

Three Essays on Global and Local Brands

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Summary

Whether it is McDonald's and Burger King, Nike and Adidas or Samsung and Apple, consumers all around the world are exposed to a variety of brands. Even though in fundamentally different industries, the mentioned brands have one common ground: They are global. However, rivalry is not limited to these global brands, as local brands are active in national markets or smaller regions, further intensifying the competition. This composition of brands in marketplaces throughout the world poses an increasing challenge to win over consumers, as globalization enhances more and more firms to distribute their brands across borders.

It is not surprising thus, that the topic of global/local brands has been under investigation by scholars for over 30 years. Mainly starting in the 1980s with classic works such as Levitt's (1982) "The Globalization of Markets", many aspects of global and local brands have been researched in the broader business and marketing domains as well as subdomains, for example, international marketing or (international) advertising. Yet, the number of research publications constantly grows, showing that global and local brands are a major topic.

Driven by my own biography and fascination for brands in general, I was fortunate to devote myself to this topic in the past years. The result is the dissertation at hand entitled "Three Essays on Global and Local Brands", which examines the past, present and future of branding in an international context. More precisely, the first essay "A Systematic Literature Review of Global and Local Brands: Managerial and Transformative Future Research Directions" provides scholars and practitioners a detailed state of the art of global/local brand research. Further, it proposes promising angles for future research, especially considering major challenges for our societies. The second essay "Understanding Cosmopolitans Through Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness: A Social Identity Complexity Perspective" incorporates the segment of cosmopolitan consumers into perceived brand globalness/localness research. Theoretically grounded in the concepts of social identity theory and complexity, the

essay builds on perceived brand globalness/localness to analyze how cosmopolitans arrange both their global and local orientations. Aside offering scholars a new theoretical lens regarding consumer cosmopolitanism, managers can benefit from the gained insights, if cosmopolitans are a particular target group in their business strategy. Finally, in the essay “A Meta-Analysis on Key Outcomes of Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness”, I analyze how the increasingly scholarly popular variables perceived brand globalness and localness materialize on various key outcome variables. At heart of this essay is a comparison of both perceived brand globalness and localness, offering scholars and practitioners valuable empirical insights on similarities and differences between their effects on outcomes such as brand quality.

Overall, this dissertation and the three essays aim to contribute to the global/local brand field in a bigger way, hoping that academics get inspired for future research and managers can truly capitalize on the insights for their practice.

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List of Abbreviations

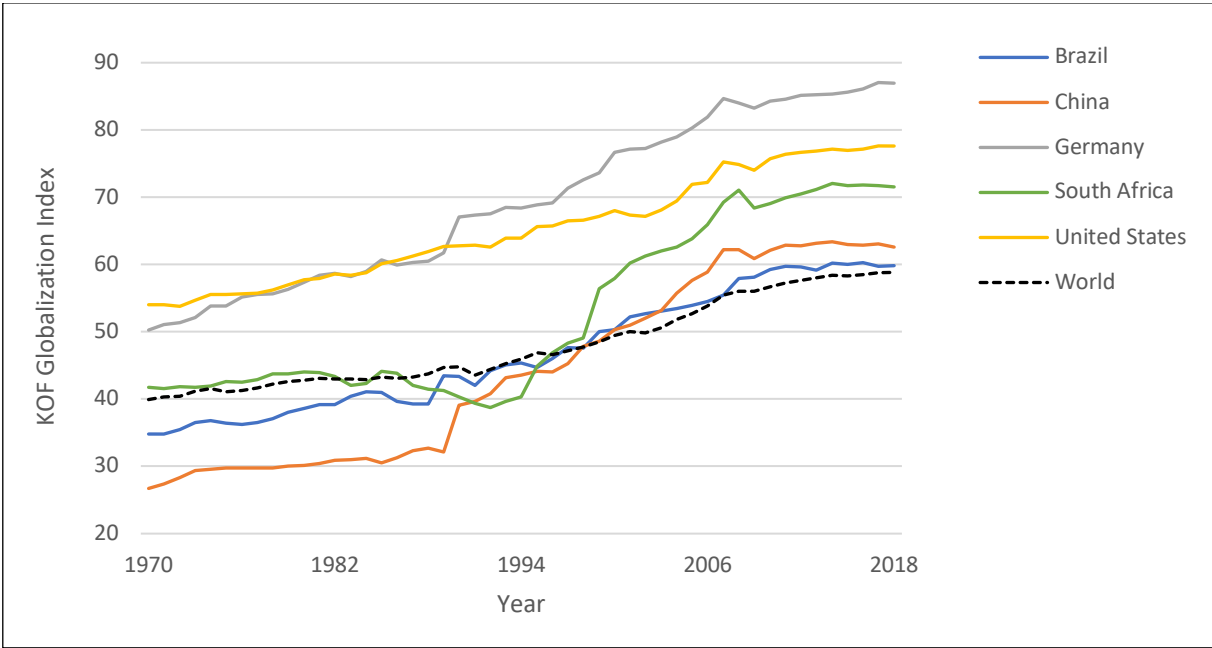
AVE	Average variance extracted
B2B	Business to business
B2C	Business to consumer
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CMV	Common method variance
Cosmo	(Consumer) cosmopolitanism
CR	Composite reliability
df	Degrees of freedom
FMCG	Fast moving consumers goods
GCCP	Global consumer culture positioning
IR	Item reliability
LCCP	Local consumer culture positioning
MGCFA	Multi group confirmatory factor analysis
MNC	Multinational corporation
N/n	Size of full sample/size of subsample
NA	Not available
n.d.	No date
PBG/PBL	Perceived brand globalness/localness
RMSEA	Root mean squared error of approximation
SDB	Social desirability bias
SIC	Social identity complexity
SIT	Social identity theory
SRMR	Standardized root mean squared residual
TLI	Tucker-Lewis index

1 General Introduction

1.1 Globalization as the Main Trend of Our Time

We live in a globalized world, driven by the international flows of trade, capital, information and people (Altman and Bastian 2019; International Monetary Fund 2008). In terms of economic, social and political integration, the world in general and individual countries have experienced considerable increases of integration in the past decades, as the KOF Globalization Index shows (see Figure 1.1; Gygli et al. 2019). However, globalization is not an exclusive phenomenon to the post World War II era. As a matter of fact, a more significant period in time for globalization marked the early eighteenth century, as steamships, railroads and international telegraph cables emerged, unifying economies in an unprecedented manner (Hirst and Thompson 2011; O'Rourke and Williamson 2002). Hence, globalization reaches back to early technological advancements around 200 years ago and has been further fueled by more recent progress of technology, such as long-distance jets and information technology (Hirst and Thompson 2011).

Figure 1.1 The development of globalization for selected countries and the world



While the global interconnectedness received an extra boost with the end of the Soviet era (ETH Zürich n.d.), we have witnessed several events to potentially slow down globalization in recent years: The financial crisis of 2008 and its aftermath, nationalist and protectionist tendencies all around the world (e.g., Brexit) and various political disagreements (e.g., trade wars) (Ghemawat 2017). However, despite these events taking place, globalization reached its highest point ever just recently in 2017 (Altman and Bastian 2019). Another more recent and major force on globalization is the current Covid-19 pandemic. Yet, the sharp decline of trade, capital, and information flows are recovering or have already recovered, while the flow of people has not yet rebounded and thus remains low (Altman and Bastian 2021). However, it also has been suggested that Covid-19 has brought the world even closer together, though not physically, but rather through the virtues of technology (Financial Times 2020).

Against these events of the near past and present, countries are intensifying their trade efforts. Examples are prominent trade deals, such as the Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership (RCEP) or the EU-Canada agreement (CETA). Similarly, the Road and Belt Initiative (RBI) aims at establishing trade routes on land and sea from East Asia to Europe, potentially covering 71 economies and increasing trade between 2.7 and 9.7 percent (The World Bank 2018).

Summarizing, despite prior, current, and potentially future setbacks, it is likely that globalization will further increase, even if the pace slows down. This trend has great implications on marketplaces around the globe, including firms and their brands as well as consumers.

1.2 Brands and Consumers in a Globalized World

Generally, brands have become a decisive factor to convince consumers of the own offerings, because in many industries and product/service categories little or no substantial difference exists among competitive alternatives (Homburg 2020; Kapferer 2002). One way to

create a difference to competitors is through brand positioning, which aims at “establishing key brand associations in the minds of consumers” (Keller and Lehmann 2006, p. 740). Brand positioning strategies can be based on any dimension a marketer can think of, for example, product attributes like size or user friendliness of a smart phone (Fuchs and Diamantopoulos 2010). A further dimension for brand positioning is enhanced by globalization. More precisely, globalization shapes markets in such manner that brands are either (1) automatically aligned or (2) intentionally positioned along a global and local brand logic, which in turn has implications for consumers. In the following, I will provide brief definitions of global and local brands and discuss their emergence from companies’ perspective, before addressing the consumer side.

1.2.1 Global Brands

Global brands are defined in many ways, with the key characteristics of a largely uniform cross market strategy (i.e., brand position, advertising strategy, etc.) and a wide availability throughout the world (e.g., Aaker and Joachimsthaler 1999; Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Taylor and Okazaki 2015). The main advantage of global brands arises due to cost savings and therefore economies of scale (e.g., Levitt 1983; Steenkamp 2014). This thought has been empirically supported, as research shows that brand name standardization across markets decreases costs and increases sales volume (Alashban et al. 2002).

It is important to understand that the emergence of global brands is a consequence of globalization and firms’ internationalization processes. Companies can generally enter new markets internally (i.e., organically/by themselves) or by acquisitions/alliances. An internal market entry strategy particularly favors rolling out (domestic) brands into international markets (Douglas, Craig, and Nijssen 2001). Consequently, a domestic brand becomes international and, with further expansion, eventually global. A classic example in this matter is Coca-Cola. As the US-based company started its international expansion in the 1920s, it

gradually extended its brand to other markets, reaching consumers in over 200 countries today (The Coca-Cola Company 2021).

The second approach for international market expansion is the acquisition of local brands. While, after a certain time, firms usually replace these acquired brands with a global/international brand of their brand portfolio, it is also common to integrate acquired brands with strong local standing (e.g., a dominant market share) into the brand portfolio (Douglas, Craig, and Nijssen 2001; Wright and Nancarrow 1999). From a practical standpoint, companies also pursue hybrid approaches, in which acquired local brand names are retained but the brand logos are standardized/harmonized. For instance, in the fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) industry, multinational corporation (MNC) Unilever acquired the Finish ice cream brand “Ingman” in 2011 (Unilever 2011) but only changed the logo to the famous Heartbrand, which the company uses worldwide. Similarly, Kimberly Clark maintains the “Hakle” toilet paper brand in Austria and Switzerland, which it gained through the acquisition of Attisholz Holding AG in 1999 (Hakle 2021; Kimberly-Clark 1999). However, the brand logo is in accordance with its sister brands in Kimberly Clark’s international toilet paper brand portfolio (see Figure 1.2).

Figure 1.2 Example of Kimberly Clark's toilet paper brands across markets (Kimberly-Clark 2021)

				
Austria Switzerland	Ireland United Kingdom	Canada Germany USA	Belgium Italy Spain	The Netherlands

Note: The brand Hakle is also available in Germany but is not a part of Kimberly Clark; The brand logos were obtained from the individual websites of each brand.

1.2.2 Local Brands

Aside Western and also increasingly emerging market MNCs (Özsomer 2019), countless small/medium sized domestic companies are active in and shape individual markets throughout the world. Naturally, these domestic firms outnumber MNCs and can range from the small village grocery store brand to regionally or nationally available brands. To illustrate, the 2019 Brand Footprint report finds that local (vs. global) brands made up 64.8 percent of consumer choices (Kantar 2020). Local brands are usually characterized by availability in a limited geographical area (e.g., a country or city) and as highly tailored to local market characteristics, thus, adapted to the needs of local consumers (e.g., Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008; Schuiling and Kapferer 2004).

It is however noteworthy that driven by globalization (i.e., travel and technology), local brands of other/foreign markets also increasingly catch consumers attention and find their way into domestic markets. For example, consumers discover brands at their travel destinations or while consuming media, which might result in the desire to purchase these brands at their place of living. Moreover, smaller (entrepreneurial) firms can also actively target and even dominate niche markets around the world (Knight and Cavusgil 2004; Steenkamp 2017), for example, by exploiting the possibilities of the internet. Therefore, not only do foreign/domestic MNCs and domestic firms reach consumers with their global and local brands, but also (smaller) foreign firms.

1.2.3 Consumers

Caused by globalization, the above discussed composition of firms in markets, that is, foreign/domestic MNCs as well as domestic/foreign (small) firms, results in a fierce competition (Douglas and Craig 2011; Kotler and Armstrong 2017). As a consequence, consumers in individual markets are simultaneously exposed to global and local brands of domestic and foreign origin. This even applies to product categories with little or no difference

between the actual products, such as the market for bottled water. For example, in Bavaria, consumers can purchase brands that are available (1) primarily in Bavaria (e.g., the Bavaria-based brand Adelholzener), (2) nationally in Germany (e.g., the German brand Gerolsteiner), (3) globally in many countries (e.g., the France-based global brand Vittel), or even (4) in mainly one foreign country (e.g., the Turkish brand Pinar). Additionally, in each of these four categories countless brands are available. For instance, I identified over 100 bottled water brands in the web shop of the German supermarket chain REWE in early May 2021. Aside the well-known global brands, many of the listed brands have German names, indicating that they are local brands. However, there are also brands that use English names in combination with local geographical elements. For example, the brand Black Forest of the German firm Peterstaler Mineralquellen GmbH suggests globalness through its English name but refers to a forested mountain area in southwestern Germany, indicating localness as well. Thus, it seems not unreasonable to conclude that consumers are in agony of choice in respect to global/local brands.

This example shows the complexity and challenge for any type of firm to outperform local and foreign competitors in globalized markets. The guiding question is how firms can gain the trust of consumers and increase sales of their brands in such dense environments, which leads to more fine-grained questions: Do global or local brands perform better? Is global vs. local branding a matter of black and white or are there nuances of grey in between? What are strategies to position brands as global or local? What do consumers associate with global and local brands? Are there consumer characteristics or segments that favorize either type of brand? What role does brand origin play? What is the role of culture in this whole context?

To provide practitioners with insights, questions like these have experienced growing popularity and have been addressed by scholars since the 1990s (Samiee 2019). This raises the question why the global/local brand field still can and should be the center of research. Why are scholars after more than 30 years still, and even more than that, increasingly paying attention

to this field? The answer lies in the reason why the global/local brand field emerged in the first place: It is a consequence of globalization, and as discussed above, globalization is an ongoing process, affecting markets and consumers, constantly. Amongst many other, one major example are the hundreds of millions of consumers around the world, who are being exposed more and more to global brands, as emerging economies become increasingly interesting for companies. Similarly, it is obvious that the interaction of consumers across the globe (e.g., social media) is at higher levels than 20 or 30 years ago, possibly influencing consumption patterns. In sum, as globalization continues shaping markets and consumers, it is likely that the relevance of global/local brands will remain high for academics. It is only logical that as long as the world is driven by globalization, global/local brands will stay a key area of interest for international marketing research. In short: Global/local brands are a major topic. Therefore, the dissertation at hand focuses on this field of research.

1.3 Research Scope

The main section of this dissertation consists of three independent essays in the area of global/local brands. Essays 1 and 2 are collaborative works, while I am the single author of Essay 3. I will briefly introduce these essays in the following and conclude with each essay's research questions, which in sum represent the research scope of my dissertation. This scope is closely related to the above discussion on globalization, brands, and consumers, and is therefore specifically addressing international marketing and global/local brand research as well as practitioners around the world.

1.3.1 Essay 1: A Systematic Literature Review of Global and Local Brands: Managerial and Transformative Future Research Directions

Research on global/local brands can be characterized by a dynamic publication rate, which shows the ongoing strong scholarly interest in the field. This area of research, which

started its journey with initial articles in the 1980s, has grown into a very mature field with various sub-streams. The overall goal of this essay is to systematically review the literature on global/local brands to offer future research directions. We do this by analyzing over 200 peer-reviewed research articles, covering 34 years. While also considering general as well as methodological aspects, our review primarily aims at a detailed organization of prior research by investigated topics. Besides providing an integrated overview of the global/local brand field, we uncover gaps in the literature, particularly considering major trends of our time that affect our societies, such as climate change or the issue of social injustice. Elaborating on these gaps, we finally develop a research agenda and invite scholars to conduct research in the provided directions. Summarizing, Essay 1 addresses the following first two questions:

- (1) What topics have emerged in global/local brand research over the years?
- (2) What gaps are apparent in global/local brand research and which future research directions can be derived, especially considering major developments in our societies?

1.3.2 Essay 2: Understanding Cosmopolitans Through Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness: A Social Identity Complexity Perspective

The second essay focuses on consumer cosmopolitanism in the context of perceived brand globalness and localness (PBG/PBL). Cosmopolitan consumers, who especially populate cities (e.g., Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw 2012), can be considered an increasingly important segment in the international marketplace, as the proportion of the global population living in urban areas is projected to increase (United Nations 2019). However, research has not yet established clear cut links between brand globalness/localness and cosmopolitanism. As a result, prior research concluded that from a practical standpoint, the importance of cosmopolitan consumers as a target group for segmentation should not be overestimated

(Diamantopoulos et al. 2019). Hence, due to inconsistent findings in cosmopolitanism research, the applicability of cosmopolitanism as segmentation variable for marketing and brand managers is in doubt.

Against this background, this essay proposes major shifts in how cosmopolitanism should be approached theoretically and empirically. From a theoretic standpoint, we argue that in the context of global/local branding, both globalness and localness refer to (multiple) ingroups for cosmopolitan consumers, as they harbor both global and local orientations (e.g., Beck 2002). Accounting for this notion, we then adopt social identity complexity (SIC; Roccas and Brewer 2002) as a theoretical framework, enabling us to analyze the interrelationship of cosmopolitans' global and local orientations. Drawing on SIC, we empirically focus on a comparison of the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude, as cosmopolitanism increases. With this approach, we find clear patterns and promising results, increasing the value of cosmopolitanism for scholars and practitioners likewise. In sum, Essay 2 adds the following questions to the scope of this dissertation:

- (3) How can we characterize best the relation of cosmopolitans' global and local orientations?
- (4) How do both PBG and PBL materialize on managerially relevant outcome variables as cosmopolitanism increases?

1.3.3 Essay 3: A Meta-Analysis on Key Outcomes of Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness

One of the main areas in global/local brand research is the stream of PBG/PBL, as Essay 1 shows. Overall, PBG/PBL have been investigated regarding many outcome variables, while scholars focused on the following ones on a recurring basis: Consumer perceptions and evaluations of brand quality, prestige, competence, warmth, credibility as well as brand attitude

and purchase intention, mostly establishing positive empirical links between PBG/PBL and these outcomes (e.g., Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016; Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos 2019; Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003). However, a major question is if PBG or PBL are similarly related to these outcomes, or whether there might be more exclusive relations, in which either PBG or PBL is a stronger driver of a specific outcome. Further, regarding the effects of PBG/PBL on these outcomes, a glance at empirical results reveals a potential heterogeneity across studies. For instance, while one study shows a negative correlation of PBG and brand competence (Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016) a second study shows a positive correlation between the two variables (Kolbl et al. 2020). Thus, an important question is whether there are systematic differences across studies, which can explain a variability and even contradicting empirical results.

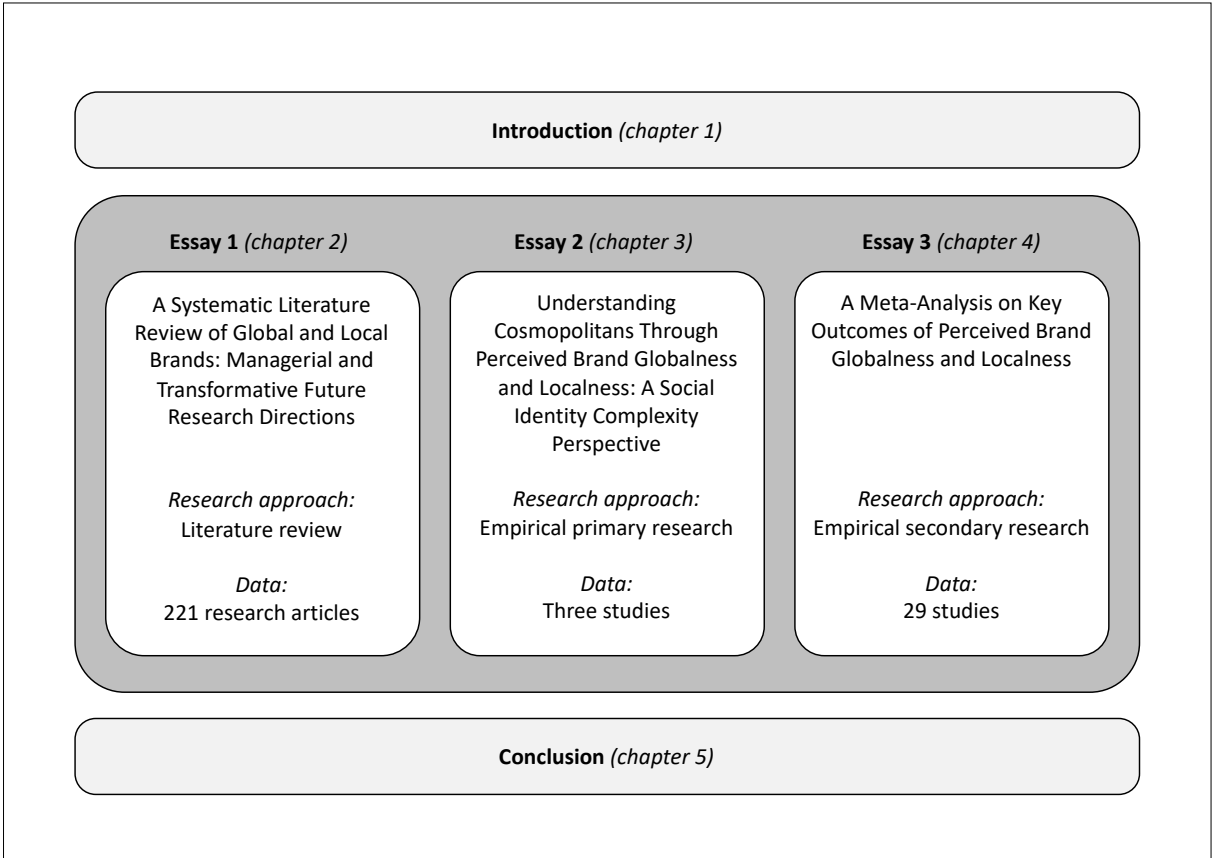
The goal of Essay 3 is to answer these questions by means of a meta-analysis, as a relatively large body of articles has been published in this area in the last years. Overall, the essay aims at providing scholars and managers an overall empirical state of the PBG/PBL research stream. More specifically, by integrating past research meta-analytically, the results can direct scholars in their future research, while managers will receive guidance on how they can capitalize on PBG/PBL to influence outcomes of interest. Summarizing, Essay 3 completes this dissertation's research scope with the questions:

- (5) Are there differences in terms of effect strength between PBG and PBL regarding key outcome variables?
- (6) Do the effects of PBG/PBL on frequently used outcomes hold in general or are the effects dependent on contextual factors, hence, differences between studies?

1.4 Structure of the Dissertation

Figure 1.3 summarizes the structure of the dissertation: After the introduction to the topic and dissertation, the three essays will be presented in detail in chapters two to four. Essay 1 provides a comprehensive literature review of over 30 years global/local brand research. In chapter 3, Essay 2 focuses on investigating how cosmopolitan consumers relate to perceived brand globalness and localness by considering social identity complexity as a theoretical framework. In chapter 4, Essay 3 integrates past empirical findings of perceived brand globalness/localness research by means of meta-analysis. The dissertation concludes with chapter 5, covering overall implications for global/local brand research as well as management.

Figure 1.3 Structure of the dissertation



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2 A Systematic Literature Review of Global and Local Brands: Managerial and Transformative Future Research Directions

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The high publication rate of global/local brand research shows the ongoing strong scholarly interest in the field. In this article, we systematically review the global/local brand literature to offer future research directions. Compared to previous reviews, we utilize a broader conceptual scope and a broader scope of publication outlets. We analyzed 221 peer-reviewed research articles published in 28 top business and marketing journals, covering a time frame from 1986 until August 2020. While also considering general as well as methodological aspects of research conducted, the main goal of the review is a detailed topic analysis. Results reveal that most research focused on global brands, leaving local brands relatively under-researched. Moreover, practically no research has been conducted in the B2B context or in (emerging) countries from Africa. Major current trends (i.e., technological change and digitization, a tense political environment) have been addressed to a limited extent. Further, prior research focused on managerial outcomes, neglecting the potential transformative power of global/local brands regarding major global challenges such as climate change or social injustice. Methodologically, global/local brand research has focused on traditional empirical methods, while the use of innovative research approaches and data is still scarce. Aside focusing on managerial problems and outcomes as well as already well-established topics, we highlight to investigate the potential power of global/local brands to affect societal outcomes in future research.

Keywords: International marketing, global brands, local brands, brand globalness, brand localness, domestic brands, foreign brands, literature review.

2.1 Introduction

Globalization saw a strong increase in recent decades, compared to previous periods in time (Steenkamp 2019). However, globalization also experienced some setbacks in the near past and present, for example, the 2008 financial crisis, Brexit, trade wars and the Covid-19 pandemic (Bastian and Altman 2020; Ghemawat 2017). At the same time, yet, new trade deals are being discussed or struck, which will likely have a positive impact on globalization, or at least counteract setbacks. A recent example is the Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership (RCEP), which is the largest of its kind and includes 15 countries of the Asia Pacific region (Harding and Reed 2020).

Companies' activities across markets are directly related to globalization. Products and brands from different corners of the world reach consumers everywhere. Classic and well-known examples in this regard are Coca-Cola and McDonald's. On the other hand, local brands play an important role as well, since they challenge their global counterparts in many industries (Sharma, Kumar, and Borah 2017). Consequently, global and local brands found their way to (international) marketing research since the mid 1980ies, for example, with research on the question of brand standardization vs. adaptation (e.g., Boddewyn, Soehl, and Picard 1986), or the role of brand origin (Han 1989; Han and Terpstra 1988). Also, since global/local brand research evolved into a broad and mature area, scholars previously assessed the field's state of the art and provided ideas for future research directions (i.e., Chabowski, Samiee, and Hult 2013; Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran 2018; Whitelock and Fastoso 2007).

However, previous reviews in the field either focused on (1) a limited number of articles in the global/local brand literature (i.e., Chabowski, Samiee, and Hult 2013) or (2) a rather narrow conceptualization by considering mostly global brands, somewhat disregarding local brands (i.e., Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran 2018). In short, prior work has not fully covered the overall state of global/local brand research. Therefore, our review aims to provide

a bigger picture of the literature. Moreover, the entire field is very fast paced and can therefore benefit from further consolidation. Even though the most recent review (i.e., Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran 2018) contains articles published until 2016, we identified over 60 relevant publications thereafter. These publications alone, dating from 2017 to 2020, exceed the individual sample sizes of previous reviews dedicated to global/local brands. In addition to capturing this most recent body of literature, this review extends and broadens prior work in three major directions.

First, to gain a comprehensive overview of the field, we argue that local brands must be included in literature reviews as well, since local brands are in some ways the counterpart of global brands. However, previous reviews have focused mainly on global brands, while partially disregarding the importance of local brands in this context (i.e., Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran 2018; Whitelock and Fastoso 2007). Related to including local brands, we also propose to involve a domestic vs. non-domestic (foreign) brand perspective as well, which we see as an integral aspect of the global/local brand literature. While domestic vs. non-domestic brands and branding strategies primarily relate to the country-of-origin literature, many articles in the global/local brand stream investigate global/local brands together with brand origin aspects (e.g., Balabanis, Stathopoulou, and Qiao 2019; Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020). However, only one of the three major prior reviews (i.e., Chabowski, Samiee, and Hult 2013) considered the domestic/non-domestic aspect.

Second, to provide a broader overview of the literature, we rely on a more extensive list of publication outlets. Prior reviews in the field included common and very relevant publication outlets for global/local brand research (i.e., Chabowski, Samiee, and Hult 2013; Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran 2018; Whitelock and Fastoso 2007). However, while these reviews used objective approaches of journal selection only partially, we comprised a potential list of 76 journals, derived from the top 30 marketing and top 30 business journal rankings from two

sources (i.e., Scopus and Scimago). Thus, our review is broader in terms of journal scope and can also uncover to what degree global/local brands have found their way into other business domains.

Third, on a more general note, we provide a basic framework for new and well-experienced scholars to distinguish the type of brand in their specific research. The need for such a framework becomes evident, since our overall impression of the literature is formed by an apparent lack of uniformity how the terms global, local, and at times domestic brands are used.

The focus of our review is a thorough organization of the literature by topics, building on Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran (2018, p. 111), who stated that “an alternative approach could be to provide a research synthesis based on topics investigated”. However, we also examine additional aspects such as the brand focus of articles (e.g., global or local), the geographical scope of studies, the type of offer (products vs. services) and business (B2C vs. B2B), as well as methodological considerations.

Results of our review reveal that local brands are under-investigated compared to global brands. Furthermore, most research has concentrated on B2C questions, almost neglecting the role of global and local brands in the B2B context. Africa as an emerging market is a blank spot in terms of empirical research, while several emerging markets from other regions were investigated. Our review also shows that most global/local brand research concentrates on five relatively mature topics (brand strategies; brand and country origin; consumer perceptions; consumer orientations, dispositions, and traits; brand standardization vs. adaptation), dating back to the beginnings of the field and the 2000s. More recent topics such as the role of technology and digitization as well as an atmosphere of political tension have played a minor or no role in the literature so far.

Moreover, our analysis shows that research approached the field from a rather classical perspective, that is, typical marketing-related outcomes. However, considering the future generations of consumers (i.e., consumers with more consciousness for climate change), we see a new stream of research that should investigate if and how global/local brands can impact major societal challenges that we face, for example, climate change and social injustice in many parts of the globe. Finally, from a methodological lens, research used practically traditional methods only (e.g., surveys), while more innovative approaches (e.g., secondary/field data, data from online platforms) are scarce. Overall, our findings offer a variety of specific research directions that we will address in detail.

Our article is structured as follows. First, we discuss the key definitions in global/local brand research and propose a basic organizing framework for our review and research agenda. We then draw on previous literature reviews in the field to substantiate and extend our review methodology. Next, we specify the methodology and report the results of our analyses. Finally, we discuss the results and provide future avenues for global/local brand research, before addressing limitations of our review.

2.2 Key Definitions and a Framework to Distinguish Brands

In this section, we define the key terms underlying our literature review: Global and local brands that can either be of domestic or non-domestic (foreign) origin. Prior literature shows that some of these terms are quite often used interchangeably and somewhat inconsistently: For instance, scholars often use the terms global and local brands as the poles of a single continuum, where it might be clearer to speak of global/non-domestic vs. non-global/domestic brands instead (e.g., Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008). Similarly, research may apparently deal with local brands, but it is unclear whether this localness refers to a brand's

limited geographic scope (i.e., its non-globalness), its grounding in a local culture, or its domestic origin (e.g., Schuiling and Kapferer 2004).

Our framework uses three brand dimensions derived from prior literature: (1) brand globalness in terms of reach, (2) brand localness in terms of cultural capital incorporated, and (3) brand origin. The former is generally unbound to studied countries, because global brands are global – irrespective of the perspective of a particular country. The latter two are usually based on the perspective of a specific country, that is, mainly the country in which studies are conducted (e.g., in studies with consumers from Germany, a domestic brand is from Germany).

Brand globalness and reach: This dimension determines if or to what degree a brand is considered to be global. There is no consensus regarding the definition of global brands. However, there are two recurring perspectives (Mandler 2019). The first perspective is demand sided and broadly deals with consumers' recognition of brands throughout the world (Dimofte, Johansson, and Bagozzi 2010). The second perspective is supply sided and covers the degree of distribution and availability of brands in multiple markets (Van Gelder 2004). Among further aspects, supply sided definitions also include brand standardization (Akaka and Alden 2010) as well as the usage of the same name and positioning (Özsomer 2012).

Putting both perspectives together, Steenkamp (2017, p. 3) defines a global brand as “a brand that uses the same name and logo, is recognized, available, and accepted in multiple regions of the world, shares the same principles, values, strategic positioning, and marketing throughout the world, and its management is internationally coordinated, although the marketing mix can vary”. Hence, the criterion “reach” determines whether a brand is global because the supply sided aspects (e.g., using the same logo and name) work toward establishing a globally consistent reach. Reach as criterion includes actual global availability (i.e., the possibility to buy a brand “anywhere”) or mental availability (e.g., awareness, recognition) in the minds of consumers throughout the world.

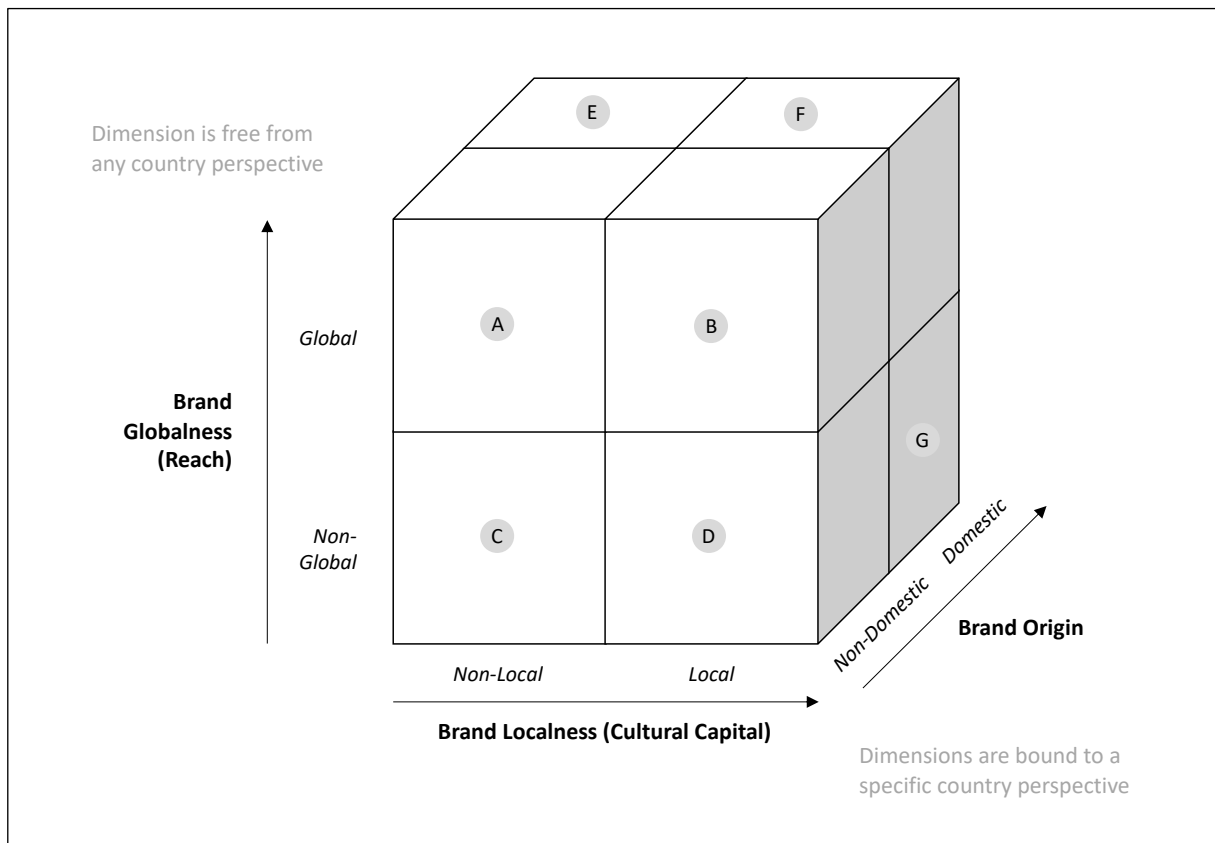
Brand localness and cultural capital: While there is a variety of approaches to define global brands, the same assertion cannot be made about local brands. On the contrary, the literature mostly considers local brands as simply the opposite to global brands, hence, define localness by reach as well (Schuiling and Kapferer 2004). However, local brands are also characterized by consumers' feelings of proximity, trust and pride (Kapferer 2002). Though focusing on products rather than on brands, Ger (1999) asserts that cultural capital, which includes symbolism and authenticity, is essential for localness. Building upon this notion, (perceived) brand localness captures the ability and degree of a brand to represent a specific culture (Sichtmann, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2019; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003; Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012).

Brand origin: The third dimension addresses the question whether a brand is domestic or non-domestic (i.e., foreign). This includes a brand-country association or the perception where the headquarter is located, disregarding the place of manufacturing (Samiee, Shimp, and Sharma 2005). It is important to stress that the brand origin and localness dimensions should not be used as synonyms, because brands of non-domestic (foreign) origin can also build on and exploit cultural capital in a specific country (Sichtmann, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2019). For instance, from a German perspective, Italian manufacturer Ferrero's chocolate brand Kinder might fall under this schema. Hence, even while many local brands are domestic, scholars should consider that brands of foreign origin can also aim to establish a local brand in any given country or culture.

Figure 2.1 highlights the possible combinations of the three brand dimensions. For example, from an American perspective, Nike will most likely be considered as a global brand, which is at the same time local and domestic (Figure 2.1, cube F). From a German or Turkish perspective however, while Nike is still a global brand, it is of non-local and non-domestic nature (Figure 2.1, cube A). The above-mentioned chocolate brand Kinder could likely be

global, local and non-domestic from a German perspective (Figure 2.1, cube B). Yet, from the point of Italy, Kinder will additionally be domestic (again, Figure 2.1, cube F). We will use this framework in our review to determine what dimensions have been addressed in prior research.

Figure 2.1 Three-dimensional framework to determine the type of brand in research



Notes: Each cube (labelled from A to H) depicts a brand's precise type in terms of the three brand dimensions; Cube H is not visible since it is located behind cube C.

2.3 Previous Literature Reviews in the Field

In line with Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran's (2018) call, our literature review is based on an analysis of investigated topics in global/local brand research. However, we extend previous reviews in two directions: (1) we build on a broader conceptualization of global/local brands, including all brand dimensions (see Figure 2.1) and (2) we extend our literature search on more publication outlets. In the following, we give a brief overview of prior major reviews

in the field (see Table 2.1), which we identified through a basic database search, and highlight how our research extends them.

Focusing on the globalness dimension only, Whitelock and Fastoso (2007) cover 40 articles in their topic-based review, yielding various topic categories such as international brand standardization/adaptation or international brand strategies. Chabowski, Samiee, and Hult (2013) conducted a bibliometric review, covering the brand localness and partially the brand origin dimension, aside the globalness dimension. While the scope of their bibliometric review is a potential number of 120 articles, the authors focus on the 27 most cited articles and organize these into various research groups. Finally, Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran (2018) conducted a theory-based review of the literature, without specifically accounting for the brand localness and origin dimensions. Analyzing 58 global brand articles, the authors organize the literature by theoretical approaches, such as consumer information processing or consumer culture theory.

Table 2.1 Overview and comparison of literature reviews on global/local brands

Reference/ Review	Type of review	Literature search process							
		Database(s)	Journals		Articles		Focus on brand dimension		
			Scope	Final no.	Final no.	Latest date	Global- ness	Local- ness	Origin
Whitelock and Fastoso (2007)	Topic-based	ABI/Inform Business Source Premier	20	13	40	2005	✓		
Chabowski, Samiee, and Hult (2013)*	Bibliometric	Web of Science	NA	12	27	2004	✓	✓	***
Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran (2018)**	Theory-based	Ebscohost	9	9	58	2016	✓		
<i>This review</i>	<i>Topic-based</i>	<i>Web of Science Ebscohost (Business Source Premier)</i>	<i>76</i>	<i>28</i>	<i>221</i>	<i>2020</i>	<i>✓</i>	<i>✓</i>	<i>✓</i>

* The authors identify 120 articles with a publication date until 2011. Of these, the bibliometric analysis contains only the 27 most cited articles, with the latest ones being published in 2004; ** In total, the review contains 129 articles. We only considered the articles of the global/local brand review section (= 58); *** partially; NA = not available.

Based on their findings (i.e., topic categories, research groups and theoretical approaches), these three previous literature reviews provide future research directions. However, the reviews are limited in their scope in two major ways. First, they analyzed the global/local brand literature mainly in terms of the globalness dimension and only partially the brand localness and origin dimensions, as can be seen by the search terms used (see Appendix 2.1). Nevertheless, the reviews dealt with the brand localness and origin dimensions to some degree, because many global brand articles touch the other dimensions as well. However, for an integrative review, all brand dimensions should explicitly be included in the search terms to identify relevant literature.

Second, we extend the basis of our literature review in terms of journal scope. Prior reviews include common journals in which global/local brand research would be expected (see Appendix 2.2). However, only five journals (i.e., *International Marketing Review*, *Journal of International Business Studies*, *Journal of International Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing Research*) are represented across all three reviews, which highlights that the underlying research approaches varied substantially. We thus aim for a more formal selection of the underlying journals.

2.4 Methodology

We expect our topic-based review of the global/local brand field to be mainly located in the international marketing domain. While the general purpose of a domain-perspective is to “review, synthesize, and extend a body of literature in the same substantive domain” (Palmatier, Houston, and Hulland 2018, p. 3), we also aim to integrate other domains (e.g., advertising, international business), to uncover the spread of global/local brand research across domains. We build our review method on Christofi, Leonidou, and Vrontis (2017), who adopted the approach of Tranfield, Denyer, and Smart (2003). In this section, we discuss the first phase,

that is, planning and conducting the review in terms of (1) identifying the need and purpose for a literature review, (2) setting the review goal, (3) developing a search string, (4) defining article exclusion criteria, and (5) the actual article search. Then, we will present the results of our review in the next chapter, relating to the second phase, that is, reporting and dissemination.

The initial task when conducting a literature review is to identify the need and purpose of the review, including setting of clear objectives and definition of specific research questions, since these considerations guide all subsequent tasks (Palmatier, Houston, and Hulland 2018; Snyder 2019; Tranfield, Denyer, and Smart 2003). We ground the need for a review in (1) the necessity to consider a broader review (conceptually and publication outlet wise) compared to previous reviews in this field and (2) an observed high publication dynamic in global/local brand research. Our main goal is to answer the question, to what degree the high publication rate relates to either well established or more innovative research questions. We will do this by primarily focusing on a detailed topic analysis. Further, we will analyze aspects such as the brand focus of articles (e.g., global or local), geographical scope of studies, business contexts (i.e., B2C vs. B2B), as well as methodologies used.

Based on the brand dimension framework (see Figure 2.1) and previous literature reviews in the field, we developed a search string (Tranfield, Denyer, and Smart 2003). For the globalness dimension, the string covered the terms “global* brand*” and “brand global*”, where the asterisk allows for various endings of the terms (e.g., “global* brand*” includes global brand, global brands, globalized branding, etc.). For the localness dimension, the terms were “local* brand*” and “brand local*”. The brand origin dimension was accounted for by the terms “brand foreign*”, “foreign brand*”, and “domestic brand*”. Finally, we also included “regional brand*” and “international* brand*” to account for potentially related terms.

Next, we developed criteria for article inclusion/exclusion (Palmatier, Houston, and Hulland 2018). We considered a possible list of 76 journals (see Appendix 2.3), comprised of

the top 30 marketing and top 30 business journal rankings as of August 2020 from the platforms Scopus and Scimago. Aside an objectivity aspect, this approach allowed to uncover if and to what degree global/local brands have found their way into related research domains. Due to the journals' characteristics, our search focused on scholarly peer-reviewed research articles in English language. In terms of publication time, we considered articles that were published as print or online version until including August 2020, with no time constraint toward the past.

Table 2.2 Literature identification process

Step	Outcome	Task	Task description	Result	Final no. of articles
1	Initial body of articles	Main search	Article search in Web of Science.	214 articles identified	214
2	Main body of articles	Refine result	Abstract screening for relevance. In case of doubts, full paper screening.	37 articles removed	177
3	Extended body of articles	Supplement articles	Screening of articles of previous literature reviews. After removal of duplicates, selection of articles equivalently to step 2.	30 articles added	207
4	Final body of articles	Back-up search	Article search equivalently to step 1 and 2 in the Business Source Premier Database using Ebscohost.	14 articles added	221

Using the predefined search string, we then carried out the actual literature identification process (see Table 2.2). In a first step, we conducted a Web of Science search, targeting the abstracts of articles with our previously defined search string. This search yielded an initial body of 214 articles. In step two, we excluded articles from further analysis either after abstract screening or in case of doubts after full article screening (Snyder 2019). The exclusions were based on whether an article clearly focuses on a global/local/domestic context and branding. For example, articles that focus on a global context but analyze product categories rather than brands were excluded. Papers were only excluded from the sample if the authors unanimously agreed. This led to the removal of 37 articles, resulting in a refined body of 177 articles.

Subsequently, in step three, we supplemented articles from previous literature reviews that were not detected by our search. After removing duplicates, we followed the previously applied exclusion process, adding 30 papers and resulting in an extended body of 207 articles. Finally, equivalently to steps one and two, we conducted a back-up search in the Business Source Premier database using Ebscohost. This resulted in the addition of 14 papers and a final body of 221 articles.

2.5 Results

2.5.1 Sample Characteristics

Our sample of 221 articles covers 28 of the potentially 76 journals, while the earliest article dates to 1986. Table 2.3 provides an overview of the sample's publication outlets. The largest portion of articles has been published in the international marketing domain (48 percent of the sample). Next, a general marketing group of eight journals follows (18 percent), including top-tier journals (e.g., *Journal of Marketing*). Further, over 20 articles have been published each in the general business group (twelve percent) and advertising domain (ten percent). The remaining domains and areas include international business, retailing, digital marketing, and travel, of which each account for less than six percent of the sample. Thus, these domains have paid some minor attention to global/local brand research. However, it is somewhat surprising that global/local brands have not gained stronger ground in the retailing domain, since, for example, many global retail brands dominate shopping malls all over the world and many European city centers.

Table 2.3 Publication outlets of the sample

Domain Outlet	Articles published on global/local brands	
	Absolute	Relative
International marketing	105	48%
Journal of International Marketing	55	25%

Table 2.3 Continued

Domain Outlet	Articles published on global/local brands			
	Absolute		Relative	
International Marketing Review	50		23%	
General marketing		39		18%
International Journal of Research in Marketing	12		5%	
Journal of Marketing	7		3%	
Journal of Marketing Research	5		2%	
Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	4		2%	
Journal of Consumer Research	4		2%	
Journal of Consumer Psychology	3		1%	
Marketing Science	2		<1%	
Marketing Theory	2		<1%	
General business		26		12%
Journal of Business Research	24		11%	
Business Horizons	2		<1%	
Advertising		22		10%
International Journal of Advertising	12		5%	
Journal of Advertising	7		3%	
Journal of Advertising Research	3		1%	
International Business		12		5%
Journal of International Business Studies	8		4%	
International Business Review	3		1%	
Journal of World Business	1		<1%	
Retailing		4		2%
Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	3		1%	
Journal of Retailing	1		<1%	
Digital marketing		3		1%
Electronic Commerce Research and Applications	1		<1%	
Journal of Interactive Marketing	1		<1%	
Electronic Markets	1		<1%	
Travel		3		1%
Tourism Management	2		<1%	
Journal of Travel Research	1		<1%	
Other		7		3%
Industrial Marketing Management	5		2%	
Journal of Cleaner Production	1		<1%	
Research Policy	1		<1%	
<i>Total</i>	221	221	100%	100%

Note: Sorting by number of articles published.

Table 2.4 displays the publication years of research on a journal basis. The first few articles were published in a variety of areas, such as general and international business (e.g., Journal of International Business Studies), advertising (i.e., International Journal of Advertising) and top tier marketing journals (i.e., Journal of Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research). The shift of the global/local brand field to the international marketing domain started

with three published articles in the founding year of the Journal of International Marketing in 1993 and three articles in the International Marketing Review in 1995. Further, the data shows that overall, 21 articles (nine percent) were published from 1986 until 1999. The number of publications almost tripled in the succeeding decade (2000 until 2009 = 61 publications, 28 percent of sample) and more than doubled again the following decade (2010 until 2019 = 128 publications, 58 percent of sample). Finally, in 2020 (including August as cut-off point), eleven articles were published (five percent of sample). In sum, global/local brand research has taken off in the 2000s and was very dynamic throughout the 2010s, reaching its peak in 2019 with 24 publications. Furthermore, since 2010, articles have been published in 25 of the 28 journals represented in our sample. Hence, even though global/local brand research is clearly located in and led by the international marketing domain, global/local brands frequently find their way into other domains or more general business areas. This finding shows the importance of global/local brands not only for international marketing but also marketing in general and even business on broader level.

The top five most cited articles (see Table 2.5) include two papers that are on a more general side but strongly relate to global/local brands as well. More precisely, Keller and Lehmann (2006) provide a general overview of the branding literature, while also specifically addressing global branding and research propositions in this regard. Similarly, Erdem, Swait, and Valenzuela (2006) examine brand credibility in general, whilst their empirical study across several developed and emerging countries uses global/local brands in the orange juice and PC categories. The remaining three articles laid the ground for major research topics, which we will discuss later. For instance, Jain (1989) investigates the area of standardization of marketing programs, which found its way into many articles thereafter. The early empirical articles of Han (1989) and Han and Terpstra (1988) are dedicated to research questions regarding brand/country origin.

Table 2.5 Top five most cited articles of the sample

Article	Times cited	Theme/focus
Keller and Lehmann (2006)	2,922	Overview of the branding literature in general and development of a catalogue of research questions, including for global branding.
Han (1989)	2,095	Whether country image affects consumer evaluations through a halo or summary construct mechanism.
Han and Terpstra (1988)	1,580	How country of origin and brand name affect consumers' evaluations of products that involve more than one country of origin (bi-national products).
Jain (1989)	1,509	Developing a framework for determining marketing program standardization.
Erdem, Swait, and Valenzuela (2006)	1,023	The effects of brand credibility on consumer choice via perceived quality, perceived risk, and information costs saved across seven countries.

Note: The article's focus is branding in general. Only the stimuli used in the studies relate to global/less global brands.

Note: Citation data was retrieved on November 1, 2020 from Web of Science.

Table 2.6 summarizes the characteristics of the articles in our sample. With 185 articles (84 percent), the vast majority of our sample is empirical, followed by 21 conceptual articles (ten percent), nine literature reviews (four percent), and six case studies (less than three percent). It is noteworthy that aside the three literature reviews on global/local brands, our sample also contains broader reviews. Examples are the above discussed article of Keller and Lehmann (2006) or de Mooij and Hofstede (2010), who review the application of the Hofstede model in respect to the global brand and advertising literatures. Summarizing, the analysis shows that we can assert a strong empirical base to global/local brand research.

Table 2.6 Article types in the sample

	Type of article				
	Empirical	Conceptual	Literature review	Case study	Total
Absolute	185	21	9	6	221
Relative	84%	10%	4%	<3%	100%

Note: N = 221.

2.5.2 Content Analysis

Article focus: For this section of analyses, we excluded literature reviews (nine articles), resulting in a subsample of 212 articles. It is noteworthy that some articles focus on various aspects simultaneously. For instance, some articles investigate more than one brand dimension (e.g., globalness and origin), hence, the following results exceed the size of the subsample. To analyze in what proportion the brand dimensions were addressed in prior research, we classified each article according to our framework (Figure 2.1). Our evaluation (see Table 2.7) shows that brand globalness was a focus 142 times, whereas brand localness and brand origin have been addressed 46 and 90 times respectively. The ratio of approximately three to one between the globalness and localness dimensions clearly shows that the literature has paid more attention to global than to local brands. Consequently, the knowledge base regarding local brands is more limited and potentially lacks the degree of depth compared to global brands. Further, literature has paid more than three times more attention towards products than services. Products were the center of research in 155 occasions, while services were investigated 47 times. Almost all research has been conducted in a B2C context, since we only identified seven articles that studied global/local brands in a B2B setting. Thus, the B2B context should particularly provide a variety of research directions in global/local brand research.

Table 2.7 Focus of articles regarding brand dimension, type of offer, and type of business

Brand dimension*			Type of offer*		Type of business	
Globalness	Localness	Origin	Products	Services	B2C	B2B
142	46	90	155	47	205	7

Notes: Size of subsample $n = 212$, since literature reviews (nine articles) were excluded; * The sum exceeds the size of the subsample, because some articles focus on more than one brand dimension or type of offer.

Finally, we analyzed prior research in terms of country focus. Note that some articles investigated more than one country at a time. While 67 articles conducted studies in China, the

combinations of approaches, the following insights (see Table 2.8) can exceed the size of the subsample. We identified 170 instances of primary data (64 percent), compared to 58 (22 percent) and 37 (14 percent) instances of field and secondary data respectively. Thus, most research used laboratory data, not taking full advantage of evidence from the field. Surveys of various kinds were the most used method to collect data (50 percent). Experiments, quasi-experiments, and scenario-based research were the second most used method (22 percent), followed by interviews (14 percent), content analyses (nine percent), focus groups (two percent) and observations (less than one percent).

Finally, we identified seven other types of data collection (three percent). For instance, Hong, Pecotich, and Shultz (2002) conducted taste tests of fruit juice in their study on direct vs. phonetic translation of brand names. A more unconventional approach, photo elicitation, was utilized by Bengtsson, Bardhi, and Venkatraman (2010) and their research on the changing meanings of global brands when consumers are at home or abroad. Overall, we conclude that aside rather classical approaches of data collection, other forms (e.g., secondary, field, and online data) have been used only to a limited extent. In terms of brand stimuli used, real brands were used in 158 instances (87 percent), whereas fictional brands were used in 23 instances (13 percent). Further, while not assessed descriptively, we noticed that most research focused on attitudes and behavioral intentions as outcomes, rather than actual behavior of consumers.

Table 2.8 Methodological approaches in global/local brand research

	Instances	
	Absolute	Relative
Data type		
Primary data	170	64%
Field Data	58	22%
Secondary data	37	14%
<i>Total</i>	265*	100%
Data collection		
Survey	110	50%
Experiment, quasi experiment, scenario	48	22%
Interview	31	14%

Table 2.8 Continued

	Instances	
	Absolute	Relative
Content analysis	20	9%
Focus groups	4	2%
Observation	2	<1%
Other (one each)	7	3%
Brand names from company sources, magazines, and supermarket/drug store shelves; Card Sorting; In-depth case studies; Nested case strategy; Photo elicitation; Taste testing; Unspecified database		
<i>Total</i>	222*	100%
Type of brand stimuli		
Real brands	158	87%
Fictional brands	23	13%
<i>Total</i>	181*	100%

Notes: Size of subsample n = 191, since literature reviews and conceptual papers (30 articles) were excluded from the analysis; * The total sum can exceed the size of the subsample, since some articles use more than one method.

Topics: Building on the topics provided by the review of Whitelock and Fastoso (2007), we conducted an initial evaluation of the full sample of articles. This first round resulted in the refinement of topic categories as well as the addition of new ones, yielding a final of 13 topic categories. In a second run, we re-evaluated all articles according to these final categories. Each article was categorized to only one topic, based on their main theme.

Table 2.9 provides an overview of the topics sorted by absolute number of articles per topic. The most researched topic is global/local/domestic brand strategies (23 percent of sample), which includes subtopics such as brand positioning, brand image and brand architecture. The second most researched topic is brand and country origin (15 percent), including consumers' evaluations and knowledge of brands' domestic and non-domestic (foreign) origin, among others. The third and fourth ranked topics are consumer perceptions as well as consumer orientations, dispositions, and traits (13 percent each). The former largely investigates brands from a consumer perspective, that is, perceptions of brand globalness and localness. The latter incorporates research on, for example, global/local/domestic brand preferences based on consumer dispositions (e.g., consumer ethnocentrism). The top five topics are complemented by global brand standardization vs. adaptation (nine percent). The remaining

seven topics (27 percent in total) touch the topics of technology, future directions of global/local brand research and corporate social responsibility, among others. Concluding, the data shows that there is a substantial gap between the established five major and remaining topics.

Table 2.9 Overview of the topics identified in the global/local brand literature

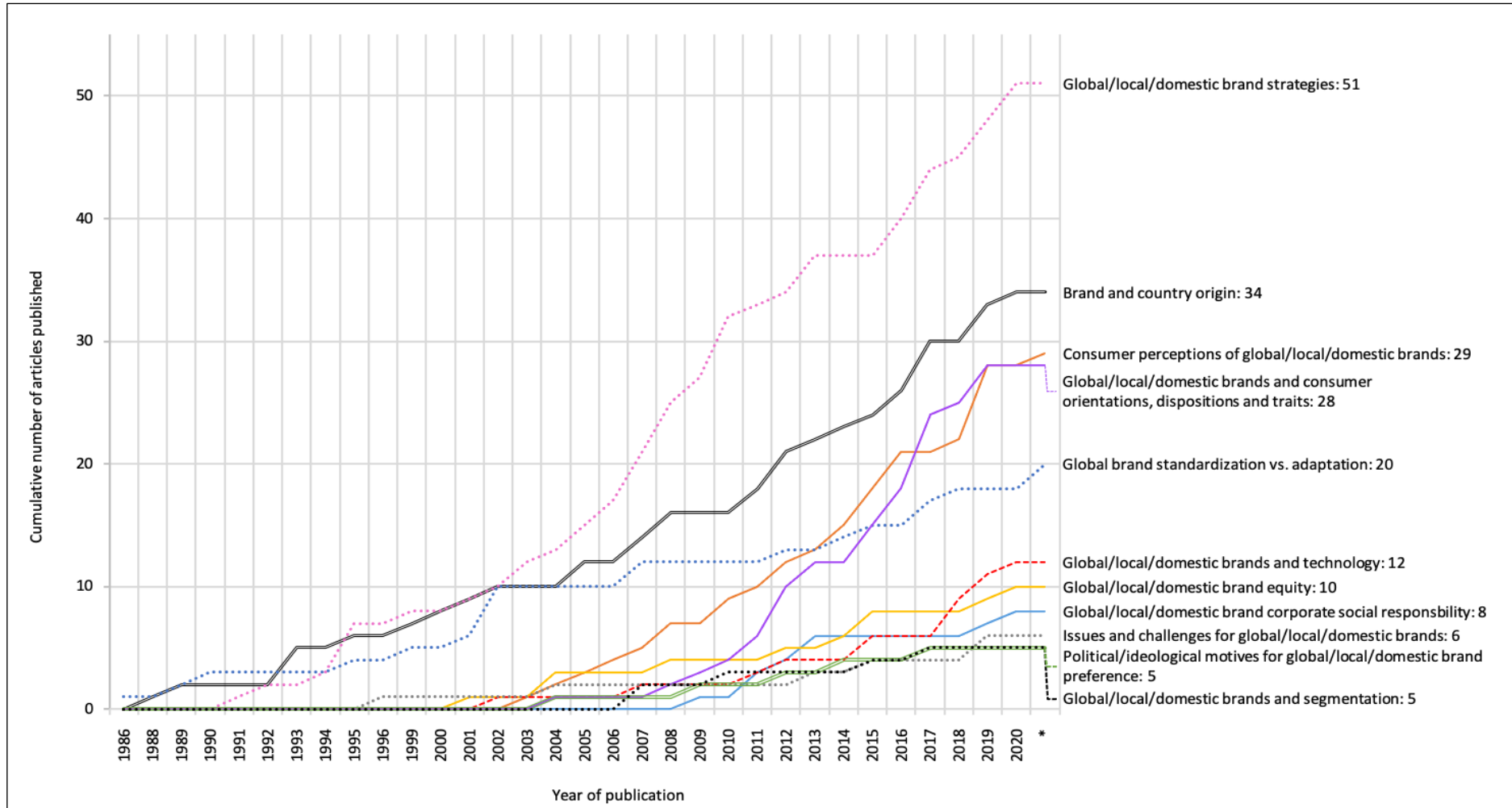
Topic Subtopic	Number of articles	
	Absolute	Relative
Global/local/domestic brand strategies	51	23%
General	12	
Positioning	12	
Brand image	9	
Brand architecture	6	
Process	3	
Market entry	2	
Brand personality	2	
Other (brand name design, brand alliances, use of language, distribution, celebrity endorsers)	5	
Brand and country origin	34	15%
Consumers' evaluations of foreign/domestic brands	21	
Consumers' knowledge/categorization of brands as foreign/domestic	7	
Firms' multiple origin strategies	4	
Made-in-information	2	
Consumer perceptions of global/local/domestic brands	29	13%
Perceived brand globalness/localness	21	
Global brand perceptions of traveling consumers	3	
Global/local brand image	2	
Other (brand personality, general, transformation of global brands to own needs)	3	
Global/local/domestic brands and consumer orientations, dispositions, and traits	28	13%
Global brand standardization vs. adaptation	20	9%
General	6	
Name	6	
Visual elements	4	
Process	2	
Other (concept/image, pricing)	2	
Global/local/domestic brands and technology	12	5%
The future of global/local/domestic brand research	11	5%
Global/local/domestic brand equity	10	5%
Global/local/domestic brand corporate social responsibility	8	4%
Issues and challenges for global/local/domestic brands	6	3%
Health concerns (due to contamination of foods)	2	
Other (gray markets, supply-dominated markets, government subsidies for local brands, immediate natural disasters)	4	
Political/ideological motives for global/local/domestic brand preference	5	2%
Global/local/domestic brands and segmentation	5	2%
Other*	2	<1%
<i>Total</i>	<i>221</i>	<i>100%</i>

Notes: N = 221; Each article was categorized to only one topic; * Category includes two articles/themes: global/local brands and consumer financial well-being and unintended effects of global brands on society.

We also examined the evolution of topics over time (see Figure 2.3). For this analysis we used a subsample of 208 articles by excluding two topics (i.e., the future of global/local brand research and “other”). The three topics brand strategies, brand standardization vs. adaptation, and brand origin were investigated right from the beginnings of global/local brand research. Hence, they represent the roots of the field. While more and more research has been published in the former two topics, the latter has experienced a flatter growth curve. This topic-trio has grown into a quintet, as the streams of consumer perceptions and consumer orientations, dispositions, and traits evolved. The area of consumer perceptions gained momentum in the mid-2000s. One of its strongest drivers is the perceived brand globalness and localness stream, which is based on the article of Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003). The second newer topic deals with consumer orientations and took off in the 2010s. Aside these five main topic categories, relatively speaking, no other topic has shown to be of particular interest for scholars. The only topic recently experiencing notable growth is global/local/domestic brands and technology, which doubled from six articles in 2016 to twelve articles in 2020. Overall, from a topic perspective, we conclude that the emergence of a future key research stream is still up to come, with the technology topic showing early signs of increased scholarly interest. This finding seems rather surprising however, since generally speaking, technological advances of the internet and aspects such as social media are not new phenomena in the year 2020.

Finally, while our sample shows that global/local research has evolved into a broad field with diverse topics, practically every article in our sample deals with classical marketing outcomes, such as brand equity, attitudes and behavioral intentions. In times of big challenges for our societies (e.g., climate change), we see an opportunity to approach the global/local brand field from a novel perspective by shifting from purely managerial outcomes to ones that benefit primarily our societies.

Figure 2.3 Evolution of investigated topics in the global/local brand literature



Notes: Size of subsample n = 208, since the future of global/local/domestic brand research (eleven articles) and “other” (two articles) are not included in chart; * early access.

2.6 Future Directions in Global/Local Brand Research

In this section, we recap the findings of our review and provide directions for future research. These directions are based on two main perspectives: (1) managerial, that is, “classic” or (2) societal, that is, “transformative”. While much research has been published on managerial outcomes (i.e., questions such as “how does variable ‘x’ affect brand equity”), there is still room for new research directions. In contrast, our sample shows that the immense issues that our societies are confronted with have played no major role in past and current research. This conclusion offers the opportunity to investigate global/local brands from a new angle, which we call transformative global/local brand research (i.e., questions such as “can global brands have a positive effect on societal outcome ‘x’”). We will complement future research opportunities by also providing methodological aspects to consider. On a more general note, when conducting the review, it became very clear that the terms global and local brands were used inconsistently in prior literature. We therefore see the need for academics to agree on a systematic to determine the focus of their research, which can be achieved through our brand dimension framework (Figure 2.1).

2.6.1 Classic Research Perspectives

Categorizing the literature according to our brand dimension framework (Figure 2.1), our review showed that the main themes of research are skewed toward the brand globalness rather than the localness dimension. This notion was already recognized by Schuiling and Kapferer (2004, p. 100) as they argued that “neither academics nor practitioners have paid much attention to local brands”. While today local brands might be more researched than in the mid-2000s, there is a limited number of articles that solely deal with local brands. More specifically, for example, aside a clear conceptualization, empirical insights into the antecedents of local brands/brand localness are scarce, offering potential for future studies. Even if international marketing scholars might generally be more interested in global brands, it is important to better

understand local brands as well to provide managers with insights on both types of brands, because they both compete for consumers.

Moreover, literature has overwhelmingly conducted studies in the B2C context, covering a large part of consumer products and services. In contrast, the B2B context was only investigated in very few articles in our sample, opening the way for research on a variety of questions. In this regard, the general role of brand globalness and localness for managers' decision making can be a good starting point. Additionally, aside managers as unit of analysis, prior research does not address how firms' global/local brands affect their own employees, for example, their satisfaction and performance.

Further, it is remarkable that research pays no attention to Africa, which was already uncovered over a decade ago by Whitelock and Fastoso (2007). This leads to the exclusion of more than one billion people (The World Bank 2020) from global/local brand research. It can be argued that relatively less empirical research is conducted in African countries in general and that African markets are economically not interesting to investigate. Yet, Coca-Cola is doing business in Africa, as are Google and many other global giants, among certainly many local brands. As a matter of fact, after a 240 million US dollar investment in 2016, Coca-Cola fully acquired the Nigerian dairy and juice company Chi Ltd. in 2019 for an undisclosed sum (Fick 2016; The Coca-Cola Company 2019). We therefore invite scholars to extend the field to Africa, which gives a large variety of research options. The guiding question can be, whether emerging economies in Africa are substantially different to the usually investigated emerging economies. This question can lead to extending and transferring topics (e.g., consumer orientations) to African regions/countries, comparative studies between specific African countries or comparisons between Western (vs. Chinese) vs. African societies. Similarly, while global/local brands were investigated in various emerging economies (e.g., Indonesia), they are relatively underrepresented, especially in comparison to China. Thus, the field can generally benefit from shifting more toward emerging economies.

Topic-wise, our sample shows that the global/local brand literature has gained depth and further maturity in already established areas. This provides a reasonable opportunity to shift from dominating topics to under-researched topics, especially those that are more current developments or phenomena. To these, we count technology and digitization (Leeflang et al. 2014) as well as a somewhat harsher rhetoric from the political side (i.e., populism), which can be observed around the world (The Economist 2019). More precisely, the literature on global/local brands barely addresses research questions in the context of technology (see also Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran 2018). However, we identified first studies investigating a social media context (Araujo, Neijens, and Vliegenthart 2015; Estrella-Ramón et al. 2019). Aside these, technology has played a minor role in global/local brand research. For example, it is unclear whether and how non-global/local brands cope with shifting sales to online channels. This question is even more imminent, due to the closure of physical retailing during the Covid-19 pandemic (PricewaterhouseCoopers 2020). Further, matters of data privacy (Martin and Murphy 2017) have not been investigated yet. In this regard, global/local brand trust, credibility, competence, and related variables could be extended from usual considerations to a data privacy angle. These examples provide possible starting points to conduct more research that investigates global/local brands in the digital era.

The effects of harsher politics on global/local brands provide another promising research direction. Recently, Turkish president Erdoğan called for a boycott of French brands caused by tensions with French president Macron (Peel and Pitel 2020). While this call for a boycott targeted non-domestic/foreign (i.e., French) brands, even local/domestic brands can become a playball of political or politicians' interests. In August 2020, a Tweet by American president Trump read "Don't buy GOODYEAR TIRES - They announced a BAN ON MAGA HATS" (Trump 2020). A specific research question can be to what degree consumers follow these types of ideological messages from politicians, which would extend the topic of political/ideological motives for global/local/domestic brand preference.

Similarly, we observe that legal actions against global brands are undertaken. For instance, at the finalization of this article, 48 US attorneys general announced a major antitrust lawsuit against Facebook amid allegations of an illegal monopoly (Brent and McKinnon 2020). To what degree do such announcements affect consumers, who might even be using the related offerings daily? In sum, there still are many uninvestigated aspects of classic global/local brand research, providing various future research opportunities.

2.6.2 Transformative Research Perspectives

Though there are still options to conduct and extend classical (managerial) research in the field, we see a great opportunity to shift to a transformative global/local brand perspective. Cayla and Arnould (2008, p. 89) stated that a “shortcoming of international marketing’s scholarship when it comes to branding is the focus on trying to solve managerial problems”, which our review of 221 articles at the end of the year 2020 confirms. We therefore propose to approach global/local brands from a different perspective by investigating their role regarding the major challenges of our time. These may involve the issues of social injustice in many parts of the world as well as the existential threat posed by climate change, which both expressed their urgency through, among many others, #BlackLivesMatter and Fridays for Future.

However, the goal of transformative global/local brand research is not to investigate how brand equity is affected when a firm engages in socially oriented activities. For example, a recent article examines how sociopolitical activism by brands (e.g., Starbucks) affects firm value (Bhagwat et al. 2020). This important question relates to the classic/managerial perspective. From a transformative perspective, however, the question is how global/local brands can affect and benefit our societies, as proposed by transformative consumer research (TCR) in general (Association for Consumer Research 2021). Of course, both perspectives can be jointly investigated as well. Hence, while transformative outcomes are explored, scholars can and should also include managerial outcomes, that is, the costs (e.g., losing customers) for

engaging in transformative activities. Initial questions to investigate can involve if companies can use the power of their global brands to actually motivate people to join movements such as #BlackLivesMatter. Can companies, aside their own green activities, use their brands to build pressure on politicians to act upon climate change? What role can non-global/local brands play in these issues, even though they may need to form alliances? Are the same transformative activities expected for global and local brands, maybe with differing amplitudes?

Our review contains one article in this direction. Suarez and Belk (2017) analyze the case of the automobile brand Fiat during demonstrations in the context of the 2014 FIFA World Cup. Protesters took over a slogan and song developed for a Fiat TV ad, which was unrelated to countrywide protests against corruption and other issues. Fiat became a driving factor in the demonstrations as protesters chanted the slogan “vem pra rua” (“come to the street”) on the squares and streets of many Brazilian cities (Pearson 2013). This case shows that, even if not intended by Fiat, brands have a potential to contribute to major societal matters.

The Covid-19 pandemic provides another example of global brands’ potential transformative power. A variety of global companies (e.g., Audi, Coca-Cola and McDonald’s) altered their brands’ logos to promote social distancing (Valinsky 2020). The question from a transformative/societal perspective is, whether the campaigns were, for example, able to convince unwilling people to start practicing social distancing and maybe even contributed to saving lives. We thus call upon research, that systematically investigates the potential transformative power of global/local brands regarding the big as well as smaller challenges that we face in our societies.

2.6.3 General Methodological Research Perspectives

Since most of the research in our sample relies on well-established data collection methods (i.e., surveys, experiments) the entire global/local brand field could benefit from more diverse research approaches. Especially considering the call to investigate the role of emotions

(Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran 2018), future research could examine how global/local brands unconsciously affect consumers. In this respect, scholars could draw on neuroscience in future, which can help understanding humans' natural behavior, that is, conscious and unconscious cognitions as well as emotions. More precisely, neuroscientific methods record neural activity inside (e.g., via electroencephalography) or outside (e.g., via eye tracking or skin conductance) the brain (Lim 2018), and could at least complement traditional research methods (Plassmann et al. 2015). Similarly, emotion artificial intelligence (AI), which currently gains practical relevance in various business areas, could be used to assess consumers' emotions in regard to global/local brands (Somers 2019).

Further, we discovered that research concentrated on lab data, utilizing mainly attitudes/behavioral intentions as outcome variables, and did not put a strong emphasis on field and secondary data sources, from offline (e.g., observation of shopping behavior) and online (e.g., reviews on firm websites, Google maps, and TripAdvisor) environments. However, the link between attitudes/behavioral intentions and behavioral outcomes might not be particularly strong (i.e., "intention-behavior gap"; Sheeran and Webb 2016). To overcome this gap, future global local brand research could rely more on field data through explicit measurement of behavioral outcomes (e.g., consumers' decision to buy) or utilize mixed methods (i.e., field and lab data), among others, increasing the managerial relevance of research (Hulland and Houston 2021).

2.7 Discussion

The goal of this review was to provide a detailed state of the current global/local brand literature, which can be characterized by a high publication dynamic, particularly in recent years. The main aspects that differentiates our article from previous reviews (e.g., Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran 2018) is the broader conceptual scope as well as a consideration of more publication outlets. Additionally, since there is an inconsistency in the literature

regarding the terms global and local brands, we provide a basic organizing framework for future research, that can help to clearly distinguish what type of brand is the focus of a particular research question.

Table 2.10 summarizes our proposition for a future research agenda. Our review generally shows that global/local brand research has grown into a multi-faceted field, which still provides various directions for future research. This generally holds in terms of a stronger emphasis on the role of local brands as well as a stronger focus on both global and local brands in the B2B context. Further, future research should explore if previous findings hold in African countries. Finally, global/local brand research mostly uses survey and lab data and should benefit from more diverse and innovative sources of data and research approaches.

In terms of topics, future research should shift to some extent from well-established topic categories (e.g., global/local/domestic brand strategies) to ongoing and more recent trends (e.g., technology/digitization, tense political environment/populism). More than that, however, future studies should put the big challenges of our societies in the center of global/local brand research. The main question in this regard is, if global/local brands also have a transformative power that can contribute to societal change and challenges in bigger ways.

This question could be an evolutionary step of global/local brand research. Michael Jordan's famous quote that "Republicans buy sneakers too" (Boren 2020) relates to a classic/managerial perspective and is mainly driven by concerns of declining sales, hence, negative effects on brand success. In the short run, the question that transformative global/local brand research can answer is if global/local brands should and can have a major impact on big societal issues, even if brand success is affected negatively. Considering the next generations of consumers, that is, the millions of young people participating in Fridays for Future demonstrations all over the world, the question in the long run is whether transformative global/local brand activities will be actually mandatory for global/local brand success.

Our literature review has some limitations. First, the review's scope in terms of journals can be a point of discussion. Though we utilized two objective rankings for journal selection, we certainly have not covered valuable work that were published in other journals. However, due to the already rather large sample size, it is doubtful whether more articles would have led to substantially differing conclusions. Further, we base our inferences on descriptive insights, rather than an empirical analysis, for example, in terms of networks or bibliographic information. Even though carefully evaluated, ascribing the brand globalness/localness/origin dimensions or topics to articles is to some degree a subjective task and can potentially lead to other insights than more objective analyses (e.g., bibliometric analyses).

Table 2.10 Future research perspectives for global/local brand research

Area	Findings	General propositions	Future research perspectives
Article focus	Global brands are more researched than local brands.	Focus on local brands.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Detailed conceptualization of local brands. Empirical evidence on the antecedents of (perceived) brand localness.
	B2B has been addressed scarcely. Employees have not been addressed at all.	Shift towards the B2B and an employee perspective.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The role of managers' brand globalness and localness perceptions for decision making. The role of brand globalness/localness for employees, e.g., in terms of job satisfaction and performance.
Topics	Africa has practically not been addressed.	Shift towards research in African countries.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Extend topics (e.g., consumer orientations) to African countries. Comparative studies between African and Non-African countries.
	Technology and digitization have been addressed scarcely.	Shift stronger towards major aspects of digitization.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Consumers' data privacy concerns and their effects on global/local brand value. Whether and how non-global/local retail brands extend their business models to the internet.
General research perspective	Tense political/governmental environment (e.g., populism) has not been addressed.	Shift toward the context of politics and related areas.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The effects of political calls for boycotting global/foreign brands as well as local/domestic brands. The effects of legal actions, e.g., antitrust lawsuits, on global/local brand value and consumer perceptions.
	Classical (managerial) outcomes have been addressed in detail.	Shift to a transformative global/local brand perspective that considers societal outcomes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The general roles of global/local brands in transforming our societies or parts of it. The role of global/local brands to mobilize consumers for social justice and societal change, e.g., #BlackLivesMatter, LGBT+, gender equality, children rights, Islamophobia, Anti-Semitism, etc. Global brands' market, capital, and cultural power to affect political decision making on the existential threat of climate change. Whether and how global/local brands can have a positive impact on major health issues of our time, such as the current Covid-19 pandemic, e.g., through ad campaigns.
Methods	Traditional/primary data collection methods and behavioral intentions have been utilized mostly.	Focus on alternative research approaches, field/secondary/online data, and actual behavior.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Draw on methods from neuroscience (e.g., eye tracking or facial electromyography) or emotion AI to explore unconscious mental processes and emotions. Utilize field/secondary/online data sources, e.g., observe shopping behavior, online purchasing behavior, reviews from firm websites, Google maps or TripAdvisor, etc.

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2.9 Appendix

Appendix 2.1 Comparison of search terms used in global/local brand literature reviews

Reference	Search terms
Whitelock and Fastoso (2007)	Combinations of the terms international, European, global, cross-cultural, cultural with the terms branding and brand.
Chabowski, Samiee, and Hult (2013)	“Brand” and “global”, “universal”, “worldwide”, “international”, “borderless”, “without borders”, “with universal appeal”, “abroad”, “crosses borders”, “local”, “cross-national”, “developed market”, “emerging market”, “across borders”, “country of origin”
Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran (2018)	“Brand” and “consumer,” and “global,” “culture,” “country,” or “cultural;” “Global branding”
<i>This article</i>	<i>“Global* brand*” or “local* brand*” or “brand global*” or “brand local*” or “brand foreign*” or “foreign brand*” or “domestic brand*” or “regional brand*” or “international* brand*”</i>

Appendix 2.2 Overview of journals covered in previous literature reviews

Journal	Chabowski, Samiee, and Hult (2013)	Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran (2018)	Whitelock and Fastoso (2007)	Across all reviews?
California Management Review	✓			
(Columbia) Journal of World Business	✓		✓	
European Journal of Marketing			✓	
Harvard Business Review	✓		✓	
Industrial Marketing Management			✓	
International Journal of Advertising			✓	
International Journal of Research in Marketing		✓		
International Marketing Review	✓	✓	✓	✓
Journal of Advertising	✓		✓	
Journal of Advertising Research			✓	
Journal of Business Research			✓	
Journal of Consumer Policy	✓			
Journal of Consumer Psychology	✓	✓		
Journal of Consumer Research	✓	✓		
Journal of International Business Studies	✓	✓	✓	✓
Journal of International Marketing	✓	✓	✓	✓
Journal of Marketing	✓	✓	✓	✓
Journal of Marketing Research	✓	✓	✓	✓
Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science		✓		
<i>Total number of journals</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>5</i>

Appendix 2.3 Publication outlets used for literature search

Academy of Management Annals	Journal of Interactive Marketing
Academy of Management Journal	Journal of International Business Studies
Academy of Management Perspectives	Journal of International Marketing
Academy of Management Review	Journal of Labor Economics
Accounting Review	Journal of Management
Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior	Journal of Management Studies
Brookings Papers on Economic Activity	Journal of Marketing
Business Horizons	Journal of Marketing Research
Electronic Commerce Research and Applications	Journal of Operations Management
Electronic Markets	Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory
Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice	Journal of Public Policy and Marketing
Governance	Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management
Industrial Marketing Management	Journal of Retailing
Information and Management	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services
International Business Review	Journal of Supply Chain Management
International Journal of Advertising	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science
International Journal of Information Management	Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing
International Journal of Management Reviews	Journal of Travel Research
International Journal of Production Economics	Journal of World Business
International Journal of Project Management	Knowledge-Based Systems
International Journal of Research in Marketing	Leadership Quarterly
International Marketing Review	Management Science
International Organization	Manufacturing and Service Operations Management
Journal of Accounting and Economics	Marketing Letters
Journal of Accounting Research	Marketing Science
Journal of Advertising	Marketing Theory
Journal of Advertising Research	MIS Quarterly: Management Information Systems
Journal of Business Research	Omega
Journal of Business Venturing	Organization Science
Journal of Cleaner Production	Organizational Research Methods
Journal of Consumer Psychology	Personnel Psychology
Journal of Consumer Research	Public Administration Review
Journal of Destination Marketing and Management	Research Policy
Journal of Finance	Review of Corporate Finance Studies
Journal of Financial Economics	Review of Financial Studies
Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management	Strategic Management Journal
Journal of Human Resources	Technovation
Journal of Innovation and Knowledge	Tourism Management

3 Understanding Cosmopolitans Through Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness: A Social Identity Complexity Perspective

Authors: Volkan Koçer, Dirk Totzek, and Daniel Maar

International marketing research has yielded mixed results in linking global brands to cosmopolitan consumers, who are both globally and locally oriented, resulting in a reduced academic and practical value of cosmopolitanism. Therefore, in this research, we argue that global and local orientations refer to (multiple) ingroups for cosmopolitans, hence, both PBG and PBL should be included in cosmopolitanism studies. We then adopt social identity complexity (SIC) to analyze how the two orientations within cosmopolitans relate to each other and show that an empirically promising approach in this context is a comparison of the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude, as cosmopolitanism increases. We conducted three studies with convenience and representative samples (total N = 2,198), covering 27 real and various fictitious brands across nine product/service categories and two countries. Overall, results reveal (1) more negative effects of PBG (vs. PBL) on brand attitude at lower levels of cosmopolitanism. Thus, PBL dominates PBG. (2) With increasing cosmopolitanism, this dominance of PBL over PBG diminishes however, as the effects of PBG become relatively more positive. Finally, (3) there is no difference between the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude at highest levels of cosmopolitanism. Consequently, for cosmopolitan consumers, both PBG and PBL are similarly important in driving brand attitude. This finding implies that cosmopolitans arrange their two orientations in a fashion that both coexist peacefully, and no orientation stands out. The results also suggest that managers who target cosmopolitan consumers should communicate brand globalness and localness in a balanced way, without putting a stronger emphasis on either brand dimension.

Keywords: Consumer cosmopolitanism, perceived brand globalness, perceived brand localness, social identity theory, social identity complexity.

3.1 Introduction

A variety of global and local brands compete on many markets. In Germany, for example, the US-based and global burger chains McDonald's, Five Guys and Burger King compete with national chains Hans im Glück and Peter Pane, among countless smaller and local restaurants. This kind of competition between global and local brands can be observed in different sectors and for various types of products and services. Consequently, it is increasingly challenging for managers of global and local brands to successfully market their brands to consumer segments that prefer either type of brand.

The international marketing literature has addressed this competition between global and local brands in two major ways. On the one hand, the perceived brand globalness/localness literature emerged (for a review, see Liu et al. 2021). In this respect, perceived brand globalness (PBG) describes consumers' beliefs of whether a brand is marketed and consumed worldwide, while perceived brand localness (PBL) captures consumers' perceptions of how much a brand represents a certain country, its local traditions and values (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003; Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012). The literature has analyzed the effects of both PBG and PBL on a variety of outcomes, including brand attitude (e.g. Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019).

On the other hand, research has developed a variety of segmenting approaches by investigating consumer dispositions that relate to the consumption of global and local brands. In this regard, the concept of consumer cosmopolitanism refers to an orientation towards the consumption of foreign products (Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw 2012) and is often associated with a global consumer culture (e.g., Cleveland and Laroche 2007; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003). Moreover, cosmopolitanism is especially spread among consumers in cities and urban areas (Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw 2012; Yoon, Cannon, and Yaprak 1996).

Considering that at least 74.5 percent of the European, North and South American population lived in such areas in 2018 (United Nations 2019), cosmopolitans are a large target segment for marketers. However, Diamantopoulos et al. (2019) have questioned the practical value of cosmopolitanism due to mixed empirical evidence. In addition, they acknowledge that insights on how dispositions such as cosmopolitanism “influence consumer responses to specific brands (...) is still limited” (p. 54).

Against this background, this paper provides a different theoretical and empirical angle on cosmopolitanism to increase its applicability for international marketing scholars and managers. We therefore identify three reasons that can potentially explain the limited value of cosmopolitanism. Specifically, we intend to make the following contributions:

First, previous cosmopolitanism research has mainly drawn on social identity theory (SIT) and an ingroup vs. outgroup perspective as theoretical foundation, asserting that cosmopolitans are outgroup oriented (e.g., Prince et al. 2020; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, and Diamantopoulos 2015). While this is a reasonable approach for studies that investigate cosmopolitans’ domestic vs. foreign brand or product preferences (e.g., Balabanis, Stathopoulou, and Qiao 2019; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, and Diamantopoulos 2015), it has its limits in the context of global branding. This is because cosmopolitans harbor both global and local orientations (e.g., Diamantopoulos et al. 2019; Yoon, Cannon, and Yaprak 1996) and it is debatable if globalness refers to an outgroup or ingroup. Drawing on social identity theory (Tajfel 1974), we argue that both brand globalness and localness correspond to ingroups for cosmopolitan consumers. Consequently, this study conceptualizes cosmopolitanism based on a multiple ingroup rather than on an ingroup vs. outgroup perspective.

Second, previous cosmopolitanism studies on global branding have focused on how PBG affects brand-related outcomes (e.g., Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015). Yet, no study has so far jointly investigated the effects of PBG and PBL. Accounting for the multiple ingroup perspective regarding cosmopolitanism, however, we argue that studies in this

field must include both PBG and PBL. This study thus uses consumers' perceptions of both brand globalness and localness as proxies of both their global and local orientations, which is a prominent way how scholars link global branding research with consumer identities and related aspects such as orientations (Bartikowski and Cleveland 2017). We thus extend prior research by, to the best of our knowledge, being the first to include both PBG and PBL when investigating cosmopolitanism.

Finally, prior research analyzed if cosmopolitanism moderates the effect of PBG on brand-related outcomes such as brand attitude (e.g., Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015). However, the empirical evidence for this kind of moderating role is rather weak (Diamantopoulos et al. 2019). Therefore, this article provides a new approach to analyze the effects of PBG and PBL on brand-related outcomes, when including cosmopolitanism as a moderator: We introduce social identity complexity (SIC; Roccas and Brewer 2002) as a theory to explain how consumers can arrange their global and local orientations. Specifically, SIC suggests putting these orientations in relation to each other and comparing them to determine if one orientation is stronger, hence "dominates" the other orientation. We contribute to the cosmopolitanism literature by adapting this notion and comparing the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude, as cosmopolitanism increases.

Overall, drawing on a multiple ingroup perspective and SIC, this article aims to show (1) conceptually how cosmopolitans might arrange their global and local orientations, and (2) what this implies empirically for the effects of PBG/PBL on brand attitude at different levels of cosmopolitanism. To investigate these questions, we conducted three studies (two with convenience samples, one with a representative consumer panel; total sample size $N = 2,198$), covering 27 real and various fictitious brands across nine product/service categories and two countries. Overall, results reveal that (1) PBG has a less favorable effect on brand attitude than PBL at lower levels of cosmopolitanism. However, (2) the effect of PBG (vs. PBL) on brand attitude becomes more positive as cosmopolitanism increases. As a result, (3) the effects of

PBG and PBL on brand attitude are not significantly different at higher levels of cosmopolitanism. These results imply that both global and local orientations are similarly important to cosmopolitan consumers. The results also provide guidance for marketing managers regarding global/local brand positioning strategies, particularly when targeting cosmopolitan consumers.

This paper is structured as follows: We first review the relevant literature and discuss the theoretical foundations of cosmopolitanism. Afterwards, we adopt SIC as a novel theoretical underpinning that accounts for cosmopolitans' multiple orientations (i.e., global and local), before developing and testing two propositions. Finally, we provide theoretical and practical implications and outline limitations and future research directions.

3.2 Conceptual Background and Development of Propositions

3.2.1 Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness

The international marketing literature usually adapts a supplier or a consumer perspective on global and local brands (Mandler 2019). From a supplier point of view, the establishment of global brands is mainly driven by the standardization of branding across multiple markets to achieve economies of scale (Schuiling and Kapferer 2004). A local branding strategy enables the adaptation to local market specifics and thus allows to better address local consumers' tastes and flavors (Ger 1999; Özsomer 2012; Schuiling and Kapferer 2004).

From a consumer point of view, PBG refers to the worldwide availability and consumption of a brand, whereas PBL captures a brand's ability to serve as a symbol of a local culture (Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012). Consequently, local brands are seen as original and unique (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008). In this paper, the term "local" relates to the home country or culture of a consumer. To illustrate, for an American consumer,

local refers to the United States and its culture, whereas for a Turkish consumer, local refers to Turkey and the Turkish culture.

Moreover, consumers' perceptions of brand globalness/localness are subjective and thus not necessarily consistent with a brand's actual globalness/localness. According to Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003), PBG can be formed in two ways: Either through (1) experience (e.g., mass media exposure, travelling) or through (2) companies' marketing activities (e.g., use of foreign brand names). We infer that these two aspects are also relevant in shaping PBL. To illustrate, a consumer who regularly spots the soft drink Guaraná Antarctica in a Brazilian telenovela might perceive that the brand represents aspects of the Brazilian culture.

Further, PBG and PBL are not the poles of a single continuum, but two distinct constructs (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003). For example, a consumer can perceive a brand to be high in both globalness and localness. Many German consumers, for instance, are likely to perceive the brand Adidas to be high in brand globalness and localness, because they recognize it as a globally consumed brand, representing Germany and its culture.

Prior studies have shown that PBG/PBL affect a variety of outcome variables. For example, literature has linked PBG/PBL to functional and psychological values, including brand quality, brand prestige, brand trust, brand competence and brand identity expressiveness, which in turn drive outcomes such as brand attitude, loyalty or purchase intention (Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015; Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos 2019; Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003; Swoboda and Hirschmann 2016; Xie, Batra, and Peng 2015). This study focuses on brand attitude as an outcome variable to PBG/PBL, since it can be a major driver of brand equity (Park et al. 2010). Accordingly, prior research has frequently considered brand attitude as an outcome of PBG/PBL (e.g., Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019; Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016).

3.2.2 Cosmopolitanism

The concept of cosmopolitanism can be tracked to Ancient Greece and has been discussed in various fields for many centuries (Cleveland et al. 2014). The philosopher Socrates, for example, is described as "... citizen of the [...] world" (Brown 2000, p. 74), which translates from the Greek word *kosmopolitês* (Kleingeld and Brown 2019).

Cosmopolitans are usually characterized by cultural or national transcendence (Cannon and Yaprak 2001; Levy et al. 2007) and an orientation toward the outside, for example, foreign cultures (Merton 1957). However, at the same time, cosmopolitans do not reject the inside, for example, their own culture (Cannon and Yaprak 2002; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, and Diamantopoulos 2015). Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Sigauw (2012) extend the concept by adding a consumption perspective and defining consumer cosmopolitanism based on the three dimensions open mindedness, diversity appreciation, and consumption transcending borders. Research has further argued that cosmopolitans are oriented toward a global consumer culture (Cleveland and Laroche 2007) and also strive for exotic products and authenticity (Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Sigauw 2012; Thompson and Tambyah 1999).

The previous empirical studies on cosmopolitanism in consumer disposition research can be categorized with a focus on (1) product categories (e.g., food, clothing, electronics), (2) product origin (foreign vs. domestic), and (3) branding (e.g., global, local). Regarding product categories, cosmopolitanism positively relates to the consumption of global food and clothing, the utilization of luxury products, communication media, and consumer electronics (Cleveland et al. 2011; Cleveland, Laroche, and Hallab 2012; Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos 2009). Second, cosmopolitans are characterized by more favorable perceptions and higher purchase intentions for foreign products. However, none of these studies found a significant effect of cosmopolitanism on the purchase intention for domestic products (Riefler and Diamantopoulos 2009; Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Sigauw 2012; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, and Diamantopoulos 2015). Finally, from a brand perspective, cosmopolitanism was found to

positively moderate the effect of PBG on consumers' willingness to pay but not on brand attitude (Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015). In a meta-analysis, Diamantopoulos et al. (2019) find that the interaction of PBG and cosmopolitanism on various outcomes is mostly positive but not significant. In addition, a recent study provides evidence for a negative effect of cosmopolitanism on attitudes toward domestic brands and a positive but insignificant effect on attitudes toward foreign brands (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, and Qiao 2019).

Overall, the international marketing literature has conceptually associated cosmopolitanism with global and local orientations (Cannon and Yaprak 2002; Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw 2012). Accordingly, Diamantopoulos et al. (2019) suggest that cosmopolitans may “show interest in local products, thus appreciating local (...) and global offerings simultaneously” (p. 42). However, empirical studies in global branding have focused on cosmopolitans' global orientations in terms of PBG, without considering their local orientations in terms of PBL (see Table 3.1). This paper thus provides a new conceptual and empirical lens to study cosmopolitanism in international marketing research to analyze how PBG and PBL affect brand attitude at varying levels of cosmopolitanism.

Table 3.1 Overview of literature jointly investigating perceived brand globalness, localness and cosmopolitanism

Reference	Setup of studies		Considered variables					
			IVs			Interactions		DVs
	Country	Products	PBG	PBL	Cosmo	PBG × cosmo	PBL × cosmo	
Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos (2015)	Austria	Headsets, laptop bags, shower gel, soft drinks, USB sticks	yes	no	yes	yes	no	Brand attitude, willingness to pay

Table 3.1 Continued

Reference	Setup of studies		Considered variables					
			IVs			Interactions		DVs
	Country	Products	PBG	PBL	Cosmo	PBG × cosmo	PBL × cosmo	
Diamantopoulos et al. (2019)	Austria, Germany, Russia, Slovakia, South Korea	Airlines, cars, chocolate, clothes, coffee, laptop bags, motorcycles, PCs, shower gel, skis, sport shoes, tablets	yes	no	yes	yes	no	Brand attitude, willingness to pay
Özsomer and Altaras (2008)	<i>Conceptual paper</i>		yes	no	yes	no	no	
This study	Germany, France	Airlines, bottled water, chocolate, motorcycles, shower gel, sneakers, TVs, washing machines	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	Brand attitude

Notes: IVs = independent variables, DVs = dependent variables, PBG = perceived brand globalness, PBL = perceived brand localness, Cosmo/cosmo = cosmopolitanism.

3.2.3 A New Perspective on Cosmopolitanism in the Context of Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness

The common theoretical foundation of cosmopolitanism in international marketing is Social Identity Theory (SIT; e.g., Bartsch, Riefler, and Diamantopoulos 2016). Social identity is defined “as that part of an individual’s self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the emotional significance attached to that membership” (Tajfel 1974, p. 69). Social groups consist of at least two people that define their social self in the same way, thus, sharing the same social identity (Abrams and Hogg 2010). These social groups are generally established social categories (Lickel et al. 2000), for instance, “women”, “Germans”, or “Muslims”. The shared identity that is based on social groups guides the members in questions of “who they are, (and) what they should believe” (Hogg 2016, p. 6).

According to SIT, individuals distinguish between the group(s) they are or are not a member of, that is ingroups and outgroups. Previous cosmopolitanism research has often drawn on this notion and approached cosmopolitanism based on an ingroup vs. outgroup perspective (e.g., Prince 2020; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019). In this regard, a consumer's (domestic) country/culture is considered as ingroup, whereas a foreign culture refers to an outgroup. Consequently, domestic brands relate to the former, while foreign brands relate to the latter. Since cosmopolitans also exhibit outgroup favoritism (i.e., an orientation toward foreign cultures), the logical expectation is that cosmopolitans should be positively linked to foreign brands (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, and Qiao 2019; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019). Thus, an ingroup vs. outgroup perspective is a valid approach when investigating cosmopolitanism in the context of domestic vs. foreign brand origin.

However, we argue that approaching cosmopolitanism in the context of PBG/PBL requires a different perspective. Specifically, both brand globalness and localness should represent ingroups for cosmopolitans. As a consequence of globalization and technological advancements (i.e., especially information technology; Hirst and Thompson 2011), consumers are constantly exposed to global and local influences, such as global and local news, food options, entertainment, or brands. For open minded and inclusive concepts such as cosmopolitanism (Calhoun 2008; Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw 2012), global influences should thus eventually relate to an ingroup as well, together with local influences. Similarly, prior literature states that cosmopolitanism comprises global and local orientations (e.g., Beck 2002; Cannon and Yaprak 2002; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019).

Against this background, we thus argue that cosmopolitanism should be approached from a multiple ingroup perspective in the context of global branding. SIT supports this view and emphasizes that an individual can simultaneously be a member of many social groups (Tajfel 1974). In turn, this implies that both PBG and PBL should be considered in empirical studies when analyzing cosmopolitanism in a global branding context.

The notion of a multiple ingroup perspective leads to the two major questions of this article: (1) how can we conceptually characterize how cosmopolitans arrange their global and local orientations and (2) what does this imply empirically for PBG and PBL as drivers of brand attitude, as cosmopolitanism increases?

Rooted in SIT, social identity complexity (SIC) provides a framework to address these questions. SIC “refers to an individual’s subjective representation of the interrelationships among his or her multiple group identities” (Roccas and Brewer 2002, p. 88), suggesting that these interrelationships can be characterized by a state of “dominance”. In this respect, “dominance” implies that individuals can “adopt one primary group identification to which all other potential group identities are subordinated” (Roccas and Brewer 2002, p. 90). Applied to the context of this study, cosmopolitans therefore should arrange their global and local orientations in a manner that one orientation dominates the other one. The emerging question then is whether the global or local orientation is dominant, hence, stronger. Conceptually, scholars in sociology stated that “cosmopolitanism means: rooted cosmopolitanism, having ‘roots’ and ‘wings’ at the same time” (Beck 2002, p. 19), implying that the “wings” (e.g., a global orientation) represent the stronger urge. Similarly, the idea of rooted cosmopolitanism has been discussed by other sociologists as well (e.g., Appiah 1997). Hence, we generally expect that for cosmopolitans the global orientation is stronger and therefore dominating the local orientation. In support of this notion, prior consumer disposition research indicates that cosmopolitans in general lean toward a globally oriented consumption (e.g., Cleveland et al. 2011; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019).

In a global/local brand context, this expected dominance of global over local orientations for cosmopolitans generally translates into dominance of PBG over PBL. In turn, the main empirical approach in cosmopolitanism research involves comparing the effects of PBG and PBL on the outcome variable of interest. In the following we therefore propose and discuss two perspectives: (1) An interaction effects perspective, considering how the

interactions of PBG and PBL with cosmopolitanism unfold on brand attitude and (2) a total effects perspective, considering the main effects of PBG/PBL, aside their interactions with cosmopolitanism. Table 3.2 and Figure 3.1 summarize the propositions and conceptual model.

Proposition 1 (interaction effects): This proposition addresses if cosmopolitanism explains how PBG and PBL unfold on brand attitude. However, rather than interpreting the interactions of PBG and PBL with cosmopolitanism separately, building on SIC, we aim at comparing the effects of both interactions on the outcome variable. More precisely, we expect the interaction of PBG with cosmopolitanism to exert more positive effects on brand attitude than the interaction of PBL with cosmopolitanism. Hence, from a pure interaction effects perspective, we anticipate that the difference between the interactions of PBG and PBL with cosmopolitanism is positive ($\Delta_{\text{interaction}} = \text{PBG} \times \text{Cosmo} - \text{PBL} \times \text{Cosmo} > 0$). We therefore derive the following proposition:

P1: The interaction of PBG and cosmopolitanism has a more positive effect on brand attitude than the interaction of PBL and cosmopolitanism.

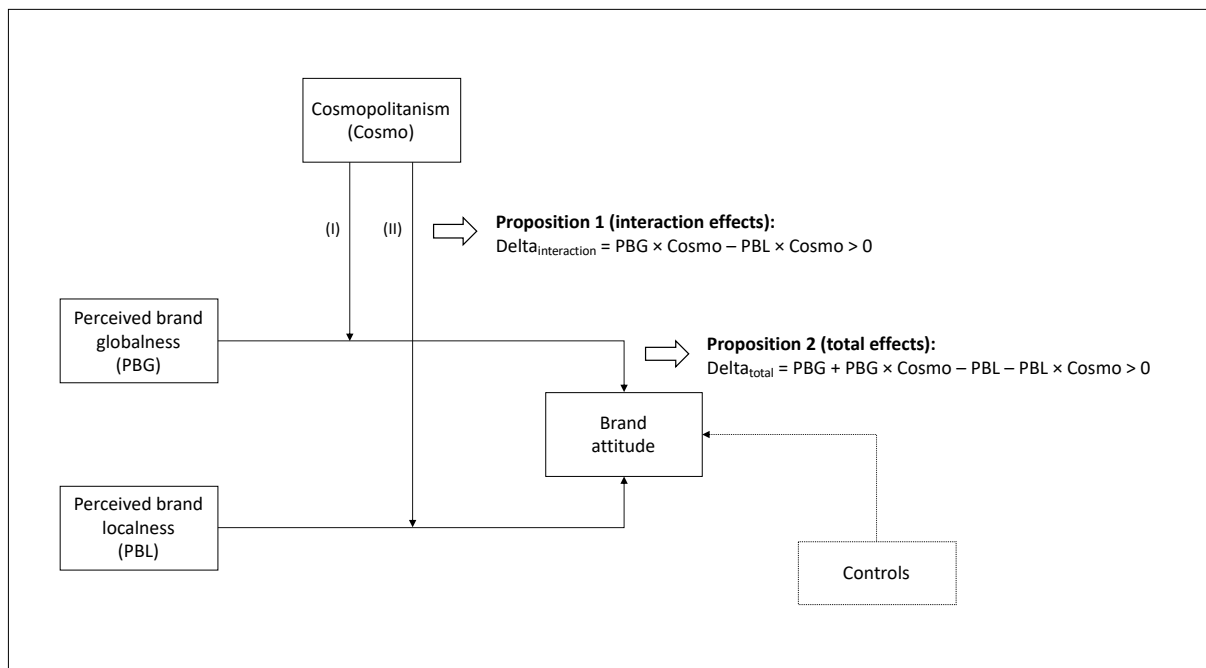
Proposition 2 (total effects): While the interaction effects perspective focuses on differing levels of cosmopolitanism, Proposition 2 focuses specifically on cosmopolitan consumers, hence, a high level of cosmopolitanism. If indeed cosmopolitan consumers' global orientations dominate their local orientations, aside the interactions of PBG and PBL with cosmopolitanism, their main effects on brand attitude must be considered as well. Therefore, in this respect, dominance of PBG over PBL occurs when the difference of their total effects is positive, including their interactions with cosmopolitanism ($\Delta_{\text{total}} = \text{PBG} + \text{PBG} \times \text{Cosmo} - \text{PBL} - \text{PBL} \times \text{Cosmo} > 0$). We derive the second proposition:

P2: For cosmopolitan consumers, the total effects of PBG on brand attitude are more positive than the total effects of PBL.

Table 3.2 Overview of propositions

General definition of “dominance” in SIC	Application of “dominance” to cosmopolitanism consumers	Propositions	
		Proposition 1: Interaction effects	Proposition 2: Total effects
<p>“One primary group identification to which all other potential group identities are subordinated.” (Roccas and Brewer 2002, p. 90)</p>	<p>Cosmopolitans harbor both global and local orientations (e.g., Cannon and Yaprak 2002), with their global orientation dominating, thus being stronger (derived from e.g., Beck 2002; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019). Therefore, highly cosmopolitan consumers are likely to react more favorably towards PBG (vs. PBL).</p>	<p><i>Rationale:</i> The interaction of PBG and cosmopolitanism on brand attitude is more positive than the interaction of PBL and cosmopolitanism.</p> <p><i>Empirical approach:</i> Difference between the interaction effects of PBG and PBL with cosmopolitanism on brand attitude.</p> <p><i>Formal expression:</i> $\Delta_{\text{interaction}} = \text{PBG} \times \text{Cosmo} - \text{PBL} \times \text{Cosmo}$</p> <p><i>Expected result:</i> $\Delta_{\text{interaction}} > 0$</p>	<p><i>Rationale:</i> For cosmopolitan consumers, the total effects of PBG on brand attitude are more positive than the total effects of PBL.</p> <p><i>Empirical approach:</i> Difference of the total effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude, incl. their interactions with cosmopolitanism.</p> <p><i>Formal expression:</i> $\Delta_{\text{total}} = \text{PBG} + \text{PBG} \times \text{Cosmo} - \text{PBL} - \text{PBL} \times \text{Cosmo}$</p> <p><i>Expected result:</i> $\Delta_{\text{total}} > 0$</p>

Notes: SIC = social identity complexity, PBG = perceived brand globalness, PBL = perceived brand localness, Cosmo = cosmopolitanism.

Figure 3.1 Conceptual model and propositions

3.3 Overview of Empirical Studies

To empirically test our propositions, we first relied on two studies with convenience samples (overall sample size $N = 494$) followed by a study with a representative German consumer panel (sample size $N = 1,704$), resulting in an overall sample of 2,198 respondents. In sum, the studies comprise 27 real brands in eight product categories (sneakers, bottled water, washing machines, TVs, shower gel, chocolate, motorcycles, and airlines) and two countries (Germany and France). Additionally, the consumer panel study includes scenarios with fictitious brands to reduce unaccounted brand effects and increase internal validity.

Study 1 involved a student sample from Germany and referred to the product category sneakers. Using the product category bottled water, Study 2 is based on a consumer sample with German and French respondents from the crowdsourcing platform Clickworker. With Study 2 we addressed concerns of country or culture specificity by examining consumers of two neighboring countries with a similar level of globalization (Gygli et al. 2019). As the results of these initial studies were promising, we conducted a study with a major panel provider in Germany. Our goal was to test our propositions with consumers mirroring the German

population and across multiple product/service categories, varying in the degree of price level, durability, and hedonic/utilitarian value.

Regarding Proposition 1, our overall analytical procedure for all studies involves conducting Wald tests of difference for the interactions of PBG and PBL with cosmopolitanism, which $\Delta_{\text{interaction}}$ represents. To test Proposition 2, we focus on the difference between the total effects of PBG and PBL at different levels of cosmopolitanism, which Δ_{total} represents.

3.4 Study 1 and Study 2: Initial Evidence with Convenience Samples

3.4.1 Research Design

Relying on between-subjects designs and online questionnaires, we first randomly assigned participants to one of several real brand logos (Study 1) or pictures of actual branded products (Study 2). We chose all brands with the goal to create variance in their levels of PBG/PBL. Subsequently, participants evaluated brand related questions, followed by a section of personal and demographic questions. We also specifically asked whether the respondents considered the country of the study as their “home” to ensure that the local brands match the respondents’ cultures, thus, to an ingroup. The total sample included 494 respondents (159 for Study 1, 335 for Study 2), after excluding participants because they either did not consider the country of the study as their home, failed at quality checks, or stated that they do not own a pair of sneakers (Study 1) or never buy bottled water (Study 2).

We drew on established scales to measure PBG (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003), PBL (Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012), brand attitude (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 2006), and consumer cosmopolitanism (Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw 2012). In addition, we relied on a single item (adapted from Steenkamp et al., 2003) to control for brand familiarity. We assessed all scale items using seven-point semantic differentials or Likert-type rating scales. In Study 2, we translated the questionnaire for the French respondents by a bilingual speaker, employing a back-translation approach (Engelen, Engelen, and Samuel Craig

2016; Hult et al. 2008) Table 3.3 and Table 3.4 provide an overview of both studies as well as descriptive statistics and correlations of the constructs.

Table 3.3 Overview of Study 1 and 2

Study	Country	N	% Male	Stimuli			
				Product category	Brands	PBG*	PBL*
1	Germany	159	31	Sneakers	Nike	6.66 (.57)	2.03 (1.20)
					Adidas	6.47 (.93)	4.94 (1.58)
2	Germany/ France	335	55	Bottled water	San Pellegrino	5.12 (1.11)	2.68 (1.57)
					Volvic	4.91 (1.04)	3.21 (1.21)
					Gerolsteiner	3.69 (1.06)	4.94 (1.17)
					Frankenbrunnen	2.44 (1.40)	4.22 (1.61)
					Fiji	4.49 (1.05)	1.75 (1.08)
					Abatilles	3.34 (1.18)	3.70 (1.47)
					Badoit	4.65 (1.13)	5.32 (1.15)

Notes: PBG = perceived brand globalness, PBL = perceived brand localness; * means (standard deviation in parentheses), measured on 7-point Likert scales (1 = do not agree at all, 7 = fully agree).

Table 3.4 Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix (Study 1 and Study 2)

Construct	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5
1 Brand attitude	6.10 (1.03)	1				
	5.19 (1.27)	1				
2 Perceived brand globalness	6.56 (.78)	.16	1			
	4.23 (1.48)	.20	1			
3 Perceived brand localness	3.54 (2.02)	.20	-.05	1		
	3.54 (1.78)	.24	-.17	1		
4 Consumer cosmopolitanism	5.40 (.94)	.13	.43	-.06	1	
	5.14 (.97)	.11	.18	.05	1	
5 Brand familiarity	6.64 (.87)	.20	.12	.04	.03	1
	4.18 (2.31)	.37	.38	.23	.09	1

Notes: The first row of data corresponds to Study 1 and the second row to Study 2; SD = standard deviation; Bold correlation coefficients indicate statistical significance at the 5% level (two-tailed tests).

3.4.2 Measurement Model

The measures as well as their psychometric properties are shown in Appendix 3.1. To assess reliability and validity we conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) for each construct individually. In respect to consumer cosmopolitanism, we followed the approach of Diamantopoulos, Davydova, & Arslanagic-Kalajdzic (2019) by conducting separate CFAs for

each of the three dimensions (open mindedness, diversity appreciation and consumption transcending borders). Overall, the psychometric properties of all measures are good with few exceptions regarding item reliabilities (IRs). As such, in both studies the IR of item 4 (“Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time”) of the cosmopolitanism dimension diversity appreciation is below the common threshold of .40. The same applies to items 1 and 2 (“I like watching movies from different countries” and “I like listening to music of other cultures”) of the dimension consumption transcending borders. However, prior research has obtained similar results in respect to items in these two dimensions of cosmopolitanism (Diamantopoulos, Davydova, and Arslanagic-Kalajdzic 2019).

In both studies, all constructs show high reliability (range of composite reliability [CR] = .78 to .94), convergent validity (range of average variance extracted [AVE] = .62 to .85) and discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The only exception is the cosmopolitanism dimension consumption transcending borders (AVE = .48) in Study 1, which is slightly below the common threshold of .50 for convergent validity. However, a measurement model containing all latent multi-item measures showed an acceptable to good fit (Study 1/2: $\chi^2 = 326.41/453.26$, degrees of freedom [df] = 155/155, root mean squared error of approximation [RMSEA] = .08/.08, comparative fit index [CFI] = .92/.93, Tucker-Lewis index [TLI] = .90/.92, standardized root mean squared residual [SRMR] = .07/.06).

In addition, we conducted measurement invariance tests regarding the German and French samples in Study 2 (see Appendix 3.2) using multigroup CFA (MGCFAs), following the common approach of nested testing (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). As a first step, we specified Model 1 (i.e., configural invariance) with no equality constraints, resulting in an acceptable to good fit ($\chi^2 = 714.59$, df = 338, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .92, TLI = .90, SRMR = .06), and thus support for configural invariance. We then estimated Model 2 (i.e., metric invariance) with equal factor loadings among the two groups (i.e., the German and French subsamples), which also showed acceptable to good fit indices ($\chi^2 = 746.71$, df = 352,

RMSEA = .08, CFI = .92, TLI = .90, SRMR = .07). Adding equal item intercepts, we next assessed Model 3 (i.e., scalar invariance) which yielded appropriate model fit indices as well ($\chi^2 = 792.41$, $df = 366$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .91, TLI = .89, SRMR = .07). Finally, we assessed Model 4 (i.e., strict invariance), adding equal residuals, resulting in an acceptable fit ($\chi^2 = 878.35$, $df = 386$, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .89, TLI = .88, SRMR = .07).

Since χ^2 tests are considered to be sensitive “to sample size and to violation of the normality assumption” (Chen 2007, p. 465), measurement invariance was assessed with frequently used model fit metrics. The change of fit indices (i.e., RMSEA, CFI, SRMR) from Model 1 to Model 4 are negligible and in line with cutoff points used in prior literature (e.g. Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020). Thus, the MGCFA suggests strict invariance, allowing the data of the German and French samples to be pooled and analyzed jointly.

We addressed common method variance (CMV) by employing *ex-ante* and *ex-post* techniques (Malhotra, Kim, and Patil 2006). For the former, we informed respondents that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions and that the participation in the study was strictly anonymous. In addition, dependent and independent variables were placed far from each other (MacKenzie and Podsakoff 2012; Podsakoff et al. 2003).

Ex-post, we applied a version of Lindell and Whitney's (2001) marker variable technique (Malhotra, Kim, and Patil 2006): We used the second lowest positive correlations between the manifest indicators measuring the analyzed constructs as conservative proxies for CMV (Study 1: $r_{M2} = .006$ between PBL item 1 and cosmopolitanism item 1, Study 2: $r_{M2} = .003$ between PBL item 1 and cosmopolitanism item 4), not taking into account the correlations with demographic and dummy variables (e.g., Sichtmann, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2019). We then adjusted the zero-order correlations among the items by considering the respective proxies for CMV. Across both studies, of the initially 228 positive correlations significant at the five percent level, only four lost significance (= 1.8 %), which is

well below previous research in the field of PBG/PBL (e.g., Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos 2019). Hence, we infer that CMV does not pose a substantial threat to the data.

3.4.3 Results

For each study, we ran a linear regression model (see the conceptual model in Figure 3.1 above) with robust standard errors and brand attitude as dependent variable. We included PBG, PBL and their interactions with cosmopolitanism as independent variables. In addition, we controlled for brand familiarity, the brand stimuli as well as gender and age. We mean-centered all metric independent variables to allow a meaningful interpretation of coefficients (Hayes 2017).

Table 3.5 shows the regression results. In the following, we first report the main effects of the independent and control variables on brand attitude, before focusing on the interaction effects (PBG/PBL with cosmopolitanism) and total effects of PBG/PBL, corresponding to Proposition 1 and 2 respectively.

Main effects: The effect of PBG on brand attitude is positive in both studies but only significant in Study 2 (Study 1: $b = .19$, $p > .10$; Study 2: $b = .13$; $p < .05$). For PBL, we find significant positive effects throughout (Study 1/2: $b = .24/.17$, both p -values $< .01$). Moreover, cosmopolitanism has no effect across both studies (p -values $> .05$), while the brand familiarity control is (slightly) positive (Study 1: $b = .19$, $p < .10$; Study 2: $b = .10$, $p < .05$). Further, in Study 2, the dummy for the French (vs. German) sample had no impact on brand attitude ($p > .10$). Finally, some of the age groups and dummies for each brand used showed mixed effects across both studies, whereas the sex of participants had no impact.

Interaction effects (Proposition 1): Concerning the interaction terms, we find a slightly positive effect of $PBG \times$ cosmopolitanism on brand attitude in Study 2 ($b = .06$; $p < .10$), whereas there is no effect in Study 1 ($b = .01$, $p > .10$). On the other hand, the interaction effect of $PBL \times$ cosmopolitanism is negative in Study 1 ($b = -.14$, $p < .05$), whereas we do not find

an effect in Study 2 ($b = -.04$; $p > .10$). However, the data apparently indicates that the interactions of PBG and cosmopolitanism might be more positive than the interactions of PBL and cosmopolitanism.

To analyze this observation, we calculated the difference between the two interactions ($\Delta_{\text{interaction}} = b_{\text{PBG} \times \text{cosmopolitanism}} - b_{\text{PBL} \times \text{cosmopolitanism}}$) according to Proposition 1. In line with our expectation, Wald tests revealed that the differences between both interactions are slightly positive in Study 1 ($\Delta_{\text{interaction}} = .15$, $p < .10$) and positive in Study 2 ($\Delta_{\text{interaction}} = .10$, $p < .05$). This finding indicates that as the level of cosmopolitanism increases, the effects of PBG on brand attitude become relatively more positive than the effects of PBL.

Table 3.5 Results of regression analyses (Study 1 and Study 2)

Dependent variable: Brand attitude	Study 1 (Germany – sneakers) N = 159, R ² = .21			Study 2 (Germany – bottled water) N = 335, R ² = .24		
	Coef. (SE)	p	[CI]	Coef. (SE)	p	[CI]
Main Effects						
Perceived brand globalness	.19 (.13)	.16	[-.07, .46]	.13 (.05)	.02	[.02, .24]
Perceived brand localness	.24 (.06)	.00	[.12, .36]	.17 (.04)	.00	[.08, .25]
Cosmopolitanism	.08 (.10)	.43	[-.12, .29]	.08 (.07)	.25	[-.05, .21]
Interaction effects						
(I) Perceived brand globalness × cosmopolitanism	.01 (.07)	.90	[-.12, .14]	.06 (.03)	.06	[.00, .13]
(II) Perceived brand localness × cosmopolitanism	-.14 (.05)	.01	[-.25, -.04]	-.04 (.03)	.24	[-.11, .03]
Wald test*: $\Delta_{\text{interaction}} (I) - (II)$ (Proposition 1)	.15 (.08)	.07	[-.01, .32]	.10 (.05)	.03	[.01, .20]
Controls						
Brand familiarity	.19 (.11)	.09	[-.03, .41]	.18 (.04)	.00	[.11, .26]
Country				(reference: Germany)		
France	NA	NA	NA	.19 (.21)	.36	[-.22, .61]
Gender (reference: female)						
Male	.07 (.14)	.63	[-.22, .36]	.02 (.13)	.88	[-.24, .28]
Diverse	NA	NA	NA	-.26 (.25)	.29	[-.75, .22]
Age	(reference: below 18)			(reference: 18-23)		
18-23	-.41 (.23)	.08	[-.86, .04]	.16 (.20)	.43	[-.23, .55]
24-32	-.95 (.23)	.00	[-1.41, -.49]	.08 (.19)	.67	[-.29, .46]
33-45	-.68 (.35)	.06	[-1.38, .02]	.37 (.21)	.07	[-.04, .78]
46-59	-1.04 (.34)	.00	[-1.71, -.38]	.92 (.38)	.02	[.17, 1.66]
60-79	-.67 (.40)	.09	[-1.46, .11]			
Constant**	6.92 (.35)	.00	[6.22, 7.62]	5.00 (.35)	.00	[4.31, 5.68]

Notes: Coefficients are based on mean centered variables (except dummy variables); All effects are based on two tailed tests (95% confidence intervals); * two tailed Wald test (95% confidence intervals) for equality of coefficients; ** The constant represents the brand Nike in Study 1 and San Pellegrino in Study 2; Bold coefficients indicate statistical significance at the 5% level; All studies also included dummies for the brands used (not displayed in table); NA = not available.

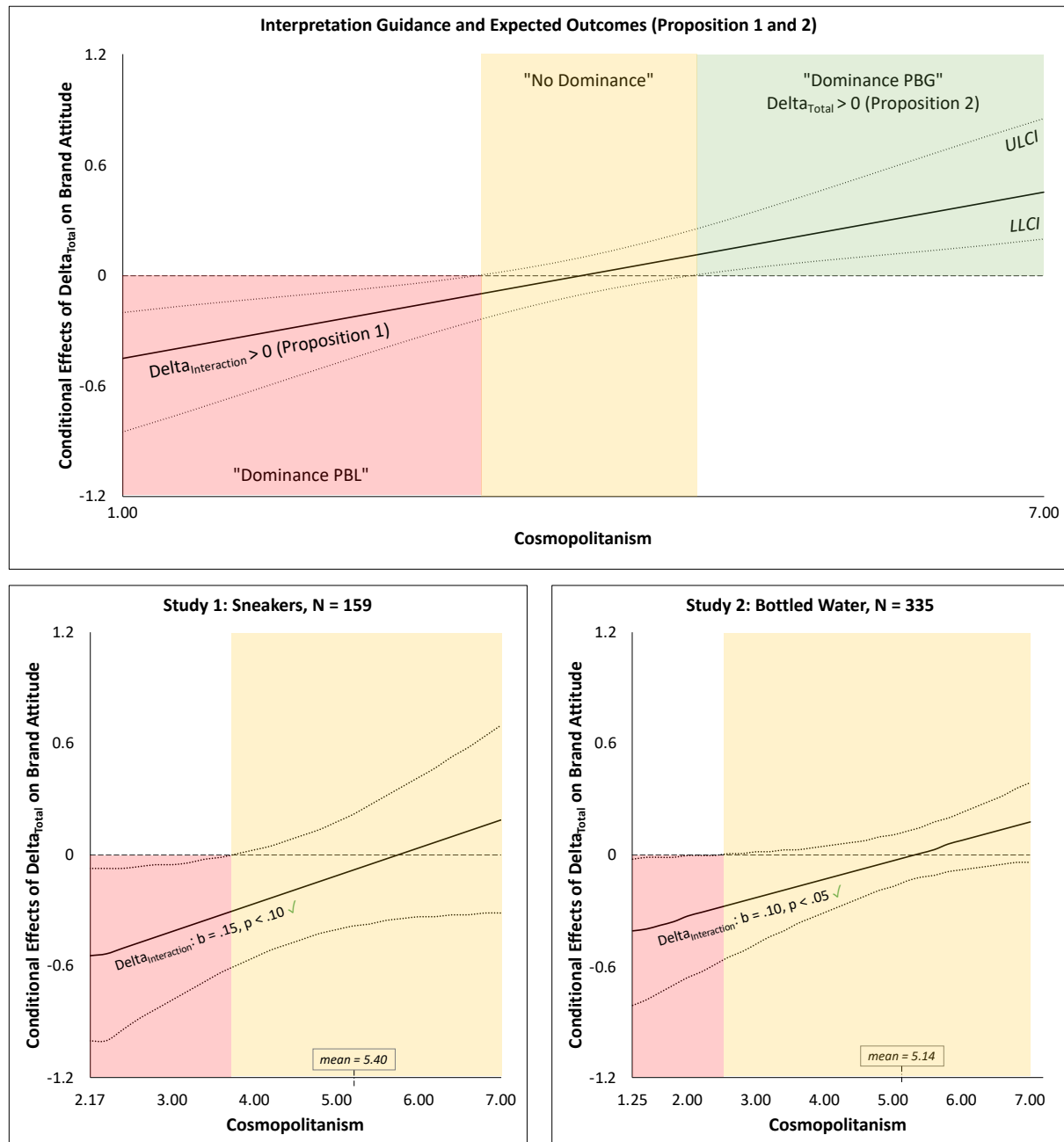
Total effects (Proposition 2): To test if and at what levels of cosmopolitanism a dominance of PBG over PBL is at hand (i.e., Proposition 2), we calculated and plotted the difference between the total effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude ($\text{delta}_{\text{total}} = b_{\text{PBG}} + b_{\text{PBG} \times \text{cosmopolitanism}} - b_{\text{PBL}} - b_{\text{PBL} \times \text{cosmopolitanism}}$), using the Johnson-Neyman technique (i.e., floodlight analysis; Spiller et al. 2013). More precisely, we calculated the $\text{delta}_{\text{total}}$ at approximately 30 levels of cosmopolitanism, to uncover precise areas of significance and insignificance. However, we only considered each study's individual range of cosmopolitanism, hence, each sample's minimum and maximum levels of cosmopolitanism. The Johnson-Neyman plots are shown in Figure 3.2.

For both studies, the plots show (1) a significant negative $\text{delta}_{\text{total}}$ at lower levels of cosmopolitanism, suggesting more negative effects of PBG than PBL. Hence, at lower levels of cosmopolitanism, PBL dominates PBG. (2) However, with increasing cosmopolitanism, this dominance of PBL diminishes, as the effects of PBG become relatively more positive (as indicated by the positive slope, matching Proposition 1). The result is (3) a state of no dominance, even at the highest level of cosmopolitanism.

Thus, in sum, the data shows no support for our second proposition. Rather than PBG being dominant, the plots show that there is no difference between the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude for cosmopolitan consumers (i.e., at high levels of cosmopolitanism). In turn, this finding indicates that cosmopolitans' global and local orientations might be in an equilibrium and the global orientation is not in the forefront.

It is important to acknowledge that these results could be highly dependent on the investigated product categories, brand stimuli or characteristics of the (convenience) samples. To address these potential issues, we conducted a broad study with a leading panel provider in Germany, covering a variety of product categories and aiming for a representative consumer sample. We will discuss this study in the next chapter.

Figure 3.2 Johnson-Neyman plots for conditional effects of Δ_{total} on brand attitude (Study 1 and Study 2)



Notes: PBG = perceived brand globalness, PBL = perceived brand localness, $\Delta_{total} = PBG_{total} - PBL_{total} = PBG + PBG \times \text{cosmopolitanism} - PBL - PBL \times \text{cosmopolitanism}$; $\Delta_{interaction} = PBG \times \text{cosmopolitanism} - PBL \times \text{cosmopolitanism}$; LLCI and ULCI = lower and upper level 95% confidence intervals; The cosmopolitanism axis covers the lowest to highest obtained values for cosmopolitanism in the sample.

3.5 Study 3: Extension and Validation with Representative Consumer Sample

Study 1 and 2 provided initial evidence that the effects of PBG (vs. PBL) become more positive as cosmopolitanism increases (i.e., Proposition 1) but did not show dominance of PBG

over PBL at higher levels of cosmopolitanism (i.e., Proposition 2). One explanation could be that the results were dependent on the product categories or brand stimuli. To reduce this potential source of bias, we conducted a broader study with a leading German panel provider. Mainly derived from previous PBG/PBL studies, we investigated six product/service categories (i.e., washing machines, TVs, shower gel, chocolate, motorcycles, and airlines) with differing characteristics along several dimensions (i.e., durability, price level, hedonic/utilitarian value) to increase the generalizability of findings. Additionally, for some of the categories (i.e., washing machines, TVs, shower gel and chocolate), we also investigated fictitious brands, textually manipulating PBG and PBL to generate variance in the data. In total, the study contained 34 conditions (18 conditions with real brands and 16 with fictitious brands), randomly assigning participants to one condition in an online study.

3.5.1 Research Design

Regarding the real brand conditions, in each of the six categories, we chose three brands with the expectation of variance in their levels of PBG and PBL, equivalently to Study 1 and 2. Regarding the fictitious brands, we excluded the categories motorcycles and airlines, as manipulations of PBG and PBL might not have seemed realistic and may have biased results. Therefore, for fictitious brands, we only focused on washing machines, TVs, shower gel and chocolate, manipulating information on brand globalness (high vs. low: “The brand is sold and consumed in over 100 countries” vs. “The brand is sold and consumed in two countries”) and brand localness (high vs. low: “The brand is culturally and historically related to Germany and is headquartered in Germany” vs. “The brand is culturally and historically not related to Germany and is headquartered abroad”). We tested these manipulations successfully in a pre-study to ensure that they generated different levels of PBG and PBL. Moreover, we did not provide (fictitious) brand names to avoid any name related bias. Table 3.6 provides an overview of the conditions, product/service categories, sizes of the subsamples and stimuli.

Table 3.6 Overview of Study 3

Brand condition	Product/service category	n		Stimuli Brand or manipulation*	Perceived brand globalness**	Perceived brand localness**
Real	Washing machines	153	50	Whirlpool	4.96 (1.30)	3.53 (1.68)
			51	Samsung	5.95 (.94)	3.05 (1.69)
			52	Bosch	5.15 (1.22)	5.47 (1.19)
Real	LCD TVs	150	49	Samsung	5.98 (1.22)	3.69 (1.92)
			48	Grundig	4.33 (1.31)	4.75 (1.47)
			53	Loewe	4.26 (1.13)	5.08 (1.25)
Real	Shower gel	154	52	Dove	5.08 (1.31)	4.02 (1.74)
			53	Nivea	5.49 (1.05)	4.93 (1.58)
			49	Duschdas	4.39 (1.23)	4.50 (1.48)
Real	Chocolate	152	50	Milka	5.35 (1.37)	5.27 (1.60)
			52	Lindt	4.04 (1.48)	4.79 (1.37)
			50	Schogetten	5.23 (1.37)	4.65 (1.78)
Real	Motorcycles	153	49	BMW	5.77 (1.14)	5.80 (1.22)
			53	KTM	5.24 (1.30)	4.27 (1.73)
			51	Yamaha	5.95 (1.07)	2.95 (1.61)
Real	Airlines	149	50	Emirates	5.47 (1.11)	2.13 (1.44)
			49	Korean	4.67 (1.35)	1.75 (1.37)
			50	Lufthansa	5.52 (1.11)	5.77 (1.26)
Fictitious	Washing machines	202	50	PBG high/PBL low	5.18 (1.35)	2.67 (1.41)
			52	PBG low/PBL low	3.90 (1.33)	2.72 (1.49)
			50	PBG high/PBL high	5.18 (1.19)	4.99 (1.44)
			50	PBG low/PBL high	3.81 (1.70)	5.04 (1.29)
Fictitious	LCD TVs	195	48	PBG high/PBL low	5.60 (1.01)	3.01 (1.67)
			49	PBG low/PBL low	4.03 (1.57)	2.56 (1.58)
			49	PBG high PBL high	5.15 (.99)	5.11 (1.29)
			49	PBG low/PBL high	3.68 (1.30)	4.39 (1.24)
Fictitious	Shower gel	198	49	PBG high/PBL low	5.27 (1.19)	2.95 (1.41)
			49	PBG low/PBL low	3.76 (1.17)	2.46 (1.54)
			52	PBG high PBL high	4.85 (1.48)	4.88 (1.28)
			48	PBG low/PBL high	3.70 (1.27)	4.84 (1.19)
Fictitious	Chocolate	198	49	PBG high/PBL low	5.37 (1.01)	2.56 (1.33)
			49	PBG low/PBL low	3.93 (1.41)	2.63 (1.32)
			49	PBG high/PBL high	4.93 (1.33)	4.74 (1.17)
			51	PBG low/PBL high	3.53 (1.50)	5.06 (1.46)

Notes: n = size of subsample (sum = N = 1,704); * The fictitious brand conditions provided textual manipulations of brand globalness and localness, without mentioning brand names to avoid any kind of language related bias; ** means, standard deviation in parentheses.

The questionnaire started with a filter question to automatically screen out respondents who did not consider Germany or a region within Germany as their home. Afterwards, respondents were randomly assigned to one of the 34 conditions. In the real brand conditions,

we showed participants a brand logo combined with a sketch of the respective product category. To illustrate, if a participant was allocated to the brand Samsung in the washing machines category, we showed a neutral drawing of a washing machine alongside the brand logo (see Appendix 3.3). In the fictitious brand conditions, we showed the same drawings and asked participants to carefully read the provided information (i.e., the manipulations of PBG and PBL) on a fictitious brand in that category (see Appendix 3.4). The drawings (see Appendix 3.5) had the purpose (1) to prime the aimed product/service category in the minds of the consumers, especially in respect to the fictitious brand conditions and (2) to minimize spillover effects if brands were active in multiple industries (e.g., aside washing machines, Samsung also provides smart phones). Afterwards, participants were asked brand specific and personal questions. Matching Study 1 and 2, we incorporated the same measures for PBG, PBL, brand attitude, brand familiarity and consumer cosmopolitanism, along demographic questions. Table 3.7 provides an overview of descriptive statistics and the correlation matrix. Additionally, we assessed participants level of expertise in the respective product/service category. We also included attention and quality checks, which lead to automatic exclusion if answered incorrectly. A total of 1,704 respondents (49% male, see Appendix 3.6) completed the study, with roughly 50 participants per condition. We successfully compared the sample's representativeness of the German population in terms of age categories and sex ($\chi^2 = 9.488$, $df = 4$, $p > .99$). Note that we excluded nine participants for this analysis due insufficient cell sizes (e.g., only one respondent was female and below the age 18; see Appendix 3.6).

Table 3.7 Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix (Study 3)

	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5
1 Brand attitude	5.48 (1.29)	1				
2 Perceived brand globalness	4.84 (1.46)	.38	1			
3 Perceived brand localness	4.04 (1.86)	.46	.14	1		
4 Cosmopolitanism	4.88 (1.22)	.22	.26	.16	1	
5 Brand familiarity	4.68 (1.89)	.54	.47	.44	.25	1

Notes: SD = standard deviation; bold correlation coefficients indicate statistical significance at the 5% level.

3.5.2 Measurement Model

The measures as well as their psychometric properties are shown in Appendix 3.7. We assessed reliability and validity with CFAs for each construct. In respect to consumer cosmopolitanism, we again followed the approach of Diamantopoulos, Davydova, & Arslanagic-Kalajdzic (2019) by conducting separate CFAs for each dimension. Overall, the psychometric properties of all measures are good. The only exception is the fourth item (“Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time”) of the cosmopolitanism dimension diversity appreciation, which has an IR below the threshold of .40. However, this result is equivalent to Study 1 and 2.

All constructs show high reliability (range of CR = .86 to .92), convergent validity (range of AVE = .61 to .85) and discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981). The only exception is a lack of discriminant validity between two cosmopolitanism dimensions. As such, the dimension consumption transcending borders (AVE = .61) does not show discriminant validity from the dimension diversity appreciation (squared correlation between these dimensions = .62). This potential issue is reasonable since both dimensions are related to cosmopolitanism. A measurement model containing all latent multi-item constructs showed a good to very good fit ($\chi^2 = 1205.22$, $df = 155$, $RMSEA = .06$, $CFI = .96$, $TLI = .95$, $SRMR = .05$).

We addressed CMV equivalently to Study 1 and 2, including the ex-post remedy. For the latter, as a conservative proxy for CMV, we again used the second lowest positive correlation between the manifest indicators measuring the analyzed constructs ($r_{M2} = .07$ between PBL item 3 and cosmopolitanism item 1), while not considering correlations with demographic and dummy variables (e.g., Sichtmann, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2019). We adjusted the zero-order correlations among all items by considering the proxy for CMV. The analysis showed that of the initially 210 positive correlations at the five percent level only 23 (= 11%) lost significance, which is in line with prior studies in this area of research

(e.g., Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos 2019). Hence, we infer that CMV does not pose a substantial threat to the validity of our data.

3.5.3 Results

We analyzed the data fully equivalently to Study 1 and 2: The regression model included the effects of PBG, PBL and their interactions with cosmopolitanism on brand attitude, while controlling for brand familiarity and demographics. Additionally, we controlled for participants' expertise in the respective product/service category and integrated dummy variables for the product/service category and brand stimuli. The latter also included a "no brand" dummy for the fictitious brands, as these conditions did not incorporate brand names. We further included a dummy variable to account for the real vs. fictitious brand conditions. To allow a meaningful interpretation of coefficients, we mean-centered all metric independent variables (Hayes 2017). Model 1 in Table 3.8 shows the regression results.

Main effects: The results show a significant positive effect of PBG and PBL on brand attitude ($b_{\text{PBG}} = .15$, $b_{\text{PBL}} = .24$, both p -values $< .01$). Further, the regression shows a slightly positive impact of cosmopolitanism ($b = .04$, $p < .10$) on brand attitude, and positive effects of the controls brand familiarity and expertise ($b_{\text{familiarity}} = .17$, $b_{\text{expertise}} = .08$, both p -values $< .01$), while the fictitious (vs. real) brand condition has a negative effect ($b = -.29$, $p < .05$). With the washing machines category as reference, the dummies for the other product/service categories have no effect on brand attitude (all p -values $> .10$), except the category airlines ($b = -.74$, $p < .01$). Finally, the consumer demographics (i.e., sex and age) show no impact on brand attitude.

Interaction effects (Proposition 1): The interaction effect of PBG and cosmopolitanism on brand attitude is positive ($b = .03$, $p < .05$), whereas the interaction of PBL and cosmopolitanism is negative ($b = -.04$, $p < .01$), indicating that the $\Delta_{\text{interaction}}$ (i.e., the difference between the interactions = $b_{\text{PBG} \times \text{cosmo}} - b_{\text{PBL} \times \text{cosmo}}$) might be positive. A Wald test of

differences between regression coefficients showed that the $\Delta_{\text{interaction}}$ is indeed positive ($b = .07, p < .01$). Hence, in line with Proposition 1 and the initial findings of Study 1 and 2, as cosmopolitanism increases, the effect of PBG (vs. PBL) on brand attitude becomes relatively more positive.

Table 3.8 Results of regression analyses (Study 3)

Dependent variable: Brand attitude	Model 1: Main model N = 1,704, R ² = .43				Model 2: Robustness check N = 1,704, R ² = .39			
	Coef. (SE)	p	[CI]		Coef. (SE)	p	[CI]	
Main Effects								
Perceived brand globalness	.15 (.02)	.00	[.10, .19]		.23 (.02)	.00	[.19, .27]	
Perceived brand localness	.24 (.02)	.00	[.21, .27]		.30 (.02)	.00	[.27, .33]	
Cosmopolitanism	.04 (.02)	.08	[-.01, .08]		.08 (.02)	.00	[.04, .13]	
Interaction effects								
(I) Perceived brand globalness × cosmopolitanism	.03 (.01)	.03	[.00, .06]		.03 (.02)	.03	[.00, .06]	
(II) Perceived brand localness × cosmopolitanism	-.04 (.01)	.00	[-.06, -.02]		-.05 (.01)	.00	[-.07, -.02]	
Wald test*: $\Delta_{\text{interaction}} = (I) - (II)$.07 (.02)	.00	[.03, .12]		.08 (.02)	.00	[.03, .13]	
Controls								
Brand familiarity	.17 (.02)	.00	[.13, .21]					
Expertise in the product/service category	.08 (.02)	.00	[.05, .12]					
Condition (reference: real brands)								
Fictitious brands	-.29 (.14)	.05	[-.57, .00]		-.35 (.14)	.01	[-.61, -.08]	
Product/service category (reference: washing machines)								
LCD TVs	.07 (.08)	.39	[-.09, .22]		.11 (.08)	.19	[-.05, .26]	
Shower gel	-.07 (.09)	.43	[-.25, .11]		-.03 (.09)	.76	[-.21, .15]	
Chocolate	.08 (.09)	.35	[-.09, .26]		.13 (.09)	.15	[-.05, .30]	
Motorcycles	-.04 (.20)	.86	[-.43, .36]		.02 (.21)	.93	[-.39, .43]	
Airlines	-.74 (.21)	.00	[-1.16, -.31]		-.59 (.20)	.00	[-1.00, -.19]	
Sex (reference: female)								
Male	-.05 (.05)	.31	[-.14, .05]					
Diverse	-.29 (.34)	.38	[-.95, .37]					
Age (reference: under 18)								
18-23	.15 (.21)	.47	[-.25, .56]					
24-32	-.11 (.20)	.56	[-.50, .27]					
33-45	-.15 (.19)	.43	[-.53, .23]					
46-59	-.12 (.19)	.52	[-.49, .25]					
60-79	-.01 (.19)	.95	[-.38, .36]					
Above 79	.18 (.31)	.55	[-.42, .79]					
Constant	5.78 (.23)	.00	[5.32, 6.23]		5.60 (.12)	.00	[5.36, 5.84]	

Notes: Coefficients are based on mean centered variables (except dummy variables); All effects are based on two tailed tests (95% confidence intervals); * two tailed Wald test (95% confidence intervals) for equality of coefficients; Bold coefficients indicate statistical significance at the 5% level; Both models also included brand dummies (not displayed in table).

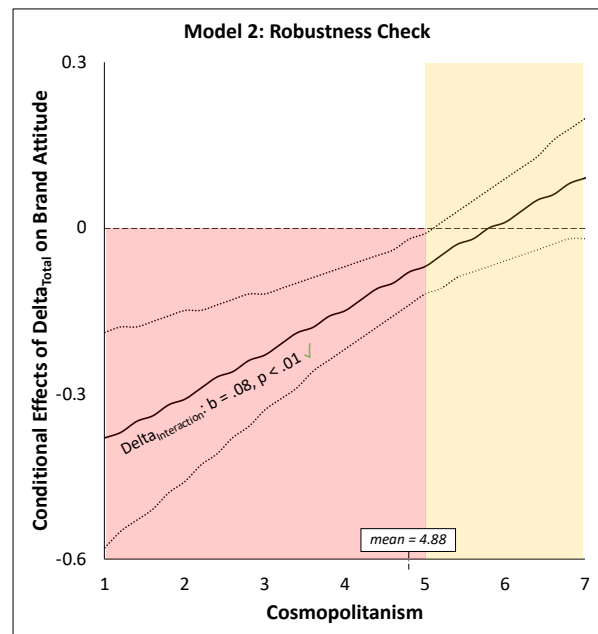
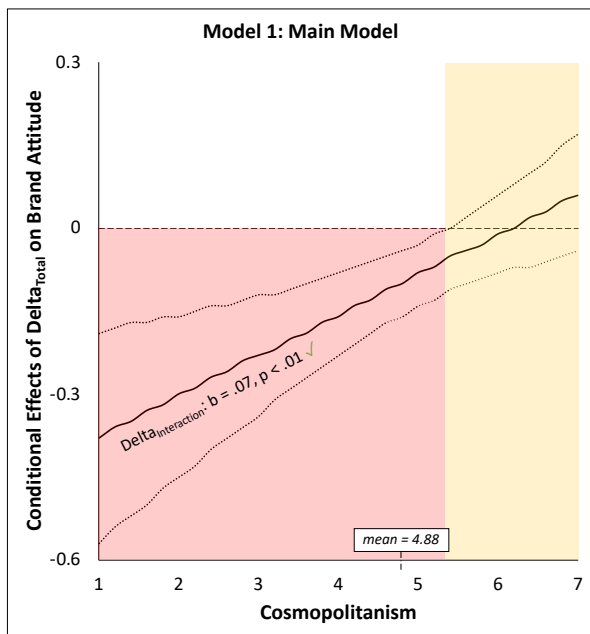
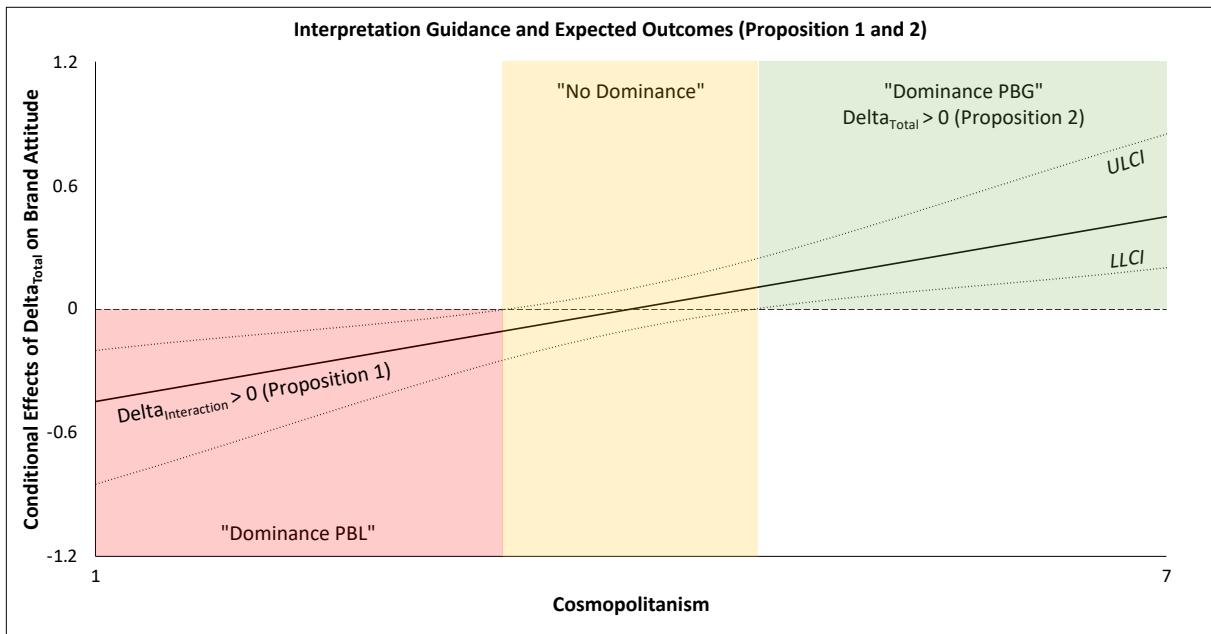
Total effects (Proposition 2): To investigate Proposition 2, the main effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude must be considered, aside their interactions with cosmopolitanism, which in sum represent the total effects of PBG and PBL. We applied the Johnson-Neyman technique

to the Δ_{total} (difference between the total effects of PBG and PBL = $b_{\text{PBG}} + b_{\text{PBG} \times \text{cosmo}} - b_{\text{PBL}} - b_{\text{PBL} \times \text{cosmo}}$) to investigate if and at what levels of cosmopolitanism PBG dominates PBL. Model 1 in Figure 3.3 displays the results. The plot shows that (1) at lower levels of cosmopolitanism, the Δ_{total} is negative. Thus, PBG has more negative effects on brand attitude than PBL, which in turn implies that PBL dominates. (2) However, as cosmopolitanism increases, this dominance of PBL diminishes as the effects of PBG become relatively more positive. Finally, (3) a state of no dominance is established, in which there is no difference between the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude. This state remains even at the highest levels of cosmopolitanism. Consequently, our data does not meet Proposition 2, which expected PBG to dominate over PBL for cosmopolitans. Rather, the data indicates that at higher levels of cosmopolitanism, PBG and PBL similarly unfold on brand attitude.

To check the robustness of these findings, we computed a second regression (see Model 2 in Table 3.8 and Figure 3.3), excluding the consumer related controls (i.e., brand familiarity, expertise, and demographics), while only maintaining the fictitious vs. real brand dummy as well as the dummies for the product/service categories and brands. This Model 2 yielded practically the same results, hence, increases the confidence in our findings.

In sum, these results are fully in line with Study 1 and 2. The data of Study 3 again implies that for cosmopolitans both their global and local orientations are in an equilibrium and no orientation stands particularly out. Yet, this is an overall picture of the data without accounting for possible differences across product/service categories and study conditions (i.e., real vs. fictitious brands). To shed light on these aspects, we conducted additional analyses.

Figure 3.3 Johnson-Neyman plots for conditional effects of Δ_{total} on brand attitude (Study 3)

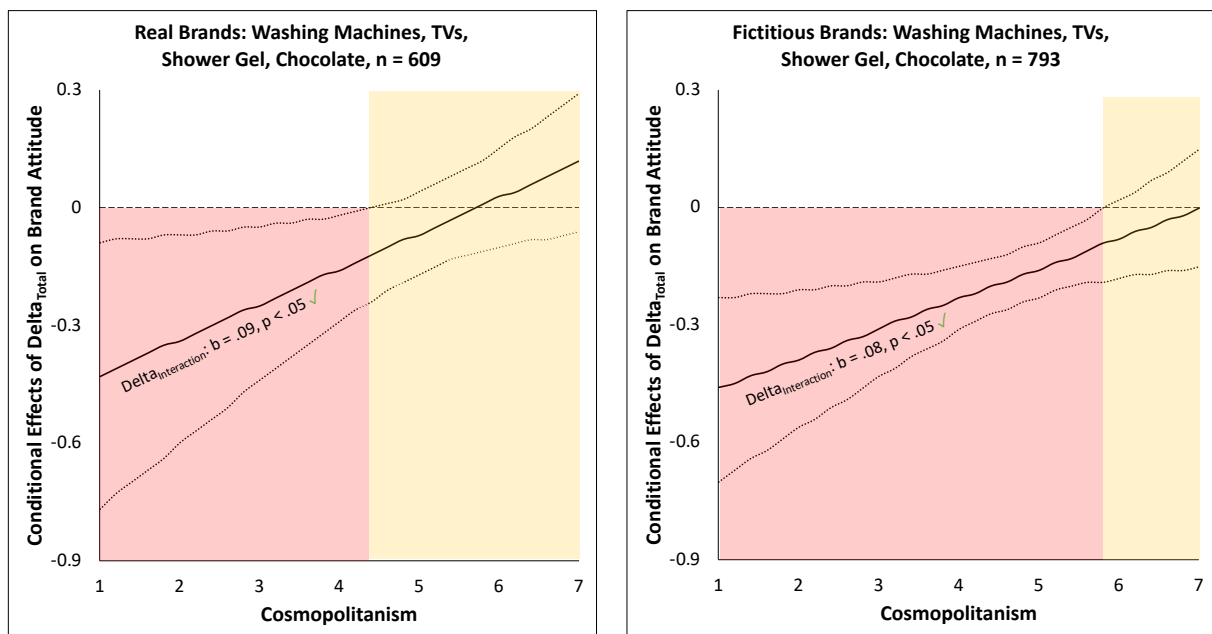


Notes: PBG = perceived brand globalness, PBL = perceived brand localness, $\Delta_{total} = PBG_{total} - PBL_{total} = PBG + PBG \times \text{cosmopolitanism} - PBL - PBL \times \text{cosmopolitanism}$; $\Delta_{interaction} = PBG \times \text{cosmopolitanism} - PBL \times \text{cosmopolitanism}$; LLCI and ULCI = lower and upper level 95% confidence intervals; The cosmopolitanism axis covers the lowest to highest obtained values for cosmopolitanism in the sample; Sample size $N = 1,704$.

Additional Analyses: As a first step, to analyze if the findings were robust against brand effects, we created Johnson-Neyman plots separately for the real and fictitious brand conditions (see Figure 3.4). To enable an adequate comparison, we did not include the motorcycles and airlines categories, since these were only assessed in the real, but not the fictitious brand

conditions. Thus, we compared real vs. fictitious brands only in respect to washing machines, TVs, shower gel and chocolate. The plots for both conditions confirm the pattern of the main findings: At lower levels of cosmopolitanism, PBL dominates PBG. This dominance of PBL diminishes with increasing cosmopolitanism, as the effects of PBG on brand attitude become relatively more positive. At higher levels of cosmopolitanism, there is no difference between the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude, resulting in a state of no dominance. The only difference between the real and fictitious brands is that the state of no dominance is reached earlier (i.e., at a lower level of cosmopolitanism), which is likely caused by brand effects. Despite this slight deviation, however, our findings are consistent across both brand conditions, and therefore robust.

Figure 3.4 Comparison of Johnson-Neyman plots between the real and fictitious brand conditions (Study 3)



Notes: PBG = perceived brand globalness, PBL = perceived brand localness, $\Delta_{total} = PBG_{total} - PBL_{total} = PBG + PBG \times \text{cosmopolitanism} - PBL - PBL \times \text{cosmopolitanism}$; $\Delta_{interaction} = PBG \times \text{cosmopolitanism} - PBL \times \text{cosmopolitanism}$; n = size of subsample; The cosmopolitanism axis covers the lowest to highest obtained values for cosmopolitanism in each subsample; The dashed lines represent the lower and upper level 95% confidence intervals.

Finally, we further broke down the Johnson-Neyman plots based on each product/service category, enabling us to analyze possible differences between categories. The plots (see Figure 3.5) reveal two major findings:

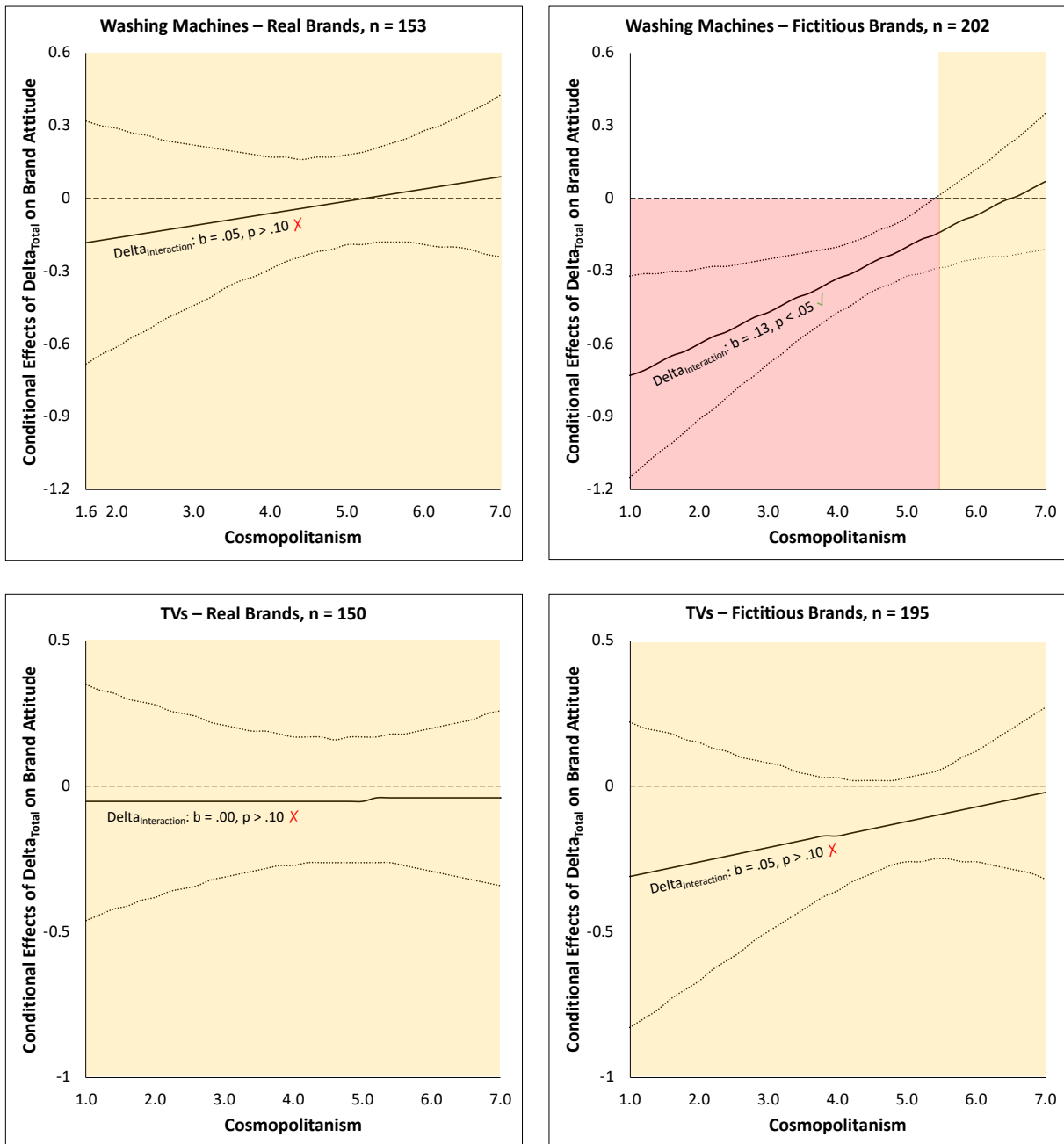
First, whenever cosmopolitanism is low and a dominance of PBL is at hand (i.e., when PBG has relatively more negative effects on brand attitude), the $\text{delta}_{\text{interaction}}$ ($= b_{\text{PBG} \times \text{cosmo}} - b_{\text{PBL} \times \text{cosmo}}$) is positive as expected in Proposition 1. In these cases (i.e., real brands: shower gel; fictitious brands: washing machines and chocolate), with increasing cosmopolitanism, the dominance of PBL diminishes as the relative effects of PBG on brand attitude become more positive, until a state of no dominance is established and maintained even at the highest level of cosmopolitanism. This finding is in line with the full sample analysis (i.e., all product/service categories and conditions, Figure 3.3), the comparison between real and fictitious brands (Figure 3.4) as well as with Study 1 and 2, which only focused on one product category each in the first place (i.e., sneakers and bottled water respectively, Figure 3.2).

Second, for some product categories and/or conditions (i.e., real brands: washing machines, TVs, chocolate, motorcycles, and airlines; fictitious brands: TVs), a state of no dominance is at hand throughout all levels of cosmopolitanism. In these cases, the $\text{delta}_{\text{interaction}}$ ($= b_{\text{PBG} \times \text{cosmo}} - b_{\text{PBL} \times \text{cosmo}}$) is not significant and there is no difference between the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude, regardless of cosmopolitanism, leaving Proposition 1 unmet.

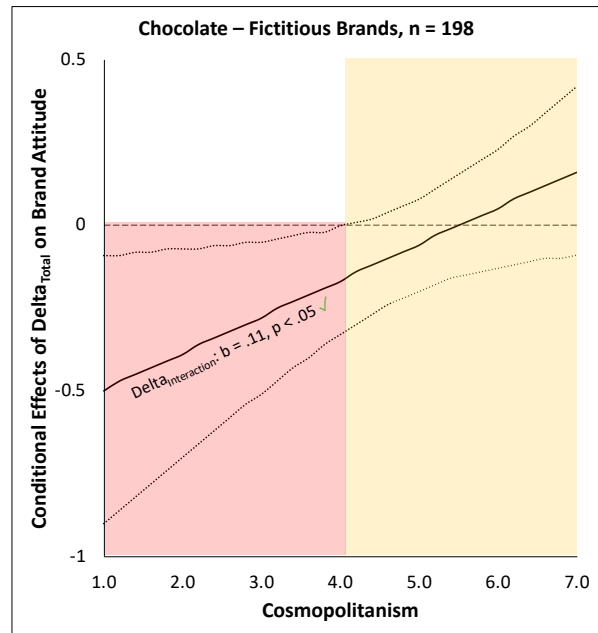
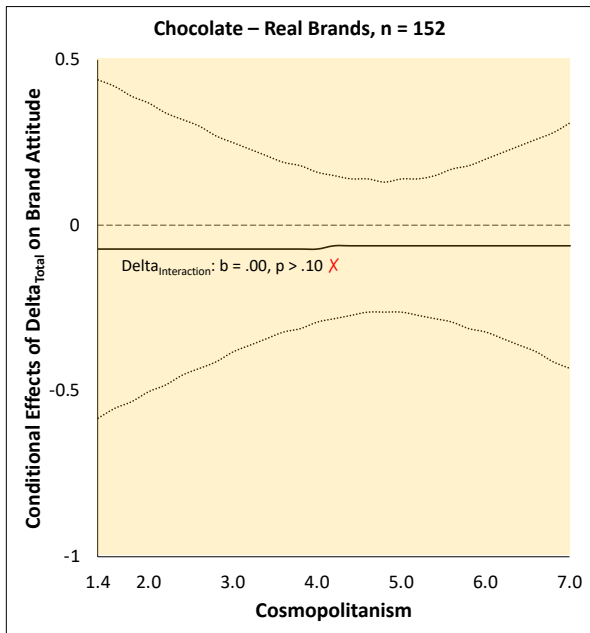
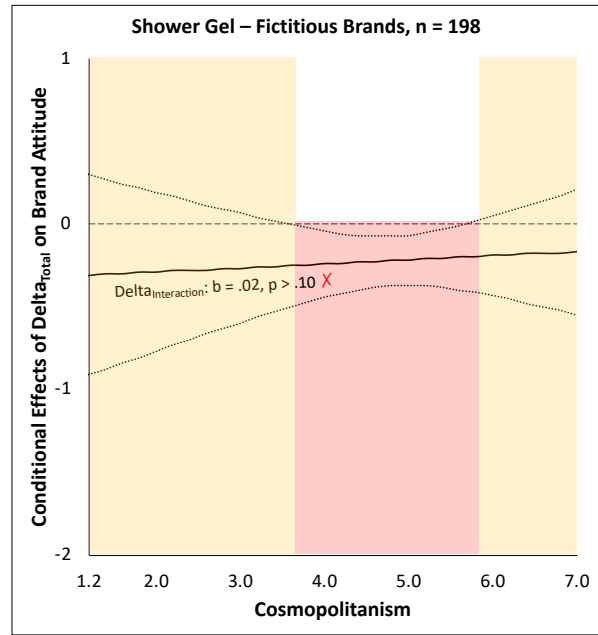
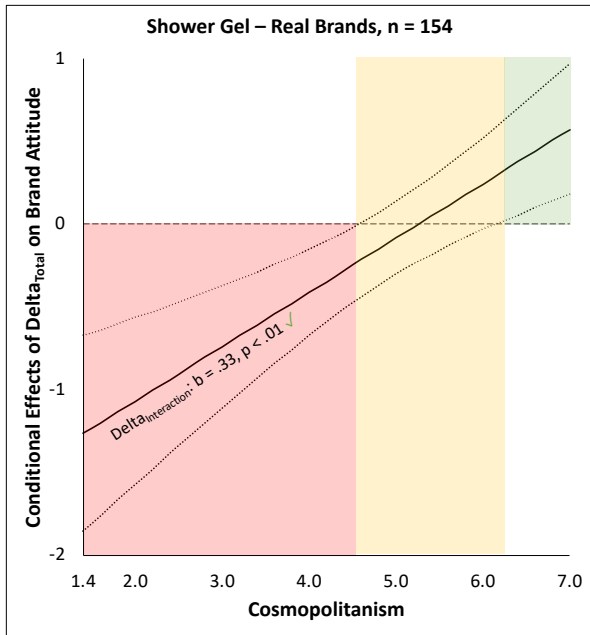
In sum, these insights provide support for Proposition 1 in a very specific way: Only when at lower levels of cosmopolitanism PBL dominates PBG, an equalizing mechanism kicks in and establishes an equilibrium between the effects of PBG and PBL at higher levels of cosmopolitanism. However, this equilibrium contrasts with Proposition 2, which expected that for cosmopolitan consumers PBG dominates PBL. Rather, across all products and conditions, cosmopolitans' brand attitude is affected similarly by PBG and PBL. Overall, we infer that the global and local orientations of cosmopolitans are equivalent, and these consumers do not

particularly emphasize either dimension in general. The only exception from this finding is the category shower gel with real brands, which transitions from a dominance of PBL to a dominance of PBG, as cosmopolitanism increases, meeting both Proposition 1 and 2.

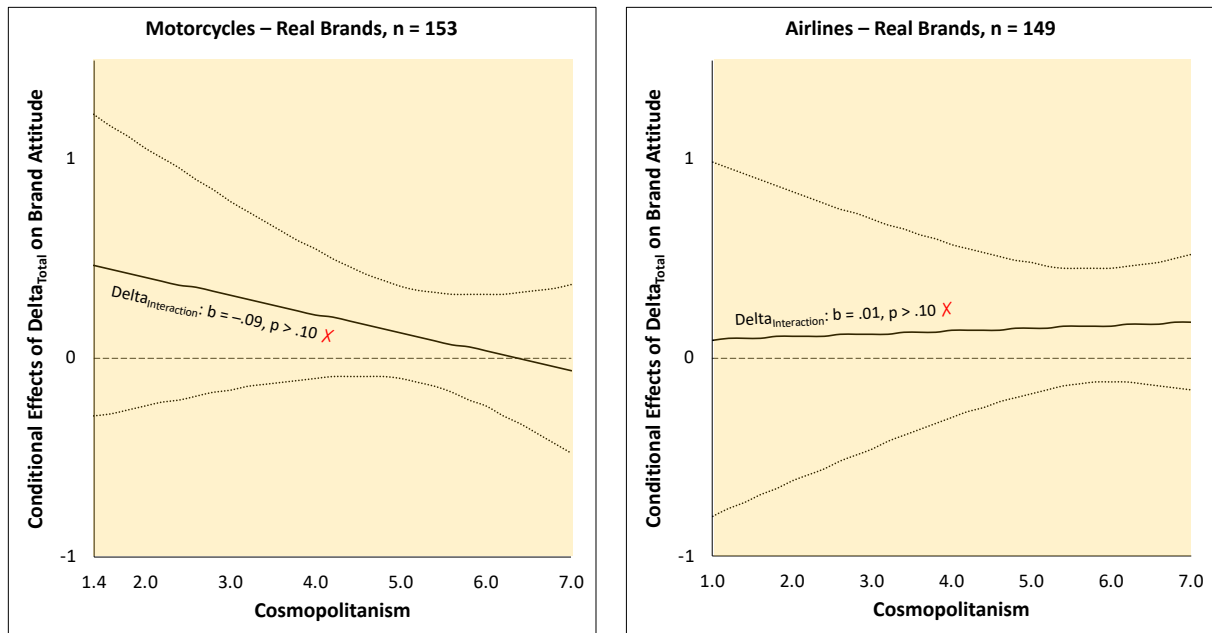
Figure 3.5 Johnson-Neyman plots by product category and brand condition (real vs. fictitious) (Study 3)



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Notes: PBG = perceived brand globalness, PBL = perceived brand localness, $\Delta_{total} = PBG_{total} - PBL_{total} = PBG + PBG \times \text{cosmopolitanism} - PBL - PBL \times \text{cosmopolitanism}$; $\Delta_{interaction} = PBG \times \text{cosmopolitanism} - PBL \times \text{cosmopolitanism}$; n = size of subsample; The cosmopolitanism axis covers the lowest to highest obtained values for cosmopolitanism in each subsample; The dashed lines represent the lower and upper level 95% confidence intervals.

3.6 Discussion

Extending previous research in this field, this article analyzes cosmopolitan consumers in the context of global/local branding by approaching this consumer segment from a different theoretical angle. Building upon previous research, we argue that cosmopolitanism is a multiple ingroup concept, harboring global and local orientations at the same time (e.g., Cannon and Yaprak 2002). We therefore draw on SIC (Roccas and Brewer 2002) as a theoretical framework to explain how these global and local orientations within cosmopolitans relate to each other. Using PBG and PBL as proxies for these orientations, we then analyze how both variables unfold on brand attitude, as cosmopolitanism increases.

We conducted three empirical studies with convenience and representative samples, comprising 27 real and various fictitious brands across eight product/service categories and two countries. Overall, our three studies show a specific mechanism: As cosmopolitanism increases, the effect of PBG on brand attitude becomes relatively more positive than the effect of PBL. Thus, with rising cosmopolitanism, PBG becomes more relevant. A closer look at our data in

terms of individual product/service categories reveals that this mechanism intervenes in specific cases. More precisely, whenever PBL has more positive effects on brand attitude than PBG at lower levels of cosmopolitanism (i.e., when PBL dominates PBG), we observe that the effects of PBG (vs. PBL) on brand attitude become relatively more positive with growing cosmopolitanism. This mechanism thus mitigates the dominance of PBL over PBG and establishes an equilibrium, as cosmopolitanism increases. We call this mechanism the “cosmo-effect”, which we define as an equalizing mechanism when PBL (vs. PBG) has more positive effects on brand attitude at lower levels of cosmopolitanism. The “cosmo-effect” therefore separates less and more cosmopolitan consumers and is driven by cosmopolitans’ desire for a balance between their global and local orientations.

Further, our data consistently shows on an aggregate and product/service category level strong support for this presumably aimed balance between global and local orientations: For cosmopolitan consumers (i.e., at highest levels of cosmopolitanism) there is no difference between the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude, regardless of the product/service category and whether we utilized real or fictitious brands. Consequently, PBG and PBL’s effects are in an equilibrium for cosmopolitan consumers. Overall, this finding suggests that cosmopolitans’ global and local orientations are in peaceful coexistence, without any orientation being stronger.

3.6.1 Theoretical Contributions

Adding to the previous literature on consumer dispositions (for an overview, see Bartsch, Riefler, and Diamantopoulos 2016) and their relevance for PBG/PBL (e.g., Akram, Merunka, and Shakaib Akram 2011; Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015; Swoboda and Hirschmann 2016), this article makes the following contributions to international marketing research:

First, we contribute to the international marketing literature by proposing a fundamental shift from an ingroup vs. outgroup to a multiple ingroup lens, particularly when analyzing cosmopolitanism in the context of global branding. Previous research has mainly conceptualized cosmopolitanism based on an ingroup vs. outgroup view (e.g., Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, and Diamantopoulos 2015). This perspective is reasonable when analyzing cosmopolitans' foreign vs. domestic brand preferences because foreign cultures represent an outgroup, whereas the own culture represents the ingroup of consumers (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, and Qiao 2019). However, when the focus of research is global vs. local brands, we propose that both global and local aspects of life represent (multiple) ingroups for consumers. This notion is especially valid for cosmopolitans, who harbor both global and local orientations (e.g., Cannon and Yaprak 2002). This reasoning is also line with Tajfel's (1974) social identity theory, which acknowledges that individuals can be members of more than one group at a time.

Second and as a consequence, our research contributes to the global branding literature, as we show that scholars should incorporate both PBG and PBL in their theoretical and empirical considerations, rather than focusing on only one of them. Even though brand globalness and localness are theoretically independent constructs (e.g., Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008), any brand is associated with both globalness and localness to some extent. Thus, though independent, both constructs are simultaneously important and reflect consumers' simultaneous exposure to global and local aspects of life. Accordingly, prior international marketing research argues "that a person identifies with both the national and global communities" (Westjohn, Singh, and Magnusson 2012, p. 60) and that "consumers are expected to strive both for global and local identity reinforcement in their purchase decisions rather than focus only on one of them" (Sichtmann, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2019, p. 601).

Finally, we adopt SIC as a new theoretical underpinning to consumer disposition research, providing a novel approach to analyze interaction terms of PBG/PBL with consumer dispositions. Prior research in this area was mainly guided by the question, whether consumer dispositions such as consumer cosmopolitanism or consumer ethnocentrism (i.e., consumers that reject purchasing foreign products/brands due to economic reasons; Shimp and Sharma 1987) are or are not associated with global brands or brand globalness. Accordingly, scholars analyzed whether the effects of PBG on brand related outcomes is moderated by consumer dispositions (e.g., Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019; Swoboda and Hirschmann 2016). For instance, when the interaction effect of PBG and a consumer disposition on an outcome was positive (or negative, depending on the research question), scholars deduced that the consumer disposition was positively (or negatively) associated with PBG. However, especially regarding cosmopolitanism, this kind of “classic” interpretation yielded mixed results (Diamantopoulos et al. 2019), as interaction terms were insignificant in many cases (e.g. Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015). Our studies support this conclusion, because the individual interaction effects of PBG and cosmopolitanism on brand attitude were insignificant in Study 1, slightly positive in Study 2 and positive in Study 3. Similarly, the interaction terms of PBL and cosmopolitanism were negative, insignificant, and negative respectively. With the predominant way of interpreting these results, we might conclude that the findings are mixed.

Against this background, we go beyond interpreting interactions of PBG and PBL with cosmopolitanism individually. More precisely, SIC suggests that when multiple orientations are inherent to a consumer, the guiding question to be investigated is if one orientation is stronger, thus, dominates the other orientation. Consequently, the focus of cosmopolitanism research in the context of global branding is whether the concept is associated more with either brand globalness or localness. Therefore, we compare the interaction effects of PBG and PBL with cosmopolitanism on brand attitude, and indeed find a consistent pattern with the “cosmo-

effect”: The difference between the interaction effects is positive. That is, as cosmopolitanism increases, the effects of PBG on brand attitude become more positive than the effects of PBL, thus, brand globalness gains importance. With this approach, we show that even insignificant individual interactions can be interpreted in a meaningful way. Yet, it is important to note that the “cosmo-effect” specifically appeared in cases where PBL dominated PBG at lower levels of cosmopolitanism, which we will address in the limitations section below.

3.6.2 Managerial Implications

The findings of this article provide guidance for managers mainly in respect to (1) the development of brand globalness and localness strategies in general and (2) for targeting consumer segments with highly cosmopolitan dispositions in particular.

Consistent with the previous literature, our results show that both PBG and PBL positively affect brand related outcomes such as brand attitude (Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015; Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016; Han 2016; Mandler 2019). Hence, on a general level, managers cannot go wrong by cultivating both the globalness and localness of their brands using, for example, global and local consumer culture positioning (GCCP and LCCP) strategies (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999).

When targeting highly cosmopolitan consumers, the results of our studies indicate that brand managers should stress brand globalness and localness to a similar degree, as cosmopolitans strive for a balance between their global and local orientations. In particular, managers can on one hand promote brand localness, using LCCP techniques (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020). Such techniques involve emphasizing a brand’s authenticity and heritage as well as the use of local brand names (Steenkamp 2019). In this respect, origin cues could be particularly helpful to promote a brand’s authenticity. For instance, German chocolate brands such as Mondelēz’ Milka often prominently state that their products comprise milk from the (German) alps. Moreover, brand

localness, can be promoted with prominent local testimonials (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 1999; Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020). For example, the former German basketball player Dirk Nowitzki has been promoting the bank ING in Germany for many years.

On the other hand, managers can utilize GCCP techniques, involving advertising cues and slogans with globalness appeals, drawing on globally popular spokespeople (e.g., Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015; De Meulenaer, Dens, and De Pelsmacker 2015), and utilizing the English language (Steenkamp 2019) to increase the globalness perceptions of their brands. For example, Milka has recently introduced a new product line with the name “darkmilk” in Germany. Further, the brand displays English translations on the packaging of many of their regular chocolate bars in Germany (e.g., “Alpine Milk” under the German “Alpenmilch”). In sum, Milka is actually utilizing a hybrid strategy by incorporating aspects of both globalness and localness in their communication, already practicing the implications of our studies.

Finally, previous research concluded that the managerial benefit of using cosmopolitanism as segmentation criterion should not be overestimated (Diamantopoulos et al. 2019). On a general and aggregate level across various product/service categories, our studies show a difference between cosmopolitan and non-cosmopolitan consumers. As discussed above, our data indicates that communication of globalness and localness to cosmopolitans should be in a balanced manner. In contrast, our data generally indicates that when targeting non-cosmopolitan consumers, brand localness should be stressed more. It is important to note though, that this finding does not necessarily apply to every industry or product/service category. Specifically, we found cases in which no difference between cosmopolitans and non-cosmopolitans were at hand. To derive fully valid managerial advice regarding cosmopolitanism as a tool to segment consumers, we must state that further investigation is necessary.

3.6.3 Limitations and Future Research Directions

This article has some limitations, which open several avenues for future research. It is noteworthy, that we provided some major shifts on how to approach a consumer disposition like cosmopolitanism in the context of global branding. That is, we built on (1) a multiple ingroup rather than in vs. outgroup perspective and therefore (2) comparison of interaction terms and total effects rather than individual interpretation. Overall, this article does not claim to be holistic, but rather should be understood as an impulse for future research. Therefore, more precise refinements to the approach provided in this paper should be pursued in future research, aside the following major limitations.

First, we investigated a variety of product categories, which differ along several dimensions (e.g., high/low price level, hedonic/utilitarian value). In sum, we found differences between less and more cosmopolitan consumers, which however did not hold in every context (i.e., product/service categories or real vs. fictitious brand condition). Future research should explore boundary conditions to provide an explanation for this finding. Furthermore, our findings should be replicated using more industries and considering further categorizations, such as culture free vs. culture boundedness or luxury vs. non-luxury products. Moreover, we focused on products rather services, even though we incorporated airlines in Study 3. Involving more service categories could be beneficial to further generalizability of our findings.

Similarly, we focused on brand attitude as an outcome variable to PBG and PBL. However, future studies could replicate our findings on at least other key outcomes in PBG/PBL research (e.g., brand quality, see Liu et al. 2021). This can also involve investigating more complex empirical models, including mediators, behavioral intentions, and even more downstream and valuable actual behavior of consumers (Hulland and Houston 2021).

Second, our studies had a strong focus on Germany, though in Study 2 we also included a sample from France, which as a country is similar to Germany in many aspects (e.g., level of globalization). A major future opportunity is to extend larger scales studies (e.g., Study 3) to

further countries, which can differ on various aspects (e.g., cultural differences). Aside from further developed or highly globalized countries, these can include emerging markets around the world, including countries from South East Asia and Africa.

Third, our research can be extended to different contexts in terms of consumer locations. More precisely, future research could investigate whether and to what degree our findings hold depending on whether consumers are at home or abroad for leisure or business. From a practical perspective, while this question seems to be a rather niche topic, it can be beneficial to practitioners in locations with high traveler turnover and increase our general understanding of cosmopolitanism further.

Finally, aside from a global branding or consumer dispositions (e.g., consumer cosmopolitanism or ethnocentrism), the SIC framework can be considered for social subgroups within countries or cultures, whenever consumers are affected by multiple forces. For example, individuals with a migrant history are usually torn between the “host” and the “home” culture of their parents (Benet-Martinez and Haritatos 2005). On a more general note, we thus encourage international marketing research to consider SIC as a promising theoretical foundation to advance our knowledge on identity or related topics.

3.7 References

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3.8 Appendix

Appendix 3.1 Construct measurement (Study 1 and Study 2)

Construct (Selected Reference) Measurement Item	IR (S1/S2)	AVE (S1/S2) CR (S1/S2)	CA (S1/S2)
Perceived brand globalness^a (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003)		.75/.73 .90/.89	.90/.89
To me, this brand is a global brand.	.80/.58		
I think that consumers abroad buy this brand.	.87/.83		
This brand is sold all over the world.	.60/.76		
Perceived brand localness^a (Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012)		.85/.81 .94/.93	.94/.89
I associate this brand with things that are German/French.	.68/.68		
To me, this brand represents what Germany/France is all about.	.96/.98		
To me, this brand is a very good symbol of Germany/France.	.90/.76		
Consumer cosmopolitanism^a (Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw 2012)			
Dimension 1: Open mindedness		.69/.67 .90/.89	.89/.89
When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.	.51/.44		
I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.	.80/.82		
I like to have contact with people from different cultures.	.85/.88		
I have got a real interest in other countries.	.59/.54		
Dimension 2: Diversity appreciation		.62/.64 .86/.87	.84/.84
Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me.	.49/.64		
The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity.	.79/.87		
I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries.	.89/.85		
Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time.	.33/.21		
Dimension 3: Consumption transcending borders		.48/.52 .78/.80	.78/.81
I like watching movies from different countries.	.24/.26		
I like listening to music of other cultures.	.21/.26		
I like trying original dishes from other countries.	.78/.78		
I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.	.71/.79		
Brand attitude^b (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 2006)		NA	.86/.82
I think this brand is good/I think this brand is bad.	NA		
I have a negative opinion of it/I have a positive opinion of it.	NA		
Brand familiarity^b (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003)		NA	NA
This brand is unfamiliar/very familiar to me.	NA		

Notes: S1/S2 = Study 1, Study 2, IR = item reliability, AVE = average variance extracted, CR = composite reliability, CA = Cronbach's alpha, NA = not applicable. ^a7-point Likert scale (1 = do not agree at all/7 = fully agree); ^b7-point semantic differential; Measurement model fit: Study 1: Chi-squared (χ^2) = 326.41, degrees of freedom (df) = 155, root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) = .08, comparative fit index (CFI) = .92, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .90, standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) = .07; Study 2: χ^2 = 453.26, df = 155, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .93, TLI = .92, SRMR = .06.

Appendix 3.2 Measurement invariance assessment for the German and French samples (Study

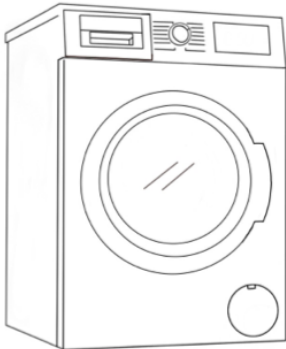
2)

	χ^2 (df)	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Model 1 (configural invariance): No equality constraints	714.588 (338)*	.082	.919	.899	.063
Model 2 (metric invariance): Equal factor loadings	746.709 (352)*	.082	.915	.898	.068
<i>Difference</i> <i>Model 2 – Model 1</i>		.000	–.004	–.001	.004
Model 3 (scalar invariance): Equal factor loadings and item intercepts	792.405 (366)*	.083	.908	.894	.069
<i>Difference</i> <i>Model 3 – Model 2</i>		.002	–.007	–.004	.001
Model 4 (strict invariance): Equal factor loadings, intercepts, and residuals	878.350 (386)*	.087	.894	.884	.070
<i>Difference</i> <i>Model 4 – Model 3</i>		.004	–.014	–.010	.001

* $p < .001$, χ^2 = chi-squared, df = degrees of freedom, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation, CFI = comparative fit index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis index, SRMR = standardized root mean square residual.

Appendix 3.3 Illustration of a real brand condition (Study 3)

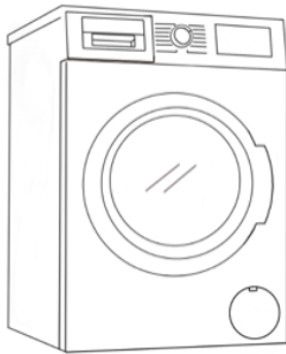
Please think of the brand Samsung in the category washing machines.



Appendix 3.4 Illustration of a fictitious brand condition (Study 3)

This study is about the product category **washing machines**.

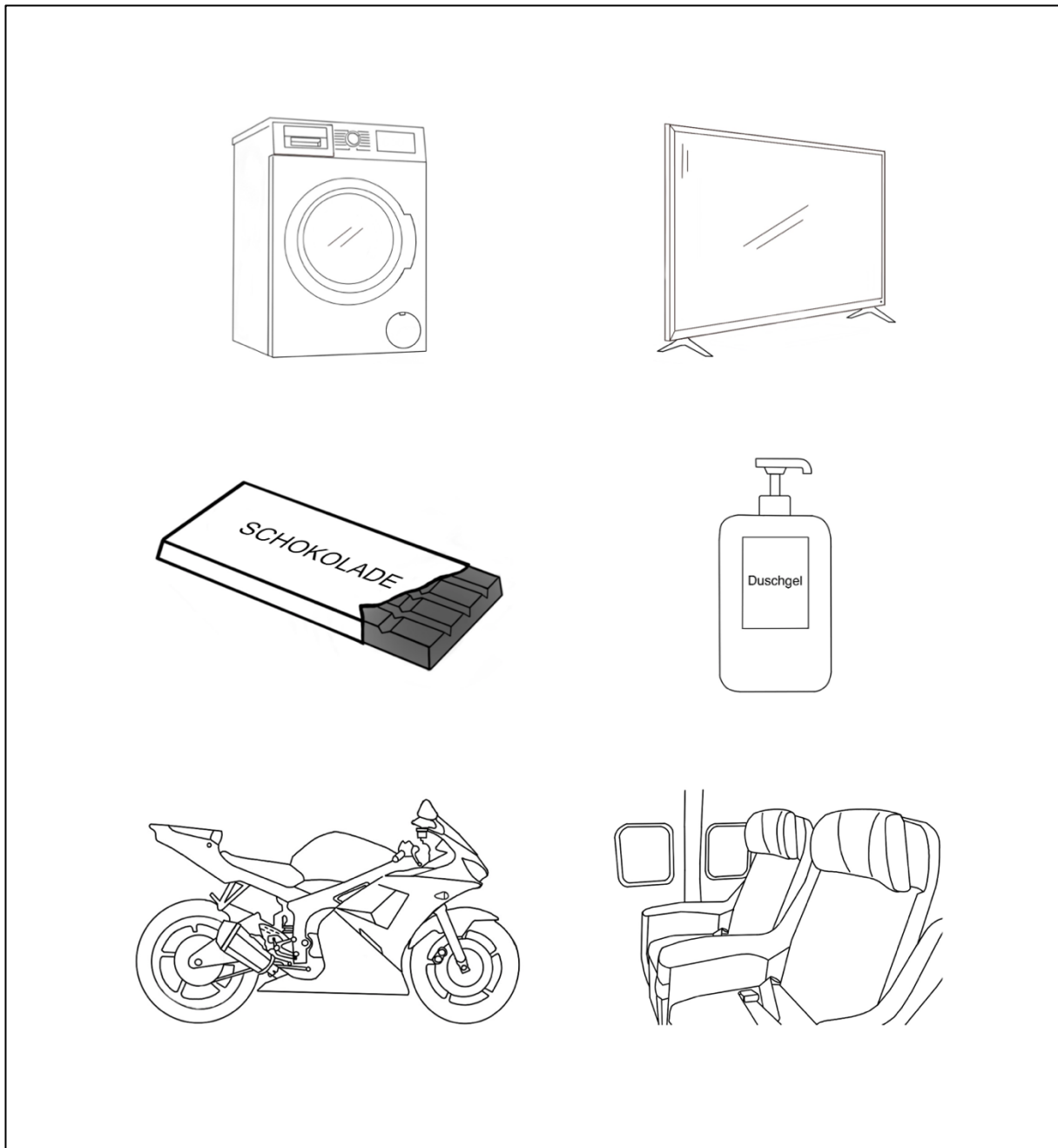
Below you will see information about an **unknown brand**. Read it carefully and memorize the information. Please **do not** think of a specific brand from real life, but focus only on the given information.



Brand information:

The brand is sold in over 100 countries. It has its origin and headquarters abroad and thus has no special historical and cultural relationship with Germany.

Based on the above information, we ask you to rate the described brand from the washing machines category in the following.

Appendix 3.5 Overview of drawings used to accompany the stimuli (Study 3)

Notes: Top left = washing machines, top right = LCD TVs, middle left = chocolate, middle right = shower gel, bottom left = motorcycles, bottom right = airlines; The bottom categories were only used in the real brand conditions.

Appendix 3.6 Demographic structure of the sample and comparison with the German population (Study 3)

Demographic structure of the sample (N = 1,704)

Age	Absolute				Relative			
	Male	Female	Diverse*	Total	Male	Female	Diverse	Total
Under 18*	0	1	-	1	-	0.06%	-	0.06%
18 – 23	46	67	-	113	2.70%	3.93%	-	6.63%
24 – 32	112	103	2	217	6.57%	6.04%	0.12%	12.73%
33 – 45	180	185	-	365	10.56%	10.86%	-	21.42%
46 – 59	278	272	-	550	16.31%	15.96%	-	32.28%
60 – 79	218	234	-	452	12.79%	13.73%	-	26.53%
Above 79*	5	1	-	6	0.29%	0.06%	-	0.35%
Total	839	863	2	1,704	49.24%	50.65%	0.12%	100.00%

*Comparison of demographic structure between the sample (n = 1,695**) and the equivalent German population*

Age	Sample			German Population***		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
18 – 23	2.70%	3.94%	6.64%	3.92%	3.58%	7.50%
24 – 32	6.58%	6.05%	12.63%	6.91%	6.41%	13.32%
33 – 45	10.58%	10.87%	21.45%	9.84%	9.58%	19.41%
46 – 59	16.33%	15.98%	32.31%	12.58%	12.48%	25.06%
60 – 79	12.81%	13.75%	26.56%	12.40%	13.75%	26.15%
Total	49.29%	50.71%	100.00%	48.93%	51.07%	100.00%

Notes: * These nine respondents were not considered for the comparison between the sample and the German population due to insufficient cell sizes; ** Nine respondents removed, see first asterisk; *** As of December 31, 2020 (source: The German Federal Office of Statistics; <https://www-genesis.destatis.de>); N/n = full/subsample.

Appendix 3.7 Construct measurement (Study 3)

Construct (Selected Reference) Measurement Item	IR	AVE/CR	CA
Perceived brand globalness^a (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003)		.70/.87	.87
To me, this brand is a global brand.	.76		
I think that consumers abroad buy this brand.	.56		
This brand is sold all over the world.	.76		
Perceived brand localness^a (Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012)		.85/.95	.94
I associate this brand with things that are German/French.	.73		
To me, this brand represents what Germany/France is all about.	.97		
To me, this brand is a very good symbol of Germany/France.	.85		
Consumer cosmopolitanism^a (Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw 2012)			
<i>Dimension 1: Open mindedness</i>		.74/.92	.92
When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions.	.56		
I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries.	.87		
I like to have contact with people from different cultures.	.83		
I have got a real interest in other countries.	.71		
<i>Dimension 2: Diversity appreciation</i>		.69/.90	.88
Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me.	.74		
The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity.	.78		
I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries.	.87		
Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time.	.35		
<i>Dimension 3: Consumption transcending borders</i>		.61/.86	.86
I like watching movies from different countries.	.41		
I like listening to music of other cultures.	.41		
I like trying original dishes from other countries.	.76		
I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world.	.85		
Brand attitude^b (Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra 2006)		NA	.86
I think this brand is good/I think this brand is bad.	NA		
I have a negative opinion of it/I have a positive opinion of it.	NA		
Brand familiarity^b (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003)	NA	NA	NA
This brand is unfamiliar/very familiar to me.			

Notes: IR = item reliability, AVE = average variance extracted, CR = composite reliability, CA = Cronbach's alpha, NA = not applicable. ^a 7-point Likert scale (1 = do not agree at all/7 = fully agree); ^b 7-point semantic differential; Measurement model fit: Chi-squared (χ^2) = 1205.22, degrees of freedom (df) = 155, root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) = .06, comparative fit index (CFI) = .96, Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = .95, standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR) = .05.

4 A Meta-Analysis on Key Outcomes of Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness

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In this research, I conduct a meta-analysis on the effects of perceived brand globalness (PBG) and localness (PBL) on key consumer-related outcomes in this stream of research: Perceptions of brand quality, prestige, competence, warmth, credibility as well as brand attitude and purchase intention. The need to meta-analytically integrate the results of previous studies arises due to apparent inconsistencies in effect sizes and directions. It is also unclear whether there is a difference between the effects of PBG and PBL on the key outcomes, thus, if PBG or PBL is associated more with any outcome. Moreover, the role of between-study moderators that can explain differing effect sizes and directions is uncertain. Based on 29 studies with independent samples, results reveal that (1) both PBG and PBL are significant and positive drivers of all key outcomes analyzed and (2) there is no difference between the effects of PBG and PBL on most key outcomes, with two exceptions: PBG is a stronger driver of brand prestige, while PBL is a stronger driver of brand warmth. Further, (3) moderation analyses show that the effects of PBG on brand quality and purchase intention decrease, as a country's level of globalization increases. This finding can be explained by consumer reactance toward globalization in more globalized countries. Overall, the results provide scholars an empirical overview of the current state of PBG/PBL research, showing how PBG/PBL relate to key outcomes, which future research can build on. Finally, the meta-analysis offers practitioners guidance on how to ideally capitalize on PBG/PBL depending on the brands they manage and markets they are active in.

Keywords: Perceived brand globalness, perceived brand localness, meta-analysis, literature review.

4.1 Introduction

Research on perceived brand globalness (PBG) and perceived brand localness (PBL) is a currently very dynamic area and one of the main sub streams in the global/local brand area. While PBG captures the degree to which consumers believe a brand to be consumed globally, PBL relates to consumers' perceptions, whether a brand is representing a specific local culture (e.g., Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003; Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012). To illustrate the strong academic interest in PBG/PBL research, a basic search in Web of Science using the search term "perceived brand globalness" yielded 61 results, of which 39% (24 articles) have been published between 2019 and 2020, whereas the remainder covers the period from 2003 to 2018. Overall, scholars have analyzed the effects of PBG/PBL on a variety of consumer related outcomes, such as customer loyalty (Baek et al. 2020), retail patronage (Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012) and willingness to buy (Keane and Morschett 2017). However, a handful frequently used outcomes play a central role, including, consumers' perceptions of brand quality or prestige (e.g., Özsomer 2012; Randrianasolo 2017; Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003), which represent the two main mechanisms in PBG/PBL research (Liu et al. 2021). Aside these, frequent outcomes are consumers' perceptions of brand competence, warmth, credibility, brand attitude and purchase intention (e.g., Davvetas and Halkias 2019; Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020), totaling seven recurring and key outcome variables.

Even though apparently both PBG and PBL have empirically been associated positively to these outcomes (e.g., Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003), a closer look reveals inconsistencies in findings. For example, while one article shows a negative effect of PBG on brand competence (Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016), another article finds a positive effect (Kolbl et al. 2020). Hence, empirical studies provide mixed results in this matter and are not clear cut, resulting in a reduced applicability and relevance for managers. Therefore, the overall aim of this article is to integrate empirical findings on the effects of PBG/PBL on key consumer-related outcome variables and to investigate whether the effects are positive and

significant. Since PBG/PBL research is such a dynamic field and a substantive number of articles has been published, a consolidation of the field would be beneficial to academics and practitioners. With this in mind, Liu et al. (2021) recently published a literature review of PBG/PBL field, which I aim to complement with an empirical overview. In particular, this article aims at the following research questions.

While mostly positive links between PBG/PBL and recurring outcomes (e.g., brand quality) have been established, it is unclear if either PBG or PBL is a stronger driver of any of these outcomes, or if both are similarly driving the outcomes. Since however PBG and PBL are two distinct brand dimensions (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008) and theoretically signal different brand characteristics, they might affect certain outcomes to a higher or lesser degree. Depending on whether they are investigating PBG or PBL, this can guide scholars to focus on the more substantiated and relevant outcomes in future studies. Answering this question can benefit practitioners as well. If brand managers want to nurture a specific outcome (e.g., position their brands as competent), meta-analytical results can provide them with guidance whether they can build on brand globalness and localness interchangeably, or if focusing on either dimension is more promising.

Moreover, previous studies show a variance in the strength of relations between PBG/PBL and the key outcomes. For example, the correlations of PBG and brand attitude vary from .013 (Guo, Heinberg, and Zou 2019) to .548 (Han 2016), indicating that single study results may depend on study characteristics (Viechtbauer 2010), such as country related differences or sample characteristics. Especially the former can be considered of interest for the international marketing domain, since many PBG/PBL studies have been conducted in a variety of countries. Detecting possible systematic differences between studies can help scholars to design their future work accordingly. On the other hand, brand managers can be provided with fine-grained guidance whether the effects of PBG/PBL on outcomes are context specific. For example, practitioners can be enabled to adjust their brand positioning and communication if

they want to achieve a specific outcome (e.g., increase perceptions of quality), according to characteristics of the market at hand (e.g., a country's level of globalization). Summarizing, the aim of this meta-analysis is to answer the following questions:

- (1) How do PBG and PBL drive key consumer-related outcome variables?
- (2) Is either PBG or PBL a stronger driver of key consumer-related outcomes?
- (3) Are there systematic differences between studies that can explain a potential variability of PBG/PBL's effects on key consumer-related outcome variables?

In an effort to shed light on these questions, I conduct a meta-analysis of the PBG/PBL literature. More specifically, I focus on the main and common seven outcomes that have been shown to be driven by PBG/PBL, namely consumers' perceptions and evaluations of (1) brand quality, (2) brand prestige, (3) brand warmth, (4) brand competence and (5) brand credibility as well as (6) brand attitude and (7) purchase intention. The meta-analysis includes 13 peer-reviewed and published PBG/PBL research articles, one dissertation and six unpublished studies of myself, amounting to a total of 29 studies.

Results reveal that PBG and PBL positively affect all analyzed outcome variables. Moreover, there is no difference between PBG and PBL in driving these outcomes, with two exceptions: PBG is a stronger driver of brand prestige, whereas PBL is a stronger driver of brand warmth. Further, I find significant moderations, especially regarding the correlations of PBG with brand quality and purchase intention. More precisely, the effect of PBG on brand quality and purchase intention decreases as countries become more globalized. These findings provide specific implications for managers who want to capitalize on PBG/PBL as strategic tools to influence perceptions of brand attributes, such as brand quality.

The article is structured as follows: After reviewing the conceptual background of PBG/PBL research, I will explain the methodology of the meta-analysis and present the results.

The research will conclude with a discussion of theoretical contributions, managerial implications as well as limitations of the meta-analysis and future research directions.

4.2 Conceptual Background

4.2.1 Overview of Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness

PBG and PBL are rooted in the paper of Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003) and found their way in many articles thereafter. PBG is defined as consumers' beliefs of whether a brand is available and consumed globally; on the other hand, PBL (or: brand local icon value, local brand iconness) captures the degree to which a brand represents a specific country and its culture (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003; Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012). Both constructs are not the poles of a single continuum but rather two distinct and independent brand dimensions (Dimofte, Johansson, and Ronkainen 2008). For instance, from the perspective of an American consumer, Nike might evoke high PBG and high PBL, since the brand is globally available and represents the United States and American values. Further, PBG/PBL are subjective, hence capture perceptions of consumers, rather than objective or actual brand globalness/localness. Consumer perceptions of a brand's globalness/localness can be formed either by consumers' own experiences (e.g., seeing a brand while traveling abroad) or by companies' marketing activities (e.g., ad campaigns with globalness claims) (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003).

The prevalent theoretical framework regarding PBG/PBL's effects on outcome variables is grounded in signaling theory (Liu et al. 2021). Rooted in information economics, signaling theory in branding research posits that markets are characterized by asymmetric information, creating consumer uncertainty about brand attributes (e.g., brand quality). Firms can try to mitigate this uncertainty by sending brand signals to consumers (Erdem and Swait 1998; Erdem, Swait, and Valenzuela 2006). As such, brand globalness/localness can serve as signals (Mandler 2019; Özsomer 2012; Sichtmann and Diamantopoulos 2013), which can then

be utilized by consumers. For example, brand globalness can serve as a quality signal, because consumers believe that only a brand of high quality will be used by consumers around the world, resulting in PBG driving consumers' perceptions of brand quality (Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003).

4.2.2 Key Outcomes of Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness

In the past, PBG/PBL have been repeatedly shown to drive consumers' evaluations of brand quality and prestige (e.g., Sichtmann and Diamantopoulos 2013; Xie, Batra, and Peng 2015) as well as brand attitude and purchase intention (e.g., Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016). More recent research also considered their effects on consumers' perceptions of brand competence (i.e., brands' capabilities and performance features), brand warmth (i.e., brands' ability to promote symbolic aspects, e.g., cultural Iconness; e.g., Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos 2019), and brand credibility (i.e., brands' ability and willingness to deliver on promises; e.g., Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020). Therefore, this meta-analysis concentrates on these seven key consumer-related outcomes since prior research has particularly focused on them.

Theoretically, consumers can utilize signals of brand globalness/localness by non-identity based or identity-based mechanisms. Non-identity based mechanisms relate to information processing and can especially explain direct links from PBG/PBL to brand related attributes. More precisely, brand globalness/localness are attributes through which other brand, product or service attributes can be evaluated (e.g., brand quality). Amongst others, one concrete theory relates to accessibility-diagnostics frameworks, for example, when PBG/PBL serve as accessible piece of information to diagnose attributes such as quality (Swoboda and Hirschmann 2016; Swoboda and Pennemann 2014; Swoboda, Pennemann, and Taube 2012). Scholars also drew on associative network memory models, in which PBG/PBL activate perviously stored associations in the minds of consumers (e.g., Özsomer 2012; Özsomer and

Altaras 2008). For example, a globalness signal can be beneficial for a brand if in the past consumers associated global brands with high quality. Particularly regarding the effects of PBG/PBL on brand competence and warmth, scholars utilized the stereotype content model, proposing that similarly to people, consumers relate to brands and stereotypically evaluate their competence and warmth (e.g., Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016; Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos 2019).

Identity-based mechanisms are usually grounded in Tajfel's (1974) social identity theory (SIT) and can especially explain direct links from PBG/PBL to brand attitude and purchase intention. More precisely, brands' globalness/localness can (1) be used by consumers to signal a specific social identity to others (e.g., a globally oriented social identity) or (2) correspond to and confirm consumers' self-identity/self-image, that is, how consumers want to see themselves (e.g., Sichtmann, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2019; Xie, Batra, and Peng 2015).

Regarding the effects of PBG/PBL on evaluations and perceptions of brand quality, prestige, competence, warmth, credibility as well as brand attitude and purchase intention, a review of empirical results shows somewhat inconsistent findings. Hence, the first question the meta-analysis aims to answer is whether PBG/PBL are indeed significantly and positively related to these outcomes. Further, since PBG and PBL are distinct brand dimensions but always appear together (i.e., any brand addresses both dimensions to some degree), the second question is if either dimension is a stronger driver of any of the outcomes. Answering this question can especially guide marketing managers in choosing between brand globalness or localness as strategic tool to influence perceptions of their brands.

4.2.3 Moderators

A look at previous studies apparently shows that PBG/PBL drive the key outcomes to different degrees, indicating that effects are not homogenous, hence, not generalizable. This opens the way to investigate systematic differences between studies to explain possible

variability in effect sizes and even effect directions. In the following, I will discuss two moderators, along with expectations of how they might influence the effects of PBG/PBL on the seven outcomes. Additionally, I will also address one methodological moderator as control variable.

Country level globalization: Since PBG/PBL research is embedded in the international marketing literature, studies have been conducted in a variety of countries (e.g., Austria, China, Saudi Arabia; e.g., Guo, Heinberg, and Zou 2019; Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos 2016; Hussein and Hassan 2018) including multi-country studies (e.g., Germany and South Korea; Mandler, Bartsch, and Han 2020). Hence, country level variables could explain variance in effect sizes between studies.

Furthermore, in recent years, an increasing negative sentiment towards globalization can be observed in globalized countries (Ghemawat 2017), which could also apply to consumption, causing different consumer reactions to brand globalness/localness in more vs. less globalized countries. These differing consumer reactions can be explained with reactance, triggered by globalization forces. Rooted in Brehm's (1966) theory of psychological reactance, "consumer reactance occurs when a consumer feels lack of control over their choice and when behavioral freedom is threatened" (Amarnath and Jaidev 2020, p. 41). Reactance can lead to mental (e.g., judgmental) or behavioral changes (e.g., hostile behavior) (Amarnath and Jaidev 2020; Brehm 1966; Wendlandt and Schrader 2007). Consumers in globalized societies and therefore with a longer history of globalization might have a variety of brands to choose from. However, these consumers might perceive the historically stronger presence of globally popular brands as a threat to their freedom. This could result in reactance and decrease (increase) the effects of brand globalness (localness) on outcome variables.

On the other hand, it is often argued that consumers in emerging countries generally strive for globality or global symbols in their consumption, as they want to participate in and belong to a global consumer culture (Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Steenkamp, Batra, and

Alden 2003). Thus, consumers in less globalized countries might react favorably toward brand globalness and less favorably toward localness, which in sum leads to the first proposition:

Proposition 1: The effects of PBG (PBL) on key outcomes become weaker (stronger), as the level of a country's globalization increases.

Sample: Studies in PBG/PBL research also differ regarding the type of sample used, that is, student and non-student samples. Naturally, student samples correspond to younger age groups, while non-student consumers represent older age groups. Prior research indicates that younger consumers are more cosmopolitan (e.g., Riefler, Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw 2012; Sobol, Cleveland, and Laroche 2018) and oriented towards a global consumer culture (e.g., Nijssen and Douglas 2011). An explanation for these findings is the notion that younger consumers are exposed more to global media and technology (Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2011). On the other hand, research generally indicates that older consumers show more ethnocentric tendencies (e.g., Shankarmahesh 2006). Therefore, theoretically rooted in the previously discussed identity-based mechanisms (see section 4.2.2 Key Outcomes of Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness), I deduct the second proposition:

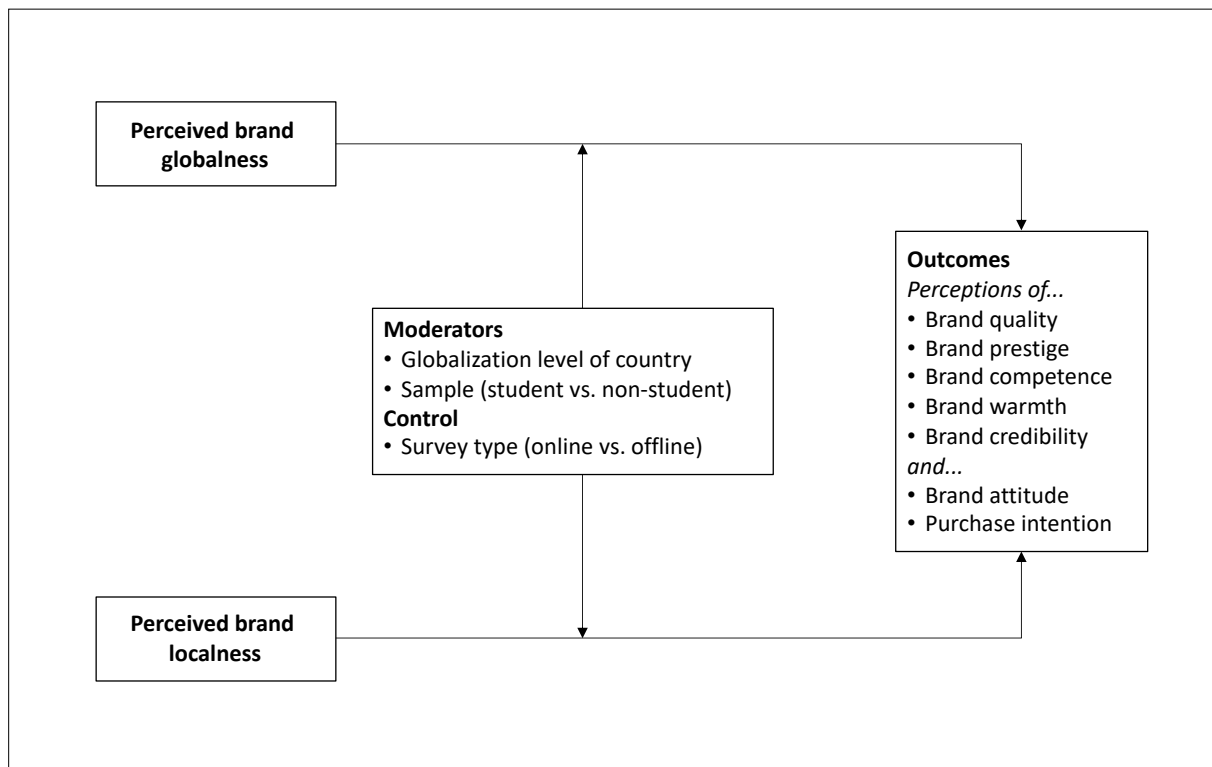
Proposition 2: Brand globalness (localness) should appeal more to student (non-student) samples, leading to stronger effects of PBG (PBL) on outcomes.

Method (control variable): To account for between study variations of effects, it is common for meta-analyses to include methodological differences (e.g., Eisend, 2006, 2010). PBG/PBL research is usually conducted with online or offline data collection, which sometimes can even vary within articles (e.g., Sichtmann and Diamantopoulos 2013). In survey research, results can be influenced by a social desirability bias (SDB), which occurs when respondents' actual attitudes, values or behaviors differ from their answers to survey questions (Larson 2019). One form of SDB is impression management, that is, when respondents want to "look

better” to others (Larson 2019; de Vries, Zettler, and Hilbig 2014). SDB and impression management are a particular issue for offline (vs. online) surveys and can be caused by the interaction between researchers and respondents (Grimm 2010; Larson 2019). Hence, SDB could potentially explain different effect sizes between online and offline studies in PBG/PBL research.

Since I consider the online vs. offline method solely as a control variable, I do not aim to derive and test a specific proposition in this regard. Figure 4.1 summarizes the conceptual model of the meta-analysis.

Figure 4.1 Conceptual model of the meta-analysis



4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Literature Search, Study Inclusion Criteria and Data Extraction

To gather data for the meta-analysis, I first conducted a literature search of published and peer-reviewed research articles in Web of Science and EBSCO, using the search terms “perceived brand globalness”, “perceived brand localness”, “brand icon*” and “local icon*”.

I included the latter two search terms because some research uses these instead of the term “perceived brand localness” (e.g., Özsomer 2012). Note that the asterisks in the search terms capture different variations of the terms (e.g., “icon*” captures the terms icon, icons and iconness, among others). While allowing for every publication outlet or date toward the past, I included articles that were published until December 31, 2020. This search resulted in a total of 76 research articles.

Next, I applied the following study/manuscript inclusion criteria. Naturally, articles had to be empirical for the meta-analysis. Further, survey type studies are typical in PBG/PBL research, and most articles provide correlational data on the analyzed variables. Therefore, articles had to provide correlations of PBG or PBL with any of the variables in the conceptual model (see Figure 4.1). Finally, only articles that capture the constructs of the conceptual model in a similar manner were to be retained (i.e., articles that labeled a construct as PBG but measured perceived product globalness instead of brand globalness were excluded). This procedure yielded 13 peer-reviewed and published research papers.

Equivalently, I also searched for master or dissertation theses using the platforms Ebscohost open dissertations, OATD, PQDT as well as the library of the University of Vienna. The latter was especially relevant, since Adamantios Diamantopoulos supervised many master/dissertation theses with a focus on PBG/PBL. This search added one usable dissertation to the meta-analytical sample, resulting in a total of 14 manuscripts.

Some manuscripts conducted research on multiple independent samples (i.e., studies with differing respondents), which can be treated as independent studies in a meta-analysis (Gremier et al. 2020). Thus, derived from the 14 manuscripts, the literature search procedure provided 23 studies for the meta-analysis.

I supplemented these with six unpublished studies of my own research. The final sample (see Table 4.1) hence amounts to a total of 29 studies with independent samples and a cumulative sample size of 8,239 respondents. It is important to note that not all meta-analytic

relations of interest (see Figure 4.1) were analyzed in all these studies. For example, Baek et al. (2017) contribute only one correlation (i.e., PBG with purchase intention) to the meta-analysis, whereas Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos (2016) contribute eight correlations (i.e., PBG and PBL with brand competence, warmth, attitude and purchase intention).

Table 4.1 Overview of the meta-analytical sample and variables included in each research

Source	Type*	Studies**	Provides correlations of IV and outcome										
			IV		Outcome								
			PBG	PBL	BQ	BP	BC	BW	BCr	BA	PI		
Baek et al. (2017)	Article	1	x									x	
Davvetas and Halkias (2019)	Article	2	x	x				x	x			x	
Guo, Heinberg, and Zou (2019)	Article	1	x			x	x					x	
Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos (2016)	Article	1	x	x				x	x			x	x
Hussein and Hassan (2018)	Article	1	x			x	x						
Kolbl et al. (2020)	Article	2	x	x				x	x			x	
Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos (2019)	Article	2	x	x				x	x			x	
Mandler, Bartsch, and Han (2020)	Article	4	x	x		x	x				x		
Sichtmann, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos (2019)	Article	2	x	x		x						x	
Sichtmann and Diamantopoulos (2013)	Article	2	x			x							
Swoboda and Pennemann (2014)	Article	1	x			x							
Vuong and Khanh Giao (2020)	Article	1	x			x	x				x	x	
Xie, Batra, and Peng (2015)	Article	1	x	x		x	x						
Son (2013)	Dissertation	2	x	x		x							
Own unpublished studies	-	6	x	x		x	x	x	x	x	x	x	

Notes: IV = independent variable, BQ = brand quality, BP = brand prestige, BC = brand competence, BW = brand warmth, BCr = brand credibility, BA = brand attitude, PI = purchase intention; * Articles were peer-reviewed and published; ** Contains only the number of studies (with independent samples) that are relevant for the meta-analysis and therefore may not be equivalent to the actual number of studies in each manuscript.

I extracted all necessary and relevant information from the sample, including correlations between all constructs in the conceptual model, construct reliabilities and study characteristics (e.g., sample size, country in which study was conducted). Finally, I also coded the three moderators (globalization level of country, student vs. non-student sample, online vs.

offline data collection method), which Table 4.2 summarizes. For the globalization level moderator, I obtained each country's 2018 de facto KOF globalization index (Gygli et al. 2019).

Table 4.2 Coding of studies

Study	N	Country	Moderators		
			Global*	Sample	Method
Baek et al. (2017)	382	South Korea	76.10	Student	Offline
Davvetas and Halkias (2019) (1)	238	Austria	87.15	Non-student	Offline
Davvetas and Halkias (2019) (2)	273	Austria	87.15	Non-student	Offline
Guo, Heinberg, and Zou (2019)	646	China	62.59	Non-student	Offline
Halkias, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos (2016)	253	Austria	87.15	Non-student	Offline
Hussein and Hassan (2018)	319	Saudi Arabia	68.73	Student	Offline
Kolbl et al. (2020) (1)	203	Slovenia	77.53	Non-student	Online
Kolbl et al. (2020) (2)	192	Bosnia & Herzegovina	65.15	Non-student	Online
Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos (2019) (1)	243	Austria	87.15	Non-student	Offline
Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, and Diamantopoulos (2019) (2)	95	Bulgaria	76.30	Non-student	Online
Mandler, Bartsch, and Han (2020) (1)	372	South Korea	76.10	Student	Online
Mandler, Bartsch, and Han (2020) (2)	336	Germany	87.00	Student	Online
Mandler, Bartsch, and Han (2020) (3)	356	South Korea	76.10	Non-student	Online
Mandler, Bartsch, and Han (2020) (4)	335	Germany	87.00	Non-student	Online
Sichtmann, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos (2019) (1)	150	Austria	87.15	Non-student	Offline
Sichtmann, Davvetas, and Diamantopoulos (2019) (2)	302	Bulgaria	76.30	Non-student	Online
Sichtmann and Diamantopoulos (2013) (1)	301	Austria	87.15	Non-student	Offline
Sichtmann and Diamantopoulos (2013) (2)	302	Bulgaria	76.30	Non-student	Online
Swoboda and Pennemann (2014)	990	China	62.59	Non-student	Offline
Vuong and Khanh Giao (2020)	613	Vietnam	68.73	Non-student	On/Off
Xie, Batra, and Peng (2015)	287	China	62.59	Non-student	Offline
Son (2013) (1)	287	USA	77.61	Student	Online
Son (2013) (2)	256	India	59.90	Student	Online
Own study (2017)	53	Germany	87.00	Non-student	Offline
Own study (2018)	97	Germany	87.00	Non-student	Offline
Own study (2019) (1)	180	Germany	87.00	Student	Online
Own study (2019) (2)	250	Germany	87.00	Non-student	Online
Own study (2019) (3)	191	Germany	87.00	Non-student	Online
Own study (2020)	190	France	84.75	Non-student	Online

Notes: On/Off = online and offline; * KOF Globalization Index (de facto) 2018 (sample min = 59.90, max = 87.15, mean = 74.30).

Of the 29 studies in the sample, 76% (= 22 studies) analyze multiple product categories, industries and brands but provide aggregated correlational data. Further, all studies focus on a B2C setting and were conducted across twelve countries, covering North America, Europe, the Middle East, and Asia. Roughly 24% (= seven studies) use student samples and 52 percent (= 15 studies) collected the data using online channels.

4.3.2 Effect Size Integration

As effect size metric I chose the correlation coefficient, which is the mostly used metric in meta-analyses in the marketing literature (Eisend 2006). As such, higher correlational values between two variables indicate stronger effects. Following standard meta-analytical procedure in marketing research, I adjusted each correlation for measurement error of the individual constructs, using the method of Hunter and Schmidt (2004). More precisely, I divided each correlation of two constructs (r_{XY}) by the product of the square root of their reliabilities (r_{XX} and r_{YY}) (Gremier et al. 2020; Rosengren et al. 2020; Van Vaerenbergh, Hazée, and Costers 2018). Some manuscripts did not report reliabilities or measured constructs with a single item. In these cases, I imputed a mean reliability across all studies for the respective construct (Rosengren et al. 2020). Next, I weighted the reliability-corrected correlations by sample size to correct for sampling error (Hunter and Schmidt 2004).

To address publication bias, I calculated each meta-analytic correlation's fail-safe N value, which indicates the number of studies needed to flip a significant meta-analytical correlation insignificant (Rosenthal 1979). Moreover, to uncover potential heterogeneity of correlations across studies, I conducted homogeneity tests using the Q-statistic. A significant homogeneity test indicates that variability of correlations across studies might be caused by between study differences, hence, moderators (Huedo-Medina et al. 2006; Rosengren et al. 2020).

4.3.3 Meta-Analytic Comparison Between Perceived Brand Globalness and Localness and Moderator Analyses

To adequately compare the correlations of PBG and PBL with a particular outcome (i.e., research question 2), potential dependencies of data must be considered. This issue arises because (a) some studies only provide correlations of one independent variable (i.e., either PBG or PBL) with an outcome, whereas (b) other studies provide correlations of both independent variables (i.e., PBG and PBL) with the same outcome. In the latter case, the same respondents provide two correlations (e.g., PBG/purchase intention and PBL/purchase intention), which represents dependent data (Cheung 2019; Hox 2010). Additionally, regarding (b), aside the correlations of both PBG and PBL with a specific outcome, I also included the correlations between PBG and PBL due to the same dependency reason. In sum, I ran multivariate meta-regressions (Cheung 2019; Hedges and Olkin 1985) to obtain correlations of (1) PBG and (2) PBL with a specific outcome, accounting also for (3) the correlations of PBG and PBL, omitting the intercept. In a final step, I calculated contrasts between (1) and (2) to test whether PBG or PBL is a stronger driver of the outcome at hand. I repeated this procedure separately for each outcome variable.

Regarding the moderation analyses (i.e., research question 3), I ran separate meta-regression models for each independent and outcome variable. Due to the limited number of studies for most outcomes, I analyzed PBG/PBL's effects only in respect to brand quality (19 effects for PBG, nine effects for PBL) and purchase intention (16 and twelve effects respectively). Hence, the moderation analyses comprise of four models. I included the two moderators (i.e., globalization level of country and sample) as well as the control variable (i.e., method) simultaneously in each model. The meta-regressions consist of two levels, in which level one represents within study variance (i.e., differences between respondents within studies) and level two represents cross study variance (i.e., differences between studies) (Gremmler et al. 2020). Because the moderators represent fixed effects in addition to random

effects, these models were mixed-effects models (Rosengren et al. 2020). Even though I expected the moderators to work in certain directions, I conducted two-tailed tests.

4.4 Results

Meta-analytic correlations of PBG/PBL with outcomes: Table 4.3 reports the integrated correlations of PBG and the seven outcome variables. The effects of PBG on all outcomes are positive and highly significant (all p-values < .001), except for brand warmth and brand attitude, which are still well below common thresholds ($p < .05$ and $< .01$ respectively). Further, the Q-statistic indicates heterogeneity across studies for all effects (all p-values < .001), pointing towards systematic differences between studies.

Table 4.3 Meta-analytic correlations of perceived brand globalness with outcome variables

Correlation of IV and DV	k	N	Mean r	p	LLCI	ULCI	Homogeneity test Q	Fail-safe N
Perceived brand globalness								
Brand quality	19	6,105	.343***	<.000	.226	.461	394.183***	6,103
Brand prestige	6	1,780	.559***	<.000	.407	.711	104.628***	2,555
Brand competence	9	2,027	.273***	<.000	.160	.385	66.434***	644
Brand warmth	8	1,777	.118*	.012	.026	.211	29.757***	83
Brand credibility	6	2,262	.261***	.000	.126	.395	69.797***	374
Brand attitude	8	1,860	.157**	.001	.063	.252	25.690***	171
Purchase intention	16	3,722	.290***	<.000	.199	.381	12.695***	1,962
<i>Sum</i>	<i>72</i>	<i>19,533</i>						

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; IV = independent variable, DV = dependent variable, k = number of effect sizes, N = cumulative sample size, mean r = reliability-corrected and sample size-weighted correlation, LLCI and ULCI = upper and lower-level confidence intervals; The fail-safe N is computed at a significance level of 5%; The tests are based on separate models (one row = one model). E.g., the correlation of perceived brand globalness and brand quality is one model without any other variable considered.

Similarly, the effects of PBL on all outcomes are as well positive and significant (all p-values < .001; see Table 4.4). The only exception is PBL's effect on brand prestige, which however is still significant ($p < .01$). Yet again, the homogeneity tests (all p-values < .001) point towards variance of effect sizes between studies and therefore systematic differences. The only exception is the effect of PBL on brand attitude, which is statistically homogenous across

studies ($p > .10$). Summarizing, these results clearly answer the first research question: both PBG and PBL positively and significantly drive the investigated seven outcome variables.

Table 4.4 Meta-analytic correlations of perceived brand localness with outcome variables

Correlation of IV and DV	k	N	Mean r	p	LLCI	ULCI	Homogeneity test Q	Fail-safe N
Perceived brand localness								
Brand quality	9	2,241	.324***	<.000	.170	.479	162.734***	1,197
Brand prestige	4	287	.250**	.003	.087	.413	26.555***	105
Brand competence	9	2,027	.236***	<.000	.129	.344	58.609***	520
Brand warmth	8	1,777	.300***	<.000	.169	.430	7.561***	695
Brand credibility	5	1,649	.277***	<.000	.183	.370	22.343***	288
Brand attitude	5	1,064	.281***	<.000	.223	.340	2.954	160
Purchase intention	12	2,577	.310***	<.000	.217	.402	74.802***	1,301
<i>Sum</i>	52	11,622						

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; IV = independent variable, DV = dependent variable, k = number of effect sizes, N = cumulative sample size, mean r = reliability-corrected and sample size-weighted correlation, LLCI and ULCI = upper and lower-level confidence intervals; The fail-safe N is computed at a significance level of 5%; The tests are based on separate models (one row = one model). E.g., the correlation of perceived brand globalness and brand quality is one model without any other variable considered.

Comparison between PBG and PBL: Research question two asked if PBG or PBL is a stronger driver of any particular outcome. To answer this question, the analytical procedure requires that the difference of meta-analytical correlations of PBG and PBL with a particular outcome is unequal zero (i.e., $r_{\text{PBG, outcome } y} - r_{\text{PBL, outcome } y} \neq 0$). Table 4.5 shows the results of the analyses. Differences between PBG and PBL regarding their effects on brand quality, competence, credibility, and purchase intention are insignificant (all p-values $> .10$). On the other hand, the correlation of PBG and brand prestige is significantly higher than PBL and brand prestige ($r_{\text{PBG, prestige}} = .556$, $r_{\text{PBL, prestige}} = .262$, difference = .294, $p < .01$). Further, PBL and brand warmth are correlated stronger than PBG and brand warmth ($r_{\text{PBG, warmth}} = .140$, $r_{\text{PBL, warmth}} = .326$, difference = $-.186$, $p < .05$). Finally, while not significant at the five percent level, PBL has a slightly stronger correlation with brand attitude ($r_{\text{PBG, attitude}} = .19$, $r_{\text{PBL, attitude}} = .301$, difference = $-.111$, $p < .10$). Therefore, answering research question two, the analysis shows that PBG is a stronger driver of brand prestige, whereas PBL is a stronger driver of brand warmth, and a possibly (slightly) stronger driver of brand attitude.

Table 4.5 Multivariate meta-regressions to compare the effects of perceived brand globalness and localness

Outcome variable Independent variable	k	Coeff. ^r	SE	z-value	p	LLCI	ULCI
Brand quality (Model A)	37						
(I) Perceived brand globalness		.307***	.049	6.289	<.0001	.212	.403
(II) Perceived brand localness		.295***	.059	5.002	<.0001	.179	.410
(I) – (II)		.013	.094	.137	.891		
<i>Interpretation:</i>		<i>No difference between PBG and PBL regarding brand quality.</i>					
Brand prestige (Model B)	14						
(I) Perceived brand globalness		.556***	.073	7.613	<.0001	.413	.699
(II) Perceived brand localness		.262**	.082	3.193	.001	.101	.422
(I) – (II)		.294**	.099	2.973	.003		
<i>Interpretation:</i>		<i>PBG (vs. PBL) is a stronger driver of brand prestige.</i>					
Brand competence (Model C)	27						
(I) Perceived brand globalness		.291***	.058	5.025	<.000	.178	.404
(II) Perceived brand localness		.262***	.053	4.950	<.000	.158	.366
(I) – (II)		.029	.058	.494	.621		
<i>Interpretation:</i>		<i>No difference between PBG and PBL regarding brand competence.</i>					
Brand warmth (Model D)	24						
(I) Perceived brand globalness		.140**	.048	2.931	.003	.046	.234
(II) Perceived brand localness		.326***	.071	4.599	<.000	.187	.464
(I) – (II)		-.186*	.087	-2.143	.032		
<i>Interpretation:</i>		<i>PBL (vs. PBG) is a stronger driver of brand warmth.</i>					
Brand credibility (Model E)	16						
(I) Perceived brand globalness		.238***	.067	3.539	.000	.106	.370
(II) Perceived brand localness		.265***	.047	5.583	<.000	.172	.357
(I) – (II)		-.026	.103	-.255	.799		
<i>Interpretation:</i>		<i>No difference between PBG and PBL regarding brand credibility.</i>					
Brand attitude (Model F)	18						
(I) Perceived brand globalness		.190***	.042	4.547	<.000	.108	.272
(II) Perceived brand localness		.301***	.029	1.504	<.000	.245	.357
(I) – (II)		-.111 ⁺	.058	-1.907	.057		
<i>Interpretation:</i>		<i>No difference between PBG and PBL regarding brand attitude.</i>					
Purchase intention (Model G)	40						
(I) Perceived brand globalness		.276***	.040	6.898	<.000	.197	.354
(II) Perceived brand localness		.318***	.041	7.846	<.000	.238	.397
(I) – (II)		-.042	.053	-.794	.427		
<i>Interpretation:</i>		<i>No difference between PBG and PBL regarding purchase intention.</i>					

Notes: k = number of effect sizes, ^r reliability-corrected correlation obtained by a multivariate meta-regression, SE = standard error, LLCI and ULCI = upper and lower-level confidence intervals; ⁺ p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001; The intercept was omitted; Due to dependency of data, correlations of PBG with PBL were included in each model but are not displayed in the table.

Moderator analyses: Next, Table 4.6 shows the results of the moderator analyses with PBG as independent variable. As expected in Proposition 1, a country's level of globalization negatively moderates the correlations of PBG with brand quality and purchase intention ($b_{r(\text{PBG}, \text{quality}): \text{Globalization}} = -.016$, $b_{r(\text{PBG}, \text{purchase intention}): \text{Globalization}} = -.016$, both p -values $< .01$). This indicates that consumers in more globalized countries devalue brand globalness. This finding is robust, as a model with only the globalization moderator (excluding other variables) yielded the same result (see Table 4.7).

The expectation of Proposition 2 was only met partially. As anticipated, the correlation of PBG and brand quality is positively moderated by student (vs. non-student) samples ($b = .219$, $p < .01$). However, student (vs. non-student) samples had no effect on the correlation of PBG and purchase intention ($b = -.046$, $p > .10$). Therefore, while students reward brand globalness with higher evaluations of quality, the data does not indicate the same for purchase intention.

Table 4.6 Moderator analysis of correlations between perceived brand globalness and outcome variables

	Correlation of perceived brand globalness and...					
	Brand quality (Model 1, $k = 19$)			Purchase intention (Model 2, $k = 16$)		
Predictor	Coeff.^c	SE	p	Coeff.^c	SE	p
Residual heterogeneity	.009 ^{***} (SE = .004)			.006 ^{***} (SE = .004)		
Intercept ^a	.366 ^{***}	.048	<.001	.411 ^{***}	.041	<.001
Globalization level of country ^b	-.016 ^{***}	.003	<.001	-.016 ^{***}	.003	<.001
Student sample	.219 ^{**}	.069	.001	-.046	.077	.551
<i>Control: method</i>						
Offline survey	-.112	.068	.100	-.052	.053	.325
Offline and online survey	-.230 ⁺	.118	.051	-	-	-

⁺ $p < .10$, ^{*} $p < .05$, ^{**} $p < .01$, ^{***} $p < .001$; ^a The intercept represents: (1) A mean KOF Globalization Index of 74.30 (across all countries in sample), (2) non-student samples and (3) online surveys; ^b mean centered; ^c unstandardized estimate, based on reliability-corrected and sample size weighted correlations.

Table 4.7 Moderator analysis of correlations between perceived brand globalness and outcome variables (robustness check)

Predictor	Correlation of perceived brand globalness and...					
	Brand quality (Model R1, k = 19)			Purchase intention (Model R2, k = 16)		
	Coeff. ^c	SE	p	Coeff. ^c	SE	p
Residual heterogeneity	.02*** (SE = .008)			.006*** (SE = .004)		
Intercept ^a	.323***	.039	<.001	.375***	.037	<.001
Globalization level of country ^b	-.013***	.004	<.001	-.016***	.004	<.001

*** $p < .001$; ^a The intercept represents a mean KOF Globalization Index of 74.30 (across all countries in sample); ^b mean centered; ^c unstandardized estimate, based on reliability-corrected and sample size weighted correlations.

Regarding the moderations with PBL as independent variable (see Table 4.8), the globalization level moderator partially met Proposition 1. As proposed, a country's globalization level positively moderates role the relation of PBL and brand quality, which however is only slightly significant ($b = .012$, $p < .10$). Note that a simpler regression model (see Model R3 in Table 4.9) with country globalization level as only moderator pushed this significance level below the five percent threshold. Further, the data shows no significant moderation by globalization level on the correlation of PBL and purchase intention ($b = -.006$, $p > .10$). Overall, these findings indicate that consumers in more globalized countries might lean towards rewarding brand localness with higher brand quality perceptions, whereas there is no effect on the relation of brand localness and purchase intention.

Next, the analysis reveals that student (vs. non-student) samples have no moderating role on the relations between PBL with brand quality or purchase intention. While the data shows the expected negative direction for PBL's correlation with both brand quality and purchase intention, the effects are not significant ($b_{r(\text{PBL}, \text{quality}): \text{student sample}} = -.238$, $b_{r(\text{PBL}, \text{purchase intention}): \text{student sample}} = -.104$, both p -values $> .10$). Hence, the data does not show that student samples devalue brand localness with lower quality perceptions and purchase intention.

Table 4.8 Moderator analysis of correlations between perceived brand localness and outcome variables

Predictor	Correlation of perceived brand localness and...					
	Brand quality (Model 3, k = 9)			Purchase intention (Model 4, k = 12)		
	Coeff. ^c	SE	p	Coeff. ^c	SE	p
Residual heterogeneity	.016 ^{***} (SE = .009)			.012 ^{***} (SE = .007)		
Intercept ^a	.286 ^{***}	.083	<.001	.386 ^{***}	.054	<.001
Globalization level of country ^b	.012 ⁺	.007	.071	-.006	.006	.330
Student sample	-.238	.161	.139	-.104	.151	.488
<i>Control: method</i>						
Offline survey	-.099	.135	.462	-.061	.097	.533

+ p < .10, *** p < .001; ^a The intercept represents: (1) A mean KOF Globalization Index of 74.30 (across all countries in sample), (2) non-student samples and (3) online surveys; ^b mean centered; ^c unstandardized estimate, based on reliability-corrected and sample size weighted correlations.

Table 4.9 Moderator analysis of correlations between perceived brand localness and outcome variables (robustness check)

Predictor	Correlation of perceived brand localness and...					
	Brand quality (Model R3, k = 9)			Purchase intention (Model R4, k = 12)		
	Coeff. ^c	SE	p	Coeff. ^c	SE	p
Residual heterogeneity	.021 ^{***} (SE = .009)			.013 ^{***} (SE = .007)		
Intercept ^a	.242 ^{***}	.071	<.001	.377 ^{***}	.054	<.001
Globalization level of country ^b	.013 [*]	.007	.045	-.008 ⁺	.005	.096

+ p < .10, * p < .05, *** p < .001; ^a The intercept represents a mean KOF Globalization Index of 74.30 (across all countries in sample); ^b mean centered; ^c unstandardized estimate, based on reliability-corrected and sample size weighted correlations.

Finally, the control variable accounting for studies' method of data collection (i.e., online vs. offline vs. both) is insignificant throughout (see Table 4.6 and Table 4.8, all p-values > .10). The only slight exception is the correlation of PBG and brand quality (Model 1 in Table 4.6), where joint offline and online surveys (vs. online only) show a potential negative influence (b = -.23, p = < .10). However, since only one study used a combination of

online and offline surveys, this result should not be overinterpreted. I therefore conclude that the methodological control did not influence the results.

4.5 Discussion

In this article, I offer an empirical synthesis of the effects of PBG/PBL on frequently used and key outcome variables. The meta-analysis shows that despite some apparent inconsistencies between studies, both PBG and PBL positively and significantly drive consumers' evaluations and perceptions of brand quality, prestige, competence, warmth, credibility as well as brand attitude and purchase intention. Furthermore, the effects of PBG and PBL on brand quality, competence, credibility, brand attitude and purchase intention are statistically not different. Hence, neither PBG nor PBL is a stronger driver of these outcomes. However, the data also shows that PBG is a stronger driver of brand prestige, whereas PBL is a stronger driver of brand warmth. Finally, the results indicate that a country's level of globalization moderates the effects of PBG on brand quality and purchase intention. Specifically, a rising level of globalization decreases the effect of PBG on quality evaluations and purchase intention. This indicates that consumers in more (vs. less) globalized countries react less favorably toward brand globalness, which theoretically can be explained through reactance caused by globalization. Further, the type of sample used (i.e., student vs. non-student) showed mixed results, whereas the method of data collection (online vs. offline vs. both) had no effects.

4.5.1 Theoretical Contributions

Overall, this research contributes the global/local brand literature by integrating previous empirical findings for the first time, providing a broader picture of how PBG/PBL affect key consumer-related outcome variables. Hence, in combination with a very recent qualitative literature review on PBG/PBL (Liu et al. 2021), this meta-analysis offers an

empirical overview of research results in this area, which scholars can generally build their future research on.

Moreover, this meta-analysis contributes to literature by demonstrating that PBL is of similar relevance as PBG. The comparison between PBG and PBL and their effects on the outcomes analyzed indicates that scholars focused more on PBG than PBL in their research, since the meta-analysis contains 72 effects for PBG and 52 effects for PBL. However, as the results show, PBL appears to be equivalent in driving most outcomes, aside two exceptions (i.e., brand prestige and warmth). This implies that future research should increasingly investigate and compare both PBG and PBL in studies, rather than focusing on just one of them.

Moreover, while literature provides arguments of why PBG might affect any given outcome, future research should investigate through which mechanisms PBL drives these outcomes. For instance, research argues that PBG increases perceptions of brand quality because consumers infer a better quality if many consumers around the world use a brand (e.g., Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004). Since I show that PBL drives quality perceptions to a similar degree, uncovering which mechanisms are specific for PBL should be addressed by future research.

Further, I contribute to PBG/PBL research by introducing countries' globalization level as a moderator. Globalization conceptually corresponds especially to PBG and therefore suits better to explain brand globalness related effects. This might be the reason why this moderator was highly significant in respect to PBG's effects on brand quality and purchase intention. While previous studies attempted to explain country differences with macroeconomic moderators such as countries' economic development, results were inconsistent (Liu et al. 2021). Conversely, I show that the globalization level of a country explains different results between countries. In line with reactance theory, results indicate that in more globalized countries, brand globalness is a weaker driver of consumers' brand quality evaluations and purchase intentions. An explanation for this finding is that consumers in such countries might

perceive that globalization limits their freedom of choice, which decreases the effects of PBG. Hence, a country's globalization level offers scholars a moderator to understand how PBG's effects on outcomes differs across countries. This finding should be investigated in future research by analyzing robustness regarding further outcome variables. Moreover, I also analyzed if effect sizes were depending on student vs. non-student samples. However, these analyses did not yield consistent differences between the two groups, relativizing a recent call for including young consumers/students in PBG/PBL studies (Liu et al. 2021).

On a more general note, even if this article shows that PBG/PBL are drivers of the outcomes analyzed, research on antecedents of PBG/PBL still barely exists (Liu et al. 2021). This notion especially holds for PBL, since to the best of my knowledge, its antecedents were not investigated yet. On the other hand, for PBG at least some experimental manipulations have been conducted that influenced the degree of PBG, such as claims of "worldwide availability" (Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015) as well as the use of English language or globally prominent testimonials (De Meulenaer, Dens, and De Pelsmacker 2015). Yet, these are rather rare instances and should be further investigated in future research to provide managers strategies for developing PBG/PBL related communication activities.

4.5.2 Managerial Implications

The results of the meta-analysis provide brand managers insights about fruitful brand positioning and communication strategies. First, both brand globalness and localness are two brand dimensions that drive the key consumer-related outcomes positively. Thus, generally, brand globalness and/or localness can be viable tools to increase consumers' evaluations of brand quality, prestige, competence, warmth, credibility or even brand attitude and purchase intention. Especially regarding consumers who show reactance toward ad messages (Amarnath and Jaidev 2020), this finding implies that rather than using direct messages to influence a particular outcome (e.g., claims of "high quality" to increase quality evaluations), managers

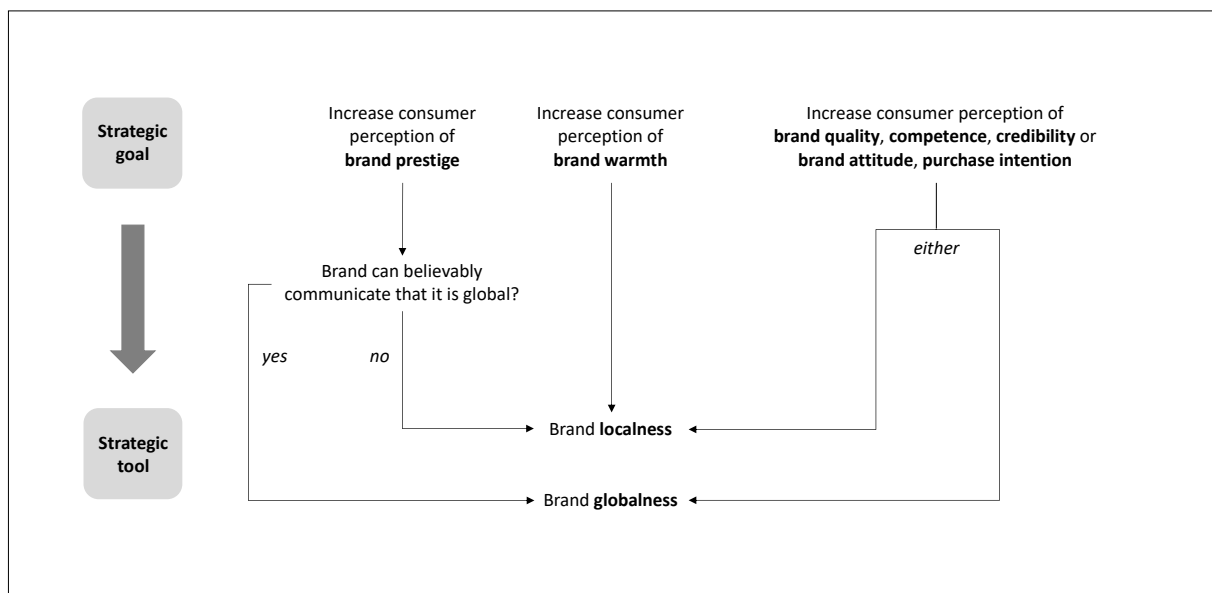
can utilize brand globalness/localness as more “subtle” approaches to drive the investigated outcomes. Additionally, brand globalness/localness can be seen as higher order cues that simultaneously drive a bundle of outcomes (e.g., brand quality and warmth), rather than a specific outcome only (see the example above: an explicit “high quality” claim mostly should drive quality perceptions).

It is noteworthy, that in general the utilization of brand globalness/localness as strategic marketing tools pose a potential source of competitive disadvantage for smaller/non-global brands over global brands. Such competitive disadvantage may arise from the notion that while many brands can signal localness to consumers, not all brands can realistically signal brand globalness. For instance, while large global brands (e.g., McDonald’s) capitalize on their global image, they can and do also locally adapt (e.g., country/culture specific advertising). Similarly, a hamburger restaurant active in only one city is likely to signal localness to its guests. However, communicating brand globalness may not be a feasible strategy for this brand since consumers might not believe such globalness claims. Thus, promoting brand localness is the only realistic option for smaller/non-global brands. Yet, the meta-analysis shows that both brand globalness and localness equally influence evaluations and perceptions of brand quality, competence, credibility as well as brand attitude and purchase intention. Therefore, even if smaller/non-global brands can’t practically utilize the tool of brand globalness, they can equally influence the afore mentioned outcomes by building on brand localness. From the perspective of a brand that can believably build on a globalness or localness strategy, this finding provides freedom of choosing between the two strategic tools.

Results also indicate that PBG/PBL drive the outcomes brand prestige and warmth to different degrees. To increase perceptions of brand prestige, the data shows that communicating brand globalness is be a better strategy. As laid out above, smaller/non-global brands may be limited in believably communicating globalness. Hence, when the goal is to increase prestige perceptions, smaller brands face a potential competitive disadvantage compared to global

brands. On the bright side, even to a lesser degree, managers of these brands can still exploit brand localness to positively influence perceptions of prestige. Conversely, if managers want to increase the perception of their brands as warm, brand localness is the better strategy to opt for. Naturally, this option suits smaller/non-global brands but might not lead to a competitive advantage, because global brands can viably utilize a brand localness strategy as well. Figure 4.2 summarizes the above and can guide managers on whether to utilize brand globalness or localness as strategic tool, depending on the pursued strategic goal (e.g., position their brand as warm).

Figure 4.2 Decision-making guidance for managers



Lastly, the analyses also provide implications for international brand managers. Results show that the effects of PBG on brand quality and purchase intention are lower in countries with higher levels of globalization (e.g., France). This suggests that in such countries, consumers penalize brand globalness with lower quality perceptions and purchase intention. In turn, in less globalized countries (e.g., India), consumers tend to reward brand globalness with higher quality perceptions and purchase intention. Hence, to promote their brands' quality, international brand managers should adapt the use of globalness claims according to a market's

level of globalization. In more globalized markets (vs. less globalized markets), managers should build on brand globalness to a lesser degree.

4.5.3 Limitations and Future Research Directions

This meta-analysis has some limitations, which can be addressed in future research. First, overall, a limited number of studies has been included in the analysis. One explanation for this downside is that I concentrated on the recurring and key seven outcome variables brand quality, prestige, competence, warmth, credibility, brand attitude and purchase intention. In a more extended meta-analysis, other outcomes could be included as well to increase the number of studies. For instance, prior research analyzed the effects of PBL on willingness to buy (Keane and Morschett 2017). Since this paper only provides two studies (i.e., two effects to be analyzed), it was not well advised to perform a meta-analysis on the effect of PBL on willingness to buy. However, a grouping of similar outcomes to higher level outcomes (i.e., purchase intention and willingness to buy as behavioral intentions) could extend the meta-analytical sample and increase the robustness of findings. Further, some studies were excluded from the analysis because I could not obtain correlations or metrics that could be converted to correlations. The exclusion of articles due to this reason could potentially be reduced, if authors are contacted and provided necessary data. Overall, these steps could potentially increase the statistical power of the meta-analysis and therefore increase the accuracy of obtained results.

Second and related, the limited number of studies also influences the moderator analyses. I conducted these only for the effects of PBG/PBL on brand quality and purchase intention, because these outcomes provided the highest number of effect sizes to integrate. Increasing the meta-analytical sample could also open the way to investigate moderations for the remaining key outcomes (e.g., brand attitude). At the same time, this could also allow more moderators to be included simultaneously in meta-regression models. For example, further moderators could be of cultural nature (e.g., country-based Hofstede or Schwartz dimensions).

Even the subdimensions of the KOF Globalization Index (i.e., level of economic, social and political global integration; Gygli et al. 2019) could be used as moderating variables to uncover if any dimension is specifically responsible for the observed moderations by country level globalization.

On the other hand, it was not viable to include other moderators such as product characteristics (e.g., products vs. services, durables vs. nondurables, high vs. low price) in the analyses. While most studies investigate a variety of product categories, correlational data is only provided on an aggregate level across different stimuli. Hence, it was not possible to code, for example, durables vs. nondurables or high price vs. low price products. The only option to overcome this issue is again to contact authors and obtain raw data.

Finally, I only analyzed direct effects of PBG/PBL on any of the outcome variables. This rather simple approach can potentially be extended to more complex models, in which different pathways from PBG/PBL could be investigated. Particularly, using meta-structural equation modelling, indirect effects of PBG/PBL on attitudinal or behavioral outcomes (e.g., brand attitude, purchase intention) via brand related variables (e.g., brand quality) could be analyzed in a broader meta-analysis.

4.6 References

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5 General Discussion

Driven by globalization, global and local brands are an integral part of consumption across the world. This could be the reason why scholars pay significant attention to investigating questions in this area. Adding three essays to the discussion, this dissertation intends to increase our general understanding of global and local brands.

Essay 1 focused on the past and future of global/brand research, by reviewing over 200 research articles. Covering more than 30 years of research, the results show that despite a dynamic publication rate, relatively few individual research streams have emerged and keep on growing, while current major trends and issues of our time (i.e., brands and their transformative power regarding, e.g., social injustice) have not found a broader way into publication yet. Focusing on the concepts of PBG/PBL, Essay 2 was dedicated to the segment of cosmopolitan consumers. More precisely, the essay shows how cosmopolitans arrange their global and local orientations and what this arrangement implies regarding PBG/PBL's effects on the outcome variable brand attitude. Drawing on SIC, the empirical studies mainly suggest that cosmopolitans' global and local orientations coexist, and no orientation is stronger, as there is no difference between the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude. Moreover, the studies show that under certain conditions PBG gains importance, as cosmopolitanism increases. Finally, further concentrating on PBG/PBL research, I meta-analytically investigated the effects of PBG/PBL on various key outcome variables in Essay 3. Results indicate that PBG and PBL are similar and positive drivers of most outcomes, with however two exceptions: PBG is a stronger driver of brand prestige, while PBL is a stronger driver of brand warmth. Further, the globalization level of a country appears to be a moderator of PBG's effects on perceptions of brand quality and purchase intentions, explaining differing empirical results across countries involved in studies.

In the following, I will briefly review the key theoretical contributions and managerial implications of each essay and integrate these to provide an overall perspective.

5.1 Theoretical Contributions

Essay 1 provides scholars and practitioners alike a detailed overview of prior global/local brand research. The review contributes to the field by considering a broader scope, especially compared to previous literature reviews about global/local brands. Specifically including a local brand perspective and more publication outlets, our review approaches the field from an aerial perspective, rather than a perspective that mostly considered the core of the field. This in turn allowed to uncover that scholars tackled global/local brands from a “classic” perspective, focusing solely on solving managerial problems. While we also provide future research directions in this regard, our review contributes to the field by proposing a whole new angle: Transformative global/local brand research, concentrating on whether and how global/local brands have the ability to address major societal issues of our time, such as climate change.

In Essay 2, we contribute to the global/local brand and consumer disposition literature by adopting SIC (Roccas and Brewer 2002) as an alternative theory to investigate cosmopolitan consumers. In this respect, SIC is a promising theoretical lens because it suits well to analyze consumers with multiple orientations. Considering the global connectedness of economies and consumers, SIC covers the reality in which we live in: Many consumers are exposed to a variety of cultures and lifestyles simultaneously (e.g., global and local brands), and therefore can and likely do identify with more than one social group. In respect to cosmopolitanism, we shifted to a multiple ingroup perspective, while SIC as a theoretical framework enabled us to interpret study results in a meaningful way. With cosmopolitanism as a moderator, instead of individually analyzing effects of PBG and PBL on outcomes of interest, a comparison of the effects yielded stable patterns and therefore consistent insights, as our studies showed. In sum, adopting SIC theoretically and empirically suits very well to consumer disposition literature in the context of global/local brands and is a promising approach for future research.

Finally, my meta-analysis on the key consumer-related outcomes of PBG/PBL in Essay 3 contributes to literature by providing an empirical overview of this research stream. Given the ongoing strong interest of academics in this area, a consolidation of prior empirical findings provides a valuable base for future research. Further, I introduce the globalization level of countries as novel moderator of PBG/PBL's effects on key outcomes, explaining differences between differing empirical results between countries.

Overall, my dissertation contributes to global/local brand research in three ways. First, the essays show that extent research has been conducted in this area in general. However, in all three essays it becomes apparent, that scholars paid more attention to global brands/brand globalness, rather than local brands/brand localness. This is not surprising, as it can be argued that global brands represent the newer phenomenon compared to local brands, which naturally existed long before global integration of markets. Additionally, driven by the thesis that markets are increasingly homogenized in terms of consumer tastes (Levitt 1983), scholars have usually conducted research from the perspective of globalizing firms that enter new markets. Further, even while markets are still dominated by local brands, global brands keep on gaining ground and are still on the rise (Kantar 2020). Thus, after mainly and maybe rightfully approaching this topic from the perspective of attackers (i.e., brands that expand globally), a shift toward the perspective of defenders (i.e., local brands facing competition from global brands) should be more in focus in future international marketing research.

This could even be a more promising approach, since second and closely related, my dissertation shows that local brands should not hide themselves behind their global counterparts. Particularly, this can be reasoned with two findings of my dissertation: (a) Essay 2 indicates that perceptions of both brand globalness and localness are equally important in shaping cosmopolitan consumers' attitudes toward brands, which partially even holds for non-cosmopolitans. This finding might even be more relevant for future generations, as these are born into an already highly globalized world, in which global, local and even foreign brands

exist side by side. To put it simple: While for consumers in the late 20th century global brands became gradually more present, future consumers will not know a world where global and local brands don't coexist. Further (b), Essay 3 shows that the localness brand dimension (i.e., PBL) is as powerful as the globalness dimension (i.e., PBG) regarding most analyzed key outcome variables. In sum, these findings suggest that future research should focus more local brands and their interplay with global brands rather than focusing on only one of them.

Lastly, the insights of the dissertation were gained by three types of methodological research approaches, increasing the confidence in the overarching findings. More precisely, I conducted a qualitative literature review of global/local brand research in Essay 1, which already has been undertaken at several instances in the past, but were not nearly as extensive and broad (Chabowski, Samiee, and Hult 2013; Gürhan-Canli, Sarial-Abi, and Hayran 2018; Whitelock and Fastoso 2007). Essay 2 built on classical survey research, which is the standard approach in the PBG/PBL field (e.g., Davvetas, Sichtmann, and Diamantopoulos 2015; Diamantopoulos et al. 2019). It is noteworthy however, that in this essay the analytical approach was rather innovative for PBG/PBL research. Drawing on SIC as a novel theoretic framework in this area of research, we focused on comparing the effects of PBG and PBL on brand attitude with cosmopolitanism as a moderator. In Essay 3, I provided an integration of empirical findings of previous research in the PBG/PBL stream, a novum in this area, as no meta-analysis on PBG/PBL has been published yet. Thus, in sum, I utilized an array of classic and more innovative research approaches for the area of global/local brands.

Overall, the individual and overarching implications as well as contributions gained in this dissertation can guide future research. Scholars can build upon the ideas and insights provided, tapping into more innovative directions, and advancing our knowledge about how global and local brands affect consumers and our societies.

5.2 Managerial Implications

Aside the contributions to literature, the dissertation at hand also offers guidance to marketing and brand managers. First, Essays 1 and 3 offer an overview of the literature and the current state of the field. Many practical subtopics and issues have been addressed regarding global/local brands, with this dissertation synthesizing the knowledge. For example, international brand managers are guided toward the standardization and adaptation literature when they are in doubt regarding brand strategies during market expansion.

Second, Essays 2 and 3 specifically deal with the effects of PBG/PBL on managerially relevant outcomes. Comparing PBG and PBL, Essay 2 involves cosmopolitan consumers as target group for segmentation and shows that both brand globalness and localness are similarly important for this consumer segment and should be promoted in a balanced way. Further, in Essay 3, the main effects of PBG/PBL on various outcomes are investigated and compared, providing specific guidance for practitioners who manage global and/or local brands. For example, both PBG and PBL are equivalent in driving consumers' perceptions of brand quality, while PBG is a better driver of brand prestige and PBL of brand warmth perceptions. Overall, both essays show that managers are well advised to build on brand globalness and localness, if they want to increase consumers' perceptions of a variety of variables (e.g., brand quality) or attitude toward brands, regardless of cosmopolitan orientations. Additionally, the positive effects of PBG/PBL on outcomes also hold irrespective of country or culture, hence are applicable generally, with however the possibility of some variance in the strength of effects. In sum, brand globalness and localness are dimensions that positively influence consumers' brand related perceptions and attitude toward brands around the world.

Third and related, as it seems that local brands are increasingly threatened by global brands, my dissertation eases potential doubts of local brand managers. While there might be context dependent differences, Essays 2 and 3 show that brand localness is a viable option to compete for consumers. This could inspire and motivate local brand managers, for example, to

work against the dying diversity in European city centers and shopping streets, because, as the results show, many consumers in general do value brand localness similarly as they do value brand globalness.

5.3 Conclusion

Initiated by the early sparks of globalization over 200 years ago, global/local brands have become integral parts of markets and marketplace diversity today. In the past three decades, we learnt a great deal about the nature of global/local brands, from a practical standpoint driven by companies' pursuit for international and global expansion. Scholars picked up this phenomenon from reality, wanting to understand the many facets of global/local brands. Following the footsteps of these eager researchers, this dissertation devoted itself to this important topic and adds key insights to the field, addressing scholars and practitioners likewise. As globalization will likely keep on shaping markets in future, companies' global and local brands and consumers will even get closer. Thus, though today we apparently know much about global/local brands, we also know little, since globalization is an ever-ongoing process.

5.4 References

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