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Consumer preference for global relative to local brands: the role of ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, and materialism

Maliti, Bright Munyaradzi

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Consumer preference for global relative to local brands: the role of ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, and materialism

Bright Munyaradzi Maliti

1963268

A research report submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law, and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Management in Strategic Marketing (MMSM)

Johannesburg, 2022

Dr. Emmanuel Quaye

Research Supervisor



ABSTRACT

With globalization on the rise, we have witnessed new cultural identities, a growth in nationalistic tendencies, geopolitical tensions, and an upsurge in worldwide investment by multinational companies in the historically overlooked emerging markets. Despite this, limited research explains the influence of these new cultural identities on global (local) brand preference, particularly in emerging markets. This study establishes the relationship between global (local) cultural identities and global (local) brand preferences in an emerging market, moderating consumer ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, and materialism.

The partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) method was applied using the Smart PLS version 3 statistical package. A cross-sectional survey with structured close-ended questions was administered online through Qualtrics to 223 participants. Findings reveal that: (a) global cultural identity positively relates to global brand preference, (b) local cultural identity does not relate to local brand preference, and (c) the moderating effects of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer xenocentrism, and materialism have no significant impact on global (local) brand preference.

This study contributes extensively to the existing international marketing literature, especially emerging market consumers' consumption patterns and brand choices. Practically, the findings are valuable to marketers in formulating global (local) brand positioning strategies, market entry strategies, and marketing mix elements.

Keywords: global cultural identity; local cultural identity; consumer ethnocentrism; consumer xenocentrism; consumer materialism; global brand preference; local brand preference.

DECLARATION

I, Bright Munyaradzi Maliti, declare that this research report is my work except as indicated in the references and acknowledgments. It is submitted in partial fulfillment of the Master of Management in Strategic Marketing Degree requirements at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. This research report has not been submitted before to any other university or institution of higher learning to award a degree.



Signed at 468 Nzou Crescent, Old Windsor Park, Ruwa, Harare, Zimbabwe

On the 26th day of August 2022.

DEDICATION

In loving memory of my late Mum & Dad, the 11 years we have been together molded me into what I would become. Sadly, you all did not live to see some of my lifetime achievements, but I am happy to have this dedicated to you.

.

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Dr. Emmanuel Quaye, this would not have happened without your guidance. You generously dedicated your time, adding a different perspective to this research. Thank you.

My siblings, Brenda & Moline, special thanks for your prayers and encouragement.

I'm also eternally grateful to the Witwatersrand Business School staff, particularly those part of the Master of Management in Strategic Marketing program; thank you for sharing your knowledge and adding incredible value to my understanding of marketing within an emerging market.

Above all, I give the glory and honor unto God for His amazing grace and for providing the resources, plus wisdom in making this happen.

He raiseth up the poor out of the dust, and lifteth the needy out of the dunghill~Psalms 113 vs. 7

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose of the study

This study examines the relationship between cultural identities and consumer preference for global versus local brands in an emerging market context, moderating the role of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer xenocentrism, and materialism.

The increasing globalization of the marketplace has contributed immensely to a radical change in consumer markets over the past decade. World over, we have witnessed the growth of trade agreements, the fading of consumer differences (Cleveland, Rojas-Méndez, Laroche, & Papadopoulos, 2016); an upsurge in worldwide investment (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Steenkamp, 2019a), and the relaxation of national boundaries due to trade liberalization (Balabanis, Stathopoulou, & Qiao, 2019). These developments have accelerated the advent of new cultural identities (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019; Xie, Batra, & Peng, 2015); the birth of global, glocal, and global brands (López-Lomelí, Alarcón-del-Amo, & Llonch-Andreu, 2019) and an increase in the salience of globalization (de Jong & Steenkamp, 2010; Eren-Erdoğmuş & Dirsehan, 2017; Holton, 2000; Kayabaşı, Mucan, & Tanyeri, 2012; Kucukaslan, 2011; Steenkamp, 2019a; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019).

Undoubtedly, all these developments demand marketers to understand how consumers choose between global versus local brands and, more importantly, why they prefer one brand to the other (Bartikowski & Cleveland, 2017; Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp, & Ramachander, 2000; Mohan, Brown, Sichtmann, & Schoefer, 2018; Özsomer, 2012; Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden, 2002; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015). This is especially important in emerging markets where research about consumer brand preference is still very limited (Srivastava & Balaji, 2018). However, previous research demonstrates that brand attitudes, consumer characteristics, and context influence consumer global versus local brand preferences (Davvetas & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Srivastava, Dey, & Balaji, 2020). Cleveland & Laroche (2007) highlight a dearth of empirical studies that reflects the influence of global versus local culture on consumer behavior. Similarly, as Diamantopoulos et al.(2019) point out, empirical findings from previous studies have not provided unequivocal support for the influence of global (local) cultural identities on global versus local brand preference.

Therefore, this paucity of research impedes our understanding of emerging market consumers (Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013; Srivastava & Balaji, 2018) and calls for more in-depth research to help advance marketing as an academic discipline and maintain its future managerial relevancy (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006).

1.2 Context of the study

Most recently, the market saturation in developed countries has pushed many multinational companies to expand internationally, looking for new opportunities in historically overlooked markets, especially emerging markets. (Arnould & Mohr, 2005; Steenkamp, 2019c). The focus on emerging markets is mainly because these markets are projected to consume close to $30 trillion in products and services and contribute about 50 percent to the world population by 2025 (Srivastava et al., 2020). Emerging markets are also known as developing economies (CNBC International, 2018), and they constitute the "transitioning economies" such as Asia, the Middle East, Latin America, and some still developing African countries (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006).

As one of the developing economies on the African continent, Zimbabwe's economy has been on a recovery path, reconnecting with some of the world's economic giants through signing numerous trade agreements and affiliation with international trade bodies. Trade agreements such as the Interim European Partnership (iEUP), Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA), Southern African Development Community (SADC), and the affiliation to World Trade Organisation, General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) fueled trade liberalization providing global brands with an opportunity to penetrate the local market with their products.

Furthermore, since dollarisation, the economy has opened up to several global brands looking for opportunities to expand their global reach and footprint. An influx of prominent international brands penetrated the local market (The Sunday Mail, 2015, 1 February). For example, in 2018, Pepsi announced a $50 million investment (Kairiza, 2020, 1 February; Machivenyika, 2019, 7 December); similarly, Kentucky Fried Chicken entered the market with a $17 million investment (Marufu, 2015, 13 September) while Mugg n Bean invested $2 million in the country's economy (The Sunday Mail, 2015, 1 February).

As a result, in an attempt to promote the consumption of locally made products against competition from these global players while protecting jobs and the balance of trade deficit, the government of Zimbabwe, through the Ministry of Industry and Commerce, established the Buy Zimbabwe Organisation. (Ndlovu, 2016). This organization's sole mandate is to promote and encourage nationals to consume locally made products and, importantly, create an impression that locally made products are of a higher quality when compared to their global counterparts.

Culturally, Zimbabweans love to emulate global peer groups and embrace the western culture, especially from the United States and the United Kingdom (Belk, 2000). However, they prefer to retain local cultural orientation for commodities such as food and music (Belk, 2000; Steenkamp, 2019a). The local and global cultural orientation is primarily due to the use of English as a de facto language, the country's colonial history (Belk, 2000), an increase in worldwide travel, encounters with foreign nationals, and the rise of global mass media, particularly satellite and on-demand television.

With this background, Zimbabwe provides the most appropriate context for examining the relationship between cultural identities and global versus local brand preference, moderating consumer ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, and materialism.

1.3 Research Problem

As consumers are increasingly faced with choices between global and local brands in many product categories due to globalization (Özsomer, 2012; Srivastava & Balaji, 2018), studies about the factors that influence global versus local brand preference and consumer behavior, especially culture, have sparked academic interest more recently (Diamantopoulos, Davvetas, et al., 2019). Extant research suggests that consumer perceptions of brand quality and identity signaling influence global versus local brand preference (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015). Another stream of research suggests that consumer global versus local brand preference depends on the context, consumer characteristics, and brand attributes (Srivastava et al., 2020).

Notwithstanding the contribution of these studies, several marketing scholars such as (Diamantopoulos, Davvetas, et al., 2019; Diamantopoulos, Davydova, & Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, 2019; Yeboah-Banin & Quaye, 2021) calls for further research to establish the

influence of cultural identities on global versus local brand preference. In the spirit of Diamantopoulos et al. (2019), empirical findings from the existing studies have not provided unequivocal support for the influence of cultural identities on global versus local brand preference. This is especially true in emerging markets with limited research (Srivastava & Balaji, 2018) and inconsistent or contrasting empirical findings (Srivastava et al., 2020).

Also, it is worth mentioning that most of the existing studies about cultural identity, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer xenocentrism, materialism, and global versus local brand preference is from developed economies such as the United States, Japan, and other parts of Europe. Therefore, their empirical findings may not reflect the realities of emerging market consumers and locally-driven consumption (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019), particularly in the African continent. Primarily, this is due to differences in the market structure, consumer culture, and the consumption patterns of emerging versus developed economies (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006; Davvetas & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj, 2011; Lu Wang & Xiong Chen, 2004; WITS Business School, 2018).

In light of these facts, the research problem for this study stems from a gap in the academic literature that examines the relationship between cultural identities and consumer global versus local brand preference, particularly in the emerging market context. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study conducted within an emerging market context, particularly on the African continent, to explain consumer favoritism toward global versus local brands using a combination of well-established theories. This study combines theories such as cultural identity, system justification, and personal identity to explain global versus local brand preference in an emerging market context, particularly Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe provides the most appropriate context for the study; firstly, because of the high level of co-existence between local and global brands fuelled by the openness to global influences and trade agreements. Secondly, the government's efforts to drive local consumption through ethnocentric policies and, finally, the mixed cultural orientations that are prevalent in the country.

1.4 Research Objectives

The research aimed to establish the relationship between:

- Local cultural identity and preference for local brands by consumers with ethnocentric tendencies.

- Global cultural identity and preference for global brands by xenocentric consumers.
- Global cultural identity and preference for global brands by consumers with materialistic tendencies.

1.5 Research Questions

The following questions guide the theoretical inquiry of the research:

- Is local cultural identity related to local brand preference, especially for consumers with ethnocentric tendencies?
- Does global cultural identity relate to global brand preference for consumers with xenocentric tendencies?
- Is global cultural identity related to global brand preference, especially amongst consumers with materialistic tendencies?

1.6 The intended contribution of the study

1.6.1 Theoretical Contribution

Extant research asserts that an exclusive focus on consumer ethnocentrism as one of the factors influencing consumer preference for local brands paints an incomplete picture of consumer behavior, especially when examined in isolation (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019). Several marketing scholars (such as Josiassen, 2011; Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015) suggest that consumer ethnocentrism should be examined with other factors to comprehensively understand how it influences global (local) brand preference. In light of this, this study combines consumer ethnocentrism with local cultural identity to have a clearer picture of how it influences local brand preference within the context of an emerging economy.

Balabanis et al. (2019) point out that although many theories explain consumer bias towards global (local) brands, the social identity theory has been widely used in international marketing literature. However, in this study, the researcher combines several well-established theories,

including cultural identity, social identity, and system justification, to explain consumer preference for global (local) brands. Theoretically, the global (local) cultural identity is anchored to cultural identity, consumer ethnocentrism to social identity theory, and consumer xenocentrism to system justification theory (Balabanis et al., 2019).

1.6.2 Practical Contribution

More recently, all over the world, consumers and international marketers have witnessed geopolitical and economic tensions. These have earmarked the birth of nationalistic tendencies related to consumer identity and consumption practices (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019). With all these developments, marketers must understand how these emerging tendencies impact consumer global (local) brand preference. To this end, this study is of significant value to the business world. It provides insights to help decision-makers, especially international marketers, develop market entry strategies and tactical marketing programs centered on consumer cultural orientation.

Additionally, the research findings establish the cultural affiliations of emerging market consumers, particularly in Zimbabwe, and the relationship between these affiliations and global (local) brand preference. Scholars such as (Steenkamp, 2019b; Tu, Khare, & Zhang, 2012) have bolstered understanding of consumer cultural identity in a globalized market, primarily to enhance brand equity by imbuing the brand with elements of consumer culture. Davvetas & Diamantopoulos (2016) suggest that brands can be positioned based on their worldwide presence or identification with the local culture. Therefore, the findings of this study can help guide brand custodians to craft or adopt the most appropriate positioning strategy (global brand positioning versus local brand positioning) depending on the cultural affiliation of the Zimbabwean consumers. Simply put, brand positioning strategies can be tailor-made to suit the cultural identity of Zimbabwean consumers.

The research presents insights into consumers' attitudes toward global (local) brands, how emerging market consumers evaluate global brands to their counterparts, local brands (vice-versa), and, more importantly, how consumers perceive these brands' typologies. This information is paramount to marketers as it helps them formulate defense strategies against competitors.

Also, the insights derived from the customer attitudes and perceptions, interlinked with the cultural identity dimensions, provide the basis for marketers to segment their customers. Concurring with this perspective, Diamantopoulos et al.(2018) assert that constructs such as consumer xenocentrism are of managerial relevance to global (local) brand custodians. These can be the basis for consumer segmentation and targeting.

1.7 Delimitations

This study is delimited as follows:

- While existing research has underscored several brand typologies, including global, local and glocal brands (López-Lomelí et al., 2019), this study focuses on two major brand typologies, namely, global and local brands.

- Secondly, even though other factors such as environmentalism and nostalgia influence consumer preference for local versus global brands (Yildiz, Heitz-Spahn, & Belaud, 2018), the study focused on cultural identity, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer xenocentrism, and materialism) as the key factors influencing global (local) brand preference while turning a blind eye to environmentalism and nostalgia.

- Finally, notwithstanding the contribution of scholars such as (Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden, 2006; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2013) about consumers as having a global, local, glocal, or disengaged identity, the study focused on the two fundamental identities- global identity and the local identity, and on how they influence consumer preference for global versus local brands.

1.8 Definition of terms

Briefly defined overleaf are some of the major terms of the study; however, the list is not exhaustive as some are discussed in the text, with reference made to scholarly literature.

Cultural identity: entails the feeling of belonging to a particular society or cultural group that can either alienate or bring together individuals based on their shared cultural mindset, worldview beliefs, behavioral practices, lifestyle, traditions, and shared historical or cultural

heritage (Aristova, 2016; He & Wang, 2015; Jensen, 2003; Olivier, Thoenig, & Verdier, 2008; Strizhakova, Coulter, & Price, 2012)

Global brands: as the descendants of globalization (Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019), these are brands available worldwide with international recognition, acceptance, and desirability and follow a standardized marketing strategy by maintaining similar brand elements, marketing mix, and positioning strategy in most of the markets they operate in (Davvetas & Halkias, 2019; Eren-Erdoğmuş & Dirsehan, 2017; López-Lomelí et al., 2019; Sichtmann, Davvetas, & Diamantopoulos, 2018; Srivastava et al., 2020).

Local brands: these are brands that are produced and promoted within a limited and narrowly defined geographical region or in a concentrated market within the boundaries of a nation (Davvetas & Halkias, 2019; Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj, 2011; Sichtmann et al., 2018; Srivastava et al., 2020).

Consumer Ethnocentrism entails the belief that one's culture, ethnic group, or race is superior and important compared to others (Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj, 2011). It reflects how individuals accept or reject others, products, cultures, or ideas based on in-group similarities compared with out-group differences (Prince, Davies, Cleveland, & Palihawadana, 2016).

Consumer Xenocentrism: a tendency in which individuals view their ideas, home culture, brands, and products as inferior to those foreign (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Chao & Lin, 2017; Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019; Prince et al., 2016). In other words, it entails outgroup favoritism and stereotyping negatively own culture, ideas, brands, or in-group (Arora & Arora, 2019).

Consumer Materialism: this is defined as the importance that an individual attaches to worldly possessions to demonstrate success, happiness, wealth, and self-status in life (Fastoso & González-Jiménez, 2018; Siahtiri & Lee, 2019). Similarly, other scholars such as (Alden, Kelley, Riefler, Lee, & Soutar, 2013; Bevan-Dye, Garnett, & de Klerk, 2012; Cleveland, Laroche, & Papadopoulos, 2009) describes materialism as the importance that one ascribes to possession, ownership, and acquisition of material goods to achieve life goals.

1.9 Assumptions

Underpinning the study are the following assumptions:

- The respondents provided accurate and unbiased answers to the questions part of the questionnaire.
- The selected sample size is a true reflection of the study population.

1.10 Summary

The chapter provides a detailed analysis of the study's purpose, context, and significance. Notably, a discussion about the problem, the research questions, and objectives: the next chapter will focus on a review of existing literature, providing a theoretical background that will guide the formulation of the hypothesis and the development of a conceptual framework.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter begins with a theoretical background, discussing the consumer culture theory as the overarching theory underpinning the present study, followed by a conceptual discussion about cultural identity, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer xenocentrism, and consumer materialism. Then, based on the theoretical contribution of existing scholarly literature, the hypothesis and conceptual framework for the study are presented at the end of the chapter.

2.2 Theoretical Background: Consumer Culture Theory

As Steenkamp (2019a) points out, consumer culture theory is one of the theories widely applied by several marketing scholars to explain how global (local) culture affects the marketplace. In the spirit of Anourld & Thompson (2005, p. 869), consumer culture theory entails "a social arrangement in which the relations between lived culture and social resources, and between meaningful ways of life and the symbolic and material resources on which they depend, are mediated through markets." The theory explains the relationship between consumer actions, the marketplace, and cultural meanings (Anourld & Thompson, 2005). From this perspective, consumers add meaning to their lives, orient their own experiences and make a collective sense of the environment through consuming market-made commodities (Steenkamp, 2019a). These commodities could be tangible products, including services, images; brands; lifestyles, and symbols (Anourld & Thompson, 2005; Steenkamp, 2019a).

Unlike the traditional economic theories that view brands as merely exchangeable entities, the consumer culture theory considers brands as central agents that carry cultural meaning to the consumption experience of individuals (Bartsch, Diamantopoulos, Paparoidamis, & Chumpitaz, 2016; Sichtmann et al., 2018). Similarly, other researchers such as (Bartikowski & Cleveland, 2017; Davvetas & Halkias, 2019; Xie et al., 2015) assert that brands have transformed into social entities that reflect an extension of one's global (local) cultural identity. As Steenkamp (2019c) points out, brands are cultural icons that carry and communicate a powerful meaning to consumers these days. Thus, in light of this, consumers purchase a

particular brand to reinforce their membership to a specific identity marker (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra, 1999).

Interestingly, consumer culture theory does not view culture as a system with collectively homogeneous shared meanings, values, or a specific way of life but as a heterogeneous distribution of meaning with multiple and overlapping cultural groupings in the socio-historic frame of globalization (Anourld & Thompson, 2005). In the past, consumer culture was overwhelmingly local in content (Steenkamp, 2019a); however, nowadays, it is shaped by both globalization and localization forces (Steenkamp, 2019c) as the "two axial principles of our age" (de Jong & Steenkamp, 2010). These seemingly parallel, interrelated, and independent consumer cultures co-exist (Makri, Papadas, & Schlegelmilch, 2018) and are constantly clashing, reinforcing, integrating, and transforming one another in shaping consumer judgment of the world (Holton, 2000; Steenkamp, 2019a; Strizhakova et al., 2012). Accordingly, the global consumer culture is at odds with the local consumer culture (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Guo & Hong, 2018).

2.3 Conceptual Discussion of Constructs

2.3.1 Cultural Identities

As globalization has evolved, cultural identities have become the core of consumer culture (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2013). By definition, cultural identity entails the feeling of belonging to a particular society or cultural group that either brings together or alienates individuals based on a shared cultural mindset, worldview beliefs, behavioral practices, lifestyle, traditions, and shared historical and cultural heritage (Aristova, 2016; He & Wang, 2015; Jensen, 2003; Olivier et al., 2008; Strizhakova et al., 2012). In short, cultural identity is a broad range of beliefs, values, and practices that one shares with the members of a community (Schwartz, Zamboanga, & Weisskirch, 2008; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019). As Schwartz, Zamboanga, and Weisskirch (2008) highlight, cultural identity is an answer to the question, "who am l as a member of my group, and in relation to other groups?". Thus, cultural identity as a psychological locus of cultural effects is crucial because it acts as an orienting framework that dictates how members of any society think, feel and act (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007).

Several international marketing scholars' such as (Steenkamp et al., 2006; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2013), suggest that consumers can be categorized as having a global; glocal; local (national) cultural identity or alienated (unengaged). These consumers engage with the global and local discourses differently, and primarily, their consumption practices depend on the dominant identity at any given time or contextual factors, as indicated in Figure 1 (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; de Jong & Steenkamp, 2010; Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009; Makri et al., 2018). Similarly, Balabanis et al. (2019) assert that consumers have multiple identities, and the salient identity determines which cultural identity to activate in any given purchase situation. Although consumers possess some form of bicultural identity (Bartikowski & Cleveland, 2017; Guo & Hong, 2018; Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019), the local consumer culture remains the central influence on how they behave and express their identity through consumption of products, brands, ideas and experiences (Steenkamp, 2019a).

Generally, consumers with a local cultural identity live their everyday lives in a more local or nationalistic way (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019) while adhering to local traditions and ethnocentric tendencies (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2013). In contrast, consumers with a global cultural identity prefer modern global lifestyles and have a stronger affiliation with the global consumer culture at the expense of local culture (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2013). While consumers with a glocal cultural identity are connected to both the global and the local cultural lifestyle, the unengaged appear to be disinterested in the global and the local culture (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2013).

Given that identity reflects a person's place in the social environment (Prince et al., 2016), extant literature also delineates consumer xenocentrism, cosmopolitanism (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019), and materialism (Bartsch, Riefler, & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Cleveland et al., 2016; Kucukaslan, 2011; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013) as the critical consumer traits, identities (Prince et al., 2016) and beliefs positively associated with global consumer culture. Likewise, other studies affirm that materialism and cosmopolitanism are the key dispositional constructs that support the notion that consumers across the globe are becoming homogeneous, having a similar consumption culture (Fastoso & González-Jiménez, 2018) that demonstrates a Western individualistic culture (Sun, Wang, Cheng, Li, & Chen, 2016). In this sense, materialism is associated with the increasing homogeneity of cultures (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007).

Also, consumer ethnocentrism positively relates to local cultural identity (de Jong & Steenkamp, 2010; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2013). Arguably, as Tue et al. (2012) point out, global-local cultural identities are associated with but also different from consumer ethnocentrism and global consumption orientation.

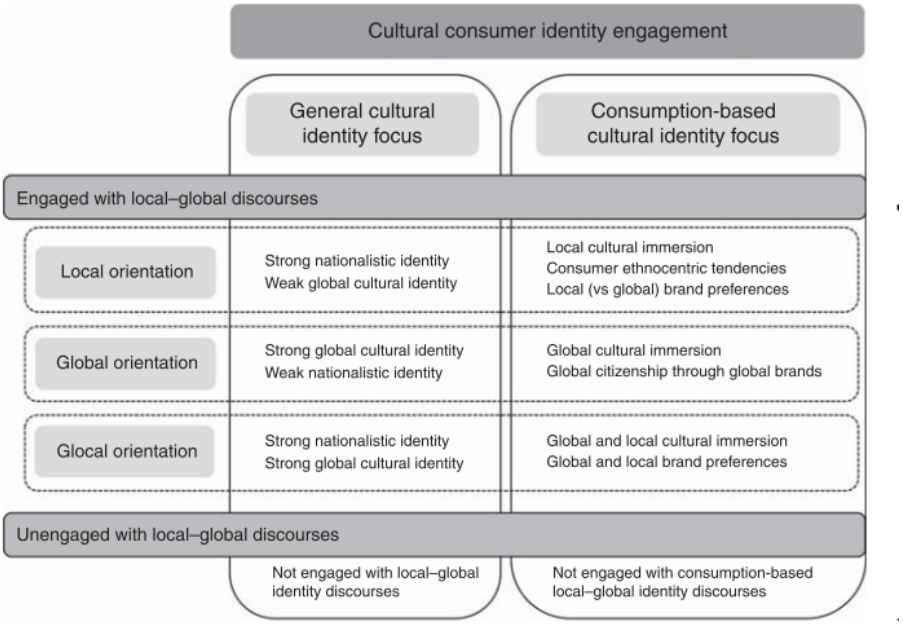


Figure 1: Global vs. local consumer cultural identity and consumption-based practices (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019)

2.3.2 Consumer Ethnocentrism

Deeply rooted in the social identity theory (Balabanis et al., 2019), consumer ethnocentrism represents a normative belief (Zeugner-Roth, Žabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015) that one's own country, ethnic group (Bizumic, 2019), race or other cultural aspects are more important and superior to those of other groups (Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj, 2011; Mueller, Wang, Liu, & Cui, 2016). It reflects how individuals accept or reject others based on in-group similarities versus out-group differences (Prince et al., 2016). From this point of view, it becomes clear that one's group remains the center of everything, while other groups or cultures are judged in relation to one's group (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Hamelin, Ellouzi, & Canterbury, 2011; Khan, Ashraf, & Malik, 2019; Nguyen, Nguyen, & Barrett, 2008; Prince , Yaprak , & Palihawadana, 2019; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015). Broadly speaking, the ingroup becomes the basis for social identification, comparison with outgroups, and, more importantly,

differentiation with outgroups. As Nguyen et al. (2008) point out, consumers with highly ethnocentric tendencies evaluate favorably anything that relates to their group while at the same time devaluing or rejecting anything that does not fit into their social group.

Insecurity, pro-sociality, cognitive, reflexiveness, and habitual motives are critical drivers of ethnocentric tendencies (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015; Prince et al., 2019; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015).

According to Balabanis & Siamagka (2015), insecurity is an underlining force that fuels ethnocentric tendencies. Generally, ethnocentric consumers associate foreign products with threats to the domestic economy, particularly unemployment and the trade deficit (Prince et al., 2019). Ethnocentric consumers believe that buying foreign products hurts the domestic economy, especially employment (Hamelin et al., 2011; He & Wang, 2015; Khan et al., 2019; Kipnis, Kubacki, Broderick, Siemieniako, & Pisarenko, 2012; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013; Nguyen et al., 2008; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015) and the balance of trade (Balabanis et al., 2019; Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj, 2011). These economic hazards generate a feeling of insecurity and stimulate ethnocentric tendencies, resulting in bias towards domestic products over their counterparts, foreign products (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015). To this end, insecurity acts as a self-defense mechanism that governments and individuals use to curb the threats of imports and foreign competition on the domestic economy or products (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015).

Broadly, pro-sociality entails a feeling of concern, empathy, and care for others, and more importantly, acting in ways that benefit others (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015; Prince et al., 2019). Thus, the interests of others, particularly the country's interests, supersede personal interests. Ethnocentric pro-sociality stems from purely altruistic motives, such as protecting the domestic economy from threats of imports without expecting anything in return (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015). Ethnocentric consumers avoid foreign products or brands because they believe it is wrong and unpatriotic to support an outgroup or foreign competition over their nation (He & Wang, 2015; Khan et al., 2019; Yildiz et al., 2018).

Ethnocentric consumers tend to have a distorted worldview mainly because their interpretation depends on their ethnic group (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015). Cognitively, consumers with ethnocentric tendencies ascribe superiority to domestic brands, while anything foreign is inferior (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015; Mueller et al., 2016; Yildiz et al., 2018). In this sense, ethnocentrism spells out the relationship between us, everyone, and or them- in this context,

domestic brands (products) represent "us" and are "ours." In contrast, global brands or foreign products are 'theirs' (Kipnis et al., 2012). While the "us or we" group is considered to be superior, the "others or theirs "is perceived to be inferior (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015). To this end, ethnocentric consumers make biased judgments, adopting the positive aspects of local brands while at the same time discounting the virtues of foreign-made products (Sharma, 2011).

Also, consumers with strong ethnocentric tendencies take pride in their own country's products and culture- they are less receptive to anything foreign, be it culture, products, or brands (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, & Melewar, 2001; Steenkamp et al., 2002). Mueller et al. (2019) revealed that ethnocentric consumers prefer products from their home country even when foreign products are of superior quality. The ethnocentric consumer is willing to make economic sacrifices by choosing local brands to enjoy the psychological gains derived from avoiding contact with an outgroup (Cleveland et al., 2009; Steenkamp et al., 2002). Similarly, Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004) underscore that ethnocentric consumers prefer domestic products over foreign products without an underlying rational motive, sometimes even when foreign products are of better quality and cheaper.

Finally, consumer ethnocentrism is habitual (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015). Generally, ethnocentric tendencies develop through socialization, prolonged exposure, and frequent repetition of ethnocentric behavior (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015).

2.3.3 Consumer Xenocentrism

Consumer xenocentrism is an internalized belief that what is foreign is best and that our ideas, brands, and products are inferior (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Chao & Lin, 2017). It involves a tendency to view home culture as inferior to that which is foreign, especially of Western origin (Prince et al., 2016). In other words, consumer xenocentrism relates to favoritism towards outgroups while negatively stereotyping own culture or in-group (Arora & Arora, 2019). This construct simultaneously captures in-group derogation and outgroup favoritism (Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019). It is driven chiefly by a mindset of cultural admiration of another society, commonly known as xenophilia (Prince et al., 2016). Though somewhat similar to consumer xenocentrism (Lawrence, 2012), xenophilia is characterized by a negative valence towards the home country (Bartsch, Riefler, et al., 2016).

Research reveals that consumer xenocentrism is due to an internalized perceived in-group inferiority and social aggrandizement (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Balabanis et al.,

2019; Diamantopoulos et al., 2018). Consumers with xenocentric tendencies see fault in local products, brands, or culture even if none exists (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Lawrence, 2012). Interestingly, their bias towards global brands has no objective evidence to support it (Chiriboga, 2015). That said, preference for local brands goes beyond quality perception and includes socio-psychological reasons (Mueller et al., 2016)

As the name suggests, perceived inferiority refers to a tendency in which people denigrate, undervalue, fail to appreciate, and negatively stereotype domestic brands (products) in favor of brands (products) from higher-status foreign countries (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019; Mueller et al., 2016). This in-group denigration and outgroup favoritism are due to deficiencies of the local industry in terms of human capital and technology (Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019; Mueller et al., 2016); and the country-product image that relates to consumer perception and stereotype of the product's country of origin (Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019). Generally, consumers draw inferences from country rankings and grading by international organizations (such as the United Nations, the Moody's Rating, and International Monetary Fund) to construct and justify xenocentric consumption behaviours (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Chao & Lin, 2017). These international organizations rank countries based on economic development, corruption, competitiveness, political freedom, innovation, and technological advancement.

Another stream of research suggests that consumer's perception of national inferiority and a strong affinity towards foreign brands, especially those from the West, is due to colonial imprints, exaggerated views of foreign cultures through propaganda, and a propagated belief that non-Western cultures are primitive, backward and uncivilized (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016).

Social aggrandizement reflects the importance and symbolic value that an individual attaches to a foreign brand (products) to enhance their social status (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019). Such an orientation is due to the belief that any brand that is foreign or global enhances one's social status, thereby making one appear modern and trendier while at the same time distinguishing themselves from others (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Chiriboga, 2015; Davvetas & Halkias, 2019). Interestingly, Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2016) highlight that xenocentric consumers buy foreign brands to impress others and compensate for social imbalances (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016).

2.3.4 Consumer Materialism

Materialism reflects the importance that consumers attach to worldly possessions (Bevan-Dye et al., 2012; Demirbag, Sahadev, & Mellahi, 2010; Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj, 2011; Fastoso & González-Jiménez, 2018; R. E. Goldsmith, Flynn, & Clark, 2011; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013) to demonstrate happiness, success (Cleveland et al., 2009; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013), wealth and self-status in life (Siahtiri & Lee, 2019). Consistently, materialism is the importance one ascribes to possessions, ownership, and material goods to achieve meaningful life goals or any desired state (Alden et al., 2013; Bevan-Dye et al., 2012; Cleveland et al., 2009). People attach this importance to possessions from material goods' ability to confer the desired status, image, and identity congruent with the imagined end-state or life (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016). In light of this perspective, materialistic consumers construct and maintain their self-identity by acquiring and using products, services, brands, or experiences that provide a more desirable symbolic value (Prince et al., 2016). Thus, material possessions and objects are crucial for defining success, well-being, self-identity (Srivastava & Balaji, 2018), and social status or class (Demirbag et al., 2010).

Several scholars have conceptualized materialism as a value orientation or value system in which consumers emphasize acquiring and possessing material goods to achieve life goals or happiness (Christian & Kramer, 2015; Richins, 2017). Materialism is a collection of related personal traits (R. Goldsmith & Clark, 2012; Sharma, 2011), beliefs (Siahtiri & Lee, 2019), social identities (Demirbag et al., 2010), and attitudes (Zhang & Kim, 2013) that focuses on possessions to guide the selection and evaluation of goods, events, and brands. As a personality trait, materialism consists of four dimensions: possessiveness, envy, and non-generosity (Bevan-Dye et al., 2012; Heaney, Goldsmith, & WanJusoh, 2005; Arpita Khare, 2014; Arpita Khare & Varshneya, 2015; Siahtiri & Lee, 2019) and the preservative (Ahuvia & Wong, 2002). Heaney et al.(2005) went on to further define non- generosity as the unwillingness to share or give possessions; possessiveness as the desire to control ownership while at the same time retaining possessions, and lastly, envy as an invidious tendency to substitute one's life situation for that of another who possesses anything desirable. Although the possessiveness materialistic trait is centred around the desire to have more, arguably, the nature of that which is said to be more remains unquantifiable thus making it vary from one individual to another (Richins, 2017).

Notably, consumer materialism is anchored on three domains: firstly, the acquisition centrality, which entails placing possessions and their acquisitions at the center of life; secondly, the pursuit of happiness, which explains how materialists view possessions to enhance their well-being and life satisfaction; and lastly, success, which is about judging self and other's success by the quantity and quality of possessions accumulated (Bevan-Dye et al., 2012; Cleveland et al., 2009; Siahtiri & Lee, 2019). Generally, materialistic consumers use possessions as a yardstick to measure or judge their success and happiness in life or those around them (Demirbag et al., 2010; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013; Srivastava & Balaji, 2018). Hence, they tend to channel a disproportionate amount of their income towards acquiring products and brands (R. E. Goldsmith et al., 2011).

2.4 Cultural identity and brand preference

Brands remain the core of every cultural identity (Strizhakova et al., 2012). Given that material possession are viewed as significant components of our extended self (Makri et al., 2018), consumers from all over the world have used brands to signal the cultural identity group they affiliate with (Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009) or exclude from (Bartikowski & Cleveland, 2017). ln other words, consumers respond more favorably to brands consistent with their cultural identity and repudiate those incongruent with their identity (Papadopoulos, Cleveland, Bartikowski, & Yaprak, 2018; Swaminathan, Page, & Gu¨ rhan-canli, 2007).

2.4.1 Local cultural identity and local brand preference

Broadly derived from an overall awareness of belonging to a community that shares uniform national values, the local cultural identity entails a mental representation in which consumers respect their local traditions and customs (Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009).

Consumers with a strong local cultural identity are more connected to their local communities; they recognize the uniqueness of their local culture and identify value in the distinctiveness of their local way of life (Tu et al., 2012). Extant research acknowledges that consumers respond more favorably to brands that are consistent with their identity (Bartikowski & Cleveland, 2017). That said, it is highly probable that consumers with a strong local cultural identity tend to be more biased toward local brands. This bias is because local brands, especially those

adopting a localized appeal and cues, allow them to express and reinforce their affiliation to a local cultural identity marker. Adwait Khare & Zhang (2009) found that consumers with an accessible local identity prefer local brands because they weigh favorably and heavily information about local brand positioning. Additionally, the consumption of local brands enables consumers with a local cultural identity to strongly connect with their cultural values (Halkias, Davvetas, & Diamantopoulos, 2016) and preserve their local culture and economy (Koert van Ittersum, 2010).

Therefore,

$H1_a$: local cultural identity positively relates to consumer preference for local brands

2.4.1.1 The moderating role of consumer ethnocentrism

Previous research such as (de Jong & Steenkamp, 2010; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2013) has shown that consumer ethnocentrism positively relates to local cultural identity. That said, the researcher reasons that a strong local cultural identity is linked positively to the preference for local brands, especially for consumers with strong ethnocentric tendencies. This is because ethnocentric consumers with a strong local cultural identity take pride in their local culture and are less receptive to anything foreign, be it culture, products, or brands. Research has consistently found that ethnocentric consumers aspire to be unique and different by maintaining a strong local identity through the consumption of local brands (Kipnis et al., 2012) that easily identify with their lifestyle, cultural values, and attitudes (Steenkamp, 2019a).

Additionally, existing literature suggests that ethnocentric consumers are highly motivated to preserve and promote their local culture by consuming local brands (Prince et al., 2016). As López-Lomelí et al. (2019) point out in another research, ethnocentric consumers are proud of their country's symbols and culture. Because of that, they prefer local brands that reflect local cultural meanings or identities and reject anything incongruent with their cultural values. In light of this, consumers with strong ethnocentric tendencies use local brands to demonstrate and defend their nationalistic identity (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015), hence the bias towards local products or brands. They believe it is wrong, unpatriotic (Akram, Merunka, & Shakaib Akram, 2011; Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj, 2011), and immoral (Prince et al., 2019; Yildiz et al., 2018) to buy foreign products even if they are of better quality than domestic products (Kipnis et al., 2012; Prince et al., 2016).

Therefore, the researcher proposes the following hypothesis:

> $H1_b$: local cultural identity positively influences local brand preference, especially for consumers with strong ethnocentric tendencies.

2.4.2 Global cultural identity and global brand preference

Global cultural identity is a mental representation in which consumers believe in the positive effects of globalization and recognize the commonalities rather than the dissimilarities amongst people around the world (Balabanis et al., 2019; Diamantopoulos, Davvetas, et al., 2019; Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009; Tu et al., 2012). Consumers with a positive global cultural identity identify mostly with all humankind and feel like world citizens (Makri et al., 2018). They also appreciate the international or global lifestyle (Diamantopoulos, Davvetas, et al., 2019; Tu et al., 2012).

Previous studies have shown that consumers with a global cultural identity perceive global brands as vehicles that promote global citizenship and demonstrate affiliation to the global consumer culture (Diamantopoulos, Davvetas, et al., 2019; Strizhakova, Coulter, & Price, 2008). Based on this, the researcher reasons consumers with a strong global cultural identity prefer global brands relative to their local brands. This favoritism is mainly because global brands resemble the symbolic value of prestige and icons of the affluent Western consumption culture (Zhou, Teng, & Poon, 2008), thus, allowing consumers with a strong global cultural identity to express their global belongingness. Moreover, global brands present consumers with a strong global identity with an opportunity to participate in the global economy and become global citizens (Strizhakova et al., 2008). In essence, global brands create a pathway for consumers with a strong global cultural orientation to participate and become global citizens (Strizhakova, Coulter, & Price, 2008; Xie et al., 2015). To this end, consumers with a strong global cultural identity are more likely to be receptive to global brands as they reflect the symbols of the global culture.

Additionally, prior research suggests that the accessibility of a global cultural identity positively relates to consumer disposition towards global brands (Makri et al., 2018). In other words, when consumers' global identity is accessible, they tend to evaluate global brands more favorably than when their local identity is accessible (Guo & Hong, 2018; Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009; Makri et al., 2018). Generally, the accessible global cultural identity will make

consumers weigh global positioning information more heavily and favorably than when the local identity is accessible (Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009).

Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

$H2_a$: global cultural identity positively relates to consumer preference for global brands

2.4.2.1 The moderating role of consumer xenocentrism

Consumer xenocentrism is one of the identities, traits, or beliefs (Prince et al., 2016) that is positively associated with global consumer culture (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007) and, more importantly, preference for global brands (Bartsch, Riefler, et al., 2016; Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019; Mueller et al., 2016). Global brands allow xenocentric consumers with a strong global cultural identity to demonstrate global belongingness (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Bartsch, Riefler, et al., 2016; Mueller et al., 2016). With this in mind, xenocentric consumers with a strong global cultural identity are probably biased towards global brands. This bias toward global brands is attributed to the need to enhance one's social standing while expressing affiliation to the global cultural orientation. The symbolic value and perceived superiority associated with global brands, mainly from highly ranked countries, enhance a person's social status (Chao & Lin, 2017). However, not all global brands are superior to domestic ones; only those from the West, particularly the USA, Japan, and other European countries, are the symbols of an affluent status (Mueller et al., 2016).

Generally, xenocentric consumers seek brands from highly ranked foreign countries to enhance their social standing while neglecting those from their home country as they are perceived to be inferior (Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019). Thus, when presented with a choice between global and local brands, consumers with xenocentric tendencies reject, undervalue, and reflect a negative attitude towards brands originating from their own country while at the same time overvaluing foreign brands (Bartsch, Riefler, et al., 2016; Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019; Mueller et al., 2016). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

$H2_b$: global cultural identity positively influences global brand preference, especially for consumers with strong xenocentric tendencies

2.4.2.2 The moderating role of consumer materialism

Materialism signifies group membership (R. Goldsmith & Clark, 2012). Several researchers documents that materialism is positively related to global cultural identity (Bartsch, Riefler, et al., 2016; Cleveland et al., 2009; Cleveland et al., 2016; Kucukaslan, 2011; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013), an identity which promotes global consumption orientation (Fastoso & González-Jiménez, 2018). In addition, research shows that consumers with strong materialistic tendencies, especially those from emerging economies, attempt to gain social acceptance into the global cultural group and control others by possessing luxurious global brands (Gil, Kwon, Good, & Johnson, 2012). Thus, based on the above, we expect materialistic consumers with a global cultural identity to be biased toward global brands. Primarily, this is because the acquisition and possession of global brands allow them to demonstrate participation in and affiliation to the aspired-global consumer culture. More recently, Siahtiri & Lee (2019) established that emerging market consumers constantly revamp their lifestyle, emulating the Western-style materialistic culture and buying luxury and prominent global brands (Siahtiri & Lee, 2019).

Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

> $H2_c$: global cultural identity positively relates to the preference for global brands, especially for consumers with strong materialistic tendencies

2.5 Conceptual Framework

The study establishes the relationship between global cultural identity and consumer preference for global versus local brands, moderating consumer ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, and materialism. The conceptual framework in Figure 2 depicts the hypothesized relationship between the variables under study. In this study, local and global cultural identity are the independent variables that directly affect the consumer's global versus local preference. In other words, global versus local brand preference depends on the consumer's global (local)cultural identity. Consumer ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, and materialism are the moderating variables that affect the strength of the relationship between global (local) cultural identity and global versus local brand preference.

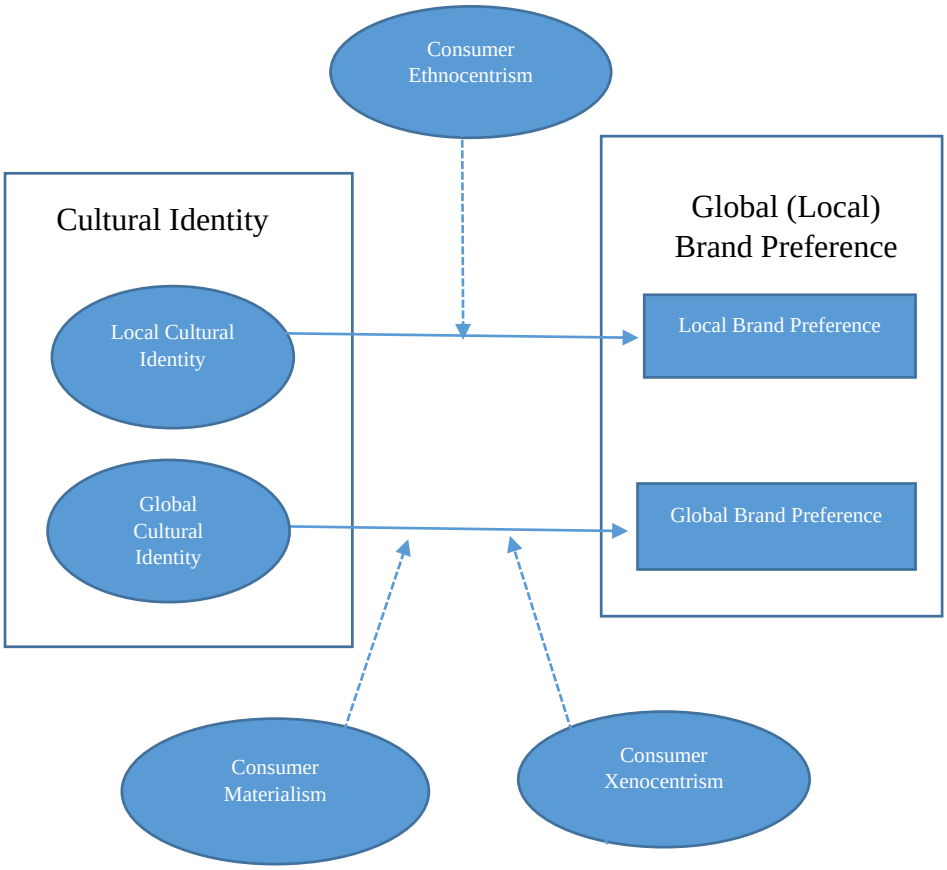


Figure 2: Conceptual framework of the study

2.6 Conclusion

Several marketing scholars in developed markets have researched the relationship between global (local) cultural identity and consumer global versus local brand preference. Drawing from their empirical findings, it is evident that cultural global (local) identity positively relates to global (local) brand preference; however, given the differences in culture, their findings may not reflect the consumption patterns of emerging market consumers. Therefore, building on the extant theoretical contributions by several researchers, the following hypothesis has been established for the study:

$H1_b$: local cultural identity positively influences local brand preference, especially for consumers with strong ethnocentric tendencies.

$H2_b$: global cultural identity positively influences global brand preference, especially for consumers with strong xenocentric tendencies

$H2_c$: global cultural identity positively relates to the preference for global brands, especially for consumers with strong materialistic tendencies

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed master plan for the research, discussing the research strategy, design, method, target population, and instrument. Also discussed in this section is the procedure for data collection and analysis, the pilot study results, and the ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Strategy

Research strategy entails a general orientation to the conduct of social research; broadly classified into two, namely, the quantitative and qualitative research strategies (Bryman, 2012). This study applies a quantitative research strategy. The strategy assumes that human behavior is explained by social facts investigated using methods that utilize natural science's deductive logic (Amaratunga, Baldry, Sarshar, & Newton, 2002). Firstly, a quantitative research strategy has been applied for this study because it allows the researcher to establish the relationship between global (local) cultural identity and global (local) brand preference. Several marketing scholars (such as Bryman, 2012; Vogt, 2018; Creswell & Creswell, 2017) recommend the application of a quantitative research strategy, especially for studies that aim to establish the relationship between variables. Secondly, similar studies (such as Yeboah-Banin & Quaye, 2021; Xie, Batra, & Peng, 2015; He & Wang, 2015) have adopted a quantitative research strategy to investigate a comparable phenomenon.

A quantitative research strategy was applied in this study to quantify and analyze the collected data and, more importantly, establish the relationship between the variables. With a quantitative research strategy, the researcher could test the hypothesis and deductively make inferences on the relationship between global (local) cultural identity and global (local) brand preference, moderating consumer ethnocentrism, consumer xenocntrism, and materialism.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is a detailed time-based blueprint that spells out the method and procedure for data collection, linking the research questions to the evidence (Bryman, 2012; Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Makrygiannakis & Jack, 2018; Vogt, 2008). There are five types of research design: case studies, experimental, comparative, longitudinal, and cross-sectional or survey research designs (Bryman, 2012). However, this study adopts a cross-sectional research design that uses a communication method of data collection through a field survey.

Cross-sectional research design, commonly known as the survey design, involves the collection of quantifiable data at once (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Creswell & Creswell, 2017) from not more than one case to establish patterns of association between two or more variables (Bryman, 2012). That said, a cross-sectional research design is more appropriate for the study because it allows the researcher to establish the relationship between multiple variables. Therefore, with a cross-sectional design, the researcher was able to infer the possible degree of association between global (local) cultural identity and consumer global (local) brand preference, especially how these two cultural identities relate with the other variables such as the consumer xenocentrism, materialism, and consumer ethnocentrism.

3.4 Research Method

As the terms suggest, research methods are the techniques that a researcher uses to collect data for the study (Bryman, 2012; Hussain, 2019). Cooper & Schindler (2014) broadly classify these techniques as communication or monitoring data collection methods. The communication methods include surveys, interviews, and experiments, whereas the monitoring methods consist of observations. While the monitoring methods demand the researcher to inspect a subject's activities without eliciting a response, the communication technique requires the researcher to question the subjects and collect their responses, either by personal or impersonal means (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

For this study, a communication method, more specifically, a self-completion close-ended questionnaire, was administered to the study participants through Qualtrics, an online survey research software. The decision to administer the questionnaire online was because the

researcher wanted to lower the research costs and give participants the flexibility to answer the questionnaire on their schedule.

3.5 Population and Sample

In addition to the research design, the sampling strategy, a plan that spells out the cases to be studied and how many numbers, is an integral part of research (Vogt, 2008). Key to the sampling strategy is answers to questions, which cases are of interest for the study, how many these cases are, and, more importantly, how to gain access to these cases. In answering these questions, subsequent sections discuss the study population, the sampling method, and the sample size for the study.

3.5.1 Population

By definition, the population in research entails a collection of elements, including individuals, objects, or any unit of study about which the researcher wishes to make some statistical inference (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The target population for this study constitutes adults aged 18 years and above living or working in Zimbabwe. The choice of this cohort was because it represents a considerable proportion of the national population, about 51.6% of the country's population, translating to 7,811,210 individuals (World Population Review, 2021).

3.5.2 Sampling Method

Broadly sampling methods can be categorized as probability or non-probability (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007); however, in this study, the researcher used a non-probability sampling technique. More specifically, a convenient non-probability sampling technique. As Tanner (2018) points out, non-probability convenient sampling for an online survey involves the researcher posting the survey link on a website, and visitors will be invited to respond. Additionally, non-probability convenient sampling occurs when an invitation to participate is circulated online via social sites such as Twitter (Tanner,

2018). The choice of the non-probability convenient sampling through virtual networks is because virtual networks allow the researcher to expand on the geographical scope of the study, thereby increasing the sample representativeness.

3.5.3 Sample Size

A sample is a subset of the population selected to represent the entire population under study (Acharya et al., 2013; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). The sample size is crucial as it helps determine the statistical generalizations that can be made (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). The researcher used the (Creative Research Systems, n.d) software, an online calculator, to determine the sample size for the present study. With the aid of this software, the sample size is 384, derived from a population of 7,814,779 with, a 95% confidence level and a margin of error of 5.

Consistently, several prior studies on consumer global (local) brand preference in emerging markets (including Xie, Batra, & Peng, 2015; Yeboah-Banin & Quaye, 2021) had sample sizes of at least 384 participants. For example, Xie, Batra, & Peng (2015) had 317 filled out questionnaires, and after removing the missing values, the sample size dropped to 287. Also, in another cross-national research, Yeboah-Banin & Quaye (2021) had a sample size of 385 participants in South Africa and 347 in Ghana. Thus, in light of this, the 384 sample size for this study is consistent with other emerging market studies on cultural identity and global versus local brand preference. In addition, Structural Equation Model (SEM), the data analysis technique applied in this study, demands a large sample size of more than 200 participants (Dash & Paul, 2021). That said, the sample size for this study conforms to the minimum acceptable threshold and is consistent with similar studies.

3.6 The Research Instrument

Scholars such as Creswell & Creswell (2017) recommend using close-ended questionnaires for quantitative research methodology. A cross-sectional survey with structured close-ended questionnaires was administered to the study participants online via Qualtrics. As the name suggests, structured questions present the participants with a fixed set of choices (Cooper &

Schindler, 2014). With a structured close-ended questionnaire, the researcher gathered the most relevant data that answered the research questions, thereby minimizing the chances of collecting distorted data that did not answer the research questions. The set of questions for the study constituted conscious level information that participants were willing to share and with a very minimal degree of research objective disguise- please refer to Appendix A and B for a snippet of the study questionnaires.

Also, it is worth mentioning that part of the questionnaire had classification questions that included socio-demographic variables such as age, gender, level of education, employment status, and marital status of the study participants. Classification questions allow for grouping participants' responses, the pattern revealed, and the screening of participants based on their level of knowledge (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The researcher used classification questions involving socio-demographic variables to establish patterns, group study participants, and, more importantly, screen the participants. More precisely, the researcher used participants' age and nationality as the screening socio-demographic variables for the study. Participants had to be above 18 years, living or working in Zimbabwe.

Besides socio-demographic questions, the researcher borrowed the other structured questions relevant to the study from similar studies. Given that questions tend to age with time and become irrelevant (Cooper & Schindler, 2014), the researcher selectively borrows questions from the most recent similar studies, with instrument validity and reliability acceptable.

Finally, the researcher structured the questionnaire to demand participants to provide their responses to a rating grid for most of the target questions. In addition, some of the socio-demographic questions had dichotomous choices. As Cooper & Schindler (2014) underscores, target questions help address the investigative questions of a specific study. The

3.7 The Measuring Instruments

The measuring scales adopted for the study were extracted from the existing literature on cultural identity, consumer xenocentrism, materialism, consumer ethnocentrism, and global (local) brand preference, with verified reliability and validity. These already established measuring scales include the global-local identity scale, Consumer Xenocentrism Scale (C-XENSCALE), Consumer Ethnocentric Extended Scale (CEESCALE), and, lastly, the

Consumer Materialism Scale (C-MAT). The constructs were measured on a seven-point Likert scale, with scores ranging from one as strongly disagree to seven as strongly agree. Briefly, the measuring scales used for the study are discussed overleaf:

3.7.1 Global- Local Cultural Identity Scale

The global-local cultural identity scale was introduced by Arnett (2002), a psychologist whose motive was to discuss the psychological consequences of globalization (Tu et al., 2012). The scale was further conceptualized by Adwait Khare & Zhang (2009), reflecting 19 items from a study on US students. Several researchers find the scale Adwait Khare & Zhang (2009) developed as lengthy, time-consuming, and cumbersome due to the number of items (Tu et al., 2012). To this end, Tu et al. (2012) refined the scale, concentrating on 8-items to empirically measure global-local identity. Also, to allow for the generalizability of the scale, Tu et al. (2012) sample constitutes students and non-students from three different countries.

For this study, the researcher applied the shortened scale developed by Tu et al. (2012) e global-local cultural identity. The choice of the scale was mainly because of its length, which is considerably shorter than the one developed by Adwait Khare & Zhang (2009). Thus, a shorter scale help keep the questionnaire within a more reasonable length, reducing participants' fatigue and non-response. From the scale developed by Tu et al. (2012), the researcher measures global cultural identity using four items; similarly to local cultural identity

3.7.2 Consumer Ethnocentrism Scale (CEESCALE)

The C-ETH scale took its roots in consumer psychology and was developed by Shimp & Sharma in 1987 (Prince et al., 2019). For years, numerous adaptations have been made to the C-ETH scale; however, more recently, Balabanis & Siamagka (2015) further refined it to focus on foreign and domestic consumption practices (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019). As Balabanis & Siamagka (2015) assert, the changes made to the C-ETH scale were because of its dimensional problems and social desirability or response bias because of the quality of the measures. This study adopted the revised scale by Balabanis & Siamagka (2015), commonly known in the literature as the CEESCALE. This scale with seventeen items considers five

dimensions: pro-sociality, insecurity, cognitive, habitual, and reflexiveness as measures of consumer ethnocentric tendencies (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015; Prince et al., 2019; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019). However, in this study, the researcher measured consumer ethnocentrism with fifteen out of seventeen items, as Balabanis & Siamagka (2015) suggested. Primarily, this is because some of the items had weaker factor loadings, with scores below the standard benchmark of 0.50 (Hair Jr et al., 2021; Venugopal et al., 2022).- see appendix 8.2

3.7.3 Consumer Xenocentrism Scale (C-XENSCALE)

In this study, the researcher measures consumer xenocentrism with the C-XENSCALE. The C-XENSCALE is a two-dimensional scale with ten items connected to social aggrandizement and perceived inferiority (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016; Diamantopoulos et al., 2018). As Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2016) point out, the C-XENSCALE is characterized by a high stable dimensionality, reliability, and construct validity, and more importantly, it is not affected materially by social desirable responses (SDR); hence, the reason why the researcher used it for the present study.

3.7.4 Consumer Materialism Scale (C-MAT)

The Material Values Scale (MVS) was initially introduced to measure consumer materialism (Richins & Dawson, 1992). This scale was further shortened by Richins (2004) to reduce the demand effects or hypothesis guessing when used in a survey or an experiment (Richins, 2004). The researcher adopts the three-dimensional C-MAT scale Richins (2004) developed to measure materialism in this study. The three dimensions that make up the scale are conceptualized as (a) the use of possessions to judge the success of others and oneself; (b) the centrality of possessions in a person's life, and (c) the belief that possessions and their acquisition lead to happiness and life satisfaction (Richins, 2004). For brevity, in various literature, these dimensions have been categorized as acquisition centrality, the pursuit of happiness, and success (Siahtiri & Lee, 2019). Although Richins (2004) developed the seventeen items C-MAT scale, nine items were adopted as the measures for consumer

materialism. This is because some items had weak factor loadings that were below the acceptable benchmark.

3.7.5 Global & Local Brand Preference

Brand preference is consumers' bias towards a particular brand over others in the same category or consideration set (Chang & Liu, 2009). In this study, to measure global-local brand preference, as the outcome variable, the consumer likelihood of purchasing a global (local) brand in the future scale was used. This scale has been widely used in emerging market literature, especially by marketing scholars such as (Özsomer, 2012; Yeboah-Banin & Quaye, 2021), to measure consumer global (local) brand preference.

3.8 Data Collection

As discussed earlier, the present study uses the communication method of data collection. This method demands the researcher to question the subjects and collect their responses through personal or interpersonal means (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The researcher administered two surveys online via Qualtrics to meet the study's objective. ltar & Brunet (2012) points out that administering research online helps maximize the time-cost trade-off, improve the study's scope and increase the sample size.

3.8.1 Study 1: Brand Generation

Several scholars, such as Balabanis et al.(2019), underscore that consumer global (local) brand preference varies depending on the product category. Similarly, Diamantopoulos et al. (2018) assert that consumers do not buy or prefer global or local brands in general but specific brands within specific product categories. The researcher administered an online survey to identify a set of global (local) brands for the main study.

With this survey, the researcher requested participants to identify salient global and local brands for nine product categories: clothing, jewelry; refrigerators; financial services; fast

foods, beer; breakfast cereals; chocolate confectionaries; cosmetics, and skincare. These selected product categories are from previous studies such as (Balabanis et al., 2019; Halkias et al., 2016; López-Lomelí et al., 2019; Srivastava & Balaji, 2018). To reduce category specificity, as highlighted by scholars such as (Halkias et al., 2016; López-Lomelí et al., 2019), the researcher used a wide range of consumer goods- see Table 1.

Besides identifying global (local) brands, the researcher requested respondents to provide the country of origin for each global brand cited. Primarily to check brand familiarity and knowledge, which influences consumer brand preference.

Finally, the choice of the selected brands for the main study was based on the researcher's judgment of the brand salience and the market share. Thus, the study participants frequently mentioned global (local) brands and with a comparatively same brand equity level were selected for the main study.

3.8.2 Main Study

Similarly, the main survey was administered online via Qualtrics, a leading research software tool, to the targeted sample population. To recruit the study participants, the Qualtrics-generated link was uploaded and circulated on virtual networks (LinkedIn, WhatsApp, Twitter, and Facebook) on the researchers' profiles, and followers (fans) were requested to participate in the study.

3.9 Data Analysis

Data analysis involves dissecting the gathered research data into manageable sizes that allow for summaries developed and patterns established through statistical techniques (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

In this study, the researcher used Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), a data-analytic technique with unique and flexible capabilities (Tomarken & Waller, 2005), to establish the relationship between the research constructs. Generally, SEM in behavioral and social sciences (Hox & Bechger, n.d; Pruttiakaravanich & Songsiri, 2020) is applied to establish, estimate and

examine the causal relationship between variables (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). Also, in other studies, SEM is applied to test whether the research model best fits the given data set (Pruttiakaravanich & Songsiri, 2020; Zong, Yu, Tang, & Sun, 2019), particularly for cross-sectional studies (Dash & Paul, 2021).

There are two widely used methods of structural equation modeling, namely the covariance-based method of structural equation modeling (CB-SEM) and the partial least squares-based structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) (Dash & Paul, 2021). This study applied the PLS-SEM method using the Smart PLS software version 3 as the statistical package.

PLS-SEM is increasingly applied in marketing and management research to analyze the cause-effect relationship between latent constructs (Astrachan, Patel, & Wanzenried, 2014; Hair et al., 2014; Richter, Cepeda, Roldán, & Ringle, 2016). Several scholars suggest that PLS-SEM is more relevant where the population size is limited; the data is non-normal with very few observations; the research model comprises constructs of more than five, and with typically six or more indicators per construct (Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams, & Hair, 2014). Additionally, PLS-SEM can be applied when the research objective predicts rather than confirms structural relationships (Hair et al., 2014). In this regard, PLS-SEM was appropriate for the present study because the research questions involve (a) numerous multifaceted constructs that are more than five and with some constructs having more than six indicators, (b) the moderating or indirect effects of the structural model (c) estimation of the theoretical cause-effect relationship between variables.

3.9.1 Data Analysis- Brand Generation Study

The data was collected from 16 Black Africans aged 18-44 years. Of these participants, 81% were females; 88% had a bachelor's degree as their highest level of education, and 12% held a master's degree. Regarding marital status, a considerable proportion of the respondents were single, constituting about 56%, while the married were 38% and 6% divorced. Finally, from the survey, 88% are formally employed, 6% are students and 6% are employed- see Table 8 for detailed demographic statistics relating to Study 1.

From this survey, a total of 120 brands, as shown in Table 1, were mentioned by the respondents, including 44 local and the remaining 66 global brands, particularly of Western

origin. The respondents' global brands cited in the survey were from 12 different countries, with countries such as the United States of America, United Kingdom, Italy, and France representing a considerable proportion. Interestingly, despite the high salience for brands such as Nivea and Defy, some respondents construed them as local brands, while others associated them with the wrong foreign country of origin.

The researcher selected brands based on market share and brand salience for the main survey. Thus, the study participants frequently mentioned global (local) brands with a comparatively same level of equity were selected for the main study. A brand with a relatively higher familiarity score was used for the main study. However, there are some product categories where the cited brands had different brand equity and market penetration, so the researcher decided to drop them from the main study. This was done to control the effect of brand equity on consumer preference as previous research suggests that brand equity influences consumer judgment, especially consumer preference and attitude (Lopez-Lomelí, Llonch-Andreu, & Rialp-Criado, 2019).

Table 1: Summary of global and local brands for different product categories

Product Category	**Global Brands**	**Local Brands**
Cosmetic & Skincare	Nivea, Dove, Ponds, Black Opal, Avon, Vaseline, Revlon, Lux, Loreal, Clinique	Elegance, Olinda Chapel Cosmetic, Kubi, Porta Skin, Jacquie Mgido Cosmetics, Bint el Sudan, Vault
Chocolate Confectionaries	Cadbury, Lindor, LINDT, Ferrero Roche, KitKat, Nestle, Aero, Swiss, Luka Chocolate, Hershey	Pascal, Freddo, Bakers Inn, Charhons, Crystal
Refrigerators	Defy, Samsung, Hisense, KIC, Whirlpool, Imperial, LG, Sharp, Kelvinator	Capri
Financial Services	Old Mutual, Standard Chartered, Barclays, Ernest & Young, BancABC, Deloitte	CBZ Holdings, ZIMNAT, AgricBank, Direct Connect, Fincent, EcoSure

Clothing	Adidas, Gucci, Calvin Klein, Polo, Nike, Louis Vuitton, PUMA, Edgars, Jet, Truworths, Givenchy	Faithwear, Tsie Creations, Kutaura, Powersales, Mudhuri, Hatipere, Natai Natai, Thace Appar
Jewelry	Pandora, American Swiss, Kannadda, Cartier, Burberry, Rolex, Taylor & Hart, Louis Vuitton, Swarovski, Boz Jewelry, Rajasthani, Damiani	Aurex, Merquise Jewelry, JT Jewelry, Aura, Fromeon Jewelry, By Zeaux
Beer	Heineken, Amarula, Amstel, Hunters, Smirnoff, Corona, Budweiser, Guinness, Coopers, Castle	Zambezi, Chibuku, Kumusha Wines
Breakfast Cereals	Kellogg's, Jungle Oats, Cocoa Pops, Bakomo, Fruit Loops	Willards, Mama's, Cerevita
Fast Foods	KFC, Nandos, McDonald's, Burger King	Chicken Inn, Chicken Slice, Chicken Hut, Mambos

Table 2: Selected global and local brands for the main study

Product Category	Global Brands	Country of Origin	Local Brands
Cosmetics & Skincare	Nivea	Germany	Elegance
Refrigerators	Defy	South Africa	Capri
Fast Foods	KFC	USA	Chicken Inn

3.10 Pilot Testing

Generally, the objective of pilot studies is to help the researcher improve the research instrument, particularly the questions, format, and instructions (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Also, pilot testing of the survey is essential as it helps establish the content validity of an instrument and provides an initial evaluation of the internal consistency of the items (Creswell

& Creswell, 2017). Before undertaking the main study, a pilot study to pre-test the research instrument was administered to sixty-three participants via Qualtrics for two weeks. The researcher circulated the Qualtrics-generated link on social media platforms, including Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn, to the target population to gather data for the pilot study. The following section presents the demographics statistics, respondents' feedback, the reliability and viability of the measurement scale, and finally, the pilot study results.

3.10.1 Pilot Study Demographic Statistics

[n=63]

	Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	33	52%
	Female	30	48%
Age	18-24 yrs.	3	5%
	25- 34 yrs.	47	75%
	35-44yrs.	11	17%
	45-54 yrs.	2	3%
Ethnicity	Black African	63	100%
Employment Status	Student	1	2%
	Unemployed	3	5%
	Formally Employed	55	87%
	Self Employed	4	6%
Marital Status	Single	24	38%
	Married	36	57%
	Divorced	2	3%
	Widowed	1	2%
Education	Certificate	1	2%
	Diploma	1	2%
	Degree	40	63%
	Masters	21	33%

Table 3: Demographic profile of pilot study respondents

3.10.2 Measurement model assessment for the pilot study

Two stages are involved in PLS-SEM data analysis: the measurement model assessment and the structural model assessment (Hair et al., 2014; Hult, Sharma, Morgeson, & Zhang, 2019; Sarstedt et al., 2014). The measurement model assessment consists of several steps: first, examining the indicator loadings, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and finally, discriminant validity (Sarstedt et al., 2014).

3.10.2.1 Indicator Loadings

First, the researcher ran the PLS-SEM algorithm at 5000 interactions and a stop criterion of 7. The results of the outer model assessment, as shown in the Appendix under Section 8.2.1, reveal that most of the items had loadings within the acceptable benchmark of 0.50 or higher (Hair Jr et al., 2021; Venugopal et al., 2022). However, some items had factor loadings below 0.50; the researcher eliminated them from the structural model assessment.

3.10.2.2 Internal Consistency Reliability

In this study, the internal consistency reliability was examined against the standard benchmark of 0.70 or higher, as Hair et al. (2014) suggested. As shown in Table 4, the results show that the composite reliability of all the constructs was within the acceptable threshold, with scores ranging from 0.776 to 0.921.

Latent Construct	Composite Reliability
Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.905
Global Brand Preference	0.776
Global Cultural Identity	0.843
Local Brand Preference	0.782
Local Cultural Identity	0.83
Consumer Materialism	0.858
Consumer Xenocentrism	0.921

Table 4: Pilot study constructs composite reliability

3.10.2.3 Convergent Reliability

The average variance extracted (AVE) evaluated the construct's convergent reliability. As indicated in previous studies, the acceptable AVE is 0.50 or higher (Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2014), and in this study, the results reveal that most of the constructs had an AVE score within the acceptable benchmark, except for consumer materialism and consumer ethnocentrism. Results are shown in Table 5 below.

Latent Construct	**Average Variance Extracted (AVE)**
Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.41
Global Brand Preference	0.549
Global Cultural Identity	0.642
Local Brand Preference	0.644
Local Cultural Identity	0.551
Consumer Materialism	0.435
Consumer Xenocentrism	0.565

Table 5: Pilot study construct convergent reliability

3.10.2.4 Discriminant Validity

HTMT Ratio with results displayed in Table 6 overleaf highlights that all the constructs were within the acceptable discriminant validity cut-off score of 0.85 (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014).

Table 6: HTMT ratio pilot study results

	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Materialism	Consumer Xenocentrism	Global Brand Preference	Global Cultural Identity	Local Brand Preference
Consumer Ethnocentrism						
Consumer Materialism	0.249					
Consumer Xenocentrism	0.339	0.413				
Global Brand Preference	0.305	0.528	0.47			
Global Cultural Identity	0.249	0.408	0.242	0.394		
Local Brand Preference	0.793	0.28	0.342	0.529	0.292	
Local Cultural Identity	0.331	0.425	0.29	0.313	0.814	0.452

3.10.3 Pilot Study Structural Model Assessment

Results from the PLS-SEM structural model assessment (as shown in Table 7) reveal that:

- Local cultural identity has no significant effect on local brand preference (β = 0.155, t = 0.926 and p = 0.355). Hence, $H1_a$ is rejected.
- Consumer ethnocentrism has a significant effect on preference for local brands (β = 0.511, t = 6.179 and p = 0.00).
- Local cultural identity has no significant effect on local brand preference for consumers with strong ethnocentric tendencies (β = 0.053, t = 0.31 and p = 0.756). Hence $H1_b$ is rejected.
- Global cultural identity has no significant effect on global brand preference (β = 0.081, t = 0.651 and p = 0.515). Hence, $H2_a$ is rejected
- Consumer xenocentrism has a significant effect on global brand preference (β = 0.243, t = 1.935 and p = 0.053).
- Global cultural identity has no significant effect on global brand preference for consumers with xenocentric tendencies (β = 0.077, t = 0.602 and p = 0.547). Hence, $H2_b$ is rejected.
- Materialism has a significant effect on global brand preference (β = 0.307, t = 2.07 and p = 0.039).
- Global cultural identity has no significant effect on global brand preference for consumers with materialistic tendencies (β = -0.13, t = 0.855 and p = 0.393). Hence, $H2_c$ is rejected.

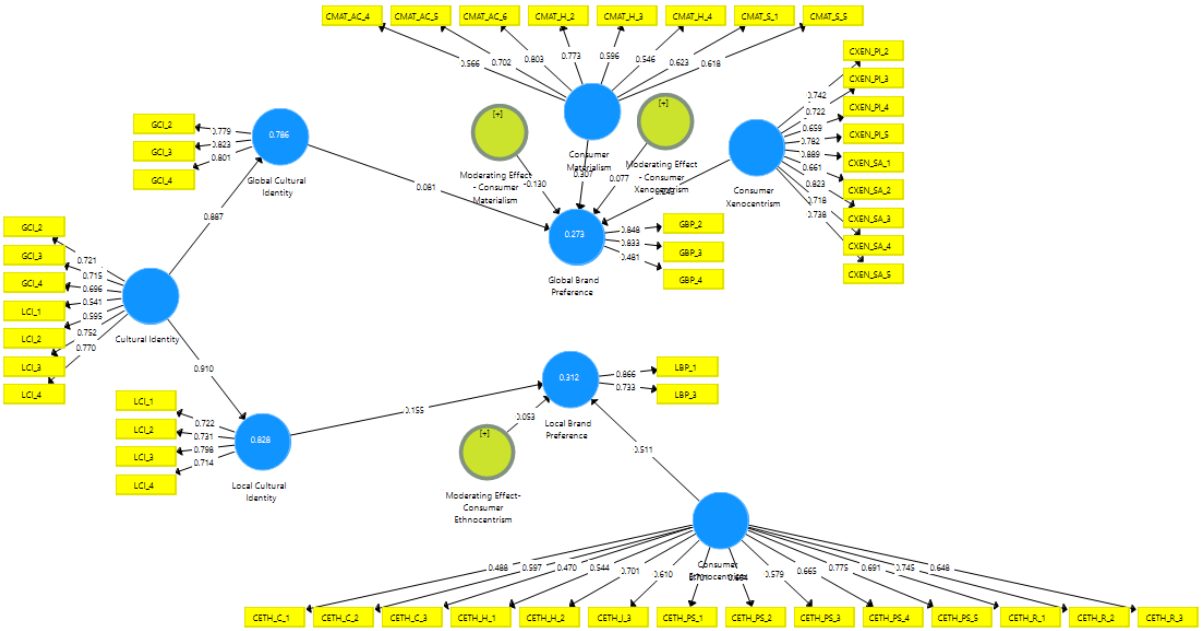


Figure 3: Pilot Study Structural Path Model

Table 7: Pilot Study Hypothesis Testing Results

	Path Coefficient	Standard Deviation	T Statistics	P Values
Direct Effects				
$H1_a$: Local Cultural Identity -> Local Brand Preference	0.155	0.168	0.926	0.355
$H1_b$: Global Cultural Identity -> Global Brand Preference	0.081	0.124	0.651	0.515
Consumer Materialism -> Global Brand Preference	0.307	0.149	2.07	0.039
Consumer Xenocentrism -> Global Brand Preference	0.243	0.125	1.935	0.053
Consumer Ethnocentrism -> Local Brand Preference	0.511	0.083	6.179	0
Moderating Effects				
$H2_c$: Global cultural identity*Consumer Materialism -> Global Brand Preference	-0.13	0.152	0.855	0.393
$H2_b$: Global cultural identity*Consumer Xenocentrism -> Global Brand Preference	0.077	0.128	0.602	0.547
$H1_b$: Local cultural identity*Consumer Ethnocentrism -> Local Brand Preference	0.053	0.171	0.31	0.756

3.10.4 Feedback from the pilot research

Several participants mentioned that the questionnaire was too long, particularly the introductory section, Q4 about consumer materialism with seventeen items, and Q8 about consumer ethnocentrism with seventeen items. Mainly, respondents who completed the survey using mobile phones considered the length too long. On average, the participants took thirty-four minutes to complete the survey. As a result, the researcher reduced the length of the introductory section and optimized the survey for a mobile-friendly view. Regarding Q4 and Q8 feedback, the researcher maintained the number of items, irrespective of the comments raised by the participants. However, the question sections had to be presented in a visually appealing layout to make them appear shorter.

Finally, the researcher activated the "allow to finish later" feature on Qualtrics. This feature allows respondents to pause, resume and finish the survey at a later convenient time.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

There are two types of ethics: procedural and practice (Guillemin & Gillam, 2016). As the name suggests, procedural research ethics involves reviewing the research plan by the institutional review board (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Before undertaking the survey, the researcher applied for ethical clearance from the Graduate School of Business Administration Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical) in this study. The application for the ethical clearance had information about the data collection procedure, the risk level, and the data protection mechanics during and after the study.

On the other hand, ethics in practice relates to the day-to-day ethical issues that arise while undertaking research (Guillemin & Gillam, 2016). In this regard, the researcher had to seek consent from the respondents before participating in the study. Usually, participants' consent is essential as it confirms agreement with the provisions of the study (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Some of these provisions include; the level of participation, the purpose of the study (academic research); data confidentiality, and anonymity. It is also worth mentioning that

participation was voluntary, and there was not any coercion or any form of incentives given to the study participants, be it monetary or non-monetary.

Also, the research instrument had confidentiality and anonymity clauses; the researcher never requested participants to provide any personal identity information. The researcher anonymized the responses to ensure anonymity when setting up the survey on Qualtrics. By activating this feature on Qualtrics, Qualtrics automatically removes any identifiable information (such as IP address) when someone completes the survey. However, should any personal identification information be picked, the researcher used de-identification techniques to preserve the privacy of the respondents. The researcher used pseudonyms to represent the study participants' data in the present research report.

Finally, the research participants' data is held securely and not disclosed to anyone other than the University of Witwatersrand Graduate School of Business Administration for the present study. Thus, only the survey collaborators and the researcher had access to the study data.

3.12 Conclusion

This chapter provides the research blueprint, undressing the study population, the sampling method, and, more importantly, the data collection and analysis techniques applied. In this regard, this study is a quantitative cross-sectional survey comprising close-ended questionnaires administered to 223 participants recruited online using a non-probability convenient sampling technique. The PLS-SEM method is applied using the Smart PLS statistical package version 3 to analyze the survey data. The following chapter presents the research findings in detail, notably the demographic statistics of the study participants and the PLS-SEM analysis.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The researcher discusses descriptive demographic statistics in this chapter, presenting results from the PLS-SEM analyses. The PLS-SEM analysis involves an assessment of the measurement model that includes an evaluation of the construct validity and reliability. Then, results from the structural model analysis are presented at the end, demonstrating the significance of the proposed relationships.

4.2 Demographic profile of the main study respondents

The survey data was collected through Qualtrics, an online research survey software, for a period of three weeks. The researcher recruited participants for the study using virtual platforms such as WhatsApp, LinkedIn, Twitter, and Facebook. Participants were requested to share the link with their friends, workmates, or family members. As a result, 323 people agreed to participate in the survey; however, 223 responses had complete data after eliminating incomplete responses with missing data. Therefore, all the percentages are based on the responses with complete data. Table 8 overleaf presents the summarized demographic profile of the study participants.

Table 8: Basic demographic profile of the respondents for the main study

		Brand Generation Study [n=16]		Main Study [n=223]	
Demographic Variables		*Frequency*	*Percentage*	*Frequency*	*Percentage*
Gender	Male	03	19%	117	52%
	Female	13	81%	106	48%
Age	18-24 yrs.	04	25%	7	3%
	25- 34 yrs.	11	69%	140	63%
	35-44yrs.	01	6%	64	29%
	45-54 yrs.	-	-	12	5%
Ethnicity	Black African	16	100%	222	99.6%
	Coloured	-	-	1	0.4%
Employment	Student	01	6%	4	2%
Status	Unemployed	01	6%	5	2%
	Formally Employed	14	88%	189	85%
	Self Employed	-	-	25	11%
Marital Status	Single	09	56%	79	35%
	Married	06	38%	134	61%
	Divorced	01	6%	7	3%
	Widowed	-	-	3	1%
Education	Certificate	-	-	5	3%
	Diploma	-	-	11	5%
	Degree	14	88%	123	55%
	Masters	02	12%	83	37%
	Doctorate	-	-	1	0.5%

4.2.1 Gender

All the 223 participants with complete responses were willing to disclose their gender from the survey. As shown in Table 8, most of the study participants were males, constituting 52 percent,

while female respondents were 48 percent. Surprisingly, the gender split does not reflect the national population statistics as ZIMSTATS (2017) revealed, where females represent about 52 percent of the national population while the rest are males.

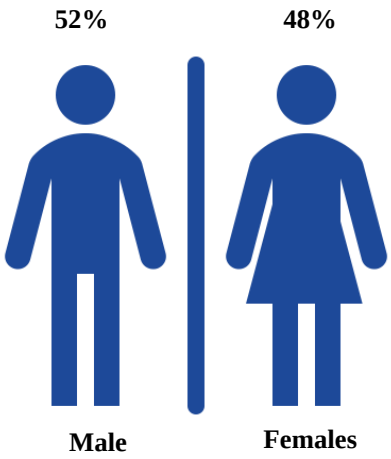


Figure 4: Gender distribution of the research sample

4.2.2 Age

The people in Zimbabwe are relatively youthful (ZIMSTATS, 2017). A considerable proportion of the survey participants were aged 25-34 years, 35-44 years, and 45-54 years. While the 18-24 years cohort had very few respondents, representing about 3 percent of the sample population as shown in Figure 5 below, the 55 years and above segment had no participants.

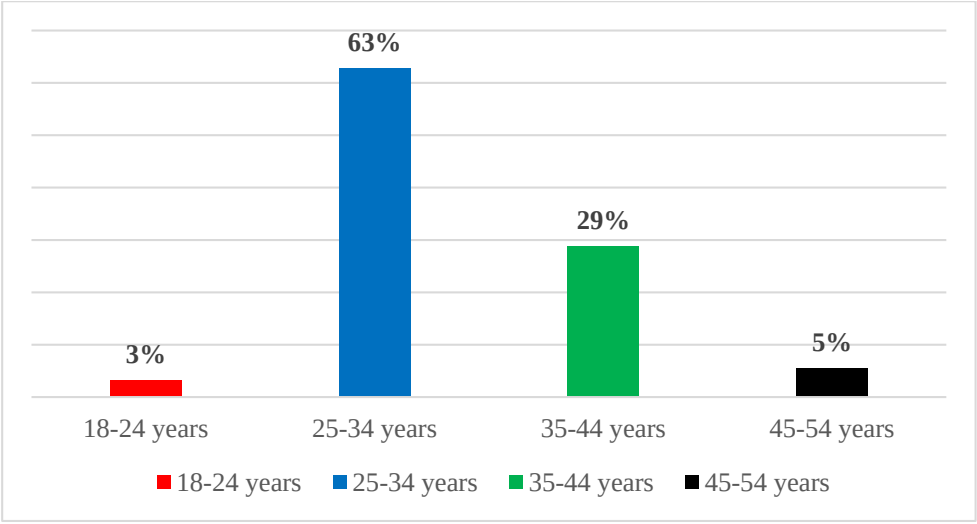


Figure 5: Age distribution of the research sample

4.2.3 Ethnicity

Zimbabwe's population predominately constitutes people of African origin, representing about 99.7% of the entire population (ZIMSTATS, 2017). Similarly, the survey data reveals the same statistics; the Black African ethnic group had 99.6 percent, while the remaining 0.4 percent represents those who are colored (as shown in Figure 6 below)

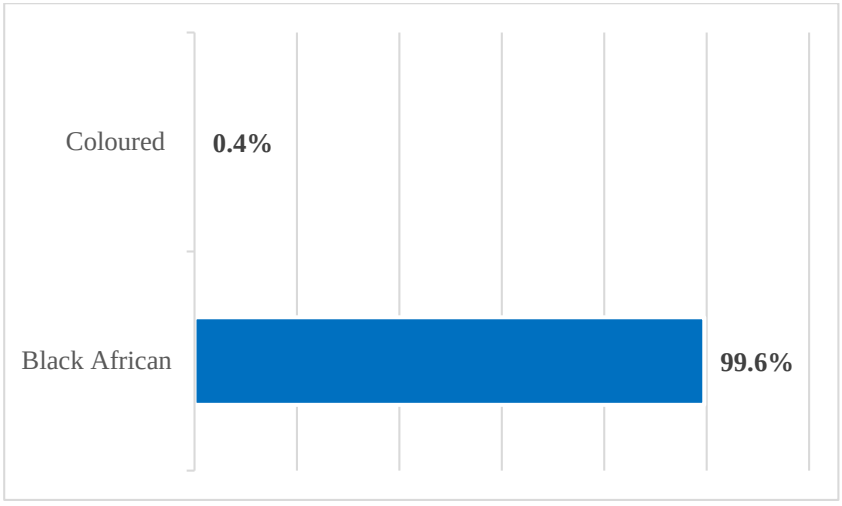


Figure 6: Ethnic group distribution of the sample

4.2.4 Employment Status

As shown in Figure 7 overleaf, a large proportion of the sample population consisted of formally employed respondents, representing about 85 percent. In comparison, 11 percent are self-employed, 2 percent are unemployed, and 2% are students. As for the retirees, there were no participants. These statistics dovetail with the World Bank website's figures that reflect a 5.73 percent unemployment rate (WorldBank., 2020). Similarly, the ZIMSTATS (2017) reveals that 93 percent of the Zimbabwean economically active population is employed.

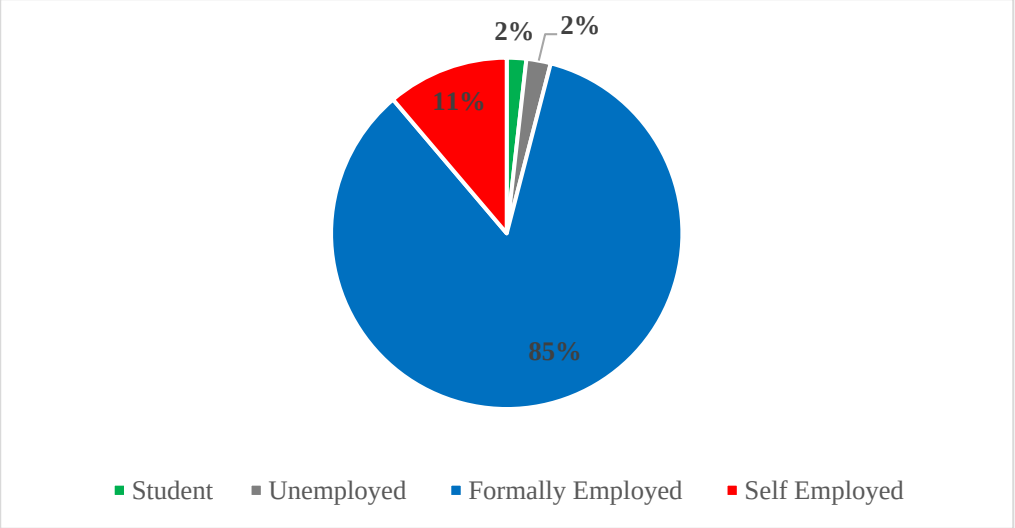


Figure 7: Employment status of the study participants

4.2.5 Marital Status

Results from the study reveal that 61 percent of the study participants are married, representing a considerable proportion. The remaining 35 percent are single, 1 percent widowed, and 3 percent are divorced. Similarly, though somewhat different statistics, the ZIMSTATS (2017) population census reveals that 56% of Zimbabwe's over 13 million population are married while 14 percent are divorced, separated, or widowed.

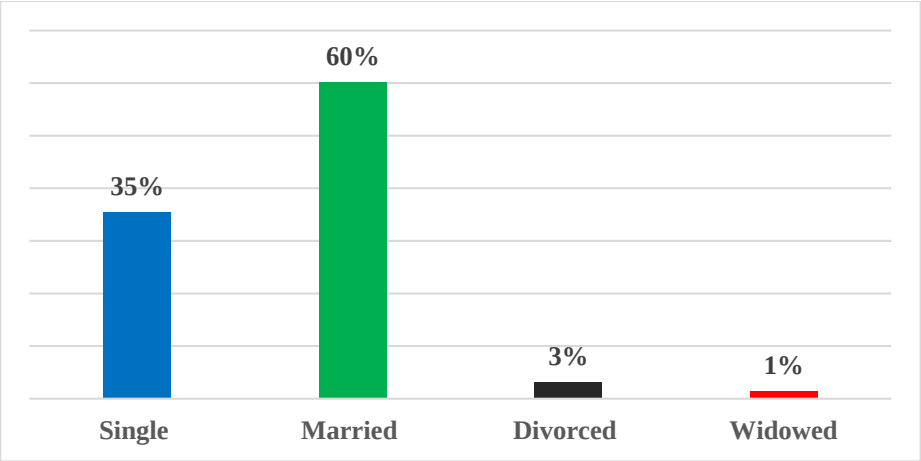


Figure 8: Marital status of the study participants

4.2.6 Education

Data collected from the survey reveals that 55 percent of the participants were degree holders, 37 percent were Master's graduates, 3 percent had certificates, 5 percent had diplomas, and 0.5 percent had a doctorate (see Figure 9 below)

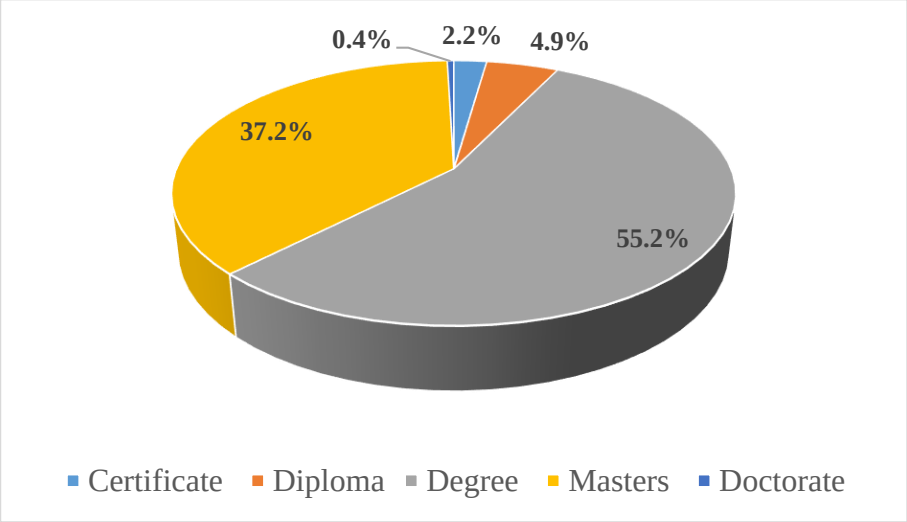


Figure 9: Education level of the study participants

4.3 Measurement Model Assessment

As indicated by numerous scholars such as (Hair et al., 2014; Hult et al., 2019; Sarstedt et al., 2014), two stages are involved in a PLS-SEM analysis, first, an assessment of the measurement model, then the structural model. The first stage involves examining the measurement model, also known as the outer model in PLS-SEM. The measurement model describes the relationship between the latent constructs and their measures or indicators (Hair Jr et al., 2021). The assessment depends on whether the model includes reflective or formative measures (Sarstedt et al., 2014). Accordingly, in this study, the measurement model had reflective constructs.

The measurement model assessment aims to help determine if the measures adopted to operationalize the underlying constructs are valid and reliable (Hult et al., 2019). As recommended by scholars such as Sarstedt et al.(2014), when assessing the measurement model, the first step is to examine the indicator loadings of the reflective constructs, followed

by internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and finally, the discriminant validity. Therefore, this section is structured as follows: first, factor loadings for the items are assessed, then establishing the construct internal consistency reliability, then convergent validity, and finally discriminant validity.

4.3.1 Indicator Loadings

Examining the measurement model using PLS-SEM begins with assessing the indicator loadings against the standard benchmark (Dash & Paul, 2021; Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2014). Using Smart PLS-SEM version 3 software, the researcher ran a PLS algorithm of 5000 iterations at a stop criterion of 7. As shown in Figure 10, all the eight items for global (local) cultural identity; fifteen out of seventeen items for consumer ethnocentrism, all the ten items for consumer xenocentrism, and nine out of seventeen items for consumer materialism had loadings within the acceptable benchmark of 0.50 or higher (Hair Jr et al., 2021; Venugopal et al., 2022). The ≥ 0.50 rule of thumb has been adapted from similar studies such as Nguyen et al.(2008). See Appendix D for a list of items with factor loadings below the acceptable threshold of 0.50.

4.3.2 Internal consistency reliability

Following indicator reliability, internal consistency was assessed, evaluated by an analysis of the composite reliability as recommended by scholars such as Sarstedt et al.(2014). As shown in Table 9, results reveal that the composite reliability for the constructs was within the standard benchmark, with values ranging from 0.704 to 0.903. The acceptable rule of thumb for composite reliability should be higher than 0.70 to be considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 9: Construct reliability assessment

	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Consumer Ethnocentrism	0.888	0.351
Consumer Materialism	0.856	0.401
Consumer Xenocentrism	0.903	0.489
Global Brand Preference	0.76	0.526
Global Cultural Identity	0.814	0.524
Local Brand Preference	0.704	0.444
Local Cultural Identity	0.802	0.51

4.3.3 Convergent Reliability

According to Sarstedt et al. (2014, p.108), "convergent validity measures the extent to which a construct converges in its indicators explaining the items." In assessing the convergent validity, the researcher measured the average variance extracted (AVE) for all the items associated with the construct. The acceptable AVE is 0.50 or higher (Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2014). The assessment results reveal that most constructs had an AVE score within the standard benchmark except for consumer ethnocentrism, local brand preference, and consumer materialism. As shown in Table 9, consumer ethnocentrism has a value of 0.351, consumer materialism 0.401, and the local brand preference score of 0.444.

4.3.4 Discriminant Validity

Finally, the researcher examined the discriminant validity of the constructs. Discriminant validity measures whether a construct differs from other constructs in the same model (Astrachan et al., 2021). Several approaches can be used to establish discriminant validity, and

these include the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) criterion (Astrachan et al., 2021) and the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Sarstedt et al., 2014). Despite being widely used in several studies to measure discriminant validity, the Fornell-Larcker criterion is highly criticized for efficacy (Henseler et al., 2014). In light of this, the researcher examines discriminant validity by assessing the HTMT ratio. This is primarily because some scholars (such as Astrachan et al., 2021; Henseler et al., 2014) consider the HTMT criterion as more robust and with a higher degree of efficacy. The cut-off value for the HTMT ratio is 0.85 for constructs to meet the criteria for discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2014). The results in Table 10 show that all the values of the HTMT ratio are below the cut-off value of 0.85; hence, discriminant validity is attained.

4.4 Structural Model Assessment

The second stage of PLS-SEM analysis is the structural (also known as inner) model assessment. This stage involves establishing the significance of the structural relationships between constructs (Sarstedt et al., 2014). Before examining the structural model, the researcher tested the model for potential collinearity between constructs. The model had no collinearity issues since the outer and inner VIF values were within the threshold, with scores ranging from 1.004 to 2.32. Then, bootstrapping was run using Smart PLS-SEM version 3 software at 5000 subsamples, as Astrachan et al. (2014) recommended, to determine the significance level of the inner model. The results are shown in Figure 10

4.4.1 Local Cultural Identity and Consumer Local Brand Preference (Hypothesis 1_a- 1_b)

First, the direct effects were assessed, assessing the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Astrachan et al., 2014). To this end, the researcher tested the relationship between local cultural identity and local brand preference. The results as shown in Table 11 ($\beta = 0.062$, $t = 0.968$ and $p = 0.333$) demonstrate that local cultural identity has no significant effect on local brand preference. Therefore, the researcher rejects hypothesis $H1_a$ since $p=0.333>0.10$.

Additionally, before testing the moderating effect of consumer ethnocentrism, it was found that consumer ethnocentrism significantly affects local brand preference (β = 0.299, t = 5.503, and p = 0). This is because p =0< 0.10

Finally, the indirect effects were evaluated, testing the moderating effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the relationship between local cultural identity and local brand preference. The results (β = -0.022, t = 0.327 and p = 0.744) indicate that the moderating effect of consumer ethnocentrism has no significant effort on the relationship between local cultural identity and local brand preference. Hence, $H1_b$ is rejected.

4.4.2 Global Cultural Identity and Consumer Global Brand Preference (Hypothesis 2_a-2_c)

The researcher first assessed the direct effect between global cultural identity and global brand preference. As indicated in Table 11, the results demonstrate that global cultural identity has a significant effect on global brand preference (β = 0.175, t = 2.233 and p = 0.026). This is because p=0.026 < 0.10. Therefore, in light of this, $H2_a$ is supported.

Moreover, the researcher established the relationship between consumer xenocentrism and consumer materialism on global brand preference. The results are as follows: consumer xenocentrism (β = 0.118, t = 1.755 and p = 0.079) and consumer materialism (β = 0.271, t =3.997 and p = 0.00). So, the researcher concludes that both consumer xenocentrism and materialism significantly affect global brand preference. since p=0<0.10.

Finally, when assessing the indirect effects, results, as shown in Table 11, reveals that both consumer xenocentrism (β =0.006, t =0.065 and p = 0.948) and consumer materialism (β = -0.063, t =0.787 and p = 0.431) has no significant effect on global brand preference. Therefore, the researcher rejects hypotheses $H2_b$ and $H2_c$ since the p-values are greater than the acceptable 0.10 threshold for social sciences research (Shrestha, 2019).

Table 10: Discriminant Validity Assessment using the HTMT Ratio

	Consumer Ethnocentrism	Consumer Materialism	Consumer Xenocentrism	Global Brand Preference	Global Cultural Identity	Local Brand Preference	Local Cultural Identity
Consumer Ethnocentrism							
Consumer Materialism	0.202						
Consumer Xenocentrism	0.296	0.436					
Global Brand Preference	0.176	0.475	0.325				
Global Cultural Identity	0.155	0.2	0.168	0.379			
Local Brand Preference	0.473	0.268	0.331	0.351	0.304		
Local Cultural Identity	0.198	0.291	0.182	0.423	0.622	0.229	

Table 11: Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypothesis	**Path Coefficient**	**SD**	**T Statistics**	**P Values**
Direct effects				
H2a*:* Global Cultural Identity -> Global Brand Preference	0.175	0.079	2.233	0.026
H1a*:* Local Cultural Identity -> Local Brand Preference	0.062	0.064	0.968	0.333
Consumer Materialism -> Global Brand Preference	0.271	0.0698	3.997	0.00
Consumer Xenocentrism -> Global Brand Preference	0.118	0.067	1.755	0.079
Consumer Ethnocentrism -> Local Brand Preference	0.299	0.054	5.503	0.00
Moderation effects				
H2c: Global cultural identity*Consumer Materialism -> Global Brand Preference	-0.063	0.08	0.787	0.431
H2b: Global cultural identity*Consumer Xenocentrism -> Global Brand Preference	0.006	0.09	0.065	0.948
H1b: Local cultural identity*Consumer Ethnocentrism -> Local Brand Preference	-0.022	0.067	0.327	0.744

4.5 Structural Path Model

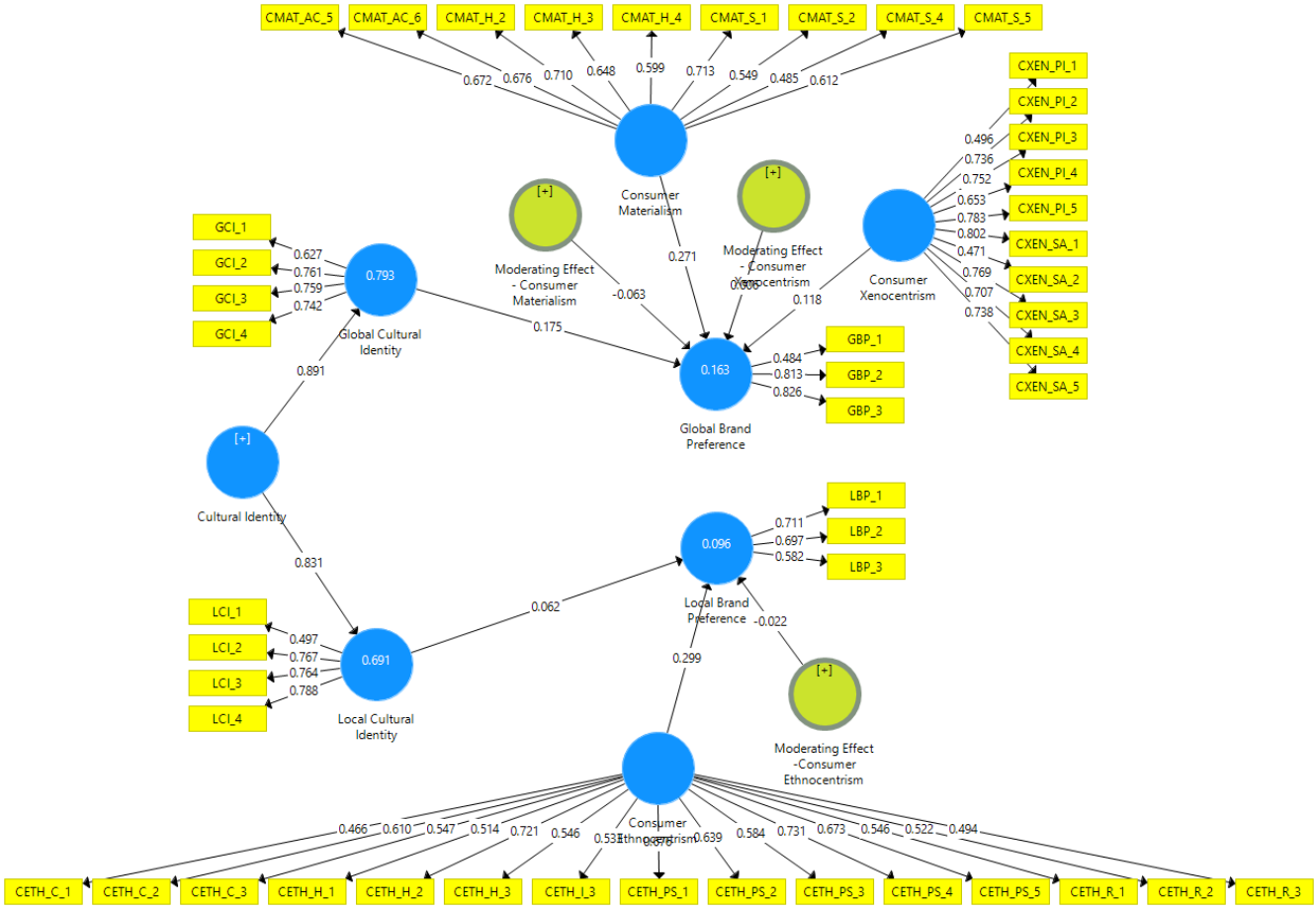


Figure 10: Final Study Structural Path Model

4.6 Conclusion

This study aimed to establish the relationship between global (local) cultural identity and global (local) brand preference, particularly for consumers with strong ethnocentric, xenocentric, and materialistic tendencies. In summary, the result from the PLS-SEM method applied using Smart PLS software version 3 reveals that (a) local cultural identity has no significant effect on local brand preference for consumers with strong ethnocentric tendencies, (b) global cultural identity has no significant effect on global brand preference for consumers with strong xenocentric tendencies, and finally, global cultural identity has no significant effect on global brand preference for consumers with materialistic tendencies. The following chapter discusses

these research findings in detail, comparing them to findings from similar studies and theoretical contributions by several international marketing scholars.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is a discussion of the research findings. Broadly, it provides an interpretation of the findings with respect to the research questions, the study hypothesis, and the theoretical contribution of several marketing scholars. The remainder of this section is structured as follows: first, a discussion about the research problem, then, the hypothesized relationship between the variables, highlighting the critical findings and how they complement the existing literature.

5.2 Discussion of the main research problem

Generally, the discussion chapter begins with a discussion of the study purpose (Annesley, 2010; Bavdekar, 2015), the research problem, and the questions (Kretchmer, 2003; University of South Califonia, 2022).

This study aimed to establish the relationship between global (local) cultural identities and global (local) brand preference in an emerging market context, moderating the role of consumer ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, and materialism. Several scholars, including (Diamantopoulos, Davvetas, et al., 2019; Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019), call for research to establish the influence of global (local) cultural identities, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer xenocentrism, and materialism on global (local) brand preference, especially in emerging markets where there is still limited research (Srivastava & Balaji, 2018), with inconsistent and contrasting empirical findings (Srivastava et al., 2020). More broadly, the results of the study demonstrate that (a) local cultural identity has no significant effect on consumer preference for local brands, (b) global cultural identity has a significant effect on global brand preference, (c) local cultural identity does not positively relate to preference local brands for consumers with strong ethnocentric tendencies, (d) global cultural identity has no significant effect on global brand preference for consumers with strong xenocentric tendencies, and finally, global cultural identity has no significant effect on global brand preference for consumers with materialistic tendencies. Also, materialism and consumer xenocentrism positively relate to global brand

preference, while consumer ethnocentrism positively relates to local brand preference. The following section discusses and interprets these results in detail, comparing and contrasting them with the findings of other relevant studies.

5.3 Relationship between local cultural identity and local brand preference

International marketing literature has widely accepted that local cultural identity positively relates to local brand preference (Balabanis et al., 2019; Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009). Results from this study challenge the popular belief about local cultural identity and consumer brand preference. This study shows that local cultural identity does not significantly affect consumer preference for local brands. Similarly, a cross-national survey on cultural identity and brand preference by Yeboah-Banin & Quaye (2021) reveals that the relationship between local cultural identity and local brand preference is not significant in South Africa. Prior work suggests that when choosing between global (local) brands, consumers use different signals of self-identity depending on their country (Strizhakova et al., 2008; Yeboah-Banin & Quaye, 2021). Thus, it is highly probable that the dissimilarities in research findings may be due to national differences.

Zimbabwe's manufacturing sector has rebounded over the past two years (The Sunday Mail, 2021), characterized by operational inefficiencies, technology, and human capital deficiencies (Damiyano, Mushanyuri, Muchabaiwa, & Chikomba, 2012). In light of this, domestic products (local brands) are associated with lower quality, especially when compared to foreign products from countries with highly competitive manufacturing sectors. In this study, about 45% of the participants believe that very few domestic products are of equal quality to foreign products, hence the indisposition toward local brands. Accordingly, the researcher reasons that local brands' indisposition by consumers with a strong local cultural orientation may have to do with consumer perception of product quality and the deficiencies in the domestic manufacturing sector.

5.3.1 Moderating effects of consumer ethnocentrism

This study demonstrates that consumer ethnocentrism positively relates to local brand preference. This result supports the widely accepted belief that consumer ethnocentrism positively relates to local brand preference (Ma, Yang, & Yoo, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2008; Yildiz et al., 2018; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015).

Generally, ethnocentric consumers perceive foreign products as a threat to the domestic economy (Hamelin et al., 2011; He & Wang, 2015; Khan et al., 2019; Kipnis et al., 2012; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013; Nguyen et al., 2008; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015), particularly employment and the balance of trade (Balabanis et al., 2019; Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj, 2011; Prince et al., 2019). However, though Zimbabweans accept that job losses in the country result from increased importation of foreign products, they do not believe buying foreign brands is a threat to the domestic economy. In addition, the study reveals that in Zimbabwe, consumers make purchase decisions due to pro-sociality motives; that is, they consider and care for others employed by domestic companies when making their consumption decisions. As Balabanis & Siamagka (2015) assert, pro-sociality decisions are out of purely altruistic motives; that is, the interest of others supersedes personal interests. Therefore, the researcher concludes that pro-sociality motives primarily drive ethnocentric consumer bias towards local brands in this context.

Moreover, this study found that the moderating effect of consumer ethnocentrism on the relationship between local cultural identity and local brand preference is insignificant. In other words, local cultural identity does not significantly impact local brand preference for consumers with ethnocentric tendencies. Arguably, López-Lomelí et al. (2019) highlight that consumers with ethnocentric tendencies are proud of their culture and prefer local brands that reflect local cultural meanings. Consistently, it is also said that consumer ethnocentrism moderates the willingness to buy local brands (Yen, 2018). The effect of consumer ethnocentrism is substantial among consumers with local cultural identities (Ma et al., 2020). The researcher infers that ethnocentric consumers in Zimbabwe are not attached to their local traditions, values, and culture, so they do not prefer local brands. This study reveals that 30 percent of the study participants hold a local cultural orientation; they believe they are local citizens who highly regard local traditions and values.

5.4 Relationship between global cultural identity and global brand preference

Consumers engage with the global and local discourse differently depending on the dominant identity or contextual factors (de Jong & Steenkamp, 2010; Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009; Laroche & Cleveland, 2007; Makri et al., 2018). As anticipated, the results of this study show that global cultural identity is positively related to consumer preference for global brands. A more recent cross-national study by Yeboah-Banin & Quaye (2021) on emerging African countries reveals that the global cultural identity in Ghana and South Africa positively influences global brand preference. When a global cultural identity is accessible, consumers tend to evaluate global brands favorably and weigh heavily on global positioning information than when local identity is accessible (Guo & Hong, 2018; Adwait Khare & Zhang, 2009; Makri et al., 2018). A study by Guo & Hong (2018) on the USA and UK markets reveals that when a global cultural identity is accessible, consumers from developed regions favorably evaluate global brands from emerging countries.

Consumer bias toward the global brand is due to several reasons; however, in this study, the researcher reasons it is due to global orientation and colonial imprints.

Consumers with a high global orientation, and shared consciousness of living in a global world, evaluate positively global brands (Guo, 2013). In the current research, 83 percent of the participants believe in global connectedness, 69 percent identify as global citizens, and 79 percent care about global events. With this in mind, the researcher concludes that consumers in Zimbabwe have a high global orientation and possess a strong global cultural identity. Therefore, consumers in Zimbabwe use global brands to demonstrate affiliation to the global culture. Primarily, this is because global brands are vehicles that promote global citizenship and show belongingness to the global consumer culture (Diamantopoulos, Davvetas, et al., 2019; Strizhakova et al., 2008; Xie et al., 2015). Simply put, global brands represent a pathway to global cultural identity hence, the bias toward them.

Historically, Zimbabwe used to be a British colony, and as Belk (2000) point out, Zimbabweans emulate the consumption patterns of their former colonialists, particularly the United States and the United Kingdom. In other words, they look up to the West for social comparisons. Accordingly, consumers with a strong cultural identity predisposition toward Western global brands may be due to the country's colonial history. In addition, given the colonial history of

the country and the rising Western lifestyle attributed to Western television, films, and books, it is inevitable to have pro-western consumption patterns.

5.4.1 Moderating effects of consumer xenocentrism

As highlighted in the previous chapter, consumer xenocentrism significantly affects global brand preference. Consistently, several studies affirm that in emerging markets, consumer xenocentrism positively influences the willingness to buy foreign brands (Balabanis et al., 2019; Diamantopoulos, Davydova, et al., 2019; Mahmoud, Mallen-Ntiador, Andoh, Iddrisu, & Kastner, 2021; Rojas-Méndez & Kolotylo, 2021; Venugopal et al., 2022). For instance, a study by Diamantopoulos et al.(2018) in Russia demonstrates that consumers with xenocentric tendencies are willing to buy genuine foreign brands. Similarly, a comparative study in Malaysia and Nigeria by Venugopal et al.(2022) discovered that consumer with xenocentric tendencies holds a strong bias toward imported brands due to their perception of product quality.

Interestingly, the moderating effect of consumer xenocentrism on the established relationship between global cultural identity and global brands is insignificant. Though this can be due to numerous reasons, the researcher points out the consumer perception of the home country's image and deficiencies in the domestic manufacturing industry.

Generally, Zimbabweans hold a negative image of their country. This negative stereotype usually stems from the country's rankings by international organizations such as the United Nations and the International Monetary Fund. In light of this, Zimbabwe is ranked 157 out of 180 on the Corruption Index (Transparency International, 2021), 124 out of 137 on the Global Competitiveness Index (World Economic Forum, 2018), and 150 out of 189 on the Human Development Index (United Nations Development Programme, 2020). It is highly probable for Zimbabweans to exhibit bias toward global brands, especially those originating from the top-ranked countries in terms of global competitiveness, innovation, and economic development. Thus, global brand preference is inevitable for Zimbabwe consumers with a global cultural identity, irrespective of xenocentric tendencies.

Finally, due to the deficiencies in the local industry in terms of human capital, resources, and experience, the moderating effect of consumer xenocentrism on the relationship between global

cultural identity and global brands remains insignificant. According to the findings, 41 percent of the study participants trust global brands more than local brands because they have the experience, technology, and resources. With this in mind, it is apparent that the moderating effect of consumer xenocentrism remains insignificant.

5.4.2 Moderating effects of consumer materialism

Per the findings, the results reveal that consumers with materialistic tendencies prefer global brands. Consistently, empirical evidence support that consumers with strong materialistic tendencies prefer global brands (Demirbag et al., 2010; Park, Burns, & Rabolt, 2007; Vorha & Gupta, 2017). Also, in a cross-national study about consumer materialism by Cleveland et al. (2009) in eight different countries, the results demonstrate that consumer materialism positively predicts hedonistic global consumption. In contrast, research findings by Srivastava & Balaji (2018) in India show that materialism has an insignificant effect on consumer attitudes toward global brands from developed and emerging markets. The relationship between materialism and consumer preference for global brands depends on the product category (Cleveland et al., 2009; Srivastava & Balaji, 2018) and the national group (Cleveland et al., 2009). Therefore, the dissimilarities in findings may be attributed to differences in product categories and the context of the studies.

Extant research also suggests that highly materialistic consumers are biased toward global brands from developed countries (Demirbag et al., 2010; Gil, Kwon, Good, & Johnson, 2012; Jin, Kim, Yang, & Jung, 2019). These global brands allow consumers with materialistic tendencies to gain social acceptance into the global cultural group (Gil et al., 2012), enhance social status (Demirbag et al., 2010; Zakaria, Wan-Ismail, & Abdul-Talib, 2021), and emulate the Western style of a materialistic culture (Siahtiri & Lee, 2019).

This study also shows that the moderating effect of consumer materialism on the relationship between global cultural identity and global brand preference is insignificant. Studies have found that materialism is positively associated with global cultural identity and global-oriented consumption-based practices (Cleveland, Papadopoulos, & Laroche, 2021; Fastoso & González-Jiménez, 2018). Therefore, one could argue that the effect of materialism would be relative, as it is contingent upon the consumer's cultural identity and consumption orientation. In line with this perspective, if a consumer possesses stronger materialistic tendencies, self-

identifies with the global cultural identity, and is biased toward a global consumption orientation. The moderating effect of materialism becomes insignificant.

5.5 Conclusion

In summary, this chapter discusses the research findings in light of the empirical findings of similar studies, particularly within an emerging market context. Surprisingly, the results challenge the widely accepted view about the relationship between local cultural identity and consumer preference for local brands. Additionally, it was found that consumer ethnocentrism has no significant impact on the relationship between local cultural identity and local brand preference. The researcher reasons this could be due to national or cultural differences and the consumer quality perception of local brands.

As anticipated, the results also reveal that global cultural identity relates to consumer preference for global brands. However, the moderating effect of consumer xenocentrism on the relationship between global cultural identity and global brand preference was insignificant. These results could probably be due to the consumer perception of the home country's image and deficiencies in the domestic manufacturing industry.

Finally, the moderating effect of consumer materialism on the relationship between global cultural identity and global brand preference was insignificant.

The next chapter concludes the research report, providing the study contribution, limitations, and future research areas.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is structured as follows: firstly, the theoretical contribution of the study, then, the managerial implications, the study limitations, and finally, areas for future research.

6.2 Conclusions of the study

This study aimed to establish the relationship between cultural identities and consumer preference for global versus local brands in an emerging market context, moderating the role of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer xenocentrism, and materialism. Several factors have generated interest in this area, primarily the dearth of empirical studies that explain the influence of global versus local culture on consumer behavior in an emerging market (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Yeboah-Banin & Quaye, 2021). Based on the results, one can conclude that global cultural identity positively relates to global brand preference, while local cultural identity does not relate to local brand preference. Additionally, the moderating effect of consumer ethnocentrism and materialism is insignificant to the relationship between global cultural identity and global brand preference. Similarly, the moderating effect of consumer ethnocentrism is insignificant to the relationship between local cultural identity and local brand preference.

Notwithstanding the contribution of existing research, these results challenge the widely accepted belief about consumer behavior, especially if compared to empirical findings from developed markets. However, the researcher reason that this could be due to national and cultural orientation differences. Additionally, one could argue that consumer xenocentrism and materialism are positively related to global cultural-orientated consumption-based practice (Cleveland et al., 2021; Fastoso & González-Jiménez, 2018) that the insignificance of their moderating effect would be relative as it is contingent upon the consumer's cultural identity.

6.3 Recommendations

Notwithstanding existing research, this study provides numerous theoretical and managerial implications that benefit policymakers, the government, marketers, and researchers. These theoretical and managerial implications, together with the recommendations, are outlined in the sections below.

6.3.1 Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, this study contributes extensively to the existing international marketing literature, especially emerging market consumers' consumption patterns and choices.

Several marketing scholars highlight the dearth of empirical evidence in emerging markets about global (local) cultural identities (Yeboah-Banin & Quaye, 2021), consumer ethnocentrism (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2021), consumer xenocentrism (Venugopal et al., 2022) and materialism (Siahtiri & Lee, 2019). In light of these facts, this study adds to the existing body of knowledge, particularly in understanding global (local) cultural identities, consumer ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, materialism, and global (local) brand preference, within an emerging market context.

In addition, the study responds to the call for further research to test the revised scales for consumer ethnocentrism (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015) and consumer xenocentrism (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016). Interestingly, the assessment of these two measurement scales reveals that, while the xenocentrism scale is both valid and reliable, the consumer ethnocentrism scale lacks convergent reliability.

Finally, to my knowledge, this is the first study conducted in an emerging economy, particularly on the African continent, to combine several well-established theories that explain consumer favoritism toward global (local) brands. Balabanis et al. (2019) indicated that though many theories explain consumer bias toward global (local) brands, the social identity theory remains one of the most widely used theories in international marketing literature. Conversely, this study combines theories such as system justification, cultural identity, and personal identity to explain global (local) brand preference in an emerging market context.

6.3.2 Managerial Implications

This study presents several practical implications for marketers, policymakers, and the government.

The evidence suggests that consumers with a global cultural identity strongly favor global brands. That said, it is recommended that brand custodians need to adopt global brand positioning strategies. This can be achieved through imbuing cues associated with globalness. On the other hand, local brands must adopt a "chameleon approach" to gain competitiveness. As Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj (2011) points out, the "chameleon approach" involves adopting global cues to appear more foreign. These approaches include making the local brand look foreign through labeling, design, and merchandising that reflect globalness (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2016). In addition, marketing elements, particularly campaign messaging, must demonstrate brand globalness, especially with cues that demonstrate the modern Western lifestyle.

Given the results, it is also recommended that global brand managers, particularly brands of Western origin, leverage the image of their brand country of origin when penetrating the domestic market. It is evident from the findings that consumers in Zimbabwe highly regard foreign brands, especially those of a Western origin. Primarily, this is because of the efficiencies in manufacturing linked to experience, human capital, and technological advancement in their home countries. Thus, mentioning the country of manufacture or origin (for example, Made in the United States of America) can be a critical arsenal for international marketers to use when penetrating the domestic market. For local brands, affiliation to international standards organizations presents a gateway for consumer favoritism, especially by consumers with strong global affinity.

Additionally, this study's results show that consumer ethnocentrism positively relates to local brand preference; however, its moderating effect is insignificant to the relationship between local cultural identity and local brand preference. In light of this, it is recommended that brand managers contribute to the local societal well-being, especially by employing locals, to gain a competitive advantage. Primarily, this is because, per the findings, about 37 percent of the participants make purchase decisions driven by pure altruism; that is, they consider and care for others employed by local companies when making their consumption decisions.

Additionally, local brand managers must emphasize “domesticity” and integrate “buy local” messaging appeal in their marketing campaigns to gain consumer favoritism.

With respect to government and policymakers, especially the Ministry of Industry and Commerce, the recommendation is to have the Buy Zimbabwe campaign message focus on the moral obligation rather than the domestic threat of foreign products to promote consumer bias toward domestic products.

6.4 Limitations of the study

The results of this study should be considered in light of the following weaknesses

Firstly, the research instrument was administered online, limiting participation to those with internet access and computer literacy. Online surveys are not feasible for accessing the entire population. The results over-represent a certain group while excluding the marginalized, such as the elderly, the poor, and those who lack internet access (Lee, 2010; Tanner, 2018). In addition, like any other web-based survey, self-selection bias is inevitable. Therefore, the research findings cannot be generalized to a broader population in light of these facts.

Secondly, though behavioral intention is a good indicator of actual purchase behavior, in some instances, the actual preference may differ from the stated behavior due to situational variables (He & Wang, 2015). It is said that global (local) brand preference depends on the consumer perception of quality (Coetzee, 2018) and sensitivity to price (Winit, Gregory, Cleveland, & Verlegh, 2014). However, this study did not control price sensitivity and perceived quality as situational variables influencing global (local) brand preference.

Thirdly, another weakness of this study stems from construct convergent reliability. The adopted consumer ethnocentrism and materialism scales failed to meet the acceptable threshold of 0.50 or higher (Hair et al., 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2014). The researcher calls for a conceptual reassessment of these constructs and their measures (consumer materialism and ethnocentrism).

Finally, the study focused on six brands across three product categories to ascertain consumer preference for global (local) brands. The results do not provide unequivocal support for the relationship between the study constructs. Because it is widely documented in the literature

that consumer ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, and materialism influence global (local) brand preference depending on the product category, a more comprehensive selection of product categories would reveal different research findings to allow for the generalisability of the present research findings.

6.5 Suggestions for future research

Prior research suggests that consumer choice between global (local) brands depends on the country (Strizhakova et al., 2008; Yeboah-Banin & Quaye, 2021) and the product category (Davvetas & Diamantopoulos, 2016). Because of limited research (Srivastava & Balaji, 2018) with conflicting empirical findings (Srivastava et al., 2020) about cultural identities and global (local) brand preference in emerging African countries, the researcher calls for further research on the relationship between these constructs in a different emerging market. Further research with broader product categories beyond consumer goods is crucial; perhaps it would generate different results about emerging market consumers' consumption patterns and cultural orientation. By so doing, our understanding of emerging market consumers is enhanced, and the current study findings can be generalized.

Another area for future research is replicating this study in a different context, controlling for brand quality and consumer price sensitivity. Also socio-demographic variables (such as gender, age, and education) affect consumer ethnocentrism (Balabanis & Siamagka, 2015), and consumer xenocentrism (Rojas-Méndez & Chapa, 2019). Therefore, assessing such influence on the outcome variables in future research becomes essential.

Marketing scholars such as (Steenkamp et al., 2006; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2019; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2013) suggest that consumers have global, local, glocal, or an unengaged (alienated) cultural identity. Nevertheless, this study frames cultural identity as either global or local. So, future research needs to establish the consumption practice of consumers with glocal and alienated identities. More specifically, how glocal or an alienated cultural identity influences global versus local brand preference for emerging market consumers.

Finally, the researcher suggests a future conceptual reassessment of constructs such as consumer materialism and ethnocentrism, including their measures. Several marketing scholars highlight operationalization and dimensionality issues about the material-values scale (Cleveland et al., 2021).

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A – BRAND GENERATION SURVEY

QUESTIONNAIRE

Hello there,

My name is Bright M. Maliti, and I am a student at the Witwatersrand Business School undertaking a Master of Management in Strategic Marketing degree. As part of the requirements to fulfil my degree, a research project must be completed, and in this regard, under the supervision of Dr Emmanuel Quaye, I am carrying out a study on consumer preference for global relative to local brands: the role of ethnocentrism, materialism and xenocentrism. This study aims to establish the relationship between cultural identity and consumer preference for global (local) brands in an emerging market context, moderating the role of ethnocentrism, xenocentrism, and materialism.

I would like to invite you to take part in answering a questionnaire that will take 15-30 minutes of your time. The success of this project depends solely on the number of completed questions, and I kindly request you to complete all questions that are part of the questionnaire. There will be no personal costs to you if you participate in this project. You will not receive any direct benefits from participation, but there are no disadvantages or penalties if you choose not to participate or withdraw from the study. You may withdraw or not answer any questions if you do not want to.

The questionnaire will be completely confidential and anonymous as I will not ask for your name or identifying information. I will be using a pseudonym (false name) to represent your participation in my final research report. The information you give to me will be held securely and not disclosed to anyone else. The data collected from this research project will be stored in a password-protected computer and will be kept for two years. If you experience any distress or discomfort at any point in this process, you can stop and resume another time.

If you have any questions about this research, please contact me via email at bright.maliti1@students.wits.ac.za or call **+263 784 962 871**. For any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone **+27(0) 11 717 1408**, email hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za

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Instructions for completion:

Please tick where applicable to indicate consent for participation below

Yes, I voluntarily consent to participate in the study ☐

No, I do not consent to voluntarily participate in the study ☐

The researcher, Bright Maliti, has explained to me the purpose of the study, anonymity and confidentiality clauses that relate to my participation. Therefore, I agree to participate based on the following conditions: **[please select all the boxes below if you agree]**

My participation will remain anonymous ☐

My response will remain confidential ☐

1. **Are you a Zimbabwean citizen [** *if you are a citizen and not living or working in Zimbabwe, please do not continue with the rest of the questionnaire*]?
   Yes, I am a Zimbabwean citizen working and living in Zimbabwe ☐
   Yes, I am a Zimbabwean citizen but working and living abroad ☐
   No, I am not a Zimbabwean ☐

2. **May you please indicate your age group [** *if you are less than 18 years, please do NOT continue with the rest of the questionnaire***]**
   Less than 18 years ☐ 18- 24 years ☐ 25 - 34 years ☐
   35- 44 years ☐ 45-54 years ☐ 55-64 years ☐
   65 years and above ☐

3. **Your gender**

☐ ☐ ☐

Female Male Unwilling to disclose

4. **Your ethnicity**

Black African ☐ Indian ☐ Coloured ☐ Asian ☐ White ☐

5. **Employment Status**

Student ☐ Unemployed ☐ Formally Employed ☐ Self-Employed ☐
Retired ☐

6. **Level of Education**

Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree ☐ Masters ☐
Doctorate ☐

7. **Marital Status**

Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed ☐

8. Name any two global brands available in Zimbabwe and one similar local brand in each of the listed product categories that you are familiar with. Also, provide the country of origin for each of the global brands that you have identified

Product Category	**Global Brands A**	**Global Brand A Country of Origin**	**Global Brand B**	**Global Brand B Country Of Origin**	**Local Brand**
Cosmetics & Skincare					
Chocolate Confectionaries					
Refrigerators					
Financial Services					
Clothing					
Jewellery					
Beer					
Breakfast Cereals					

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. I humbly request you to share the survey link with friends and family members who are 18 years and above, living or working in Zimbabwe. If you have any questions about this research, please feel free to contact me via email at *bright.maliti1@students.wits.ac.za* or call +263784 962 871. For any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, *email hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za*

APPENDIX B- MAIN STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. This project seeks your opinion on your attitudes towards products in the market places and some factors that may guide your buying decisions.

There are no right or wrong answers. Your responses will remain anonymous and will be treated with strict confidentiality.

Kindly pay attention to the instructions and answer all the questions to improve the success of this research. Although some of the questions appear similar, we request that you answer them all as they have been deliberately framed this way for statistical purposes.

This should take about 15 - 20 minutes to complete.

Please follow the arrow below to begin the survey.

Thank you once again for your participation. Should you have any questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to contact us at the details below.

Sincerely,

Bright M Maliti

Research Team Contact Details:

Bright M. Maliti,+263784962871, bright.maliti1@students.wits.ac.za
Dr. Emmanuel Quaye, +270 617 713 369, emmanuel.quaye@wits.ac.za,

The researcher, Bright M. Maliti, has explained to me the purpose of the study, anonymity and confidentiality clauses that relate to my participation. Therefore,

Yes, I voluntarily consent to participate in the study ☐

No, I do not consent to voluntarily participate in the study ☐

Q1. Are you a Zimbabwean citizen [if you are a citizen and not living or working in Zimbabwe, please do not continue with the rest of the questionnaire]?

Yes, I am a Zimbabwean citizen working and living in Zimbabwe ☐

No, I am not a Zimbabwean ☐

Q2. May you please indicate your age group [if you are less than 18 years, please do NOT continue with the rest of the questionnaire]

Less than 18 years ☐ 18- 24 years ☐ 25 - 34 years ☐ 35- 44 years ☐

45-54 years ☐ 55-64 years ☐ 65 years and above ☐

Q3. Presented below are a set of global and local brands. Please select one brand in each of the comparison set that represent your preference

a. Cosmetic & Skin Care Brands

Nivea ☐ Elegance ☐

b. Clothing Brands

Calvin Klein ☐ Faith Wear ☐

c. Refrigerators

Defy ☐ Capri ☐

d. Fast Foods

KFC ☐ Chicken Inn ☐

Q4. Below are a few statements that relate to how individuals engage with the global-local discourse. May you please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My heart mostly belong to the whole world							
I believe people should be made aware of how connected we are to the rest of the world							
I identify that I am a global citizen							
I care about knowing global events							
My heart mostly belongs to the local community							

I respect my local traditions							
I identify that I am a local citizen							
I care about knowing local events							

Q5. Presented below are statements that describe individual perceptions of material possessions. May you please rate how you agree or disagree with each of the statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I admire people who own expensive homes, cars and clothes							
Some of the most important achievements in life include acquiring material possessions							
I don't place much emphasis on the amount of material objects people own as a sign of success							
The things I own say a lot about							

how well I'm doing in life							
I like to own things that impress people							
I don't pay much attention to the material objects other people own							
I usually buy only the things I need							
I try to keep my life simple, as far as possessions are concerned							
The things I own aren't all that important to me							
I enjoy spending money on things that aren't practical							
Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure							
I like a lot of luxury in my life							
I put less emphasis on material things than most people I know							

I have all the things I really need to enjoy life							
My life would be better if I owned certain things that I don't have							
I'd be happier if l could afford to buy more things							
It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like							

Q6. Below are statements that reflect some beliefs and perceptions people have about ideas, products or brands that are foreign, especially when compared to anything local. May you please indicate to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
In Zimbabwe, there are very few domestic products that are of equal quality to foreign products							
I cannot think of any domestic brands that are as							

good as the foreign ones I purchase.							
I trust more foreign than domestic companies because they are more experienced and have the resources							
In most products categories, foreign brands outperform domestic ones							
I trust a foreign product more than the domestic ones							
Using foreign products enhances my self-esteem							
People that buy domestic products are less regarded by others							
I prefer foreign to domestic brands as most of my acquaintances buy foreign brands							
Buying foreign products makes me trendier							
I purchase foreign products to							

differentiate myself from others							

Q7. Below are some statements that reveal beliefs and perceptions individuals hold about local products, brands and ideas. May you please indicate to what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Buying Zimbabwean brands helps me maintain my Zimbabwean identity							
I believe that purchasing Zimbabwean brands should be the moral duty of every Zimbabwean citizen							
It makes me feel good to always support our products							
A real Zimbabwean should always back							

Zimbabwean products							
Zimbabwean people should always consider Zimbabwean workers when making their purchase decisions							
When it comes to Zimbabwean products, I do not need any further information to assess their quality, the country of origin is sufficient signal to high quality for me							
Zimbabwe products are better than imported products							
Zimbabwean products are made to high standards and no any other country can exceed them							
Increased imports result in greater levels of							

unemployment in the country							
Buying foreign products is a threat to the domestic economy							
Job losses in the country are as a result of increased importation of foreign goods.							
I would be convinced to buy domestic products if a campaign was launched in mass media promoting Zimbabwean products							
If Zimbabwean people are made aware of the impact on the economy of foreign product consumption, they will be more willing to purchase domestic products.							
I would stop buying foreign products if the Zimbabwean government							

launched campaigns to make people aware of the positive impact of domestic product consumption on the Zimbabwean economy							
I am buying Zimbabwean products out of habit							
I prefer buying Zimbabwean products because I am more familiar with them							
I am buying Zimbabwean brands because I am following consumption patterns as these were passed to me by my older family members							

Q8. **You are almost done; please indicate your gender**

Female ☐ Male ☐ Unwilling to disclose ☐

Q9. Ethnicity

Black African ☐ Indian ☐ Coloured ☐ Asian ☐ White ☐

Q10. Employment Status

Student ☐ Unemployed ☐ Formally Employed ☐ Self-Employed ☐
Retired ☐

Q11. Level of Education

Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree ☐ Masters ☐ Doctorate ☐

Q12. Marital Status

Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed ☐

Q13. Finally, how likely are you to purchase the following brands in future?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
It is very likely that I will buy Elegance in the future							
I will purchase Faith wear clothes the next time I need such a product.							
I will definitely try Chicken Inn products in the future.							
I will most likely purchase Capri							

products the next time I need a refrigerator.							
It is very likely that I will buy Nivea in the future.							
I will purchase Calvin Klein clothes the next time I need such a product.							
I will definitely try KFC products in the future.							
I will most likely purchase Defy products the next time I need a refrigerator.							

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. I humbly request you to share the survey link with friends and family members who are 18 years and above, living or working in Zimbabwe.

If you have any questions about this research, please feel free to contact me via email at bright.maliti1@students.wits.ac.za or call +263784 962 871. For any concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (Non-Medical), telephone +27(0) 11 717 1408, email hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za

APPENDIX C- FACTOR LOADINGS OF THE MAIN STUDY MEASUREMENT MODEL

CODE	ITEM	FACTOR LOADINGS
CETH_C_2	Zimbabwe products are better than imported products	0.605
CETH_C_3	Zimbabwean products are made to high standards and no other country can exceed them	0.54
CETH_H_1	I am buying Zimbabwean products out of habit	0.507
CETH_H_2	I prefer buying Zimbabwean products because I am more familiar with them	0.719
CETH_H_3	I am buying Zimbabwean brands because I am following consumption patterns as these were passed to me by my older family members	0.538
CETH_I_3	Job losses in the country are as a result of the increased importation of foreign goods.	0.543
CETH_PS_1	Buying Zimbabwean brands helps me maintain my Zimbabwean identity	0.68
CETH_PS_2	I believe that purchasing Zimbabwean brands should be the moral duty of every Zimbabwean citizen	0.632
CETH_PS_3	It makes me feel good to always support our products	0.597
CETH_PS_4	A real Zimbabwean should always back Zimbabwean products	0.731
CETH_PS_5	Zimbabwean people should always consider Zimbabwean workers when making their purchase decisions	0.67
CETH_R_1	I would be convinced to buy domestic products if a campaign was launched in mass media promoting Zimbabwean products	0.558
CETH_R_2	If Zimbabwean people are made aware of the impact on the economy of foreign product consumption, they will be more willing to purchase domestic products.	0.517

CETH_R_3	I would stop buying foreign products if the Zimbabwean government launched campaigns to make people aware of the positive impact of domestic product consumption on the Zimbabwean economy	0.507
CMAT_AC_5	Buying things gives me a lot of pleasure	0.666
CMAT_AC_6	I like a lot of luxury in my life	0.671
CMAT_H_2	My life would be better if I owned certain things that I don't have	0.711
CMAT_H_3	I'd be happier if l could afford to buy more things	0.655
CMAT_H_4	It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can't afford to buy all the things I'd like	0.597
CMAT_S_1	I admire people who own expensive homes, cars and clothes	0.719
CMAT_S_2	Some of the most important achievements in life include acquiring material possessions	0.547
CMAT_S_4	The things I own say a lot about how well I'm doing in life	0.469
CMAT_S_5	I like to own things that impress people	0.6
CXEN_PI_1	In Zimbabwe, there are very few domestic products that are of equal quality to foreign products	0.498
CXEN_PI_2	I cannot think of any domestic brands that are as good as the foreign ones I purchase.	0.743
CXEN_PI_3	I trust more foreign than domestic companies because they are more experienced and have the resources	0.748
CXEN_PI_4	In most products categories, foreign brands outperform domestic ones	0.656
CXEN_PI_5	I trust a foreign product more than the domestic ones	0.784
CXEN_SA_1	Using foreign products enhances my self-esteem	0.801
CXEN_SA_2	People that buy domestic products are less regarded by others	0.483
CXEN_SA_3	I prefer foreign to domestic brands as most of my acquaintances buy foreign brands	0.77
CXEN_SA_4	Buying foreign products makes me trendier	0.697

CXEN_SA_5	I purchase foreign products to differentiate myself from others	0.732
GBP_1	It is very likely that I will buy Nivea in the future.	0.511
GBP_2	I will purchase Calvin Klein clothes the next time I need such a product	0.813
GBP_3	I will definitely try KFC products in the future.	0.791
GCI_1	My heart mostly belongs to the whole world	0.624
GCI_2	I believe people should be made aware of how connected we are to the rest of the world	0.759
GCI_3	I identify that I am a global citizen	0.761
GCI_4	I care about knowing global events	0.743
LBP_1	It is very likely that I will buy Elegance in the future	0.687
LBP_2	I will purchase Faith wear clothes the next time I need such a product	0.594
LBP_3	I will definitely try Chicken Inn products in the future.	0.531
LCI_1	My heart mostly belongs to the local community	0.544
LCI_2	I respect my local traditions	0.759
LCI_3	I identify that I am a local citizen	0.771
LCI_4	I care about knowing local events	0.768
LPB_4	I will most likely purchase Capri products the next time I need a refrigerator.	0.607

APPENDIX D- MAIN STUDY ITEM LOADINGS BELOW THE THRESHOLD

CODE	ITEM	FACTOR LOADING
CETH_C_1	When it comes to Zimbabwean products, I do not need any further information to assess their quality, the country of origin is sufficient signal to high quality for me	0.448
CETH_I_1	Increased imports result in greater levels of unemployment in the country	0.4
CETH_I_2	Buying foreign products is a threat to the domestic economy	0.281
CMAT_AC_1	I usually buy only the things I need	-0.087
CMAT_AC_2	I try to keep my life simple, as far as possessions are concerned	-0.19
CMAT_AC_3	The things I own aren't all that important to me	-0.143
CMAT_AC_4	I enjoy spending money on things that aren't practical	0.388
CMAT_AC_7	I put less emphasis on material things than most people I know	-0.224
CMAT_H_1	I have all the things I really need to enjoy life	-0.081
CMAT_S_3	I don't place much emphasis on the amount of material objects people own as a sign of success	-0.187
CMAT_S_6	I don't pay much attention to the material objects other people own	-0.216
GBP_4	I will most likely purchase Defy products the next time I need a refrigerator.	0.345

APPENDIX E- RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION ETHICS COMMITTEE
CONSTITUTED UNDER THE UNIVERSITY HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: WBS/SM1963268/871**
PROJECT TITLE	Consumer preference for global brands relative to local brands: the role of ethnocentrism, xenocentrims and materialism
INVESTIGATOR	Mr. Bright Maiti
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT OF INVESTIGATOR	MM (Strategic Marketing)
DATE CONSIDERED	10 APRIL 2020
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved unconditionally
RISK LEVEL	MINIMAL RISK
EXPIRY DATE	Date of submission of the project report. ~~28 FEBRUARY 2021~~ 2021-10-22

ISSUE DATE OF CERTIFICATE 28 APRIL 2020 **CHAIRPERSON** _____
(Dr MDJ Matshabaphala)

cc: Supervisor: Dr Saini

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Chairperson of the School/Department ethics committee.

I fully understand the conditions under which I am are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee.

_____ 20 / 05 / 2020
Signature **Date**

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES