

The Meanings of the Global Brand: A Perspective from the Korean Consumers

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ABSTRACT

As market globalization progresses, it has been observed that an increasing number of multinational companies are reorganizing their brand portfolios, which were different across countries, favoring a global brand strategy. However, despite the increasing adoption of global branding practice in the marketplace, studies on this topic are scarce and current understanding of the topic is limited since studies to date have defined global brands from a supply rather than a demand side perspective; as a result, they have failed to include the most important component of branding, consumers. The objective of the present study lies in exploring the meanings of global brands from the consumer's perspective in a developing country, Korea. This study investigated consumers' thoughts, meanings, and values associated with brand category labels by conducting three studies that combined both qualitative and quantitative approaches in Korea using student samples.

This study confirmed some of the previously identified consumer associations with the global brand category label (e.g., quality and prestige) and provided several new insights. With respect to RQ, the overall research question of this study, the results from three studies showed that consumers perceived similar associations with the global and foreign brand category labels when asked directly (study 1: Likert-type scale). Similarly, when asked to identify exemplars associated with each label (study 2), a good amount of overlap (63 percent) was found between global and foreign brand exemplars. Even so, there were differences in the thoughts, attributes, meanings, and values associated with the global versus foreign brand category label in study 1 and particularly, in study 3. These somewhat contradictory results seem to indicate that the global brand category

label is rather an evolving concept that overlaps with the foreign brand category label. Furthermore, the global brand category label appears to encompass some high-achieving local brands. These results seem to reflect global brands' relative newness compared to other brand category labels, especially in a developing country like Korea where the introduction of global brands is relatively recent. Managerial implications and suggestions for future studies were also discussed.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<u>Abbreviation</u>	<u>Meaning</u>
A	Attributes
AGBr	Attitude toward global brands
AGCC	Attitudes toward global consumer culture
B	Benefits
C	Consequences
CET	Consumer ethnocentrism
CO	Country of origin
FCC	Foreign consumer culture
FCCP	Foreign consumer culture positioning
GCC	Global consumer culture
GCCP	Global consumer culture positioning
HVM	Hierarchical value map
LCC	Local consumer culture
LCCP	Local consumer culture positioning
MEC	Means-end chain
PBG	Perceived brand globalness
V	Value

Chapter 1: Introduction

As market globalization progresses, it has been observed that an increasing number of multinational companies are reorganizing their brand portfolios, which were different across countries, favoring a global brand strategy (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003a). However, despite the increasing adoption of global branding practice in the marketplace, studies on this topic are scarce. The few studies conducted have been descriptive or focused on specific product types (e.g., Gillespie, Krishna, and Jarvis 2002; Hsieh 2002; Moore, Fernie, and Burt 2000), rather than targeting the topic of the global branding itself, leaving some fundamental issues untouched. For example, the very concept of global brand is rather elusive despite the fact that it is considered essential in global marketing strategies (e.g., Hankinson and Cowking 1996; Roth 1992, 1995). There are some agreed upon characteristics of the global brand (e.g., global availability and standardized product formulation) and several brands which are generally accepted as good examples of global brands (e.g., *Coca-Cola and McDonald's*). Recently, several studies have extended the boundaries of the topic by studying the global brand from different perspectives. Their research findings have provided insights to the present study. Alden, Steenkamp and Batra (1999), for example, found evidence suggesting global consumer culture positioning (GCCP) is used in advertising positioning in both developed and developing countries. Batra et al. (2000) found that Indian consumers have positive attitudes toward nonlocal brands from the West and that effect is attributed not only to the quality per se, but also to the higher social status associated with using nonlocal brands. Steenkamp et al. (2003a) found that perceived brand globalness (PBG)

is positively related to perceived brand quality and prestige, which in turn increased consumers' purchase likelihood in the U.S. and Korea.

Despite such advances, there is a potential major limitation in the work on global brands. Studies to date have defined global brands from a supply rather than a demand side perspective; as a result, they have failed to include the most important component of branding, consumers. For example, the very concept of the global brand has so far presumed that global availability is a core component and to a lesser degree, standardization. These are the characteristics that are thought to distinguish the global brand from the rest (e.g., international brands which exported to other countries and considered as the imported brand, the nonlocal, or foreign brand by consumers). While such definitions appear routinely in the academic and managerial marketing literatures, it is not clear that these are the meanings ascribed to "global brands" by consumers. As Ogilvy, considered the father of the modern advertising, notes, the brand is "the consumers' idea of a product" (Blackston 2000). However, to date, consumer meanings associated with brands that are distributed globally and more or less standardized are missing in the investigation. For example, do consumers associate only global availability and standardization with a brand being global? Or are there other meanings related to globalness? Once meanings associated with being global are identified, the extent to which these differ from or complement existing conceptualizations may have significant implications for existing theory and future research as well as for practitioners in advertising and market planning.

For example, it has been suggested that consumers may differentiate between global consumer culture positioning of brands (GCCP), foreign consumer culture

positioning (FCCP), and local consumer culture positioning (LCCP; Alden et al. 1999). However, the theoretical distinctions between GCCP, FCCP, and LCCP have not been empirically tested from a consumer's perspective. Thus, we do not have a clear idea of how consumers perceive these constructs or if they perceive them at all. They may perceive brands as either non-local or local (Batra et al 2000), not using the more complex distinction between global, foreign and local. Alternatively, if they perceive global, foreign and local brands differently, what brand meanings will consumers use to distinguish them?

Consumers, in developing countries in particular, where free market economies are still in early growth stages, may not clearly differentiate between global, foreign and local brands. Supporting this possibility are Eckhardt and Houston (2002) who observed that the brand plays different roles depending on market maturity as well as consumer culture. Needless to say, it is dangerous to assume that the knowledge gained from studies based on consumers in developed countries may be applied to explain consumer behaviors in underdeveloped, developing or less consumerized countries (Maheswaran and Shavitt 2000). Thus, another set of questions involves the extent to which knowledge about global brands researched largely in developed, western nations, applies to emerging economies around the world. For these reasons, the present study focuses on consumers in Korea, which despite a rapidly growing economy, is 54th in the world in terms of GDP per capita (\$8,910) and thus is still considered a developing country (World development indicators 2002).

This dissertation proposes to provide some answers to issues such as these by investigating meanings ascribed to brands associated with “globalness,” “foreignness”

and “localness” from the consumer’s perspective. To this end, four research questions are proposed and addressed in this dissertation:

- RQ:** Does the traditional and managerial conceptualization of how consumers view global brands accurately reflect the meanings consumers associate with global brands?
- RQ1:** Are previously mentioned distinctions between global, foreign, and local brand categories meaningful labels to consumers? Moreover, if the category labels are meaningful, do meanings associated with each label match the theoretical set in the global brand literature and CO literature?
- RQ2:** Given brand category labels, what exemplars and what types of exemplars are generated by consumers when represented with category labels: global, foreign, and local brands?
- RQ3:** Given sets of exemplars for each category label (i.e., global, foreign, and local), what types of meanings are associated for each category label?
- RQ4:** Finally, what are the study’s implications for global brand researchers and managers?

This study is designed to answer the above questions by undertaking an exploratory approach based on Means-End Chain (MEC) theory (Gutman 1982). As noted, Korea is chosen as the site for the current study as a typical country with a developing consumer culture.

Chapter 2: General Brand Concepts

Chapters 2, 3, and 4 discuss numerous concepts related to brands. To help the readers' understanding, a comprehensive listing of brand-related terms is provided as figure 1.

Insert Figure 1 about here

What is a Brand?

According to de Chernatony and Riley (1997), the term, "brand," can mean many different things: a legal instrument, a logo, a company, an identity system, an image in consumers' minds, a product's personality, a relationship between the company and consumers, a value adding tool and an evolving entity, depending on one's point of view (e.g., managerial versus consumer).

One of the authorities in branding research, Aaker (1991, p. 7), provides the most generally accepted definition of the brand:

... a distinguishable name and /or symbol (such as logo, trademark, or package design) intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods or services from those of competitors.

As Aaker (1991) defines, the role of brands is mainly twofold: to identify sellers and to differentiate from competitors (Kohli and Thakor 1997). In actual situations, the two roles may be achieved together at the same time, since identifying the sellers automatically results in differentiating them from the competitors.

If the topic of brands is an important issue nowadays, the reason is very straightforward. Consumers are literally inundated with products that are similar in their attributes (e.g., price, quality, and features) and competition is very intense. Consumers routinely choose one product over another solely based on their brand preferences or sometimes, simply based on their awareness of the brand. Hoyer and Brown (1990) suggested that consumers use brand awareness as a heuristics cue when they are inexperienced with a product. In other words, the brand reduces consumers' search costs as they use it as cognitive cues for information processing; in this way, brands are essentially used as a form of mental shorthand (Alba and Hutchinson 1987). In addition, the brand reduces the consumer's perceived level of risk (Doyle 1990) and signals the quality of the product (Grace and O'Cass 2002; Steenkamp et al. 2003a).

While the previous discussion approaches the brand from the perspective of marketing managers, whose goal lies in building and maintaining strong brands, another group of researchers has been interested in the interaction between consumers and brands. It has been well acknowledged that the brand plays symbolic as well as functional roles. Gardner and Levy's (1955) seminal paper is credited with bringing attention to the brand's symbolic role and the concept of brand image or the gestalt of the brand. Gardner and Levy (1955, p. 35) write:

A brand name is more than the label employed to differentiate among the manufacturers of a product. It is a complex symbol that represents a variety of ideas and attributes. It tells the consumers many things, not only by the way it sounds (and its literal meaning if it has one) but, more important, via the body of association it has built up and acquired as a public object over a period of time.

Brands are known to be used as symbolic resources for the construction and maintenance of identity (McCracken 1986; Mick and Buhl 1992). McCracken (1986, 1988) posits that the symbolic role of brands is closely associated with cultural meaning systems, which explains how brands acquire cultural and social meanings from a culturally constituted world and pass them on to consumers. He suggests that brands have strong influence over consumers because they add value to the products by adding cultural meanings to the consumer good (McCracken 1988, 1993). Hirschman (1986) also posited a similar process while emphasizing the role of consumers.

Several researchers investigated the role of self-image in brand evaluation and choice situations and hypothesized that congruence between self and brand image would lead to more favorable evaluation and more frequent choice (e.g., Dolich 1969). However, applying the concept of interpersonal relationship, Fournier (1998) suggests that consumers' relationships with their favorite brands, which grow and evolve over time, are rather based on the perceived goal compatibility between the brand and the consumer, instead of mere similarity between brand attributes and consumer's perceived brand images. That is, consumers form relationships with certain brands because those brands help them achieve their life goals by providing meaning to their lives. She notes that consumers choose lives, not brands.

Escalas and Bettman (2003) investigated the process of self-brand connection and the influence of reference groups. They found that the association between the brand and the reference group influences the connection of self and the brand. The degree to which an individual develops a self-brand connection is contingent on the association strength between the reference group and the brand and the connection strength between the

reference group and the individual's self-concept. Escalas (2004) proposed that narrative information processing could enhance this self-brand connection, because the narrative processing, or story-like information-processing format, simulate consumers' natural interpretation of everyday experience.

Developing the brand relationship concept further, Muniz and O'Guinn (2001) suggested that consumers who share admiration for certain brands form a brand community, which exhibits traditional markers of community. Three traditional markers of community, for example, "shared consciousness, rituals and traditions, and a sense of moral responsibility" have been observed among consumers of admired brands (p. 412).

Brands from a Managerial Perspective

The study of the brand and its related concepts has been one of the most researched topics in marketing, as the importance of having well-known brand names becomes heightened in this global era. Brands are intangible in their nature; however, companies are known to pay substantial amounts of money to acquire proven branded products (Aaker 1991). It is estimated that the most valuable brand in the world, *Coca-Cola*, is worth \$83.8 billion, which is 59 percent of its market capitalization (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000). Assigning a monetary value to intangible brands is justifiable as developing a new brand takes an enormous amount of time and resources and success in the development of a new brand is not guaranteed (Montameni and Shahrokhi 1998). For example, Kohli and Thakor (1997) estimated that it would cost a company \$400 million to produce a successful brand. Given the importance of the brand to management, it is no surprise that there are numerous studies covering brand issues and its value to the

management (e.g., brand equity, brand loyalty, brand positioning, and brand extension). How to build and maintain strong brand value and to achieve brand equity are topics that have received extensive attention recently (e.g., Aaker 1991, 1996; Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000; Das 1998; Keller 1993). In the following section, brand issues will be discussed.

Brand Equity

According to Aaker (1991, p.15), brand equity is:

A set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customer.

Aaker (1991, 1996), who is credited with developing the model of brand equity, suggests that strong brands have high brand equity by having high brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, and positive brand associations from consumers. Brand loyalty is considered to be the core of brand equity (Aaker 1991) and has been investigated extensively due to its important role in consumers' brand choices (Sheth and Park 1974). Brand associations are information nodes linked to the brand node in memory that contain the meanings of the brand for consumers (Keller 1998), and are posited as the process by which consumers create brand images, or meanings (Aaker 1991).

Another definition by the Marketing Science Institute describes brand equity as an intangible extra, which helps the company who owns the brand (Leuthesser 1988):

The set of associations and behavior on the part of a brand's customers, channel members and parent corporation that permits the brand to earn greater volume or greater margins than it could without the brand name.

While previous definitions seek to understand brand equity from the perspective of business, customer-based brand equity puts more emphasis on the consumers' role in the concept. Keller (1983, p. 8) defined it as "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand." This approach is similar to Ogilvy's understanding of brand as "the *consumer's idea* of a product" (Blackston 2000). Blackston (1995, 2000) also emphasized the role of consumers' perception of the brand in the brand equity concept and suggested including consumers as active participants in the creation of equity. He explained that consumers' evaluation of a brand is affected by consumers' perception of the brands' attitude toward them.

While most research on brand equity is based on the cognitive psychological tradition, Erdem and Swait (1998) introduced the concept of brand equity as a signaling phenomenon by applying the information economics framework. They emphasized that due to the imperfect and asymmetrical nature of consumers' information structure, consumers rely on the brand as a credible market signal.

Brand Extensions

As discussed, brands are a valuable asset for companies and for some businesses brands are their primary capital. Thus, it is not surprising that businesses have tried to stretch the value of their brands by extending it to other products (Tauber 1988). Aaker and Keller (1990) proposed consumers' evaluations of brand extensions are based on the extent of the transferability of the original brand's skills/assets to the extended brand, the quality of the original brand and how it can complement the original and extension brand, and the perceived difficulty of making the extension brand. Recently Bottomley and Holden (2001) empirically tested the generalizability of Aaker and Keller's (1990)

hypotheses and found supportive results. In addition, most brand extension studies confirm that brand affect and product category play important roles in how consumers evaluate brand extensions (Broniarczyk and Alba 1994).

While initial studies tried to identify the brand and product related variables in brand extensions, more recent studies on brand extension are shifting the focus to consumers. By conducting three experiments, Zhang and Sood (2002) examined the differences of brand extension evaluations between adults and children, indicating that 11-12-years olds evaluate the extension using surface cues compared to adults who rely more on deep or category similarity cues. Developing the consumer-brand relationship concept by Fournier (1998) further, Park and Kim (2001) investigated the role of the relationship in brand extension and reported that it influenced consumers' evaluation regardless of similarity to the original brand. Zhang and Sood's (2002) study, which investigates the relationship between consumers' cognitive development and the brand extension evaluation, and Park and Kim's (2001) study, which examines the role of relationship between consumers and the brand on the brand extension evaluation, reaffirm the importance of consumers as the major component of brand equity. It is expected that as managers become aware of the value of the market tested brand, extensions of existing brands will increase over time.

Brand and National Associations

Since the 1960s, with increased international trade, marketing academics became interested in consumers' reactions to product nationality. The country-of-origin ("made-in") effect (CO) (Han and Terpstra 1988; Han 1989) and consumer ethnocentrism (CET) (Shimp and Sharma 1987) are examples of studies in this area. Although the majority of

CO and CET studies used product nationalities instead of brand nationalities as their research variable, several studies operationalized brand nationalities (e.g., O'Cass and Lim 2002a, 2002b; Supphellen and Rittenburg 2001), indicating that the findings can be extended to the current study of brands.

Previous CO effect studies indicate that the CO of products affects consumers when they evaluate product attributes (Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka 1985). Generally speaking, consumers in developed countries evaluate their own country's products more favorably than imported products (Kaynak and Cavusgil 1983) and products from developing countries tend to be evaluated negatively (Bilkey and Nes 1982; Cordell 1992). Han (1989) tested two alternative mechanisms of CO and concluded that consumers either use the CO effect as a halo or as a summary construct depending on their familiarity with a country's products. Testing the effect of culture on the CO effect, Zhang (1996) reported that products from culturally similar countries are not necessarily perceived more positively, compared with products from culturally distant countries, but with positive CO.

The CET was originally introduced to explain "the belief held by American consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign made products" (Shimp and Sharma 1987), but has been successfully applied to explain consumers' beliefs in other countries (e.g., studying Korea, Steenkamp et al. 2003a; and for Singapore, O'Cass and Lim 2002a, 2002b).

Although previous studies on CO and CET have helped researchers to understand consumers' beliefs and behaviors toward nonlocal products/brands, the current trend of market globalization brings new challenges in nationality studies. Some claim that,

simple knowledge of “made-in-xxx country” does not seem to be capable of explaining much nowadays, since more and more multinational companies produce and assemble products in multiple countries, which include both developed and developing countries, making simple concepts of product nationality almost obsolete (Lim and O’Cass 2001). However, other studies have reported that the CO effect is still an equally salient and enduring evaluation factor compared with the global brand (Tse and Gorn 1993) and the effect of the global brand may not outweigh the CO effect if the product is sourced in a less developed country. A recent study introduced a more specific “country-of-manufacture” effect instead of the general CO effect (Hui and Zhou 2003). Several studies have recently broadened the research horizons beyond simple product nationality. Instead of relying on the product as a focal criterion, more research involves the perceived brand nationality or the brand origin. For example, Thakor and Kohli (1996, pp.27-28) studied brand origin, which is a broader concept:

We define brand origin as the place, region or country to which the brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers. We note that this may differ from the location where products carrying the brand name are manufactured, or are perceived by consumers to be manufactured.

Recently the effect of brand origin in general rather than the specific CO has been empirically tested. Testing Thakor and Kohli’s (1996) proposition, Lim and O’Cass (2001) reported that consumers indeed utilize the brand origin concept, instead of CO in their product evaluation. In a following study, O’Cass and Lim (2002a, 2002b) distinguished Western and Eastern brands as two brand origins. Alden and colleagues (1999, p. 77) also addressed this issue using a broader concept of perceived brand nationality. They suggested the following brand positioning categories.

- Global consumer culture positioning (GCCP): a strategy that identifies the brand as a symbol of a given global consumer culture
- Foreign consumer culture positioning (FCCP): a strategy that positions the brand as a symbol of a specific foreign consumer culture
- Local consumer culture positioning (LCCP): a strategy that associates the brand with local cultural meanings

Another current research stream studies the effect of nonlocal (foreign) product/brand, particularly in developing countries. This line of research is a direct extension of the CO and the CET studies. Chung and Pysarchik (2000), for instance, tested Lee's (1990) modified Fishbein behavioral intentional model on the effect of brand nationality on Korean consumers by dividing brands into domestic versus imported. Contradicting Lee and Green's (1991) findings, Chung and Pysarchik (2000) found that attitude was the most significant antecedent and more powerful than either group conformity or face saving. Furthermore, one of the Confucian values tested, group conformity was discovered to work against purchasing the domestic product. That is, Korean consumers who perceived more group conformity pressure had a less positive attitude toward buying a domestically branded VCR. This phenomenon was attributed to the more individualized lifestyle of Korean consumers resulting from recent economic development (Chung and Pysarchik 2000). However, this result is consistent with other studies that found positive affect toward nonlocal products and brands despite the influence of CET. For example, Batra and colleagues (2000) found that Indian consumers see the CO as indicating a brand's desirability for symbolic, status-enhancing reasons (status preference), in addition to suggesting overall quality. As Douglas and Isherwood

(1976) argued, consumers choose products and brands for non-utilitarian functions, such as symbolic acquisition and communication of social distinctions (e.g., status). It has been observed that such concern with status display is even more important in developing countries, where interpersonal relationships are of prime importance (Ger, Belk, and Lascu 1993) and where social status fluctuates fast and often because of economic transition (Belk 1988).

While foreign or multinational origin products/brands are generally preferred in developing countries as they are considered superior in quality, it is not rare that in some cases domestic brands have had considerable success. For example, in China as local companies gain more experience competing with multinational brands, domestic brands gain sales volume (Ewing et al. 2002). Although this change may be partly attributed to utilitarian reasons, such as the lower costs, as well as a well-established distribution network and products that meet local demand (Ewing et al. 2002), it might be that the novelty of nonlocal brands eventually wears off (Belk 2000; Ger et al. 1993). In the following section, globalization and its effect on consumers and consumer behavior will be discussed.

Chapter 3: Global Brands

While not a totally new concept, global brand issues have become increasingly popular both as an area for academic study and as a marketing strategy, as more and more multinational companies develop global brands. Since global brands are byproducts of the globalization process, understanding globalization is a critical first step to understanding global brands.

What is Globalization?

Globalization, which is less commonly known as transnationalization, has become one of the most hotly debated and discussed concepts in various academic areas since Marshall McLuhan announced the arrival of the global village (1964). Despite, or due to the lively debates, we are far from reaching a concrete understanding of the issue and systematic research of the subject has proven difficult. Even the existence of globalization has been challenged (e.g., Browne 1999; de Mooji 2000; Rugman 2001; Wind 1986) and the very concept of globalization has been considered poorly defined (Crane 2002). Pieters (1995) attributed this difficulty to the fact that globalization is touched by many disciplines, such as economics, international relations, sociology, cultural studies, and history and suggested that globalization should be understood as a multidimensional process. Considering its multidimensionality, it is no surprise that there are many definitions of the concept. Globalization has been referred to as:

All those processes by which the peoples of the world are incorporated into a single world society, global society (Albrow 1990, p. 9).

The rapidly developing and ever-dispersing network of interconnections and interdependences that characterize modern social life (Tomlinson 1999, p. 2).

Interdependence and mutual awareness among economic, political, and social units in the world (Guillen 2001).

A process fueled by, and resulting in, increasing cross-border flows of goods, services, money, people, information, and culture (Held et al. 1999, p.16).

Regardless of the differences, these definitions share a common ground. First, globalization refers to interdependency and interconnections among nations and individuals. Second, although there are some debates regarding the origin of globalization (e.g., Guillen 2001), it is generally accepted that the development of technology in the 20th century has expedited the process of globalization and brought people closer (Hannerz 1996). As a result, it is argued that “(globalization is) leading to greater interdependence and mutual awareness (reflexivity) among economic, political, and social units in the world, and among actors in general” (Guillen 2001, p. 236), and “globalization fundamentally transforms the relationship between places we inhabit and our cultural practices, experiences and identities,” creating deterritorialization or displacement (Tomlinson 1999).

Globalization and Consumers: Global Consumer Culture (GCC)

One of the outcomes of globalization is the emergence of global culture or “world culture” (Hannerz 1992). Regarding its characteristics, Hannerz (1992, p. 250) claimed that global (transnational) cultures today are usually, “extensions or transformations of the cultures of Western Europe and North America.” However, several studies have

argued that equating globalization with Americanization or Westernization is overstated (e.g., Holton 2000; Robertson 1995). Instead of likening globalization with cultural invasion, researchers posit that global culture is a hybridization of what is global and what is local which mutually reinforce each other (Holton 2000) and create something different from either of its parts. This discussion of global culture naturally leads to the concepts of global consumers.

Theodore Levitt is credited as the first advocate of the concept of global marketplace and global consumers (1983). He argued that the development of technology and global media creates a homogenized market segment on a global scale, giving an advantage to global marketers who are capable of standardizing their products for cost-effective mass production. According to his argument, consumers all around the world are becoming homogenized in terms of desiring quality products at reasonable prices no matter where they reside. Companies that can satisfy that request will be successful on a global scale as the whole world will be their marketplace. In short, Levitt introduced the concept of the globally homogenized consumer segment, global market or global consumer segment.

Global consumers are identified as individuals around the world, whose cultural, social, and other differences are becoming less significant in terms of their consumption (Keillor, D'Amico and Horton 2001). Holton (2000) argued that consumers prefer global products for their utilitarian convenience as well as the glamour attached to them. There is some consensus among academics and practitioners regarding the emergence of homogenized market segments across national boundaries although it is rare to see absolute standardized offerings of goods and services without a certain level of

modification to specific markets. It has been suggested that the global market does not necessarily imply consumer homogeneity. De Mooji (2000) argues that globalization has brought more diverse consumption patterns across countries despite the fact the income gap among countries gets narrower. In their research with Turkish consumers, Sandiker and Ger (2002) suggest that multiple modernity or postmodern plurality is reflected in diverse consumption behavior.

One of the important aspects of global consumers is the existence of their shared culture, or global consumer culture (GCC), which is considered to be the fundamental part of the global culture (Alden et al. 1999; Sklair 1994). Sklair (1994) even argues that the ideology of globalization teaches individuals to become and identify themselves as consumers and the existence of consumer identity is necessary for the global political-economy system (Jussaume 2001). Appadurai (1990) proposes that global cultural flow (e.g., ethnoscaples, mediascapes, technoscapes, financescapes, and ideoscapes) enables global consumers to create a common territory full of shared consumption meanings and symbols. Specific market segments, such as global youth population, are supposed to have a “shared habitat of meaning” (Hannerz 1996) and a similar consumption pattern (Parmar 2002). Among the shared symbols (e.g., music, clothing, food, etc.) the brand is one of the important global symbols, which influences global consumers’ lives and identities by signaling globalness (Alden et al. 1999; Halstead 2002).

While GCC assumes a shared meaning in consumptions or global “Consumptionscapes” (Ger and Belk 1996), it should not be confused with homogenized taste for consumption. Although globalization offers a cornucopia of products of similar imagery and symbols, each consumer may choose totally different products for the same

reasons and meanings, or choose the same product for different reasons and meanings.

For example, even one of the most enduring symbols of market globalization,

McDonald's, is credited with bringing new means of consumption. It has been observed that

East Asian consumers have quietly, and in some cases stubbornly, transformed their neighborhood *McDonald's* into local institutions (Watson 1997).

The localized meaning of *McDonald's* also has been observed in other studies (Dirlik 2001; Eckhardt and Houston 2002; Ritzer 1993, 2001). For example, Eckhardt and Houston (2002) observed that *McDonald's* typical arrangements in its restaurants (e.g., fixed tables and chairs which are designed for small groups and refusing to serve alcohol) are different from the traditional Chinese dining experience (e.g., large tables and serving alcohol) and that these differences influence how Chinese consumers are likely to perceive the proper occasions and situations for visiting *McDonald's*. The importance of local meanings in GCC has been demonstrated in Wee's (1999) and Kjeldgaard's (2002) empirical studies in Singapore and Denmark, respectively, which show that even teenage consumers, who are generally considered more globalized than the adult population, are heavily influenced by local culture. Youths seem to navigate between global and local to find their niche in evolving world.

What is a Global Brand?

While certain brands are generally considered as good examples of the global brand (e.g., *Coca-Cola* and *McDonalds*), there are no clearly and formally agreed upon definitions and characteristics of the global brand among researchers and practitioners.

Instead, many different definitions of the global brand are provided and used interchangeably, creating some confusion. For example, Aaker and Joachimsthaler define global brands as (2000, p. 306) "...Brands with a high degree of similarity across countries with respect to brand identity, position, advertising strategy, personality, product, packaging, and look and feel." According to Hankins and Cowking (1996, p. 3), the global brand, "offers consumers across the world, a consistent (i.e., standardized) proposition and the same product formation."

Without a universally accepted definition, most practitioners use several characteristics to delineate the concept. For example, several industry sources (see table 1) periodically provide the global brand lists based on their own criteria, such as, "whether or not the brand has a global geographic presence" and "whether or not the brand generates a certain percentage (e.g., five to 20 percent) of sales outside its home country."

Insert Table 1 about here

Several definitions of the global brand suggest that while academics consider the term "global brand" to imply a standardized product/branding approach, practitioners are more interested in global availability of the brand/product (Anonymous 2001; Khermouch 2002). More problematic than this disparity, there are some contradictions in the application of the concept of the global brand in the real marketplace. Some so-called global brands, for example *Pepsi-Cola* and *McDonald's*, are known to modify their products to satisfy local preferences. While the flavor of *Pepsi-Cola* remains similar

throughout the globe, its package or container has been modified occasionally to cater the local aesthetics (Czinkota and Ronkainen 2000). *McDonald's*, for instance, developed Maharaja Mac, which uses mutton patties instead of beef in India and rye-bread burgers in Finland (Czinkota and Ronkainen 2002). The level of similarity, therefore, is often debated. Reflecting this situation, many global brand studies are rather evasive when it comes to defining “global brand” or measuring a brand’s globalness per se (e.g., Gillespie et al. 2002; Hsieh 2001; Moore et al. 2000).

Several studies have investigated consumer attitudes toward global brands. Extending Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis’ (1986) normative model of the brand image, Roth (1992) investigated the effectiveness of depth versus breadth strategies for global brand image management. Depth strategies rely only on one image aspect out of three image components-functional, symbolic, and sensory-while breadth strategies rely on plural aspects from the three. He found that although depth brand image strategies generally yielded better market performance, several market characteristics (e.g., country’s level of economic development, cultural context, and the competitiveness of the marketplace) affected the effectiveness of brand image strategies. In a second study, Roth (1995) investigated the extent to which managers customized or standardized brand images according to cultural variations (i.e., Hofstede’s four cultural dimensions 2001) and the level of socioeconomic development. While managers could enhance their brand image strategies using cultural and socioeconomic information, he reported that this information was underutilized.

Two recent studies by Steenkamp and his colleagues are particularly noteworthy due to their relevance to the present study. Steenkamp et al. (2003a) investigated the

mechanism of value creation of global brands and found that consumers tend to relate perceived brand globalness with high quality and prestige and consequently these brands may improve the likelihood of consumer purchase. Following up on the previous study by Alden et al. (1999), Steenkamp et al. (2003b) reported that consumers with positive attitudes toward global consumer culture (AGCC) have a positive attitude toward global brands (AGBr).

While the previous discussion of the global brand examined the effect of global branding strategies, there is a research stream that examines the effect of brand *name*, as it can take on “its own meanings and presence,” separate from physical constraints (Meyers-Levy 1989). Focusing on the globalization of brand, several studies have been conducted to find the proper formula for introducing a brand name from one country to another, which can be considered as globalizing or internationalizing a brand name. Sherry and Camargo (1987) explored the Japanese practice of using, and sometimes misusing, English words (loanwords) in the product labeling and posited that the use of loanwords may be explained by Japanese consumers’ desire for Japanization of foreignness and for maintaining tradition in the changing world. The perceived foreignness effect of the brand is not limited to Japanese consumers. Further developing the foreign brand, which is defined as “the strategy of spelling or pronouncing a brand name in a foreign language,” Leclerc, Schmitt and Dubé (1994, p. 263) reported that a brand name’s perceived CO, as operationalized with French pronunciation, affected consumers’ hedonic evaluation of the brand. Even the consumers’ direct experience did not attenuate the brand’s CO effect.

Comparing English and Chinese brand names of Fortune-500 companies, Francis, Lam, and Walls (2002) found that the strategy of the majority of firms is to localize their brand names and use transliteration, which is the translation of words in one language into corresponding characters of another language with or without consideration of the meaning. Hong, Pecotich, and Shultz (2002) also recommend use of transliteration (they prefer the term “phonetic translation”) for the brand name translation from English to Chinese, especially when introducing an unknown brand, whereas for existing strong brands (i.e., global brands), retaining the original name in the original language can be considered. That is, for some brand names like *Coca-Cola*, it is expected that Chinese consumers may recognize English alphabets without Chinese transliteration.

In a series of studies, Schmitt and his colleagues investigated the linguistic impact of the brand name on consumers’ cognitive processing (Han and Schmitt 1996; Pan and Schmitt 1996; Schmitt and Pan 1994; Schmitt, Pan, and Tavassoli 1994; Zhang and Schmitt 2001). They compared Chinese and English brand names as perceived by Chinese consumers. Since Chinese is ideographic or logographic (i.e., each character has meaning as well as phonetic value), Chinese brand names are perceived differently from English, which is phonemic (i.e., each character has a phonetic value only). They found that Chinese consumers tend to rely on visual processing when they recall information, rather than phonological memory (Schmitt, Pan, and Tavassoli 1994). In addition, they rely more on visual (shape of the characters) and semantic (meaning of the characters) cues for processing Chinese words and more on phonetic (sound of the characters) cues for processing English words (Zhang and Schmitt 2001). Additionally, Chinese brand attitudes are influenced by the match between the meaning of the visual cues (i.e.,

whether the brand font is considered masculine or feminine) and brand association, while English brand name attitudes are affected by the match between phonetic aspects of the brand and the brand association (Pan and Schmitt 1996). In sum, it is suggested that the difference in the language structure may affect consumers' cognitive processing and in turn, the processing of the brand name.

Figure 2 summarizes potential characteristics of global brands derived from the managerial and consumer literatures reviewed. Therefore, while one may assume that consumers ascribe similar meanings to global brands, the absence of research on this topic makes this assumption problematic. Furthermore, the nature, importance, and possibility of an entirely different set of meanings argue for more in-depth study.

Insert Figure 2 about here

How to Study Global Brands?

Ever since Levitt (1983) declared the arrival of market globalization, the globalized market has been one of the most ardently debated issues in marketing studies. It is safe to assume that two contrasting views predicting two possible outcomes of market globalization, homogenization versus diversification of consumer tastes, will not be resolved any time soon, but will be an enduring issue in marketing (e.g., De Mooji 2000; Duncan and Ramaprasad 1995; Guillen 2001). As seen in figure 3, global marketing strategies can be divided into three approaches: homogenization (standardization) approach (Levitt 1983); nonhomogenization (adaptation or localization)

(Kotler 1986), and a mixture of standardization and adaptation, tailored to the local market (globalization) (Kanso and Nelson 2002).

Insert Figure 3 about here

From the perspective of global branding, homogenization may lead consumers to perceive the global brand as more similar to the meanings of the global brand as created in the West. This is due to the fact that globalization is primarily propelled by Western capitalism and Western cultural values (Hannerz 1992). Nonhomogenization may lead consumers to become more sensitive and keen toward the variations of brands and their meanings (de Mooji 2000). As shown in Duncan and Ramaprasad (1995) and Kanso and Nelson (2002), a pure homogenization or localization approach is rather unrealistic in real practice, thus, a compromise of the two is more feasible even in this time of an ever expanding global market.

Therefore, even if marketers position a brand as global, consumers in different regions and with different cultural backgrounds will create idiosyncratic meanings. This position does not claim that consumers do not have the concept of the global brand. It rather means that the concept of the global brand includes some universal and some unique meanings. Therefore, what the global brand means must be re-conceptualized including contextual factors from the local culture, particularly in developing countries where a relatively limited amount of consumer research has taken place (Maheswaran and Shavitt 2000).

This logic is similar to the etic/emic issue in cross-cultural studies. Etic refers to the general aspects of people's life that are universally found, whereas emic refers to the unique aspects found in local cultures. What is emic or etic in one culture is answered only through the comparisons of that concept in different cultures. Therefore, to be genuinely global in its concept, the global brand should include etic parts of the meanings as well as emic parts. The task of understanding the meanings of the global brand should be achieved through studying what the global brand means to local consumers.

Understanding the meanings of global brands from the consumers' perspectives will help marketers to position and promote their products in a more effective way. In addition, as previously discussed, consumers are not just passive recipients of brand images and meanings fed by marketers; they are known to create their own idiosyncratic meanings of brands based on their own experiences and expectations (Eckhardt and Houston 2002; Hirschman and Thompson 1997).

Chapter 4: Perspectives on Meaning

Earlier theories in psychological research regarded meaning as a by-product of the perceptual process (e.g., Wundt), but more recently meaning is understood as an integral part of how humans interact with their environment (Friedmann 1986). Hirschman (1980) posited that every individual reacts differently to the same marketing stimuli as different (subjective) meanings are created due to affective distortion in the perceptual process. She hypothesized that meanings associated with a stimulus consist of several layers: tangible product attributes as the core meaning (the most shared meaning), common cultural intangible attributes as the next layer, followed by subcultural intangible attributes and idiosyncratic intangible attributes. Shared meaning among consumers increases as one moves to each outer layer.

It has been posited that meaning can be categorized into three types: lexical meaning, philosophical meaning, and psychological meaning (Friedman 1986; Hirschman 1980; Szalay and Deese 1978). Lexical meaning refers to the conventional relationship between the words and reference object that the word represents. For example, the word “ball” refers to a round object that can be used for play and there is a conventional relationship between the word and the object. On the other hand, philosophical meaning addresses the rational and abstract relationship between the concepts and references. Meaning is the factual knowledge in this context (Hirschman 1980). Discussed later in more detail, psychological meaning emphasizes the consumers’ interpretation of given stimuli (Kleine and Kernan 1991)

Semiotics offers another perspective in meaning. It has been almost half a century since Levy (1959) noted the symbolic nature of consumption, however, it was Mick’s

(1986) plea for using a semiotic approach in consumer research that brought more attention to the study of meaning, semiotics. Broadly speaking, as the study of the process of how reality acquires meaning, semiotics is the investigation of sign, symptoms, or codes inherent in all types of communication (Clark et al. 1998). Semiotics analyzes the structures of meaning-producing events, both verbal and nonverbal. Semiotics takes two forms: (1) a general semiotics that seeks to answer, “What is the nature of meaning?” and (2) a specific semiotics that asks, “How does our reality--words, gestures, myths, products/services, theories--acquire meanings?” (Ransdell 1977). Most research in consumer behavior and in marketing tends to be the latter as the former belongs more to philosophical investigation.

To address such questions, semioticians investigate the sign systems or codes essential to all types of communication for the latent rules that facilitate sign production and interpretive responses (Mick 1986). Mick (1986) outlines the roots of semiotics in the work of Swiss linguist de Saussure and the American philosopher Peirce although the lineage goes back to earlier Greek philosophers. de Saussure is credited as the father of modern semiotics, however, it is Peirce who further developed semiotics as a discipline (Mick 1986). Peirce’s semiotics is a philosophy anchored in the real world, as indicated by the essential role of objects therein. Moreover, it stresses the importance of people, social institutions, and culture through the notion of “interpretant.” He categorized signs into three types (iconic, indexical, and symbolic), based on relationships with their objects. Iconic signs signify by physical resemblance and indexical signs by physical association with what they signify, while symbolic signs are associated by mere conventions or agreements (Mick 1986). The sign-interpretant relationship in semiosis

was also a major focus of his work. Influenced heavily by Kant, he held that all knowledge and meaning is derived. For him, cognition is a process of knowledge, meaning is generated through signs and it takes three forms, depending on their relations to the interpretant (i.e., deduction, induction, and abduction). For example, abduction is thought to play an important role when people make inferences from their environment and about other people.

Semiotics is important in consumer research because consumers behave based on the meanings they ascribe to marketplace stimuli and not only based on utilitarian motivations. Mick (1997) noted that the use of semiotics in consumer research is neither a theory nor a method, but a refined approach to understanding the meanings of some ideas or phenomena. However, despite Mick's (1986) call for a more rigorous approach when applying semiotics, most consumer research investigating meanings has failed to follow the semiotics traditions. There are only a few studies that have claimed to use semiotics either as a research framework or as a methodology (e.g., Clark et al. 1998; Kehret-Ward 1988; Nöth 1988; Solomon 1988). Although symbolism studies in consumer behavior are closely related to semiotics, they tend to be descriptive in nature and do not closely follow the semiotic research paradigm.

Consumer scholars have been particularly interested in psychological meaning, since the nature of consumer behavior cannot be fully explained by either conventional or rational understanding (Friedmann 1986). Psychological meaning is defined as:

...a person's subjective perception and affective reactions to stimuli...It characterizes those aspects that are most salient in an individual's reactions and describes the degree and directions of affectivity (Szalay and Deese 1978, p. 2).

It is similar to a more contemporary definition offered by Kleine and Kernan (1991, p. 312) who refer to meaning as, “a perception or interpretation of an object, which arises from the interaction of individual, object, and context, and is inherently symbolic, subjective, psychological, and perceptual.” In addition, Friedmann and his colleagues (Friedmann 1986; Friedmann and Lessig 1986; Friedmann and Zimmer 1988) offered another definition of psychological meaning based on previous work (e.g., Osgood 1952; Szalay and Deese 1978). In their study of meaning’s role in advertising, they define psychological meaning as, “A bundle of distinctive components which represent a person’s understanding and evaluation of the stimulus, his/her direct and/or vicarious experiences, images, feelings and associated behavioral responses that have accumulated over time” (Friedmann and Lessig 1986; see also Friedmann and Zimmer 1988).

Given the importance of psychological meaning for understanding consumers’ relationships with products and brands (Friedmann 1986; Hirschman 1980), it is this perspective that is employed here. In addition, previous studies of meaning sometimes distinguish between objective (associated with tangible attributes of the object) and subjective (associated with intangible attributes of the object) meaning (e.g., Grunert and Grunert 1995; Hirschman 1980). However, in this study this distinction is less of an interest, because meaning is used as a broader term that includes both subjective and objective aspects.

Consumption and its Meaning

During the 1950s there was extensive discussion of the symbolic nature of products (Gardner and Levy 1955; Levy 1959). Pioneers in symbolic consumption

research observed that consumers do not buy products for economic reasons only, nor do they always act rationally (Gardener and Levy 1955; Levy 1959). They warned that marketers should not be wrongly influenced by consumers' rationalized accounts of their consumption behaviors and recommended that marketers should instead try to uncover hidden meanings. Study in symbolic consumption and consumer meaning was out of fashion for a while, as the research stream moved to the study of motivation and information processing models (Hirschmann 1980).

In the 1980s there was renewed interest in consumer meaning. One of the pioneers in consumer meaning, Belk (1988) hypothesized that people consider their belongings as part of themselves. Elliot and Wattanasuwan (1998) also concurred that people are what they own; that consumers invest their psychic energy such as effort, time and attention into products they own. Csikszentmihali and Rochberg-Halton (1981) also suggested a similar explanation regarding the self-transfer to domestic belongings. The symbolic meanings of the consumer's possessions may portray essences of his/her individuality, or reflect her/his desirable connections with others (Klein, Klein and Allen 1995). Richins (1994a; 1994b) argued that the value of consumed objects was in their meanings and distinguished the public and private aspects of meanings.

The meanings of significant possessions and the roles of products in consumers' daily lives have been extensively investigated. Developing Belk's (1988) work on self and possession, Mehta and Belk (1991) examined how possessions from the home country help Indian immigrants secure and maintain their self-identity and even help reconstruct their positions in foreign places. Klein et al. (1995) were interested in the mechanism of how certain products attach meaning and others do not. They posited that

the strength of the attachment that consumers form with objects determined the me-ness versus not-me-ness of objects. They further distinguished three levels of attachment: affiliation, autonomy seeking, and temporal orientation.

As gift-giving behavior involves various symbolic meanings in a given culture, such as specific occasions, time, events and relationships, it has attracted consumer researchers' interest (McGrath, Sherry, and Levy 1993). Recently the concept of gift-giving was applied to explain the hedonic consumption of self-gifts (Mick, Demoss, and Faber 1992; Pandya and Venkatesh 1992). Status or conspicuous consumption is another area in which the role of meaning has been investigated (Belk 1985). As previously discussed, consumers do not buy products/ brands for their utilitarian values but rather for symbolic values. Status seeking or status emulation is one of the better-known symbolic values (Levy 1959). The symbolic role of luxury goods (or nonnecessity goods) in transitional economies has been observed on several occasions (e.g., Belk 1999; Ger et al. 1993), these research findings can enlighten the present study by providing the symbolic meaning attached to global brands.

Consumer Dimensions of Brand Meaning

Several similar concepts have been used to summarize those aspects of the brand that most directly interact with the consumer: brand identity, brand image, brand essence and brand personality (Grace and O'Cass 2002). It has been acknowledged, "marketers often used the terms brand equity, brand image and brand personality interchangeably" (Tauber 1988, p. 26). For example, brand image and brand identity have not been consistently distinguished. According to Meenaghan (1995) brand image is received or

perceived by consumers while brand identity is sent to consumers. Brand image, according to his distinction, does not seem so different from brand meaning. Brand essence, a relatively new concept, is described as “literally the essence of the brand, or that, which gives the brand its meaningfulness” (Chang 1998, p. 23), however, it is not clear that brand essence is a substantially different concept from brand image or brand meaning. Another subcategory of brand image is brand personality. When some kinds of human characteristics are associated with a brand, they are called brand personality (Kim, Han and Park 2001). Aaker (1997) and Aaker, Martínez, and Garolera (2001) presented empirical results of their research on the measurement of brand personality and cross-cultural differences of brand personality. Brand image appears to cover the broadest area of consumer-brand interaction. It also appears to overlap strongly with the concept of brand meaning used in this study. Thus, brand image and psychological meaning (Freidman 1986, Friedman and Lessign 1986; Friedman and Zimmer 1988; Szalay and Deese 1978) will serve a starting point for defining the construct of brand meaning.

Brand image has been known to have many definitions that differ in breadth and width (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). According to one of the simpler definitions, brand image is, “a set of associations, usually organized in some meaningful way (Aaker 1991, pp. 109-110).” Park et al. (1986, p. 136) are credited with providing a comprehensive framework of brand image or brand concept, which they define as “a firm-selected brand meaning derived from basic consumer needs.” The brand concept consists of functional, symbolic and sensory factors that appeal to different consumer needs. Functional factors are related to solving consumption problems (e.g., a consumer needs a car for commuting). Symbolic factors are desires for products to fulfill internally generated

problems (e.g., a consumer needs a car which makes her look cool). Experiential factors provide sensory pleasure, or cognitive stimulation (e.g., the new car smell gives pleasure to the consumer). It has been suggested that a brand concept should be planned and maintained as a long-term investment.

The symbolic nature of brand image also has been explored. It is posited that a brand is not only used as a quality cue for consumers' quick decision making but also used as a symbolic resource to construct and maintain their identities in the postmodern world (Elliot 1994; Elliot and Wattanasuwan 1998). This symbolic role of identity formation has been explored among youth and their relationships with brands (Miles, Cliff and Burr 1998) and East Indian's false self-identification with foreign brands (Halstead 2002). Considering the importance to consumers in their daily lives, it is not surprising that consumers are afraid that brands have too much power over people (Holt 2002) and there is a movement against some powerful brands (Klein 1999).

Regarding the process of brand image formation, it is generally acknowledged that consumers form brand images through the associations they have made with brands and their previous experiences (Aaker 1991). While it is assumed that consumers rely on direct marketing communication (e.g., advertising, promotion), Hirschman and Thompson (1997) also emphasize the role of mass media, which may or may not be directly related to advertising, in consumers' meaning formation.

Brand meaning formation

According to Ligas and Cotte (1999), there are two perspectives on ways that consumers internalized brand meanings. One perspective suggests that initially no brand is attached with a single meaning, but marketers create symbolic meaning for a product

or brand and inject it into a culturally constituted world trying to make an association between the brand and the meaning (see McCracken 1986, 1988). This perspective posits that brands give a stable meaning to products, and that consumers accept this meaning and choose products and brands that suit their needs. For example, consumers choose brands that match their self-identity (e.g., Aaker 1997; Fournier 1998; Klein et al. 1993; Klein et al. 1995) or their personality and values (Holt 1997).

Another perspective suggests that consumers combine and adapt meanings to fit their own lives -- that is meanings of products, brands, and advertisements are not perceived similarly by consumers, but are interpreted in accordance with an individual's life. The functions of the symbolic meanings of products operate in two directions: outward in constructing the social world or social-symbolism, and inward in constructing self-identity or self-symbolism (Elliot 1997). On the other hand, Feldwick (1991) posits that consumers use brands to defend their selves from the threats posed by postmodernity, such as fragmentation, loss of meaning, and loss of individuality. Brands may offer some level of stability and reassurance in an ever-changing world. Miles et al. (1998), Escalas (2004), and Halstead's (2002) have discussed the impact of brands on consumers' self-identity.

Based on the previous review, a framework of brand meaning formation is now proposed (see figure 4). First, the brand concept is developed by marketers to communicate the functional benefits, symbolic benefits, and aesthetic pleasures associate with brands through integrated marketing communication. Then consumers process the communicated brand concept and form the brand meaning by both accepting the communicated image and associations and generating their own images. Since meaning is

context based, the marketing environment is working as a background for this meaning generation process. Environmental factors can be either related to culture (e.g., mass-media [Hirschman and Craig 1997], the education system, the cultural meaning system [McCracken 1986], etc.) or interpersonal (e.g., word-of-mouth, reference group effect, social pressure). Lastly, it is assumed here that consumer created brand meanings are then communicated back to marketers through their various marketing research efforts.

Marketers actively seek to incorporate consumers' input so that they can fine-tune the meanings of specific brands to meet consumers' demands more effectively. It has been suggested that marketers change brand meanings across society, community, and national boundaries to accommodate consumer's needs (Kates and Goh 2003).

Insert Figure 4 about here

Chapter 5: Study Overview and Research Questions

Despite the globalization of markets, it is not clear that the ‘global brand’ is a salient concept for many consumers. In the academic literature, researchers rather than consumers often define the concept. As a result, the meanings that consumers associate with global brands remain unclear. The present study is designed to initiate a stream of research on global brand meanings from the consumers’ perspective.

In addition, this study focuses on consumers in developing countries. While most global brands have originated and are purchased in economically developed countries, the percentage of sales in developing countries is growing (Madden 2004). For example, *Procter & Gamble* forecasts that more than 50 percent of the growth in the personal hygiene product category will come from Asia (Wehling 1998) and China has become *P&G*’s sixth-largest market from the tenth in just three years (Madden 2004). Furthermore, marketing research in developing countries in general is relatively limited, reducing the generalization of our field’s theory. Moreover, as most global brands have Western origins (e.g., the U.S., Europe; Japan provides a notable exception), there is a possibility of research in western settings confounding global brands with local brands. For example, subjects in the United States may consider *Coca-Cola* and *Nike* to be local brands despite claims that they are global brands (Hankinson and Cowking 1996). Subjects in developing countries are more likely to genuinely perceive products as global and avoid this potential problem.

For these reasons, this study collects data in Korea, a developing country. There are other reasons for choosing Korea as the research venue. First, Korea is a developing country that is experiencing rapid changes due to globalization and is being introduced to

many global brands (Ulgado and Lee 1998). Second, Korea sharply differs on numerous cultural dimensions from developed countries in the West (Hofstede 2001), where many concepts of the global brand have been theorized (e.g., Aaker 1991; Hankinson and Cowking 1996). For example, Korea is one of the most collectivistic countries in the world (Hofstede 2001) and as a result, its consumers are more strongly influenced by social normative factors than consumers in individualistic countries (Lee and Green 1991). Scholars have found that differences in culture affect consumer behavior at many different levels (e.g., Aaker and Williams 1998; Aaker et al. 2001; Alden, Hoyer, and Lee 1993). Thus, studying global brand meanings in Korea provides the opportunity to explore how culture-level factors interact with the formation of global meanings.

Research Questions

In line with this study's investigation of global brand meanings, several research questions are proposed. First, the overall research question aims to assess the degree of consistency between traditional and managerial conceptualizations of brand label categorization and global brand attributes and meanings held by consumers.

RQ: Does the traditional and managerial conceptualization of how consumers view global brands accurately reflect the meanings consumers associate with global brands?

As discussed in chapter 3, the literature review indicates that the current understanding of global brand meanings is incomplete due to the relative newness of the topic and the lack of a consumer-based approach. The latter is a critical impediment, since consumers are active recipients and creators of meanings, as discussed in chapter 4.

They are known to interact with managerial, or objective meanings, and create syntheses of meanings based on their social and cultural needs (Kates and Goh 2003). Brand meanings suggested in previous studies may be important from a managerial perspective, and it is expected that some of the previously suggested meanings have migrated from managerial strategy and local media flow (Appadurai 1990) to consumers via meaning transfer (McCracken 1986; see figure 2 for a list of such 'etic' meanings). However, other meanings may be derived from within Korea as consumers internalize given meanings and as external influences become 'glocalized.' Thus, further, in-depth investigation is required to fully understand consumer meanings associated with global brands. To answer this overall research question more effectively, four sub-questions are raised. The first question, RQ 1 focuses on traditional brand label categorization meaningfulness to consumers and thoughts, meanings and attributes associated with those labels.

RQ1: Are global, foreign, and local brand categories meaningful labels to consumers? Moreover, if the category labels are meaningful, do thoughts, meanings and attributes associated with each label match the theoretical set in the global brand literature and CO literatures?

As shown in chapters 2 and 3, the CO, CET, and global brand literatures seem to indicate that consumers' brand categorization based on nationality or origin has evolved as market globalization expands and changes the consumption environment. Although CO and CET studies do not explicitly discuss brand label categorization per se, one can infer that consumers have been thought to maintain a foreign versus domestic brand categorization schema (e.g., Supphellen and Rittenburg 2001; Supphellen and Grønhaug 2003; Ulgado and Lee 1998). Batra et al.'s (2000) study employed non-local and local origin and Loeffler (2002) used non-domestic versus domestic to denote the same

concepts. Recently, the increased worldwide availability of products/brands has introduced the new concept of “global brand” (e.g., Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000; Hankins and Cowking 1996), suggesting the possibility of a three-category brand schema. Despite numerous studies that discuss the impacts of global brands (e.g., Eckhardt and Houston 2002), few studies investigate the concept of global brands as a brand category. Moreover, global, foreign, and local brand labels have not been discussed together up to this point. . Thus, it is not clear that these distinctions are meaningful to consumers, particularly those in developing countries.

Previous research suggests the possibility that these labels represent consumers’ brand categorization in terms of brand nationality/origin. It has been suggested that consumers may distinguish between the globalness, foreignness, and localness of brands available in their country. Numerous CO (e.g., Han and Terpstra 1988) and CET studies (e.g., Shimp and Sharma 1987), which juxtaposed foreign versus local brands, found significant results, indirectly confirming the robustness of two brand categories. The global brand literature reported the impacts of global brand introduction on local brands (e.g., Kapferer 2002), providing support for global versus local distinctions. Alden et al. (1999) found that coders in seven countries were able to identify television ads as employing either global, foreign, or local consumer culture symbols. They concluded that marketers often consciously or unconsciously positioned their brands as symbols of one of these cultures. However, the identification of global, foreign, and local consumer culture associations in brand advertising by coders (Alden et al. 1999) does not mean that consumers hold these meanings in well-defined schema. In other words, while Alden et al. (1999) show that global, foreign, and local consumer culture positioning is used by

brand managers in advertising, the question of whether or not consumers have adopted these categories in well-established schema remains unanswered.

The distinction between global and foreign brand categories, for Korean consumers in particular, may remain unrealized due to their limited experience with global brands. Indeed, trade regulations and lower levels of discretionary income in developing countries have reduced availability and consumption of such brands. For example, China's open market policy is less than 20 years old (Zhang 1996) and Korea's trade regulations have operated as an effective import barrier for many overseas consumer products until recent years (Johanson 1997). As a result, consumer experience with foreign and global brands may not have been sufficient to produce clear distinctions between the two categories. Previous consumer categorization research supports this line of reasoning. It has been established that consumers use their previous knowledge of existing product categories to learn about new products (Gregan-Paxton and John 1997). When consumers have a plausible category for an object, they "resist" giving a second category label to the object (Moreau, Markman, and Lehmann 2001). Since the 'foreign brand' category label has been part of the consumer lexicon of meanings for a longer time than the 'global brand' label, it is possible that consumers may 'resist' adoption of the latter label. In sum, it is possible that while distinctions between global and local brand category labels are well-established, the distinction between global and foreign brand categories may be blurred.

Assuming Korean consumers are found to maintain a tripartite brand category schema, the focus of this inquiry will shift to whether or not consumer meanings associated with each label accurately reflect the theoretical attributes assumed in the

global brand and CO literatures. First, high quality and prestige may well emerge as major attributes of the global brand label. These two attributes have been theorized to be the major attractions of global brands (e.g., Belk 1996, 2000; Ger et al. 1993) and empirically tested by Steenkamp et al. (2003a). Likewise, global availability, another suggested criterion of global brands (see for example, Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000; Hankins and Cowking 1996), may emerge as one of the attributes of global brands recognized by consumers since the literal meaning of “global” is worldwide. Second, although standardized brand strategy (i.e., standardization of 4 Ps), which has been repeatedly suggested as one of the criteria of global brands (e.g., Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2000; Hankins and Cowking 1996), may emerge in this study to a certain degree, it seems unlikely to be as central to consumers as to industry and academics, and as a result, it may only be a minor attribute for consumers. That is, ordinary consumers may be less aware of managerially-driven attributes (e.g., *Every McDonald's serves Big Macs*).

For the foreign brand label, considering the possibility of a blurred boundary between global and foreign labels, quality and prestige could also emerge as important attributes. Batra et al.'s (2000) study also reported consumers' preferences for nonlocal brands due to perceived quality and enhanced social status in a developing country context. On the other hand, given the distinct difference between foreign—as other—and global—as universal, consumers might generate attributes for foreign and global brands that differ from one another, despite sharing meanings, thoughts, and attributes. While studies of attributes of specific products in specific countries are abundant (e.g., automobiles from Japan), the literature of general “foreign” brand attributes is almost

nonexistent, possibly due to the lack of studies on the brand category label itself and also due to the fact that “foreign” is a relative concept (e.g., foreign for American consumers is different from foreign for Korean consumers). Thus, unique attributes of a foreign brand category are sought for the first time in this study.

Previous CO studies performed in developing countries indicate that consumers perceive local brands to possess a lower level of quality and prestige in comparison to foreign brands (e.g., Ettenson 1993; Papadopoulos, Heslop, and Beracs 1990). This lower evaluation of local brands (and higher evaluation of foreign, Western brands) has been observed in many Asian countries, even in a highly developed country like Singapore (O’Cass and Lim 2002a, 2002b). Although CET influences consumers to assess local brands’ quality more positively (Supphellen and Rittenburg 2001), most of the time, the quality of local brands in absolute terms tends to be lower than their foreign brand counterparts in developing countries and consumers are fully aware of the quality and prestige discrepancy between the two brand categories (Supphellen and Rittenburg 2001). Thus, Korean consumers may value local brands less than foreign or global in terms of quality and prestige. However, Korean consumers may also perceive positive attributes, such as lower price and convenience due to a more extensive distribution system (Kahn 2003; Keller and Moorthi 2003).

Research question 2 moves on to examine brand categories in a more concrete direction, focusing on brand exemplars.

RQ2: Given the brand category labels global, foreign, and local, what exemplars and what types of exemplars do consumers generate to represent these category labels?

To answer RQ 2, an exploratory approach is adopted to identify specific brands that Korean consumers perceive as global, foreign, or local. That is, in addition to asking consumers about the meanings of global, foreign or local brands directly, they will be asked to identify exemplars of each category. The main advantage of this approach is that it encourages consumers to respond in a direct and introspective manner, as recommended in previous consumer meaning studies (Belk et al. 1988; 1989). Furthermore, this approach enables the researcher to investigate the exemplars themselves to explore brand meanings from another angle.

Previous research offered suggestions about possible outcomes of consumer generated exemplars. On the one hand, since consumers form their brand exemplars partially based on various marketing communications, global brand exemplars may include brand names that are typically identified as global brands by industry standards and managed by foreign multinational companies (e.g., *McDonald's* and *Coca-Cola*). On the other hand, in addition to brands managed by foreign multinational companies, Korean consumers seem likely to generate Korean brands by chaebol companies as global brand exemplars. In fact, several Korean companies have successfully expanded to other countries, becoming global in their presence (e.g., *Samsung* and *Hyundai*) and even appearing in industry global brand listings (e.g., *Business Week*).

Similar exemplars seem likely for global and foreign brand category labels given the blurred distinction between the two categories as suggested above. Although consumers may identify some Korean brands as global, however, Korean brands are unlikely to be identified as foreign, as foreign and local brand categories are likely to be viewed as mutually exclusive.

For local brand exemplars, following Alden et al.'s (1999) definition of “local consumer culture positioning” (LCCP), brands that associate themselves with Korean identity and emphasize Koreanness may emerge as exemplars of local brands. For example, *Korean Air*, which is a national flag carrier, and *Korean Telecom (KT)* have positioned themselves as national companies serving Korean interests. *Korean Air*'s long time slogan is “Our wings to the world.” In addition, brand names using Korean words (compared to brand names using foreign words, especially English) seem more likely to be included as local brand exemplars. Although it is popular for Korean companies to use either English letters to write the brand name (e.g., *Samsung* instead of 삼성) or foreign words (e.g., *Santa Fe*, an SUV by *Hyundai*) for national brands, as previously observed in Japan (Sherry and Camargo 1987), many companies opt for pure Korean words for strategic reasons. For example, one of the most successful Korean companies, *Pulmuwon* (a name referring to a traditional tool used by blacksmiths and emphasizing the company's Korean agricultural root), an organic food product company, uses Korean words exclusively to name its products, emphasizing purity, connection with nature, and genuine Koreanness. Further, chaebol company brand names may also be generated by consumers as local brand exemplars, considering the extent of their marketing influences and corporate presence in the Korean economy.

Next, the potential types of exemplars generated by consumers for each brand category label will be analyzed. Alden et al (1999) found that GCCP is used most frequently for durable, high-technology goods and least frequently for food, while LCCP is most frequently associated with food and less so with durable, high technology products. They posit that consumer needs across countries are more similar for high-tech

durables. Thus it is easier for marketers to employ GCCP for such products. Food consumption, on the other hand, is deeply embedded within local culture, making it harder for marketers to employ GCCP in their advertising campaigns and as a result, LCCP is more frequently used. For example, Jussaume (2001) reports that while Chinese consumers' food consumption patterns are becoming more diverse, that is, they are consuming more branded and imported food instead of fresh produce and shopping at supermarkets where there are more branded and imported food instead of traditional wet markets, the pace of change is slow. Global and local brand exemplars generated by Korean consumers may follow similar patterns.

Regarding foreign brand exemplar types, and given that several studies have observed that consumers, especially in developing countries, equate foreign brands with higher social status (Batra et al 2000; Halstad 2002; Ger et al. 1993; Steenkamp et al. 2003a), conspicuous product brands which typically enable consumers to express their social status (e.g., automobiles, clothing, and accessories) are likely in foreign brand exemplars.

After addressing RQ 1 and 2, RQ 3 probes the values associated across brands.

RQ3: Given sets of exemplars for each brand category (i.e., global, foreign, and local), what types of values are associated with each category?

While RQ 1 investigates the brand attributes attached to brand labels as surface level meanings, RQ 3 explores deeper meanings of each brand category, looking for values that consumers associate with brand exemplars. That is, RQ 3 seeks to find what consumers ultimately want to achieve from consuming a particular brand category.

Previous research provides some guidelines for answering this question. First, Ger and Belk (1996) suggested that consumers in developing countries, especially youths, want to emulate “global consumer culture (GCC)” (i.e., consumptionscape), similar to Hannerz’s (1996) “shared habitats of meaning.” These individuals pursue cosmopolitanism through consuming Western (global) brands. Goldberg and Baumgartner (2002), for example, observed that Thai youth consume American tobacco and O’Cass and Lim (2002a, 2002b) documented Singaporean youth’s western clothing brands preference for the same reason, providing empirical support to this perspective. Thus, Korean consumers may also seek to emulate values associated with GCC through global brands, such as modernity, self-advancement (Tomlinson 1999), and openness to new cultures and experiences (Thompson and Tambyah 1999). A number of researchers have observed that consumers in transitional or developing economies exhibit a strong desire for upward mobility and elitism and they try to achieve those values by consuming nonlocal or global branded products (Belk 1999; 2000; Ger et al. 1993; Steenkamp et al. 2003b). While Korea has achieved a certain level of economic development and is far from a transitional economy, national affluence and the introduction of global brands are still relatively recent phenomena. For example, the sales of direct import and licensed brands in the clothing industry were nominal before 1997 (Anonymous 2002b). As a result, Korean consumers are likely to associate values such as, modernity, self-advancement, and openness with global brands.

For foreign brands, since consumers in Korea may not strongly distinguish them from global brands in terms of brand category and exemplars, associated values may be similar as well. Thus, it is likely that consumers will associate values like self-

advancement and openness with foreign brands. However, differences between foreign and global brands may also be found. As Ger et al. (1993) observe, foreign brands have typically been status symbols in developing countries and are used by consumers to stand out from the crowd. Also, consumers' aspirations for self-advancement seem evident in their foreign brand associations, which relate to aspiration for money and power (Roberts and Sepulveda M 1999) and eventually tend to result in conspicuous consumption. Thus, foreign brands may become a target of envy and jealousy by less fortunate citizens (Ger et al. 1993). Moreover, Korean consumers may associate certain negative values with foreign brands, such as CET, and consider them extravagant. CET is known to be especially strong for products that deemed are unnecessary (Sharma, Shimp, and Shin 1995). In addition, Wang et al. (2000) found that Chinese consumers' hedonic values were positively associated with novelty seeking and preference for foreign brands, suggesting the possibility that consumers may seek more hedonic values from the foreign brand category label.

Finally, in regards to local brands, previous literature has demonstrated that despite increasing market globalization, consumer ethnocentrism (CET) remains a robust sentiment in many countries including Korea (e.g., Steenkamp et al. 2003; Ulgado and Lee 1998). As such, CET may affect local brand values. As discussed in chapter 2, CET often produces feelings of guilt from consumption of foreign products (Shimp and Sharma 1987) and CET may also enhance local brand evaluations relative to foreign and/or global when the rationale for doing so is questionable (Sharma et al. 1995). Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001) suggest that local companies represent the in-groups while foreign companies are out-groups in the CET context, thus explaining some

consumers' positivity bias. Having a strong collectivistic cultural orientation and strong family ties, Koreans often make clear distinctions between "us" and "them" (Smith and Bond 1998). Moreover, Korea is a country that has traditionally resisted external cultural influences (Madden 2003; Slater 1998; Steenkamp et al 2003b), therefore, Korean consumers seem likely to associate values, such as loyalty, patriotism, and national pride with local brand consumption. In addition, while global and foreign brands are likely to signify modernity and novelty, local brands may evoke respect for tradition and long history, important collectivistic values, according to Hofstede (2001).

RQ4: Finally, what are the study's implications for global brand researchers and managers?

RQ 4 is a critical question for both researchers and practitioners and is discussed fully in the managerial implications section of this study. As noted previously, despite heightened interest in global branding strategies from both academics (e.g., Abratt and Motlana 2002; Hsieh 2002; Roth 1992, 1995) and practitioners (e.g., Kharmouch 2002), the study of global brands is still in its infancy and there are many opportunities for further research on the concept.

How to Study Brand Meanings in Consumer Research

The question, "How do consumers derive personally relevant meanings about products and brands?" has been a crucial interest for many consumer researchers. To date, several different approaches have been developed to study this question. When the meaning simply referred to the consumers' knowledge about or attitudes toward brands, the semantic differential test (e.g., Osgood 1952) and the free association test (Boivin

1986) were frequently used. While convenient, such product-attribute focused approaches failed to probe deeper personal meanings (Gengler and Reynolds 1995). If consumer meaning is viewed as context- and culture-dependent, an exploratory or qualitative approach in a more natural setting may be better able to overcome this limitation. This section briefly reviews frequently used methods and then describes the current study's research methodology.

Focus group interview

The focus group interview method, a popular tool in marketing research, has been used extensively due to its cost-effectiveness and convenience. The focus group interview is a "research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic or topics" (Carson et al. 2001, p. 114). Thus, this technique is preferred if interaction among consumers is expected or desirable. As one of the most widely used research tools in marketing research, especially in the exploratory and developmental stages of research, the focus group interview differs from other qualitative methodologies in the sense that it emphasizes the interactions among several individuals when gathering information or knowledge (Carson et al. 2001).

In-depth interview, observation, and ethnography

While generally more expensive and labor intensive than the focus group interview, in-depth interviews with key informants may be preferable for studying brand associations because the one-on-one process facilitates clarification of consumer "meanings of common concepts and opinions" (Sayre 2001, p. 153). To achieve the depth, detail, and richness, or thick description of the conversation (Rubin and Rubin 1995), interviews are complemented with observations in natural settings as well as the

examination of surroundings. Belk, Wallendorf, and Sherry (1989) once attributed the dearth of studies exploring consumption meaning to researchers' preference for quantitative methodology and suggested an alternative approach that adopts an anthropological tradition. They also emphasized the importance of interaction between researchers and research participants in natural settings. Belk and his research team (one sociologist and one anthropologist) investigated buyer and seller behaviors at a swap meet in the West (Belk, Sherry, and Wallendorf 1988). Employing naturalistic inquiry, they observed, interviewed, photographed, and recorded conversations between buyers and sellers. Their findings were further developed into a "consumer behavior odyssey" (Belk et al. 1989). In their subsequent research, they posited that consumption in contemporary society almost achieves the status of religion in terms of its importance in consumers' lives. As an advocate of the naturalistic approach, Sherry (1990) extended his research to several alternative marketplaces to study consumer behavior. For example, Sherry and his colleagues investigated consumer behavior at a farmers market (McGrath et al. 1993). Recently, Thompson and colleagues (1994, 1996, 1997) introduced another method that relied on in-depth interviews: the hermeneutical approach. It differs from other interpretative approaches due to its emphasis on the cultural interpretation between researcher and consumers (e.g., Thompson 1996; Thompson and Haytko 1997; Thompson, Pollio, and Locander 1994).

Projective techniques

Some researchers (Hussey and Duncombe 1999; McGrath et al. 1993; Mick et al. 1992) suggest projective techniques as a tool to study consumer meanings. For example, researchers employ projective techniques, such as showing pictures and seeking

word associations to uncover consumer schemas (e.g., Hussey and Duncombe 1999; McGrath et al.1993; Mick et al.1992). It has been argued that this technique may address weaknesses of in-depth interviews, which usually require a certain rapport between the researcher and informants, and thus may inhibit consumers from revealing hidden personal and private meanings. Nonetheless, projective techniques also have shortcomings such as subjectivity in interpretation and difficulty of replication (Hussey and Duncombe 1999).

Current Study

While the qualitative methodologies mentioned above have yielded invaluable insights into the consumer psyche, there are also limitations accompanying these approaches. First, generalization of research findings is problematic with any type of qualitative research method. Although research based on the experiential, postmodern, or post-positivist paradigm may not specifically intend to achieve complete generalization of research findings, the lack of structure as well as objectivity in qualitative methods may threaten the internal validity of such studies. Second, the typically small sample size in most qualitative studies may further limit results' external validity. Gengler and Reynolds (1995, p. 19) voiced their concerns as follows:

All too often, the results of qualitative research could have been written before the research was performed, either because the final results are merely the a priori opinion of the researcher involved, or because the results are so obvious that the research need never have been performed.

To achieve a higher level of objectivity while retaining the rich characteristics of the qualitative tradition, the current study utilizes a combination of several research

techniques. First, qualitative approaches are employed since the main goal of the current research is exploratory: investigating the meaning of global brands from the consumers' perspective while minimizing researcher bias from a priori theory. Considering its exploratory nature, the present study primarily employs the Qualitative Inquiry Method based on Belk et al.'s (1989) recommendations. In addition, the means-end chain (MEC) approach is employed to complement the in-depth interview to investigate brand meanings while retaining the intricacies of qualitative approaches. Secondly, this study integrates quantitative methods as well to address some of the limitations revealed in previous studies using only qualitative methods. Thus, thought elicitation, Likert scales, and a prototype study (Fehr 1988) serve as quantitative methods to complement qualitative oriented in-depth laddering interviews (Reynolds and Gutman 1988). Three studies were carried out in Korea using these different research methodologies. The following chapters describe the research design and the results of each study.

Chapter 6: Study 1 Research Design and Results

Objective of study 1

The purpose of study 1 was to examine RQ 1, that is, to obtain an initial sense of the specific attributes, thoughts, and meanings that consumers attached to each brand category. Related to this first objective was determining the extent to which Korean consumers maintain a three-category brand schema (global, foreign, and local brands) versus a two-category brand schema (local and non-local). An analysis of thought elicitation and a Likert-type scale were employed to achieve this goal.

Subjects

Two hundred and sixty undergraduate college students in Korea completed an in-class paper-and-pencil survey with a thought elicitation task and a Likert-type scale which was originally created in English and then back translated into Korean (Brislin 1980). There were 131 (50.4 percent) female students and 129 (49.6 percent) male students. Their ages ranged from 18 to 27 years old with the mean age of 22.

Procedure

A thought elicitation is defined as “any open-ended, unconstrained (but potentially directed) response task in which subjects record thoughts generated while processing treatment information” (Sauer, Dickson, and Lord 1992). Thought elicitation has been used extensively to capture consumers’ thoughts toward certain stimuli. These thoughts are then typically analyzed using predetermined coding schemes to categorize and interpret. In the current study, the coding scheme focused on the presence of specific

brand attributes used by respondents to describe each brand category label. Additionally, polarity (thought valence) was coded to supplement the content coding of attributes (cf., Caccioppo, Harkins, and Petty 1981).

The thought elicitation task appeared on the first page of survey. Respondents were asked to list all of their thoughts in response to each of the following cues: global, foreign, and local brands. They were instructed that there were no right or wrong answers that they should list whatever came to their mind, and that they could take as much time as they needed. On the next page, they were asked to rate distinctions between global, foreign, and local brands on an 18-item, seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Then they were asked to supply demographic information (i.e., age and gender). Appendix A presents the English version of the questionnaire.

Coding Scheme for Thought Elicitation

A seven-category coding scheme was developed based on previous research including Alden et al.'s (1999) work, CET studies, and Batra et al.'s (2000) work. The key categories were: 1) thoughts related to product and service, price, promotion, and place; 2) various images; 3) country and culture related thoughts, and 4) miscellaneous thoughts that included idiosyncratic ideas. Each category had several subcategories, making the coding scheme detailed and complex. It has been suggested that the simplicity of categories is inversely correlated with intercoder reliability (Kassarjian 1977). However, the current study's research questions required detailed categories.

In addition to the seven categories, an eighth category allowed coding the valence of brand thoughts into negative, neutral, or positive. Therefore, each brand thought was categorized for content and valence. For example, “good quality” could be coded as product-related thought and positive, while “outrageously expensive” was coded as price-related thought and negative. Appendix B exhibits the coding scheme.

Study 1 Results

Scale-based Analysis of Brand Category Labels

From 12 items comparing global, foreign, and local brands, six items were reverse coded to indicate 1 (strongly disagree) for dissimilarity and 7 (strongly agree) for similarity. For four items regarding the similarity of global and foreign brand category labels, the mean score was 4.97 (SD = 0.93) indicating that respondents agreed that global and foreign brands were similar in terms of exemplars, characteristics, and images. The mean difference (4.97 versus the scale midpoint) was statistically significant ($t = 16.86, p < .000$). On the other hand, comparing the similarities of global and local brands and local and foreign brands, the mean scores were 2.99 (SD = 0.83) and 2.93 (SD = 0.78), respectively, indicating that respondents perceived that global and local brands, and local and foreign brands were dissimilar in their exemplars, characteristics, and images. The differences of mean scores and the scale midpoints were statistically significant ($t = -19.7, p < .000$ and $t = -22.23, p < .000$, respectively).

From six items regarding brands and their associations with developed countries, two items were reverse coded to indicate 1 as “strongly disagree” and 7 as “strongly agree.” While respondents moderately agreed that global and foreign brands were

associated with a few developed countries (mean scores were 4.68, SD = 0.99 and 4.62, SD = 1.06, respectively), they did not agree strongly that local Korean brands were associated with developed countries (mean score was 3.39 and SD was 0.91). One sample t-tests showed that these results versus the midpoint of the scale were statistically significant at .01 level.

In sum, this analysis shows that respondents thought global and foreign brands were fairly similar in terms of exemplars, characteristics, and images, while they thought global and local and foreign and local brands were dissimilar.

Consumer Thought Elicitation in Response to Brand Category Labels

Two native Korean speakers were recruited for the data coding procedure. Although trained extensively in coding procedures, they were not informed about the specific research questions and they worked independently of each other after the training. Inter-coder agreements for thought coding were acceptable -- over 80 percent for content coding and more than 95 percent for valence coding, satisfying the recommendation by Kassirjian (1977). Coding disagreements were resolved through discussion among the coders and the primary researcher.

The responses in the thought elicitation task were first separated into individual thought units and then coded according to the coding scheme categories (Appendix B exhibits the coding scheme). Respondents who were instructed to list thoughts associated with global brands generated 1449 thoughts (5.6 per respondent), while respondents assigned to foreign and local brands generated 1011 thoughts (3.9 per respondent) and 927 (3.6 per respondent) thoughts, respectively. Tables 2 and 3 present the observed brand thoughts and their frequency of appearance for each category.

Insert Table 2 about here

Insert Table 3 about here

Coder-based Analysis of Consumers' Thoughts Associated with Brand Category Labels

As shown in tables 2 and 3, brand thoughts were coded as: 1) Four P-related thoughts (33, 34, and 35 percent for global, foreign, and local brand category labels, respectively), 2) Image-related thoughts (36, 33, and 27 percent for global, foreign, and local brand category labels, respectively), 3) Country-related thoughts (5, 12, and 8 percent for global, foreign, and local brand category labels, respectively), or 4) Miscellaneous thoughts (27, 22, and 30 percent for global, foreign, and local brand category labels, respectively). In the following sections, more detailed analysis of thoughts associated with each brand category label is presented.

Thoughts Associated with the Global Brand Category Label

Coders determined that twelve percent of the global brand thoughts generated by respondents referred directly to “good quality (product and after-sale service combined).” “Expensive price” characterized eight percent of total thoughts and “Advertisement” accounted for six percent. Less than two percent of thoughts were coded as “Global availability.” Two percent of thoughts involved “Cultural imperialism,” and three percent of thoughts related to specific country names or regions and were coded as “Country of

Origin.” Under miscellaneous, ten percent of thoughts mentioned specific brand names and seven percent described company-related thoughts.

In the previous discussion regarding RQ 1, it was noted that global brand thoughts might include theoretical and or/managerially-driven attributes, such as quality and prestige, standardized product strategy, and global availability. On one hand, as shown in tables 3 and 4, the relatively high frequency of quality and prestige-related thoughts indicated that these attribute were strongly associated with global brands. For example, “Famous,” “Chic,” “High Status,” “Myungpum (luxury brand),” “Reliable,” and “Desirable” were brand images mentioned most frequently. On the other hand, “Standardized Product Strategy” and “Global Availability” were hardly mentioned (zero percent and 1.9 percent of all global brand thoughts, respectively). Thus, the findings suggest that many Korean consumers associate quality and prestige with ‘global brands’ but not global availability or standardized strategy.

Thoughts Associated with the Foreign Brand Category Label

Coders determined that five percent of the foreign brand thoughts generated by respondents involved “good quality (product and after-sale service combined).” “Expensive price” comprised 16 percent of total thoughts and “Advertisement” accounted for two percent. While “Global Availability” was hardly mentioned, two percent of foreign brand thoughts were coded as “Only available in certain places.” While “Cultural Imperialism” was negligible, four percent of thoughts were determined by coders as “Ethnocentrism.” Over six percent of thoughts noted specific country names or regions and were coded as “Country of Origin.” Eight percent of thoughts mentioned specific brand names. Foreign brand attributes were similar to global brand attributes in terms of

prestigious brand images, such as “Chic,” “High Status,” “Myungpum (luxury brand),” “(generally) Good.”

In RQ 1, it was suggested that because of the blurred boundary between global and foreign brand category labels, foreign brand thoughts might share several attributes with global brand thoughts, such as quality and prestige. On the other hand, the existence of some unique attributes of foreign brand category labels were also suggested since it is likely that consumers may still distinguish between the two brand category labels. The results show that there were several differences compared to global brand attributes. For example, “Good Quality” was mentioned frequently, but at a lesser degree, compared to global brand thoughts. “Expensive Price” and “Extravagant” were identified by coders twice as often in foreign brand thoughts than in global brand thoughts. Although foreign brands were not strongly associated with cultural imperialism as in global brands, they were the targets of ethnocentric thoughts, such as “we should not buy foreign branded products, since they hurt our economy.”

Thoughts Associated with the Local Brand Category Label

Unlike global and foreign brand thoughts, coders determined that six percent of the local brand thoughts generated by respondents was “bad quality (product and after-sale service combined).” On the other hand, “Cheap price” comprised 11 percent of total thoughts and “Advertisement” accounted for two percent. Place-related thoughts were too few (one percent) to be examined further in more detail. Seven percent of thoughts were determined by coders as “Ethnocentrism.” Eight percent of thoughts mentioned specific brand names while nine percent of thoughts was coded “Company-related thought.”

These findings suggest that local brand thoughts include consumers' negative perception of quality and prestige as well as positive ethnocentric attitudes.

Comparison between Thoughts Associated with Global and
Foreign Brand Category Label

Global brand thoughts and foreign brand thoughts were compared using chi-square analysis to determine whether the types of attributes were significantly different across the two categories. The results indicated that attributes associated with global and foreign brand category labels were significantly different ($\chi^2(6) = 79.67, p < .001$)¹. A series of two sample proportions t-tests determined that product quality ($t = 3.00, p < .005$), price ($t = -5.17, p < .000$), country ($t = -5.78, p < .00$), miscellaneous ($t = 2.78, p < .005$) were significantly different. More specifically, the global brand thoughts had higher proportions of quality-related (i.e., good quality) and miscellaneous (i.e., company-related thoughts) thoughts, while foreign brand thoughts had a higher proportion of price (i.e., expensive) and country-related attributes (i.e., ethnocentrism and country of origin).

Figure 5 shows the major similarities and differences of brand thoughts among global, foreign, and local brand categories generated by respondents.

Insert Figure 5 about here

¹ 2 (global and foreign) x 7 (product, price, promotion, place, images, country related, and miscellaneous)

Valence of Consumer Thoughts Associated with Brand Category Labels

In addition to the content analysis of brand thoughts, the valence of those thoughts was examined. As shown in table 4, overall, global brand attributes were most favorable among the three brand categories, followed by foreign and then local brands.

Insert Table 4 about here

In sum, although the Likert-scale analysis provided some evidence of overlap between the global and foreign brand category labels, the thought analysis suggested differences as well. “Good quality” and “Prestige” were salient attributes for both brand category labels as observed in previous literature. However, thoughts associated with global brand category label had higher proportion of “Good quality” than in foreign brand thoughts, while foreign brand thoughts had more “Expensive” and “Ethnocentric” thoughts than in global brand thoughts. Both global and foreign, however, appear to be clearly distinguished from local brand category labels. The implications of these findings will be covered more thoroughly in Chapter 9.

Chapter 7: Study 2: Generating Brand Exemplars

Objective of Study 2

The purpose of study 2 was to generate lists of global, foreign, and local brand exemplars from consumers using prototype study methodology. Generated brand exemplars were categorized and analyzed to identify potential answers to RQ 2. As a typical prototype study, two surveys (study 2A and 2B) were conducted, one designed to generate lists of exemplars and the second to confirm their exemplarity.

Prototype Methodology²

In typical marketing research to understand the structure of a certain concept, researchers generate lists of stimuli (e.g., brand names) based on a literature review or expert opinion. They next provide the lists to respondents and ask them to assess each stimulus along certain dimensions (e.g., Aaker 1997). Such an approach, although widely used, can be viewed as researcher-driven because selection of the stimuli is dependent on the researcher's initial knowledge and theory. Thus, there is a possibility that the researcher may start with predicted a priori outcomes and use the respondents simply to confirm the hypotheses. In a strict sense, such an approach is confirmatory rather than exploratory. As such, it may not reveal deeper meanings associated with global brands since their meanings have not been clearly defined. In comparison, the present study aimed to investigate the meanings of global brands through a consumer-driven approach rather than through a researcher-driven approach. In order to achieve this goal, the present study did not provide examples of global brands directly to respondents. Instead,

² Although this study was based on the original prototype study, exemplars were used instead of prototypes for the current study.

respondents were asked to generate exemplary global, foreign, and local brands on their own, based on the category labels alone. For this, prototype methodology (Rosch 1978) was employed with some modification. Prototype methodology is a technique used to study psychological concepts among lay people. Following Rosch (1978), prototype methodology has often been employed when studying with “fuzzy” categories, which do not have simple, classical definitions (Fehr 1988; Fehr and Russell 1984, 1991; Frei and Shaver 2002). A typical prototype study consists of two separate survey procedures. In the first survey, participants are asked to generate exemplars of the studied concept (for example, in the case of “emotion,” participants may respond with happiness, sadness, fear, sorrow, etc). Then, the frequencies of their responses are counted and used in the second survey. In the second survey, the exemplars generated in the first survey are rated by another group of survey participants for their exemplarity of the target concept. This two-step approach is thought to optimally identify exemplars that exist in the target population.

Study 2A: Identifying Brand Category Label Exemplars

Subjects

In study 2A, 210 college students (49.5 percent were female, mean age was 22) were recruited. They completed an open-ended paper-and-pencil questionnaire, in which they listed as many global, foreign and local brands as they could recall. Participants were divided randomly into three groups: the first third of the respondents listed exemplars of global brands, the next third listed foreign exemplars, and the last third listed exemplars of local brands. Demographic information (i.e., age and gender) was also collected at the end of the questionnaire.

Questionnaire

Drawing on previous studies (e.g., Fehr and Russell 1991; Frei and Shaver 2002), the questionnaire instructions read as follows:

Please list as many examples of global (or foreign or local) brands as you can. Examples of global brands (foreign/local) that you list may include ones you are aware of, or have heard of -- anything that you consider a global brand (foreign/local). Remember that there are no right or wrong answers -- just provide your opinions.

The instructions were translated into Korean using *back translation* in order to minimize possible cultural bias that might be created due to translation (Brislin 1980).

Coding Scheme for Brand Exemplars

A four-dimension coding scheme was developed based on previous research of product/brand categorization. The key dimensions were utilitarian versus hedonic (Dhar and Wertenbroch 2000), low versus high involvement (Laurent and Kapferer 1985), and a quadrant of public/private and luxury/necessity (Bourne 1957; Piron 2000). A modified nine product category coding scheme used in Alden et al.'s (1999) study was also included. Coders were instructed to code each brand on the four dimensions. Also, they were instructed to code brands from the perspectives of their reference group--young, educated, adult Korean consumers. Appendix B exhibits the coding scheme and the coding form.

Results

The two coders from study 1 were trained for product category coding. Again, they were unaware of specific research questions although they were trained thoroughly to undertake the product categorization task. They coded brand names from global, foreign and local brand exemplars condition according to the product categories

described in chapter 6. They worked independently from each other and their coding results were compared after they finished coding for all three categories. Inter-coder agreements were 92, 89, and 94 percent for global, foreign, and local brand categories respectively, satisfying Kassirjian's (1977) recommendation. Initial disagreements were resolved through discussion among the two coders and the researcher.

Frequency Ranking of Generated Brand Exemplars

Global, foreign and local brand exemplars were ranked based on the frequency of mention. Respondents who were instructed to list exemplars of global brands generated 1569 brand exemplars (22.4 brand exemplar per respondent), while respondents asked to list foreign and local brand exemplars generated 1380 foreign brand exemplars (19.7 brands per respondent), and 1037 local brand exemplars (14.8 brands per respondent), respectively. Coders determined that respondents identified 336 distinct brand names in the local brand category, followed by 280 for global and 259 for foreign brand categories. It seemed that while consumers could recall fewer local brand exemplars in total number, their local exemplars were more diverse, indicating greater familiarity with local brands or a large number of local brand names from which to generate exemplars. For global brand exemplars, respondents recalled more brands in total number, but they tended to recall identical brands.

Out of 25 most frequently mentioned (and by more than 25 percent of respondents) global brand exemplars, 40 percent were also identified by *Business Week* (2003) as the 25 most successful global brands (see tables 1 and 2). This finding indicates that consumers and industry analysts agree somewhat on what brands are global. Comparing the consumer generated exemplars of global and foreign brand category

labels revealed that 162 exemplars, which were 63 percent of total foreign brand exemplars, were identical. In addition, the nine out of ten most frequently mentioned global and foreign brands were almost identical, except for the presence of *Samsung* in global exemplars. At the same time, their frequency rankings were slightly different, as shown in table 5. The 63 percent overlap of the generated brand exemplars suggests, as did the Likert-scale analysis in study 1, that Korean consumers tend to view the global and foreign brand category as similar.

Insert Table 5 about here

As expected, in response to the “local brand” category label, 42 percent (141 out of 336 names generated) of the exemplars generated incorporated Korean cultural symbols in their brand names (as subsequently identified by coders). For example, local brands utilized names of Korean places and people (e.g., *Seoul Milk*, *Pak Jun Hair salon*), pure Korean words (e.g., *Pulmuwon*), and Korean words based on Chinese (e.g., *Hyundai* and *Samsung*), instead of other foreign words (e.g., *Bean Pole*). Other local brands mentioned tended to emphasize Koreanness through shared experiences rather than people or places (e.g., *815 Cola* was created after the Korean economic crisis and since August 15 is Korean Independence day, the brand symbolizes the independence of cola drinks from foreign influence). These findings suggest that respondents associated Korean cultural symbols and shared experiences far more with the local brand category more than the other two categories.

In addition, almost 25 percent of local brands identified were chaebols or conglomerates, which are not readily associated with specific products (e.g., *Samsung* is

globally known for its home electronic products, but locally it engages in many diverse industries, including, insurance, automobiles, computers, etc.). Finally, while three out of 25 most frequently mentioned global brand exemplars were also Korean chaebols, none were present among the foreign brand exemplars.

The Product Categorization of Generated Brand Exemplars

Coders next applied the Product Categorization Coding Scheme (see Appendix B) to identify product types associated with the various exemplars. Based on past research, brand exemplars identified as global and foreign seemed likely to come from high-technology, durable product categories, and status-related product categories, while brand exemplars identified as local would be from food and nondurable product categories. As shown in table 6, global brand exemplars were classified by coders more frequently as hedonic than utilitarian (60 percent vs. 40 percent), more frequently as high than low involvement (79 percent vs. 20 percent), more frequently as public than private (73 percent vs. 17 percent), and more frequently as necessity than luxury (58 percent vs. 32 percent). In addition, the last dimension, which was adapted from Alden et al. (1999), showed that consumer generated global brand exemplars were more likely high tech durables (27 percent), luxury/status goods (25 percent), low tech durables (23 percent) than nondurables (food, household, personal care, ten percent combined) or services (low and high tech, ten percent combined). Company-level brands that were not able to be classified into any category accounted for six percent of total generated brand exemplars.

Insert Table 6 about here

Coding results for foreign brand exemplars were similar. Brands generated by respondents as good exemplars of foreign brands were classified more frequently as hedonic than utilitarian (68 percent vs. 32 percent), more frequently as high than low involvement (80 percent vs. 20 percent), more public than private (79 percent vs. 19 percent), and more often as necessity than luxury (63 percent vs. 35 percent). According to the last product dimension, foreign brand exemplars were more likely from low tech (23 percent) and high tech (27 percent) durables and luxury/status goods (25 percent) than nondurables (food, household, and personal care, 14 percent combined) and services (low and high tech, 11 percent combined). However, coders determined only one percent was company-level brands.

In sum, except for the luxury vs. necessity category and company-level brands, these results indicated that exemplars of global and foreign brands tended to come from hedonic and high involvement product categories, which were consumed in public. This suggests that consumers generated conspicuous durable products as exemplars of global and foreign brand categories and indicates further similarities between the two categories.

Brands generated by respondents as good exemplars of local brands were classified by coders more frequently as utilitarian than hedonic (61 percent vs. 39 percent), more frequently as high than low involvement (69 percent vs. 31 percent), slightly more often as public than private (40 percent vs. 35 percent), and more frequently as necessity than luxury (75 percent vs. 0 percent). In addition, coders determined that local brand exemplars were more likely low tech (29 percent) and high tech (13 percent) durables, company-level brands (23 percent) and food nondurable (15 percent). While durable products in the local brand category were more frequently noted than nondurable

products (42 percent vs. 21 percent), high tech durable products were substantially less present than low tech durable products (13 percent vs. 29 percent), indicating that respondents generated more low involvement than high involvement products as local brand exemplars. Furthermore, no local brand was categorized as a luxury/status enhancing product, indicating consumers perceived local brand category label as more practical.

In conclusion, study 2A indicated that global and foreign brand exemplars generated by consumers were similar and the product categorization of global and foreign brands showed substantial overlap between the two; respondents perceived relatively more global and foreign brands as luxury products. However, this overlap was not found for local and global or local and foreign brands.

Selecting Exemplary Brands for Study 2B

In addition to the frequency count, brands were recorded and categorized by product types. Since the questions in study 2A were open-ended, brand names generated by respondents varied greatly in terms of product categories, from foodstuff to services, making it necessary to limit the number of product categories used to select brands for study 2B and more importantly, study 3. Study 3 will examine values associated with the best exemplars identified in study 2B. Such values as well as other meanings, thoughts and attributes are likely to be influenced by the the product type associated with each exemplary brand since product category and brand seldom are separated from each other.

For example, the meanings of *Sony* as a brand will likely include associations with high-tech product lines. In addition, product type may well confound the design due to different levels of involvement and familiarity. To minimize these potential

confounding effects of product type, brands were nested within product categories in study 2B (as a prelude to study 3). Product categories were selected by experts (i.e., a consumer psychology professor and two grad students in the same field) for similar levels of familiarity and involvement to the sample group. As a result, familiar, lower involvement products such as soft drinks and familiar, higher involvement products such as electronic goods brands were selected to balance the two and limit the effects of potential confounding factors. Reliability was enhanced through consultation with local experts who confirmed relevance and familiarity of each product category with the respondent group. Product categories included were: 1) high involvement - automobiles, personal computers, sportswear, and casual clothing and 2) low involvement - soft drinks, beer, and fast food restaurants.

Study 2B: Measuring Exemplarity of Consumer Generated Brand Exemplars

Subjects

The second survey produced 200 questionnaires from college students in Korea, all of which were usable. Eighty one percent of the respondents were male and the average age was 24.4. Due to the unbalanced gender ratio, possible gender effects were examined and will be discussed shortly. Participants rated the exemplarity (i.e., how well the examples on the brand list represented global, foreign, or local brands) of each brand listed. The first third of the respondents, again divided, via random assignment, was asked to rate global brands, the next third rated foreign brands, and the last third rated local brands.

Questionnaire

Survey instructions read as follows (adapted from Fehr and Russell 1991):

You will be asked to rate how good an example of global (foreign/ local) brand you think each of the following brand is. Don't worry about why you think some brand is or isn't a good example. Just provide your opinion.

As in survey 1, instructions were translated into Korean from English.

Respondents were asked to rate each target brand on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (e.g., extremely poor example of a global brand) to 7 (e.g., extremely good example of a global brand). Their responses were used to calculate the exemplarity of each target brand.

Based on study 2A, the lists of global and foreign brands given to respondents were identical, but the list of local brands was different from global and foreign brands. The average of nine brand names were given per each product category to respondents to rate exemplarity (see Appendix A).

The second part of the questionnaire was a manipulation check for the involvement levels of products chosen for the study. A three-item Likert-type scale, which had been shortened from a five-item involvement scale,³ measured consumer involvement levels. The main reason for using the shortened scale was the difficulty of translating items from English to Korean, because “significant” and “important,” and “of concern to me” and “matters to me” were translated to virtually the same words in Korean, respectively, making it awkward to maintain the original five item scale (see Appendix B).

³ The original 20-item scale was developed by Zaichowsky (1985).

Results

Six brands with the highest scores for global, foreign and local brand exemplarity were selected within each of the seven product categories for further analysis (four high-involvement and three low involvement product categories). Although some gender differences between exemplars generated by respondents were observed, the differences did not affect the creation of final lists because brands with the highest exemplarity scores were almost identical and only differed by rank order (fewer than 10 percent differed for each product category). For example, male respondents rated exemplarity of soft drinks in the following order: *Coke--Pepsi--Fanta--Gatorade--Sprite--Seven-Up*. Females generated a very similar list: *Coke--Pepsi--Fanta--Sprite--Gatorade--Seven-Up* (starting with the highest scored exemplar). Thus, a total of 126 brand names (6 brand names within each category x 3 brand categories [global vs. foreign vs. local] x 7 product categories) were selected from study 2B for analysis and for later use in study 3.

Product involvement scales for high involvement products (automobiles, computers, clothing, and sportswear) and for low involvement products (beer, soft drinks, and fast food restaurants) were analyzed by paired t-test as a manipulation check. Results indicated that respondents reported significantly different levels of involvement between low involvement products (total mean score = 3.84; male mean = 3.84; female mean = 3.82) and high involvement products (total mean score = 4.76; male mean = 4.77; female mean = 4.70); (total, $t = -10.4$, $p < .000$, $df = 192$; for males only, $t = -9.70$, $p < .000$, $df = 155$; for females only, $t = -3.97$, $p < .000$, $df = 36$). Internal reliability ranged from .88 to .93, well above acceptable levels. Thus, the study's control of the potential product involvement was judged satisfactory.

As expected, selected local brand exemplars differed from the global or foreign brand exemplars. However, only six out of 84 brands in the foreign and global lists were different. Figure 6 shows rankings from the most exemplary to the lowest frequency for global, foreign and local brands.

Insert Figure 6 about here

Chapter 8: Study 3: Laddering In-depth Interviews

Objective of Study 3

Study 3 examined different values associated with global, foreign, and local brands through qualitative in-depth interviews. Using laddering interviews, study 3 supplemented findings from study 1 and 2 by probing consumers for deeper meanings, that is, values that might not be provided in response to conventional survey questions.

Integration of qualitative and quantitative method: MEC theory and laddering interviews

The Means-end chain (MEC) approach has been developed to overcome many qualitative method shortcomings. Based on Gutman's (1982) framework, the MEC presents a comprehensive model that incorporates multidimensional levels of meaning. It posits that consumers have multiple levels of goals. As such, the first level goal can be a means to the next level, an end. It further argues that these means-end linkages are connected in a chain like structure. In the case of consumer meaning, rather than focusing on a one-dimensional level of meaning, the MEC approach incorporates attributes (A) that consumers initially perceive from products or brands, consequences (C) or benefits that consumers associate with each attribute, and at the highest abstract level of meaning, values (V) that consumers gain from each benefit. One advantage of using MEC in studying consumer meaning is that researchers can uncover how consumer meanings hierarchically develop from the concrete level (A) to more abstract levels (C or V) (Gengler and Reynolds 1995). The MEC has been used widely in advertising (e.g., Gengler and Reynolds 1995), retailing (e.g., Thompson and Chen 1998), benefit segmentation (e.g., Botchen, Thelen, and Pieters 1999; Vriens and ter Hofstede 2000),

and consumer value studies (e.g., Gengler, Mulvey, and Oglethorpe 1999; Pieters, Baumgartner and Allen 1995).

Often used interchangeably with the MEC, “laddering” is a data collection method that is used to facilitate the interview process (Reynolds and Gutman 1988).

Laddering, according to Botschen et al. (1999, p. 44) refers to:

An in-depth, one-on-one interviewing technique used to develop an understanding of how consumers translate the attributes of products, service or behavior into meaningful associations with respect to self, following means-end theory.

There are three steps in implementing the laddering procedure: (1) elicitation of relevant attributes (A) of marketing stimuli from consumers; (2) in-depth probing that leads to identification of benefits (C: consequences) and values (V) derived from the attributes; and (3) analysis of results by creating an implication matrix and hierarchical value map (HVM), which is a tree like structure showing the A-C-V relationship.

Despite its unique benefits in studying consumer values and meanings, there are several limitations to traditional MEC and laddering methods. Selecting A, C, and V variables is a subjective and difficult process that may lead to variable research conclusions. Moreover, deciding cutoff points within a given HVM can be challenging, and simplifying A, C, and V may limit the full understanding of consumers’ true desires (Lin 2002). The complexity of the laddering method, as well as the difficulty of interpreting and comparing HVMs, has been discussed by ter Hofstede et al. (1998). Several researchers have suggested ways to make laddering more user-friendly. For example, a paper-and-pencil survey method has been implemented in several studies to replace the lengthy in-depth interview, which normally takes 60-75 minutes (e.g.,

Botschen and Hemetsberger 1998; Lin 2002; ter Hofstede, et al. 1998; Botschen et al. 1999), and computer software has been developed to minimize the manual data processing task (Gengler and Reynolds 1995).

Despite shortcomings, laddering is an established and reliable tool for uncovering consumers' deeper meanings (Wansink 2003). Because data collection and analysis in this study were performed in Korean, traditional pen-and-pencil methodology rather than a hierarchical computer software package was used.

Subjects

In-depth interviews with 48 (30 male and average age was 23) college students were conducted in Korean using the MEC laddering technique at a university in Korea. Informants were recruited by referrals and an announcement through the university's Internet bulletin board. Although there is no required number of informants for the laddering technique, typical MEC studies normally interview 30-100 informants (Claeys, Swinnen, and Van den Abeele 1995; Gengler et al. 1999). Four interviews were deleted from the data set due to incomplete data caused by equipment failure.

Procedure

A Korean research assistant, who is a graduate student in psychology, was recruited and trained in Korea to assist the primary researcher. The research assistant was not aware of the research questions but the basic laddering theory and techniques were explained in detail. The research assistant recruited respondents and performed in-depth interviews under the primary researcher's guidance. Using multiple interviewers is a

typical procedure in in-depth interviews to prevent possible biases that may be attributed to interviewers (e.g., Belk et al. 1988; Belk et al. 1989). Prior to initiating the actual interview sessions, both the researcher and the research assistant performed several trial interviews to familiarize themselves with the procedures and to perfect the interview techniques.

Interviews were conducted in private study rooms at the Korean university. When a respondent came for an interview, the interviewer offered refreshments and initiated casual conversation. A brief overview of the study was given to create rapport. Demographic information, such as age, class standing, major, etc. was obtained as well. Respondents were then asked to give oral consent to a taped interview. Confidentiality and aggregate-level analysis were stressed and respondents were told that they could withdraw anytime during the interview. Once oral consent was obtained (nobody declined the recording), the interviewer started recording. The whole process took approximately 90 minutes. Each informant was randomly assigned to one of two conditions: 1) global and local brand exemplars or 2) foreign and local brand exemplars. Thus, within each of these conditions, respondents were exposed to both high and low involvement brand exemplars. This approach enabled respondents to more easily compare and discuss the salient attributes of each brand type. The order for the pair of global and local, or the pair of foreign and local was counterbalanced to minimize order effects. Following the interview, informants received a gift certificate, which was worth 15,000 Korean won (equivalent to US\$12).

Generation of Attributes

The first step of the interview was to generate brand attributes associated with each exemplar brand. Initially, informants were asked to choose one brand exemplar from six exemplars in the same product category for each of seven product categories identified in study 2B. Respondents made their choice by selecting the brand exemplars in each category that they felt was the most “global” or “foreign” or “local” depending on their condition. For example, an informant interviewed for global brands was given an index card with six automobile brand names and asked to choose the one brand she/he perceived as most global. Next she/he was asked to follow the same procedure for computer brands, sportswear brands, and casual clothing brands. This procedure was devised to maximize the emic focus during the laddering task. That is, by narrowing top six exemplars that were selected in study 2B to only one, respondents could choose the most exemplary brand from each product category for themselves, supplementing the standardized exemplars identified in study 2B. Thus, it was expected to result in higher involvement with the task. Also, the selection effort was expected to prime respondents and focus their thoughts on the given brand category label.

After the informant chose four brands from four high involvement product categories, she/he was asked to provide attributes shared by all the brands selected (e.g., *BMW*, *IBM*, *NIKE*, and *POLO*). By asking for attributes common across product categories, it was expected that informants would generate higher level and more abstract attributes (e.g., expensive and high class) instead of more concrete attributes (e.g., speed for *BMW*), which might be less relevant for the current study. Brand selection and attribute generation were performed for three low involvement products (i.e., fast food,

soft drinks, and beer) in the same way. As a result, a total of seven brand names were selected for their perceived globalness, foreignness, or localness, and common attributes were generated twice: once for high involvement product brands and once for low involvement product brands.

According to Reynolds and Gutman (1988), there are several ways to extract attributes for the brand: informants may be asked to identify attributes that distinguish each brand (triadic sorting), rank the brands by preference (preference-consumption difference) or indicate usage occasions (differences by occasion). A combination of these three strategies was used when informants had a hard time generating attributes on their own.

Exploring consequences and values

The second step of the laddering technique is to identify the consequences and values associated with each brand type. Once the informant generated several attributes (e.g., refreshing, cold to drink, inexpensive), the interviewer gave a series of questions asking why the listed attributes were important to the respondent (e.g., “Why is refreshing taste important to you?”). When the respondent gave an answer to the initial “why” question for a specific attribute, the interviewer asked another “why” question. For example, if the respondent said “because it puts me in a good mood,” the next “why” question would be “Why is a good mood important to you?” This question might result in answers such as “because my good mood is important for my family,” to “because my family is most precious to me,” to “because my family is the one who cares about me,” and so forth. This whole process was repeated until the informant’s answers reached a terminal value, when the informant could not provide an answer after spending a fair

amount of time without moving to a higher level, or until informants started giving circular answers (Claeys et al. 1995). Once the terminal value (e.g., belonging) for an attribute (e.g., refreshing taste) was reached, the interviewer moved to explore the next attribute (e.g., cold to drink) until all attributes were exhausted. As shown in figure 7, Rokeach's (1973) seven values were used as a value reference.

Insert Figure 7 about here

Results

Data recorded from the laddering interviews were transcribed verbatim by interviewers and analyzed through traditional laddering procedures that included: undertaking content analysis, creating summary matrices and implication matrices, and drawing hierarchical value maps.

Content analysis of laddering interviews

Following the procedure explained by Reynolds and Gutman (1988), two native Korean speakers who were blind to the specific research propositions of this study, but who were trained extensively for the laddering procedure, read the transcribed interview data and recorded the entire set of ladders for each transcript. To expedite the procedure, entire transcripts were divided into two parts. First, each coder recorded the ladders in each half independently. The other coder then examined the recorded halves for completeness and preciseness. Where differences of judgment occurred, coders marked them and later discussed them with the researcher to reach an agreement. There were six conditions of interviewed data: global brands-high involvement products (25 interviews);

global brands-low involvement (25 interviews); foreign brands-high involvement (19 interviews), foreign brands-low involvement (19 interviews); local brands-high involvement (44 interviews), and local brands-low involvement (44 interviews). Some portions of interview data were excluded from the data set as they did not comprise ladders. On average, two to three ladders were identified for each condition per respondent. These numbers are considered typical in laddering interviews (Reynolds and Gutman 1988). Once identified, individual ladders were aggregated into each condition for the next procedure, resulting in six sets of ladders.

The next step was to classify all the responses of the individual ladders in the six conditions into either attributes (A), consequences (C), or values (V). Coders were given the descriptions of attribute, consequence, and value dimensions and examples (Reynolds and Gutman 1988; Wansink 2003). As described in chapter six, attributes were conceived as the physical aspects of the product or the service which may be either tangible or intangible. For example, both “round” and “heavy” are attributes. Consequences are desired or experienced outcomes of the attributes that consumers relate to use or possession of the product or service. Consequences may be functional (e.g., convenience), psychological (e.g., makes me happy), or social (e.g., others will see me as more powerful) (Claeys et al. 1995). Values are the most abstract aspects that constitute the higher ends of MEC. Rokeach’s (1973) seven values (achievement, belonging, self-fulfillment, self-esteem, family, satisfaction, and security) were given to coders as templates (Wansink 2003).

After training the coders on classifying consumer responses as attributes, consequences, or values, the task was divided into two parts. After coders finished

classifying the first half of the data, their results were exchanged and examined for similarity in categorization, accuracy and completeness. When disagreements occurred, they were resolved through discussions among the two coders and the researcher. Inter-coder agreements were acceptable—over 80 percent for attributes and consequences, and over 85 percent for values, satisfying the recommendation by Kassirjian (1977).

Once the classification of attributes, consequences, and values was completed for the six “ladder” conditions, the results were aggregated and content analyzed to create summary codes. The original coders were consulted to ensure objectivity and care was taken to create summary codes that were comprehensive, yet concise. Figure 8 and 9 show the summary codes for the six conditions.

Insert Figure 8 about here

Insert Figure 9 about here

Creating the implication matrix

Using summary codes, individual ladders in each condition were coded to create a score matrix, with rows corresponding to each informant’s individual ladder and columns corresponding to elements (i.e., A/C/Vs). Figure 10 shows the ladders for “foreign brands-low involvement products” as an example of this procedure. Tables 7 to 12 show summary implication matrices for six conditions. Next, based on the score matrix, a row-column frequency square matrix or implication matrix, which displays the frequency of relationships (i.e., each element leads to other elements), was created for each condition.

There were two types of relationships between elements. A direct relationship between two elements occurred when one element directly led to another element in the same ladder without going through any intermediary element. An indirect relationship happened when the two elements were mentioned in the same ladder, but were separated by one or two other elements. For example, in the following ladder, “popular – worthwhile/ rational consumption –self-confidence,” popular and worthwhile/ rational consumption have a direct relationship while popular and self-confidence have an indirect relationship. Both direct and indirect relationships among elements were counted as recommended in the literature (Gangler, Klenosky, and Mulvey 1995; Reynolds and Gutman 1988). Table 10, row four, column 14 (1.03) indicates, for example, that there were one direct and three indirect relationships between elements four and 14, therefore, there were four (one plus three) relationships all together.

Insert Figure 10 about here

Insert Table 7 about here

Insert Table 8 about here

Insert Table 9 about here

Insert Table 10 about here

Insert Table 11 about here

Insert Table 12 about here

Creating hierarchical value map

Once the implication matrix was completed, a hierarchical value map (HVM) was created for each condition, resulting in six HVMs (global, foreign, and local brand exemplars for high and low involvement products). HVMs are graphical presentations of interviews that describe the relationships among attributes, consequences, and values. A key concern when creating the HVMs was to decide on cutoff points that would determine which relationships to include in maps. Including every relationship in an implication map provides a comprehensive map of linkages between elements, but also creates clutter, which creates difficulties for interpreting the data. Therefore, it was necessary to select the most relevant relationships by imposing cutoff points. There is no clear-cut way of determining the cutoff points. However Reynolds and Gutman (1988) and Pieters et al. (1995) have suggested some heuristics. For example, multiple levels could be used to find the best cutoff point. Proportions of relationships between elements according to different levels could be graphically depicted to find an elbow; that is, the proportion of active cells in the implication matrix (i.e., cells which are not blank, and thus, signify some relationships between elements) to the proportion of all relationships between elements.

In this study, multiple cutoff levels were tested to determine the one that led to the most informative and interpretable explanation as well as the one that accounted for the most relationships among elements with a relatively small number of cells in the implication matrix (Pieters et al. 1995). Tables 13 to 18 present the analyses that helped determine optimal cutoff points for each condition. As a result, different cutoff points for each condition were chosen, ranging from four to seven, based on the criteria of interpretability and proportion of element relationships. Consequently, the hierarchies included only those relationships that were mentioned at least four times (or five, six, or seven, depending on each condition) by respondents. Since these cutoff levels selected only a small portion of the more prominent relationships, some detail is lost. As shown in tables 8 through 13, given cutoff levels, approximately one third of the relationships were accounted for in each condition's HVM, which was slightly lower than that recommended by Reynolds and Gutman (1988). However, unlike other laddering research that focused on specific products, such as wine cooler (Reynolds and Gutman 1988), pet food (Gengler and Reynolds 1995), vegetable oil (Nielsen, Bech-Larson, and Grunert 1998) or on specific goals, such as losing weight (Pieters et al. 1995), this study asked for attributes across exemplars from different categories that require more abstract thinking. Thus, responses were extremely diverse. In addition, many ladders were idiosyncratic and mentioned only once or twice. Therefore, it was necessary to choose cutoff points that facilitated a parsimonious and clear set of HVMs.

Insert Table 13 about here

Insert Table 14 about here

Insert Table 15 about here

Insert Table 16 about here

Insert Table 17 about here

Insert Table 18 about here

The last step was to construct HVMs that depicted meaning hierarchies for global, foreign, and local brands. As recommended by Gengler et al. (1995), alternative HVM formats which are clearer and simpler in their presentations were used instead of traditional HVMs. Figures 11 through 16 show HVMs for each condition.

Insert Figure 11 about here

Insert Figure 12 about here

Insert Figure 13 about here

Insert Figure 14 about here

Insert Figure 15 about here

Insert Figure 16 about here

Examining Values Associated with Each Brand Category Label

The HVMS of global, foreign, and local brand exemplars were examined to test research question 3. First, global brand exemplar HVMS were compared. For high involvement products, as shown in Figure 11, there were four major meaning hierarchies. Global brands were considered “the best” in terms of quality and reputation and were associated with “power and money” and brought the consequence of “make me better/feel superior” which ultimately led to self-esteem and satisfaction (e.g., “Brand X is the top of the line so when I use it I feel superior to others and that feeling brings me pride and satisfaction”). These images of “the best” and “power and money” also gave the assurance of value for investment (utility), which led to the feeling of accomplishment (e.g., “Brand X is the best in its category and its high quality justifies its high price in the long run. I feel like I am a sensible and clever consumer”). Interestingly, this image of power appeared to respondents to communicate a positive impression to others and to facilitate harmonious relationships with others rather than alienating them (e.g., “Brand X is for people with power and money, therefore if I use it, it helps my social relationships with the right people”). Similarly, the perceived “popularity” of global brands helped

respondents blend with others and brought them a sense of belonging (e.g., “Brand X is popular, so if I use it, it will help my social relationship”).

For exemplars from low involvement product categories, as shown in figure 12, respondents also considered “popularity” an important attribute. However, this time global brands were perceived as popular because of interesting commercials and advertising campaigns, which made them familiar and “approachable” to respondents. “Popular” global brands helped respondents receive social recognition from others and feel a sense of belonging (e. g., “I see Brand X everywhere I go and all my friends saw the funny commercial of Brand X, so if I use it, everyone will know what it is and I feel like we share something together”). Contrary to findings of study 1, which showed that global availability was not an important attribute of global brand category label, several respondents expressed awareness of worldwide availability of global brands and they believed this global availability could enhance product utility, which in turn reinforced their confidence and ultimately, a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction (e. g., “I know Brand X is used by people all around the world, therefore it must be a good brand and using it makes me a clever consumer”). It seems that separating high and low involvement products, using laddering interviews or both in combination produced certain attributes emerged that did not arise in response to the global brand category label alone (i.e., in study 1).

Thus, analyses of the global brand meaning hierarchies supported efforts to answer research RQ 1, which sought to ascertain the consistency between consumer perspectives and managerial driven attributes of brands, and RQ 3, which aimed to assess what values were associated with each brand category. However, other theoretical values

thought to be associated with global brands, such as modernity and openness to new cultures and experiences, did not arise. Meanwhile, the difference in attributes and values between high and low involvement products supported separating high these types from each other in order to control confounding effects

Next, foreign brand values were examined. For high involvement products, as shown in figure 13, there were three major meaning hierarchies. First, the attributes of “rare and expensive,” “cool,” and “popular” helped respondents feel the benefits of “make me special” and promised a more “exciting life” and “social recognition,” which in turn cued feelings of accomplishment, self-esteem, and satisfaction (e.g., “Brand Y is cool and popular *because* it is expensive and rare. Not everyone can own it and that makes me special and my life more exciting”). Second, the attribute of “good quality” provided utilitarian benefit, “efficiency” and eventually led to the value of “satisfaction” (e.g., “Brand Y delivers high quality products and they save me time and effort since they will last longer. I can do other things with saved time and effort”). Last, “popularity” and “good quality” assured respondents that their choice of foreign brands would be recognized and acknowledged by others (e.g., “Brand Y is popular and has good quality, so when people see me using it they will recognize my good taste in things”).

Examining HVMs of global and foreign high involvement products, it seemed that meanings of the two were similar in attributes, consequences, and values. However, more careful inspection of their structures indicated that the values associated with global brands were more utilitarian while foreign brand meanings had a stronger hedonic orientation. While consumers listed “power,” “the best,” and “popular” as global brand attributes, they listed “rare and expensive,” “good quality,” “popular,” and “cool” as

foreign brand attributes, indicating more experiential characteristics. Consequences of global brand consumption were more instrumental in their benefits, such as “worthwhile consumption,” “assurance,” “makes me *better*,” “gives good impression to others,” and “harmonious relationship,” while those of foreign brands included more experiential and hedonic benefits, such as “makes me *special*” and “exciting life,” although they also included utilitarian benefits. Meaning hierarchies showed that consumers were more interested in utility from global brands, while they expected more hedonic outcomes from foreign brands. Moreover, consumers seemed to use foreign brands to stand out from the masses instead of blending in as indicated by “makes me *special*” versus “gives good impression to others.”

The underlying theme of foreign brands’ hedonic benefits was present in low involvement products as well. Figure 13 demonstrates that, as in high involvement products, the “popularity” and “good quality,” “assurance,” “social recognition,” and “satisfaction” link was also present. In addition, “cool”--“social recognition”--“satisfaction” reappeared. This time, however, “exciting life” was associated with “my taste,” and ultimately led to satisfaction and self-fulfillment (e.g., “Brand Y provides just my taste. So it makes me enjoy my life and helps me be more productive”). In sum, while elements of foreign brands’ meaning structures appeared similar to those of global brands at first glance, examination of the whole hierarchies revealed underlying differences between the two. In particular, more utilitarian linkages characterized global brands, while foreign brands possessed more hedonic linkages.

As a last step, the HVMs of local brands were examined. Figure 14 shows the meaning hierarchies of high involvement products that suggested some unexpected

meanings for local brands. First, respondents generated “global exportation” as one of the main attributes of local brands, suggesting that global availability is not a key attribute associated with the global brand category alone. “Globalness” led to patriotic feelings and eventually, the sense of belonging with their fellow countrymen (e.g., “Brand Z is being exported to everywhere and that helps the local economy and enhances others’ impression toward us. That makes me proud of my country and myself”). Thus, patriotic feelings and pride flowed from the perceived globalness of local brands. A second hierarchy of meanings suggested that respondents thought local brands provided “good quality,” considering their reasonable price and they enabled consumers to obtain good value for the money. Consumers also perceived local brand products as “time saving.” In turn, respondents felt better about them and considered themselves socially recognized for their wise purchase behavior (e.g., “Buying Brand Z is a smart choice since it is a good quality at a reasonable price. I can do other things with saved resources and that makes me a smart consumer. People will notice I am a thoughtful person to make such a decision. I feel so successful”). Third, “high class,” “cool,” and “popular” images of high involvement local brands made respondents feel better about themselves and that led to self-fulfillment (e.g., “Brand Z is so cool and popular that by using it I feel better and more at ease with my life”). Although value-level meanings of high involvement local brands were not much different from those of global and foreign brands, lower level meanings showed some variation.

For low involvement products, the patriotic feelings reappeared, however, this time respondents felt patriotic sentiments because of the perceived “localness” of brands. Respondents recognized Brand Z as a local brand and they felt they should purchase it for

the “good of the country.” On the other hand, “tradition” and the “popularity” of local brands made respondents “comfortable” purchasing these products, since they have been around for a long time and are popular. This feeling of comfort led to brand “utility” (e.g., “Brand Z has been around for a long time, therefore it must be tested and accepted by others. By choosing it, I can save time and effort and I can do other things with saved resources”) and “assurance” (e.g., “Brand Z has been around for a long time, therefore it must have been tested and accepted by others. I feel safe using it”). In conclusion, the presence of patriotic feelings, tradition and history, and familiarity found in local brand meaning hierarchies was consistent with expectations suggested for RQ 3. Although the presence of the “globalness” attribute found in local brand meanings was unexpected, it could be understood as another manifestation of ethnocentrism. After all, several Korean conglomerates have been successful in their global expansion and Korean consumers appear to be aware and proud of their success.

Figures 17 and 18 summarize the meanings found in HVMs of study 3.

Insert Figure 17 about here

Insert Figure 18 about here

Lastly, the attributes and consequences reported by respondents were categorized by three aspects of brand concepts (i.e., functional, symbolic, and experiential brand images; Park et al. 1986) to compare meanings associated with three brand categories. As shown in figures 17 and 18, while functional and symbolic images were observed

consistently among the attributes, consequences, and values associated with all three brand categories, experiential brand images were found only in the foreign brand category. This finding supports the previous observation that found that more hedonic (vs. utilitarian) brand meanings for foreign (versus global and local) among consumers. As discussed in chapter 4, consumers' brand meanings are thought to be created based on company-driven brand concepts (images) and the findings from study 3 showed that consumer generated brand meanings were mostly functional and symbolic except for experiential images observed among the foreign brand meanings.

Chapter 9: Discussion, Managerial Implications, and Future Research

Discussion

Ever since Levitt's (1983) declaration of market globalization, more and more international marketers have focused on developing global brands (Kapferer 2002; Steenkamp et al. 2003a). Regardless of enormous efforts to develop global brands, however, hard evidence demonstrating an advantage for global brands is limited and not always favorable. For example, in 1999, the share of world GDP related to global brands was no more than five percent (Quelch 1999). A.C. Nielsen's 2001 survey reported that "global brands" were still rare. Further only 43 brands were considered global, according to A.C. Nielsen's criteria (Mitchell 2002).

Mitchell (2000; 2002) suggested that companies were in favor of developing global brands because of utilitarian and managerial benefits, such as economies of scale. However, he argued that purchasing global brands provided little reward for consumers, thus, consumers were indifferent toward them. Suh and Kwon (2002) found evidence suggesting that globalization actually increased the number of ethnocentric consumers in Korea who were reluctant to purchase nonlocal brands. Maxwell (2001) provided similar evidence in India where consumers in their study remained unconvinced of the value of global brands. However, a recent study by Steenkamp et al. (2003) found that perceived brand globalness was associated with higher quality and enhanced prestige in Korea and the U.S.

Hence, evidence of both the meanings and valences associated with global brands for consumers in Korea and other developing countries remains mixed and uncertain. Part of this confusion seems to stem from the fact that researchers and managers have defined

global brands from their own perspectives (e.g., global availability, economies of scale from standardization, quality, etc.) and assumed consumers do the same. While Steenkamp et al. (2003a) represent an effort to determine attributes and benefits associated with “perceived globalness,” even they impose an etically-driven set of brand characteristics on their consumer samples. To date, researchers do not appear to have approached the issues of global brand meanings strictly from a bottom-up, emic perspective; that is, from the consumer’s perspective.

Therefore, the primary purpose of the current study was to investigate in-depth meanings of global brands as consumers in a developing country, Korea, see them. One strength of this study was the utilization of several different data collection approaches. The multimethod design sought to balance the richness of qualitative (e.g., thought elicitation and laddering interviews) and the objectivity of quantitative (e.g., Likert-type scales and prototype studies) research methodology. Overall, the three studies described herein not only addressed the research questions posed, but also imparted important insights that will enrich our understanding of consumer meanings associated with global brands.

First, this study confirmed certain findings from previous research on global brands. For example, Steenkamp et al. (2003) pointed out that perceived brand globalness was closely related to perceived brand quality and prestige and the meanings generated in this study replicated their results. In the current study, high quality was one of the most frequently mentioned global brand thoughts in study 1 and one of the main attributes (“the best”) of high involvement global brands in study 3. Furthermore, many of the

attributes described by respondents were prestige-related (e.g., high status, famous, luxury brands, etc.).

However, it is interesting to note that the “high quality” and “prestige” attributes did not arise for low involvement product types such as fast food restaurants and soft drinks. This difference indicated that not all global brands were perceived as high quality and prestigious. Rather, consumers considered worldwide availability, one of the etic characteristics of global brands, as an important attribute of such low involvement products, and they regarded it as a reason for purchasing these brands. This finding indicated that global brands might have different appeals to consumers depending on the product type. In addition, the list of exemplary global brands generated by student consumers of Korea was not much different from the lists reported by industry sources such as *Business Week*, showing that there was some consensus on what constitutes a global brand among experts and regular consumers. It confirmed the occurrence of meaning transfer from marketers to consumers (McCracken 1986).

Second, in addition to replicating prior research, findings from this study provided answers to the research questions that expand the current understanding of branding practices. RQ 1 explored whether the brand categorization of global, foreign, and local was valid to consumers in Korea, a developing country, and whether current attributes associated with each brand category label reflect consumers’ actual perceptions; RQ 2 made asked whether exemplars would differ by brand category label; and RQ 3 inquired about the nature of values attached to each brands’ exemplars.

In regard to RQ 1, research findings indicated that consumers in Korea do not perceive global and foreign brands in significantly different terms when presented only

with the brand category label. The analysis of the Likert-type scale in study 1 demonstrated that consumers did as clear a distinction between global and foreign brand categories relative to global verses local or foreign verses local. The results of study 2 provided answers to RQ 2. Consumer generated global and foreign brand exemplars that were very similar in terms of the actual brands identified, their product categories and their characteristics. Yet, this overlap was not found between foreign and local brands. On the other hand, several Korean brands were included in global brand exemplars. This overlap of global and local brands reflects that consumer distinctions between these brand categories have some flexibility.

One explanation for this flexibility may be found in the extensive efforts by Korean companies to use and create the global brand images for their products as a successful marketing strategy. Several local (Korean) companies (e.g., *Samsung*, *LG*, *Hyundai*, etc.) became global in their operations and aggressively communicated their aspirations and successes through marketing communications toward their local consumers (Schmitt and Pan 1994). Their efforts seem to have made a strong impression on Korean consumers, as reflected in the findings of local brand meanings. When mentioning local brand thoughts, respondents stated that high quality local brands were being exported to other countries and were global. In fact, they regarded *Samsung* as one of the best exemplars of a global brand (and a local brand) and they were not far from the truth according to *Business Week*, which ranked *Samsung* 25th among global brands, worth \$10.85 billion (2003).

Thus, Korean consumers may have developed more flexible boundaries between global and local brands. The overlapping characteristics of global and local brands found

in this study might explain Korean consumers' more positive attitudes toward global brands as compared to foreign brands. Whereas foreign brands could hardly be considered local unless their foreignness was downplayed or hidden, local brands could become global and these latter two categories were not mutually exclusive, resulting in a more positive attitude toward global brands among consumers.

In regard to RQ 3, despite the blurred boundaries between global and foreign brand categories, there were also unique meanings associated with each. Study 1 showed that expensive price, availability only in certain places, distant image, extravagance, and the specific country related thoughts were more frequently mentioned in response to the foreign brand category label than the global brand category label. In study 2 foreign brand exemplars were more likely identified as hedonic than global brand exemplars. Study 3 showed that at the attribute level, global and foreign brand meanings were almost similar (e.g., expensive, high quality, popular, cool, etc.). However, more careful inspection of consequence-level meanings indicated that consumers were pursuing more utilitarian goals with global brands compared to foreign brands. In conclusion, global and foreign brands were similar in quality and prestige aspects, but the foreignness of foreign brands (e.g., distance and extravagance) made consumers perceive foreign brands as having a more hedonic than utilitarian perspective.

Previous research observed that even with the rapid globalization of markets and globalized mindsets of consumers, consumer ethnocentrism still played a substantial role in consumer decision making, both in developed and developing countries, although to different degrees (Suh and Kwon 2002). Supporting this observation, the results from this study showed that consumer ethnocentrism was reflected in consumers' global, foreign,

and local brand meanings and contributed to ambivalent feelings toward global, foreign, and local brands. Consumers regarded global and foreign brands as desirable because of the perceived high quality and prestige, but at the same time consumers perceived them undesirable because they were symbols of cultural imperialism (global brands) or buying them might hurt the local economy (foreign brands). As mentioned earlier, the negative impact of consumer ethnocentrism was stronger toward foreign brands than toward global brands. This distinction may be explained by the fact that global brands were not necessarily foreign and they could include some local brands as indicated in the case of *Samsung*. The ambivalence was present again in local brand meanings. Consumers in a developing country like Korea did not evaluate local brands highly favorable in terms of quality and prestige. At best, they regarded the quality as improving or comparable to non-local brands since the price was cheaper and more reasonable. However, the analysis of brand thoughts revealed that Korean consumers felt they should purchase local brands to help their economy despite their so-so quality.

In conclusion, this study investigated consumers' thoughts, meanings, and values associated with brand category labels by conducting three studies that combined both qualitative and quantitative approaches. It confirmed some of the previously identified consumer associations with the global brand category label (e.g., quality and prestige; Steenkamp et al. 2003a) and provided several new insights. With respect to RQ, the overall research question of this study, the results from three studies showed that consumers perceived similar associations with the global and foreign brand category labels when asked directly (study 1: Likert-type scale). Similarly, when asked to identify exemplars associated with each label (study2), a good amount of overlap (63 percent)

was found between global and foreign brand exemplars. Even so, there were differences in the thoughts, attributes, meanings, and values associated with global versus foreign brand category label in study 1 and particularly, in study 3. These somewhat contradictory results seem to indicate that the global brand category label is rather an evolving concept that overlaps with foreign brand category label. Furthermore, the global brand category label appears to encompass some high-achieving local brands. These results seem to reflect global brands' relative newness compared to other brand category labels, especially in a developing country like Korea where the introduction of global brands is relatively recent. Figure 19 shows the framework of global, foreign, and local brands relationships found in this study.

Insert Figure 19 about here

Managerial implications

RQ 4 focused on the practical implications of studying brand meanings. Understanding what a brand means to consumers is the most important starting point in branding research since it provides practical knowledge for directions or strategies that marketers may adopt. As Wansink (2003) has argued, the ultimate goal of laddering is to develop a successful marketing campaign. This study provides several insights marketers can utilize. First, it suggests that associating one's brand with the global brand category label in general is a strategically desirable brand positioning in Korea and possibly in other developing countries that markers can utilize for their brands. Despite the presence of a small percentage (i.e., two percent) of thoughts related to cultural imperialism, Korean consumers were more positive toward the global brand category label itself than

either the foreign or local brand category labels. Furthermore, this positive attitude also extended to companies that produced global brands.

Second, it suggests that brand meanings are multi-layered and should be investigated using multiple methods in order to be fully understood. Study 1's thought elicitation in response to global, foreign and local brand category labels only, generated relatively surface brand attributes, thoughts and meanings from consumers. The laddering interviews supplemented these top-of-the-head, surface meanings. While several attributes mentioned in study 3 were similar to the elicited thoughts from study 1, consequences and values in study 3 revealed additional insights for formulating a marketing strategy (Wansink 2003).

Laddering, for example, can tap into the set of meanings and associations that differentiate a product from the competition (Reynolds and Gutman 1988). Furthermore, laddering in study helped understand why consumers really wanted to buy products. For example, consumers perceived prestige as one of the attributes of both global (e.g., the best, power and money) and foreign (e.g., rare and expensive, cool, and popular) brand exemplars of high involvement products. However, the HVMs showed that consequences and values were different for the two brand categories. That is, the perceived prestige of global brand exemplars helped consumers feel better about themselves, and lead them to achieve higher self-esteem and satisfaction, while the perceived prestige of foreign brand exemplars made consumers feel special (different from others) about themselves, feel excited about their lives, lead to feel recognized by others, and eventually feel accomplished, satisfied, and esteemed.

This study also ascertained that brand meanings differed depending on the product category and consumers' product involvement. It should be noted that although consumers might use the brand as a heuristic cue for efficient decision-making (e.g., "global brands are high quality"), analysis of the laddering interviews showed that consumers were savvy and keenly concerned with obtaining "good value for the money" – a utilitarian perspective. Consumers seemed to justify their purchasing of global brands, which were more expensive than local brands, with utilitarian reasoning, such as "while it is more expensive than other brands, it is a worthwhile investment" and "although it is a splurge, it is worthwhile since others will look up to me." They also regarded local brands as a good deal that provided quality conveniently and at reasonable prices. Figure 20 shows key insights, their managerial implications, and recommendations for marketing strategies for each brand category.

Insert Figure 20 about here

There were two findings regarding brand exemplars that warrant further discussion. First, although respondents were asked to write down their thoughts when they thought about global (or foreign or local) brands in study 1, many of them mentioned specific brand names instead of their thoughts and feelings. This spontaneous generation of exemplars in response to the category labels alone indicated that certain brands were strongly (or successfully) imprinted in consumers' mindsets as global (or foreign or local) brands. Second, as explained in chapter 7, a substantial portion of generated local brand exemplars were conglomerate-level brands, an observation true for

global brands as well, although to a lesser degree. This finding might reflect the current positioning and brand management practices of local brands in Korea, which more strongly emphasize corporate brands than lower level brand names. Therefore, it is advisable for multinational companies to adopt brand names, which remind consumers of their corporate origins, to appeal to the evident sense of security consumers obtain from big name corporate brands.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

Although this study uncovered valuable insights, there are several areas that require further investigation. First, while the use of convenience samples in this study can be justified via ecological validity (i.e., students are avid consumers of global and foreign brands in Korea), generalization of research findings from this study to the general population must be made with caution. One reason that generalization needs to be questioned is that some researchers have suggested that younger generations tend to be more open minded toward globalization and global and foreign brands in general (Kellior, D'Amico, and Horton 2001; Wee 1999). Thus, the use of student samples in the three studies may have understated consumers' ethnocentric attitudes towards global and foreign brands. Additional studies with different age groups would strengthen the findings in this study. Another suggestion, also referring to sample limitations, is to perform studies in other developing countries that show different cultural characteristics from Korea. Considering that some developing countries exhibit less collectivistic qualities and more tolerance toward foreign cultures (e.g., Taiwan, Thailand, Indonesia,

etc.), replication of this study in such countries would further address generalizability and contribute more insights for managerial decisions.

Second, it is noteworthy that research respondents generated significantly more responses both for brand exemplars and brand thoughts of global brands than either foreign or local brands, despite the controlled order effect. There are two possible reasons for this phenomenon. One, marketers who positioned their brands as global and whose companies were multinational (or global) may have more resources to communicate their brand names to consumers, and as a result, consumers may have been exposed to more messages so they were able to recall more brand names and generate more brand thoughts than foreign or local brands. In fact, a higher proportion of global brand thoughts were related to marketing communications, such as “interesting commercials” and “active sponsoring of sports events.” After all, global brands such as *Coca-Cola* and *McDonald's* are known to spend astronomical amounts of their budget for promotion. For example, the launching of the new *Vanilla Coke* required over \$23 million in measured spending for the advertising campaign in the U.S. alone (Chura 2003).

Two, since Korea is a developing country that is trying to catch up with the other more advanced countries, and which is still in the process of recovering from the recent economic hardship of the 1997 crisis, the government emphasizes the importance of being more global in every aspect to speed up the recovery and permit participation in the global economy. This government-driven, top down approach to globalization has been accelerated during the last decade. As such, it may have made average Korean consumers highly sensitive to “globalization” and many factors associated with it such as global brands (Suh and Kwon 2002). Thus, it would not be too surprising if Korean consumers

have more detailed meanings of global brands which have been emphasized in many official occasions, compared to foreign or local brands. However, these hypotheses need verifications in future studies.

Third, although having multiple studies is one of the strengths of this research, there is one unexpected outcome regarding meanings associated with the local brand category label. While the meanings associated with the global and foreign brand category labels varied slightly between studies 1 and 3, local brand meanings observed in study 1 and study 3 differed widely. That is, study 1 found that attributes, thoughts, and meanings associated with the local brand category label were mostly negative, such as bad quality, cheap prices, and tacky images. However, findings from study 3 were almost the opposite. That is, attributes, consequences, and values associated with local brand exemplars were largely positive, such as good quality and prestigious images.

There are several possible explanations for this puzzling phenomenon. It is likely that respondents provided different attributes and thoughts when they were asked in abstract terms (i.e., study 1: when you think about local brands, what comes to mind? Please list all your thoughts.) versus concrete ways (i.e., study 3: please think about the attributes shared by these local brands.). It has been observed that people use mental heuristics to reduce mental effort for decision-making. However, relying on heuristics may lead to systematic biases (Tversky and Kahneman, 1974). In the case of this study, it is speculated that respondents in study 1 referred to negative biases toward the local brand category label that have been widely observed in developing countries (Batra et al. 2000), without much cognitive effort when the task was given. Alternatively, respondents may have used a routine didactic mental frame of nonlocal versus local brand

categorization when they reported thoughts and meanings associated with the local brand category label, again resulting in negatively biased outcomes.

On the other hand, in study 3, in an in-depth interview setting, respondents generated attributes, consequences, and values associated with exemplary brands they had chosen previously. It is likely that respondents were more involved in the task, resulting in more cognitive elaboration and more positive responses. In addition, there is a possibility that the choices of product categories in study 3 may have positively skewed responses. As described in chapter 8, the product categories used in study 3 were determined by the results from study 2. Certain Korean-made products are known to have better quality. Cars, personal computers, casual clothing, and sportswear that were used as high involvement product exemplars in study 3 tend to belong to those higher quality groups. Thus, it is possible that the high involvement exemplars used in study 3 might not be representative of the overall category. Regarding low involvement products, it has been observed that food products (i.e., fast food restaurants, beer, and soft drinks in study 3) are deeply rooted in cultural tradition (Alden et al. 1999; Jussaume (2001)). This may have produced more positive evaluations than one would expect for the total set of local low involvement brands. Future research is needed to develop a better understanding of this issue.

Last, the results of this study showed that although consumers thought that the global brand category label was associated with a few developed countries (study 1: scale-based analysis), they also thought that some of high-achieving local brands had become global (study 2A). This result indicates that country-of-origin (CO) may become a less critical issue as the global brand label and its attendant schema become better

defined and clearer in the minds of consumers. In addition, consumers' thoughts associated with the global brand category label showed that consumers were not overly concerned with CO, compared to other attributes such as quality and price. That is, only three percent of thoughts associated with the global brand category label were coded as CO-related thoughts. On the other hand, six percent of the thoughts associated with the foreign brand category label were CO-related. These results seem to support the argument that CO is becoming less relevant as an extrinsic information cue for consumers in the era of global production (Lim and O'Cass 2001).

In contrast, considering the higher percentage of company-related thoughts associated with the global brand category label (seven percent), the names of the companies that produce brands may have more information values to consumers. Furthermore, it may even suggest that consumers have begun to substitute company knowledge for CO as an information cue when evaluating global brands. This is an interesting and important research question to be examined more carefully, since traditionally most global brands have originated from and been associated with developed countries which have been a part of global brand meanings, whether explicitly or implicitly. However, considering the recent emergence of global brands from developing countries, such as *Haier* from China (Zeng and Williamson 2003), notwithstanding brands from Korea, further studies of globally marketed brands that originate in developing countries are strongly recommended to bring more insightful knowledge to nationality of global brands.

Appendix A: Measures

Study 1

When you think about global brands, what comes to your mind? Please list all your thoughts.

When you think about foreign brands, what comes to your mind? Please list all your thoughts.

When you think about local brands, what comes to your mind? Please list all your thoughts.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. There are no right or wrong answers. For example, if you completely agree with the description, circle “7”; if you moderately agree, circle “6” or “5”; if you are undecided, circle “4”; if you moderately disagree, circle “3” or “2”; if you completely disagree, circle “1.”

	Disagree Completely					Agree Completely	
1. When I consider global and foreign brands, I think of same brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Foreign brands are associated with a few developed countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. When I consider global and local brands, I think of same brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. When I consider global and foreign brands, I think of different brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Foreign brands and local brands have different attributes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Global brands and local brands have similar images.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Global brands are strongly associated with a few developed countries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Local brands are strongly associated with a few developed countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. When I consider foreign and local brands, I think of different brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Foreign brands are not strongly associated with any single country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Global brands and local brands have different attributes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Local brands are not strongly associated with any single country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. Global brands and foreign brands have similar images. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. Global brands and foreign brands have different attributes. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. Foreign brands and local brands have similar images. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. Global brands are not strongly associated with any single country. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. When I consider global and local brands, I think of different brands. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. When I consider foreign and local brands, I think of same brands. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Demographic data. This information will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research project only.

Age as of your last birthday: _____ years

Gender: ____1. Female ____2. Male

Study 2A**Version 1 (Global brands)**

Please list as many examples of the global brand as come to mind. The examples of the global brand that you list may include ones you are aware, or are heard of -anything that you consider as the global brand. Remember that there are no right or wrong answers - just give us your opinions.

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Demographic data. This information will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research project only.

Age as of your last birthday: _____ years

Gender: ___ 1. Female ___ 2. Male

Study 2B

Version 1 (Global brands)⁴

You will be asked to rate how good an example of the global brand the brand is. Don't worry about why you think some brand is or isn't a good example. Just give us your opinion. If you think the brand is an extremely good example of the global brand, rate "7"; if you think the brand is a somewhat good example, rate "6" or "5"; if you are undecided, write "4"; if you think the brand is a bad examples, rate "3" or "2"; if you don't think the brand is an extremely bad example, write "1."

Beer

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. (Brand name A) _____ | 2. (Brand name B) _____ | 3. (Brand name C) _____ |
| 4. (Brand name D) _____ | 5. (Brand name E) _____ | 6. (Brand name F) _____ |
| 7. (Brand name G) _____ | 8. (Brand name H) _____ | 9. (Brand name I) _____ |

Drinks

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. (Brand name A) _____ | 2. (Brand name B) _____ | 3. (Brand name C) _____ |
| 4. (Brand name D) _____ | 5. (Brand name E) _____ | 6. (Brand name F) _____ |
| 7. (Brand name G) _____ | 8. (Brand name H) _____ | 9. (Brand name I) _____ |

Sportswear

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. (Brand name A) _____ | 2. (Brand name B) _____ | 3. (Brand name C) _____ |
| 4. (Brand name D) _____ | 5. (Brand name E) _____ | 6. (Brand name F) _____ |
| 7. (Brand name G) _____ | 8. (Brand name H) _____ | 9. (Brand name I) _____ |

Computer

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. (Brand name A) _____ | 2. (Brand name B) _____ | 3. (Brand name C) _____ |
| 4. (Brand name D) _____ | 5. (Brand name E) _____ | 6. (Brand name F) _____ |
| 7. (Brand name G) _____ | 8. (Brand name H) _____ | 9. (Brand name I) _____ |

Fast food restaurant

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. (Brand name A) _____ | 2. (Brand name B) _____ | 3. (Brand name C) _____ |
| 4. (Brand name D) _____ | 5. (Brand name E) _____ | 6. (Brand name F) _____ |
| 7. (Brand name G) _____ | 8. (Brand name H) _____ | 9. (Brand name I) _____ |

Clothing

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. (Brand name A) _____ | 2. (Brand name B) _____ | 3. (Brand name C) _____ |
| 4. (Brand name D) _____ | 5. (Brand name E) _____ | 6. (Brand name F) _____ |
| 7. (Brand name G) _____ | 8. (Brand name H) _____ | 9. (Brand name I) _____ |

Automobile

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. (Brand name A) _____ | 2. (Brand name B) _____ | 3. (Brand name C) _____ |
| 4. (Brand name D) _____ | 5. (Brand name E) _____ | 6. (Brand name F) _____ |

⁴ Version 2 and 3 will be asking about foreign brands and local brands respectively.

7. (Brand name G) _____ 8. (Brand name H) _____ 9. (Brand name I) _____

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement regarding product categories given. If you think the product is extremely important to you, rate “7”; if you think the product is somewhat important, rate “6” or “5”; if you are undecided, write “4”; if you think the product is unimportant to you, rate “3” or “2”; if you think the product is extremely unimportant to you, write “1.”

Unimportant	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	Important
Beer _____	Drinks _____	Sportswear _____
Computer _____	Fast foods _____	Clothing _____
Automobile _____		

Of no concern	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	Of concern to me
Beer _____	Drinks _____	Sportswear _____
Computer _____	Fast foods _____	Clothing _____
Automobile _____		

Means nothing to me	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	Means a lot to me
Beer _____	Drinks _____	Sportswear _____
Computer _____	Fast foods _____	Clothing _____
Automobile _____		

Demographic data. This information will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for research project only.

Age as of your last birthday: _____ years

Gender: ____1. Female ____2. Male

Appendix B: Coding Schemes and Coding Forms

Brand Category Coding Form

ID: _____ SEX: _____ AGE: _____ TOTAL: _____ CODER: _____

A: 1. Utilitarian (functional) 2: Hedonic (symbolic)

B: 1: Low Involvement 2: High Involvement

C: 1: Public/Luxury 2: Private/Luxury 3: Public/Necessity 4: Private/Necessity

D: 1: Food nondurable 2: Household nondurable 3: Personal care nondurable
 4: Low tech durable 5: High tech durable 6: Luxury/status goods
 7: Low tech service 8: High tech service 9: Company/Chaebol

Brand	A	B	C	D
1				
2				
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				
12				
13				
14				
15				
16				
17				
18				
19				
20				
21				
22				
23				
24				

The Coding Scheme for Product Categorization

Description	
Utilitarian vs. Hedonic Product	
Utilitarian	Consumption is cognitively driven, instrumental, and goal oriented and accomplishes a functional or practical task
Hedonic	Consumption is for an affective and sensory experience of aesthetic or sensual pleasure, fantasy, and fun
Product Involvement	
Low	Little interest and/or information required because the risk is small
High	Requires money, time, complexity and effort and is important in money cost, ego support, social value or newness
Public vs. Private and Luxury vs. Necessity	
Public/Luxury	Consumed in public view and not commonly owned or used. What brand is purchased is likely to be influenced by others
Private/Luxury	Consumed out of public view and not commonly owned or used
Public/Necessity	Consumed in public view that virtually everyone owns, although differing as to type of brand
Private/Necessity	Consumed out of public view that virtually everyone owns
Product categories	
Food nondurable	Food products, alcohol and tobacco products
Household nondurable	Office supplies, kitchen products
Personal care nondurable	Toiletries, sanitary products, cosmetics
Low tech durable	Home furniture, watches, clothing, accessories
High tech durable	Automobiles, computers, cell phones, home entertainments
Luxury/Status goods: Myungpum	High fashion products which tend to be expensive and conspicuous
Low tech service	Cafes, restaurants, fast food joints, convenience stores
High tech service	Banking and financing services, Internet providers, etc.
Chaebol	Big conglomerate company names (e.g., Hyundai, Samsung) which cannot be identified easily with one product

Brand Thought Coding Scheme

Product	A. Quality	1: Bad	
		2: Good	
		3: other quality related thought	
	B. Service	1: Bad	
		2: Good	
		3: other service related thought	
Price	C. Price	1: Expensive	
		2: Cheap	
		3: Other price related thought	
Promotion	D. Cultural symbol	1: Global	
		2: Foreign	
		3: Local	
	E. Marketing strategy	1: Advertisement	
		2: Marketing strategy	
Place	G. Place	1. Globally available	
		2. Only available in certain places	
		3. Only locally available	
		4. Export to certain places	
		5: other place related thoughts	
Image	H. Image	1: Unique	2: Mundane
		3: Chic	4: Tacky
		5: High status	6: Low status
		7: Famous	8: Not famous
		9: Myungpum	10: Not luxurious
		11: Modern	12: Traditional
		13: Foreign	14: Local
		15: Distant	16: Familiar
		17: Desirable	18: Undesirable
		19: Rare	20: Common
		21: Extravagant	22: Pragmatic
		23: Reliable	24: Unreliable
		25: Good (Generally)	26: Bad
		27: Other image	
C. E.	I. Country/culture related	1: Cultural imperialism	
		2: Ethnocentrism	
		3: Country of origin	
	J: Miscellaneous	1. Specific brand name	
		2. Specific product name	
		3. Company related thought	
		4. Other organizations or country	
		5. Comparison with other brands	
		6. Other people related thought	
		7. Usage and users	
		8. Idiosyncratic thought	
Abstract	K. Valence	1. Negative	
		2. Neutral	
		3. Positive	

Appendix C: Tables

TABLE 1

SUMMARY OF PREVIOUS LISTS OF THE GLOBAL BRAND

Ranking	A.C. Nielsen (2001)	Business Week (2003)	Roper ASW (2002)
1	Coca-Cola	Coca-Cola	Sony
2	Marlboro	Microsoft	Mercedes
3	Pepsi	IBM	Coca-Cola
4	Budweiser	GE	Panasonic
5	Campbell's	Intel	Nokia
6	Kellogg's	Nokia	BMW
7	Pampers	Disney	McDonald's
8	Benson & Hedges	McDonald's	Nike
9	Camel	Marlboro	Microsoft
10	Danone	Mercedes	Toyota
11		Toyota	
12		Hewlett-Packard	
13		Citibank	
14		Ford	
15		American Express	
16		Gillette	
17		Cisco	
18		Honda	
19		BMW	
20		Sony	
21		Nescafe	
22		Budweiser	
23		Pepsi	
24		Oracle	
25		Samsung	

TABLE 2
FOUR P CATEGORIES OF BRAND THOUGHTS

Thought Category		Percent of thought (Number of thoughts in that category/ number of total thoughts)		
		Global	Foreign	Local
Product (global n=185, foreign n=91, local n=149)		13 % (185/1449)	9% (91/1011)	16% (149/927)
Quality	Bad	0%	0%	21%
	Good	76%	62%	18%
	Other	5%	16%	36%
Service	Bad	0%	16%	4%
	Good	17%	2%	17%
	Other	2%	3%	3%
Price (global n=151, foreign n=181, local n=140)		10% (151/1449)	18% (181/1011)	15% (140/927)
Price	Expensive	82%	87%	6%
	Cheap	3%	0%	75%
	Other	15%	13%	19%
Promotion (global n=96, foreign n=51, local n=18)		7% (96/1449)	5% (51/1011)	2% (18/927)
Cultural symbols	Global	9%	16%	0%
	Foreign	10%	37%	0%
	Local	0%	2%	17%
Advertisement	Marketing communications including ads, commercials, P. R and sponsoring events	80%	45%	83%
	Marketing strategy	0%	0%	0%
Place (global n=39, foreign n=16, local n=13)		3% (39/1449)	2% (16/1011)	1% (13/927)
Place	Globally available	62%	6%	0%
	Only available in certain places	21%	75%	46%
	Only locally available	0%	0%	31%
	Export to certain places	0%	6%	8%
	Other	18%	13%	15%

TABLE 3
IMAGE CATEGORIES OF BRAND THOUGHTS

		Percent of thought (Number of thoughts in that category / number of total thoughts)		
Thought Category		Global	Foreign	Local
Image (global n=516, foreign n=329, local n=248)		36% (516/1449)	33% (329/1011)	27% (248/927)
Image	Unique	2%	3%	1%
	Mundane	0%	0%	6%
	Chic	11%	14%	0%
	Tacky	0%	1%	10%
	High status	10%	12%	0%
	Low status	0%	0%	2%
	Famous	11%	4%	1%
	Not famous	0%	1%	3%
	Myungpum (Luxury brands)	9%	8%	0%
	Not luxurious	0%	0%	1%
	Modern	1%	1%	0%
	Traditional	2%	1%	1%
	Foreign	0%	1%	0%
	Local	0%	0%	0%
	Distant	2%	6%	0%
	Familiar	3%	0%	22%
	Desirable	7%	5%	0%
	Undesirable	0%	1%	2%
	Rare	1%	3%	0%
	Common	2%	0%	13%
	Extravagant	4%	8%	0%
	Pragmatic	1%	1%	4%

TABLE 3 (Continued)**IMAGE CATEGORIES OF BRAND THOUGHTS**

Reliable	8%	5%	2%
Unreliable	1%	2%	4%
Good	3%	9%	1%
Bad	0%	2%	4%
Other image	22%	11%	23%
Country related thoughts (global n=78, foreign n=124, local n=78)	5% (78/1449)	12% (124/1011)	8% (78/927)
Cultural imperialism	40%	15%	1%
Ethnocentrism	3%	34%	87%
Country of origin	58%	52%	12%
Miscellaneous (global n=384, foreign n=219, local n=281)	27% (384/1449)	22% (219/1011)	30% (281/927)
Specific brand name	40%	37%	27%
Specific product name	10%	10%	11%
Company related thought	27%	11%	30%
Other organizations or country	1%	20%	22%
Comparison with other brands	6%	4%	2%
Other people related thought	8%	10%	3%
Usage and users	9%	9%	6%
Idiosyncratic thought	0%	0%	0%

TABLE 4

VALENCE OF BRAND THOUGHTS EXPRESSED
IN PERCENT OF TOTAL THOUGHTS

Thought Valence	Global Brands	Foreign Brands	Local Brands
Negative	6	16	25
Neutral	49	50	43
Positive	45	33	32
N	1449	1011	927

Note: Due to rounding percentages may not add up to 100%

TABLE 5
MOST FREQUENTLY MENTIONED EXEMPLARY BRANDS

Rank	Global brands	Foreign brands	Local brands
1	Nike (87)	Nike (80)	Samsung* (76)
2	Sony (73)	Sony (66)	LG* (74)
3	Samsung* (71)	Adidas (57)	Hyundai* (56)
4	Adidas (66)	Chanel (53)	SK Telecom* (43)
5	Chanel	Coca-Cola (49)	Daewoo* (40)
	Coca-Cola (60)		
6	BMW (57)	Gucci (44)	Lotte* (37)
7	Gucci (53)	McDonald's (41)	CJ (33)*
8	Microsoft (50)	BMW (40)	Prospects (31)
9	McDonald's (49)	Reebok (37)	Kia (29)
10	Polo (46)	Polo	Nongshim
		Mercedes	Monami
		Microsoft	Morning Glory (26)
		Louis Vuitton (34)	
11	Burberry (44)	Panasonic (33)	
12	Reebok (41)	Burberry (31)	
13	Panasonic (37)	Christian Dior (27)	
14	Mercedes	Levis (26)	
	Louis Vuitton (34)		
15	Prada (31)		
16	Levis (30)		
17	Benetton		
	LG (28)*		
18	Nokia (27)		
19	Hewlett-Packard		
	Intel		
	GM		
	Hyundai (26)*		

Note 1: (percentages) refer to the number of people who mentioned the brand for a given category out of the total number of people surveyed.

Note 2: This table shows brand exemplars mentioned by more than 25 percent of respondents.

* Conglomerate or chabols

TABLE 6

PERCENT OF BRAND EXEMPLARS GENERATED BY CONSUMERS

Product category	Global Brands	Foreign Brands	Local Brands
Utilitarian	40	32	61
Hedonic	60	68	39
Low involvement	20	20	31
High involvement	79	80	69
Public/Luxury	32	34	0
Private/Luxury	0	1	0
Public/Necessity	41	45	40
Private/Necessity	17	18	35
Others	9	2	25
Food nondurable	5	6	15
Household nondurable	1	1	3
Personal care nondurable	4	7	3
Low tech durable	23	25	29
High tech durable	27	23	13
Luxury/status goods	25	25	0
Low tech service	7	9	6
High tech service	3	2	7
Company/Chaebol	6	1	23
N	1568	1368	1037

Note: Due to rounding percentages may not add up to 100%

TABLE 7

GLOBAL HIGH INVOLVEMENT SUMMARY IMPLICATION MATRIX

	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7
1		1.00					1.00	2.02		0.02	0.01			0.02	1.00				0.01		0.02				0.03
2	0.01	1.00											1.00	0.01								0.01			0.01
3		4.00	0.01	1.00	2.00	0.01		1.00	0.01		1.02		0.02				0.02	1.02	0.02	0.02		0.01		0.04	0.02
4		1.00		3.00	1.00		1.01	0.01		0.01	0.01	1.00		0.01		0.01	2.01	0.01	0.01	0.02		0.03		0.03	
5		3.00		1.00			2.00			1.00		4.00	1.02	0.03	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.02			1.01	0.02
6			4.00	2.00		1.00	4.02	3.00	0.01	0.01	4.04		2.02	0.03	0.01	3.04	4.01	0.05	0.07	0.03	0.04	0.06		2.08	2.01
7				2.00		2.01	6.01		2.00		0.01	0.01	1.03		0.01	2.05	1.05	1.01	0.01	0.04	0.01	0.07		0.04	0.02
8					2.00	2.00	2.01			0.01	3.03		1.02	0.01		1.00	2.01	3.01	0.03	2.06	0.01	1.03		0.03	0.02
9											3.00							0.02	2.00				1.00	0.01	
10							2.00		1.00	0.01	0.01	0.01		0.01		2.01	1.02	1.03	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.02			0.01
11								1.00		2.00	5.01	1.00	2.00	2.03	1.00	1.04	0.02	1.00	0.02	0.01	0.05	0.04		0.05	1.00
12										2.00	2.00		1.00	2.01		0.01	0.01	1.00	1.03		0.01	0.01		1.04	
13												1.00					1.01	0.01		1.01		0.01			
14											1.00			3.01		0.01		0.01	1.00	0.01	0.01	0.01		0.02	
15													2.00	1.00		2.00			3.03		2.01	1.00		6.02	2.00
16													2.00	0.01	1.00	0.03	2.00	0.01	0.02	0.02		1.00		1.01	
17														2.00		5.01	3.00	0.01	2.04	0.01	1.00	1.05		1.02	
18																4.00		0.01	0.02	0.01	2.01	1.01		2.01	
19																1.00				2.00	1.00			0.01	
20																	3.00	1.01	6.01	1.02	2.00	3.02		2.04	
21																		8.00	0.03	4.02		6.01		2.01	
22																			4.01	9.00		2.00		0.01	0.02
V1																						2.00		3.00	
V2																								1.00	2.00
V3																									
V4																								1.00	
V5																									
V6																									
V7																									

Note 1: Columns 1, 2, 3 and 4 are blanks and removed.

Note 2: Numbers expressed in bold show cells above cut-off point of 6.

Note 3: Numbers in column 1 and row 1 indicate numbers of each element in the summary code.

Note 4: Numbers above and below the decimal point indicate direct and indirect relationships between elements, respectively.

TABLE 8

GLOBAL LOW INVOLVEMENT SUMMARY IMPLICATION MATRIX

	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7
1				1.00						1.00	1.00	0.01	0.01									0.03
2	1.00					5.00	2.02		0.02		1.02	2.03	0.02	0.04		0.03	0.03				2.05	3.01
3				1.00		4.01			1.01			0.01		0.01	0.03		1.02	0.01	0.01		0.02	0.01
4				2.00	1.01				3.00		0.02	0.01				0.01	0.02	0.01			0.03	
5				2.00	1.00				0.01	3.00	1.01			0.01	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01		0.01	0.01
6						1.00			1.01		2.00		1.00	0.01	0.01		1.00	0.01	0.01		1.02	0.01
7						1.00		1.00			1.01	1.01				1.00	0.01	0.01			0.03	
8							4.00	1.00	1.02		1.01	4.00	1.01	5.02	2.03	0.03	1.05	0.02	0.04		1.06	1.02
9								1.00	1.00		4.01	0.05	2.00	2.01	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.01			0.04	2.00
10											1.00	1.00				1.00	0.01	0.01			0.01	
11											3.00			2.00	1.00	0.02	0.01	1.01			1.02	0.01
12													1.00		1.00		2.01				0.01	
13												7.00	0.01	1.01	0.01	3.03	2.00	2.01	1.01		1.05	
14													1.00	1.00	1.00	2.01		1.00			7.02	1.00
15														2.00	1.00		0.01				3.02	
16															1.00	1.00	5.01		3.00		3.00	1.00
17																	4.00	1.01	0.01		2.00	
V1																		1.00			3.00	1.00
V2																			1.00			
V3																				1.00		
V4																						
V5																						
V6																						
V7																						

Note 1: Columns 1 and 2 are blanks and removed.

Note 2: Numbers expressed in bold show cells above cut-off point of 5.

Note 3: Numbers in column 1 and row 1 indicate numbers of each element in the summary code.

Note 4: Numbers above and below the decimal point indicate direct and indirect relationships between elements, respectively.

TABLE 9

FOREIGN HIGH INVOLVEMENT SUMMARY IMPLICATION MATRIX

	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7
1	2.00		1.00			0.02					0.01		0.01	0.02	0.01					
2			1.00			0.01											0.01			
3	1.00			1.00			0.01		1.00	7.02	0.03		0.03	0.03			0.06		0.04	
4			1.00							1.00	0.01		1.01						0.03	
5		1.00	1.00	1.00		6.02	4.02	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.03		0.02	0.03		0.02	0.04		0.05	
6			1.00			1.00	3.00	0.01			1.00	0.01	0.02		0.01				0.03	0.02
7				3.00		3.00	4.00		0.02	4.01	0.01	0.02	4.04	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.04		0.08	0.01
8					2.00	1.00	2.01	2.00	0.01	10.00	0.04		1.04	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.09		2.08	
9											1.00								0.01	
10							3.00	2.00	2.01		1.02	0.01	0.03	1.02			1.02		1.05	
11									2.00	2.00	3.00	1.00	2.03	1.00	0.02	1.01	1.04		3.02	1.01
12																	1.00		3.00	
13											2.00	0.01	1.01	0.01			1.00		1.03	
14											4.00	1.00	6.03	2.03	0.01	1.02	11.03		0.06	
15												1.00	4.01	1.02		1.01	1.02		3.01	0.01
16													2.00	0.01	1.01				0.01	
17														7.00	4.00	1.00	3.01		5.03	2.00
V1																	1.00		2.00	
V2																				
V3																			1.00	
V4																			3.00	
V5																				
V6																				
V7																				

Note 1: Columns 1, 2, 3, and 4 are blanks and removed.

Note 2: Numbers expressed in bold show cells above cut-off point of 6.

Note 3: Numbers in column 1 and row 1 indicate numbers of each element in the summary code.

Note 4: Numbers above and below the decimal point indicate direct and indirect relationships between elements, respectively.

TABLE 10

FOREIGN LOW INVOLVEMENT SUMMARY IMPLICATION MATRIX

	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7
1			1.00			3.00	1.00	0.01		0.02	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01		0.01	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01		
2	2.00		1.00			3.00		0.01		0.01	0.03	0.02		0.02	1.01	0.02	0.02		0.02		0.02	
3	2.00		1.00	0.01	1.01		2.00	0.02			0.01	0.01	1.01	1.00	0.01		0.03	0.01		0.01	0.04	
4				1.01	1.01		3.00	1.00	1.00	0.01	1.03	0.02	1.00					0.01	0.01		0.09	
5					1.00			2.00			0.02		0.01	0.01		0.01		0.01	0.01		0.01	
6				3.00	1.00		2.00	0.01	3.00	2.00	1.01	1.01	0.03	4.06	0.01	0.01	1.03	0.02	0.06		2.08	
7					1.00		1.00	3.00		0.01	2.00	1.02	1.03	1.00		0.01	1.02	0.02	0.01		1.05	
8								1.00	1.00	0.01	4.01	1.00	0.01	2.02	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.01
9								1.00		1.00	2.01	1.00	0.01	0.02	1.00	0.02	0.03	0.01		0.01	0.01	
10								2.00			1.00	2.01		1.00		0.02		1.00		0.01	2.03	
11										3.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00		0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	1.00	1.03	
12											2.00	1.00		2.00	0.01	0.01	0.01		0.01		0.02	
13											1.00		1.00	2.00		1.01		0.01	1.01		1.02	
14												1.00	3.00	4.00	1.00	1.02	1.02		0.03		5.03	0.01
15																		1.00	4.00	1.00	1.00	
16															1.00	2.00	2.00	3.01	0.01		1.04	
17															1.00	30.0	3.01	1.01	5.00	0.01	3.03	1.00
18																1.00	3.01	1.00			0.01	
V1																	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.01	1.00	
V2																						
V3																				1.00	3.00	
V4																					2.00	
V5																						
V6																						
V7																						

Note 1: Columns 1, 2, and 3 are blanks and removed.

Note 2: Numbers expressed in bold show cells above cut-off point of 4.

Note 3: Numbers in column 1 and row 1 indicate numbers of each element in the summary code.

Note 4: Numbers above and below the decimal point indicate direct and indirect relationships between elements, respectively.

TABLE 11

LOCAL HIGH INVOLVEMENT SUMMARY IMPLICATION MATRIX

	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7
1								2.00	1.01	0.01	0.01						0.02			0.01	
2	1.00			2.00	1.00				2.00	1.02	0.01	1.01	0.01		0.04			0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01
3	2.00				0.01					1.00	1.00	2.01		3.04	0.02	1.04	0.01	0.02		0.02	
4			2.00	1.00	2.00	1.00	3.00	5.03	1.04	6.05	0.02	1.02		1.00	0.08	0.03	0.02	0.04	0.02	0.09	
5									1.00	0.01	0.01								0.01	2.00	
6					1.00			1.00	2.00	7.03		2.02	0.01		0.05	0.01	0.02	0.03		0.04	
7				2.00	2.00	1.00				12.03	5.00	2.02	0.03	1.00	0.04	0.02	0.06	0.10		3.06	0.02
8					1.00	2.00	1.00	3.01	0.01	5.02	2.00	1.03			0.06	0.03	0.03	0.03		1.02	0.01
9						1.00	4.00	1.02	1.03	0.01	2.01	1.02			0.03	2.02		0.03		0.02	0.02
10							3.00	1.01	2.00	1.01	1.01	0.01			0.03	0.03	1.00	0.01		2.02	1.01
11								8.00	4.02	0.02					2.04	2.00	0.04	0.01		1.04	0.01
12									8.00	2.02	0.02	0.01			3.03		0.04	0.01	0.02	4.02	0.01
13										3.00	10.00	3.01	1.00	12.05	2.04	4.04	7.07	0.02	2.04	2.00	
14											1.00		0.01	2.00	1.00	3.00	2.01	1.00	4.00		
15											4.00	2.00	6.03	1.03	1.00	7.03			1.03	0.01	
16														1.00	2.00		1.01		2.01	2.00	
17															4.00	1.00	2.00		0.01		
V1															2.00	3.00	3.00	2.00	2.01		
V2																2.00				1.00	
V3																					
V4																				3.00	
V5																				1.00	
V6																					
V7																					

Note 1: Columns 1, 2, and 3 are blanks and removed.

Note 2: Numbers expressed in bold show cells above cut-off point of 7.

Note 3: Numbers in column 1 and row 1 indicate numbers of each element in the summary code.

Note 4: Numbers above and below the decimal point indicate direct and indirect relationships between elements, respectively.

TABLE 12

LOCAL LOW INVOLVEMENT SUMMARY IMPLICATION MATRIX

	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7
1	1.00			0.01			0.01			0.01	0.01					0.01					0.01	
2							1.00		3.00	0.02		0.01	0.01			0.02					0.02	
3	1.00					2.00	1.00	1.00	0.01		0.01		1.00		5.02	0.02	0.07	0.01	0.02		0.02	
4		2.00					6.01		0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01				0.01	0.01		0.01		0.04	0.02
5		1.00		1.00	3.00		0.01		3.01	1.02	2.02	1.03	1.02	0.03	1.00	0.05	0.03	0.02	1.05		0.03	
6					1.00		7.00		2.01	0.03	0.01	2.01	2.01	1.02		0.03	0.03	0.01	0.05		0.04	2.01
7					2.00		2.00	1.01			2.03	2.00	1.02	0.04		0.02	0.01	0.02	0.02		0.03	
8							1.00			0.01	0.01	1.00	0.01			0.02					0.01	
9							4.00		1.01	0.02	5.00	5.00	1.02	2.02	1.00	0.02	2.03	0.04	0.04		3.07	
10															3.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01			
11								1.00	7.00	4.02	3.03	2.00	1.02	1.03	1.00	0.05	0.03	1.02	0.03		4.09	2.00
12									1.00	1.01	2.00					1.04		1.00	0.01		0.01	
13									6.00	3.00	2.01	0.02	0.01			1.03		0.02	1.01		3.06	
14										2.00	1.00					3.03		1.00	2.01		4.01	
15											1.00	3.00	3.02			3.00	1.01	2.02	0.02		5.06	
16												5.00	0.01			7.03	1.02	2.00	2.05		1.01	
17														6.00	1.00	5.00	0.02	0.01	2.03		1.02	
18																	6.00	2.00	3.00		2.01	
19																1.00	9.00	1.00	1.01		0.01	
V1																	1.00		6.00		1.01	
V2																					2.00	
V3																					1.00	
V4																					1.00	
V5																						
V6																						
V7																						

Note 1: Columns 1, 2, 3 and 4 are blanks and removed.

Note 2: Numbers expressed in bold show cells above cut-off point of 6.

Note 3: Numbers in column 1 and row 1 indicate numbers of each element in the summary code.

Note 4: Numbers above and below the decimal point indicate direct and indirect relationships between elements, respectively.

TABLE 13
GLOBAL BRANDS-HIGH INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS

Cutoff	Number of Active cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells mentioned at least once	Number of active linkages	Number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages
1	237	0.28	1.00	590	1.00
2	143	0.17	0.60	498	0.84
3	87	0.10	0.37	388	0.66
4	52	0.06	0.22	283	0.48
5	33	0.04	0.14	211	0.36
6	24	0.03	0.10	166	0.28
7	14	0.02	0.06	100	0.17

Note: The bold numbers signify the selected cutoff point and the number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages

TABLE 14
GLOBAL BRANDS-LOW INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS

Cutoff	Number of Active cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells mentioned at least once	Number of active linkages	Number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages
1	147	0.28	1.00	328	1.00
2	76	0.13	0.52	257	0.78
3	49	0.09	0.31	203	0.62
4	24	0.04	0.16	128	0.39
5	16	0.03	0.11	96	0.29
6	9	0.02	0.06	61	0.19
7	5	0.01	0.03	37	0.11

Note: The bold numbers signify the selected cutoff point and the number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages

TABLE 15
FOREIGN BRANDS-HIGH INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS

Cutoff	Number of Active cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells mentioned at least once	Number of active linkages	Number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages
1	133	0.23	1.00	364	1.00
2	81	0.14	0.61	312	0.86
3	56	0.10	0.42	262	0.72
4	31	0.05	0.23	187	0.51
5	23	0.04	0.17	155	0.43
6	15	0.03	0.13	115	0.32
7	11	0.02	0.08	91	0.25

Note: The bold numbers signify the selected cutoff point and the number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages

TABLE 16
FOREIGN BRANDS-LOW INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS

Cutoff	Number of Active cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells mentioned at least once	Number of active linkages	Number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages
1	191	0.17	1.00	388	1.00
2	91	0.16	0.48	288	0.74
3	47	0.08	0.21	200	0.69
4	23	0.04	0.12	128	0.33
5	11	0.02	0.06	80	0.20
6	8	0.01	0.04	65	0.17
7	5	0.01	0.03	47	0.12

Note: The bold numbers signify the selected cutoff point and the number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages

TABLE 17
LOCAL BRANDS-HIGH INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS

Cutoff	Number of Active cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells mentioned at least once	Number of active linkages	Number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages
1	175	0.30	1.00	553	1.00
2	123	0.21	0.70	501	0.91
3	78	0.14	0.45	411	0.74
4	51	0.09	0.29	330	0.60
5	30	0.05	0.17	246	0.44
6	26	0.05	0.15	226	0.41
7	18	0.03	0.10	178	0.32
8	16	0.03	0.09	164	0.30

Note: The bold numbers signify the selected cutoff point and the number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages

TABLE 18
LOCAL BRANDS-LOW INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS

Cutoff	Number of Active cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells	Number of active cells as a proportion of all cells mentioned at least once	Number of active linkages	Number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages
1	176	0.26	1.00	503	1.00
2	117	0.17	0.66	444	0.88
3	76	0.11	0.43	362	0.72
4	45	0.07	0.25	269	0.53
5	32	0.05	0.18	217	0.43
6	19	0.03	0.10	152	0.30
7	11	0.01	0.06	104	0.21
8	5	0.01	0.03	62	0.12

Note: The bold numbers signify the selected cutoff point and the number of active linkages as a proportion of all linkages

Appendix D: Figures

FIGURE 1

DEFINITIONS OF BRAND-RELATED TERMS

Terms	Major authors	Definition
Brand	Aaker (1991)	A distinguishable name and /or symbol (such as logo, trademark, or package design) intended to identify the goods or services of either one seller or a group of sellers, and to differentiate those goods or services from those of competitors.
Brand community	Muniz and O'Guinn (2001)	Consumers who shared consciousness, rituals and traditions, and a sense of moral responsibility for certain brands.
Brand equity	Aaker (1991)	A set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customer.
Brand extension	Aaker and Keller (1990)	Application of a popular brand name to a new product in an unrelated product category.
Brand essence	Chang (1998)	literally the essence of the brand, or that, which gives the brand its meaningfulness.
Brand image (concept)	Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis (1986)	A firm selected brand meanings derived from basic consumer needs.
Brand origin	Thakor and Kohli (1996)	The place, region or country to which the brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers. We note that this may differ from the location where products carrying the brand name are manufactured, or are perceived by consumers to be manufactured.
Brand personality	Kim, Han and Park (2001)	Some kinds of human characteristics that are associated with a brand.
Global consumer culture positioning (GCCP)*	Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999)	A strategy that identifies the brand as a symbol of a given global consumer culture.
Foreign consumer culture positioning (FCCP)*	Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999)	A strategy that positions the brand as a symbol of a specific foreign consumer culture.
Local consumer culture positioning (LCCP)*	Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999)	A strategy that associates the brand with local cultural meanings.

*Brand positioning categories used by marketers to promote their brands.

FIGURE 2**SUMMARY OF PERVIOUS ASSUMPTIONS OF THE GLOBAL BRAND**

Characteristics	Source	Note
Using standardized marketing strategies	Aaker (1991); Hankinson and Cowking (1996)	Theorized
Found in many geographic areas	A.C. Nielson report	Used as a criterion for choosing global brands
Generate certain percentage of sales outside of its home country	A. C. Nielson report (5%) <i>Business Week</i> report (20%)	Used as a criterion for choosing global brands
Perception of high quality	Batra et al. (2000); Steenkamp et al. (2003a)	Theorized, empirically tested and supported by the evidence
Perception of high prestige in developing countries	Batra et al. (2000); Steenkamp et al. (2003a)	Theorized, empirically tested and supported by the evidence
AGCC* is associated with AGbr**	Steenkamp et al. (2003b)	Theorized, empirically tested and supported by the evidence

*Attitude toward global consumer culture (GCC)

** Attitude toward Global brand

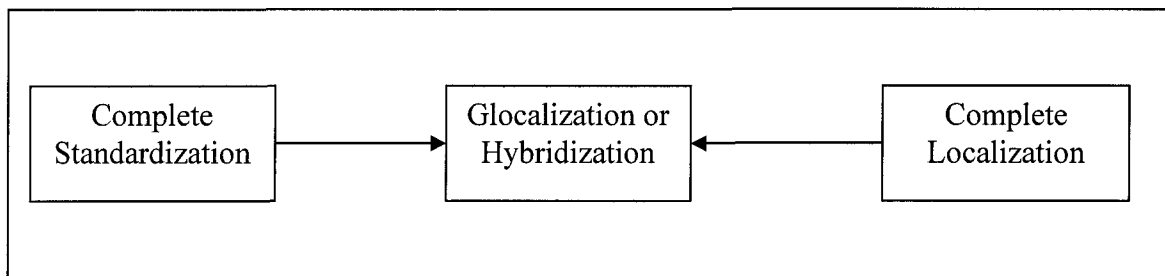
FIGURE 3**THE FRAMEWORK OF STANDARDIZATION VERSUS LOCALIZATION**

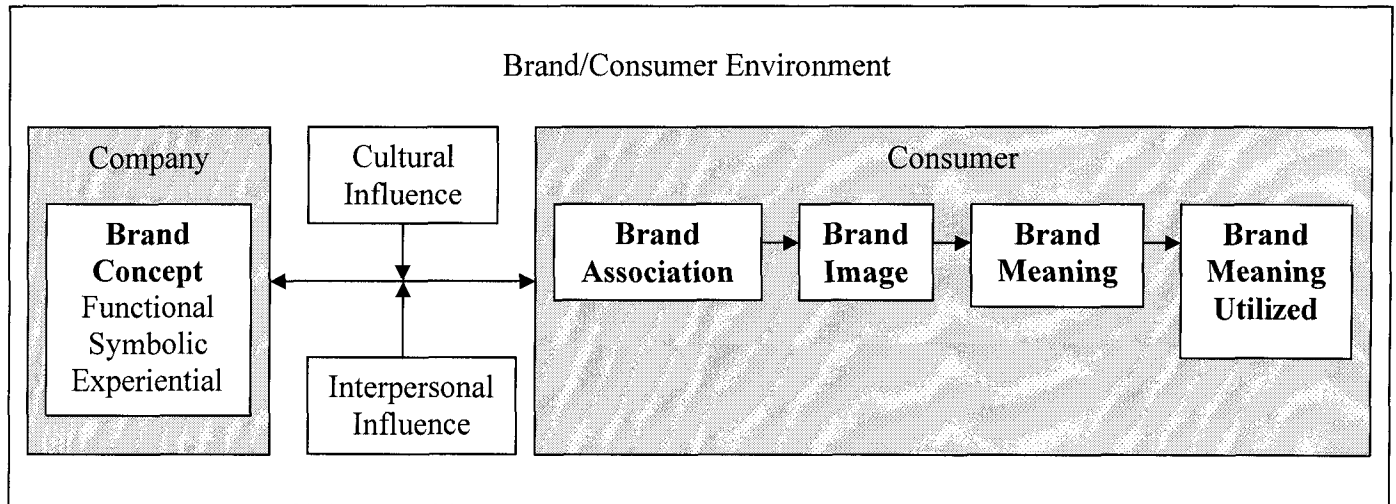
FIGURE 4**THE FRAMEWORK OF BRAND MEANING FORMATION**

FIGURE 5

**SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES OF THOUGHTS ASSOCIATED WITH
GLOBAL, FOREIGN, AND LOCAL BRAND CATEGORY LABELS**

Thought category	Global Brands	Foreign Brands	Local Brands
Product quality	Good	Good	Bad
Service	Good	Bad	Good
Price	Expensive	Expensive	Cheap
Promotion	Distinct advertisements		Distinct advertisements
Place	Globally available	Available in certain places only	Available in certain places only Only locally available
Image	Chic High status Myungpum* Desirable Reliable Famous	Chic High status Myungpum* Distant Extravagant	Tacky Familiar Common
Country related	Cultural imperialism	Ethnocentrism	Ethnocentrism
Miscellaneous	Specific brand names Company related	Specific brand names	Specific brand names Company related Other organization related

*Note: Myungpum is a Korean word referring to luxury goods

FIGURE 6

BRAND EXEMPLARS GENERATED BY RESPONDENTS

		Brands		
	Product type	Local	Global	Foreign
High-Involvement	Computer	Samsung Sambo Hyunjoo LG Juyeon Newtech	IBM HP Sony Apple Compaq Dell	IBM Sony HP Apple Compaq Dell
	Automobile	Hyundai Kia Ssangyong Samsung Daewoo Asia	BMW Mercedes Porsche Volvo GM* Ford*	Mercedes BMW Porsche Volvo Volkswagen* Ferrari*
	Sportswear	Prospects Lecaf Proworldcup Rapido Woodles Fila	Nike Adidas Reebok Fila Puma Asics	Nike Adidas Reebok Fila Puma Asics
	Clothing	Beanpole Nix Sport Replay 1492 Miles MF A6	Polo Benetton CK Nautica Tommy Hilfiger Banana Republic	Polo Benetton CK Nautica Tommy Hilfiger Banana Republic
Low-Involvement	Fast Food	Sinpo Woori Mando Lotteria Sung Shin-Je Pizza BBQ Skylark Pizza Mall	McDonald's KFC Pizza Hut Burger King TGIF Domino's Pizza*	McDonald's KFC Pizza Hut TGIF Burger King Outback Steakhouse*
	Drink	Chilsung 815 Cola Two Percent Pulmoowon water Sunny Ten Kin Cider	Coca-Cola Pepsi Gatorade Fanta Sprite Mountain Dew	Coca-Cola Pepsi Gatorade Fanta Mountain Dew Sprite
	Beer	Hite OB Lager Cafri Hijoo Stout Xfeel	Budweiser Miller Heineken Corona KGB Sapporo	Budweiser Miller Heineken Corona KGB Sapporo

*Note: Brands that are different for global and foreign brands.

FIGURE 7
ROKEACH'S (1973) VALUES

Value
Accomplishment
Belonging
Self-fulfillment
Self-esteem
Family
Satisfaction
Security

FIGURE 8**SUMMARY CODE OF HIGH-INVOLVMENT (HI) PRODUCTS**

	Global brands-HI	Foreign brands-HI	Local brands-HI
Attributes	1. Respected company 2. Advertisement 3. Global 4. Common 5. Originality 6. The best 7. Power and money 8. Popular 9. My style 10. Rare	1. Foreign 2. Variety 3. Rare 4. Easy to get 5. Good quality 6. Good company reputation 7. Popular 8. Cool	1. Reasonable price 2. Good company reputation 3. Global 4. Good quality 5. Good service 6. High class 7. Cool and dynamic 8. Popular 9. Comfortable 10. Reliable
Consequences	11. Worthwhile/rational consumption 12. Efficiency 13. Distant 14. Refreshed 15. Assurance 16. Self-expression 17. Self-confidence 18. More experience 19. Rewarding 20. Superiority 21. Good impression toward others 22. Harmonious relationship	9. Appropriate behavior for my age 10. Efficiency 11. Assurance 12. Attachment 13. More experience 14. Make me special 15. Exciting life 16. Harmonious relationship 17. Social recognition	11. Worthwhile/Rational consumption 12. Other opportunities 13. Distinguish myself 14. Good mood 15. Social recognition 16. Harmonious relationship 17. Good for my country
Values	V1. Accomplishment V2. Belonging V3. Self-fulfillment V4. Self-esteem V5. Family V6. Satisfaction V7. Security	V1. Accomplishment V2. Belonging V3. Self-fulfillment V4. Self-esteem V5. Family V6. Satisfaction V7. Security	V1. Accomplishment V2. Belonging V3. Self-fulfillment V4. Self-esteem V5. Family V6. Satisfaction V7. Security

FIGURE 9

SUMMARY CODE OF LOW INVOLVEMENT (LI) PRODUCTS

	Global brands-LI	Foreign brands-LI	Local brands-LI
Attributes	1. (Not) my taste 2. Approachable 3. Marketing effort 4. Unique 5. Foreign 6. Cool 7. Good quality 8. Popular 9. Global 10. Reliable	1. Cheap and unhealthy 2. Foreign 3. Marketing effort 4. Good quality 5. Convenient 6. Cool 7. My taste 8. Popular	1. English brand names 2. Inexpensive 3. Local 4. Tradition 5. Competitive quality 6. Popular 7. Clean and natural image 8. High (low) class 9. My taste 10. Feeling pity 11. Comfortable 12. Unique and independent
Consequences	11. Self-expression 12. Ethnocentrism 13. Self-improvement 14. Worthwhile/ Rational consumption 15. Content 16. Social recognition 17. Harmonious relationship	9. Undesirable consequences 10. Meet my needs 11. Worthwhile/ Rational consumption 12. Give good impression 13. Experience 14. Comfortable 15. My identity 16. Exciting life 17. Social recognition 18. Social responsibility	13. Worthwhile/ Rational consumption 14. Can do other things 15. Well-being 16. Self-improvement 17. Social recognition 18. Harmonious relationship 19. Patriotic sentiments
Values	V1. Accomplishment V2. Belonging V3. Self-fulfillment V4. Self-esteem V5. Family V6. Satisfaction V7. Security	V1. Accomplishment V2. Belonging V3. Self-fulfillment V4. Self-esteem V5. Family V6. Satisfaction V7. Security	V1. Accomplishment V2. Belonging V3. Self-fulfillment V4. Self-esteem V5. Family V6. Satisfaction V7. Security

FIGURE 10**SCORE MATRIX OF FOREIGN BRANDS-LOW INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS**

Ladder #	ID	1 st element	2 nd element	3 rd element	4 th element	5 th element	6 th element
1	S3-3	6	7	17	V2		
2	S3-4	3	17	V2			
3	S3-5	4	10	V6			
4	S5-1	1	9	15	V5		
5	S5-1/1	1	9	16	13	V3	
6	S5-2	3	10	11	V5		
7	S5-3	3	6	V6			
8	S5-4	8	14	V6			
9	S5-5	4	10	14	V6		
10	S7-1	6	7	16	V3	V6	
11	S7-2	4	10	14	V6		
12	S7-3	7	14	16	V6		
13	S9-1	2	9	17	14	V1	V6
14	S12-1	6	17	V4	V6		
15	S15-1	2	9	18	V1	V2	
16	S15-3	6	12	18	17	V2	
17	S15-5	6	10	V3			
18	S15-6	3	10	11	V6		
19	S18-1	5	11	14	V6		
20	S18-2	5	11	17	V3		
21	S18-5	3	4	16	V6	V3	
22	S21-1	1	6	14	17	V4	
23	S21-2	8	6	17	V6		
24	S21-3	3	4	8	7	15	V6
25	S23-1	1	9	14	11	V2	
26	S23-2	3	8	14	18	V2	
27	S25-1	1	14	10	13	V1	
28	S25-2	3	16	V2			
29	C1-1	6	7	11	16	V2	
30	C1-2	18	16	V3	V6		
31	C3-1	6	10	16	V1		
32	C3-3	4	7	V6			
33	C3-4	8	14	17	V7		
34	C3-5	7	14	16	V6		
35	C5-1	8	12	17	V1		
36	C5-2	7	11	15	V4		
37	C5-3	8	17	V1	V5	V3	
38	C8-2	8	11	13	V4		
39	C12-1	7	10	V6			
40	C12-2	6	17	V4			
41	C12-3	6	V2				
42	C12-4	8	4	V6			
43	C14-1	6	13	17	V4		
44	C14-2	7	V2				
45	C14-3	2	4	11	13	V6	

FIGURE 11

GLOBAL BRANDS-HIGH INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS HIERARCHICAL VALUE MAP

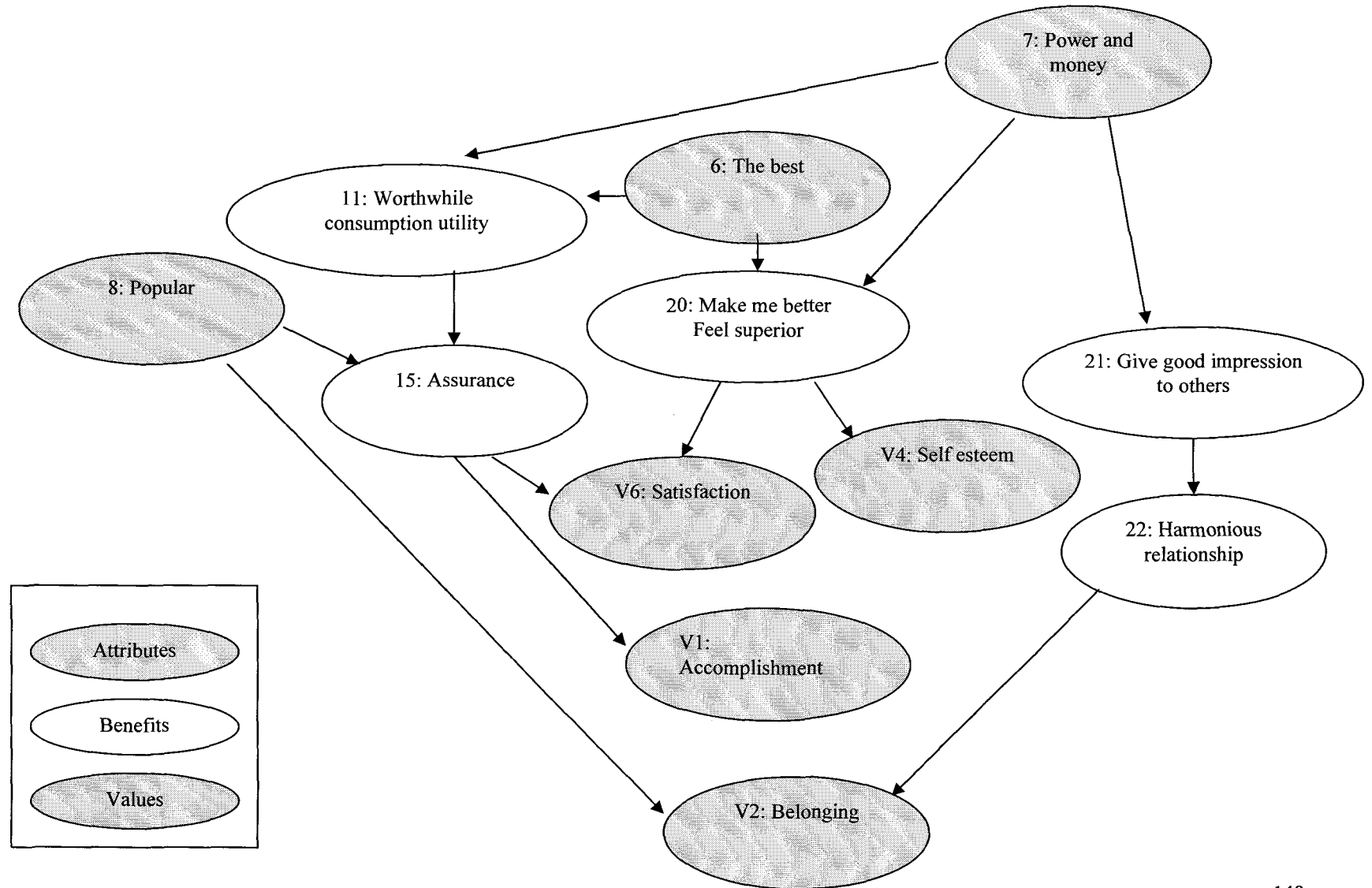


FIGURE 12

GLOBAL BRANDS LOW INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS HIERARCHICAL VALUE MAP

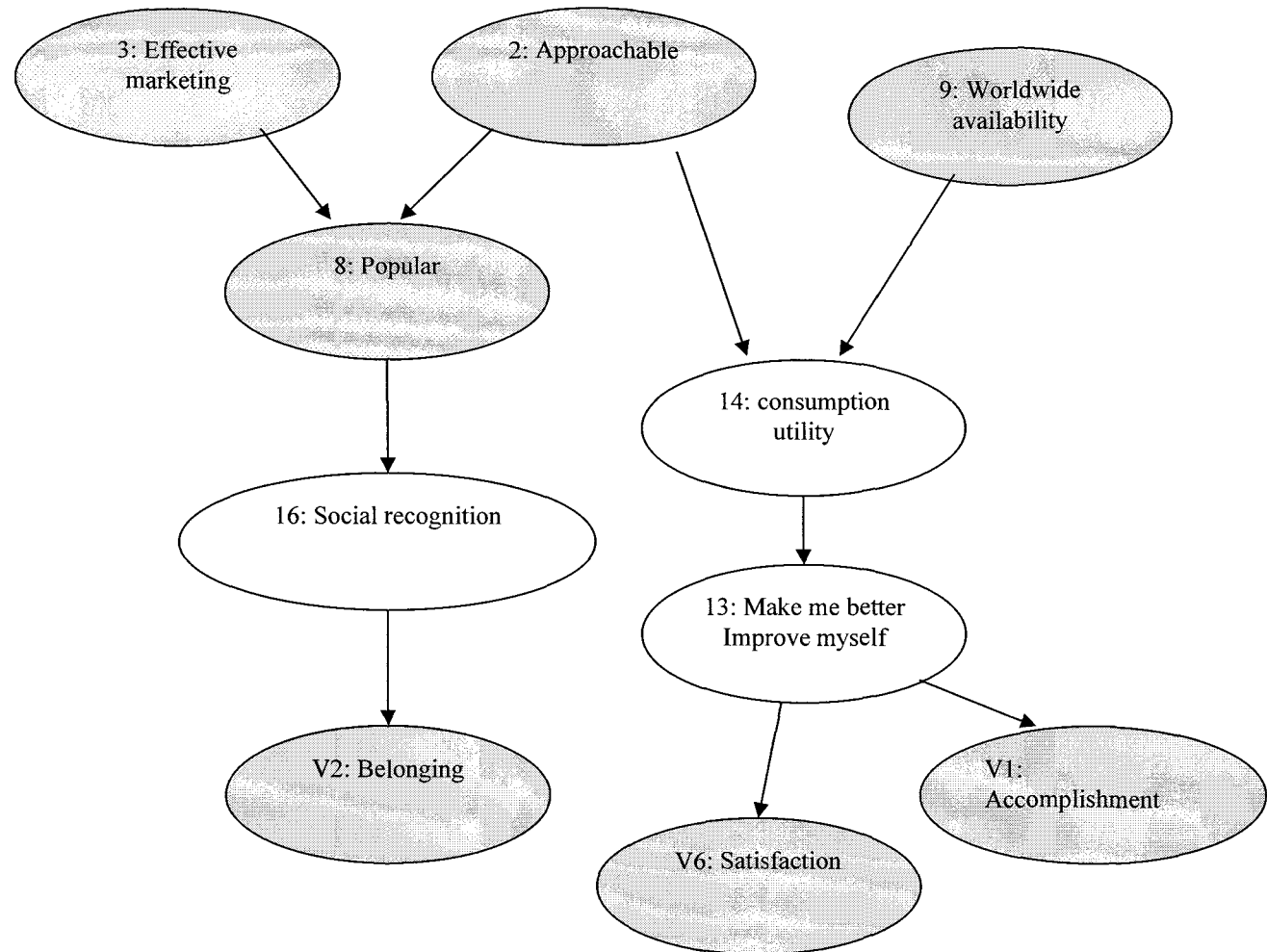


FIGURE 13

FOREIGN BRANDS-HIGH INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS HIERACHICAL VALUE MAP

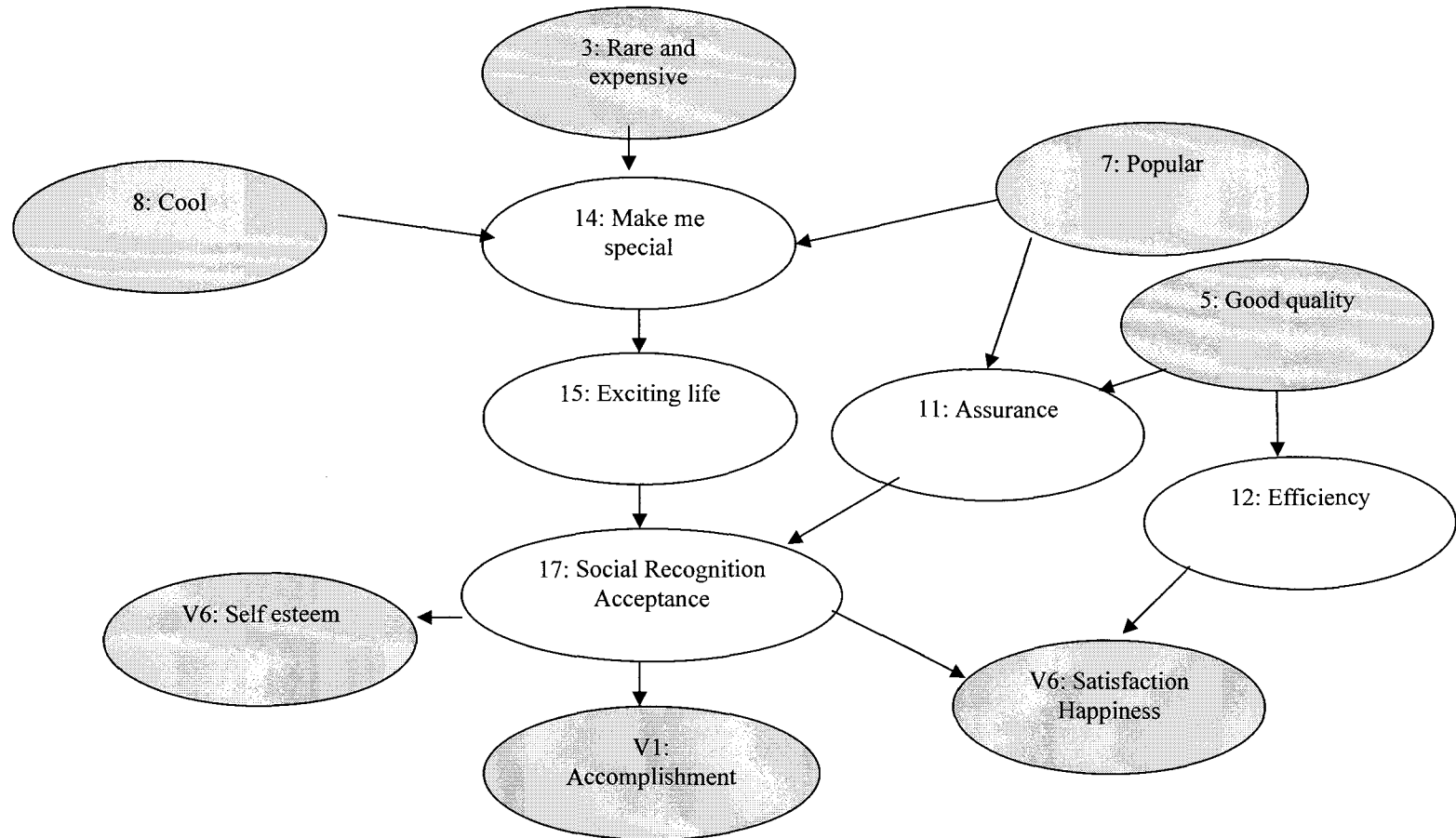


FIGURE 14

FOREIGN BRANDS-LOW INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS HIERARCHICAL VALUE MAP

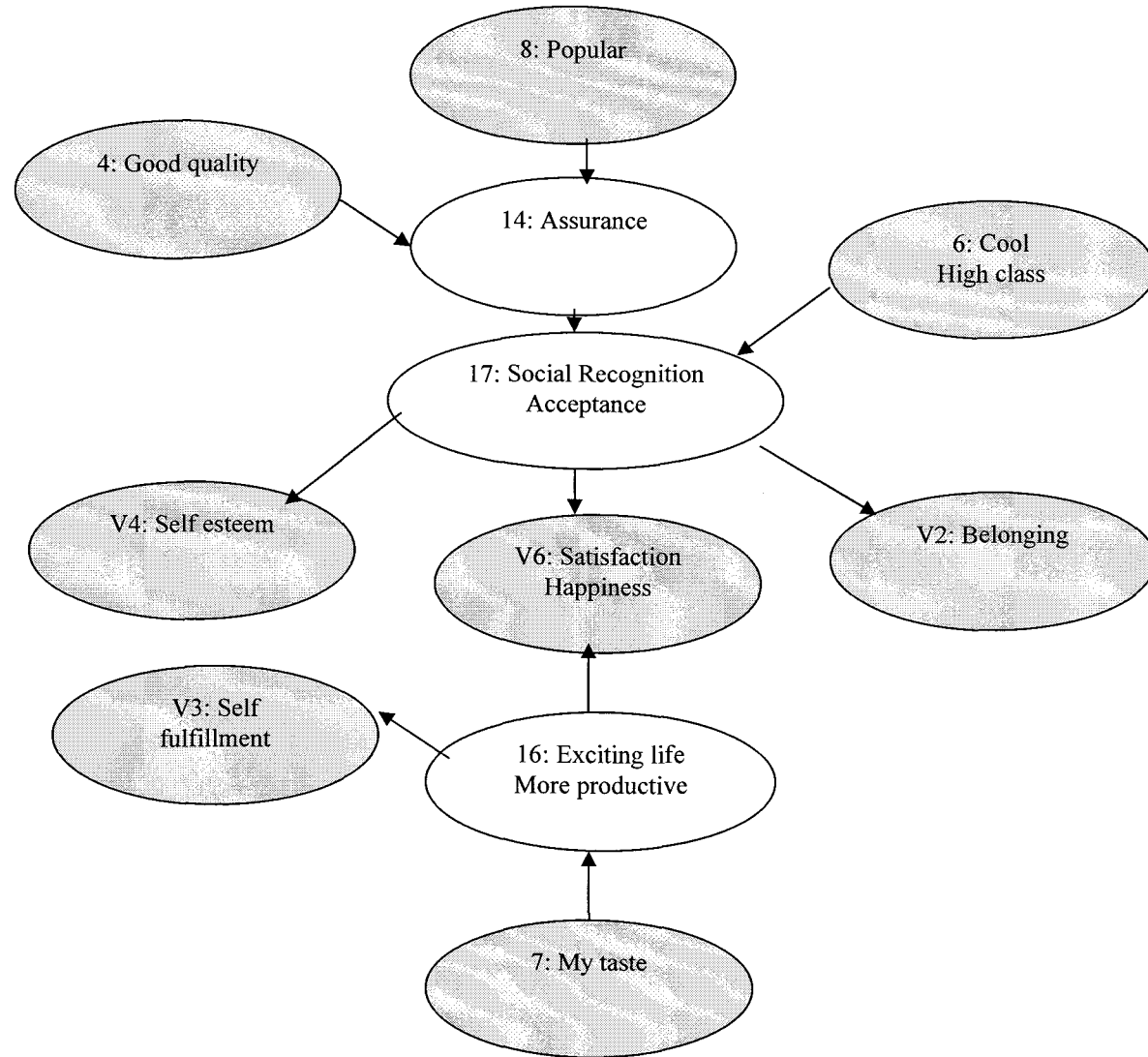


FIGURE 15

LOCAL BRANDS-HIGH INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS HIERARCHICAL VALUE MAP

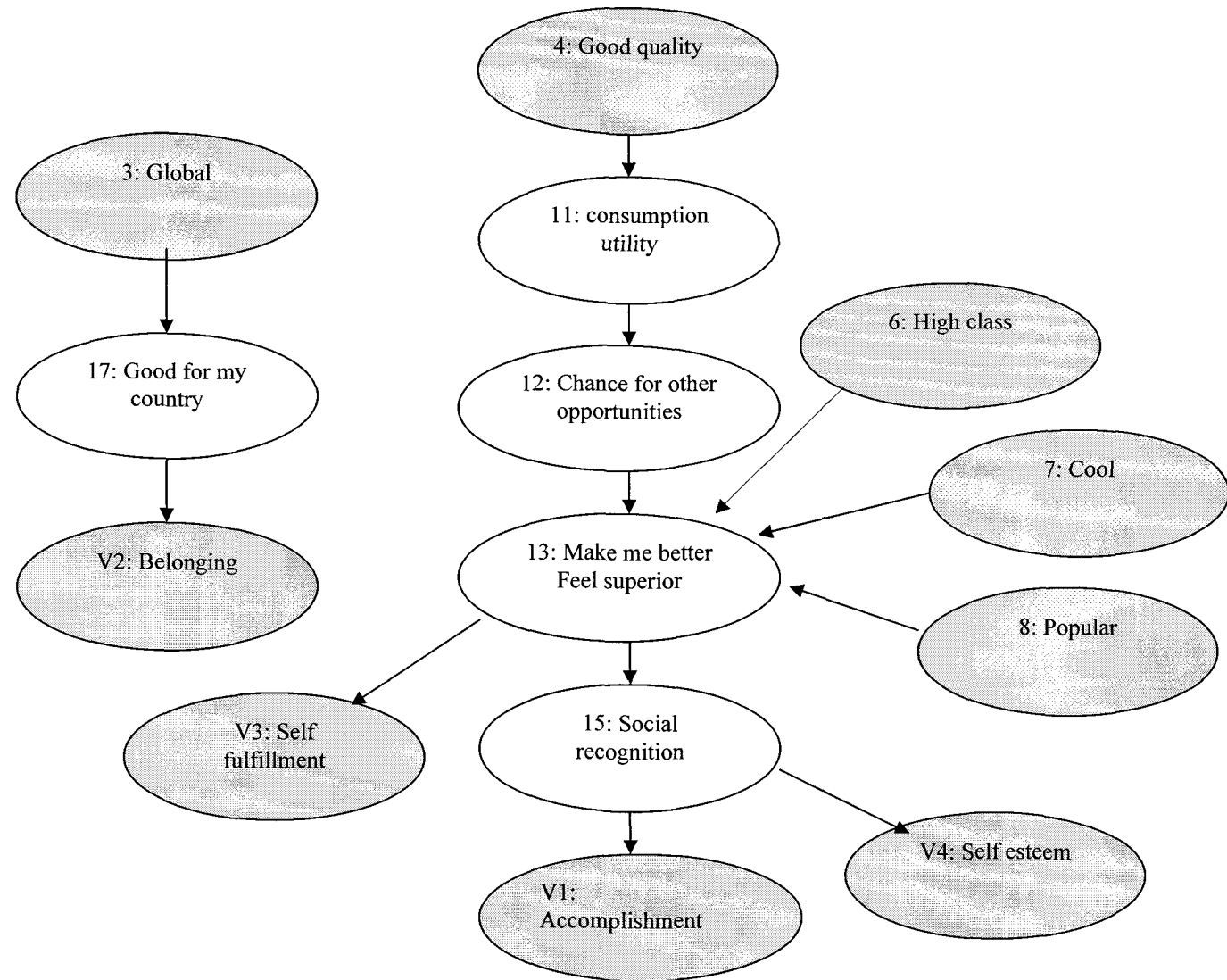


FIGURE 16

LOCAL BRANDS-LOW INVOLVEMENT BRANDS HIERARCIAL VALUE MAP

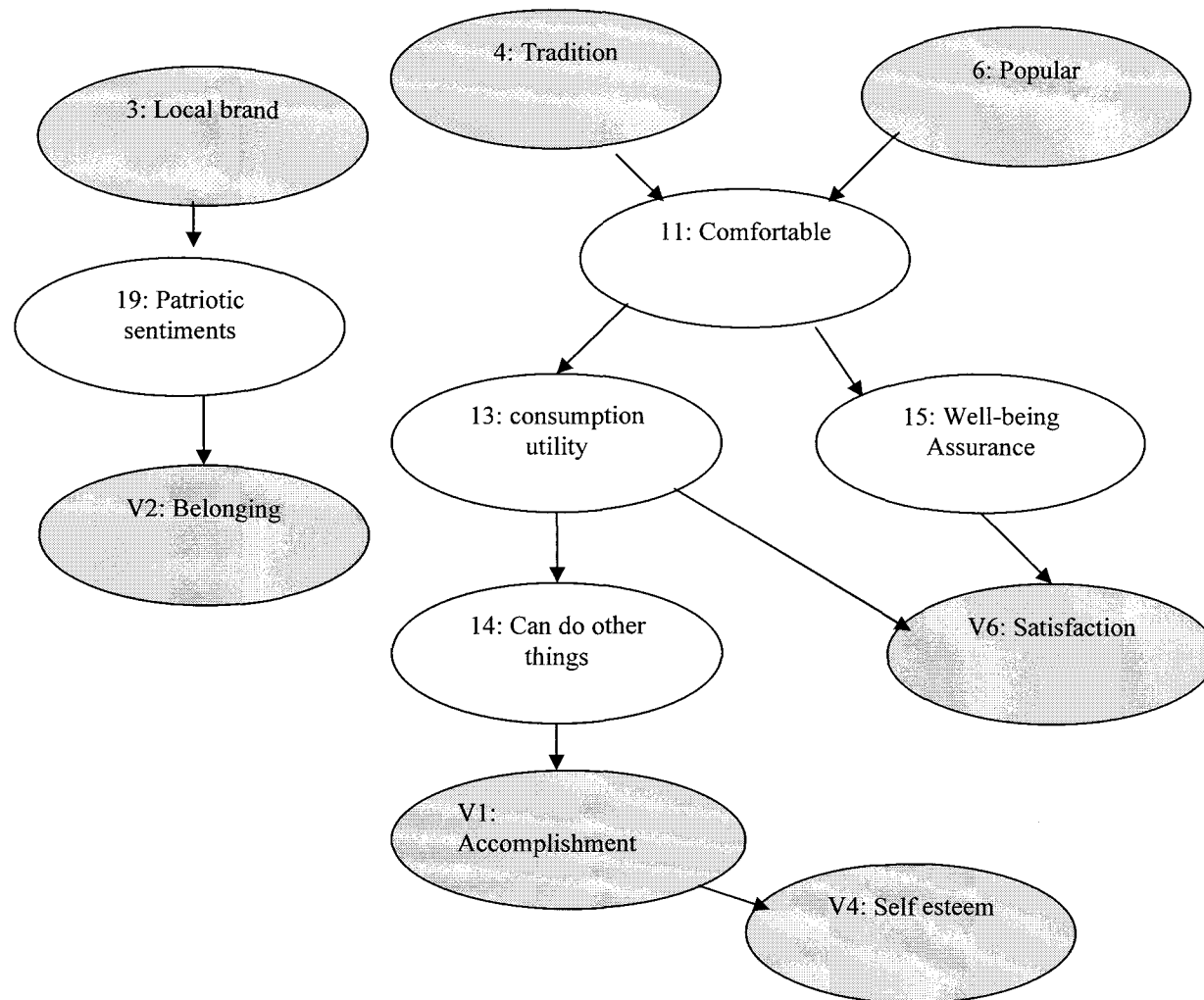


FIGURE 17**MAJOR MEANING ELEMENTS OF HIGH INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS**

	Global brands	Foreign brands	Local brands
Attributes	The best (S) Power and money (S) Popular (S)	Cool (S) Popular (S) Good quality (F) Rare and expensive (E)	Good quality (F) Cool (S) Popular (S) High-class (S) Global (International) (F)
Consequences	Make me better/ Feel superior (S) Rational consumption/ Worthwhile (F) Give good impression to others (S) Assurance (F) Harmonious relationship (S)	Social recognition (S) Make me special (S) Assurance (F) Exciting life (E) More experience (E)	Make me better (S) Social recognition (S) Chance for other opportunity (F) Consumption utility (F) Good for my country (S)
Values	Satisfaction (S) Accomplishment (S) Self-esteem (S) Belonging (S)	Satisfaction (S) Self-esteem (S) Accomplishment (S)	Accomplishment (S) Self-esteem (S) Belonging (S)

Note: According to Park et al. (1986), functional (F) concept provides the problem solving images, symbolic (S) concept provides the images of reference group/ego enhancement, and experiential (E) concept provides cognitive/sensory stimulation to consumers.

FIGURE 18**MAJOR MEANING ELEMENTS OF LOW INVOLVEMENT PRODUCTS**

	Global brands	Foreign brands	Local brands
Attributes	Popular (S) Worldwide availability (F) Approachable (S) Effective marketing (F)	Cool/High class (S/E) My taste (E) Popular (S) Good quality (F)	Popular (S) Local brand (S) Tradition (S)
Consequences	Make me better (S) Consumption utility (F) Social recognition (S)	Social recognition (S) Assurance (F) Exciting life/ More productive (E/F)	Comfortable (F) Well- being/Assurance (F) Consumption utility (F) Can do other things (F) Patriotic sentiments (S)
Values	Satisfaction (S) Belonging (S) Accomplishment (S)	Satisfaction (S) Belonging (S) Self-esteem (S) Self-fulfillment (S)	Satisfaction (S) Accomplishment (S) Self-esteem (S) Belonging (S)

Note: According to Park et al. (1986), functional (F) concept provides the problem solving images, symbolic (S) concept provides the images of reference group/ego enhancement, and experiential (E) concept provides cognitive/sensory stimulation to consumers.

FIGURE 19

THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF GLOBAL, FOREIGN, AND
LOCAL BRANDS TO KOREAN CONSUMERS

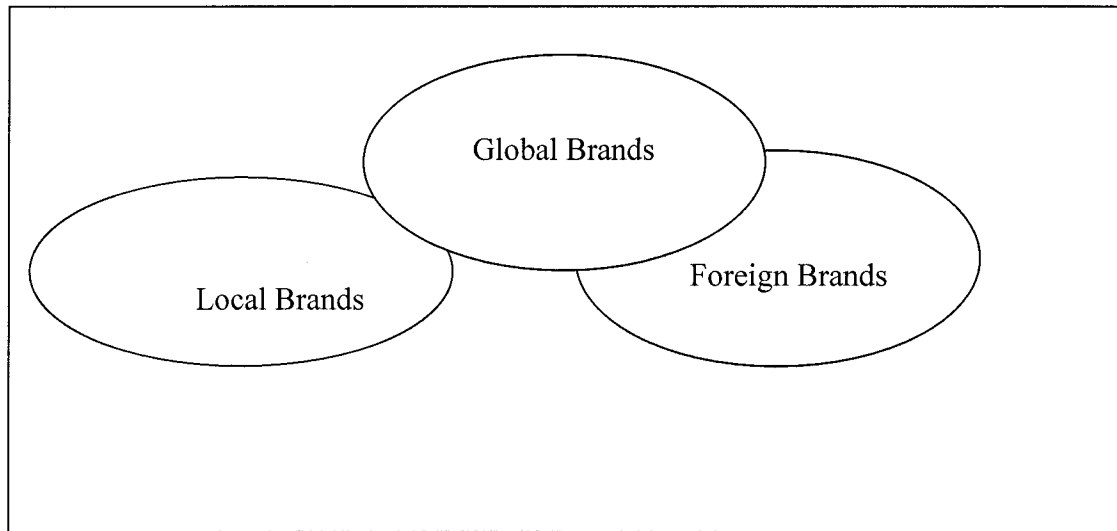


FIGURE 20

INSIGHTS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MARKETING MIX

Brands	Product Involvement	Key insights	Marketing implications
Global	High	<p>While considered expensive, good quality seems to justify the price and gives an assurance for purchase.</p> <p>Prestige of owning it works two ways; it provides self-satisfaction and it also helps give a good impression to others, resulting in good relationships.</p> <p>Popularity gives confidence and helps produce feelings of belonging to the reference and/or peer group</p>	<p>Marketing communication should emphasize the high quality and long term economy.</p> <p>Provide a generous warranty and service plan.</p> <p>Hedonic promotion which describes the pleasure of using the product, self-indulgence, and luxury may work best for self-satisfaction.</p> <p>Emphasize the status enhancing aspects and how they can help consumers maintain harmonious relationships.</p> <p>Specialized shops and high-end department stores may be the best outlets.</p> <p>Sponsoring celebrities and popular entertainers may help promote good word-of-mouth.</p>
	Low	<p>Interesting ad campaigns and convenience of purchasing make them approachable and popular among peer groups.</p> <p>Perceived worldwide (global) availability gives assurance and justifies the brand selection</p>	<p>Keep track of social trends for effective advertising campaigns. Tie-ins with popular cultural and sporting events should be considered.</p> <p>Sponsoring worldwide events (e.g., World Cup soccer games and Olympics) may promote global perception.</p>
Foreign	High	<p>The perception of rarity and high price makes it cool and popular.</p> <p>While considered expensive, good quality seems to justify the price and gives an assurance for purchase</p>	<p>Marketing communication should emphasize why it is special and exclusive.</p> <p>Pricing need not be justified.</p> <p>Specialized shops and exclusive dealer shops may be the best outlet.</p> <p>Direct mail for select groups of consumers may increase the sense of exclusiveness.</p> <p>No discount policy may improve its position.</p> <p>Marketing communication should emphasize the high quality and long term economy.</p> <p>Provide a generous warranty and service plan.</p>

FIGURE 20 (Continued)

INSIGHTS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MARKETING MIX

Local	Low	<p>Good quality and popularity give an assurance for purchase.</p> <p>Perceived coolness ensures social recognition.</p> <p>My taste</p>	<p>Marketing communication should emphasize the high quality and long term economy.</p> <p>May emphasize company logos or trademark for instant recognition.</p> <p>Products should be adapted to local tastes while maintaining their uniqueness (e.g., Korean style burgers and fried chicken).</p>
	High	<p>Good quality compared to a reasonable price provides the sense of rational consumption and accomplishment.</p> <p>Perceived high class, coolness, and popularity help consumers feel good about themselves</p> <p>Perceived globalness of local brands gives pride and patriotic feelings.</p>	<p>Marketing communication should emphasize why buying is a rational thing to do, such as no royalties or licensing fees for foreign companies and no export tariffs. May want to compare products feature by feature with the competitive nonlocal brands to emphasize that the quality is the same or better.</p> <p>Should provide a good warranty and service plan.</p> <p>Marketing communication should emphasize hedonic experience.</p> <p>Marketing communication should emphasize the message that their products are exported to developed countries and if it is the case, how they beat other well-known global brands in terms of quality.</p> <p>Instructions in multiple languages may give the impression of globalness.</p>
	Low	<p>Tradition and popularity bring comfort and assurance of purchase</p> <p>Perceived localness bring patriotic feelings.</p>	<p>Marketing communication should emphasize tradition, nostalgia, and collectivistic feelings. Advertisements featuring multi-generation consumers or consumers who are loyal for long periods may be effective.</p> <p>Marketing communication may emphasize local origins and consumer ethnocentrism. It may be especially effective during economic recesses.</p>

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