Kaiser Criterion (Numerical decision criterion based on Eigenvalues – common variance explained by a Factor), 1 Factor with Eigenvalues>1 was retained for all the constructs, except one – Cosmopolitanism, where three Factors were identified. These three factors explained in combination 67.2% of the variance and the scree plot supported the retaining of all three factors in the final analysis. The items that clustered on the same factors suggest that factor 1 represents a Liking of Foreign, factor 2 Open-Mindedness and factor 2 Diversity Appreciation. Total variance explained by all other construct's factors was on average 75% and both loadings and communalities were always above good threshold values (0.4 and 0.5 respectively). Lastly, the item to composite correlation was significant for all items and correlations were well above 0.5 in all cases. Therefore it is safe to assume that the developed composite measures can be used for further analysis without any regards. Overall, it can be assumed that there is unidimensionality in the constructs, i.e. they measure the same concept (Field 2009).

Cronbach's alpha α, the most commonly used measure of scale reliability, was interpreted to evaluate whether the measures are reliable (Field 2009). The value can be

seen in Table 2 for all multi-item scales used. It has to be said, that all constructs achieved at least acceptable levels of 0.7, with the majority over 0.8, which represents a very good level of reliability. Word-Of-Mouth Intentions, Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing and Consumer Ethnocentrism constructs even exceeded 0.9, which is a superb level of reliability (Field 2009).

Table 2 - Reliability of Measurements (Cronbach's Alpha) and Variance explained

Scale	Based on	Cronbach's Alpha	% of variance
Perceived Globalness	Steenkamp et al. 2003	0.76	67.6
Product Involvement	Mittal and Lee 1988;1989	0.86	78.3
Visibility	Wright 2005	0.87	79.4
Word of Mouth Intentions	Brown et al. 2005	0.95	75.0
Brand Purchase Intentions	Putrevu and Lord 1994	0.86	79.6
Anticipated Regret for Purch.	Zeelenberg 1999	0.83	74.5
Anticipated Regret for not P.	Stone and Wardrop 1989	0.90	83.7
Consumer Ethnocentrism	Verlegh 2007	0.93	77.1
Liking of Foreign, Open-Mindedness, Diversity Appreciation	Riefler et al. 2012 (C-COSMO)	0.85 0.78 0.84	45.4 12.4 9.4
Global Identity	Tu et al. 2012	0.80	62.9
Local Identity	Tu et al. 2012	0.87	72.2

3.3. Country of Study: Slovakia

This rather small country in the heart of Europe has not only a central position, but is also the border country of the former Soviet Union and the western part of Europe. Influences of both "worlds" are apparent, although it was not like that till the end of Communistic rule. The reasons why it can be considered as being transitory, which is one of the reasons it was chosen for this study, are twofold. Firstly, only as of 2009 Slovakia is considered an advanced economy, being classified as developing till then (International Monetary Fund [IMF], 2009). The rise to the index levels of other developed countries was very rapid and the effects are still resonating. Secondly, just 20 years prior to the promotion, Communistic rule was ended, meaning that most of the population was part of both the previous and current regime. Till that day, local and centrally planned production was strongly promoted, resulting in little variance with regards to brands and choices. The changes to the country from economic, political, but also cultural perspective were vast and potent, and happened in a very short time (Batra 1999; Braun 1999). The following Westernization was present in many areas followed by increased social mobility, certain drop of traditional institutions and acceptance of modern opinions, similarly to other countries also undergoing such rapid developments (Batra et al. 2000; Braun 1999; Ger and Belk 1996). Opening of borders resulted in inflow of not only foreign influence, but also foreign brands. The transformation from a communist state, from socialism to capitalism, that began 25 years ago and the increasing influence of western trends, entertainment and brands were considerably speed up by technological advancements of the 21st century, mostly improvements in telecommunications. Already in 2004 was the internet penetration in Slovakia over 50% and reached 80% in 2012 (International Telecommunication Union [ITU], 2012), making the inflow of 'western' information that much stronger and noticeable. This exposure to global events was accompanied by a strong inflow of foreign and global brands with 2012 imports accounting for 96% of GDP according to the WTO (2012). In line with all these changes it is therefore less surprising that Slovakia now ranks highly on KOF index of globalization, being in the top 20 for overall, economic and social globalization, although further down the list for political globalization, being the 45th (ETH 2014). Many product categories have global and local counterparts, which is benefiting for the purpose of this thesis. Furthermore, the economic, cultural and political changes to which Slovakia was exposed over the past two decades make it a

suitable representative of a transitory country. It represents a country under a strong, but relatively short influence of western and global culture, and at the same time a country with a strong resonance of a local and closed system. Adding to this point, Ger & Belk (1993) note that the collapse of communism had a negative effect on confidence of countries involved, rising the demand for foreign products. At the same time, local goods are known to receive a lot of aspiration from consumers, benefiting also from the longer standing ties to the consumers. This effect is, however, more likely only temporary in nature (Ger & Belk 1996). It is therefore that much more intriguing to find out how these effects eventuated after years of rapid development.

3.4. Data Collection Approach

To identify a suitable data collection method, trends and ways how people nowadays interact were taken into account. The aim was to reach a considerable number of participants, but at a low cost and rather swiftly, if possible. The trend of taking, sharing and discussing photos using various services (e.g. Instagram) was also taken into consideration. As almost all current mobile phones have photo taking and internet access features, photo sharing became a world-wide phenomenon influencing not only the young generation. Considering the aforementioned trend and owing to a friendly contact, a Slovak website – www.ephoto.sk, offering photo sharing and rating services (although only on a smaller, Slovak market scale) was chosen for the data collection. The website would allow not only access to a wide sample of the population embracing this trend, but also to participants of various age and with different backgrounds. The website is well known in the Slovak market with 400 000 page visits per month. Furthermore, the research data provided by the independent internet media association AIMonitor show a variety of visitors of the website with regards to age, education and income, which is benefiting for the purpose of this study.

To collect the data a simple, yet interactive online questionnaire was developed and used as the main collection medium. The same approach was used for the main study and the pre-study, which was intended to assess the fit of the product categories as well as check the success of the globalness manipulation. The link to the questionnaire was configured to pop up at the bottom of the website with a note politely asking to participate. The filling of the questionnaire was estimated with 10 minutes and it was pointed out that only completely filled questionnaires could be submitted. Not answered

questions were market with a red star and highlighted to allow for easy finalization if the item was missed or skipped before. This was to avoid incomplete questionnaires which could not be used in the data analysis. To the participant partaking in the survey a full screen picture with one of the 8 versions of the stimuli was displayed at the beginning, asking to take a good look at it and answer the questions that followed. The website was set to randomly assign to each profile visiting the website only one version of the stimuli. As a result it could be maintained, that every visitor saw only one of the 8 ads. The randomization of stimuli distribution, however, resulted in slightly unequal sample sizes, as some visitors skipped the participation or aborted an already started survey. To secure equal sample sizes between versions, the local (or global) versions for each product category were pulled off of the website after sufficient visitors partook, in order for the other version to catch up in number of sent out questionnaires. However, this could not be accomplished for product categories. As it seems, some product categories were more intriguing for participants than other with a greater eagerness to partake and also complete the questionnaire. Therefore, slightly different sample sizes with regard to product categories were obtained (described in section 3.6).

Green (1991) proposes a rule of thumb that guides the minimum sample size, when testing for the overall fit of the model (R^2). He suggests an acceptable minimum of 50 plus 8 times the number of predictors. As the main study will focus on the conditions under which PBG influences the outcome variables, hence moderation, two predictors were included in the test. This translates into minimum sample size equal to 66. Furthermore, as not only general relationship but also product category specific effects were studied and considered, the aforementioned minimum sample size was to be applied for each product category. The specific sample size of each product category can be found in the following subchapter. Nonetheless, a sufficient sample size of 33 participants per version of stimuli (66 for product category) was achieved within a period of two weeks.

3.5. Pre-Study

The main purpose of the pre-study was to assess whether the developed stimuli and different global and local cues in the corresponding versions would result in a successful manipulation of the perceived brand globalness by the participants. Furthermore, it was to provide insights into how the product categories positioned

themselves on the three proposed product characteristic dimensions – Product Involvement, Visibility and Hedonic vs. Utilitarian Value. It was executed the same way that was intended for the final study, i.e. via an online survey conducted on the website www.ephoto.sk. However, as the main purpose of the pre-study was to check the success of the globalness manipulation and product category positioning on the relevant dimension, the questionnaire was stripped down to the constructs PBG, PINV, VIS and UTIL/HED value. Furthermore, a smaller sample was collected in order to avoid exhaustion of the sampling frame, but at the same time provide a large enough sample to be able to draw relevant results. The users who partook in the survey and their profiles were automatically blocked from participation in the final survey in order to avoid any form of bias. The results can be seen in Table 3.

To assess whether the globalness manipulation was successful an Independent Sample T-Test had to be carried out. This is due to the fact that it had to be examined if there is statistically significant difference in a scale variable across two mutually exclusive groups of respondents. The grouping variable was the Brand Designation item, corresponding to the two versions (global vs. local) developed for each product category, and the variable of interest (dependent) the composite measure of Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG). The two hypotheses were as follows:

H0: The Groups do NOT differ systematically

H1: The Groups differ systematically

Before the test could be carried out, several assumptions had to be met. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test proved to be statistically not significant, except for the product category Shower gel, indicating that the distribution in question is significantly not different from a normal distribution for the product category Chocolate bar, Bag and Tablet (p-values for global and local designation variables >.05). For the sake of further analysis the violation of normal distribution for the product category shower gel was ignored. The literature also supports this decision as a significant test does not necessarily imply a deviation from normality which is high enough to bias any statistical procedures applied to the data. Levene's Test showed a non-significant result (p-value >.05) implying homogeneity of variance for all product categories, except for Chocolate bar, which was again ignored for the sake of further analysis.

The results of the Independent T-tests indicate that the H0 hypothesis ought to be rejected for all product categories. This means that the two groups (shown global vs. local manipulation of brand) differ significantly ($p<.05$) in their Perceived Brand Globalness (composite PBG variable) for each product category. The mean values of the composite PBG measure for global and local designation variations of the four product category brands thus represent a true difference of the respondents' perceptions. It can be concluded, that the globalness manipulation was successful. The mean (and significantly different) values of PBG for the four product categories together with the sample sizes can be seen in Table 3. The mean values of each product category with respect to the three proposed product characteristics are also displayed. These preliminary results indicate that product categories scored variously on the proposed dimensions. However, for Product Involvement none of the product categories got a much higher mean value than the medium and neutral value of 4 (7-point Likert scale). Although this could provide a difficulty with regard to the representation of the product categories along this dimension in the final sample, Product Involvement represents a personal trait and the distribution can therefore end up differently in the main study. Therefore, true and significant differences between the product categories along the proposed dimensions will be tested in the final sample using a One-way ANOVA. Nonetheless, these results provide a valuable feedback on how the four product categories are expected to score on the proposed dimensions in the final sample.

Table 3 - Pre-Study Mean Values of PBG, PINV, VIS and UTIL/HED

		Shower gel	Chocolate bar	Tablet	Bag
PBG	**global**	4,58	4,19	4,74	4,04
	local	2,14	2,49	2,39	2,89
Hedonic <-> Utilitarian		5,79	3,18	4,34	5,17
Involvement		2,97	2,73	4,02	3,65
Visibility		2,04	3,68	4,11	5,62
Sample size		32	50	42	36

Note: 7-point scales

3.6. Sample Description of the Main Study

The questionnaire had a prerequisite of having to be fully completed in order to be enabled for submission. In total 306 questionnaires were collected. However, checking of the data collected resulted in excluding 10 of the questionnaires from the sample due to inconsistencies, repeating occurrence of extreme values or a positive answer to the question whether the participants knows the brand or has seen the ad before. Even though the developing of the ads and choosing the appropriate brand name was done with emphasize on avoiding resemblance to any real brand, complete originality was, for obvious reasons, not achievable. As such confusing with a real brand would bias the results, these cases were excluded. The resulting 296 questionnaires represent the final sample. The final sample divided into product categories with the respective size of each version can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4 - Final Sample Size by Treatment

	Shower gel	Chocolate bar	Tablet	Bag
Local Version	**39**	**33**	**41**	**35**
Global Version	**39**	**33**	**41**	**35**
n=	78	66	82	70
Total	296			

Although the research data provided by the independent internet media association AIMonitor show a nearly equal distribution of gender with regard to the visitors, more males participated in survey than females, with 61.5% and 38.5% respectively. The average age of the participants was around 33 years, with the youngest participant being 18 (the questionnaire's minimum age requirement) and the oldest being 78 years old. Age was also quite evenly distributed into age categories (i.e. 20+, 30+ and 40+). Most of the participants had either high school or university education with 43.6% and 43.9% respectively. The rest of the sample was nearly evenly divided (roughly 4% each) among compulsory education, apprenticeship and post gradual education. The majority

was employed (56.8%), students and entrepreneurs accounted each for slightly above 18% and the remaining 6% was equally divided between unemployed and participants in pension. The division of participants according to net income has shown a tilt towards the low end of the income distribution with 31.8% of participants earning less than 500 Euro per month netto, 36.8% earning more than that but less than 999 Euro, 18.9% ranging from 1000 to 1499 Euro per month and few participants making more than 1500 and 2000 Euro (both slightly above 6%) in netto income respectively. It has to be mentioned, that the question regarding the attitude towards the ads resulted in participants distribution skewed towards the 'good' and 'authentic' end with mean values of 4.47 and 4.28, respectively. This is favorable as it indicates that consumers not only liked the ads and were not dissuaded by them, but also predominantly believed in their authentic and real nature, which is benefiting for the purpose of this study. Furthermore, participants exhibited higher levels of both Local Identity and Cosmopolitan nature, distribution skewed towards higher values with mean of 5.11 and 4.87, respectively.

3.7. Manipulation Check in the Final Sample

3.7.1. Manipulation of Perceived Brand Globalness

The main purpose of the pre-study was to assess whether the developed stimuli and different global and local cues in the corresponding versions would result in a successful manipulation of the perceived brand globalness by the participants. As the manipulation was successful in the pre-study, it was expected that the final sample would yield similar results. Both studies were executed the same way, i.e. via an online survey conducted on the website www.ephoto.sk, however, emphasize was put on the independence of the samples drawn.

To assess whether the globalness manipulation was successful, analog to the pre-study, an Independent Sample T-Test had to be carried out. This is due to the fact that it had to be examined if there is statistically significant difference in a scale variable across two mutually exclusive groups of respondents (Field 2009). The grouping variable was the Brand Designation variable, corresponding to the two versions (global vs. local) developed for each product category, and the variable of interest (dependent) the composite measure of Perceived Brand Globalness (PBG).

Assumptions of normality of distribution (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) and homogeneity of variance (Levene's Test) for all product categories were met, except for tablet, were KS-Test proved to be significant. However, the analysis of skewness and kurtosis values has shown that the data is approximately normally distributed when applying a rule of thumb, i.e. values of skewness and kurtosis between -2 and +2 indicated a reasonably normal distribution (Westfall & Henning 2013).

The results of the Independent T-Test indicate that the two groups (shown global vs. local stimuli version of the brand) differ significantly ($p<.05$) in their Perceived Brand Globalness (composite PBG variable). The mean values of the composite PBG measure for global and local designation variations of the four product category brands thus represent a true difference of the respondents' perceptions. Thus, globalness manipulation can be regarded as successful also in the main study. The mean values of PBG for the four product categories together with the sample sizes can be seen in Table 5.

Table 5 - Main Study Mean Values of Perceived Brand Globalness

		Shower gel	Chocolate bar	Tablet	Bag
PBG	global	4,90	4,89	4,64	4,22
	local	2,72	3,00	3,67	3,46
T-test		t(76) = 8,63 p<.05	t(64) = 6,84 p<.05	t(80) = 2,98 p<.05	t(68) = 2,38 p<.05

Note: 7-point scale

3.7.2. Position of product categories on dimensions of Involvement, Visibility and Hedonic/Utilitarian Value

The selection of the right product categories was pivotal for the purpose of this study. The chosen dimensions across which the product categories should differ, as mentioned before, were involvement, visibility and the utilitarian vs. hedonic value. Each of these dimensions was proposed to have moderating effects with regard to the effect of globalness on consumer attitudes and intentions. The goal was to cover with the selected product categories (i.e. Shower gel, Chocolate bar, Tablet and Bag) a variety of

points on the aforementioned dimensions. Ideally, the chosen product categories would cover a spectrum from low to high involvement, low to high visibility and strongly utilitarian to strongly hedonic products.

The results of the pre-study have shown that the chosen product categories varied with regard to the proposed dimension and where satisfactory distributed alongside them. However, as the final sample could differ with regard to positioning of the product categories on the proposed dimensions, simply because they represent personal traits, it had to be tested and assessed how well the product categories fit the research model. This was in order to provide more accurate and understandable results. Most notably Product Involvement, which represents a strong personal trait, can be quite different in the final sample with regard to the product categories.

For testing of differences between groups (4 product categories) across a scale dependent variable a One-way ANOVA ought to be applied (Field 2009). Although ANOVA is often considered a robust test, several assumptions ought to be met in order to increase the accuracy of the results. Firstly, the assumption of the data's normality had to be assessed, indicating whether the distribution in question significantly differs from a normal distribution using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Secondly, homogeneity of variance had to be checked using Levene's Test (Field 2009).

Testing of the assumptions provided satisfactory results. In cases where the distribution proved to be significantly different from a normal distribution, indicated by p-value < .05, a less conservative approach examining the skewness and kurtosis values has shown that the data is approximately normally distributed. Applying a rule of thumb, values of skewness and kurtosis between -2 and +2 indicated a reasonably normal distribution (Westfall & Henning 2013). In cases were homogeneity of variance was violated, it could be assumed that the larger sample size may cause small differences in group variances and result in a significant Levene's test. To examine the variances in more detail, the group with the biggest variance was compared to the group with the smallest variance using Hartley's F_{MAX} table (Pearson & Hartley 1954). The resulting ratios indicate that even though the Levene's test proved to be significant in some cases, homogeneity of variance can still be assumed.

As we have slight deviations from normality, minor differences in the population variance and a bit different sample sizes, Gabriel's and Games-Howell procedures were

used for the post hoc tests. Gabriel's multiple comparison procedure performs well under small deviations from normality and in situations where sample sizes are slightly different. Games-Howell procedure, on the other hand, copes well with different population variances and is also accurate when sample sizes are different (Field 2009).

The Table 6 below displays the means of the product categories with regard to the proposed product characteristics and shows the subsets of groups that have the same means, i.e. the groups that do not differ significantly within these subsets, for each product characteristic. Both, Gabriel's and Games-Howell procedures generated similar results. In terms of Hedonic vs. Utilitarian value all product categories significantly differed from each other with Chocolate bar as the most hedonic product category, followed by Tablet, then Bag as a utilitarian product category, topped only by Shower gel in this regard. On the dimension of Product Involvement two subsets with same means were identified. The low involvement subset is represented by Shower gel and Chocolate bar, whereas the high involvement subset includes Bag and Tablet. Finally, with regard to Visibility three subsets were obtained. The least visible product category was Shower gel, the second subset of less visible product categories contained the Tablet and Chocolate bar and the third subset was represented by Bag as a very visible product category. Overall the results indicate that the proposed product categories sufficiently cover the spectrum along the selected dimensions and are a good fit for the purpose of this study.

Table 6 - Main Study Mean Values of PINV, VIS and UTIL/HED

Dimension	Shower gel	Chocolate bar	Tablet	Bag
Hedonic <-> Utilitarian	5,63	2,86	3,65	4,84
Involvement	$2,15^{A}$	$2,47^{A}$	$4,52^{B}$	$4,48^{B}$
Visibility	$1,77^{A}$	$3,60^{B}$	$3,34^{B}$	$5,58^{C}$
Sample size	78	66	82	70

Note: A = low in characteristic, B = medium in characteristic, C = high in characteristic; 7-point scales

4. Main Study

The analyses and results of the main study will be presented in three subchapters. The first subchapter will focus on differences between product categories with regard to the outcome variables of interest. The aim is to provide a deeper understanding of any differences in the outcome variables which cannot be attributed just to the properties of product categories (e.g. involvement, visibility or hedonic vs. utilitarian value) but could be related to other category specific reasons. Furthermore, differences between designation of the product categories (global vs. local) with regard to the outcome variables will be analyzed. Both independent variables, i.e. product categories and designation, will be included in a two-way ANOVA together with the various outcome variables as outcomes, to provide insights into the variance explained by these factors. As it is plausible that there will be differences in the outcome variables which arise solely due to the dissimilarity of the product categories, the focus will lie on the differences arising from the designation (global vs. local) and subsequently tested for each product category using a T-Test. Inclusion of the product category as an independent variable will be in order to check the interaction effect and to account for some of the variance. It has to be mentioned that due to the nature of the WTP variable and the way it was handled in this study – standardized across product categories (see section 3.2) a Two-way ANOVA with this variable would not make sense as there would be no difference between the product categories. Thus, only differences with regard to the brand designation for each product category will be tested using a T-Test.

The second subchapter will deal with the linear relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and the proposed outcome variables in order to evaluate the main effects. A simple linear regression will be conducted to provide an overview of outcome variables influenced by PBG.

Last subchapter will cover the essential part of the main study, i.e. the analysis of the moderating effects of various consumer and product category characteristics on the relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and the various outcome variables. A linear model of the predictors of the outcome variables, a subsequent simple slopes and a more complex Johnson-Neyman analysis will be presented.

4.1. Product category and designation specific differences in outcome variables

Before analyzing what influence Perceived Brand Globalness has on the outcome variables and assessing which consumer and product characteristics moderate this relationship, it is important to look for differences in the outcomes which are related to category specific reasons. This will provide for important insights into product categories themselves and how their different nature, apart from the introduced dimensions (i.e. involvement, visibility and hedonic vs. utilitarian value), influences consumer decisions and attitudes.

To introduce the concept of Perceived Brand Globalness into the study and use it as the main predictor of the various outcomes, two different versions of stimuli for each product category were developed - the global and local version. Before checking the main effects of Perceived Brand Globalness on outcome variables, it is important to look into designation (i.e. global vs. local version) related differences with regard to the proposed outcomes. This will shed some light on differences in the outcomes which are related to brand designation across the product categories.

The objective was to test for difference between groups, where the independent grouping variables are represented by product category (4 groups) and designation (2 groups), and the dependent scale variable is a particular outcome, i.e. consumer attitude or decision. As mentioned before, it is expected that differences arising solely because of the different nature of the product categories, do in itself not explain or predict the behavior of the consumers, as they are related solely to product category specific reasons. Therefore, the focus will lie on the differences in designation (with regard to the outcome variables), with product category accounting for variance and providing a picture of the possible interaction effects. The term ‘brand designation’ correspondents to ‘brand origin’ in the figures accompanying this chapter and thus these terms will be used interchangeably throughout the text.

For testing of differences between groups in two independent variables (one with 4 groups), across a scale dependent variable a Two-way ANOVA ought to be applied (Field 2009). Although ANOVA is often considered a robust test, several assumptions ought to be met in order to increase the accuracy of the results. Firstly, the assumption

of the data's normality had to be assessed, indicating whether the distribution in question significantly differs from a normal distribution using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Secondly, homogeneity of variance had to be checked using Levene's Test (Field 2009).

Testing the assumptions for all outcome variables provided satisfactory results. In cases where the distribution proved to be significantly different from a normal distribution, indicated by p-value < .05, a less conservative approach examining the skewness and kurtosis values has shown that the data is approximately normally distributed. Applying a rule of thumb, values of skewness and kurtosis between -2 and +2 indicated a reasonably normal distribution (Westfall & Henning 2013). In cases were homogeneity of variance was violated, it could be assumed that the larger sample size may cause small differences in group variances and result in a significant Levene's test. To examine the variances in more detail, the group with the biggest variance was compared to the group with the smallest variance using Hartley's F_{MAX} table (Pearson & Hartley 1954). The resulting ratios indicate that even though the Levene's test proved to be significant in some cases, homogeneity of variance can still be assumed.

It has to be mentioned that due to the nature of the WTP variable and the way it was handled in this study – standardized across product categories (see section 3.2) a Two-way ANOVA with this variable would not make sense as there would be no difference between the product categories.

4.1.1. Brand Purchase Intention

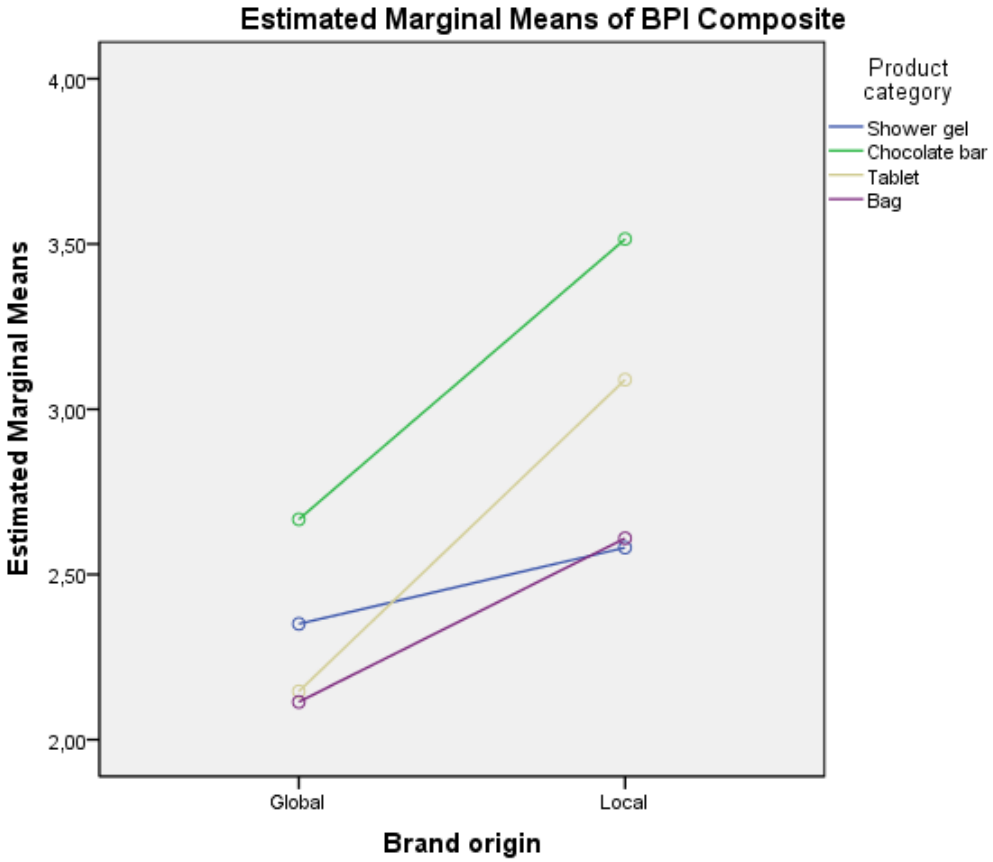
The Two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of the product category variable on the Brand Purchase Intention, $F(3, 288) = 15.08$, $p < .05$. It can be thus assumed that when for the effects of brand designation is accounted for, product categories differ with regard to Brand Purchase Intention. As this can easily represent personal traits, what is more important is the main effect of designation. The main effect of designation was found significant, $F(1,288) = 15.08$, $p < 0.05$, thus reflecting the fact that when product category effects are accounted for, the designation of the product has a significant impact on the Brand Purchase Intention.

Figure 1 tells us about the interaction between the effect of product category and the effect of designation. An upward (and rather parallel) slope for each of the product

categories is observable when moving from global to local designation indicating that the interaction effect might be non-significant. Truly, the interaction effect was found to be non-significant, $F(3, 288) = 1.08$, $p = .36$. Thus, it can be concluded that the effect of designation was the same across all the product categories. Furthermore, it is apparent that preference regarding Brand Purchase Intention was in favor of local versions of the product categories.

While filtering for product category, an Independent T-test revealed that significant differences between the global and local version with regard to BPI were present for the categories Chocolate bar ($t(64) = -2,09$ $p<.05$) and Tablet ($t(80) = -3,36$ $p<.05$), both having the steepest upward slope in Figure 1.

Figure 1 - Interaction Effect of Product Category and Designation on BPI

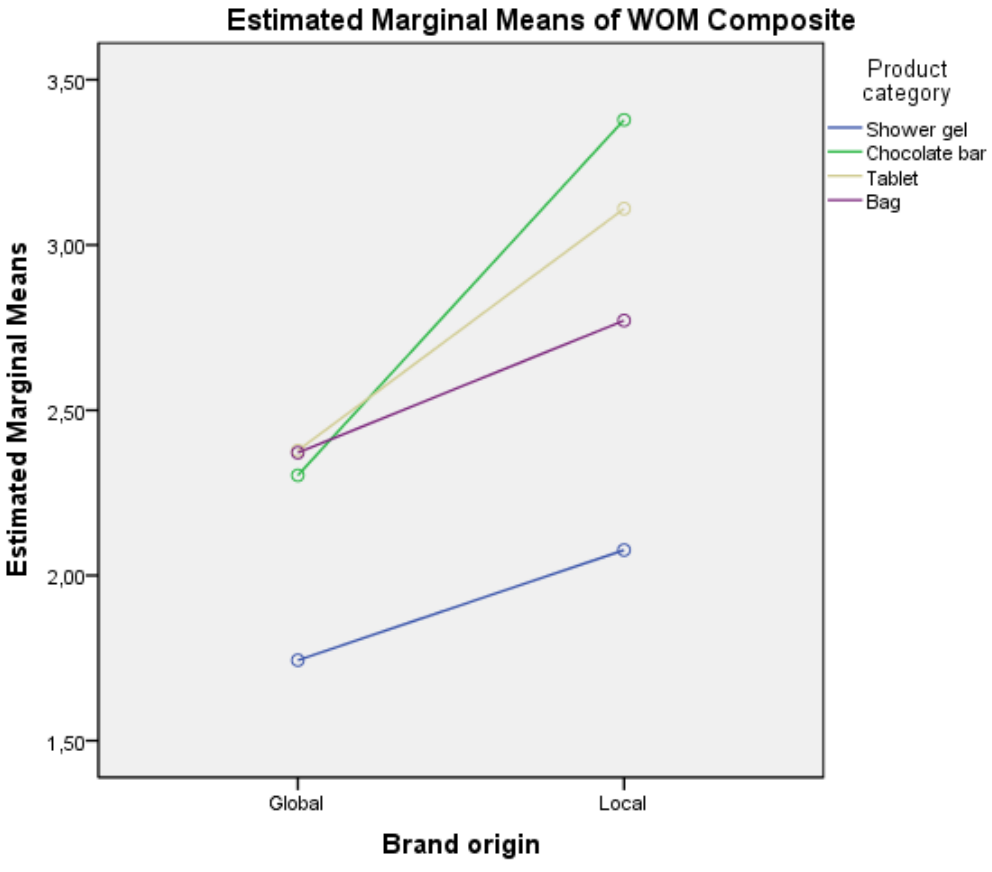


4.1.2. Word-of-mouth Intention

The Two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of the product category variable on the Word-of-mouth Intention, $F(3, 288) = 5.31$, $p < .05$. It can be thus assumed that when the effects of brand designation are accounted for, product

categories differ with regard to Word-of-mouth Intention. As this can easily represent personal traits, what is more important is the main effect of designation. The main effect of designation was found significant, $F(1,288) = 11.80$, $p < 0.05$, thus reflecting the fact that when product category effects are accounted for, the designation of the product has a significant impact on the Word-of-mouth Intention. Figure 2 tells us about the interaction between the effect of product category and the effect of designation. An upward (and rather parallel) slope for each of the product categories is observable when moving from global to local designation indicating that the interaction effect might be non-significant. Truly, the interaction effect was found to be non-significant, $F(3, 288) = 0.81$, $p = .487$. Thus, it can be concluded that the effect of designation was the same across all the product categories. Furthermore, it is apparent that preference regarding Word-of-mouth Intention was in favor of local versions of the product categories. While filtering for product category, an Independent T-test revealed that significant differences between the global and local version with regard to WOM were present for the categories Chocolate bar ($t(64) = -2{,}42$ $p<.05$) and Tablet ($t(80) = -2{,}03$ $p<.05$), both having the steepest upward slope in Figure 2.

Figure 2 - Interaction Effect of Product Category and Designation on WOM



4.1.3. Anticipated Regret for (Not) Purchasing

The Two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of only the product category variable on the ARP and ARNP variables, $F(3, 288) = 3.67$, $p < .05$ and $F(3, 288) = 2.93$, $p < .05$, respectively (see Figure 3 & 4). It can be thus assumed that when the effects of brand designation are taken into account, product categories differ with regard to Anticipated Regret for Purchasing/not Purchasing. As this can easily represent personal traits, what is more important is the main effect of designation, which was, however, non-significant. Thus, when product category is taken into account, the designation of the product has a no significant impact on ARP or ARNP. The same result was obtained by filtering for each product category and analyzing the differences between global and local designation using a T-test. The interaction effect, too, was non-significant rendering further investigation obsolete.

Figure 3 - Interaction Effect of Product Category and Designation on ARP

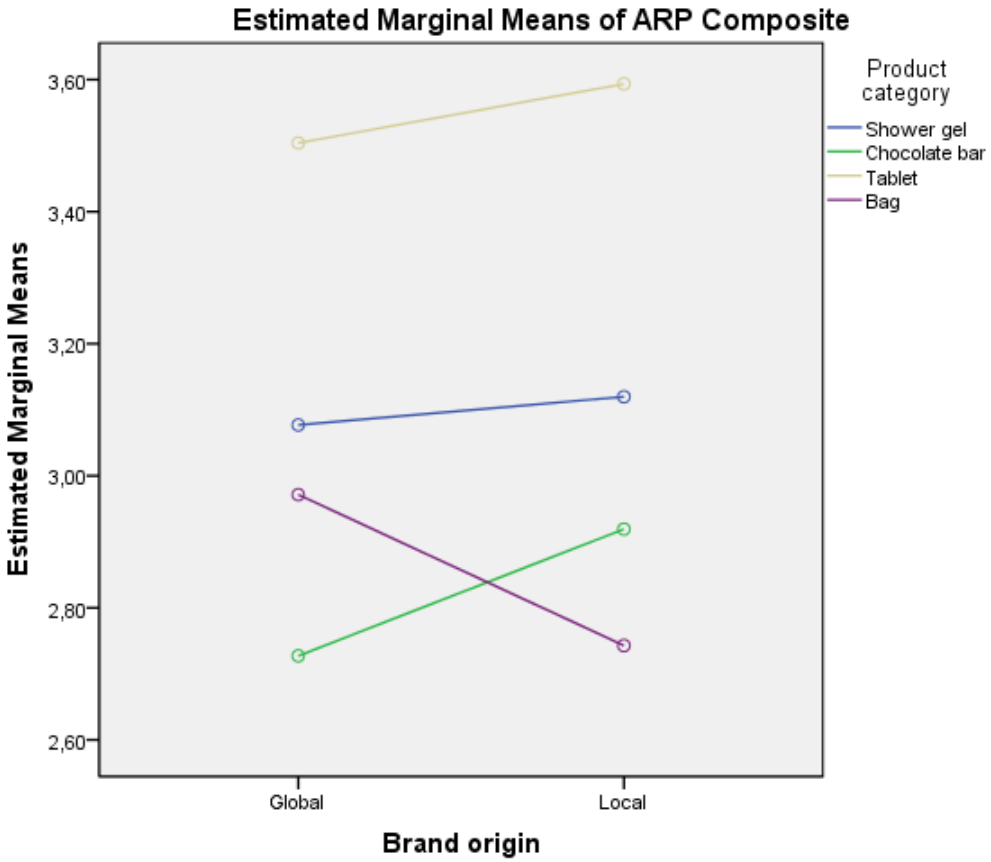
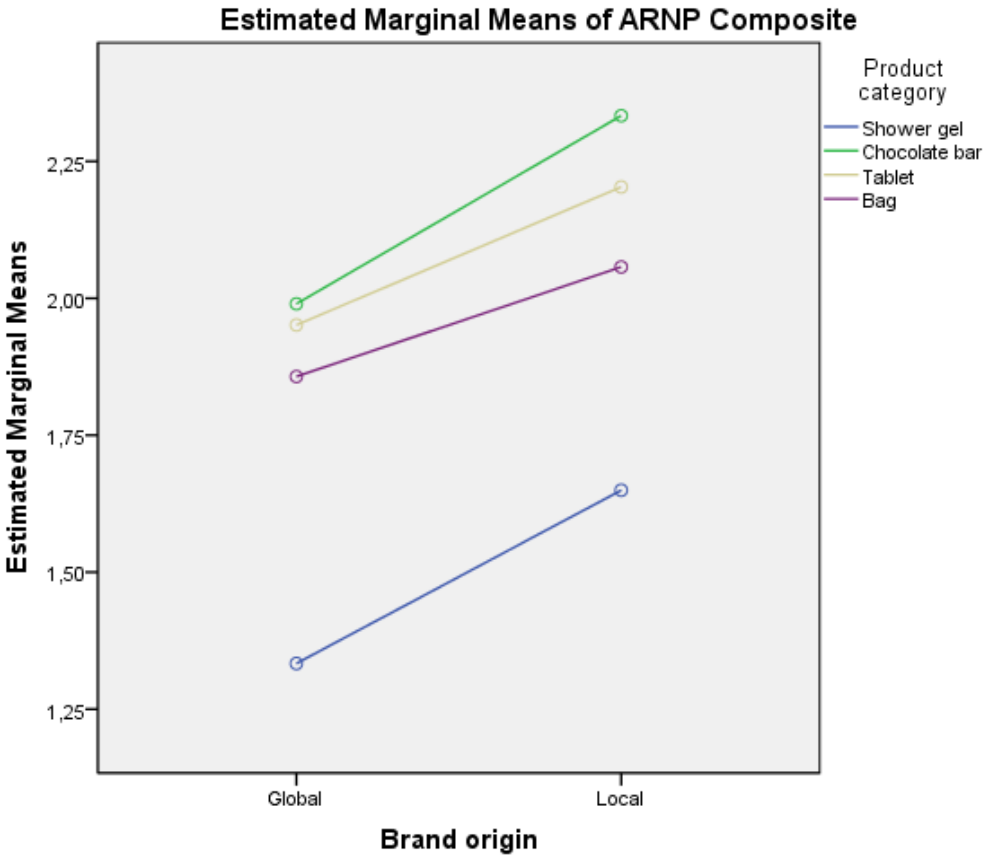


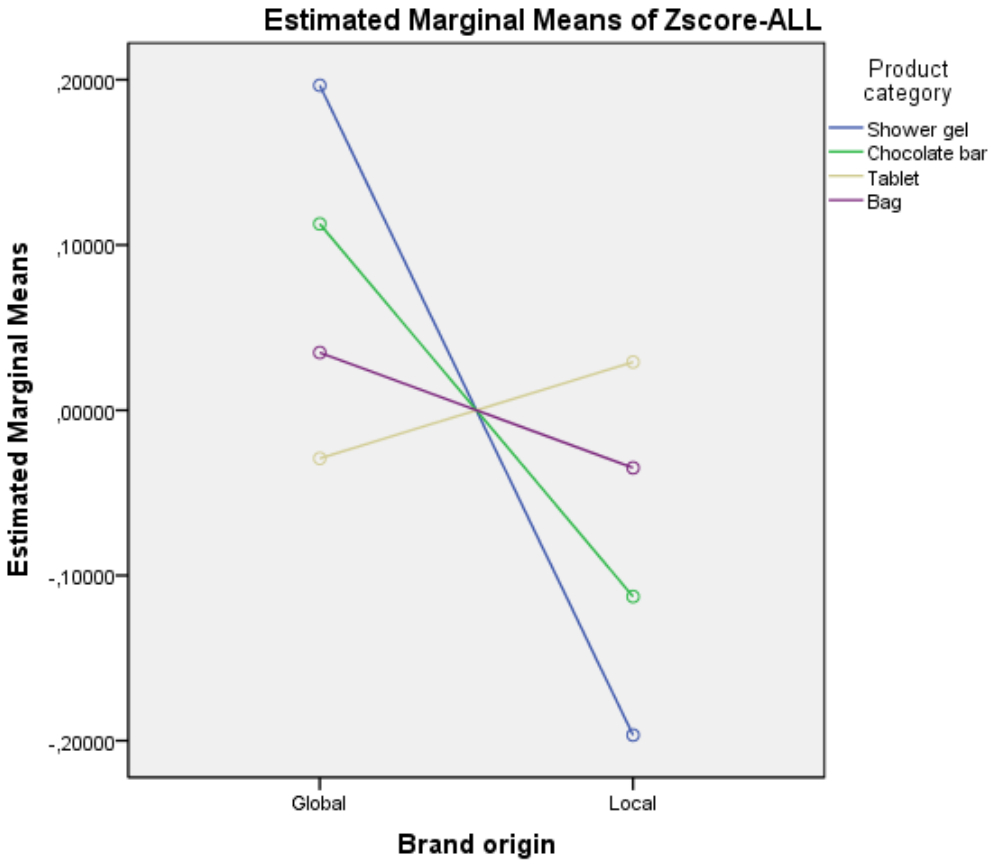
Figure 4 - Interaction Effect of Product Category and Designation on ARNP



4.1.4. Willingness to Pay

As was mentioned before due to the nature of the WTP variable and the way it was handled in this study – standardized across product categories (see section 3.2) a Two-way ANOVA with this variable would not make sense as there would be no difference between the product categories (see Figure 5). Thus, only differences with regard to the brand designation for each product category were tested using a T-Test. However, for each product category no differences were found between the brand global and local designation with regard to Willingness-to-Pay, although for the product category Shower gel, which has the steepest slope in Figure 5, the difference was very close to the significance zone with $t(76) = 1,76$ $p = .08$.

Figure 5 - Interaction Effect of Product Category and Designation on WTP



4.2 Main Effects

Before evaluating the moderating effects of various consumer and product category characteristics, the main effects of the PBG variable on the proposed outcome variables have to be assessed. Predicting the values of a depended variable (outcome) from one or more independent variables (PBG) is the fundament of regression (Field 2009). As the focus of this subchapter lays on the relationship of PBG with the outcome variables, a simple regression will be conducted. The equation below explains the model mathematically with b_0 and b_1 as the regression coefficients. To be precise, b_1 as the coefficient of the predictor (PBG), represents the change in the outcome variable attributable to the change in the predictor. Accordingly, a b_1-value significantly different from zero (as a result of T-test) means that the predictor significantly predicts the outcome (Field 2009). The following equation illustrates the model mathematically (Field 2009):

$$\text{Outcome Variable}_i = (b_0 + b_1\text{PBG}) + \varepsilon_i$$

At first, simple regressions with PBG as predictor and the various outcome variables as outcome were conducted with the inclusion of all product categories. Then, filtering by each product category, linear relationships were to be identified, which are product category specific. In each analysis the pattern of the data was visualized using a scatterplot to provide first insights into the relationship between the predictor and the outcome variable. Subsequently, the model parameters and their significance were interpreted from the output provided by SPSS program.

Results of the analyses for the various outcome variables while including all product categories indicate that Perceived Brand Globalness does not significantly predict any of them. The listing of the results can be seen in Table 7, summarizing the simple linear regression conducted in this matter.

Table 7 - Summary of Simple Linear Regressions for PBG on Outcome Variables

Impact of PBG on…	b	S.E.	β	t	p	R^2
Brand Purchase Intentions	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.09	n.s.	0.0%
Word-of-Mouth Intentions	0.09	0.06	0.08	1.33	n.s.	0.3%
Anticipated Regret for Purchasing	0.05	0.06	0.05	0.82	n.s.	0.0%
Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing	0.06	0.06	0.06	1.04	n.s.	0.0%
Willingness to Pay	0.06	0.04	0.09	1.62	n.s.	0.5%

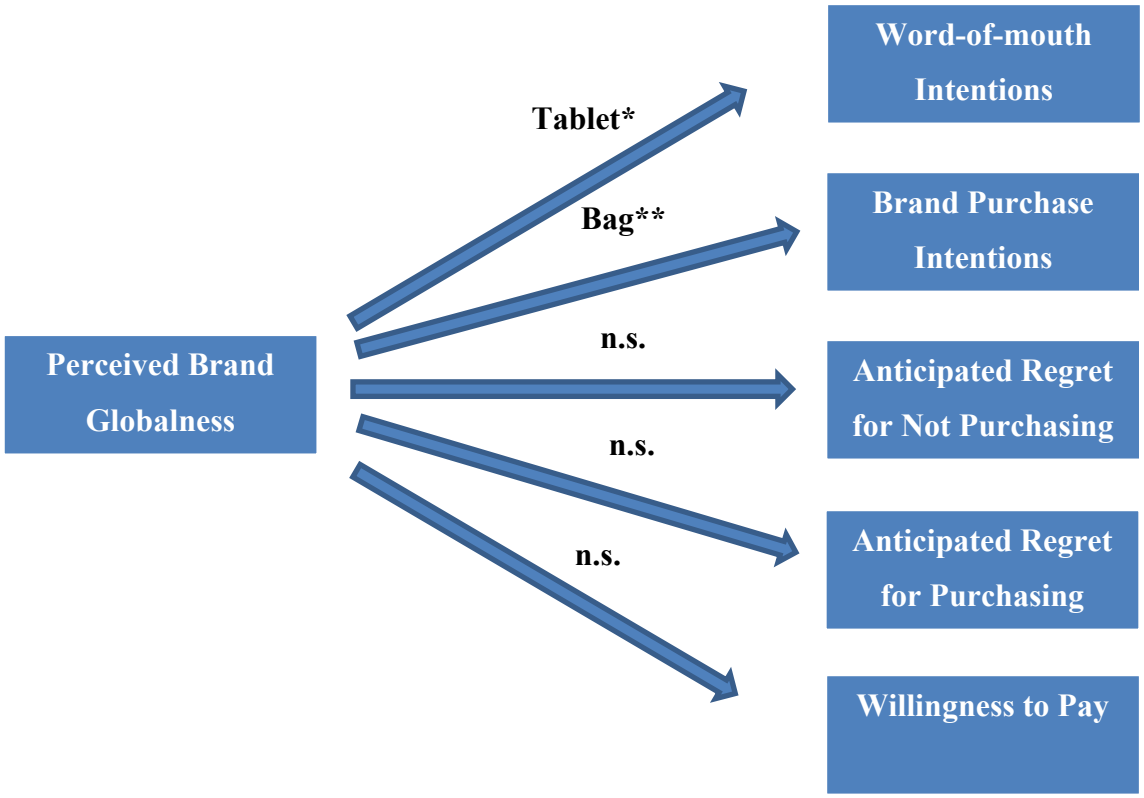
Filtering for each product category revealed that only for the product categories Tablet and Bag there is a relationship between the predictor PBG and the outcome variables WOM and BPI, respectively. The results of these two findings can be seen in Table 8. Moreover, the relationship between PBG and WOM in the product category Bag was only marginally significant with $p = .055$.

Table 8 - Simple Linear Regression for PBG on BPI & WOM (Bag, Tablet)

Product Category	Impact of PBG on…	b	S.E.	β	t	p	R^2
Tablet	Word-of-mouth Intentions	0.24	0.12	0.23	2.08	<0.05	3.9%
Bag	Brand Purchase Intentions	-0.22	0.11	-0.23	-1.96	*.055*	3.9%

As illustrated in Table 8, Perceived Brand Globalness significantly predicts Word-of-mouth-Intentions (Constant = 1.74; b = 0.24; t (80) = 2.08; p < .05) for the product category Tablet and Brand Purchase Intentions (Constant = 3.21; b = -0.22; t (68) = -1.96; p = .055) for the product category Bag. The summary of the results can be seen in Figure 6 illustrating the significance of the relationships between PBG and outcome variables for all product categories, including the product category specific findings.

Figure 6 - Main Effects of PBG on Outcome Variables



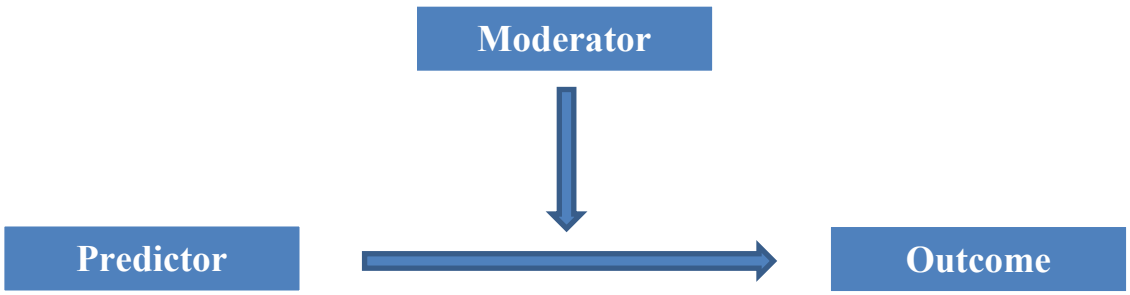
Note: *p < .05, **p < .10

Excursus: Moderation Analysis (Field 2013)

The aim of this MT is to provide deeper understanding of how perceived brand globalness affects consumer attitudes and decisions. However, it was important not to limit the concept to just PBG, as an individual predictor, but to include other predictors which might influence the outcome. Such a combination of effect is called interaction effect with regard to statistics, or moderation from a conceptual view (Field 2013).

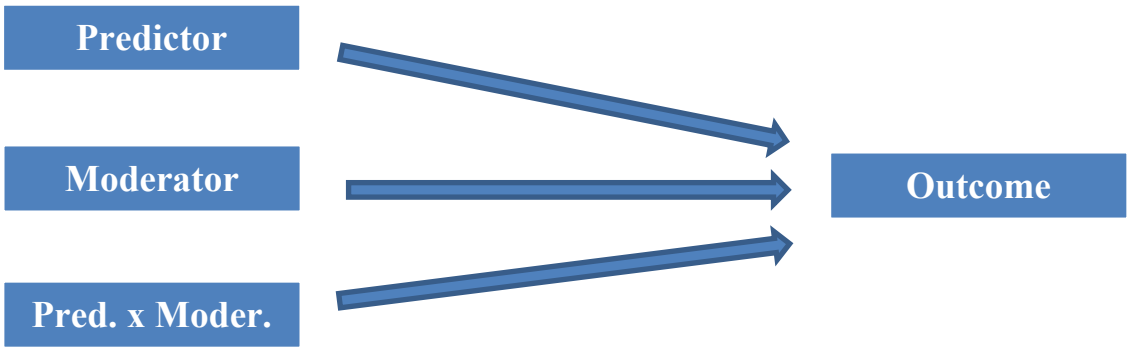
A simple conceptual model of moderation can be seen in Figure 7, where a moderator variable has an impact on the relationship between the proposed predictor and the outcome variable. In case the moderating effect proves to be significant, then the moderating variable affects the strength and/or direction of the relationship. Thus, the focus in moderation lies on the change of the relationship, brought upon by the inclusion of a moderating variable.

Figure 7 - Diagram of the conceptual moderation model from Field (2013)



From a statistical point of view, it is the interaction effect which signalizes that moderation by the moderating variable has taken place. The interaction of two variables is the multiplied effect of these two variables. A simple statistical model of moderation can be seen in Figure 8.

Figure 8 - Diagram of the statistical moderation model from Field (2013)



Both models indicate that moderator variables influence the strength and/or direction of the outcome as predicted by the main predictor. To capture this effect the model of moderation includes *b* parameters, which represent regression of the outcome on one predictor, when the other is equal to zero. To avoid situations where the value equal to zero for the predictor is meaningless, or not consistent with the concept we are trying to measure, grand mean centering is applied, i.e. transforming of the predictors into deviations around the grand mean (in case of grand mean centering). In cases where predictors do not have a meaningful zero point, mean centering helps to solve problems with multicollinearity of predictors, i.e. predictors correlate too highly. Consequently, *b* parameters represent regression of the outcome on one predictor, when the other is at mean value. The following equation illustrates the model mathematically (Field 2013):

$$\text{Outcome Variable}_i = (b_0 + b_1\text{Predictor}_1 + b_2\text{Predictor}_2 + b_3\text{Interaction}_i) + \varepsilon_i$$

In order to understand how consumer and product category characteristics moderate the relationship of brand's perceived globalness to consumer attitudes and decisions a moderation analyses was conducted. The analysis of the combined effect of perceived brand globalness and another predictor, also called moderation or interaction effect, was to reveal which characteristics of consumers or products affect the outcome, be it attitudes or decisions related to the brand. For those characteristics, that have a moderating effect on the relationship, the direction of the influence, strengthening or weakening, and also magnitude can be interpreted (Field 2013). In order to provide a more in depth understanding of how the various characteristics influence the relationship a more complex approach was applied, based on the technique of Johnson and Neyman (1936), which advantages will be explained below.

Spiller et al. (2013) argue that many moderated regression analyses in marketing and social research are not optimally or incorrect performed. They note that many researchers have followed the convention of analyzing the simple effects of one variable at one standard deviation above and under the mean of the other variable, which is limiting for the generalization, most notably across different studies. This so called Spotlight analysis is used to measure the effect of one variable at a particular value of another variable. However, they note that if there are no particularly meaningful values, i.e. all values are relevant, a 'floodlight' analysis provides better results. The same simple effects are tested, but at all possible values of the other variable. Based on

Johnson and Neyman (1936) this provides for regions along the variable's continuum where the simple effects are significant. They argue that most individual differences variables in marketing, consumer and social research (e.g. involvement) are arbitrary and therefore no meaningful values can be a priori selected. Furthermore, the authors identify three problems with testing only around the standard deviation: skewed distribution, moderator on a coarse scale and comparison of same studies using samples with different mean levels. In all three cases difficulties arise with the 'correctness' of the results. A floodlight analysis eliminates the aforementioned problems together with the limits of arbitrary choosing a high and low value for the focal variable in the analysis (Preacher et al. 2006). The authors conclude that the convention of spotlight test is almost never the best approach and that a floodlight analysis provides always more generalizable and correct results (Spiller et al. 2013). This way a more thorough interpretation of the effect of the moderator is feasible, as all values at which the regression slope is significant can be seen. Hence, it can be analyzed whether the relationship between the predictor and outcome variable not only gets stronger, or weaker along the spectrum of the moderator, but also at which levels flattening, or even reversing of the effect occurs (Field 2013).

The tool enabling such an analysis is called PROCESS by Andrew Hayes (2012). It can be implemented into the IBM SPSS program as a custom dialog box and has several advantages. As an example the tool automatically centers predictors (battling multicollinearity), computes the interaction term and does a simple slope analysis (Field 2013). Furthermore, it has an option to account for heteroscedasticity in the model, by adjusting the standard errors. But the most notable is the option to have simple slopes not only at plus or minus one standard deviation of the mean of the moderator but at the whole range of moderator's values using the Johnson-Neyman method. As a result a zone of significance can be visualized and interpreted (Field 2013).

4.3 Moderating Effects

There are several moderators which are likely to influence the relationship between perceived brand globalness and consumer evaluations. Furthermore, the consumer evaluates the brand with regard to several outcomes. Last but not least, the moderator's influence on the relationship can be indifferent among all product categories, but can also be product category specific. In order to capture all the effects and depict a

comprehensive illustration of the moderating influence across the outcomes and product categories, all combinations were analyzed. Overall 270 moderation analyses using the PROCESS tool were conducted. As presenting all the results would be out of the scope of this MT, only statistically significant results will be presented and summarized at the end of the chapter. All non-significant results figures are available upon request.

In section 4.3.1. characteristics, which moderate the relationship between perceived globalness and consumer attitudes across all product categories will be presented. These moderators significantly affect the impact of brand's perceived globalness on consumer attitudes irrespective of the product category, either positively or negatively. The next section 4.3.2. will display moderating effects which are present only for specific product categories and therefore cannot be generalized. After that a summary of all the findings will be presented.

The results are displayed in the following manner: Firstly, the linear model of the predictors is shown in a table, explaining the significance of individual predictors and that of the combined effect. It also displays the effect these predictors have on the outcome variable together with the percentage of variance that this model explains. Secondly, three regressions for the perceived brand globalness and the particular outcome variable at low value, mean value (centered, thus represented by zero) and high value of the moderating variable are listed, including the effect (positive or negative relationship) and significance of it. Last but not least, as these regressions represent the moderating effect only at 1 standard deviation above/ below an at the mean value of the moderator, the output of the Johnson-Neyman method will be shown. It will provide for a different approach to the simple slope analysis by showing the zones of significance, which indicate the boundaries within which the relationship of PBG and outcome variable is significant, illustrated by a line/lines in a list of all (centred) values of the moderating variable. This will provide for a more in depth analysis on how the relationship between PBG and different outcome variables evolves across the various levels of the moderating variable and at which points it turn significant and vice versa.

4.3.1. Moderating effects for all product categories

In this chapter consumer and product characteristics will be presented, which moderate the relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and various outcome variables when taking all the product categories (chocolate bar, shower gel, tablet and bag), which

were chosen for the experiment, into account. Together three moderator variables were identified, which significantly moderate the PBG and outcome relationship for all product categories: Local Identity, Consumer Ethnocentrism and Visibility of the product. Most notably Local Identity was found to moderate the effect which PBG has on BPI and also on WOM. A similar effect for WOM was found to be moderated by Consumer Ethnocentrism. Last but not least, Visibility was identified as the moderator in PBG and WTP relationship. The following subchapters will display the above mentioned findings in the same sequence.

4.3.1.1. Moderating Role of Local Identity

a) Brand Purchase Intentions

As can be seen in Table 9 Local Identity was found to be a significant predictor of Brand Purchase Intention ($p < .05$) with a positive effect of 0.14, whereas Perceived Brand Globalness was found to have non-significant little effect of 0.01. The combination of these two variables (interaction effect) resulted in negative effect with $b = -0.09$ and was significant with $p < .05$, indicating that Local Identity has a moderating effect on the PBG and BPI relationship. The variance explained by this model is 3.9%, thus it represent a rather weak model. However, a significant predictor and interaction effect indicate that changes in the variable will affect the outcome, i.e. affect the purchase intention of the consumer.

Table 9 - Linear model of predictors (LI) of Brand Purchase Intention

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	2.61 [2.44, 2.77]	0.083	31.47	$p < .001$
Local Identity	0.14 [0.03, 0.25]	0.058	2.41	$p < .05$
Perceived Brand Globalness	0.01 [-0.11, 0.13]	0.059	0.17	n.s.
LI x PBG	-0.09 [-0.16, -0.01]	0.039	-2.24	$p < .05$

$R^2 = 3.9\%$

An analysis of the simple slopes has shown that the relationship between PBG and BPI is not significant at one standard deviation below, above and at the mean value of the moderating variable (Local Identity).

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Local Identity is low, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention, b = 0.14, 95% CI [-0.02, 0.29], t = 1.75, p = .082
2) At the mean value of Local Identity, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention, b = 0.01, 95% CI [-0.11, 0.13], t = 0.17, p = .87
3) When Local Identity is high, there is a non-significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention, b = -0.12, 95% CI [-0.29, 0.05], t = -1.40, p = 0.16

Using the Johnson-Neyman method revealed the threshold value of the moderator (centred) at which the relationship between PBG and BPI turns significant, which can be seen in Table 10 expressed by a line dividing the values. At value lower by 2.0389 than the mean value of Local Identity the zone of significance begins with a rather weak positive relationship with effect of b = 0.1884. However, with decreasing of the Local Identity the effect of the positive relationship between PBG and BPI increases with the effect of b = 0.37 at the lowest level of LI. The results indicate, that for consumers with lower Local identity than the average Perceived Brand Globalness positively affects Brand Purchase Intention and that the effect gets stronger with LI decreasing even further.

Table 10 - Significance Regions of LI for the Relationship between PBG and BPI

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********************* JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE *************************

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):
      Value    % below    % above
    -2,0389    10,4730    89,5270

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)
         LI     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
    -4,1132      ,3700      ,1676     2,2083      ,0280      ,0402      ,6998
    -3,8132      ,3438      ,1566     2,1950      ,0289      ,0355      ,6520
    -3,5132      ,3175      ,1458     2,1779      ,0302      ,0306      ,6044
    -3,2132      ,2912      ,1351     2,1556      ,0319      ,0253      ,5571
    -2,9132      ,2650      ,1246     2,1262      ,0343      ,0197      ,5102
    -2,6132      ,2387      ,1144     2,0870      ,0378      ,0136      ,4638
    -2,3132      ,2124      ,1045     2,0338      ,0429      ,0069      ,4180
```

-2,0389	,1884	,0957	1,9681	,0500	,0000	,3768
-2,0132	,1862	,0949	1,9609	,0508	-,0007	,3730
-1,7132	,1599	,0860	1,8597	,0639	-,0093	,3291
-1,4132	,1336	,0778	1,7184	,0868	-,0194	,2867
-1,1132	,1074	,0706	1,5216	,1292	-,0315	,2462
-,8132	,0811	,0647	1,2536	,2110	-,0462	,2084
-,5132	,0548	,0606	,9054	,3660	-,0644	,1740
-,2132	,0286	,0585	,4880	,6259	-,0866	,1437
,0868	,0023	,0588	,0389	,9690	-,1135	,1180
,3868	-,0240	,0614	-,3907	,6963	-,1448	,0968
,6868	-,0502	,0660	-,7616	,4469	-,1801	,0796
,9868	-,0765	,0722	-1,0597	,2901	-,2186	,0656
1,2868	-,1028	,0797	-1,2899	,1981	-,2596	,0541
1,5868	-,1291	,0881	-1,4648	,1441	-,3025	,0443
1,8868	-,1553	,0972	-1,5977	,1112	-,3467	,0360

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b) Word-of-mouth Intentions

A rather weak model explaining 3% of the variance (as can be seen in Table 11) shows that Local Identity and Perceived Brand Globalness are both not significant predictors of Word-of-mouth Intentions with p-values much higher than the 0.05 threshold. However, interaction of these two predictors has shown to be significant with a negative effect b = -0.09, meaning that at certain levels of Local Identity there is a significant relationship between PBG and WOM.

Table 11 - Linear Model of Predictors (LI) of Word-of-mouth Intentions

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	2.49 [2.30, 2.68]	0.095	26.25	p < .001
Local Identity	0.10 [-0.03, 0.23]	0.065	1.52	n.s.
Perceived Brand Globalness	0.09 [-0.05, 0.22]	0.068	1.27	n.s.
LI x PBG	-0.09 [-0.17, -0.01]	0.041	-2.26	p < .05

R^2 = 3%

An analysis of the simple slopes has shown that the relationship between PBG and WOM is only significant at one standard deviation below the mean value of the moderator variable (Local Identity), but not at one standard deviation above and at the mean value of the moderator.

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Local Identity is low, there is a significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = 0.22, 95% CI [0.07, 0.37], t = 2.91, p = .004
2) At the mean value of Local Identity, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = 0.09, 95% CI [-0.05, 0.22], t = 1.27, p = .20
3) When Local Identity is high, there is a non-significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = -0.05, 95% CI [-0.25, 0.15], t = -0.47, p = 0.64

When analysing the results of the Johnson-Neyman technique it can be seen from Table 12 that the zone of significance, of the relationship between PBG and WOM, starts at slightly lower values of the moderator variable LI than was the average of the sample, i.e. -0.4505 lower. At this values of the moderator variable, the relationship between PBG and WOM is positive with a relatively weak effect b = 0.1277. However, with decreasing Local Identity, similarly to Brand Purchase Intentions, the effect gets stronger with b = 0.4639 at the lowest value of LI. Therefore, it can be argued that consumers which have a weaker Local Identity than the average, PBG has a positive impact on Word-of-mouth Intentions and that this relationship gets stronger the weaker the Local Identity of the consumer.

Table 12 - Significance Regions of LI for the Relationship between PBG and WOM

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********************* JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE *************************

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):
      Value    % below    % above
     -,4505    28,7162    71,2838

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)
         LI     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
    -4,1132      ,4639      ,1609     2,8832      ,0042      ,1472      ,7805
    -3,8132      ,4363      ,1498     2,9129      ,0039      ,1415      ,7312
    -3,5132      ,4088      ,1389     2,9433      ,0035      ,1354      ,6822
    -3,2132      ,3813      ,1282     2,9734      ,0032      ,1289      ,6336
    -2,9132      ,3537      ,1179     3,0013      ,0029      ,1218      ,5857
    -2,6132      ,3262      ,1079     3,0238      ,0027      ,1139      ,5385
    -2,3132      ,2987      ,0984     3,0353      ,0026      ,1050      ,4923
    -2,0132      ,2711      ,0896     3,0267      ,0027      ,0948      ,4474
    -1,7132      ,2436      ,0816     2,9838      ,0031      ,0829      ,4043
    -1,4132      ,2161      ,0749     2,8863      ,0042      ,0687      ,3634
    -1,1132      ,1885      ,0696     2,7098      ,0071      ,0516      ,3254
     -,8132      ,1610      ,0661     2,4340      ,0155      ,0308      ,2911
     -,5132      ,1334      ,0649     2,0574      ,0405      ,0058      ,2611
     -,4505      ,1277      ,0649     1,9681      ,0500      ,0000      ,2554
     -,2132      ,1059      ,0659     1,6081      ,1089     -,0237      ,2355
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      ,0868      ,0784      ,0690     1,1352      ,2572     -,0575      ,2142
      ,3868      ,0508      ,0741      ,6859      ,4933     -,0950      ,1967
      ,6868      ,0233      ,0807      ,2886      ,7731     -,1356      ,1822
      ,9868     -,0042      ,0885     -,0479      ,9619     -,1785      ,1700
     1,2868     -,0318      ,0973     -,3267      ,7441     -,2232      ,1597
     1,5868     -,0593      ,1067     -,5560      ,5786     -,2693      ,1506
     1,8868     -,0868      ,1166     -,7448      ,4570     -,3163      ,1426

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4.3.1.2 Moderating Role of Consumer Ethnocentrism

a) Word-of-Mouth Intentions

The linear model showing the predictors of Word-of-mouth Intentions displayed in Table 13 shows, that Consumer Ethnocentrism is a very significant predictor of WOM with a moderately strong effect b = 0.28. Again, PBG is not identified as a significant predictor, however the combination with CET resulted in a significant interaction effect with negative effect b = -0.09. The model explains 12% of the variance, which still represent a rather weak model, but stronger than the previous model, where Local Identity was explained as the moderator variable of PBG and WOM relationship.

Table 13 - Linear Model of Predictors (CET) of Word-of-mouth Intentions

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	2.48 [2.30, 2.66]	0.090	27.47	p < .001
Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.28 [0.16, 0.39]	0.057	4.87	p < .001
Perceived Brand Globalness	0.11 [-0.02, 0.24]	0.066	1.66	n.s.
CET x PBG	-0.09 [-0.17, -0.01]	0.042	-2.20	p < .05

R^2 = 12%

Looking at the simple slopes shows a similar situation to the previous model as only at one standard deviation below the mean value of Consumer Ethnocentrism there is a significant positive relationship between PBG and WOM.

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Consumer Ethnocentrism is low, there is a significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = 0.27, 95% CI [0.11, 0.43], t = 3.36, p < .001
2) At the mean value of Consumer Ethnocentrism, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = 0.11, 95% CI [-0.02, 0.24], t = 1.66, p = .10
3) When Consumer Ethnocentrism is high, there is a non-significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = -0.05, 95% CI [-0.28, 0.17], t = -0.46, p = 0.64

Again, looking at the output of Johnson-Neyman technique one can see, that for consumers with lower level of Consumer Ethnocentrism, to be precise -0.177 lower than the average, PBG has a positive effect of b = 0.1249 on WOM. The effect gets stronger as CET declines, but does not reach the same magnitude as was in the case of LI. At the lowest value of CET the effect is positive with b = 0.3659. This illustrates that similarly to LI, consumers who are less ethnocentric than the average, express stronger intentions for word-of-mouth when the brand in question is perceived as global.

Table 14 - Significance Regions of CET for the Relationship between PBG and WOM

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********************* JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE *************************

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):
      Value    % below    % above
     -,1770    47,6351    52,3649

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)
        CET     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
    -2,8189      ,3659      ,1134     3,2268      ,0014      ,1427      ,5891
    -2,5189      ,3385      ,1032     3,2811      ,0012      ,1355      ,5416
    -2,2189      ,3112      ,0935     3,3278      ,0010      ,1271      ,4952
    -1,9189      ,2838      ,0846     3,3563      ,0009      ,1174      ,4502
    -1,6189      ,2564      ,0766     3,3478      ,0009      ,1057      ,4072
    -1,3189      ,2291      ,0700     3,2742      ,0012      ,0914      ,3667
    -1,0189      ,2017      ,0650     3,1007      ,0021      ,0737      ,3297
     -,7189      ,1743      ,0623     2,7992      ,0055      ,0518      ,2969
     -,4189      ,1470      ,0619     2,3730      ,0183      ,0251      ,2688
     -,1770      ,1249      ,0635     1,9681      ,0500      ,0000      ,2498
     -,1189      ,1196      ,0640     1,8672      ,0629     -,0065      ,2456
      ,1811      ,0922      ,0684     1,3482      ,1786     -,0424      ,2269
      ,4811      ,0649      ,0746      ,8693      ,3854     -,0820      ,2117
      ,7811      ,0375      ,0822      ,4559      ,6488     -,1244      ,1993
     1,0811      ,0101      ,0909      ,1113      ,9114     -,1689      ,1891
     1,3811     -,0172      ,1004     -,1717      ,8638     -,2149      ,1804
     1,6811     -,0446      ,1105     -,4037      ,6868     -,2621      ,1729
     1,9811     -,0720      ,1210     -,5947      ,5525     -,3102      ,1662
     2,2811     -,0993      ,1319     -,7532      ,4519     -,3589      ,1602
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    2,5811     -,1267      ,1430     -,8860      ,3764     -,4082      ,1548
    2,8811     -,1541      ,1543     -,9983      ,3190     -,4578      ,1497
    3,1811     -,1814      ,1658    -1,0942      ,2748     -,5078      ,1449

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4.3.1.3. Moderating Role of Visibility

a) Willingness to Pay

In the Table 15 the predictors of Willingness to Pay are displayed, with both PBG and the proposed moderator variable, i.e. Visibility in this case, being insignificant with p-values much larger than the proposed 0.05 threshold. Looking at the interaction, however, shows that when both predictors (PBG and VIS) are taken into account, this combined variable significantly predicts Willingness to pay with a negative effect of b = -0.07. Again, although the significant interaction effect signals that change in the predictors have an impact on the outcome variable (WTP), the model still explains rather little of the variance, i.e. 4.6%.

Table 15 - Linear Model of Predictors (VIS) of Willingness to Pay

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	0.01 [-0.10, 0.13]	0.060	0.23	n.s.
Visibility	0.03 [-0.05, 0.11]	0.039	0.79	n.s.
Perceived Brand Globalness	0.06 [-0.03, 0.15]	0.046	1.23	n.s.
VIS x PBG	-0.07 [-0.13, -0.01]	0.029	-2.36	$p < .05$

$R^2 = 4.6\ \%$

Simple slopes generate a similar result to the previous models with significant relationship between PBG and WTP only at low values of the moderator variable, which is Visibility in this case. There a positive effect of b = 0.17 can be observed.

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Visibility is low, there is a significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Willingness to Pay, b = 0.17, 95% CI [0.03, 0.31], t = 2.38, p = .02
2) At the mean value of Visibility, there is a non-significant positive but weak relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Willingness to Pay, b = 0.06, 95% CI [-0.03, 0.15], t = 1.23, p = .22
3) When Visibility is high, there is a non-significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Willingness to Pay, b = -0.06, 95% CI [-0.18, 0.06], t = -0.92, p = 0.36

Turning to the output produced by the Johnson-Neyman technique (Table 16), it can be observed that the line signalizing the border of the significance zone of the PBG and WTP relationship starts at lower values of moderator variable, i.e. Visibility of the product. The less visible the product the stronger the effect gets, starting at b = 0.1054 for values slightly below average and ending at b = 0.2292 at the lowest value.

Table 16 - Significance Regions of VIS for the Relationship between PBG and WTP

********************* JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE *************************

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
-,7035	36,8243	63,1757

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)

VIS	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-2,5135	,2292	,0922	2,4851	,0135	,0477	,4107
-2,2135	,2087	,0848	2,4607	,0144	,0418	,3756
-1,9135	,1882	,0776	2,4233	,0160	,0353	,3410
-1,6135	,1676	,0708	2,3669	,0186	,0282	,3070
-1,3135	,1471	,0644	2,2825	,0232	,0203	,2739
-1,0135	,1266	,0587	2,1573	,0318	,0111	,2421
-,7135	,1060	,0537	1,9754	,0492	,0004	,2117
-,7035	,1054	,0535	1,9681	,0500	,0000	,2107
-,4135	,0855	,0497	1,7199	,0865	-,0123	,1834
-,1135	,0650	,0471	1,3813	,1683	-,0276	,1576
,1865	,0445	,0459	,9689	,3334	-,0459	,1348
,4865	,0239	,0464	,5163	,6060	-,0673	,1152
,7865	,0034	,0484	,0704	,9439	-,0919	,0987
1,0865	-,0171	,0518	-,3301	,7415	-,1192	,0849
1,3865	-,0376	,0564	-,6671	,5052	-,1487	,0734
1,6865	-,0582	,0619	-,9399	,3480	-,1800	,0636
1,9865	-,0787	,0680	-1,1568	,2483	-,2126	,0552
2,2865	-,0992	,0747	-1,3288	,1850	-,2462	,0477
2,5865	-,1198	,0817	-1,4657	,1438	-,2806	,0410
2,8865	-,1403	,0890	-1,5757	,1162	-,3155	,0349
3,1865	-,1608	,0966	-1,6651	,0970	-,3509	,0293
3,4865	-,1813	,1043	-1,7386	,0832	-,3866	,0239

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4.3.2. Product category specific moderating effects

The following chapter will deal with moderation which was found to be significant only for certain product categories. From the four product categories, i.e. shower gel, chocolate bar, tablet and bag, only for the last two several significant interaction effects could be observed. The possible reasons for this occurrence will be presented in section 6 named Discussion. The moderator variables, which were identified to significantly moderate the relationship between PBG and outcome variables, were Product Involvement and Consumer Ethnocentrism. Most notably Product Involvement was found to have a moderating role in several PBG and outcome relationships.

4.3.2.1. Moderating Role of Product Involvement

a) Word-of-Mouth Intentions: Bag

The linear model presented in Table 17 reveals, that predictors PBG and PINV are not significant for Word-of-mouth Intentions. However, interaction effects of these two predictors revealed a significant negative effect of b = -0.18. The model in itself explains 6.4% of variance, therefore represents a weak model.

Table 17 - Linear Model of Predictors (PINV) of Word-of-mouth Intentions

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	2.53 [2.16, 2.90]	0.185	13.67	p < .001
Product Involvement	0.01 [-0.24, 0.27]	0.128	0.09	n.s.
Perceived Brand Globalness	-0.09 [-0.37, 0.18]	0.138	-0.66	n.s.
PINV x PBG	-0.18 [-0.32, -0.05]	0.067	-2.74	p < .05

R^2 = 6.4 %

Analysis of the simple slopes demonstrates that at both one standard deviation above and below mean, as well as at the mean value of the moderator (PINV) the relationship between PBG and WOM is non-significant.

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Product Involvement is low, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = 0.16, 95% CI [-0.09, 0.41], t = 1.24, p = .22
2) At the mean value of Product Involvement, there is a non-significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = -0.09, 95% CI [-0.37, 0.18], t = -0.66, p = .51
3) When Product Involvement is high, there is a non-significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = -0.34, 95% CI [-0.73, 0.05], t = -1.72, p = 0.09

Looking at the results of the Johnson-Neyman technique reveals a different result to the simple slopes analysis explained above. To be specific, for the moderator Product Involvement two zones of significance were found, as depicted by two lines in Table 18. When Product Involvement is high, to be precise 2.0745 above the mean value, there is a strong negative relationship between PBG and WOM with effect b = -0.4726. This negative relationship gets even stronger as PINV increases. However, going in other direction, when PINV is decreasing till the mean value and little further, the relationship between PBG and WOM is non-significant. At 2.0143 below mean value of the moderator variable the relationship changes again to significant, but positive this time around. At lowest value of PINV the relationship between PBG and WOM is positive and strong with b = 0.4279.

Table 18 - Significance Regions of PINV for the Relationship between PBG and WOM

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********************* JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE *************************

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):
      Value    % below    % above
    -2,0475    10,0000    90,0000
     2,0745    95,7143     4,2857

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)
       PINV     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
    -2,8143      ,4279      ,1761     2,4295      ,0179      ,0763      ,7796
    -2,5476      ,3788      ,1637     2,3139      ,0238      ,0519      ,7057
    -2,2810      ,3297      ,1524     2,1635      ,0341      ,0254      ,6340
    -2,0475      ,2867      ,1436     1,9966      ,0500      ,0000      ,5734
    -2,0143      ,2806      ,1424     1,9698      ,0531     -,0038      ,5650
    -1,7476      ,2315      ,1342     1,7253      ,0892     -,0364      ,4993
    -1,4810      ,1823      ,1279     1,4259      ,1586     -,0730      ,4377
    -1,2143      ,1332      ,1239     1,0752      ,2862     -,1142      ,3806
     -,9476      ,0841      ,1225      ,6867      ,4947     -,1604      ,3286
     -,6810      ,0350      ,1236      ,2829      ,7781     -,2119      ,2818
     -,4143     -,0141      ,1274     -,1111      ,9119     -,2684      ,2401
     -,1476     -,0633      ,1334     -,4742      ,6369     -,3296      ,2031
```

,1190	-,1124	,1415	-,7942	,4299	-,3949	,1701
,3857	-,1615	,1513	-1,0675	,2896	-,4636	,1406
,6524	-,2106	,1625	-1,2962	,1994	-,5351	,1138
,9190	-,2597	,1748	-1,4858	,1421	-,6088	,0893
1,1857	-,3089	,1881	-1,6425	,1053	-,6843	,0666
1,4524	-,3580	,2020	-1,7721	,0810	-,7613	,0454
1,7190	-,4071	,2166	-1,8798	,0646	-,8395	,0253
1,9857	-,4562	,2316	-1,9699	,0531	-,9186	,0062
2,0745	-,4726	,2367	-1,9966	,0500	-,9452	,0000
2,2524	-,5054	,2470	-2,0458	,0448	-,9986	-,0121
2,5190	-,5545	,2628	-2,1101	,0386	-1,0791	-,0298

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b) Word-of-Mouth Intentions: Tablet

The linear model presented in Table 19 reveals, that predictor PBG is significant for Word-of-mouth Intentions for the product category Tablet, in coherence to the findings of simple linear regression in Chapter 4.2., whereas Predictor PINV is not. However, interaction effects of these two predictors imply a significant negative effect of b = -0.21. The model explains 12.2% of the variance, still representing a rather weak model, but twice as strong as in the previous case of Bag.

Table 19 - Linear Model of Predictors (PINV) of Word-of-mouth Intentions

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	2.77 [2.42, 3.13]	0.179	15.50	p < .001
Product Involvement	-0.29 [-0.60, 0.01]	0.153	-1.92	n.s.
Perceived Brand Globalness	0.27 [0.05, 0.50]	0.114	2.39	p < .05
PINV x PBG	-0.21 [-0.39, -0.04]	0.089	-2.40	p < .05

R^2 = 12.2 %

When interpreting the simple slopes it is apparent, that there is a strong and significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth intentions when Product Involvement is low with b = 0.52. This effect is weaker as Product involvement reaches its mean value with b = 0.27 and diminishes in a non-significant relationship of PBG and WOM at high values of PINV.

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Product Involvement is low, there is a significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = 0.52, 95% CI [0.23, 0.82], t = 3.54, p < .001
2) At the mean value of Product Involvement, there is a significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = 0.27, 95% CI [0.05, 0.50], t = 2.39, p < .05
3) When Product Involvement is high, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions, b = 0.02, 95% CI [-0.30, 0.34], t = 0.14, p = 0.89

The Table 20 shows the results of the Johnson-Neyman method and illustrates that from the value of 0.1886 above the mean of the moderator variable (PINV) the relationship between PBG and WOM is positive and significant, starting with an effect b = 0.2322 and climbing up to a very strong effect of b = 0.8858 at the lowest value of PINV. Thus, it can be said that with decreasing PINV the impact Perceived Brand Globalness has on Word-of-mouth intentions is, similar to the previous model with product category bag, positive in direction but with nearly twice as strong effect at lowest value of the moderator.

Table 20 - Significance Regions of PINV for the Relationship between PBG and WOM

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********************* JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE *************************

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):
      Value    % below    % above
      ,1886    60,9756    39,0244

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)
       PINV     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
    -2,8577      ,8858      ,2706     3,2731      ,0016      ,3470     1,4247
    -2,5911      ,8286      ,2492     3,3249      ,0013      ,3325     1,3248
    -2,3244      ,7714      ,2283     3,3795      ,0011      ,3170     1,2258
    -2,0577      ,7142      ,2079     3,4348      ,0010      ,3002     1,1281
    -1,7911      ,6570      ,1884     3,4868      ,0008      ,2819     1,0320
    -1,5244      ,5997      ,1700     3,5278      ,0007      ,2613      ,9382
    -1,2577      ,5425      ,1531     3,5436      ,0007      ,2377      ,8473
     -,9911      ,4853      ,1382     3,5103      ,0007      ,2101      ,7605
     -,7244      ,4281      ,1262     3,3925      ,0011      ,1769      ,6793
     -,4577      ,3708      ,1178     3,1493      ,0023      ,1364      ,6053
     -,1911      ,3136      ,1138     2,7562      ,0073      ,0871      ,5401
      ,0756      ,2564      ,1147     2,2347      ,0283      ,0280      ,4848
      ,1886      ,2322      ,1166     1,9909      ,0500      ,0000      ,4643
      ,3423      ,1992      ,1205     1,6531      ,1023     -,0407      ,4390
      ,6089      ,1419      ,1304     1,0885      ,2797     -,1177      ,4016
      ,8756      ,0847      ,1436      ,5898      ,5570     -,2012      ,3707
     1,1423      ,0275      ,1593      ,1726      ,8634     -,2897      ,3447
     1,4089     -,0297      ,1769     -,1681      ,8670     -,3819      ,3224
     1,6756     -,0870      ,1957     -,4442      ,6581     -,4767      ,3028
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    1,9423     -,1442      ,2156     -,6687      ,5057     -,5734      ,2851
    2,2089     -,2014      ,2362     -,8527      ,3965     -,6716      ,2688
    2,4756     -,2586      ,2573    -1,0049      ,3180     -,7710      ,2537

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c) Brand Purchase Intention: Bag

In regard to Brand Purchase Intention for the product category Bag, PBG as predictor was found to be marginally significant (p = 0.051), which in coherence to the findings of simple linear regression in Chapter 4.3.2., and PINV was non-significant (see Table 21). However, a significant moderation with an effect b = -0.18 was found for the combination of the PINV and PBG variables. The model also explains 13.9% of variance, being one of the strongest models in this experiment.

Table 21 - Linear Model of Predictors (PINV) of Brand Purchase Intention

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	2.32 [2.02, 2.62]	0.151	15.38	p < .001
Product Involvement	-0.11 [-0.32, 0.10]	0.105	-1.06	n.s.
Perceived Brand Globalness	-0.24 [-0.48, 0.00]	0.121	-1.99	*p = .051*
PINV x PBG	-0.18 [-0.31, -0.04]	0.069	-2.58	p < .05

R^2 = 13.9%

Examination of the simple slopes reveals that with rising PINV the relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention changes from very weak negative and non-significant with p-values almost equal to one (p = .98) at low PINV, to nearly significant (p = .051) and stronger negative at mean of PINV, finishing with significant and strong negative at high PINV.

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Product Involvement is low, there is a non-significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention, b = -0.003, 95% CI [-0.26, 0.25], t = -0.03, p = .98
2) At the mean value of Product Involvement, there is a non-significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention, b = -0.24, 95% CI [-0.48, 0.001], t = -1.99, p = .051
3) When Product Involvement is high, there is a significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention, b = -0.48, 95% CI [-0.82, -0.13], t = -2.78, p < .05

Johnson-Neyman method supports the findings of simple slope analysis by indicating the value of the moderator variable PINV at which the zone of significance begins, i.e. 0.0093 above mean of PINV. At this point b = -0.2422 indicating a negative relationship between PBG and BPI. With increasing PINV the relationship remains significant and negative with b = -.6872 at the highest value of PINV, representing a strong effect.

Table 22 - Significance Regions of PINV for the Relationship between PBG and BPI

********** JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE **********

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
,0093	48,5714	51,4286

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)

PINV	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-2,8143	,2585	,1961	1,3180	,1921	-,1331	,6501
-2,5476	,2112	,1817	1,1625	,2492	-,1516	,5740
-2,2810	,1639	,1680	,9757	,3328	-,1715	,4994
-2,0143	,1167	,1553	,7512	,4552	-,1934	,4267
-1,7476	,0694	,1438	,4825	,6311	-,2177	,3564
-1,4810	,0221	,1338	,1651	,8694	-,2450	,2892
-1,2143	-,0252	,1257	-,2006	,8416	-,2761	,2257
-,9476	-,0725	,1198	-,6050	,5472	-,3117	,1667
-,6810	-,1198	,1166	-1,0275	,3079	-,3525	,1130
-,4143	-,1671	,1161	-1,4384	,1551	-,3990	,0648
-,1476	-,2144	,1186	-1,8075	,0752	-,4511	,0224
,0093	-,2422	,1213	-1,9966	,0500	-,4843	,0000
,1190	-,2616	,1237	-2,1149	,0382	-,5086	-,0146
,3857	-,3089	,1312	-2,3544	,0215	-,5709	-,0470
,6524	-,3562	,1407	-2,5317	,0137	-,6371	-,0753
,9190	-,4035	,1518	-2,6579	,0099	-,7066	-,1004
1,1857	-,4508	,1642	-2,7451	,0078	-,7787	-,1229
1,4524	-,4981	,1776	-2,8038	,0066	-,8527	-,1434
1,7190	-,5454	,1919	-2,8423	,0060	-,9285	-,1623
1,9857	-,5926	,2067	-2,8665	,0056	-1,0054	-,1799
2,2524	-,6399	,2221	-2,8809	,0053	-1,0834	-,1964
2,5190	-,6872	,2379	-2,8883	,0052	-1,1623	-,2122

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d) Brand Purchase Intention: Tablet

Similarly to Bag, the linear model (Table 23) product category Tablet also revealed non-significant predictors PINV and PBG with regard to Brand Purchase Intention. In this case, the p-value of the interaction effect was also above the significance threshold of 0.05. However, as the Johnson-Neyman method, which will be discussed further down in this subchapter, revealed a trend similar to the previous finding for the product category Bag, the p-value of 0.07 for this interaction effect (Table 23) will be considered as marginally significant and further analyzed. In this case it is even more important to investigate this moderation with the Johnson-Neyman method and take into account that this trend could result in higher level of confidence for larger samples. The model explains 5.3% of variance, which is comparable to the previous models and the effect for the interaction term is equal to -0.14.

Table 23 - Linear Model of Predictors (PINV) of Brand Purchase Intention

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	2.64 [2.33, 2.94]	0.152	17.37	p < .001
Product Involvement	-0.12 [-0.38, 0.14]	0.132	-0.91	n.s.
Perceived Brand Globalness	0.13 [-0.07, 0.32]	0.097	1.30	n.s.
PINV x PBG	-0.14 [-0.30, 0.01]	0.079	-1.82	*p = .07*

R^2 = 5.3%

Even though the simple slopes analysis observes the relationship only at one standard deviation above and under the mean and at the mean value of the moderator, a significant positive relationship between PBG and BPI was identified when PINV is low with b = 0.29.

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Product Involvement is low, there is a significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention, b = 0.29, 95% CI [0.07, 0.52], t = 0.11, p < .05

2) At the mean value of Product Involvement, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention, b = 0.13, 95% CI [-0.07, 0.32], t = 1.30, p = .20
3) When Product Involvement is high, there is a non-significant negative relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Brand Purchase Intention, b = -0.04, 95% CI [-0.34, 0.26], t = -0.28, p = .78

The output of the Johnson-Neyman technique (Table 24) reveals more detail in how the relationship of PBG and BPI changes across the values of the moderator variable PINV. The zone of significance begins at a value 0.4236 lower than the mean value of the moderator with a slightly positive relationship of PBG and BPI (b = 0.1873). However, with decreasing PINV the effect intensifies and equals 0.5385 at the lowest value of the moderator. Although the trend is similar to the Bag product category, the zones of significance for Tablet are below the mean of the moderator variable and not above it. With decreasing PINV a strong and positive relationship between PBG and BPI emerges, whereas for Bag with increasing PINV a strong and negative relationship between PBG and BPI occurs. Therefore, for this two product categories a trend is observable where the relationship between PBG and BPI changes from positive to negative as PINV increases, although the significance zone of one product category ends at approximately the mean value of the moderator, whereas for the other product category it begins at it.

Table 24 - Significance Regions of PINV for the Relationship between PBG and BPI

********** JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE **********

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
-,4236	39,0244	60,9756

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)

PINV	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-2,8577	,5385	,2218	2,4275	,0175	,0969	,9802
-2,5911	,5000	,2028	2,4652	,0159	,0962	,9038
-2,3244	,4616	,1843	2,5043	,0144	,0946	,8285
-2,0577	,4231	,1664	2,5423	,0130	,0918	,7544
-1,7911	,3846	,1494	2,5744	,0119	,0872	,6820
-1,5244	,3461	,1336	2,5915	,0114	,0802	,6120
-1,2577	,3076	,1194	2,5765	,0119	,0699	,5454
-,9911	,2692	,1076	2,5020	,0144	,0550	,4833
-,7244	,2307	,0989	2,3319	,0223	,0337	,4276
-,4577	,1922	,0943	2,0376	,0450	,0044	,3800
-,4236	,1873	,0941	1,9909	,0500	,0000	,3746
-,1911	,1537	,0944	1,6288	,1074	-,0342	,3416
,0756	,1152	,0991	1,1634	,2482	-,0820	,3125
,3423	,0768	,1078	,7122	,4785	-,1378	,2914
,6089	,0383	,1197	,3200	,7498	-,2000	,2765
,8756	-,0002	,1339	-,0014	,9989	-,2667	,2663

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    1,1423     -,0387      ,1497     -,2583      ,7969     -,3367      ,2594
    1,4089     -,0771      ,1668     -,4626      ,6450     -,4092      ,2549
    1,6756     -,1156      ,1847     -,6261      ,5331     -,4833      ,2520
    1,9423     -,1541      ,2032     -,7583      ,4505     -,5587      ,2505
    2,2089     -,1926      ,2222     -,8666      ,3888     -,6350      ,2498
    2,4756     -,2311      ,2416     -,9564      ,3418     -,7121      ,2499

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e) Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing: Tablet

The linear model in Table 25 shows that both predictors of ARNP, i.e. PBG and PINV, are not significant. Although the interaction effect of this predictors had also a p-value above 0.05, to be precise p = 0.06, the Johnson-Neyman technique revealed a trend which validates further investigation and thus will be this interaction effect regarded as marginally significant. It can be assumed, that a larger study would yield higher confidence intervals. The effect of this interaction effect is equal to -0.11 and the variance this model explains is precisely 6%.

Table 25 - Linear Model of Predictors (PINV) of Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	2.09 [1.78, 2.40]	0.157	13.34	p < .001
Product Involvement	-0.21 [-0.44, 0.02]	0.118	-1.78	n.s.
Perceived Brand Globalness	0.15 [-0.01, 0.32]	0.083	1.85	n.s.
PINV x PBG	-0.11 [-0.23, 0.005]	0.058	-1.91	*p = .06*

R^2 = 6.0%

The analysis of the simple slopes also reveals, that for one standard deviation under the mean of moderator variable PINV the relationship between PBG and ARNP is significant with an effect of b = 0.28. Furthermore, at the mean value of PINV the effect declines to b = 0.15 and could be considered marginally significant as the p-value equals 0.07.

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Product Involvement is low, there is a significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing, b = 0.28, 95% CI [0.04, 0.53], t = 2.31, p < .05
2) At the mean value of Product Involvement, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing, b = 0.15, 95% CI [-0.01, 0.32], t = 1.85, p = .07
3) When Product Involvement is high, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing, b = 0.02, 95% CI [-0.15, 0.20], t = 0.28, p = .78

The output of the Johnson-Neyman technique in Table 26 extends the findings of the simple slope analysis by providing the value of the moderator value at which the relationship between PBG and ARNP turns significant, i.e. -0.1710 below the mean value of PINV. At this point a significant positive relationship between PBG and ARNP with effect equal to 0.1732 can be observed. This effect grows to 0.4724 as the value of the moderator value PINV decreases to its lowest value of -2.8577 below the mean. Thus, with decreasing PINV below approximately its mean value the relationship between Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing the product (Tablet) and Perceived Brand Globalness of the brand gets stronger in a positive direction.

Table 26 - Significance Regions of PINV for the Relationship between PBG and ARNP

********** JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE **********

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
-,1710	53,6585	46,3415

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)

PINV	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-2,8577	,4724	,2085	2,2658	,0262	,0573	,8875
-2,5911	,4427	,1942	2,2795	,0254	,0561	,8293
-2,3244	,4130	,1801	2,2927	,0246	,0544	,7716
-2,0577	,3833	,1663	2,3045	,0239	,0522	,7144
-1,7911	,3536	,1528	2,3136	,0233	,0493	,6579
-1,5244	,3239	,1398	2,3173	,0231	,0456	,6022
-1,2577	,2942	,1273	2,3117	,0234	,0408	,5476
-,9911	,2645	,1155	2,2902	,0247	,0346	,4945
-,7244	,2348	,1047	2,2427	,0278	,0264	,4433
-,4577	,2051	,0952	2,1541	,0343	,0155	,3947
-,1911	,1754	,0875	2,0051	,0484	,0012	,3496
-,1710	,1732	,0870	1,9909	,0500	,0000	,3464
,0756	,1457	,0820	1,7773	,0794	-,0175	,3090
,3423	,1161	,0792	1,4650	,1469	-,0417	,2738
,6089	,0864	,0794	1,0874	,2802	-,0718	,2445
,8756	,0567	,0826	,6861	,4947	-,1078	,2211
1,1423	,0270	,0884	,3050	,7612	-,1490	,2030

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    1,4089     -,0027      ,0964     -,0283      ,9775     -,1947      ,1892
    1,6756     -,0324      ,1061     -,3056      ,7607     -,2436      ,1788
    1,9423     -,0621      ,1170     -,5308      ,5971     -,2951      ,1709
    2,2089     -,0918      ,1289     -,7122      ,4784     -,3484      ,1648
    2,4756     -,1215      ,1415     -,8587      ,3931     -,4032      ,1602

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4.3.2.2. Moderating Role of Consumer Ethnocentrism

Apart from Product Involvement, the only other moderator variable which was identified to moderate the relationship between PBG and a particular outcome variable in product category specific analyses was Consumer Ethnocentrism. It was found to moderate, similarly to PINV in the subchapter above, the outcome variable Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing in the same product category, i.e. Tablet.

a) Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing: Tablet

The linear model in Table 27 indicates that Consumer Ethnocentrism is a significant predictor of Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing a brand, whereas Perceived Brand Globalness is not. Furthermore, the combined effect of these predictors, i.e. the interaction effect, was found to be significant with an effect equal to 0.07. This model explains 22% of the variance and thus represents the strongest model so far.

Table 27 - Linear Model of Predictors (CET) of Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing

	b	SE B	t	p
Constant	2.11 [1.82, 2.39]	0.142	14.88	$p < .001$
Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.36 [0.23, 0.50]	0.069	5.25	$p < .001$
Perceived Brand Globalness	0.22 [0.06, 0.38]	0.081	2.70	n.s.
CET x PBG	0.07 [0.007, 0.14]	0.033	2.20	$p < .05$

$R^2 = 22.0\%$

Simple slopes reveal that even though for low CET the relationship between PBG and ARNP is not significant, it turns significant for mean and one standard deviation above the mean of CET with effect size of 0.22 and 0.34 respectively.

Simple slopes analysis:

1) When Consumer Ethnocentrism is low, there is a non-significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing, b = 0.09, 95% CI [-0.06, 0.24], t = 1.20, p = .23
2) At the mean value of Consumer Ethnocentrism, there is a significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing, b = 0.22, 95% CI [0.06, 0.38], t = 2.70, p < .05
3) When Consumer Ethnocentrism is high, there is a significant positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing, b = 0.34, 95% CI [0.11, 0.58], t = 2.94, p < .05

Johnson-Neyman technique specifies the point at which the relationship between PBG and ARNP turn significant, which is 1.0268 below the mean value of the moderator variable CET. At this value, the relationship is positive with b = 0.1428 and the effect increase as CET increases. Thus, at the highest level of CET (3,1732 above the mean) the effect reaches a value of 0.4490, representing a rather strong and positive relationship between PBG and ARNP.

Table 28 - Significance Regions of CET for the Relationship between PBG and ARNP

********** JOHNSON-NEYMAN TECHNIQUE **********

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):

Value	% below	% above
-,9945	31,7073	68,2927

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator (M)

CET	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-2,8268	,0116	,0939	,1234	,9021	-,1753	,1985
-2,5268	,0335	,0880	,3804	,7047	-,1416	,2086
-2,2268	,0553	,0828	,6681	,5060	-,1095	,2202
-1,9268	,0772	,0786	,9822	,3290	-,0793	,2337
-1,6268	,0991	,0755	1,3130	,1930	-,0511	,2493
-1,3268	,1209	,0735	1,6449	,1040	-,0254	,2673
-1,0268	,1428	,0729	1,9589	,0537	-,0023	,2880
-,9945	,1452	,0729	1,9909	,0500	,0000	,2903
-,7268	,1647	,0736	2,2366	,0282	,0181	,3113
-,4268	,1866	,0757	2,4657	,0159	,0359	,3372
-,1268	,2084	,0789	2,6418	,0100	,0514	,3655
,1732	,2303	,0832	2,7682	,0070	,0647	,3959
,4732	,2522	,0884	2,8526	,0055	,0762	,4282
,7732	,2740	,0944	2,9040	,0048	,0862	,4619
1,0732	,2959	,1010	2,9311	,0044	,0949	,4969
1,3732	,3178	,1081	2,9410	,0043	,1027	,5329
1,6732	,3397	,1156	2,9390	,0043	,1096	,5697
1,9732	,3615	,1234	2,9291	,0045	,1158	,6072
2,2732	,3834	,1316	2,9143	,0047	,1215	,6453
2,5732	,4053	,1399	2,8963	,0049	,1267	,6838
2,8732	,4271	,1485	2,8767	,0052	,1315	,7227
3,1732	,4490	,1572	2,8564	,0055	,1361	,7620

****

4.3.3. Summary of the Moderating Effects

In previous subchapters results of the moderation analyses were presented. Firstly, the moderating effects that are observable for all product categories were shown. Secondly, product category specific moderating effects were demonstrated. In this chapter all the significant moderating effects will be displayed in a summarized manner in order to provide a general picture of the identified moderators, the affected outcome variables and product categories in which these effects are present. Thus, it will represent an overview of the boundary conditions (product and consumer characteristics) under which Perceived Brand Globalness affects consumer decisions and attitudes. It has to be mentioned that for all identified moderating effects zones of significance apply, i.e. only at certain values of the moderator is the relationship between PBG and outcome variables significant. An example is the negative significant relationship between PBG and WOM at low levels of Local Identity, which turns to positive but non-significant at higher level of Local Identity. However, for all the moderating effects there is always an observable trend as the direction of the relationship does not change along the values of the moderators, only switches from significant to non-significant. The summary can be seen in Table 29. The green (only one) and red triangles indicate the effect of rising moderator variable value on the direction of the relationship between PBG and the particular outcome variable, i.e. moving from positive to negative for red triangle and vice versa for green triangle.

Table 29 - Summary of Moderating Effects

		WOM	BPI	WTP	ARP	ARNP
All product categories	**Local Identity**	▼	▼	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
	Ethnocentrism	▼	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
	Visibility	n.s.	n.s.	▼	n.s.	n.s.

		WOM	BPI	WTP	ARP	ARNP
Tablet	**Involvement**	▼	▼	n.s.	n.s.	▼
	Ethnocentrism	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	▲

		WOM	BPI	WTP	ARP	ARNP
Bag	**Involvement**	▼	▼	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

As can be seen in Table 29, for all product categories increasing Local Identity worsens the relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Word-of-mouth Intentions as the positive effect diminishes and the same applies also for the relationship with Brand Purchase Intentions. The hypotheses for Global Identity ought to be rejected as no moderating effects were found for this proposed moderator variable. For Consumer Ethnocentrism a similar effect to Local Identity is observable, albeit restricted only to the Word-of-mouth Intentions. Cosmopolitanism, on the other hand, was not identified as a moderator in PBG and outcomes relationships, supporting the findings of Riefler et al. (2012). The positive relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Willingness to pay is mitigated by rising Visibility of the product categories, which results in rejecting the H_{4c} as it implies the opposite effect of Visibility to the one proposed. Moreover, no support for the rest of the hypotheses concerning the moderator variable Visibility could be found.

The product categories Tablet and Bag complement each other regarding the effect of Product Involvement on the relationship between PBG and WOM/BPI. As Product Involvement increases, the relationship between PBG and WOM/BPI changes from significantly positive in one product category to significantly negative in other. However, no moderating effects of Product Involvement encompassing all the product categories were found, indicating the product category specific nature of this moderator.

For the product category Tablet two moderators were identified that impact the relationship between Perceived Brand Globalness and Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing the product. To be precise, the positive effect between PBG and ARNP diminishes as Product Involvement increases. On the other hand, the effect gets stronger when Consumer Ethnocentrism increases, which results in rejection of the proposed H_{2e} hypotheses. Last but not least, hypotheses H_{6a}-H_{6e} have to be rejected as no moderating effects of Utilitarian/Hedonic value on the PBG and outcomes relationships could be identified.

5. Discussion

5.1. Manipulation Efforts

With regard to the manipulation efforts, the applied cues of globalness/localness performed well and provided significantly different perceptions of brand globalness by the consumers, of the two versions (global and local) for each product category. In concordance to findings of Alden et al. (1999), who identified positioning strategies of companies via application of a set of symbols (e.g. signs, themes and different languages), the results of the manipulations show that applying such a set of pictograms and texts can successfully manipulate consumer perceptions. Consequently, based on correct advertising, a consumer is likely to believe a brand's local nature, even though in reality it is global. The strongest cue in this study –availability of the brand, must not be necessarily misleading, as small adjustments to a global product would truly make it available only locally. The fact that fictitious brands were used in this study only contributes to the finding that brand creators are able to subliminally manipulate consumer perceptions and position a newly introduced brand at their discretion. Whether directing the perception towards brand 'globalness' would be benefiting, will be discussed further below.

5.2. Product category and designation specific differences in outcome variables

Before turning the discussion to identified main and moderating effects, the analyses of the product category and designation specific differences in outcome variables (section 4.1.) should be discussed, as it not only supplements the findings but also explains some of the variance. With regard to BPI, product categories differed from each other, which in itself is not intriguing as it represents a personal trait. The categories that had notably higher BPI were Chocolate Bar and Tablet, the two most hedonic categories (see Table 6). This is plausible as their hedonic nature might increase intentions for purchase. Dimofte et al. (2008), supporting this notion, implies that hedonic product are related to self-expressional value and psychological gains, which in itself could promote purchase intentions in hypothetical settings. Utilitarian products, with their purpose oriented nature, are less likely to attract that sort of attention. However, it could be also the case

that another not measured dimension of product categories, lays behind this observance. An even more interesting finding is revealed by observing the slopes in Figure 1, as it reveals that local versions enjoyed higher BPI for all product categories, for Chocolate bar and Tablet even significantly different (T-Test) from the global version. One of the preliminary explanations could be the stronger representation of Local Identity in the sample as noted in section 3.6. However, Cosmopolitanism, too, was found to be higher in the sample, which was likely to lead to a reversed effect. Why it is not so could be explained by Beck (2002), who indicated that cosmopolitans are often faced with a dilemma, as their aspiration towards world citizenship (Riefler & Diamantopoulos 2009), and subsequently global brands, is rivaled by their appreciation of (cultural) diversity, directing their inclination subliminally towards local brands. Local Identity, on the other hand, is often reflected in animosity towards globalization, implicitly favoring local brands and might therefore represent the stronger force. According to the literature, Global Identity is more prevalent in developing countries (Arnett 2002) and emerging markets (Holt et al. 2004), which the country of study (Slovakia) transited from few years ago. Even if Global Identity was stronger in Slovakia earlier, it was clearly substituted or is currently dominated by Local Identity, in case consumers retained both personalities (Arnett 2002).

It is interesting to see that consumers revealed similar tendencies for Word-of-mouth Intentions, to what they did for Brand Purchase Intentions. Chocolate bar and Tablet product categories enjoyed the highest WOM, closely followed by Bag. It might be that these concepts work in a similar way in that the intention to purchase a brand reflects itself in the increased intention to spread the world about the brand. However, as there could be other intrinsic motives or a product category dimension, not measured in this study, this notion is inconclusive. Still, it validates further research. The more interesting finding is revealed by observing the slopes in Figure 2, as it reveals that local versions enjoyed higher WOM for all product categories, and again for Chocolate bar and Tablet even significantly different (T-Test) from the global version. This only supports the notion that BPI and WOM work in a similar way as nearly exact observations were made for both concepts. The explanation of the results could be again linked to the stronger Local Identity of the sample.

For Anticipated Regret for (Not) Purchasing significant differences were found only between product categories, with Tablet product category notably generating the highest

ARP (Figure 3) and Shower gel markedly having the lowest ARNP (Figure 4). However, no significant differences were found between global and local versions of the products. As mentioned in section 4.1.4., differences between product categories with regard to Willingness to Pay were not possible due to standardization of the dependent WTP variable. Still, differences in versions (global vs. local) of product categories were non-significant (similarly to ARP and ARNP). These findings together with the aforementioned results for BPI and WOM were intended to provide for some insights into the variance, which might be product category or version (global/local) related. Truly, some product categories, i.e. Chocolate bar and Tablet, were found to dominate most of the concepts. Moreover, local versions were found to have a more favorable disposition towards BPI and WOM for these two product categories.

5.3. Main Effects of Perceived Brand Globalness

Observing the analyses of main effects of PBG on the proposed outcome variables reveals an intriguing picture. Contrary to most of the literature related suggestions, PBG was not found to significantly impact Brand Purchase Intentions (Akram et al. 2011; Gammoh et al. 2011; Han 1990; Holt et al. 2004; Steenkamp et al. 2003, Moslehpour et al. 2014), nor Word-of-mouth Intentions (Gammoh et al. 2011). The prevalence of Local Identity in the sample might have cancelled out the potential positive effects of high PBG on BPI (Holt et al. 2004; Riefler 2012), but the corresponding affiliation to local brands would be expected to yield significant effects in case of low PBG. Furthermore, the positive linkage between WOM and perceived value, quality and trust (Matos & Rossi 2008), attributes often associated with global brands, was expected to result in PBG significantly and positively influencing WOM, a hypothesis that could not be validated. Explanation for this may well lay in the use of fictitious brands. Dimofte et al. (2008) propose that the aforementioned associations with global brands result from brand equity or familiarity, something that is not present in fictitious brands. Consequently, higher WOM Intentions for global brands could not be observed, and the same cause might be responsible of the lack of BPI Intentions.

It has to be mentioned, that for these two concepts, BPI and WOM, significant impact of PBG was identified, but only for product category Bag and Tablet, respectively. The results for Bag are in line with the findings of chapter 4.1., where the local version, although not significantly, outperformed the global version in BPI (Figure 1). Here,

PBG was found to negatively influence BPI (Constant = 3.21; b = -0.22; t (68) = -1.96; p = .055), with the relationship being marginally significant. It is important to note that this negative relationship between PBG and BPI is the opposite to what was hypothesized. The positive effect of PBG on WOM for the product category Tablet (Constant = 1.74; b = 0.24; t (80) = 2.08; p < .05) supports the corresponding hypothesis. However, it is in contradiction to the findings in chapter 4.1., where the local version was found to significantly differ from global version of Tablet and the slope (Figure 2) indicated a higher WOM for local Tablet. This occurrence might be the result of inconsistencies between the brand's intended designation (global vs. local) and true perceptions of globalness by the consumer. Although the manipulation was checked and confirmed as successful, it could be that different subconscious/subliminal consumer perceptions of brand intended designation discorded the results. Nevertheless, the focus of this MT lies on consumer perception of the brand and not the designation (global vs. local) that it was categorized in. Thus, the finding with regard to consumer perception is in concordance to the proposed hypothesis - PBG has a positive influence on WOM, although such effect was only identified for the Tablet product category.

The effects of PBG on ARP, ARNP and WTP complement the findings of the product category and brand designation specific difference in chapter 4.1. as they were found to be non-significant. Similarly to the results of 4.1., the perceptions of a brand 'globalness' were deemed not significantly influencing ARP, ARNP or WTP. The findings for ARP and ARNP can be linked to the fictitious nature of the brand. Researchers proposed that consumers choose superior (Janis & Mann 1977) or well-known (Simonson 1992) brands in order to lower their anticipated regret for purchasing. However, the fictitious nature of the brands did not allow for comparison, nor did it establish a "well-known" connection. Thus, it seems that the 'globalness' aspect, which was promoted as one of the main extrinsic cues, did not suffice to persuade the consumers of superiority or risk-reducing ability, which would increase the preference global brands (Rosenbloom & Haefner 2009). Similarly, but in the opposite direction, globalness characteristic of the brands did not influence Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing. Whether the brand is perceived as global or local, does not influence the regret that is anticipated by the consumer for not purchasing the brand, thus, this aspect would not impose the feeling on the consumer that he/she made (or will make) a suboptimal decision by not buying it. With regard to WTP, the non-significance of the

main effect of PBG indicates that consumers would not be willing to sacrifice more for a global brand than for a local one and vice versa. The proposed higher quality, prestige or value associations of global brands (Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003) were either not enough to justify a price premium, or these association might not be strong enough in fictitious brands (Dimofte et al. 2008). This is in contrast to findings of Zwinger (2013), who found positive effects of PBG on WTP in fictitious brands. However, only one low-involvement hedonic product category – juice, was used in the study. Furthermore, a non-hypothetical WTP measurement was used, which might generate different results to the hypothetical WTP applied in this study. As indicated by these findings, neither the one low-involvement hedonic product category in this study – Chocolate bar, nor the rest of the product categories (Shower gel, Tablet and Bag), enjoy higher or lower WTP dependent on their perceived brand globalness. However, the findings might well be product, country or even measurement specific.

5.4. Moderating Effects

When the attention is drawn to the moderating effects, which formed the core of this study, one can observe that certain consumer and product characteristics affect the relationship between PBG and the proposed outcome variables. Particularly useful and explanatory was the implemented Johnson-Nyeman technique (1936). It revealed significance zones for the relationship between PBG and outcome variables on different values of moderator variables, which were not identified by the simple slopes analysis (one standard deviation above/under and at mean value of the moderator). Thus, it contributed to revealing boundary conditions, under which PBG operates. This is an important finding as it indicates that the relationship between PBG and the proposed outcome variables, which was found predominantly non-significant in the main effects discussion above, turns significant when certain consumer characteristics are considered. Moreover, most of the effects were observed only in the extremes of the identified moderators.

Before turning to product category specific effects, moderating situations relevant for all product categories will be discussed. One of the identified moderator variables is Local Identity, which was found to influence the relationship between PBG and BPI/WOM. As was mentioned before, Local Identity was more markedly present (see chapter 3.6.)

in the sample, than other consumer characteristics. However, even with this sample's predominantly higher values of Local Identity, PBG was not found to negatively influence BPI, nor WOM. Quite the contrary, Johnson-Neyman significance regions revealed that the relationship between PBG and BPI/WOM starts to turn significant and positive the more the consumer is lower on Local Identity. At the lowest value of Local Identity the effect of PBG on BPI and WOM is positive with the size of 0.37 and 0.46, respectively. It can be concluded that for consumers, who have average or higher Local Identity personalities, PBG has no effect on their purchase or word-of-mouth intentions, in contrast to findings of Zhang & Khare (2009). On the other hand, consumers who have weak local ties and score low on the Local Identity dimension, are affected by the perception of a brand globalness characteristic and express higher intentions with regard to purchase and word-of-mouth, supporting the findings of Gammoh et al. (2011). These results partly support the proposed hypotheses with regard to the moderating effects of LI in PBG and BPI/WOM relationship. However, the hypotheses with regard to moderating effects in PBG to ARP, ARNP and WTP relationship could not be supported. Moreover, the moderating effects of Global Identity could not be found for any of the outcome variables, effectively rejecting the proposed hypotheses with regard to GI. One possible explanation could be that Slovakia is no longer a developing country or emerging market, where GI usually prevails and has more extreme values (Arnett 2002; Holt et al. 2004). Thus, no effect on the far end of the dimension could be found. Still, as the values of GI were normally distributed, one would expect significant moderating effects at least at boundary levels of GI, similarly to LI. However, the absence of the significant interaction can be attributed to the fact that GI simply does not have a strengthening effect with regards to attitudes and decisions on global brands that it was proposed to have. But, it can also be the case that in situations of very low LI, where moderating effects in favor global brands were observed, GI "kicks in" as consumers are proposed to retain both personalities, with one dominating the other (Arnett 2002), effectively resulting in favoring of global brands. This notion is also supported by the findings of Gammoh et al. (2011), who argue that consumers' local identity might become subordinate to their international identity and 'belief in global citizenship'.

Similar results to LI were found for Consumer Ethnocentrism, although restricted to Word-of-Mouth Intentions. For consumers with very low ethnocentric levels (slightly

below mean and further) a significant positive relationship between PBG and WOM could be observed. This is in partly support of the hypothesis and in concordance to the suggestions of literature. Consumers low on ethnocentrism, who do not contemn other cultures or foreign products (Shimp & Sharma 1987), are more likely to spread the word of global brands. However, apparently they do not express stronger purchase intentions, nor the opposite effect is observable for high ethnocentric individuals. This is in line with the findings of Batra et al. (2000), who did not find moderating effects of CET on PBG and outcomes relationships, in contrast to Steenkamp et al. (2003) and others. It might be that in the present, highly interlinked and connected world, ethnocentrism does not represent as strong as factor, as it did several years ago. People might still feel ethnocentric and protective towards their groups and cultures, but the long lasting presence of global appeals in everyday situations, could have made them less offensive towards globalization. Therefore, irrespective of ethnocentric level, consumers do not differ between global and local brands with regard to most of the proposed outcome variables. That is why they are only inclined to be active in word-of-mouth communication, when they have very low ethnocentric personalities and an unknown global brand is presented to them. Another possible explanation is linked to the notion of Dimofte et al. (2008), who argue that the use of real brands in previous research might have biased the results on the basis of preconceptions, brand equity or familiarity. Thus, the previously identified effects of ethnocentrism might be linked to the use of real brands for the study, which could have been identified as threats in the market, but the implicit aversion towards them might be linked to other subliminal factors, than their globalness characteristic. The linkage between PBG and CET could also be a matter of coincidence, as ethnocentric consumers tend to have contradictory notions towards the same global brand because of misconceptions (see example of Samsung in section 2.4.1.1.). Also, it could be that consumers experience problems to articulate the real motives behind the aversion or liking of foreign/global brands.

Turning the discussion to Cosmopolitanism reveals that the notion of Beck (2002) might be an explanation behind the lack of moderating effects of Cosmopolitanism in the study. The author argues that cosmopolitans are often faced with a dilemma, as their aspiration towards world citizenship (Riefler & Diamantopoulos 2009), and subsequently global brands, is rivaled by their appreciation of (cultural) diversity, directing their inclination subliminally towards local brands and their localness. Truly,

the analyses did not find any moderating effect of Cosmopolitanism on the relationships between PBG and proposed outcomes. This is in line with the findings of Riefler et al. (2012), who found no preference of Cosmopolitans for global brands with regards to willingness to buy. Although the concept of Cosmopolitanism has drawn much attention in qualitative research, its contribution in domain of global vs. local brands attitudes remains, from a quantitative empirical perspective, questionable.

The analyses of the moderating effects of the proposed product characteristics (VIS, PINV and UTIL/HED) have shown that only Visibility acts as a moderator in the PBG and outcome variables relationships and only with regard to Willingness-to-Pay. As Visibility of the product categories decreases, the WTP for brands perceived as global increases. The conspicuous consumption (Chiagouris & Mitchell 1997), signaling (Bauer et al. 2007) and status enhancing value (Dawson & Cavell 1996) of global brands was not reflected in the findings, contradicting the propositions of qualitative research on this topic (e.g. Batra et al. 2000; Dimofte et al. 2008, Strizhakova et al. 2008; Zhou & Belk 2004). Although the brand designation differences with regard to WTP (section 4.1.4) where non-significant, the above mentioned finding of moderating effects suggests that consumers are willing to pay more for global brands, but reserve this premium only for products which will be used/consumed privately. In other words, the price premium, which is often associated with global brands, is acknowledged by consumers, but expressed only for weakly visible products.

The moderating effects of Product Involvement have drawn much attention in the literature (Celsi & Olson 1988; Suh & Yi 2006) and it was also proposed that involvement directly influences purchase intention (Prendergast et al. 2012). The underlying notion for the hypotheses was that in low involvement situations, peripheral cues take lead in decision process (Gurhan-Canli & Maheswarana 2000; Lee at al. 2005; Prendergast et al. 2010) and consideration of few extrinsic cues is used to simplify the decision (Erdem & Swait 2004). As fictitious brands were used, it was proposed that with low involvement, the peripheral globalness cues would lead to favorable evaluations, as their global appeal would signal positive associations via a halo effect (Dimofte et al. 2008). However, no such connection could be supported by the findings, as no moderating effects of PINV on the PBG and outcome relationships could be found. The product specific moderating effects PINV, on the other hand, revealed a different picture and will be discussed further below.

The Utilitarian or Hedonic Value of the product was expected to drive preferences for global brands. Interestingly, no moderating effects of this dimension on the relationship between PBG and the proposed outcome variables could be identified. Neither the utilitarian convenience (Alden et al. 1999, Dimofte et al. 2008), in which global brands convey quality and other associations, nor the self-expressional value and psychological gains associated with global brands in hedonic consumption decisions (Dimofte et al. 2008), resulted in preference of global brands with regard to the outcome variables. It can be concluded that whether the product is regarded as utilitarian/hedonic in nature, does not play a role in the preference for global, nor local brands.

5.5. Product category specific moderating effects

When turning the discussion towards product specific moderating effects, one can see that these were identified only for two of the four product categories, namely the Tablet and the Bag. These two product categories differed in Visibility and Utilitarian/Hedonic Value, but both represented the categories with highest Involvement and also of the highest value in monetary terms. This could be one of the explanations, why mostly for these product categories, differences with regard to global vs. local brand preference, could be observed. The higher value reflects in more complex decision process of the consumer, who now takes more information into consideration and also more thoroughly, consequently increasing also the importance of globalness characteristic of brands in the evaluation, which was one of the most dominant cues in the fictitiously created brands. It was also previously mentioned that the main effects of PBG were identified only for these two product categories (section 4.2.). Turning the discussion back to the identified moderating effects, for these two product categories, reveals that the most notable moderator variable was Product Involvement. With decreasing involvement PBG started to significantly and positively influence WOM for Bag and very strongly for Tablet ($b = 0.89$ at lowest PINV). The same positive effect was found for BPI in the Tablet category. The effect on BPI in Bag category supplemented it, as an increase in PINV resulted in significant negative relationship between PBG and BPI, indicating the same trend in the relationship, but at other values of PINV. This explains the finding discussed in chapter 5.1., where PBG was noted to negatively influence BPI (Constant = 3.21; $b = -0.22$; $t(68) = -1.96$; $p = .055$) for the Bag product category. The findings imply that in cases where high value product categories are considered, the globalness characteristic of brands gains on importance, when the consumer is less

involved in these products. It could be argued that their lack of knowledge or expertise in the products, often a result of low involvement, and the gravity of the decision in such high value choices, leads to stronger dependence on peripheral and extrinsic cues, like the globalness characteristic in this study. This is in consonance with the suggestions from literature (Erdem & Swait 2004; Gurhan-Canli & Maheswarana 2000; Lee et al. 2005; Prendergast et al. 2010). The positive associations with global brands (e.g. Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003) and/or the halo effect, they often express (Dimofte et al. 2008), are consequently reflected in higher purchase and word-of-mouth intentions. The previously mentioned insignificant moderating effect of involvement in PBG and outcomes relationships, for all product categories, might have been the work of mitigating influence by the two low involvement products (Shower gel and Chocolate bar). As for such intrinsically low value product categories, the aforementioned moderating effect was not found. Only in cases where a high value product category is considered by the consumer and the consumer expresses low interest in it, is the positive influence of PBG on BPI and WOM present.

Finally, a contradictory finding was revealed for the Tablet product category. Whereas with declining involvement for this category, the relationship between PBG and ARNP became significant and positive, strengthening in effect with each decrease in involvement, the opposite was true for CET, where the positive relationship got stronger as ethnocentrism increased. The first finding is in support of the previously mentioned implications, because consumers are likely to Anticipate Regret for Not Purchasing a global tablet brand in low involvement situations, as it had a higher chance of being the right choice, based on the positive associations and global acceptance (e.g. Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003). Regarding CET it is more problematic to draw conclusions, as ethnocentric consumers are generally averse to global brands. It might be that the flattening of the ethnocentric aversion (as previously mentioned) towards foreign/global brands, was the strongest in connection with Tablets, which as a product category currently enjoys global acceptance and liking of consumers, and therefore even in case where they indicated high ethnocentrism, subliminally they were Anticipating Regret for Not Purchasing a global tablet brand.

6. Conclusion and Implication

Already for a long time are marketing practitioners and academics alike, interested in the rivalry between global and local brands. The brand globalness characteristic, which global brands inherently possess, is implied to give them a certain appeal in contrast to local brands (e.g. Friedman 1990; Steenkamp et al. 2003). Yet, controversy accompanies the research on this topic, as no uniform conclusion can be uttered and contradictory assumptions were made by many authors (Dimofte et al. 2008; Holt et al. 2004; Nguyen et al. 2008; Schuiling & Kapferer 2004; Riefler 2012). The unanimity of findings with regard to global vs. local preferences was one of the reasons for this study.

Most of the studies investigated the motives for preference of global brands, often emphasizing the associations of quality and prestige (Alden et al. 1999; Holt et al. 2004; Johansson & Ronkainen 2005; Steenkamp et al. 2003), but the behavioral consequences of these associations were often neglected. It has to be mentioned that the research on this topic is vast, but most studies were of qualitative nature and/or often provided only self-reported evaluations rather than consequence oriented interpretations. Established concepts like Willingness to pay (e.g. Koschate-Fischer et al. 2012; Sichtmann et al. 2011; Voelckner 2006), or actual ones like Anticipated Regret (Zeelenberg 1999) are well presented in the literature, but their empirical testing is lacking. The insufficient representation of these and other focal concepts is to be alleviated by incorporation into this study, providing an overview of several outcomes: Brand Purchase/Word-of-mouth Intentions (BPI/WOM), Anticipated Regret for (not) Purchasing (ARP/ARNP) and Willingness to Pay (WTP), some of which were not or only insufficiently tested.

Furthermore, several consumer and product characteristics were proposed to influence the impact of the perceived globalness characteristic on consumer preferences, but only few and rather scarcely were empirically tested. The consumer characteristics: Global/Local Identity (GI/LI), Cosmopolitanism and Consumer Ethnocentrism (CET) and product characteristics: Product Involvement, Visibility and Hedonic/Utilitarian dimension, are accounted for in this study, to provide a broadened and more encompassing understanding of their various roles in relationships between PBG and the proposed outcome variables. They are expected to add value to the findings by demonstrating their influence on the aforementioned relationships, something, which is only insufficiently or not at all covered by the current research.

Finally, the majority of the previous research involved the use of real brands to test and observe consumer attitudes, which was criticized by some authors for providing biased findings, as a result of their inherit brand equity, strength or familiarity (Dimofte et al. 2008). Incorporation of fictitious brands into this study, an approach also applied by few other studies, is expected to provide more generalizable results.

6.1. Theoretical Implications

This Master Thesis contributes to the theory on global vs. local brands rivalry in a more quantitative way by examining the influence of PBG on a variety of outcome variables, and at the same time demonstrating the boundary conditions, represented by moderating effects of consumer and product characteristics, under which these influences operate. One of the most important findings is the identified lack of main effects of PBG on the outcome variables BPI, WOM, ARP, ARNP and WTP. The significant effects which were identified only for Bag (BPI) and Tablet (WOM) product categories, in this regard, indicate that PBG might be a factor only for higher value product categories. The proposed higher purchase (Akram et al. 2011; Han 1990; Holt et al. 2004; Steenkamp et al. 2003, Moslehpour et al. 2014) and word-of-mouth (Gammoh et al. 2011) intentions for global brands (irrespective of product category), could not be backed up by the findings. Similarly, no effects were found for the newly introduced outcomes ARP, ARNP and the hypothetical WTP. Truly, it seems that Perceived Brand Globalness is not as important factor in consumer attitudes and decisions, as the usually qualitative research suggests. Furthermore, the contradiction to quantitative research, where Perceived Brand Globalness was empirically tested and resulted in positive attitudes towards global brands, can be traced back to the underlying assumption of Dimofte et al. (2008). The authors argued that the use of real brands with established equity and familiarity influenced the positive association towards global brands. This Master Thesis supports this notion, as the fictitious character of the tested brands most likely contributed to the aforementioned non-significant effects of PBG.

Several implications can be drawn from the moderating results. Firstly, it was revealed that at low levels of Local identity and Consumer Ethnocentrism, PBG actually affects Word-of-mouth Intentions, even Brand Purchase Intentions in case of LI. But the effect diminishes as the level of these consumer characteristics increases. The fact that only at certain ends of these dimensions an effect of PBG can be observed indicates that their

influence is weaker than the literature suggested. Moreover, no preference for local brands could be identified at higher levels of these characteristics. Secondly, moderating effect of Visibility emphasized the importance of this concept in PBG and WTP relationships as it has shown that consumers are willing the pay a price premium for global brands, when it is less likely that the product's use/consumption will be public. Thirdly, the findings that in higher value products (Tablet and Bag), a lower involvement in those categories reflects in increased BPI and WOM, for global brands, indicate that PBG might serve via an halo effect (Dimofte et al. 2008), guiding the preference by simplifying the decision process (Erdem & Swait 2004). Last but not least, lack of involvement in highly modern, valuable product categories (Tablet) might result in higher Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing, when a global brand is considered.

6.2. Managerial Implications

Based on the findings of this Master Thesis, several managerial implications can be drawn. Firstly, managers who wish to position their brands as either global or local are well advised to focus on the symbols, pictograms and texts accompanying the ads, as these cues are likely to form the perceptions of consumers, supporting the findings of Alden et al. (1999). Secondly, the consideration to manipulate the perception of the consumer, regarding the brand's globalness characteristic, is proposed to be less important, as these perceptions are not expected to always, nor strongly influence consumers' attitudes and decisions. However, in cases where the consumers in the market are expected to exhibit weak levels of Ethnocentrism and Local Identity, global brands are likely to enhance purchase and word-of-mouth intentions, the latter being considered very important for a company's success (e.g. Christopher et al. 1991; Reichhald 2003). In these cases companies are advised to emphasize the global appeal of the brands, as consumers' local identity might become subordinate to their international identity and 'belief in global citizenship' (Gammoh et al 2011). Consequently, positioning strategies, like the proposed Global Consumer Culture Positioning strategies by Alden et al. (1999) might be well advised, as they are likely to be effective under the aforementioned market conditions. Thirdly, consumers are willing to pay a premium for global brands, but only for products, which will be consumed/used privately. This supports the use of higher prices for global brands in products intended for home/private use or consumption. Last but not least, when higher

value products are considered, a low involved consumer, most likely lacking knowledge and expertise in those categories, is likely to consider peripheral cues like the brand's globalness characteristic to guide his decisions and thus favor global brands, simply because of their proposed global halo effect (Dimofte et al. 2008). It is therefore advised to emphasize the global brand's acceptance and appeal, for high value products, as it may simplify the decision process of a weakly involved consumer.

7. Limitations and Further Research

It is important to emphasize the limitations of this study and propose possible fruitful areas for further research. One limitation could be the chosen sampling technique, i.e. online sampling, as the web-based surveys are likely to cause a self-selection bias. Still, a rather diverse sample could be collected, containing groups of various ages, educational background and profession. Nonetheless, a more appropriate sampling method could provide for a better sample and more generalizable results.

Furthermore, only four product categories were used in the study. Although the coverage of all introduced product characteristic dimensions has been achieved, more product categories, covering more points on the proposed dimensions of Involvement, Visibility and Utilitarian/Hedonic Value, would lead to sturdier results. It is also very likely, that product characteristic dimensions, which were not measured in this study, might have had an influence on the results.

One important limitation is the fact that the study was conducted only in one country – Slovakia. Thus, it cannot be generalized, whether the same effects would be identified in different countries and settings. Countries with similar economic circumstances might still generate different results, because of different cultural backgrounds.

The above mentioned limitations and also the findings of this study, give a fair amount of guidance for further research. Firstly, the newly introduced outcome variables and product characteristics should be more thoroughly tested. Also, the possible interplay between Country-of-Origin and Perceived Brand Globalness ought to be accounted for. Secondly, it is important to examine the role of product category in global vs. local competition. Similarly, it is also suggested that further research introduces more product categories to clarify, which effects are likely to be only product category specific. Thirdly, researchers are invited to extend the research to other countries, to provide for more generalizable results. Moreover, conduction of similar studies, but using real brands, has to be emphasized, in order to enable comparisons and increase the validity of the results. The findings should be extended by studying not only the effects of globlness, but also related constructs such as localness or local connectedness. A sampling method, which would ensure stronger external validity, ought to be considered, to increase the correctness of the results.

Finally, the contemporary relevance of the globalness characteristic of brands should be reconsidered and tested, to ascertain whether it still influences consumer attitudes/decisions, and if, then under what conditions (consumer or product characteristics). Because in light of the aforementioned findings, it might have well lost some of its 'glitter'.

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Appendix A – Brand advertisements

Figure 9 - Shower Gel – Global Version

Translation:

"worldwide producer of cosmetics for a dynamic lifestyle"

"shower shampoo, hair shampoo, shaving gel"

"for men – for women"

Figure 10 - Shower Gel – Local Version

Translation:
"new"

"slovak producer of cosmetics for a dynamic lifestyle"

"shower shampoo, hair shampoo, shaving gel"

"for men – for women"

"quality brand"

Figure 11 - Chocolate Bar – Global Version

Translation:

"Now also in Slovakia"

"For all choosy tongues"

Figure 12 - Chocolate bar – Local Version

Translation:

"In selected Slovak shops"

"Only for choosy slovak tongues"

From left to right: "Quality brand; Chocolate Kingdom since 1935; Net weight 85g"

Figure 13 - Tablet – Global Version

Translation:

"To find at all good vendors"

Figure 14 - Tablet – Local Version

Translation:
"National price for design 2013"

"first slovak producer of smart devices"

"Only in selected stores in Slovakia and Czech republic"

Figure 15 - Bag – Global Version

Translation:

"Wide range of practical and elegant leather bags"

Figure 16 - Bag – Local Version

Translation:
"real leather"

"Slovak quality since 1963"

"Wide range of practical and elegant leather bags"

Appendix B – Measurement Scales

Table 30 - Summary of Measurement Scales

Perceived Brand Globalness (Based on Steenkamp et al. 2003)
To me, [BRAND] is a *local* brand. / To me, [BRAND] is a *globa*l brand. I don't think consumers abroad use the brand [BRAND]. / I do think consumers abroad use the brand [BRAND]. The brand [BRAND] is only sold in Slovakia. / This brand [BRAND] is sold all over the world.
Utilitarian or Hedonic (Based on Okada 2005)
hedonic product/functional product
Visibility (First item coded by researcher; 2 items based on Wright 2005)
The advertised product is used/consumed predominantly in… (private/public) When the owner ordinarily uses this product, how visible is the product to others? (Not at all visible/Highly visible) How frequently do owners use this product in social settings where it is visible to others? (Never/Always)
Product Involvement (Based on Mittal and Lee 1988;1989)
I have a strong interest in [PRODUCT CATEGORY]. [PRODUCT CATEGORY] is important to me. [PRODUCT CATEGORY] is of high relevance to me.
Attitude towards the Ad
Bad/Good Not authentic/Authentic
Willingness to Pay (Open Question)
What is the maximum amount you were willing to pay for [PRODUCT CATEGORY] of brand [BRAND].

Brand Purchase Intention (Based on Putrevu and Lord 1994)
The next time that I buy [PRODUCT CATEGORY], I will choose [BRAND]. I will consider [BRAND] for my next purchase. It is very likely that I will buy [BRAND] in the future.
Word of mouth (Based on Brown et al. 2005)
In case an acquaintance of mine will consider purchasing [PRODUCT CATEGORY], I will recommend him/her brand [BRAND]. In case a friend of mine will consider purchasing [PRODUCT CATEGORY], I will recommend him/her brand [BRAND].
Anticipated Regret for Purchasing (Based on Zeelenberg 1996;1999)
How much do you think you would regret the purchase of [BRAND]? Not at all/Very much. If I buy [BRAND], I will find out that [BRAND] was not the best choice. If I buy [BRAND], I will regret it in the future. If I buy [BRAND], I expect that it will not be the best alternative.
Anticipated Regret for Not Purchasing (Based on Stone and Wardrop 1989)
I will miss something if I do not buy [BRAND]. I will regret it if I do not buy [BRAND]. If I do not buy [BRAND], I will ask myself, if I have made the right decision.
Consumer Ethnocentrism (Based on Verlegh 2007)
A real Slovak should always buy Slovak products. We should purchase products manufactured in Slovakia, instead of letting other countries get rich off us. Slovak people should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Slovak business and causes unemployment. It is not right to purchase foreign products, because this puts Slovak people out of jobs.

I would always prefer Slovak products, even if I had to pay a premium.
Cosmopolitanism (Based on Riefler et al. 2012)
When travelling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions. I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different Countries. I like to have contact with people from different cultures. I have got a real interest in other countries. Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me. The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity. I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various Countries. Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time. I like watching movies from different countries. I like listening to music of other cultures. I like trying original dishes from other countries. I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.
Global Identity (Based on Tu et al. 2012)
My heart mostly belongs to the whole world. I believe people should be made more aware of how connected we are to the rest of the world. I identify that I am a global citizen. I care about knowing global events.
Local Identity (Based on Tu et al. 2012)
My heart mostly belongs to my local (Slovak) community. I respect my local (Slovak) traditions. I identify that I am a local citizen. I care about knowing local (Slovak) events.

Abstract (in German)

Der anhaltende Kampf zwischen globalen und lokalen Marken hat seit langem die Aufmerksamkeit von Marketing Praktizierenden und Wissenschaftler genossen. Der Schwerpunkt der meisten Studien ist auf den Assoziationen, die mit diesen Marken verbundenen sind. Das Ziel war festzustellen, ob globale oder lokale Marken vom Verbraucher bevorzugt werden. Das im Mittelpunkt stehende Konzept, wahrgenommene Markenglobalität (WMG) nach Steenkamp et al. (2003), wurde häufig gefunden die Einstellungen der Verbraucher sowie ihre Entscheidungen positiv zu beeinflussen. Allerdings haben Einzelstudien bestimmte Eigenschaften wie, Verbraucher, Produkt und Länderspezifika identifiziert, die die Beziehung beeinflussen. Eines der Hauptziele dieser Studie ist es, diese (sowie einige bisher nicht getestete) Eigenschaften in ein Gesamtmodell zu integrieren und einen Überblick über die Randbedingungen zu geben, unter denen sie die WMG – Ergebnisbeziehung beeinflussen. Zur gleichen Zeit werden Ergebnisvariablen, die nicht oder nicht ausreichend untersucht wurden, in das Modell eingebunden. Diese Studie benutzte ein 2 X 4 zwischen Subjekt experimentelles Design: Bestimmung (Global vs. Lokal) und Produktkategorie (Schokoriegel, Duschgel, Tablet und Beutel), für die vier fiktive Marken entwickelt wurden. Eine Online-Befragung wurde in einem vor kurzem als entwickelt eingestuften Land – Slowakei, mit 296 slowakischen Teilnehmern durchgeführt. Mit Hilfe von deskriptiven Statistik, Einzel- und Mehrfachregressionsanalysen zeigte die Forschung (1) Haupteffekte von WMG auf Marke Kauf und Mundpropaganda Absicht nur für zwei Produktkategorien, (2) moderierende Wirkung der lokalen Identität, Ethnozentrismus und Sichtbarkeit (des Produkts) für alle Produktkategorien (3) moderierende Wirkung des Produkt Engagements für zwei Produktkategorien und Ethnozentrismus nur für eine. Diese Studie hat wertvolle Einblicke in die Beziehung zwischen WMG und den vorgeschlagenen Ergebnisgrößen gebracht, wenn fiktive Marken berücksichtigt werden. Außerdem wurden Grenzbedingungen angezeigt, unter denen die WMG und Ergebnisbeziehung signifikant ist, mit Erläuterung der Richtung der Beziehung. Zu guter Letzt wurden die Auswirkungen dargestellt, die wahrscheinlich nur in Produktkategorie spezifischen Kontext auftreten.

Stichwörter: wahrgenommene Markenglobalität, Verbraucher- und Produkteigenschaften, Markenkauf und Mundpropaganda Absichten, erwartete Bedauern über (nicht) Einkauf, Zahlungsbereitschaft, fiktive Marken

CV – Curriculum Vitae

EDUCATION

University of Vienna — **Vienna, Austria**
Master of Science in Business Administration — November 2014

- Majored in International Marketing and Corporate Finance with a grade point average of 1.77 (5-point scale).

Vienna University of Economics and Business — **Vienna, Austria**
Bachelor of Science in Business Administration — July 2011

- Graduated with a grade point average among the top 15% of the students in his cohort.

WORK & LEADERSHIP EXPERIENCE

Accenture Technology Solutions - Slovakia, s.r.o. — **Bratislava, Slovakia**
Project Manager — July 2014 – Ongoing

- Start-up management and support of Financial Integration projects in automotive industry

LB International, s.r.o. — **Bratislava, Slovakia**
Project Manager — September 2008 – March 2014

- Planning, design, production and management of the most successful website for photographers in Slovakia – www.ephoto.sk

- Development, implementation and integration of the successfully affiliated online shop – www.shop.ephoto.sk

- Supervised the process of organizing and promoting of the largest photo-related exhibition in the region – Fotoslovakia from 2009 to 2012.

LB International, s.r.o — **Bratislava, Slovakia**
Project Coordinator — October 2006 – August 2008

- Tasked with planning, project documentation, preparing of reports, management and coordination of change activities, schedule management and closure activities.

SKILLS, ACTIVITIES & INTERESTS

Languages: Fluent in English, German, Slovak; Conversational proficiency in Czech; Beginner in Spanish
MS Office Skills: Proficient in MS Word, Excel, PowerPoint, Outlook and Project; Basic in MS Access
Other Technical Skills: Basic in SAP, PHP, HTML
Activities & Interests: Squash, kart-racing, swimming, finance, literature, film

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