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“Consumer Culture Positioning in Advertising and Ad-
Brand Incongruity
Does It Impact Brand Perceptions?”

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Abstract

This thesis examines the effect of consumer culture positioning and ad-brand incongruity in print advertisements on consumers' brand perceptions. Local, foreign or global consumer culture positioning creates links between a brand and a specific local, foreign or global consumer culture. Ad-brand incongruity occurs if the advertising positioning runs contrary to existing associations of a brand's localness, foreignness or globalness. An experiment manipulating consumer culture positioning and ad-brand incongruity is used to test the influence of these two factors on consumers' brand perceptions. Findings reveal a superior effect of global consumer culture positioning over its local and foreign counterparts on attitudes towards the advertisement and brand. In particular, cosmopolitan consumers with a strong global identity and belief in a global citizenship are prone to buy the brand advertised as being widely available globally and consumed by people all over the world. Ethnocentric consumers with a weak global identity, however, are more likely to buy the brand advertised as reflecting local values and as being consumed by local people. Ad-brand incongruity is found to be capable of increasing viewing times of the advertisement, but is likely to decrease the favourability of brand perceptions. Specifically, consumers are less likely to buy a brand that is advertised by a foreign appeal, but not perceived to be a foreign brand. The research contributes to the literature by comparing local, foreign and global consumer culture positioning with regards to their impact on brand perceptions. Additionally, it provides support for the argument that brand managers should use consumer culture positioning in compliance with prevailing associations of the brand's localness, foreignness or globalness.

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List of Abbreviations

BGC	Belief in Global Citizenship
CBO	Confidence in Brand Origin
CC	Consumer Culture
CCP	Consumer Culture Positioning
CET	Consumer Ethnocentrism
COO	Country-of-Origin
COS	Consumer Cosmopolitanism
FCCP	Foreign Consumer Culture Positioning
GCCP	Global Consumer Culture Positioning
GID	Global Identity
ICO	International Coffee Organisation
LCCP	Local Consumer Culture Positioning
NID	National Identification
PBF	Perceived Brand Foreignness
PBG	Perceived Brand Globalness
PBL	Perceived Brand Localness

1 Introduction

The building of strong brands and their differentiation from competitors' brands often is at the core of marketing strategies (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). The process of creating unique, credible and sustainable associations with a brand in consumers' minds with the goal of differentiating the brand from its competitors' is referred to as brand positioning (Keller, 2008; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Kotler & Bliemel, 2006; Sengupta, 2006). One brand positioning strategy, among many others, is consumer culture positioning (CCP) (cf. Fuchs, 2008). CCP aims at positioning a brand as belonging to a specific consumer culture (Alden et al., 1999). Adopting CCP, brand managers capitalise on their target group's favourable perceptions of or even identification with a specific consumer culture to enhance perceptions of the brand (Alden et al., 1999; Holt, 2002; Okazaki et al., 2010). In relation to a specific country, Alden et al. (1999) distinguish between local, foreign and global consumer culture positioning (LCCP, FCCP, GCCP). These brand positioning approaches use cultural values or stereotypes in order for consumers to perceive the brand as symbolic for a local/foreign/global consumer culture (Alden et al., 1999).

Although Alden et al. (1999) identified that LCCP, FCCP and GCCP are viable brand positioning concepts used in advertising around the world, research has only recently begun to investigate CCP with respect to its effect on consumers (cf. Gammoh et al., 2011; Nijssen & Douglas, 2011; Westjohn et al., 2012). Firstly, Gammoh et al. (2011) found that GCCP is more capable of enhancing brand perceptions than LCCP, but did not include FCCP in their study. Secondly, Nijssen & Douglas (2011) and Westjohn et al. (2012) investigated the influence of different personal attributes on attitudes towards LCCP, FCCP and GCCP, but did not report whether consumers evaluated LCCP, FCCP or GCCP more favourably. As a consequence, this thesis will focus on how GCCP, LCCP and FCCP influence consumers' brand perceptions, adding insight on which of the three options will result in the most favourable consumer reactions and why this might be so. This leads to the first research question:

Research Question 1: *How does global, local and foreign consumer culture positioning used in advertising influence consumers' brand perceptions?*

When positioning a brand using CCP, it might be useful to take into account not only whether the target group will perceive LCCP, FCCP or GCCP more favourably but also their prevailing brand perceptions. In particular, when consumers are familiar with a brand, they might have perceptions of the brand's localness, foreignness or globalness (Batra et al., 2000; Leclerc et al., 1994; Schiefer, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010). In advertising practice, brand managers use CCP irrespective of whether the brand is perceived to be a local, foreign or global brand (Sjödén & Törn, 2006; Zhou & Belk, 2004). If consumers are faced with such an advertisement that runs contrary to their prevailing brand perceptions, they might perceive the incongruity between the ad positioning and their brand associations (Dahlén et al., 2005). In other words, consumers are likely to perceive an incongruity if they associate the advertisement with another consumer culture than the brand.

Despite the large body of research investigating incongruity between existing brand associations and brand communication, findings how it might affect brand perceptions have been ambiguous (cf. Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Yoon, 2012). One stream of research finds superiority of congruent stimuli (Essoussi & Merunka, 2007; Häubl & Elrod, 1999; Lee & Shen, 2009; van Rompay et al., 2009; Winkielman & Cacioppo, 2001). Keller (1993) argues that the creation of a cohesive brand image is crucial in brand positioning. Incongruent information makes it difficult to form a cohesive image because the information cannot be easily linked to established associations (Keller, 1993). Congruent stimuli are processed more fluently and thus elicit more positive brand perceptions (Häubl & Elrod, 1999; Lee & Shen, 2009; van Rompay et al., 2009; Winkielman et al., 2003). In contrast to this, research in cognitive psychology shows a superior effect of schema incongruent stimuli (e.g. Dahlén et al., 2008; Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Lee & Thorson, 2008; Loef & Verlegh, 2002; Meyers-Levy et al., 1994). Incongruity in advertising is claimed to draw greater attention to the ad, causing deeper and more extensive processing, which might result in more positive evaluations of the brand (Dahlén et al., 2008; Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Loef & Verlegh, 2002; Mandler, 1982; Meyers-Levy et al., 1994; Ryu et al., 2006; Yoon, 2012). In addition to the ambiguity in findings how advertisements incongruent with existing brand associations influence brand perceptions, there is no research known to the author that explicitly investigates consumers' reactions to ad-brand incongruity in the context of CCP. Therefore, the second goal of this thesis is to investigate consumers' brand perceptions as a result of ad-brand incongruity relative to congruity in advertisements using CCP. This goal is reflected in the second research question:

Research Question 2: *How does perceived incongruity between consumer culture positioning in advertising and consumers' views of the localness, foreignness or globalness of a brand influence consumers' brand perceptions? (i.e. How do consumers react if they associate the ad with a different consumer culture than the brand?)*

Figure 1 depicts the structure of this thesis. Following this introduction, chapter 2 will report the review of the relevant literature. This review will serve as the foundation to establish a conceptual framework and research hypotheses in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 will then outline the empirical method that has been used to test the framework. Subsequently, Chapter 5 will report the results from the empirical study, thereby testing the research hypotheses. In Chapter 6, these results will be discussed in front of the earlier reviewed literature. Finally, Chapter 7 will conclude the work by summarising the research and its implications and stating limitations and proposals for further research.

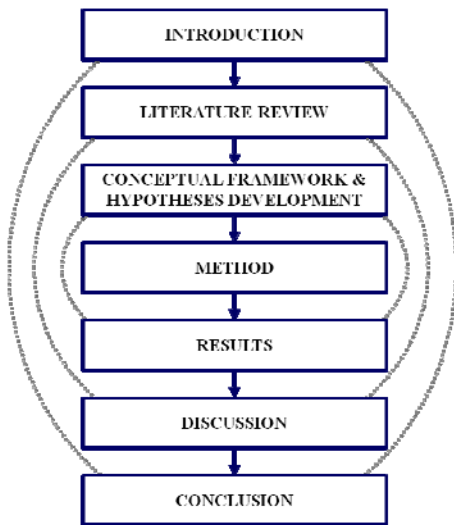


Figure 1: Structure of the Thesis

2 Literature Review

2.1 Brand Positioning

Since the central concept of this thesis – consumer culture positioning in advertising – is a form of brand positioning, some key terms related to brands and brand positioning need to be defined before expanding in greater details on consumer culture positioning (CCP).

2.1.1 What is a Brand?

Due to the increasing awareness that brands are one of the most valuable intangible corporate assets, the building of strong brands is frequently at the heart of marketing strategies (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; McEnally & de Chernatony, 1999). The classical definition of “brand” was provided by the American Marketing Association in 1960. According to this, a brand is “a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them which is intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or a group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors” (Keller, 1993, p. 2; Kotler & Armstrong, 2004, p. 285). For consumers, the basic function of brands in this respect is to augment products by certain unique values in order to make them identify the offerings of a company and distinguish it from competing brands (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Identifying a brand only requires awareness, but in order to differentiate it from competitors, it has to fulfil further functional values (McEnally & de Chernatony, 1999). While brands can simply facilitate consumer choice, they also serve as a quality signal (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Kotler & Armstrong, 2004). Brands may be an indicator of tangible and intangible product attributes and the product’s position relative to competitors (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008) and guarantee a persisting product quality to consumers (Heslop et al., 2010; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Kotler & Armstrong, 2004). Thereby, a brand reduces consumers’ risk involved in a purchase and engenders trust (Keller, 2008; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; McEnally & de Chernatony, 1999). However, the power of strong brands goes beyond those functional values. In order to sustainably differentiate a company’s offerings from competitors, it is necessary to endow brands with emotional values, too (McEnally & de Chernatony, 1999). This involves giving brands personalities that incorporate human characteristics which match the target consumers’ values and lifestyles.

Such an alignment of brand and consumer personalities leads consumers to use brands as a means of expressing their identity and self, thereby forming relationships with brands. It is this ability to evoke emotions and create bonds with consumers that makes brands one of the most valuable intangible assets of companies (Fournier, 1998; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; McEnally & de Chernatony, 1999; Meenaghan, 1995).

2.1.2 Types of Brands

Although there are numerous different ways to classify brands in the literature, in the present context it is suitable to start with a distinction between local, foreign and global brands. This classification is made from the point of view of a specific country and generally accomplished based on a brand's origin or geographical scope. A brand's origin is thereby defined based on Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2008) as the country where the headquarters of the brand's parent firm are located. In a specific country, a local brand is therefore defined as a brand that originates from this same country and exists in one country or a limited geographical area (Wolfe, 1991). From the point of view of the same country, a foreign brand is defined as a brand which originates from a specific foreign country (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Leclerc et al., 1994). The definitions of the term "global brand" in the literature are more ambiguous, because it is not sufficient to define it in terms of geographical scope only. Drawing from different definitions in literature, a global brand is defined as a brand that is widely available across international markets, adopting centrally coordinated and generally similar marketing strategies in all target markets (Dimofte et al., 2008; Levitt, 1983; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008; Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004; Zhang & Khare, 2009).

Despite the usefulness of such managerially oriented definitions, there are two main drawbacks of such a classification. Firstly, local, foreign and global brands are not mutually exclusive categories based on those definitions. While local and foreign brands are defined in terms of geographical origin only, global brands are defined in terms of geographical scope and marketing strategy (Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004; Steenkamp et al., 2003). Secondly, marketing is by definition a consumer-centered discipline (Kotler & Armstrong, 2004). Therefore, a classification based on consumer perceptions is seen as more appropriate (Thakor, 1996; Zhou & Belk, 2004). Brand origin is thus defined "as the place, region or country to which the brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers" (Thakor, 1996, p. 27). This approach acknowledges the importance of dealing with what consumers perceive to

be local, foreign or global, regardless of whether the brand is actually a local, foreign or global one (Zhou & Belk, 2004). The approach is also supported by recent findings about the limited ability of consumers to identify a brand's country-of-origin (COO). These findings indicate that a brand's true local or non-local origin is less diagnostic for consumers' brand evaluations than the place, region or culture a brand is perceived to belong to (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Lim & O'Cass, 2001; Zhou et al., 2010).

Therefore, instead of the managerially oriented local-foreign-global classification outlined above, the three following constructs will be central to this research: perceived brand localness (PBL), perceived brand foreignness (PBF) and perceived brand globalness (PBG). These constructs acknowledge the importance of consumers' perceptions of a brand's local-, foreign- or globalness because they tap on the place, region, country or culture a brand is associated with by its target consumers (Batra et al., 2000; Schieffer, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010).

Although many authors use the concept of PBL implicitly, the literature still lacks an explicit definition of the term. Instead, they most often use the term "local brand" to capture perceived brand localness (e.g. Batra et al., 2000; Kapferer, 2004; Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004). To avoid such inaccuracy, a definition will be used that was derived by Schieffer (2008) and is clearly different from the origin-based definition of a "local brand". According to him, PBL captures the "degree to which a consumer feels a brand is connected to his or her own culture and region" (Schieffer, 2008, p. 26). This means that the brand is perceived as belonging to the consumer's culture, as part of their local way of living and as typically bought by local people. PBL is thus a different and broader concept than the belief that the brand is either manufactured locally or only available in the local market. Although this will influence perceptions of brand localness, PBL will also be shaped by brand knowledge and the time a brand has been available on the local market as well as the choice of brand name and advertising positioning (Schieffer, 2008).

The second concept, PBF, was derived by Batra et al. (2000) and recently more clearly defined by Zhou et al. (2010). Perceived brand foreignness "refers to a consumer's perception that a brand is of foreign or non-local origin" (Zhou et al., 2010, p. 202). As such, PBF captures perceptions of the foreign image or appeal of a brand, regardless of the true origin of a brand. PBF differs from the established COO construct in a way that it is not necessarily

associated with one specific country but with more general perceptions of a brand's foreign appeal (Batra et al., 2000; Zhou et al., 2010). Although the actual COO can have an influence on PBF if it is known to consumers, foreign image appeals are not bound to a foreign COO. Zhou et al. (2010) use the example of 'C'estbon', a Chinese brand of bottled water, which uses a non-Chinese brand name to create a foreign appeal. This example also illustrates the role of the brand name in forming PBF. Leclerc et al. (1994) found that foreign branding – the strategy of using a brand name in a foreign language – has the ability to impact product perceptions and attitudes by triggering cultural stereotypes. Additionally, such perceptions of brand foreignness can be enhanced by depicting the relevant appeals, use conditions, etc. in advertising positioning (Alden et al., 1999; Zhou et al., 2010).

Finally, PBG is defined as consumers' belief that "the brand is marketed in multiple countries and is generally recognized as global in these countries" (Steenkamp et al., 2003, p. 54). Steenkamp et al. (2003) identified two main ways of how perceptions of brand globalness can be shaped. Firstly, it can be caused by the experience that the brand is marketed in several other countries through e.g. travelling, word of mouth or the media. Alternatively, marketing communications where e.g. brand names, ad appeals, packaging and other elements of the marketing mix can be used to create the impression that the brand is marketed on a global scale.

Generally, it becomes evident from the above analysis of PBL, PBF and PBG that the brand positioning strategy applied by marketers represents an important contribution to form consumers' perceptions of brand localness, foreignness and globalness. The concept of brand positioning is defined in a next step.

2.1.3 Brand Positioning

Brand positioning refers to the process of creating unique, credible, sustainable and valued associations with and images of a brand in the minds of the target segment in order to differentiate the brand from its competitors (Keller, 2008; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Kotler & Bliemel, 2006; Sengupta, 2006). Brands have to be positioned in the minds of customers, so that they think about the brand in the desired way to maximise potential benefits to the brand owner (Keller, 2008). The core idea behind positioning is that each brand occupies a distinct space in the individual consumer's mind, which is determined by the individual's perception

of the brand itself and in relation to other brands (Sengupta, 2006). Brand positioning is therefore not what you do to a brand, but what you do to the mind of consumers, that is to consumers' perceptions of brands (Ries & Trout, 1986; Sengupta, 2006). Thus, in order to successfully position a brand, marketers first of all need to know their target customers' wants and needs and understand their mental perceptions or 'maps' of products (Keller 2008; Sengupta 2006). Additionally, they have to know the brand's main competitors as well as in which characteristics the brand is similar to and different from these competitors. This information guides marketing strategy, because it clarifies what the brand is all about, how it is unique, how it is similar to competitive brands and why consumers should purchase and use it (Keller, 2008).

At the operational product or brand level, the tools to manage that brand positioning process are essentially the elements of the marketing mix, although the importance of the single elements may vary (Kotler & Bliemel, 2006; Meenaghan, 1995). Especially in cases of little product based and functional difference between competing brands, it is marketing communication which provides the basis for a successful positioning and advertising which has the central function to place the brand in the desired space in consumers' minds (Doyle, 1989; Sengupta, 2006). This function is reflected by the following definition of advertising given by Sengupta (2006, p. 207): "Advertising is the discovery and communication of a persuasive difference for a brand to the target prospect". In this context, advertising is therefore a central means to communicate both functional and emotional brand values. At a functional level, the goal is to inform or communicate objective brand values and product benefits. At the emotional level, the function of advertising is to endow brands with personalities and human characteristics that enable the establishment of relationships between consumers and brands (Fournier, 1998; Meenaghan, 1995; Reynolds & Gutman, 1984). Finally, if using appeals and symbols that are associated with local, foreign or global lifestyles, advertising as a means to transfer cultural meanings is capable of enhancing a brand's PBL, PBF or PBG respectively (Alden et al., 1999; McCracken, 1986; Steenkamp et al., 2003).

2.2 Consumer Culture Positioning in Advertising

2.2.1 Consumer Culture Defined

Generally, there is consensus in the literature that no consensus exists about the definition of culture (Neuliep, 2009). That culture is a concept hard to define had already been illustrated over 50 years ago, when Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1963) found and examined 300 different definitions of culture. In the present work, culture is defined based on Neuliep (2009, p. 17) “as an accumulated pattern of values, beliefs, and behaviours, shared by an identifiable group of people with a common history and verbal and nonverbal symbol systems.” Importantly, culture is not innate to humans, but learned (Neuliep, 2009) and forms the perceptual lens through which people see and interpret their world (McCracken 1986). As such, it shapes how people think, feel and act, especially influencing the interaction – i.e. communication – with others (Neuliep, 2009). Advertising as a form of communication is therefore deeply rooted in the framework of culture (McCracken, 1986).

Consistent with the above stated definition of culture, Alden et al. (1999, p. 75) defined consumer culture as “shared sets of consumption-related symbols (product categories, brands, consumption activities, and so forth) that are meaningful to segment members”. Taking a closer look at this definition, there are two parts to it. First of all, consumer culture denotes a ‘set of consumption-related symbols’. This means that consumer culture forms the basis of how consumers interpret symbolic meanings encoded in material goods, brands, retail settings, advertisements and so forth (Arnould & Thompson, 2005). This interpretation influences what and how people consume, which is why, consumer culture essentially shapes actual consumer behaviour (Arnould & Thompson, 2005; Holt, 2002). At the very baseline, studying consumer culture is thus about studying how cultural meanings and symbols determine consumption patterns (Figure 2).



Figure 2: (Consumer) Culture and Consumer Behaviour

The second important part of this definition is that consumer culture is ‘shared’ and ‘meaningful to members of a group’. The use of such an abstract specification of ‘segment members’ or ‘group’ reflects a continuous debate in cultural studies and consumer culture theory about the level of abstraction or unit of analysis of the term “(consumer) culture”. What are the ‘group’ and its scope? Traditionally, research in international marketing focused on nations as unit of analysis. Following the approach of other social sciences like sociology or economics and partly due to the availability of national data for analysing the marketing environment, the division of the world in nationally bounded societies had become intuitive and rarely questioned (Cayla & Arnould, 2008). However, culture is not a static phenomenon and local cultural patterns are continuously influenced as a result of increased movement, contact and interaction across cultures. Especially in a world with increased travelling, migration and technological advances that facilitate global integration, the sole focus on national borders as boundaries of culture seems therefore hardly appropriate (Craig & Douglas, 2006). This is not to say that the nation as frame of analysis in cultural studies should be totally discarded. On the contrary, research in the area of branding and COO reveals that national myths remain powerful tools in brand positioning (Holt et al., 2004; Lewi, 2003, cited in Cayla & Arnould, 2008) and that the country associated with brands influences consumers’ brand perceptions (see e.g. Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009; Usunier, 2006; Verlegh et al., 2005). Additionally, however, global flows that diffuse ideas, products and images lead to increased links between local cultures and thus the blurring of cultural boundaries (Craig & Douglas, 2006). This in turn might result in the emergence of consumer groups that share cultural values across national borders (Cayla & Arnould, 2008). Evidently, such consumer segments cannot be studied with regards to their culture based on the nation as unit of analysis. As a conclusion, it seems that nation-based consumer cultures exist, but in addition to them, global consumer segments sharing values across national borders seem to have emerged.

2.2.2 Does a Global Consumer Culture Emerge?

In this context, there has been a large, ongoing debate in literature whether such a global consumer culture emerges indeed and how it impacts consumer behaviour. In his seminal article on globalisation, Theodore Levitt (1983) argued that globalisation leads to the homogenisation of markets and claimed that companies must learn to operate as if the world were one large market. Based on this article, many researchers supported the view that

increased globalisation accelerates the emergence of a homogeneous global consumer culture (Cleveland et al., 2009).

On the other hand, there have been counterarguments for the resilience of local consumption cultures. Proponents of that view claimed that local cultures would remain strong in influencing consumer behaviour (Cleveland et al., 2009). For example, Jackson (2004) used examples from Russia, India and China about how producers had to adapt their offerings to local cultures in order to show how different places have retained distinct local cultures of consumption. Going even further, there have been arguments that the various downsides of globalisation motivate consumers to resist global forces and protect local cultures, thus resulting in an increased heterogenisation of cultures (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Cleveland et al., 2009).

However, such generalisations of homogenisation versus heterogenisation are insufficient to capture the dynamics and complexity of an increased global flow of cultural meanings that comes along with globalisation (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007). Proponents of the hybridisation or glocalisation theory thus argue that globalisation changes consumer culture in both directions, leading to a simultaneous increase of similarity and difference (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006). Consumers are influenced by the global diffusion of consumption signs and behaviours, but continuously rely on local meaning systems for interpretation and use of these global consumption signs (Akaka & Alden, 2010; Alden et al., 2006; Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Strizhakova et al., 2008).

Appadurai (1990) identified five dimensions for global cultural flow, through which cultural meanings spread globally and influence local cultures, transforming societies and blurring cultural boundaries. While ethnoscares refer to the moving of groups and persons, for example tourism and migration, technoscares capture the global dispersion of technology and know-how and finanscares are associated with the global capital flow. Built upon and influenced by these, Appadurai (1990) used the term ideoscares to talk about the diffusion of political ideas and ideologies as well as mediascares to describe the flows of images, communication and the transfer of cultural signs via media. In the context of this thesis, mediascares are the most important ones as they are influenced and even controlled by marketers through advertising. This global cultural flow leads consumers to creating their own bi-cultural identities, where a part of their identity is embedded in the local culture and

another part has its source in their relation to the global culture (Arnett, 2002; Strizhakova et al., 2008).

Ultimately, it can therefore be concluded that a global consumer culture emerges, defined as a “cultural entity not associated with a single country, but rather a larger groups [sic] generally recognised as international and transcending individual national cultures” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 80). Within global consumer segments, consumption-related symbols and behaviours are understood in the same way, members “associate similar meanings with certain places, people and things” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 75) and share similar tastes and needs. However, the global culture does not replace different local culture, but complements them as consumers possess characteristics of both local and global identities (Arnett, 2002).

2.2.3 Consumer Culture Positioning Defined

Based on the above elaboration on consumer culture, we can now define the concept of consumer culture positioning (CCP). CCP is a brand positioning strategy which aims at positioning a brand as belonging to a specific consumer culture (Alden et al., 1999). Brand managers use symbols, signs and advertising appeals that are meaningful to the members of their target segments in order for consumers to establish mental connections to a specific consumer culture. Linking the brand to a culture that consumers perceive as favourable or that they identify with will result in consumers buying the brand in order to reinforce and display their segment membership, hence establishing a relationship with the brand (Alden et al., 1999; Holt, 2002; Okazaki et al., 2010).

In relation to a specific country, Alden et al. (1999) identified three alternative options to CCP. First of all, the brand manager has the opportunity to use local consumer culture positioning (LCCP), “a strategy that associates the brand with local cultural meanings, reflects the local culture’s norms and identities, is portrayed as consumed by local people [...] and/or is depicted as locally produced for local people” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 77) by using cultural values or stereotypes that are typically linked to that local culture. Differently spoken, keeping in mind the concept of PBL, LCCP is an advertising positioning approach with the aim to enhance perceived localness of the brand.

Secondly, brand managers can position “the brand as symbolic of a specific foreign consumer culture; that is, a brand whose personality, use occasion, and/or user group are associated with a foreign culture” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 77), taking advantage of the positive image linked to that culture. This strategy is referred to as foreign consumer culture positioning (FCCP). Again, put in words of the earlier described concept of PBF, FCCP aims at increasing perceptions of a brand’s foreignness.

Thirdly, brand managers could adopt global consumer culture positioning (GCCP), a strategy that “identifies the brand as a symbol of a given global culture” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 77) with the objective to make consumers identify the brand as a sign of membership in a global consumer segment. The goal of GCCP can thus be identified as an increase of PBG. However, keeping in mind the above mentioned glocalisation of consumer culture as opposed to homogenisation of consumption patterns, GCCP is distinguished from globally standardised advertisement (Alden et al., 1999). While homogenisation of consumption would favour the use of standardised communication across the world, the emergence of a global consumer culture is rather characterised as glocalisation (Arnett, 2002). This means that although consumption-related symbols are understood in the same way within a global consumer segment, they are enhanced by and interpreted through the lens of the local culture (Akaka & Alden, 2010; Alden et al., 2006; Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Strizhakova et al., 2008). As a result, GCCP is different from globally standardised advertisement in a way that the advertising is often executed differently in each market. Alden et al. (1999) gave the example of Procter & Gamble’s “all-in-one” shampoo with conditioner, which was positioned globally as a time saver in a busy world, but the precise advertisement content was different in each market, depending on what ‘time saving’ meant for local consumers.

2.2.4 CCP in Print Advertising

When studying the impact of CCP in advertising on consumers’ brand perceptions, it is important to clarify why and how CCP is reflected in advertising.

The theoretical underpinnings for how cultural values can be reflected in advertising are provided by semiotics theory (Alden et al., 1999). This is also reflected by an alternative definition of CCP given by Alden et al. (1999), who view CCP as a “culture-based brand positioning concept grounded in semiotics theory”. Semiotics theory is the study of signs

based upon the premise that every object has a deeper symbolic meaning (Mick, 1986; Sebeok, 1987). A sign is “anything that can stand for something” (i.e. its object), “to somebody, in some context” (McQuarrie & Mick, 1992, p. 181). It is the sign as unit of analysis and its clear distinction from the object that are central to semiotics. Sebeok (1987) gives the example of Sigmund Freud smoking a cigar while entering a lecture room, which caused an outburst of laughter among his students. Obviously, a meaning transfer had taken place from the object (i.e. the cigar) to the sign behind the object (i.e. the phallic symbol).

Signs combine to form messages and meaning is created when a reader decodes these messages (McQuarrie & Mick, 1992). Therefore, semiotics is concerned with the structures of (verbal and nonverbal) meaning-producing events (Mick, 1986), i.e. it analyses which signs stand behind objects and how they combine to form messages, which in turn produce meaning.

Importantly, meaning is always produced by the reader of the message; it is not inherent in the message itself (McQuarrie & Mick, 1992). Because of this, the production of meaning is deeply influenced by cultural values and semiotics cannot be separated from culture. This is highlighted by McQuarrie & Mick (1999), who conducted studies on how visual rhetoric in advertising is understood by consumers. They found that the main boundary condition to understanding visual rhetoric is the acculturation of the consumer to the rhetorical and semiotic systems within which the advertising is situated. If the consumer is not a culturally competent processor of the message, they are unable to understand the advertisement. This rationale can also be easily applied to the example of Freud and his cigar: Without being familiar with Freud and his doctrine, the laughter of the students remains incomprehensible (Sebeok, 1987).

In consumer research, semiotics plays an important role because consumers behave based on the meanings they assign to marketplace stimuli (Mick, 1986), i.e. their behaviour depends on how they interpret and use consumption-related signs to create meaning. Advertising as a form of such marketplace stimuli serves as a method of cultural meaning transfer (McCracken, 1986). This becomes even clearer in a comparison stated by Mick (1987, p. 249) and taken from an interview with Neil Postman¹: “Commercials are about products only in the sense that the story of Jonah is about the anatomy of whales. Miller beer commercials are not

¹ from an interview in *U.S. News & World Report*, 23 December 1985, 59;

really about beer; they're about male bonding, they're about attitudes toward work, and attitudes toward women.”

Alden et al. (1999) proposed three advertising elements that are used in order to establish semiotic links between the advertised goods and specific local, foreign or global cultural values and hence execute CCP. According to them, signs that link the product to a consumer culture are woven into advertising themes, visual aesthetics and verbal sounds. However, before elaborating on the elements in advertising that are able to evoke associations with a consumer culture, it is necessary to specify which type of advertising is referred to. Every form of advertising – TV, print, billboards, etc. – has its advantages and disadvantages (Kotler & Bliemel, 2006) and therefore also its special possibilities to communicate CCP. For example, it might be easier to tell a rather complex story in a 30-second TV spot than through a print advertisement. While Alden et al. (1999) study TV advertising, the focus here is on print advertising, because this form of advertising will be used in the later empirical study². Analysing the structure of print advertisements, the main elements able to communicate a cultural positioning can be classified into visual aesthetics and textual elements (Scott, 1994b).

Visual elements are evidently an essential and meaningful characteristic of an advertisement (McQuarrie & Mick, 1999) and since aesthetic values vary culturally, images can be used to allude to a specific consumer culture (Alden et al., 1999). Additionally, images in advertisements are not only reproductions of reality, but contain symbolic information, which is constructed from the conventions of a particular culture and employed for the purpose of persuasion (Scott, 1994a). A study by McQuarrie & Mick (1999) highlights the importance of images in representing cultural values. Through text interpretative, experimental and reader-response analyses, this research reveals that advertisers use different types of signs in order to evoke a set of meaning about the brand and also about its users (e.g. sophistication, beauty, safety, etc.). Such signs include pictures of objects (e.g. landscapes typical for a specific country) that are linked by consumers to a local, global or foreign consumer culture, but also colors, shapes and materials used in the advertisement (Alden et al., 1999). For example, some Japanese automobile manufacturers used pictures of their U.S. American plants in advertising to project a U.S. identity (Thakor & Lavack, 2003). Additionally, advertisers can communicate CCP by the use of specific endorsers or spokespersons. Picturing endorsers in

² see section 4.1 for an explanation of this choice;

print advertisements can lead to linking the brand to a specific consumer culture, because the endorser might embody physical characteristics associated with cultural prototypes (Mehta & Belk, 1991; Ryu et al., 2006; Scott, 1994b). Scott (1994b) provided the example of a Colgate advertisement (Figure 3) showing the image of a white-dressed Asian man sitting cross-legged. On the one hand, the picture points to an Asian consumer culture, but more generally it also represents a widely recognisable stereotype of wisdom.



Figure 3: Colgate Advertisement “The Wise Choice”

Scott (1994b)

Apart from that, celebrity endorsers can be used in the execution of CCP (Alden et al., 1999). If showing a well-know local person in an advertisement, consumers are likely to link the ad and brand to the local consumer culture. Figure 4 displays an advertisement for Uniqa using two famous Austrian skiers as an example for such an approach.



Figure 4: Uniqa Advertisement Featuring Marlis Schild and Benjamin Raich

Springer & Jacoby (n.d.)

Likewise, international sportsmen or film stars can reflect GCCP in advertising (Alden et al., 1999), for example Nespresso advertisements featuring George Clooney (Figure 5).



Figure 5: Nespresso Advertisement Featuring George Clooney

Gewista (2008)

Another visual element of advertisements that can evoke associations with a local, foreign or global consumer culture is the aesthetic design of the brand logo (Alden et al., 1999). Although many logos might be more abstract and less tied to a particular culture (e.g. the Nespresso “N” or the Mercedes star), others contain more visible cultural signs (Figure 6). For example, the logo of the airline Emirates pictures a compilation of Arabic signs similar to calligraphy. Another example is the Austrian “Ja natürlich” logo, which uses the colours of the Austrian flag to evoke local associations. Figure 6 displays several examples of brand logos that are (not) connected with a specific consumer culture.



Figure 6: Examples of Brand Logos (Not) Connected with a Specific Consumer Culture

Emirates (2012); Ja! Natürlich (2012); Carapelli (2012); Nespresso (2012); Mercedes (2012); McDonalds (2012)

Text elements in an advertisement communicating CCP are the content and/or the language of texts and slogans (Alden et al., 1999; Scott, 1994b). Despite the obvious importance of the objective content of texts and slogans in referring to a particular consumer culture, the way in which the texts and slogans are presented might be even more powerful in communicating CCP (McQuarrie & Mick, 1996). Therefore, the denotative meaning of a texts and slogans might often be secondary to the language’s implicit or symbolic meaning (Alden et al., 1999). Analogously, in the context of CCP, specific languages can be used to allude to a specific consumer culture. In an award-winning advertising campaign in 2009, the Viennese brewery “Ottakringer” used the slogan “Mei Bia hot ka Krise” (derStandard.at, 2009, Figure 7). In this campaign, the use of Austrian dialect clearly communicates the brand’s connection to the Austrian culture.



Figure 7: Ottakringer Advertisement “Mei Bia hot ka Krise”

derStandard.at (2009)

Similar examples for FCCP are the use of Audi's "Vorsprung durch Technik" even in English-speaking countries in order to capitalise on the German reputation of technical expertise (The Phrase Finder, n.d.) or the use of "Fahrvergnügen" in Volkswagen's US advertisings at the beginning of the 1990s (Alden et al., 1999). Apart from such obvious connections between certain languages and countries, the use of English texts and slogans deserves some more analysis. English is more than a reflection of the Anglo-American culture as it has come to symbolise modernism and internationalism for many consumers around the world (Alden et al., 1999). For example, in a study of Japanese packaging, Sherry & Camargo (1987) found that English symbolised modernization, social mobility and an internationalised outlook. Similarly, Ray et al. (1994) hypothesised that advertisers use the English language in print advertisements in order to communicate cosmopolitanism, young lifestyle and connection to Americans. Therefore, English texts and slogans can be used by advertisers to execute GCCP. A current example of such a slogan is Philips' "sense and simplicity" (Philips, 2012). Additionally to texts and slogans, the spelling and pronunciation of brand names can be used to communicate brand origin associations (Heath et al., 1990; Thakor & Lavack, 2003). Leclerc et al. (1994) studied the effect of foreign branding, i.e. the spelling of brand names in a foreign language, on brand attitudes. This research revealed that French spelling of brand names led to more positive brand attitudes for hedonic products than the mere use of COO information (i.e. "made in France").

Despite this classification in visual aesthetics and text elements, text and images cannot be regarded separately, because they combine to form an overall message communicating the cultural positioning (Scott, 1994a). For example, for correctly interpreting the Colgate ad featuring an Asian endorser as a symbol of wisdom, one has to combine the picture with the main text, written like a Confucian proverb, and the Colgate slogan "The Wise Choice" (Scott, 1994b). The same holds true for Nespresso advertisements, where the use of George Clooney as endorser is merged with English text to communicate GCCP (Nespresso, n.d.).

2.2.5 Effect of CCP on Brand Perceptions

One purpose of the present thesis is to investigate how LCCP, FCCP and GCCP influence consumers' brand perceptions. GCCP, LCCP and FCCP might impact consumers' brand perceptions in different ways, because brand managers use cultural values or often favourable stereotypes in traits relevant to the brand (Zhou & Belk, 2004), to make consumers associate the brand with a global, local or foreign consumer culture. As numerous studies in psychology found that stereotypes influence evaluations of human behaviour, it is likely that cultural stereotypes will influence the evaluation of any object associated with a certain culture (Leclerc et al., 1994). Because GCCP, LCCP and FCCP use different stereotypes, they are likely to trigger different brand perceptions in consumers' minds. This implies that the three options should have a different impact on consumers' brand perceptions. In the end, it is "vital for marketing and advertising managers to have a clear understanding of which appeals are more effective in selling products within a culture" (Zhou & Belk, 2004, p. 63).

Alden et al. (1999) identified that the three positioning approaches are used in advertising around the world, but did not investigate any effects on consumers' evaluations. However, three recent studies investigated consumer perceptions of CCP. First of all, Gammoh et al. (2011) tested the differential impact of LCCP and GCCP on consumers brand attitudes, purchase intention, word of mouth and brand prestige. Using print advertisements of a fictitious brand, the authors found that GCCP caused not only a higher brand attitude, but also higher purchase intention, more extent word of mouth and higher brand prestige than LCCP. Secondly, Nijssen & Douglas (2011) investigated the influence of consumer world-mindedness on attitudes towards LCCP, FCCP and GCCP. However, arguing that such attitudes can only be explained by differences in consumer personalities, the authors do not report whether consumers evaluated LCCP, FCCP or GCCP more positively. In a similar vein, Westjohn et al. (2012) studied the impact of differences in consumer personalities on attitudes towards GCCP and LCCP, also not stating whether GCCP was preferred to LCCP or vice versa.

To conclude, the studies dealing directly with CCP do not seem to answer the question, whether LCCP, FCCP or GCCP would be preferred by consumers (Gammoh et al., 2011; Nijssen & Douglas, 2011; Westjohn et al., 2012). However, because CCP aims at increasing PBL, PBF or PBG (Alden et al., 1999), the following paragraphs will try to answer the

question by looking at empirical findings regarding the advantages of being perceived as local, foreign or global brands.

Comparing perceptions of local and international brands, Schuiling & Kapferer (2004), found that local brands outperformed international brands on their level of awareness, trust, value and reliability. Also, local brands were considered as being more down to earth, traditional and healthy. Finally, this research revealed a higher usage of local compared to international brands. According to another study conducted by Zhou & Belk (2004) in China, local advertising appeals were considered as being favourable because they evoke nationalistic feelings and Chinese cultural values like the importance of family, filial loyalty and respect for the elderly.

Research on PBF has been conducted for example with regards to the influence of foreign branding – the spelling or pronouncing of brand names in a foreign language – on attitudes towards brands. For example, Leclerc et al. (1994) found that French branding enhanced the attitude towards hedonic products. Later, Batra et al. (2000) found that brands perceived as having a nonlocal COO were preferred over brands that are perceived to be domestic. Additionally, this effect increased with the degree of perceived nonlocalness. Comparing perceived brand value for local and foreign brands in China, Zhou et al. (2010) found that foreign brands are generally more positively rated than local brands. PBF was found to have a positive impact on consumers' brand value perceptions, which were measured on the three dimensions brand quality, leadership and social signalling value.

Attitudes towards global brands have been quite extensively researched, but with ambiguous results whether perceived globality of brands is important for consumers or leads to positive brand evaluations. Most agreement in literature has been reached with regards to perceived brand quality as an attribute connected to global brands (Dimofte et al., 2010; Holt et al., 2004; Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou & Belk, 2004). Also, several studies found that global brands were associated with enhanced prestige and social status (Dimofte et al., 2010; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou & Belk, 2004). Other attributes associated with global brands are superior style (Dimofte et al., 2010), cosmopolitanism, excitement, modernity, technology, beauty (Zhou & Belk, 2004) and fun (Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004). Holt et al. (2004) revealed that global brands are connected with an expectation of socially responsible behaviour and that they are seen as symbols of cultural ideals. This 'global myth'

is best reflected in the following statement by one respondent: “Local brands show what we are, global brands show what we want to be” (Holt et al., 2004, p. 71). However, there is also research claiming that consumers associate nothing else but a broad reach and limited local adaptation with global brands (Dimofte et al., 2008). The authors of this study argued that the positive associations with global brands found in other studies were artefacts of the use of real brands and not due to the globality of a brand per se. However, as a result of the empirical study, they concluded that brand globality had a positive implicit influence on attitudes towards brands.

Concluding, it can only be stated that the findings, whether perceptions of a brand’s localness, foreignness or globalness result in more favourable consumer ratings are highly ambiguous. While some studies found that consumers prefer domestic products and brands (e.g. Papadopoulos et al., 1990; Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004; Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Verlegh, 2007; Wall & Heslop, 1986), other research reveals a positive bias towards globally perceived brands (e.g. Dimofte et al., 2008; Gammoh et al., 2011; Holt et al., 2004; Steenkamp et al., 2003). A third group of studies finally argues for a positive impact of foreign or nonlocal brands on consumers’ brand evaluations (e.g. Batra et al., 2000; Laroche et al., 2005; Leclerc et al., 1994; Zhou et al., 2010). Apparently, such findings seem to depend strongly on the purpose of the studies as well as the population of interest, the product category studied, the use of real or artificial brands and similar. Most importantly, however, the contribution of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP to brand perceptions might be driven by individual consumer differences (Gammoh et al., 2011; Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010; Westjohn et al., 2012; Zhang & Khare, 2009). For example, Steenkamp & de Jong (2010) argued that consumers vary in their attitudes towards local and global products. Also, recent research conducted by Zhang & Khare (2009) indicates that the differential impact of perceived local-, global- and foreignness might depend on how susceptible individual consumers are to the CCP used in the advertisements. Additionally, this is even made clearer in recent research on CCP by Nijssen & Douglas (2011) and Westjohn et al. (2012), who examined differences in consumer responses to CCP that can be traced back to personality variables. Therefore, the following paragraphs will discuss how certain consumer characteristics might moderate the effect of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP respectively.

Consumer Ethnocentrism (CET)

The concept of CET originates from a general concept of ethnocentrism introduced and defined by Sumner (1906, cited in Balabanis et al., 2001) and is one of the most researched constructs in connection with consumer evaluations of global, local or foreign products and brands. Ethnocentrism focuses on people's strong feelings of attachment and loyalty towards their nation (the ingroup) coupled with the perception of cultural superiority of one's ingroup and thus unfavourable attitudes towards foreign cultures (Sumner, 1906, cited in Balabanis et al., 2001). Based on this, CET was developed by Shimp & Sharma (1987) as an economic form of ethnocentrism and defined as "beliefs [...] about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products" (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280). Empirically, CET was found to be positively related to patriotism and nationalism (Balabanis et al., 2001). Additionally, ethnocentric people elicit positive evaluations of and attitudes towards local products or brands (Cleveland et al., 2009; Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010; Verlegh, 2007) and show a higher willingness to buy domestically (Klein et al., 1998; Vida & Reardon, 2008; Wang & Chen, 2004). In connection with globally perceived brands, CET was found to be negatively related to belief in global citizenship (BGC) (Strizhakova et al., 2008), the attitude towards global products and brands (Alden et al., 2006; Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010) and the purchase intention of global brands (Steenkamp et al., 2003). However, although one would also expect a negative relationship with evaluations of foreign products, most studies found no impact of CET on the consumers' evaluation of products that they perceived to be foreign (Batra et al., 2000; Orbaiz & Papadopoulos, 2003; Verlegh, 2007). In the present specific context of CCP, CET has only been investigated by Nijssen & Douglas (Nijssen & Douglas, 2011), who found that CET has a positive influence on attitudes towards LCCP and a negative impact on attitudes towards GCCP and FCCP.

National Identification (NID)

The concept of national identification is rooted in social identity theory, where identification refers to the extent to which people identify with groups or organisations and define themselves in terms of memberships to specific organisations (Bhattacharya et al., 1995). National identification is thus defined as feelings of belongingness to and identification with a national community (Verlegh, 2007). As such, it is similar to Zhang & Khare's (2009) definition of local identity as identification with a local community. Feelings of belongingness to and membership in a social group endow people with ingroup identities, which are part of a person's self-image. People's motivation to maintain a positive self-image

will therefore result in attempts to enhance their in-group membership (Verlegh, 2007). On a national level, this reinforcement of one's national identification becomes visible by the use of a national language, cultural products or symbols (Billig, 1995). A strong national identification was therefore found to result in a positive bias towards domestic products (Verlegh, 2007; Zhang & Khare, 2009). In an advertising context, Westjohn et al. (2012) argued that a high similarity between the advertising imagery and a person's identity will lead to positive attitudes towards that ad. Based on this rationale, the authors concluded that people with a strong national identity will show positive attitudes towards LCCP and confirmed this hypothesis in an empirical study.

Consumer Cosmopolitanism (COS)

As a personal orientation (Riefler et al., 2012), cosmopolitanism is defined as a person's "willingness to engage with the other (i.e., different cultures), and a level of competence towards alien culture(s)" (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007, p. 252). Cosmopolitans hold beliefs, attitudes and qualities that reflect a conscious openness to the world and cultural differences (Skrbis et al., 2004). Also, they perceive themselves as citizens of the world and are therefore more globally than locally oriented (Cleveland et al., 2009). In a consumption context, Riefler & Diamantopoulos (2009) conceptualised consumer cosmopolitanism (COS) as a three-dimensional construct. The authors extended COS from the mere focus on open-mindedness to the three dimensions open-mindedness, diversity appreciation and consumption transcending borders. Similarly to the definition of general cosmopolitanism as a personal orientation (Riefler et al., 2012), open-mindedness refers to the willingness to engage with other countries and cultures. Diversity appreciation manifests itself in a preference for variety and consumption transcending borders captures an interest or determination to consume objects from different countries and cultures (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009). A cosmopolitan consumer is therefore portrayed as "an open-minded individual whose consumption orientation transcends any particular culture, locality or community and who appreciates diversity including trying products and services from a variety of countries" (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2009, p. 415). Empirically, Cleveland et al. (2009) found that a high level of cosmopolitanism led to positive behaviours associated with globally popular apparel. In a similar vein, Cleveland & Laroche (2007) found that cosmopolitanism was positively related to an acculturation to a global consumer culture. It is therefore probable that cosmopolitans will evaluate GCCP positively. Apart from that, the definition of consumer cosmopolitanism implies that cosmopolitans are more likely to adopt products from other

cultures due to their openness to cultural differences. Cosmopolitans are thus anticipated to respond positively to FCCP, too. In addition to that, research revealed a negative relationship between cosmopolitanism and CET (Vida & Reardon, 2008). This link was confirmed by Riefler et al. (2012), who found a negative correlation between COS and CET. Due to the positive impact of CET on the evaluation of locally perceived brands, it is likely that cosmopolitanism will result in less positive evaluations of LCCP.

Global Identity (GID)

As discussed earlier on in the context of the emergence of a global consumer culture as a consequence of increased globalisation, Arnett (2002) argued that today's consumers possess characteristics of both local and global identity. Global identity is defined as the degree of identification with people around the world (Arnett, 2002; Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Zhang & Khare, 2009). Consumers with a high global identity exhibit feelings of belongingness to a global community and identification with a global lifestyle (Tu et al., 2012). More specifically, global identity is an orientation where consumers believe in the positive effects of globalisation, focus more on similarities rather than differences among people across the world and show interest in global events (Tu et al., 2012). Empirically, such identification with a global consumer culture was found to be positively related to an acculturation to a global consumer culture (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007). Simultaneously to the finding that a local identity positively influences evaluations of local products, Zhang and Khare (2009) found that consumers with a global identity evaluated globally perceived products positively. Westjohn et al. (2012) investigated the influence of global identity on attitudes towards GCCP and LCCP and found that a high level of global identity led to positive attitudes towards GCCP, while it did not influence attitudes towards LCCP.

Belief in Global Citizenship (BGC)

In their development and testing of the construct belief in global citizenship, Strizhakova et al. (2008, p. 59) referred to it as the "belief that global brands create an imagined global identity that a person shares with like-minded people" and showed indeed that it was an actual belief shared by young consumers in both developing and developed countries and that it was positively linked with the importance of branded products. Their findings also revealed that respondents with a high score on BGC perceived themselves as international and tended to be positively biased towards globally perceived products. Additionally, in a very recent paper on the differential effect of LCCP and GCCP on consumers' brand evaluation, Gammoh et al.

(2011) found a positive relationship between BCG and GCCP. Additionally, they found that BGC had a negative effect on brand attitudes in response to LCCP in one sample. However, the effect was less pronounced for LCCP than for GCCP (Gammoh et al., 2011).

2.3 Ad-Brand Incongruity

When managers are faced with the decision to position a brand as symbolic of a global, local or foreign consumer culture, they might not only take into account the possible reactions of their target group to each of the cultural positioning but also, among other things, the prevailing positioning and consumer perceptions of their brand. If consumers are familiar with the brand, they might hold perceptions of the brand's localness, foreignness or globalness (Batra et al., 2000; Leclerc et al., 1994; Schiefer, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010). In such situations, brand managers might have to decide whether to comply with the prevailing brand image or whether to establish a new advertising positioning running contrary to consumers' expectations. Indeed, it has been observed in advertising practice that global brands use LCCP as well as foreign brands can use GCCP, meaning that brand managers have increasingly been using CCP irrespective of whether the brand is perceived to be a local, foreign or global brand (Sjödín & Törn, 2006; Zhou & Belk, 2004). Sjödín & Törn (2006) mentioned the example of TV commercials by the German brand Mercedes, which displayed a typically Finnish countryside and used Finnish folk music as background music. If consumers have a specific brand image including PBL, PBF or PBG and if, in addition, the advertisement is not positioned in the same direction, consumers could perceive an incongruity upon the encounter of such an advertisement. The importance of such an incongruity stems from an increased popularity in practice and findings that the degree to which new information is inconsistent with existing associations might influence consumers' brand perceptions (Desai & Gencturk, 1995; Sjödín & Törn, 2006; Yoon, 2012). For these reasons, one purpose of this thesis is to investigate the effectiveness of incongruent advertisements relative to congruent advertisements in the context of CCP. Specifically, the aim is to examine the impact of a perceived incongruity between the ad positioning and existing brand associations on consumers brand perceptions.

The following chapter contains a review of the relevant literature necessary to answer this question. In a first section, ad-brand incongruity will be defined moving from the general

concept of schema incongruity to the more specific concept of ad-brand incongruity, which will then be applied to the context of CCP. The second section will concentrate on research findings about consumers' reactions towards such an incongruity.

2.3.1 Defining Ad-Brand Incongruity

In order to define incongruity in advertising, researchers often rely on schema theory (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Yoon, 2012). Schemata are defined as cognitive structures or knowledge about a concept or a stimulus, their attributes and the relations among those attributes (Bobrow & Norman, 1975, cited in Lee & Schumann 2004; Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Taylor & Crocker, 1981, cited in Areni & Cox 1994) that are formed by people's learning experiences (Lee & Schumann, 2004). These abstract expectations guide and facilitate the processing of incoming information and stimuli, because they form frames of references into which the new information is categorised (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Loef & Verlegh, 2002; Mandler, 1982). Upon the encounter of new information, a specific schema will be activated. Incoming information that is relevant to the activated schema will subsequently be judged in front of these prior knowledge structures. These incoming stimuli can be congruent or incongruent with the activated schema (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Heckler & Childers, 1992). Schema incongruity is defined as the mismatch "between a stimulus element (e.g. product, brand, endorser, music or any execution element in an ad) and the existing schema that one holds about the stimulus" (Lee & Schumann, 2004, p. 59). Since schemata are based on experiences, they are individual to every consumer. Perceptions of incongruity depend on the activated schema and therefore, they differ across consumers, too (Lee & Schumann, 2004). When new information is cognitively processed, the relevant schema is activated and the new information is interpreted in light of that schema. Whether or not the consumer perceives an incongruity depends largely on prior expectations (Heckler & Childers, 1992). Schema incongruity occurs if a stimulus does not readily fit into the activated schema, because it is inconsistent with prior expectations (Alden et al., 2000; Desai & Gencturk, 1995; Heckler & Childers, 1992; Lee & Schumann, 2004; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989; Yoon, 2012).

Analogously, ad-brand incongruity occurs if consumers perceive a mismatch between a stimulus element of an advertisement and the established brand schema. In such cases, the advertisement contains elements that are unexpected in light of the established brand schema (Dahlén et al., 2005; Törn & Dahlén, 2008; Yoon, 2012). The sum of associations consumers

hold with a brand and its perceived position relative to competing brands is contained in the brand schema, which is formed by experiences with a brand (Dahlén et al., 2005; Loef & Verlegh, 2002). The brand schema is activated upon the exposure to the brand and any new information is interpreted based on the activated schema (Dahlén et al., 2008).

The two definitions of schema incongruity and ad-brand incongruity will now serve as the foundation for defining ad-brand incongruity in the context of consumer culture positioning, because no explicit definition in the context of CCP known to the author exists in the literature.

As specified, perceptions of incongruity in advertising depend on two elements: the advertisement appeal and the brand schema. While incongruity is defined as a mismatch between these two, the perceived fit of the advertisement appeal with consumers' expectations of the brand is classified as congruity (Dahlén et al., 2005; Törn & Dahlén, 2008; Yoon, 2012). In CCP, these two elements are the positioning of the advertisement (LCCP, FCCP, GCCP) and consumers' perceptions of the cultural belongingness of the brand (PBL, PBF, PBG). As discussed in Section 2.2.3, Alden et al. (1999) identified three alternative options for the positioning of an advertisement towards a specific consumer culture. While LCCP uses stimuli that are typically associated with a local consumer culture, FCCP and GCCP apply the same concept to a foreign and global consumer culture, respectively. The goal of these positioning approaches is to increase perceptions of the localness, foreignness or globalness of the brand. However, consumers who are familiar with a brand might already hold perceptions of the brand's localness, foreignness or globalness before they are exposed to the advertisement (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Batra et al., 2000; Schiefer, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010). If the advertisement is not positioned in line with these expectations, consumers might perceive an incongruity between their brand schema enclosing PBL, PBF or PBG and the cultural advertising appeals LCCP, FCCP or GCCP.

Thus, ad-brand incongruity in CCP occurs if there is a perceived mismatch between the positioning of the advertisement and views of the cultural belongingness of a brand. In other words, consumers are expected to perceive an incongruity if they associate the advertisement with a different consumer culture than the brand. Analogously, an advertisement should be perceived as congruent if the ad appeal is associated with the same consumer culture as the brand. Table 1 gives an overview over all possible variations of (in)congruity if all three

occurrences per element are matched. For example, an advertisement is characterised as congruent if a brand scoring high on PBL is advertised using LCCP. However, the same advertisement is classified as incongruent if the brand is perceived as a foreign brand.

	LCCP	FCCP	GCCP
PBL	✓	✗	✗
PBF	✗	✓	✗
PBG	✗	✗	✓

Table 1: Ad-Brand (In)congruity in Consumer Culture Positioning

2.3.2 Effects of Ad-Brand Incongruity in CCP

After having defined ad-brand incongruity, the following section will focus on the effects of a perceived mismatch between ad positioning and brand schema on consumers' brand evaluations. The effects of incongruity have been investigated in many different contexts (cf. Sjödin & Törn, 2006). In brand extension research, studies have explored the effects of a fit between the brand associations and the extension (e.g. Srivastava & Sharma, 2011). In advertising research, topics include source-content incongruity, which captures the fit between the brand or product category and a celebrity endorser (e.g. Chang & Lin, 2010; Lee & Thorson, 2008). Similarly, Ryu et al. (2006) studied the (mis)match between endorser ethnicity and a brand's COO. Additionally, a large body of research investigated incongruity among different cues in an advertisement (e.g. Heslop et al., 2010; van Rompay et al., 2009). Despite superficial differences, this research examined the same underlying theme: the general notion of a mismatch between existing brand associations and brand communication (Sjödin & Törn, 2006) that is also used in the present context of ad-brand incongruity in CCP. Although there is a quite large body of research and despite the fact that the use of incongruity to capture attention has been observed in advertising practice, findings as to how incongruity is processed and how it might affect brand perceptions have been subject to a wide discussion in the literature (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Lee & Schumann, 2004; Sjödin & Törn, 2006; Srivastava & Sharma, 2011; Yoon, 2012).

2.3.2.1 Ad-Brand Incongruity & Attention

With regards to the effect of ad-brand incongruity on attention, it has been found that incongruent stimuli lead to more extensive elaboration than congruent stimuli (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Loef & Verlegh, 2002). In a media environment where consumer attention is a scarce resource, advertisers have been looking for ways to attract and retain their target group's attention. One way to capture this attention is to develop advertisements that are incongruent with consumers' expectations, because they might be processed more extensively by viewers (Lee & Schumann, 2004; Loef & Verlegh, 2002; Yoon, 2012). Theoretical underpinning for such an argumentation is provided by the schema-congruity-theory developed by Mandler (1982). According to this theory, the level of incongruity between a stimulus and the activated schema determines responses to the respective stimulus. Stimuli that are incongruent with the established schema attract attention, because they are unexpected and lead to heightened cognitive elaboration (Mandler, 1982). Thus, the amount, complexity and range of cognitive activity upon encountering incongruity are elevated relative to congruity (McQuarrie & Mick, 1999). In line with this, incongruent stimuli are argued to be perceived as more salient and therefore draw greater attention than schema congruent stimuli (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Lee & Schumann, 2004). Indeed, findings from Heckler & Childers (1992) revealed that unexpected information results in more elaborate processing which in turn leads to better recall and recognition than expected information. In line with this, Loef & Verlegh (2002) found that advertisements that are incongruent with the brand schema are more extensively processed as they elicit more thoughts in total and more incongruity-related thoughts than in case of congruity. Recently, findings from Halkias & Kokkinaki (2011) corroborated these results, because in their research, schema incongruent advertisements caused more attention to the ad in terms of a longer viewing time than schema congruent advertisements.

2.3.2.2 Ad-Brand Incongruity & Brand Perceptions

Incongruity results in superior evaluative outcomes

Regarding evaluative outcomes of schema incongruity, Mandler (1982: 187) argued that the favourability of evaluation depends on the resolution of the incongruity. He distinguished between schema congruent, moderately incongruent and extremely incongruent information and claimed that incongruent stimuli elicit relatively more favourable responses than congruent versions if the incongruity is resolved (Mandler, 1982).

In parallel to heightened cognitive elaboration, incongruity seems to create tension (Heider, 1958, cited in Lee & Schumann, 2004) because the incongruent message is not immediately understood (Sjödén & Törn, 2006). Cognitive psychologists suggest that subjects will subsequently attempt to resolve and thus make sense of the schema incongruity, which can generate affect leading to more favourable evaluations (Festinger, 1957, cited in Lee & Schumann, 2004; Mandler, 1982).

With regards to congruity, Mandler (1982) stated that schema congruent stimuli are not salient and therefore do not elicit a high level of elaboration. This does not create enough affect in order to influence product evaluations. Moderate incongruity on the other hand captures attention, triggers curiosity, is perceived as interesting (Mandler, 1982) and is therefore processed more extensively than congruity (Meyers-Levy et al., 1994). At the same time, the incongruity is only moderate and consumers are expected to integrate the new information relatively easily into the existing schema, because they make sense of the moderate incongruity. This process of incongruity resolution will lead to satisfaction and consequently positive affective reactions to the stimuli (Mandler, 1982; Meyers-Levy et al., 1994). Being exposed to extremely incongruent information, however, it is a lot more difficult to reconcile the incongruent information and the schema. Most of the times, subjects will not succeed in making sense of the extreme incongruity. This will cause a feeling of frustration resulting in less favourable or even negative evaluations of extreme incongruent stimuli (Mandler, 1982).

A superior effect of ad-brand incongruity was found by several studies investigating the effect of unexpected information in advertising (Dahlén et al., 2008; Lee & Mason, 1999; Törn & Dahlén, 2008). Lee & Mason (1999) tested the effect of expectancy on attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand and found a more positive attitude towards the ad for the unexpected stimulus. Attitude towards the brand, however, was not found to be affected by expectancy. Research by Törn & Dahlén (2008) shows similar results. The authors investigated the incongruity between ad advertisement and established brand associations and find that incongruity has a superior effect among others on attitude towards the ad. Again, attitude towards the brand and in this study also purchase intention is not found to be affected by schema incongruity. A similar study was conducted by Dahlén et al. (2008), who examined the effect of incongruence in advertising by testing the effectiveness of

advertisements placed in a thematically incongruent magazine. Findings showed that the advertisement was not only viewed longer when it was placed in a thematically incongruent magazine, but also attitude towards the ad and brand were enhanced in this situation.

Two studies finding a superior effect of incongruity can be put in context of CCP in advertising, although the authors did not explicitly name this concept. Firstly, Ryu et al. (2006) examined the effect of incongruity between a product's COO and the endorser ethnicity in the advertisement on perceived strength of ad message claims, belief about the product's benefits, attitude towards the ad and attitude towards the brand. The study was conducted in Singapore and the authors matched the USA and Japan as COO with a US-American and a Japanese endorser. Both advertisements can be seen as examples of FCCP with incongruity between the positioning and the COO of the product. Findings revealed that a mismatch between the endorser ethnicity and the COO had superior effects on all dependent variables in case of a utilitarian product. The second study was conducted by Chéron & Pau (2009) and tested the effects of incongruity in advertising for a culture-bound product in Japan on affective product evaluations. The product was the so-called Hakama, a traditional piece of female clothing worn at graduation ceremonies. While the congruent advertisement featured a Japanese model, the incongruent ad showed a Western model. Applying the context of CCP, the authors compared LCCP and FCCP in advertisement for a product with high local product ethnicity. Findings revealed that the incongruent advertisement elicited more favourable affective evaluations in terms of awareness and endorser attractiveness than the congruent advertisement.

In addition to this, several empirical studies explicitly refer to Mandler's schema-congruity-theory (Gierl et al., 2006; Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Lee & Thorson, 2008; Meyers-Levy et al., 1994). These authors postulate an inverted-U-shaped relationship between incongruity and evaluations with a superior effect of moderate incongruity over congruity and extreme incongruity. For example, Meyers-Levy et al. (1994) tested incongruity between a company brand name and a new product defined as the degree to which they are linked by common associations and operationalised as the likelihood to which a product would be offered by a specific company. The authors found that moderate incongruity elicited greater thoughts about the brand names as well as more expressions of surprise than either congruent or extremely incongruent brand-product combinations. Gierl et al (2006) investigated the effect of schema incongruity in advertising on attitudes towards the ad and brand as well as ad

cognition measuring the informative value and usefulness of the advertisement. The level of incongruity was manipulated using visual cues in the ad that were congruent, moderately incongruent or extremely incongruent with expectations of advertising for the respective product. Findings revealed a superior effect of moderate incongruity on both attitude towards the ad and brand and ad cognition. Lee & Thorson (2008) hypothesised a positive effect of moderate incongruity in advertising between a celebrity endorser and the advertised product on attitudes towards the ad and brand and purchase intention. The authors conducted pretests to identify endorser-product pairs at the three different levels of incongruity. Findings provided partial support for the hypothesised relationships, because a superior effect of moderate incongruity was found for attitude towards the ad and purchase intention, but not for attitudes towards the brand. Halkias & Kokkinaki (2011) found a superior effect of moderate brand schema incongruity on attention to the ad, ad recall and recognition and attitudes towards ad and brand. The level of incongruity was manipulated based on pretest results showing the degree of fit between selected pictures and respondents' impressions of the brand.

Although these results showed a superior effect of moderate brand schema incongruity relative to congruity and extreme incongruity, the conceptualisation of the three different levels of incongruity remains inconsistent (Gierl et al., 2006). Specifically, these studies mostly do not seem to acknowledge that the underlying factor of positive or negative evaluations of schema incongruity in Mandler's (1982) theory is not the degree of incongruity per se, but the success of respondents to resolve the incongruity (Jhang et al., 2012; Mandler, 1982). The consequences of this rationale for the present research will be discussed later in section 2.3.2.3.

Congruity results in superior evaluative outcomes

In contrast to the above reported empirical findings, some studies in the context of brand positioning found that ad-brand congruity had superior effects on brand perceptions relative to incongruity (e.g. Essoussi & Merunka, 2007; Häubl & Elrod, 1999; Lee & Shen, 2009; van Rompay et al., 2009).

In brand positioning, Keller (1993) argued that congruence among brand associations defined as shared content and meaning between different brand associations influence perceptions of a cohesive brand image. The author proposed a superior effect of congruence on memory,

arguing that it leads to easier learning and better recall than incongruence. Consequently, congruity among cues in advertising facilitate impression formation and the development of a clear and consistent brand image which might lead to superior brand evaluations relative to schema incongruent information (van Rompay et al., 2009).

Incongruity, on the other hand, is argued to cause inferior brand evaluations in this stream of research because it might result in ambiguous brand perceptions (Häubl & Elrod, 1999; Keller, 1993; van Rompay et al., 2009). Keller (1993) argued that incongruence among brand associations can lead to confusion and requires an increased processing effort. Incongruent information makes it more difficult to form a cohesive image of the brand because it cannot be linked easily to established associations. This might result in less favourable brand judgements especially for individuals who show a low level of tolerance for ambiguity (van Rompay et al., 2009).

Several studies in the area of COO research tested the (in)congruity effect of some sort of brand feature and the brand's COO. Häubl & Elrod (1999) investigated the effect of congruence between brand and country of production (COP), which is defined as the equality between the brand's home country and the COP. Findings revealed that congruence between brand origin and COP positively affects a product's quality judgements. Additionally, the authors found that the stronger the associations between the brand and its home country, the stronger the favourable effect on quality perceptions. These findings were confirmed by Essoussi & Merunka (2007), who tested the effect of fit between the product and its country of manufacture (COM). Findings revealed a positive effect of fit between perceived competencies of the COM and important product characteristics on perceived quality. Leclerc et al. (1994) studied the impact of French branding on hedonic perceptions of a brand. Generally, they found that French branding led to more hedonic brand perceptions than English branding. However, this effect was diminished in case of incongruence between the language of the brand name and the brand's COO. In a similar vein, Heslop et al (2010) tested the effects of cue incongruity between brand name and COO on price perceptions and behavioural intentions towards different wine brands. Interaction effects between brand name and COO were only found to affect price expectations. For example, a brand with a French sounding brand name originating from France was expected to be more expensive than originating from Australia. However, the congruity or incongruity between brand names and

COO did not result in different behavioural intentions like “would try”, “would buy” and similar.

Finally, studies that test the incongruity among cues in an advertisement provide additional empirical support for the relatively more positive evaluation of two cues that match each other. Lee & Shen (2009) studied the effect of (in)congruity in joint advertising, where two brands join to appear in one advertisement. The fit between the two brands were conceptualised in a way that the two brands fall into one product category and have complementary usage (e.g. toothpaste and mouthwash). The authors argued that the effect is moderated by processing load, defined as the extent to which people are cognitively occupied e.g. by doing another task while processing the advertising message. A high processing load is a situation where people have little cognitive resources to process the message leading to low message involvement (Lee & Shen, 2009), a situation that is typical for advertisement processing (Sengupta et al., 1997). Indeed, findings from Lee & Shen (2009) showed that congruity leads to relatively higher attitudes towards the advertisement and the brands under conditions of high information load, thereby indicating a positive effect congruity in advertising. Under low information load, the authors did not find any difference in attitudes between the congruent and incongruent advertisements. In addition to that, van Rompay et al. (2009) studied the effect of congruence between the symbolic meanings of different elements of visual marketing communications. They posited that visual elements such as shape, colour and logo are perceived in terms of their symbolic or affective connotations. Congruence among visual elements means that these elements contribute to one common underlying theme. The authors proposed that such congruence leads to more favourable attitudes and brand evaluations. The findings confirmed this relatively positive congruity effect, but only for respondents that showed a low level of tolerance for ambiguity. However, for people high in ambiguity tolerance the results did not reveal any difference between congruent and incongruent advertising. Additionally, the findings supported the argument of incongruity being a source of ambiguity.

2.3.2.3 Moderating Influences

The ambiguity of empirical findings regarding the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions indicates that the evaluations of congruent versus incongruent advertisements have to be traced back not only to (in)congruity per se, but will be contingent on several other factors. These can be related to the individual processing the advertisement or the brand itself and will be outlined in the following paragraphs.

Success of resolution

Success of resolution of the incongruent stimuli is argued to determine whether an incongruent ad will be positively evaluated or not (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Mandler, 1982; Sjödin & Törn, 2006; Törn & Dahlén, 2008). This argument is related to Mandler's schema-congruity-theory (Mandler, 1982).

In his schema-congruity-theory, Mandler argued that the level of incongruity determines attitudes and evaluations depending on the ease of processing and successful resolution of the incongruity (Mandler, 1982). Stimuli that are incongruent with existing schemata attract attention and increase cognitive elaboration because people try to make sense of the discrepancies. If the incongruity is only moderate, resolution will be successful (Mandler, 1982). The feeling of having correctly inferred the meaning of the advertisement as well as the entertainment of resolving a puzzle trigger positive affect and might result in more favourable evaluations of the incongruent compared to the congruent stimuli (Dahlén et al., 2008; Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011). However, if the incongruity is extreme, subjects do not succeed in making sense of the incongruent advertisement. The subsequent feeling of frustration because of the inability to understand the ad might lead to less favourable evaluations of the incongruent compared to the congruent advertisement (Mandler, 1982).

Further support for the differentiation of moderate and extreme incongruity via success of resolution is given by Jhang et al. (2012). The authors conceptualise moderate and extreme incongruity in a way that moderate incongruity can be resolved while extreme incongruity cannot.

This discussion corroborates that the underlying factor of the effect of brand schema incongruity in advertisements might not be the degree of incongruity per se but the ability of individuals to resolve the incongruity (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Jhang et al., 2012; Sjödin

& Törn, 2006; Törn & Dahlén, 2008). Successful resolution of incongruent stimuli means that consumers are able to understand and attribute meaning to the incongruity because they find an explanation of the incongruity in context of the activated schema (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Lee & Thorson, 2008). The positive effect of incongruity in advertisement might thus depend on the ease of understanding and perceived meaningfulness of the advertisement in front of prior expectations about the brand's communication (Yoon, 2012).

Brand credibility

Another factor that might influence perceptions of an incongruent advertisement is brand credibility (Lee & Schumann, 2004; van Rompay & Pruyn, 2011). Brand credibility is defined as the degree of believability and trustworthiness of a brand (Erdem & Swait, 2004; Lee & Schumann, 2004; van Rompay & Pruyn, 2011). If an information source is judged as believable, it is thought to deliver information that can be trusted (Lee & Schumann, 2004). Brand credibility is believed to be one of the most important differentiating characteristics for the success of a brand and generally expected to have a positive impact on brand perceptions (Erdem & Swait, 2004; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008).

In essence, ad-brand incongruity in the context of CCP means that a brand pretends to be someone else in its advertisement. While the brand is perceived to be a local, foreign or global brand, its communication runs contrary to these expectations. This approach is more likely to be successful if consumers trust the brand and therefore perceive it as a credible source of information (Lee & Schumann, 2004). A message that is incongruent with expectations but uttered by a credible source might motivate consumers to process the advertisement in greater details to find the reason for the incongruity (Heider, 1958, cited in Lee & Schumann, 2004). On the other hand, an incongruent message from a source that is not trusted is more likely to be rejected by consumers. This indicates that an incongruent advertisement used by a credible source will be evaluated more positively than an incongruent advertisement used by a source that is not seen as credible.

Product category involvement

An important prerequisite to the processing of incongruity is that people must be motivated to do so (Peracchio & Tybout, 1996; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). One variable thought to impact the motivation to process is involvement (Andrew et al., 1990, cited in Lee & Thorson, 2008; Petty et al., 1983). Product category involvement is defined as the degree to which a specific

product category is personally relevant or important to consumers (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Lee & Schumann, 2004; Lee & Thorson, 2008; Mittal & Lee, 1988). Especially with increased product category involvement, consumers are more likely to elaborate on an advertisement because they feel a greater personal relevance towards the ad and the product (Lee & Schumann, 2004; Lee & Thorson, 2008). Therefore, it is expected that people showing high involvement are more likely to invest cognitive resources into the processing and resolving of incongruity than people for whom the product category has less personal relevance (Lee & Schumann, 2004). This expectation is confirmed by Lee & Thorson (2008), who found that the positive effect of moderate incongruity is stronger among consumers with high product involvement compared to low product involvement.

Perceived risk

Campbell & Goodstein (2001) argue that consumers' product evaluations are strongly influenced by the perceptions of risk associated with the purchase. Perceived risk is conceptualised as the perceived importance of negative consequences of a mistake or poor choice when purchasing a product (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). Campbell & Goodstein (2001) investigated Mandler's schema-congruity-theory and compared the effect of moderate incongruity on product evaluations and attitudes in situations of high and low perceived risk. They proposed that when consumers connect a high level of risk with a purchase, they would show a preference for the norm and rely on well-known and familiar options. Thus they expected that consumers will prefer congruity over incongruity in situations of high risk. Findings confirmed that the positive effect of moderate incongruity could only be observed when consumers perceived a low level of risk. However, in conditions of high perceived risk, consumers evaluated the congruent product more favourably.

3 Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development

The purpose of this thesis is to gain insight into the effect of consumer culture positioning in advertising on consumers' brand perceptions and to investigate if ad-brand incongruity in advertisements using CCP impacts these perceptions. Findings from the literature to answer the two research questions stemming from these objectives have been outlined in Chapter 2. The literature review will now serve as a foundation to build a research model and formulate the research hypotheses.

3.1 Conceptual Framework

The most basic conceptual framework to graph the relationships of interest in the empirical study is depicted in Figure 8, showing that the study will investigate the effects of CCP and ad-brand incongruity in advertising on brand perceptions.

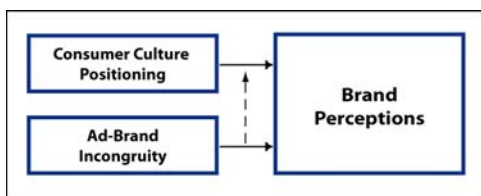


Figure 8: Basic Conceptual Model

This basic model was refined based on the literature review in Chapter 2 (Figure 9). Brand perceptions will be assessed using perceived quality, attitudes towards the ad and the brand as well as purchase intention (see section 3.2 for further details). Additionally, attention will be included as a hypothesised outcome variable for ad-brand incongruity. Different moderators for the relationships between CCP and brand perceptions and ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions have been identified in the literature. Specifically, the effect of CCP on brand perceptions is hypothesised to be moderated by several consumer characteristics involving consumer ethnocentrism, nationalism, consumer cosmopolitanism, global identity and belief in global citizenship. The relationship between ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions is believed to be moderated by success of resolution, brand credibility, product category

involvement and perceived risk of purchase. All details regarding the hypothesised relationships can be found in sections 3.3 and 3.4.

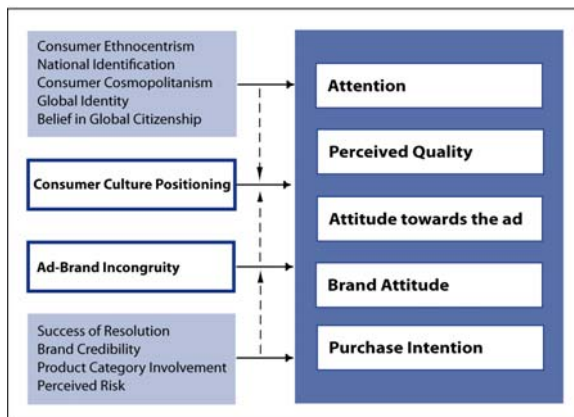


Figure 9: Detailed Conceptual Model

3.2 Assessing Brand Perceptions

Since the goal of the present research is to investigate the effect of CCP and ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions, these are conceptualised in the following paragraphs. With regards to the outcome variables used to assess brand perceptions, four variables will be of particular interest: perceived brand quality, attitude towards the ad, attitude towards the brand and purchase intention.

The approach is based on Ajzen & Fishbein's (1980) belief-attitude-behaviour model in consumer behaviour, which tries to predict and explain actual behaviour as a function of cognitive beliefs, attitudes and behavioural intentions. In particular, Ajzen & Fishbein's (1980) model suggests that cognitive beliefs determine attitude formation. Subsequently, attitudes influence behavioural intention, which is seen as an immediate determinant of actual behaviour. Özsomer & Altaras (2008) criticise the use of either attitudes (e.g. Alden et al., 2006; Magnusson et al., 2011; Nijssen & Douglas, 2011) or purchase intentions (e.g. Josiassen, 2011; Klein et al., 1998) in global brand literature. To overcome this critique, this research follows the approach of Özsomer & Altaras (2008) and Riefler (2012) and includes perceived quality, attitudes towards ad and brand as well as purchase intention in the assessment of brand perceptions.

Perceived quality as part of brand beliefs was selected because of its importance for brand evaluations (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). This importance is rooted in the understanding that one of the functions of brands is to serve as a quality signal (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Kotler & Bliemel, 2006). If this function is indeed fulfilled, higher levels of brand quality are believed to contribute to more favourable brand evaluations (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). Perceived brand quality is defined as consumers' judgements of a brand to be of overall excellence or superiority relative to competing brands (Low & Lamb, 2000). Perceived quality also plays an important role in evaluations of global brands. Indeed, Holt et al. (2004) find that 44% of brand preference is explained by quality.

Attitudes are overall consumer evaluations of an object involving judgements whether the object is good or bad, liked or disliked and similar (Ajzen, 2001). Brand attitude is therefore defined in the literature as consumers' evaluative judgements of a brand, i.e. whether they judge it to be good or bad or whether they like it or not (Low & Lamb, 2000; Mitchell & Olson, 1981). It is therefore widely used in the literature to assess evaluations of brands (Bruner & Hensel, 1996, cited in Low & Lamb, 2000). Analogously, attitude towards the ad is defined as general evaluations and judgements of the advertisement (Mitchell & Olson, 1981). Empirically, Yoo & MacInnis (2005) found that attitude towards the ad significantly influenced brand attitude (Yoo & MacInnis, 2005). In addition to that, attitudes are believed to influence purchase behaviour (Low & Lamb, 2000; Park & MacInnis, 2006), a belief that was empirically confirmed for example by Laroche et al. (1996) and Riefler (2012).

Finally, purchase intention is included to capture behavioural intention in Ajzen & Fishbein's (1980) belief-attitude-behaviour model. Behavioural intention is defined by Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) as the likelihood that a person will engage in a certain behaviour and viewed as the immediate determinant of actual behaviour. Based on this, purchase intention is conceptualised as the likelihood of future brand purchase. Although product ownership would be useful to measure actual behaviour (Josiassen, 2011; Klein et al., 1998), this study has to rely on purchase intentions because of the usage of a fictitious brand to test the hypothesised relationships³.

³ please see section 4.1 for an explanation of this choice

3.3 Hypotheses Development

In the next step, hypotheses for the various effects of interest in the empirical study will be derived in the following paragraphs. The effect of CCP is reflected in the upper part of the conceptual framework. Hypothesis 1 through 4 will cover these relationships. The effect of ad-brand incongruity is illustrated in the lower part of the framework and will be covered by Hypothesis 5 through 10. However, the framework contains one more relationship that will not be covered by specific hypotheses: The combined effect of CCP and ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions. To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to explicitly investigate such a relationship, despite the fact that CCP has been used incongruently in advertising practice as brand managers have increasingly been using CCP irrespective of whether the brand is perceived to be a local, foreign or global brand (Sjödén & Törn, 2006; Zhou & Belk, 2004). Because of this, no strong theoretical predictions as to how incongruity will affect the impact of CCP on brand perceptions could be made. Instead, this relationship will be subject to explorations in section 5.3 labelled ‘Further Analyses’.

Consumer culture positioning in advertising is a brand positioning strategy which aims at positioning the brand as belonging to a specific local, foreign or global consumer culture (Alden et al., 1999). Thereby, advertisers use cultural values or often stereotypes connected by their target group with a specific consumer culture in order to establish a mental link between the advertisement and a local, foreign or global consumer culture (Zhou & Belk, 2004). Although Alden et al. (1999) identified, conceptualised local, foreign and global consumer culture positioning and investigated its use in TV advertising across the world, they did not examine its impact on consumers. Only recently, researchers have begun to look into the effects of CCP on consumers’ perceptions. One study published by Gammoh et al. (2011 89) comparatively examined the effect of LCCP and GCCP on brand evaluations. Although the authors found a superior effect of GCCP over LCCP, they did not cover the effect of FCCP. To the authors knowledge, no other research has been conducted testing these effects and the present study is thus the first to examine LCCP, FCCP and GCCP comparatively. Therefore, we do not have any a priori expectations of whether LCCP, FCCP or GCCP will cause more favourable brand perceptions and hypothesise accordingly:

Hypothesis 1: LCCP, FCCP and GCCP in advertising have a differential impact on consumers’ evaluations of the advertised brand.

Since advertisers use symbols and signs that they believe to be favourably evaluated by their target group (Alden et al., 1999), the contribution of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP to brand perceptions might depend on individual consumer differences (Gammoh et al., 2011; Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010; Westjohn et al., 2012). More specifically, CET, NID, COS, GID and BGC were the characteristics identified to possibly influence the relationship between CCP and brand perceptions.

Firstly, consumer ethnocentrism (CET) refers to a belief that it is inappropriate to buy non-local products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Results from several studies suggest that strong CET leads to more positive evaluations of local products and brands (Cleveland et al., 2009; Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010; Verlegh, 2007), has a negative impact on attitudes towards an ad reflecting FCCP (Nijssen & Douglas, 2011) and leads to more negative evaluations of global products and brands (Alden et al., 2006; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010). Because of this, we believe that CET will be positively related to brand perceptions when the brand is advertised by LCCP. Furthermore, consumers with strong ethnocentric tendencies will evaluate a brand advertised by FCCP and GCCP more negatively.

Secondly, national identification (NID) captures individuals' feelings of belongingness to a national community and was found to result in a positive bias towards domestic products (Verlegh, 2007). In advertising, Westjohn et al. (2012) argued that a high similarity between the advertising positioning and a person's identity leads to positive attitudes towards this ad and find that people with a strong NID show positive attitudes towards LCCP. If a stronger similarity between the ad positioning and a person's identity leads to enhanced attitudes, bigger differences between the positioning and a person's identity are expected to result in less favourable attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand. If people show a strong NID, the advertisement using LCCP is more similar to their identity than advertisements using FCCP and GCCP. As a result, we expect that consumers with high levels of NID will evaluate LCCP more positively while they will evaluate FCCP and GCCP more negatively. NID is thus hypothesised to be positively related to perceptions of LCCP and negatively related to perceptions of FCCP and GCCP.

Thirdly, consumer cosmopolitanism (COS) is defined as a consumption orientation where people are open-minded to other countries or cultures, appreciate diversity in their purchase behaviour and are willing to try products and services from many different countries (Riefler

& Diamantopoulos, 2009). This definition implies that cosmopolitans are more likely to adopt products from foreign cultures due to their openness to cultural differences. Empirically, cosmopolitan consumers were found to judge globally popular apparel more positively (Cleveland et al., 2009). Apart from that, research found a negative relationship between (consumer) cosmopolitanism and CET (Riefler et al., 2012; Vida & Reardon, 2008). The expectations resulting from these findings are that consumers with high levels of COS will evaluate FCCP and GCCP more positively, while they will have more negative perceptions of LCCP.

Fourthly, global identity (GID) referring to feelings of belongingness to a global community was found to be positively related to the evaluations of globally perceived products (Zhang & Khare, 2009). Global identity is an orientation where people focus more on similarities rather than differences among people across the world (Tu et al., 2012). As mentioned above, Westjohn et al. (2012) argued that evaluations of an advertisement are more positive with a higher degree of similarity between the positioning and a person's identity. The authors confirmed empirically a positive relationship between global identity and perceptions of GCCP (Westjohn et al., 2012). We argued earlier that this rationale can be extended in a way that lower similarity between the positioning and a person's identity are expected to result in less favourable attitudes towards the advertisement and the brand. If a person has a strong GID, GCCP will be more similar to their identity than FCCP and LCCP. Because of this, it is expected that evaluations of GCCP will be more positive while evaluations of FCCP and LCCP will be more negative with a stronger level of GID.

Finally, belief in global citizenship (BGC) is defined as the extent to which people believe that a global identity can be created by the purchase of global brands and leads to a positive bias towards globally perceived products (Strizhakova et al., 2008). As such, the concept seems to be similar to global identity, but is extended to a consumption context. Being relatively new, the concept was shown by Strizhakova et al. (2008) to be a belief shared by consumers in both developing and developed countries leading to a positive bias towards globally perceived products. Recent findings by Gammoh et al. (2011) revealed that BGC positively influenced the effect of GCCP and negatively influenced the effect of LCCP. Thereby, however, the effect was less distinct for LCCP than for GCCP. Although BGC was not investigated for the effect of FCCP, we argue that it will be negatively related to brand perceptions resulting from FCCP. Consumers with a high BGC strive for the enhancement of

their global identity by the purchase of globally perceived products and this goal will not be fulfilled with the purchase of a brand that is perceived to belong to some foreign consumer culture. These arguments lead us to hypothesise that BGC will result in more positive evaluations of a brand that is advertised by GCCP while it will cause less positive evaluations of brands that are advertised using FCCP or LCCP.

The discussed effects of CET, NID, COS, GID and BGC on brand perceptions resulting from an exposure to LCCP, FCCP and GCCP are summarised in Table 2 and lead to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: The effect of LCCP on brand perceptions will be a) positively influenced by CET, b) positively influenced by NID, c) negatively influenced by COS, d) negatively influenced by GID and e) negatively influenced by BGC.

Hypothesis 3: The effect of FCCP on brand perceptions will be a) negatively influenced by CET and b) negatively influenced by NID, c) positively influenced by COS, d) negatively influenced by GID, e) negatively influenced by BGC.

Hypothesis 4: The effect of GCCP on brand perceptions will be a) negatively influenced by CET, b) negatively influenced by NID, c) positively influenced by COS, d) positively influenced by GID, e) positively influenced by BGC.

Construct	Definition	Expected Direction of Effect With...		
		... LCCP	... FCCP	... GCCP
CET	“beliefs [...] about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products” (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280)	+	-	-
NID	feelings of belongingness and identification with a national community (Verlegh, 2007)	+	-	-
COS	“the extent to which a consumer (1) exhibits an open-mindedness towards foreign countries and cultures, (2) appreciates the diversity brought about by the availability of products from different national and cultural origins, and (3) is positively disposed towards consuming products from foreign countries.” (Riefler et al., 2012, p. 287)	-	+	+
GID	degree of identification with people around the world (Arnett, 2002; Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Zhang & Khare, 2009)	-	-	+
BGC	“belief that global brands create an imagined global identity that a person shares with like-minded people” (Strizhakova et al., 2008, p. 59)	-	-	+

Table 2: Consumer Characteristics Moderating the Effect of CCP

Ad-brand incongruity is special case of schema incongruity and occurs if consumers perceive a mismatch between an advertisement and their established brand schema (Dahlén et al., 2005; Törn & Dahlén, 2008; Yoon, 2012). The brand schema contains the sum of associations consumer hold with a brand (Dahlén et al., 2005; Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Loef & Verlegh, 2002). These brand associations might include perceptions of a brand's localness, foreignness or globalness (Batra et al., 2000; Schiefer, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010). If these perceptions exist and the advertisement uses CCP, but is not positioned in the same way, consumers could perceive an incongruity, because the advertisement positioning does not comply with their brand schema. Indeed, it has been argued that brand managers have increasingly been using CCP irrespective of whether the brand is perceived to be a local, foreign or global brand (Sjödén & Törn, 2006; Zhou & Belk, 2004). The increased popularity of ad-brand incongruity in advertising practice together with findings that the degree to which an advertisement is consistent with existing brand associations might influence consumers' brand perceptions (Desai & Gencturk, 1995; Sjödén & Törn, 2006; Yoon, 2012) motivate a deeper investigation of ad-brand incongruity context of CCP.

Ad-brand incongruity is a popular advertising approach, because it has been argued that incongruent stimuli have the potential to capture attention as it leads to more extensive elaboration than congruent stimuli (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Loef & Verlegh, 2002). Stimuli that are incongruent with the established schema attract attention, because they are unexpected and lead to heightened cognitive elaboration (Mandler, 1982). In line with this, incongruent stimuli are argued to draw greater attention than schema congruent stimuli (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Lee & Schumann, 2004). This rationale has been confirmed by empirical research. Specifically, Loef & Verlegh (2002) showed that brand schema incongruity in advertisement leads to more extensive processing than congruity. Recently, Halkias & Kokkinaki (2011) found that schema incongruent advertisements cause more attention to the ad in terms of a longer viewing time than schema congruent advertisements. Because of this, we hypothesise for a positive effect of ad-brand incongruity on attention to the advertisement:

Hypothesis 5: For a specific brand scoring high on PBL, PBF or PBG, brand schema incongruent advertisements will capture more attention in terms of viewing time of the advertisement than a brand schema congruent advertisement.

Regarding evaluative outcomes of ad-brand incongruity, findings have been more ambiguous. Generally, Mandler's (1982) schema-congruity-theory is the most extensively cited

theoretical underpinning for the effect of ad-brand incongruity on evaluations of the incongruent stimulus. This theory argues for a superior effect of incongruent stimuli if the resolution of the incongruity is successful. Incongruity is argued to create tension, because the incongruent message is not immediately understood (Heider, 1958, cited in Lee & Schumann, 2004; Sjödin & Törn, 2006). Cognitive psychologists suggest that subjects will subsequently attempt to resolve and thus make sense of the schema incongruity, which can generate affect leading to more favourable evaluations (Festinger, 1957, cited in Lee & Schumann, 2004; Mandler, 1982). If the incongruity can be resolved, Mandler (1982) argues that the satisfaction from inferring the “correct” meaning of the stimulus leads to favourable evaluations.

In brand positioning, however, Keller (1993) argues in favour of congruence among brand associations, because it influences perceptions of a cohesive brand image. Incongruent information makes it more difficult to form a cohesive image of the brand because it cannot be easily linked to established associations and this might result in less favourable brand judgements (van Rompay et al., 2009). Although this is confirmed by some authors (Essoussi & Merunka, 2007; Häubl & Elrod, 1999; Leclerc et al., 1994), Mandler’s schema-congruity-theory experienced more recent support by empirical studies (e.g. Gierl et al., 2006; Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Jhang et al., 2012; Lee & Thorson, 2008). Although the authors do not explicitly name the concept, two studies can be even interpreted in the context of CCP. Ryu et al. (2006) examined a mismatch between the COO of the product and the endorser’s ethnicity and found a superior effect of the mismatch on evaluations of the ad and brand. Additionally, Chéron & Pau (2009) found that the advertisement of a traditionally local piece of clothing elicited more favourable evaluations if the ad showed a foreign model (defined as incongruent advertisement) than if it showed a local model (defined as congruent advertisement). This leads to the expectation that ad-brand incongruity in CCP will lead to more favourable brand perceptions:

Hypothesis 6: For a specific brand scoring high on PBL, PBF or PBG, brand schema incongruent advertisements will lead to more favourable brand perceptions than a brand schema congruent advertisement.

As mentioned above, however, this effect will be determined by success of resolution as argued originally by Mandler (1982) and recently also by Halkias & Kokkinaki (2011), Jhang et al. (2012) and Yoon (2012). Mandler (1982) argued that ease of processing and successful

resolution of ad-brand incongruity will determine whether the evaluation of an incongruent stimulus is relatively more or less favourable than the congruent stimulus. The underlying factor of the effect of brand schema incongruity in advertisements might therefore be the ability of individuals to resolve the incongruity (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Sjödin & Törn, 2006; Törn & Dahlén, 2008). Success of resolution refers to the individual's ability to understand and attribute meaning to the incongruity because they find an explanation of the incongruity in the context of the activated schema (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Lee & Thorson, 2008). Ad-brand incongruity is therefore expected to have a positive impact among consumer who show high levels of ease of understanding and perceived meaningfulness (Yoon, 2012). Put in different words, success of resolution is proposed to have a positive moderator effect on the link between ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions. This results in the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: The effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions is influenced by success of resolution. Higher levels of ad-brand incongruity together with higher a higher degree of meaningfulness and ease of understanding will lead to more favourable brand perceptions.

Secondly, brand credibility is expected to have a positive influence on brand evaluations when the advertisement is incongruent with existing brand associations. Brand credibility refers to the perceived degree of believability and trustworthiness of a brand (Erdem & Swait, 2004; Lee & Schumann, 2004; van Rompay & Pruyn, 2011). It is thought to be one of the most important differentiating characteristics for the success of a brand and generally expected to have a positive impact on brand perceptions (Erdem & Swait, 2004; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). If a schema incongruent message is uttered by a credible source, which is trusted, it is more likely that consumers will process the ad in details to resolve the incongruity. If the source of the message is not credible, however, rejection of the message is more likely (Lee & Schumann, 2004). Therefore, it is argued that a high level of brand credibility is positively related to the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand evaluations.

Hypothesis 8: Brand perceptions in response to ad-brand incongruity are positively influenced by brand credibility.

As a third factor, product category involvement has been identified to moderate the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand evaluations. If consumers show a high involvement with a product category, they are likely to be more motivated to process an advertisement (Lee &

Thorson, 2008). Based on this argument, findings by Lee & Thorson (2008) indicate that a positive effect of incongruity is stronger among consumers with high product category involvement. It is therefore expected that product category involvement will have a positive influence on the relationship between ad-brand incongruity and brand evaluations.

Hypothesis 9: Brand perceptions in response to ad-brand incongruity are positively influenced by brand product category involvement.

Finally, perceived risk connected to the purchase of the advertised product is argued to have an influence on brand evaluations in response to advertisements that are incongruent with the brand schema. Campbell & Goodstein (2001) proposed that when consumers connect a high level of risk with a purchase, they will prefer congruity over incongruity. Findings confirmed this proposal and thus it is expected that the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand evaluations is negatively influenced by the level of perceived risk.

Hypothesis 10: Brand perceptions in response to ad-brand incongruity are negatively influenced by perceived risk.

4 Method

The following sections deal with the research method of the empirical study conducted to examine the proposed framework. We will describe the design of the experiment, the execution of the first pretest, the development of the experimental stimuli and the second pretest. Subsequently, all measures for the main experiment are listed and the process of data collection together with a description of the final sample is reported.

4.1 Design

We chose a full-factorial between-groups experimental design using a fictitious brand investigate the impact of CCP and ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions (Figure 10). Thereby, the independent variables CCP and ad-brand incongruity were subject to experimental manipulation in order to determine their causal effect on brand perceptions.

	LCCP	FCCP	GCCP
PBL	✓	✗	✗
PBF	✗	✓	✗
PBG	✗	✗	✓
no brand description	-	-	-

Figure 10: Experimental design

We invented an artificial brand to increase internal validity of the experiment. Internal validity is regarded as fulfilled if the variation the dependent variables can be traced back to the manipulation of the independent variables without confounding effects (Schnell et al., 2005). Using real-world brands would have implied to use different brands which use the according positioning approaches in their advertising. These brands would have most likely possessed different a-priori brand associations, a fact that could have influenced brand perceptions regardless of the manipulations. Given such a danger of bias, an artificial brand

granted experimental control (Low & Lamb, 2000) and isolation of the influence of CCP and ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions.

CCP was manipulated according to its conceptualisation using three different print advertisements for LCCP, FCCP and GCCP (Alden et al., 1999). In comparison to radio or TV commercials, print advertisements are reader paced allowing the respondents to determine how long they process the advertisement (Lee, 2000). Especially for the effect of ad-brand incongruity, the attention paid to the ad in terms of viewing time is an important variable (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011). Thus, we used print advertisements to give the respondent control over the extent of advertisement processing and measure processing time.

Ad-brand incongruity was also manipulated based on its conceptualisation in context with CCP. It was previously defined as a mismatch between a stimulus element of an advertisement and the established brand schema (Dahlén et al., 2005; Törn & Dahlén, 2008). In CCP, ad-brand incongruity can therefore occur if there is a perceived mismatch between the positioning of the advertisement and views of the cultural belongingness of a brand. For example, if consumers are exposed to an advertisement using LCCP and associate the brand with the local culture (i.e. high on PBL), they should perceive congruity between the ad and the brand. However, if a brand is advertised using LCCP but perceived as a foreign brand (i.e. high on PBF), consumers should perceive a mismatch between the ad and the brand. The same effect should occur, if LCCP is used by a brand perceived as global (i.e. high on PBG). Therefore, ad-brand incongruity was manipulated in two steps. Firstly, respondents read three different brand descriptions inducing PBL, PBF or PBG. Subsequently, they were exposed to three ads using LCCP, FCCP or GCCP either congruent or incongruent with the preceding brand description.

The manipulations resulted in 9 different experimental conditions (3x3), out of which 3 were classified as congruent while 6 were classified as incongruent. For example, if a respondent was exposed to a local brand description followed by a locally positioned advertisement, the experimental condition was coded “congruent”. If a local brand description exposure was, however, followed by an ad using GCCP or FCCP, the experimental condition was coded “incongruent”. In addition to that, the experiment included three groups without any priming of brand schema. This was done to isolate the effect of CCP on brand perceptions without

bias from brand knowledge prior to advertisement exposure. The resulting 3x4 experimental design is pictured in Figure 10.

4.2 Pretest 1

4.2.1 Objectives

Since we used an artificial brand in the main experiment, a first pretest validated the concepts of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP in real-world advertisements. Additionally, we pre-tested the scales for PBL, PBF and PBG.

For several reasons outlined in the previous section, we chose a fictitious brand for the main experiment. Although this approach increases experimental control (Low & Lamb, 2000), we had to verify the realism of our experimental stimuli to make sure that the experiment is externally valid (Lynch, 1982). In their basic study on CCP, Alden et al. (1999) investigated the use of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP in TV advertisement across 7 different countries in Asia, Europe and Northern America. Their findings confirm that LCCP, GCCP and FCCP are meaningful separate constructs and that these positioning approaches are indeed used in advertising across product categories. However, the present experiment uses print advertisements instead of TV commercials and is set in Austria, a country that was not included in the study conducted by Alden et al. (Alden et al., 1999). Therefore, the main aim of the first pretest was to confirm that CCP is indeed used in Austrian print advertising and that the concept is also of relevance to consumers.

In addition to that, the pretest tested the scales for PBL, PBF and PBG, because these scales will further be needed in the main experiment as manipulation checks for brand perceptions. Although they have been previously used in the literature (Batra et al., 2000; Schiefer, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010), no research known to the author applied all three scales at the same time. Further details regarding the scales and the measurement are described on the following page.

4.2.2 Measures for PBL/PBF/PBG

The measurement of PBL, PBF and PBG was adapted from existing literature based on the concept definitions, which are described in details in section 2.1. All details for the scales can be found in Appendix B. PBL refers to the “degree to which a consumer feels a brand is connected to his or her own culture and region” (Schiefer, 2008, p. 26). Based on this conceptualisation, Schiefer (2008) developed a 5-item scale to measure PBL. These five items were taken to measure PBL in the present research on a 7-point Likert scale. Since the scale was originally developed in German and all our studies were conducted in German, no translation was necessary. PBF is defined by Zhou et al. (2010, p. 202) as a “consumer’s perception that a brand is of foreign or non-local origin”. In the present research, it was measured on a 7-point Likert scale comprised of four items, which were adapted from the measurement used by Batra (2000) and Zhou et al. (2010). The first item read “I consider this brand to be a foreign brand” and was taken from Batra (2000). The following three items (“Für mich repräsentiert diese Marke etwas Ausländisches”, “Ich assoziiere diese Marke nicht mit Österreich”, “Ich verbinde diese Marke mit einer anderen Kultur”) were adapted from three items used by Zhou et al. (2010). Finally, PBG captures the belief that “the brand is marketed in multiple countries and is generally recognized as global in these countries” (Steenkamp et al., 2003, p. 54). It was measured on a 7-point differential scale with four items, out of which three were taken from Steenkamp et al. (2003). The fourth item was an own item and read “Für mich repräsentiert diese Marke eine globale Konsumkultur. / Für mich repräsentiert diese Marke keine globale Konsumkultur”. All translations into German for PBF and PBG were backtranslated into English to avoid translation bias (Craig & Douglas, 2005).

4.2.3 Measures for CCP

The measurement for CCP had to be newly developed, because there are no existing scales in the literature known to the author. Out of the three recent studies testing the effect of CCP in advertising (Gammoh et al., 2011; Nijssen & Douglas, 2011; Westjohn et al., 2012), only Westjohn et al. (2012) mention that they used an own scale to measure LCCP, FCCP and GCCP. However, the authors do not report the single items of these scales, which is why we developed new items to measure LCCP, FCCP and GCCP.

Firstly, LCCP is a positioning strategy in advertising that leads consumers to associate “the brand with local cultural meanings” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 77). Therefore, consumers should associate an ad using LCCP with Austria and they should have the feeling that the ad mirrors the Austrian culture and displays typical Austrian values. Also, from looking at the ad, they should associate the brand as being connected with the local culture. Based on this, LCCP was measured on a 7-point Likert scale using the following five items:

- Ich verbinde die gesehene Werbung mit Österreich.
- Mir kommt diese Werbung sehr heimisch (österreichisch) vor.
- Wenn man sich die Werbung anschaut, scheint die Marke sehr mit der österreichischen Kultur verbunden zu sein.
- Diese Werbung spiegelt die österreichische Kultur gut wider.
- Diese Werbung enthält Anspielungen auf typisch österreichische Werte.

Secondly, FCCP is defined by Alden et al. (1999, p. 77) as an advertising approach “that positions the brand as symbolic of a specific foreign consumer culture”. When being exposed to an ad using FCCP, consumers should therefore associate it with a foreign consumer culture. They should feel that the ad mirrors the culture of a foreign country and contains references to such a culture. Also, they should associate the brand with a foreign culture based on the advertisement. Therefore, FCCP was measured analogously to LCCP on a 7-point Likert scale with the following five items:

- Ich verbinde die gesehene Werbung mit einem anderen Land.
- Mir kommt diese Werbung sehr ausländisch vor.
- Wenn man sich die Werbung anschaut, scheint die Marke sehr mit der Kultur eines anderen Landes verbunden zu sein.
- Die Werbung spiegelt die Kultur eines anderen (nicht-österreichischen) Landes gut wieder.
- Die Werbung enthält Anspielungen auf die Kultur eines anderen Landes.

Finally, GCCP refers to an advertising positioning that aims at identifying “the brand as a symbol of a [...] global culture” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 77). Accordingly, the ad should represent something global to consumers and they should perceive the ad to contain hints to a global culture. Additionally, when looking at the ad they should connect the brand with a global consumer culture. In analogy to the measurement of LCCP and FCCP, GCCP was measured on a 7-point Likert scale containing the following items:

- Diese Werbung repräsentiert für mich Internationalität.
- Dies scheint eine globale Werbung zu sein.
- Wenn man sich die Werbung anschaut, scheint die Marke sehr mit einer internationalen, weltübergreifenden Konsumentenkultur verbunden zu sein.
- Die Werbung enthält Symbole/Anspielungen, die ich mit einer globalen Konsumkultur in Verbindung bringe.

4.2.4 Data Collection

As a first step, a content analysis of print magazines sold in Austria was conducted to select advertisements for the pretest and revealed that CCP is indeed used by marketers. The selected advertisements were coded with a scheme based on the procedure suggested by Alden et al. (Alden et al., 1999). As outlined earlier in section 2.2, the main elements for the communication of cultural positioning in print advertising are visual aesthetics and textual elements (Scott, 1994a). With regards to visual aesthetics, the following factors were included in the coding procedure: central themes, people and brand logo. As for textual elements, the language of slogans and texts and the content of the slogan were taken into account. Based on this procedure, 12 advertisements in the two product categories beverages and cars/motorcycles were selected for the pretest.

Subsequently, these advertisements were tested in a survey to verify perceptions of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP. The sample consisted of 39 undergraduate students. To increase the number of respondents rating one advertisement, each respondent was exposed to two advertisements from different product groups but the same positioning. This resulted in 6 different groups and 6 or 7 respondents per group. The respondents were randomly assigned to one of these groups. The questionnaire started with a short introduction, after which the respondents saw the first advertisement. After exposure to the advertisement, they were asked to rate the advertisement on the scales for LCCP, FCCP and GCCP. Following this, respondents were asked which brand they had seen in the advertisement and whether they knew this brand. Next, they rated the brand on the scales for PBL, PBF and PBG.

4.2.5 Results

The aim of the pretest was to validate and test the scales for LCCP, FCCP, GCCP and PBL, PBF, PBG. Initial reliability tests of the scales using Cronbach's α coefficients showed α -values above .9 for all scales. These scales are therefore considered to measure the constructs in a consistent manner. More specifically, LCCP, FCCP and GCCP possessed Cronbach's α of .941, .960, and .954, respectively. The α -values for PBL, PBF and PBG were .941, .941 and .956.

Additionally, in order to determine whether respondents would perceive CCP as previously coded, the means for perceived LCCP, FCCP and GCCP were compared across the previous categorisations using Kruskal-Wallis tests.

For the locally positioned ads (Table 3), the results from Kruskal-Wallis and follow-up Mann-Whitney tests confirmed the relevance of LCCP to consumers ($H(2) = 22.84$, $p < .05$). The mean of perceived LCCP was significantly higher when the ad was coded as using LCCP than when it was coded FCCP or GCCP ($p < .001$).

perceived LCCP	coded LCCP, FCCP or GCCP?		
	LCCP	FCCP	GCCP
mean	4.58	2.48	2.13
standard deviation	1.85	1.16	1.52
mean comparisons	LCCP > FCCP ($p < .001$) ; LCCP > GCCP ($p < .001$)		

Table 3: Mean Comparisons Perceived LCCP across Coded Positioning (Pretest 1)

For the ads coded as "FCCP" (Table 4), the results from Kruskal-Wallis and follow-up Mann-Whitney tests are less clear but generally confirm our previous coding ($H(2) = 6.37$, $p < .05$). The mean of perceived FCCP was significantly higher when the ad was coded as using FCCP than when it was coded LCCP ($p < .05$). When comparing the ads coded as FCCP and GCCP, the difference was only significant at the .10 level. However, as the significance was only slightly above .05, we considered the difference to be large enough to confirm our coding.

perceived FCCP	coded LCCP, FCCP or GCCP?		
	LCCP	FCCP	GCCP
mean	2.55	5.49	4.35
standard deviation	1.91	1.30	1.64
mean comparisons	FCCP > LCCP ($p < .05$) ; FCCP > GCCP ($p < .10$)		

Table 4: Mean Comparisons Perceived FCCP across Coded Positioning (Pretest 1)

For the globally positioned ads (Table 5), Kruskal-Wallis and follow-up Mann-Whitney tests clearly confirm our manipulations. The mean of perceived GCCP was significantly higher when the ad was coded as using GCCP compared to ads coded as LCCP or FCCP ($p < .05$).

perceived GCCP	coded LCCP, FCCP or GCCP?		
	LCCP	FCCP	GCCP
mean	2.64	4.70	5.14
standard deviation	1.45	1.56	1.65
mean comparisons	GCCP > LCCP ($p < .05$) ; GCCP > FCCP ($p < .05$)		

Table 5: Mean Comparisons Perceived GCCP across Coded Positioning (Pretest 1)

4.3 Stimuli Development

The following section describes the development of the stimuli used to manipulate the independent variables CCP and ad-brand incongruity in the main experiment: the selection of an appropriate product category, the creation of brand descriptions to prime a brand schema for the artificial brand and finally the design of three advertisements reflecting LCCP, FCCP and GCCP.

4.3.1 Product Category Selection

The product category selection for the fictitious brand was based on two criteria. Firstly, it was important to choose a product category that Austrian consumers would be familiar with (Hung, 2000). The second selection criterion was based on CCP. To produce credible advertisements, it was important to select a category where all 3 positioning approaches would exist in advertising practice and thus be credible to consumers (Loef, 2002). Based on this, coffee was selected as a suitable product category for the experiment.

With regards to the first selection criterion – familiarity of consumers with the product category – coffee is probably familiar to all Austrian consumers. Globally, coffee is one of the most important trading goods ranking second behind oil (Österreichischer Kaffee- und Tee-Verband, 2011). In Austria, coffee is seen as the favourite drink behind water and quality is one of the most important purchase criteria (Österreichischer Kaffee- und Tee-Verband, 2011). The International Coffee Organisation (ICO) regularly publishes figures on coffee

exports and imports on a global basis (ICO, 2012c). In 2011, Austria imported 87.5 million kg of coffee (ICO, 2012a). The most actual figure from March 2012 displays an import of 8.6 million kg (ICO, 2012b). Regarding consumption in Austria, Statistik Austria reports in their most recent Konsumerhebung a monthly coffee consumption of 0.6 kg per capita (Statistik Austria, 2011) corresponding to an annual per capita consumption of about 8 kg (Österreichischer Kaffee- und Tee-Verband, 2011). Every Austrian drinks annually on average 162 l of pure coffee; that is a daily consumption of about 2.9 cups (Österreichischer Kaffee- und Tee-Verband, 2011).

The second selection criterion – existence of coffee ads for LCCP, FCCP and GCCP – was verified by a content analysis of different print magazines sold in Austria. Figure 8 displays three real-world sample print ads from the content analysis.



Figure 11: Real-World Advertisements for LCCP, FCCP, GCCP

Meinl: source unknown; Segafredo: falstaff (05/2010); Nespresso: Kurier Freizeit (06 November 2010)

4.3.2 Brand Name and Description

The artificial coffee brand was named RONDO. The brand logo is displayed in Figure 12.



Figure 12: Brand logo RONDO

To prime the brand schema as PBL, PBF or PBG, three different brand descriptions were created. The brand description as local brand aimed at creating high scores on PBL, while the

brand descriptions as foreign or global brand aimed at creating high scores on PBF or PBG. The final brand descriptions used in the main experiment can be found in Appendix A.

At the beginning of all descriptions, the brand origin was mentioned. The local brand was described as a traditional Austrian roastery while the foreign brand was described as originating from Colombia and being the market leader in most Latin American countries. Colombia was chosen because it is known for its high quality arabica coffee and quality is one of the most important purchase criteria for Austrian consumers (Österreichischer Kaffee- und Tee-Verband, 2011). In the description for the global brand, no specific brand origin was included, but the brand was described as being one of the biggest and most successful coffee producers with over 70 subsidiaries world-wide. Because of quality as an important purchase criterion for Austrians (Österreichischer Kaffee- und Tee-Verband, 2011), all three brands were subsequently described as being of excellent quality due to the high quality of carefully selected arabica coffee beans and the know-how accumulated in the long tradition of coffee production. Arabica coffee was chosen for all three brand descriptions for several reasons. First of all, it is known for high quality as it has to fulfill higher quality standards for exports than Robusta beans set by the ICO (ICO, 2004). Secondly, the majority of global coffee consumption is made up of Arabica beans with a share of 59.7 % in the production year 2009/10 (International Trade Center, n.d.). Thirdly, Colombia only produces Arabica coffee (ICO, 2010) and finally, we wanted to keep the type of coffee constant across all three descriptions to avoid bias. The last sentence of the descriptions contained once again a subtle referral to the brand origin.

4.3.3 Ad Creation

Initially, six different print advertisements were designed to manipulate LCCP, FCCP and GCCP. All of these advertisements can be found in Appendix A.

As described in details in section 2.2, visual aesthetics and texts are the main elements that can be used in print advertising to communicate cultural positioning (Alden et al., 1999; Scott, 1994a). Images are an important element in print advertising (McQuarrie & Mick, 1999) and can be used to allude to a specific consumer culture, because images including for example pictures of objects, colors, shapes and materials used in the advertisement contain

different symbolic information depending on the cultural background of the viewer (Alden et al., 1999; McQuarrie & Mick, 1999; Scott, 1994b). Likewise, textual elements such as the language and content of texts and slogans can be used to make references to a specific local, foreign or global consumer culture. These elements had already been adopted as a basis for coding the advertisements from the content analysis for the first pretest described earlier.

Based on this, the two ads developed for LCCP contain images that are believed to be linked to the local culture by consumers. The images were used to symbolize Viennese coffee house culture, which has been added to the UNESCO list of Intangible Cultural Heritage in 2011 (UNESCO). One of the ads contained a black and white image of an old, typical Viennese café. The other one depicted one larger image showing a group of people enjoying coffee and pastries together as well as a smaller image showing a typical Viennese pastry, coffee and newspaper; all three of these elements regarded as being specific for Viennese coffee house culture (UNESCO). The slogan on both of the ads was in German and read “Ein Stück Wiener Kaffehauskultur für zu Hause.”

For FCCP, in accordance with the brand description for the foreign brand as originating from Latin America, the pictures aimed at linking the brand to Latin America. One of the ads pictured a traditionally dressed woman during next to the production device used for coffee roasting. The other ad showed the map of Latin America as a piece of art hanging on a wall together with a cup of coffee standing on the floor in front of it. The slogan on both ads read “Der Geschmack Südamerikas in einer Tasse Kaffee.”

Finally, the two ads of GCCP aimed at establishing a link between the brand and a global consumer culture. Therefore, one of the ads showed portraits of people from all over the world drinking coffee and a world map, which looked as if it consisted of finely ground coffee. In the second ad, two coffee cups and the text “Today is a good day” were combined to picture a smiling face. The main slogan on both of the ads was in English and read “Enjoy the world’s finest coffee!”

In addition to the elements of the ads used to make references to a specific consumer culture, all of the ads contained the brand logo, which was designed in a neutral manner in order to be able to use the same logo on all ads and avoid the association with a particular consumer culture only based on the brand logo.

4.4 Pretest 2

4.4.1 Goal

The second pretest was conducted to test whether the chosen brand name “Rondo” would be perceived as “neutral” (i.e. without any associations to a specific country or culture) as well as with the aim to select three advertisements for the main experiment out of the six ads, whose development was described in the previous section.

4.4.2 Data Collection

A sample consisting of 49 students rated the experimental stimuli. Each responden was exposed and randomly assigned to to one advertisement. As in Pretest 1, the questionnaire started with a short introduction. Following this, the respondents saw a picture of the brand logo and read the brand name. They were asked to indicate whether they could associate the brand with an origin based only on its name. Additionally, we included the 7-point semantic differential scale measuring confidence in brand origin (CBO) from Zhou et al. (2010). This scale asks respondents to state how sure they are that they identified the brand origin correctly using 2 items. Subsequently, each respondent was exposed to one advertisement before rating it on the scales for LCCP, FCCP and GCCP that had already been used in the first pretest. Please refer to Appendix B and, for CCP, to section 4.2.3 for detailed information about the scales.

4.4.3 Results

Analysis of the collected data showed that the majority of the respondents was not able to assign a brand origin to the brand “Rondo” based on the brand name. Specifically, 63% of the respondents (31 people) were not able to indicate a brand origin. If respondents were able to guess a brand origin, they were asked to indicate their level of confidence in this judgement on the confidence in brand origin (CBO) scale taken from Zhou et al. (2010). The 2 items of the CBO scale showed good reliability with Cronbach’s α of .828. The mean of the scale was 3.74 with a standard deviation of 1.49 and 75% of the mean values of the respondents below

4.5, which indicates a low confidence in the judgements of brand origin. Therefore, we considered “Rondo” to be a fairly neutral brand name being suitable for the main experiment.

Subsequently, the ratings for perceived LCCP, FCCP and GCCP were analysed for each ad in order to select three advertisements for the main experiment.

The results for the ads using LCCP are displayed in Table 6. After comparison of the two ads created for LCCP, LCCP B was chosen for the main experiment. LCCP B caused higher mean ratings of perceived LCCP than the other advertisement coupled with a lower standard deviation. Additionally, respondents rated it significantly higher on perceived LCCP than FCCP and GCCP ($p < .05$).

	LCCP A	LCCP B
perceived LCCP		
mean	4.44	5.09
standard deviation	1.12	.91
mean comparisons	perceived LCCP = FCCP ($p > .05$) perceived LCCP > GCCP ($p < .10$)	perceived LCCP > FCCP ($p < .05$) perceived LCCP > GCCP ($p < .05$)

Table 6: Ad Selection LCCP (Pretest 2)

Table 7 reports the corresponding results for the two advertisements developed for FCCP. Based on these, FCCP A was chosen to be included in the main experiment. The mean of perceived FCCP for this ad was higher than for the other one, combined with a smaller standard deviation. Additionally, the results of the mean comparison were better for this ad. The average ratings of perceived FCCP were significantly higher than those of perceived LCCP. The comparison between perceived FCCP and GCCP was slightly significant at the .10 level.

	FCCP A	FCCP B
perceived FCCP		
mean	5.68	4.69
standard deviation	.99	1.38
mean comparisons	perceived FCCP > LCCP ($p < .05$) perceived FCCP > GCCP ($p < .10$)	perceived FCCP > LCCP ($p < .05$) perceived FCCP = GCCP ($p > .05$)

Table 7: Ad Selection FCCP (Pretest 2)

Finally, Table 8 shows the findings for the two advertisements using GCCP. Here, GCCP A was chosen for the main experiment. Although the mean for perceived GCCP of the ad labelled GCCP B is higher together with a smaller standard deviation, Wilcoxon Signed Rank tests only showed significant mean differences for GCCP A. The relatively small mean and high standard deviation could be traced back to an outlier, which, if excluded, resulted in a mean of 6.37 and a standard deviation of .44 for perceived GCCP at the ad labelled as GCCP A. As a result, GCCP A was chosen for the main experiment.

	GCCP A	GCCP B
perceived GCCP		
mean	5.61	5.64
standard deviation	2.07	.80
mean comparisons	perceived GCCP > LCCP ($p < .05$) perceived GCCP > FCCP ($p < .05$)	perceived GCCP > LCCP ($p < .05$) perceived GCCP = FCCP ($p > .05$)

Table 8: Ad Selection GCCP (Pretest 2)

Summarising, Figure 13 shows the three ads that were selected for the main experiment.



Figure 13: Selected Advertisements for the Main Experiment

In addition to this, between groups mean comparisons of the scales for perceived LCCP, FCCP and GCCP across the three ads tested the manipulation when these three ads were used (Table 9). Results from Kruskal-Wallis and follow-up Mann-Whitney tests revealed that the local ad caused significantly higher mean rating on perceived LCCP than the foreign and the global ad ($p < .001$). The foreign ad was rated significantly higher on perceived FCCP than the local and the global ad ($p < .05$). Finally, the global ad received higher average ratings of

perceived GCCP than both the local and foreign ad ($p < .05$). Given these results, we regarded the manipulation as successful.

		mean	standard deviation	mean comparisons
perceived LCCP	LCCP B	5.09	.91	
	FCCP A	2.15	1.28	LCCP B > FCCP A ($p < .001$)
	GCCP A	1.71	.86	LCCP B > GCCP A ($p < .001$)
perceived FCCP	LCCP B	2.67	1.43	
	FCCP A	5.68	.99	FCCP A > LCCP B ($p < .05$)
	GCCP A	3.63	1.27	FCCP A > GCCP A ($p < .05$)
perceived GCCP	LCCP B	2.50	1.63	
	FCCP A	4.03	1.79	GCCP A > LCCP B ($p < .05$)*
	GCCP A	6.38*	.44*	GCCP A > FCCP A ($p < .05$)*

* excluding one outlier at GCCP A

Table 9: Mean Comparison Perceived CCP across Ads (Pretest 2)

4.5 Construct Measurement

The measures used in the main experiment are described in the following section. Most scales could be taken or adapted from existing scales in the literature. All of them that needed translation were firstly translated into German and secondly backtranslated into English in order to ensure appropriate translations (Craig & Douglas, 2005). All scales together with details about the measurement and items are listed in Appendix B.

4.5.1 Independent Variables

The independent variables in the study were dummy variables from the manipulation of CCP and ad-brand incongruity. For CCP, the dummy variable was coded based on the advertisement used and for ad-brand incongruity it was coded based on whether the brand description and the advertisement shown to the respondents in a certain group had the same positioning or not.

4.5.2 Manipulation Checks

In order to determine the success of these manipulations, manipulation check scales were included in the questionnaire. For CCP, we used the same manipulations check scales as in the pretests measuring perceived LCCP, FCCP and GCCP. Details on the scales are included in section 4.2 as well as in Appendix B.

The manipulation check for ad-brand incongruity included first of all the scales for PBL, PBF and PBG from pretest 1 to confirm the success of the brand schema priming. The scales are described in details in section 4.2. Additionally, they are listed in Appendix B. Secondly, ad-brand incongruity was measured with two scales to determine if respondents perceive an incongruity between the brand description and the advertisement they were exposed to. Ad-brand incongruity was earlier defined as a perceived mismatch between a stimulus element of an advertisement and the established brand schema, which occurs, because the advertisement contains elements that are unexpected in light of the established brand schema (Dahlén et al., 2005; Törn & Dahlén, 2008). Expectancy, the “degree to which an item or information falls into a predetermined schema” (Fleck & Quester, 2007, p. 976), is therefore an important factor whether or not ad-brand incongruity is perceived by respondents and was used to measure ad-brand incongruity directly. Expectancy was measured with three items on a 7-point Likert scale adapted from Fleck & Quester (2007), where high values indicate a high level of expectancy and thus a low level of incongruity. The scale had been originally applied by Fleck & Quester (2007) to the context of sponsorship and the (in)congruity between an event and a company sponsoring the event. The scale was adapted to advertising and read subsequently “I am surprised that this brand is advertised like that”, “One would expect such an advertisement from this brand” and “It was not predictable that the brand would use such an ad”. The reversely formulated items 1 and 3 were re-coded before analysis so that high values indeed indicated high levels of expectancy. Additionally, we included an overall measurement of ad-brand incongruity as perceived by respondents. Participants were thus asked to rate perceived ad-brand incongruity on a 7-point semantic differential using four items. The three items logical – illogical, natural – not natural, coherent – not coherent were taken from Aurier & Fort (2007). The forth item (intelligible – unintelligible) was an own item.

4.5.3 Dependent Variables

The dependent variables used in the study to capture brand perceptions involved perceived quality, attitude towards the ad, brand attitude and purchase intention (see section 3.2 for details). Additionally, attention paid to the advertisement was an important outcome variable of ad-brand incongruity.

The measurement of attention was based on previous studies by Goodstein (1993), Halkias & Kokkinaki (2011) and Törn & Dahlén (2008), who measured attention based on the time respondents spent watching the advertisement. While Goodstein (1993) and Halkias & Kokkinaki (2011) used timers and let the respondents record the time when they had formed an impression of the advertisement, we showed the ad on one page in the online questionnaire and used the online data collection tool to record the time the respondents spent on this page. We used this time (in seconds) to assess how long they had looked at the advertisement.

Perceived quality captures consumers' judgements of a brand to be of overall excellence or superiority relative to competing brands (Low & Lamb, 2000) and was measured with two items on a 7-point differential scale taken from Steenkamp et al. (2003). The items were "This brand is very low on overall quality / This brand is very high on overall quality" and "This is a brand of inferior quality / This is a brand of superior quality".

Attitudes are overall consumer evaluations of an object involving judgements whether the object is good or bad, liked or disliked and similar (Ajzen, 2001). Attitude towards the ad was measured on 7-point semantic differential scale using the items "bad / good", "unpleasant / pleasant", "favourable / unfavourable" and "negative / positive" taken from Okazaki et al. (2010). Brand attitude was assessed on a 7-point differential scale with the three items "I think this brand is good / I think this brand is bad", "I have a negative opinion of it / I have a positive opinion of it" and "I dislike this brand / I like this brand" based on Park et al. (2010).

Based on Ajzen & Fishbein's (1980) definition of behavioural intention – the likelihood of engaging in actual behaviour – we conceptualise purchase intention as the likelihood of future brand purchase. To assess purchase intention, we asked respondents to indicate the probability that they would buy our brand at the next opportunity to purchase coffee on an 11-point scale ranging from 0% to 100% (Sichtmann & Diamantopoulos, 2012).

4.5.4 Moderators

The variables identified to be possible moderators for the relationship between CCP and brand perceptions are consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, cosmopolitanism, global identity and belief in global citizenship. The variables believed to moderate the relationship between ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions are success of resolution, brand credibility, product category involvement and perceived risk.

Consumer Ethnocentrism

One of the most widely used measurement instruments for CET, the CETSCALE, was developed by Shimp & Sharma (1987), who defined CET as “beliefs [...] about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products” (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280). To measure CET, we used a shortened version of Shimp & Sharma’s (1987) CETSCALE, which has already been used in empirical studies by Oberecker & Diamantopoulos (2011) and Verlegh (2007). The five items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (“Austrian people should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Austrian business and causes unemployment”, “It is not right to purchase foreign products, because this puts Austrian people out of job“, “A real Austrian should always buy Austrian products”, “I always prefer Austrian products over foreign products”, “We should purchase products manufactured in Austria, instead of letting other countries get rich off us”).

National Identification

NID captures people’s feelings of belongingness to and identification with a national community (Verlegh, 2007). The concept is rooted in social identity theory, where identification refers to the extent to which people identify with groups or organisations and define themselves in terms of memberships to specific organisations (Bhattacharya et al., 1995). NID was measured with four items adapted from Verlegh (2007) on a 7-point Likert scale (“Being Austrian means a lot to me”, “I am proud to be Austrian”, “When a foreign person praises Austria, it feels like a personal compliment”, “I don’t feel any ties with Austria”).

Consumer Cosmopolitanism

Consumer cosmopolitanism (COS) is defined based on Riefler & Diamantopoulos (2009) and Riefler et al. (2012) as “the extent to which a consumer (1) exhibits an open-mindedness towards foreign countries and cultures, (2) appreciates the diversity brought about by the

availability of products from different national and cultural origins, and (3) is positively disposed towards consuming products from foreign countries.” (Riefler et al., 2012, p. 287). Correspondingly, it was measured with the scale taken from Riefler et al. (2012) on the three dimensions open-mindedness, diversity-appreciation and consumption transcending borders, which comprise of four items each. The resulting twelve items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale and are listed in Appendix B. The four items capturing open-mindedness read “When traveling, I make a conscious effort to get in touch with the local culture and traditions”, “I like having the opportunity to meet people from many different countries”, “I like to have contact with people from different cultures” and “I have got a real interest in other countries”. Diversity-appreciation was measured with the items “Having access to products coming from many different countries is valuable to me”, “The availability of foreign products in the domestic market provides valuable diversity”, “I enjoy being offered a wide range of products coming from various countries” and “Always buying the same local products becomes boring over time”. The third dimension, consumption transcending borders, contained the items “I like watching movies from different countries”, “I like listening to music of other cultures”, “I like trying original dishes from other countries” and “I like trying out things that are consumed elsewhere in the world”.

Global Identity

GID is defined as the degree of identification with people around the world (Arnett 2002; Cleveland & Laroche 2007; Zhang and Khare 2009). The concept is defined using the same rationale as with NID, but captures the feeling of belongingness to a global community instead of a local one. To conceptualise GID in greater details, we use the definition by Tu et al. (2012), who define GID as “mental representations in which consumers believe in the positive effects of globalization, recognize the commonalities rather than dissimilarities among people around the world, and are interested in global events.” (Tu et al., 2012, p. 36). Accordingly, we measured GID on a 7-point Likert scale using the four items from Tu et al. (2012): “My heart mostly belongs to the whole world”, “I believe people should be made more aware of how connected we are to the rest of the world”, “I identify that I am a global citizen” and “I care about knowing global events”.

Belief in Global Citizenship

BGC refers to the “belief that global brands create an imagined global identity that a person shares with like-minded people” (Strizhakova et al., 2008, p. 59), a belief that was shown to

be shared by young consumers in developing and developed countries (Strizhakova et al., 2008) and to be positively related to the evaluations of GCCP (Gammoh et al., 2011). BGC was measured on a 7-point Likert scale along three items taken from Strizhakova et al. (2008) (“Buying global brands makes me feel like a citizen of the world”, “Purchasing global brands makes me feel part of something bigger”, “Buying global brands gives me a sense of belonging to the global marketplace”).

Success of Resolution

In context of ad-brand incongruity, success of resolution was identified as an important factor determining whether schema congruent or incongruent advertisements would be perceived more favourably (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Sjödin & Törn, 2006; Törn & Dahmén, 2008). It is defined as consumers’ ability to understand and attribute meaning to the incongruity because they find an explanation of the incongruity in the context of the activated schema (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Lee & Thorson, 2008). Success of Resolution is therefore conceptualised as the ease of understanding and degree of meaningfulness of the advertisement to consumers. Ease of understanding is defined based on Alden et al. (2000, who refer to it as “ease of resolution”) as “the effort required by individuals to resolve an incongruent situation shown in an ad” (p. 4). The degree of meaningfulness captures the degree to which the advertisement makes sense to consumers (Jhang et al., 2012). Accordingly, success of resolution was measured on a 7-point semantic differential with two items capturing ease of understanding and degree of meaningfulness. The first item, ease of understanding, was taken from Alden et al. (2000) and was anchored by “very easy to understand / very difficult to understand”. The second item, degree of meaningfulness, was taken from Jhang et al. (2012) and was anchored by “makes no sense / makes sense”.

Brand Credibility

Credibility is generally defined by Erdem & Swait (2004) as the believability of a person’s or organisation’s intentions. In the context of brand positioning, brand credibility refers to the degree of believability and trustworthiness of a brand (Erdem & Swait, 2004; Lee & Schumann, 2004; van Rompay & Pruyn, 2011). The concept is measured on a 7-point Likert scale along three items taken from van Rompay & Pruyn (2011): “This brand makes a sincere impression”, “This brand makes a credible impression”, “This brand makes a trustworthy impression”.

Product Category Involvement

Product category involvement captures the degree to which a specific product category is personally relevant or important to consumers (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Lee & Schumann, 2004; Lee & Thorson, 2008; Mittal & Lee, 1988) and is believed to positively influence the motivation to resolve incongruity in advertisement (Lee & Schumann, 2004; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). It was measured on a 7-point Likert scale with four items, out of which 3 were adapted from Mittal & Lee (1988) and have recently been used in an empirical study by Koschate-Fischer et al. (2012). These items read “I choose my coffee very carefully”, “Which coffee I buy matters to me a lot”, “Choosing a coffee brand is an important decision to me”. Additionally, a fourth, own item “I have a strong interest in coffee” was included.

Perceived Risk

Perceived Risk refers to the level of risk consumers connect with a specific purchase (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001), which means that it captures the perceived importance of negative consequences of a mistake or poor choice when purchasing a product (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). Based on this definition, perceived risk was measured with two items adapted from Batra et al. (2000) on a 7-point Likert scale (“It is a big deal if I make a mistake in choosing coffee”, “A poor choice of coffee would not be upsetting”).

4.5.5 Demographics

The last page of the questionnaire contained the measurement of certain demographics. More specifically, respondents were asked for their age in an open-ended question, gender, level of education, professional status and income. Age, education and income were also included as moderators of the relationship between CCP and brand perceptions (see section 3). Additionally, they were asked to indicate their place of residence as well as their nationality and – in case they were not of Austrian nationality – how long they had already lived in Austria.

4.6 Data Collection and Sample

Since the experiment was set in Austria, Austrian residents were chosen as the population of interest. The aim of the study is to investigate the effect of a specific advertising positioning in Austria and therefore, everybody who lives in Austria and is thus exposed to advertising in Austria was included in the study's population.

The experiment was conducted in June 2012 using an online questionnaire. We chose a web-based survey, because the manipulation of CCP and ad-brand incongruity resulted in 12 different groups. The online survey tool allowed us to create 12 questionnaires that differed with regards to the stimuli they contained. Respondents could also be automatically randomly assigned to one of the groups, a method that is considered to be a requirement for establishing cause-effect relationships (Khan, 2011) and a technique to control confounding effects in experiments (Schnell et al., 2005). Additionally, the online survey allowed for a relatively fast data collection compared to a paper-and-pencil survey and decreased the probability of mistakes that could otherwise result from faulty data input (Schnell et al., 2005; Wilson, 2006).

Due to restrictions in money and time and a relatively large sample size, convenience sampling was used to collect the data. Convenience sampling is a method where respondents are selected based on their accessibility to the researchers (Craig & Douglas, 2005; Schnell et al., 2005; Wilson, 2006). In the case of web-based surveys, Wilson (2006) mentions that convenience sampling is the prevailing form of sampling, because it is virtually impossible to create an exhaustive list of the whole population, a list that would be needed to perform any type of probability sampling (Craig & Douglas, 2005). More specifically, because of the large sample size, we combined the convenience sampling method with snowball sampling. Snowball sampling is a method where a smaller group of potential respondents is approached and subsequently asked to identify further potential respondents (Craig & Douglas, 2005; Schnell et al., 2005; Wilson, 2006). Consequently, convenience sampling was used to approach potential respondents and based on this group, further potential respondents were contacted. Although non-probability sampling techniques are problematic if the focus of the study is on external validity and thus generalisations of the population of interest, they are regarded as acceptable if the study – like the present research – focuses on relationships between constructs (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

The questionnaire was divided in several parts. One complete sample questionnaire as it looked to the respondents can be found in Appendix C. It started with a small introduction to the topic, including statements about the anonymity of all collected data, the time approximately needed for completing the survey and the importance to give personal impressions. For nine groups, the second page contained one of the three different brand descriptions manipulating PBL, PBF or PBG followed by the manipulation check scales on page three. Once the respondents had completed this brand schema manipulation check, they were exposed to one of the advertisements featuring LCCP, FCCP or GCCP. For the three groups that were not exposed to any brand description, the questionnaire started directly with the advertisement. Followed by this, the next section contained all dependent variables. Subsequently, we asked the respondents to complete the manipulation checks for CCP and ad-brand incongruity. Then, they were asked to fill in the scales for the moderators that were related to the brand and the advertisement, for example success of resolution. Finally, the respondents were asked to fill in all scales containing personality-related variables before the questionnaire finished with a page containing demographics and a final page, where everybody was thanked for their participation.

The final sample consisted of 404 respondents. These respondents were divided in 12 different groups as a result of the experimental manipulation. When collecting the data, we made sure that each of the group contained at least 30 respondents, resulting in a necessary minimum sample size of 360. The minimum sample size of 30 respondents per group was chosen based on Field's (2009) argumentation regarding the assumption of normality for parametric tests in statistics. The assumption of normally distributed data refers to the normal distribution of the sampling distribution. As Field (2009) discusses, the sampling distribution tends to be normal in samples of at least 30 respondents. Table 10 contains details about the sample size and the division into the 12 different groups.

		CCP			Total
		LCCP	FCCP	GCCP	
Brand	none	30	37	33	100
	PBL	34	33	32	99
	PBF	34	37	33	104
	PBG	32	37	32	101
Total		130	144	130	404

Table 10: Sample Size and Division into Different Experimental Groups

Table 11 contains a description of the final sample with regards to age, gender, education, profession, income, residence, nationality and the time they have already lived in Austria in case they were not of Austrian nationality. The age in the sample ranges from a minimum of 18 to a maximum of 82 years with an average age of 33 years. The difference between mean and median (median = 27) indicates that the age is not symmetrically distributed in the sample. This bias could have occurred due because the online survey coupled with convenience sampling might have caused an over-representation of younger people. There was no equal division between male and female respondents, as 67.3% of the sample was female. The majority of the respondents, 88.6% either had a high school or university degree. Almost half of the sample (48%) was working, while 42.3% were students or pupils. With regards to their monthly net income, 31.4% of all respondents earned less than €650,-. The second largest group, 23.5%, declared an income between €1150 and €1899. Most respondents (55%) lived in Vienna followed by 35.6% in Lower Austria and 3.5% in Burgenland. As for their nationality, 88.1% of the respondents were Austrian. The second largest group consisted of German respondents (6.9%) followed by Romanian nationality (1.5%). Out of the people who were not of Austrian nationality, the average time they had already lived in Austria was 6.8 years ranging from a minimum of 1 to a maximum of 32 years.

Age		Gender	%	Education	%	Profession	%
Mean	33	Female	67	Compulsory School	.5	Student / Pupil	42,3
Minimum	18	Male	33	Apprenticeship	9.7	Employee / Self-	48,0
Maximum	82			High School Degree /	41.3	Employed	
				A-Levels		Unemployed	1,0
				University Degree	47.3	Retired	6,9
				Others	1.2	Others	1,7

Income	%	Residence	%	Nationality	%	Time Austria in Years (if Nationality not Austrian)	
< 650	31.4	Vienna	55.0	Austria	88.1	Mean	6,8
650 to 1149	20.0	Lower Austria	35.6	Germany	6.9	Minimum	1
1150 to 1899	23.5	Burgenland	3.5	Romania	1.5	Maximum	32
1900 to 2500	18.3	Others	5.9	Others	3.5		
> 2500	6.7						

Table 11: Sample Description

5 Results

The following section reports the results from the data analysis. The data has been analysed using the statistical analysis software SPSS 17.0. The first part of the chapter deals with some preliminary analysis. This is followed by the main analysis containing the tests of the research hypotheses. Finally, some further analyses are presented.

5.1 Preliminary Analysis

Prior to the analysis of the hypotheses, we conducted some preliminary analyses to screen the data, assess scale reliability and check the success of the experimental manipulations.

5.1.1 Data Screening

The collected data were screened with regards to respondents' residence, illogical answer patterns, to identify outliers, missing values and to check for normality. Originally, 432 people participated in the survey. Based on the data screening, 28 cases were excluded from further analysis. 19 respondents with residence outside of Austria were excluded from the final sample. In addition to this, 4 respondents were excluded because of illogical answer patterns, for example because of ticking the value "1" throughout the questionnaire. Moreover, we excluded 5 respondents with the age of 13, 14, 16 and 17. Missing values did not pose any problems in the data because the questionnaire was programmed in a way that wherever possible, the respondents were forced to answer all of the questions. In addition to this, histograms and boxplots were plotted and basic frequency statistics conducted to get an idea of the distribution of the data and to identify outliers and check for normality. No cases were excluded or variables transformed after this analysis, but the values of skewness and kurtosis as well as the results from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests showed that the data were not normally distributed in several experimental groups. However, due to sufficient sample size this was not considered problematic for the further analyses (Field, 2009). The assumption of normality refers to a normal distribution of sampling distribution, not of the sample data and as Field (2009) argues, the sampling distribution tends to be normal when

sample sizes are 30 or more. As analysed earlier, all of the 12 experimental groups contained 30 or more respondents.

As included in the previous sample description, the data screening resulted in a final sample size of 404 people.

5.1.2 Reliability Analysis

In order to combine several items of a scale to an overall index, the internal-consistency reliability of the scale has to be verified. A scale is considered to be a reliable measure of a construct, if all items measure to a certain extent the same construct (Schnell et al., 2005). To assess internal-consistency reliability, we used Cronbach's α . According to Field (2009), it is the most used coefficient to assess scale reliability. Cronbach's α is a function of the number of items in a scale and their inter-item correlation and can take values between 0 and 1 (Schnell et al., 2005). Generally, Field (2009) mentions that values of .7 or .8 are regarded as acceptable cut-off points for a reliable scale. However, Wilson (2006) states that α -values of .6 and above already indicate satisfactory reliability. Indeed, general guidelines on the cut-off value are not easily made, because α depends on the number of items in a scale. In the present study, the interpretation of the α -value was thus complemented by the values for corrected item-total correlations, which state the correlations between each item and the total score from the scale (Field, 2009). We considered it necessary for each item to highly correlate with the total scale and thus show a corrected item-total correlation of above .5 (Field, 2009).

As a general result, most of the scales show good reliabilities with Cronbach's α values of larger than .7, most of them even larger than .8 coupled with corrected item-total correlations of above .5. All detailed results for every scale can be found in Appendix B. Due to issues of length and repetition, we will not report the results of the scales that were regarded to be reliable here. However, some of the scales did not show a satisfactory reliability and thus several items had to be excluded at these scales. These results are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, item number two was excluded from the scale measuring PBG. This led to a change in α from .779 to .805 and an item-total correlation of above .5.

Next, the scale measuring expectancy did only produce an α -value of .660. This scale contains three items out of which the first and the third were reversely and the third even negatively formulated. This formulation might have confused respondents and resulted in the relatively low α -value. In addition to the α -value of .660, the results did not show any improvement of α in case of an exclusion of one item. While item 1 and item 3 showed a corrected item-total correlation of above .5, the correlation of item 2 was only .39, which is considered to be a medium effect. However, since Wilson (Wilson, 2006) considers α -values above .6 to indicate satisfactory reliability and an exclusion of an item would not increase Cronbach's α , all items were retained in the scale and combined to one score.

Thirdly, item four was deleted from the subscale of COS measuring diversity appreciation leading to a change in Cronbach's α from .839 to .919. The decision to delete item 4 was not only based on this relatively large increase in α , but also on its corrected item-total correlation of $< .5$. The final three items in the scale showed correlations of larger than .79.

Next, the scale measuring perceived risk only showed a Cronbach's α -value of .542, which is even below the relatively low threshold of .6 considered to be adequate by Wilson (2006). Perceived risk was measured with two items, out of which one was reversely and negatively formulated. Additionally, the scale was almost at the very end of the questionnaire, where respondents could have already shown a certain degree of fatigue (Galesic & Bosnjak, 2009). Based on this, we decided to use only the first item in all further analysis containing perceived risk, because this item was positively and more straightforward formulated and was judged to be a more reliable measure of perceived risk.

As a result of these analyses, the items of each of the scales were combined in the form of a construct mean (Schnell et al., 2005). These construct means were subsequently used for all further analyses.

5.1.3 Manipulation Check

The scales for LCCP/FCCP/GCCP, PBL/PBF/PBG as well as expectancy and perceived ad-brand incongruity were used in order to check the success of the experimental manipulation.

The following section contains the results from the manipulation check involving these scales.⁴

5.1.3.1 Manipulation check CCP

For CCP, it had to be tested whether our local, foreign or global ad was indeed perceived as manipulated. Thus, we compared the average scores for perceived CCP across the three ads.

The results for LCCP (Table 12) showed a higher mean of perceived LCCP at the local ad ($M = 4.63$) than the foreign ad ($M = 1.44$) and the global ad ($M = 1.75$). One-way ANOVA revealed that this difference was significant, $F(2,241.789) = 198.99$, $p < .001$. Games-Howell post-hoc tests showed that the local ad scored significantly higher on LCCP than the foreign ad and the global ad ($p < .05$).

perceived LCCP	foreign ad	local ad	global ad
mean	1.44	4.63	1.75
standard deviation	.76	1.68	.95
ANOVA results	foreign ad < local ad > global ad ($p < .05$)		

Table 12: Manipulation Check Results LCCP

For FCCP, the results (Table 13) showed a similar pattern in a way that the foreign ad resulted in a higher mean at perceived FCCP ($M = 5.52$) than the local ($M = 2.22$) and the global ad ($M = 4.67$). The one-way ANOVA confirmed the significance of these differences, $F(2,401) = 165.98$, $p < .001$. The foreign ad led to significantly higher average ratings on perceived FCCP than the local and the global ad ($p < .05$).

perceived FCCP	local ad	foreign ad	global ad
mean	2.22	5.52	4.67
standard deviation	1.45	1.48	1.69
ANOVA results	local ad < foreign ad > global ad ($p < .05$)		

Table 13: Manipulation Check Results FCCP

Looking at the results for GCCP (Table 14), the global ad showed a mean of 5.63 compared to a mean of 2.48 at the local and a mean of 4.09 at the foreign ad. Additionally, ANOVA

⁴ For issues of fluency of reading and understanding, the advertisements using LCCP, FCCP or GCCP will further be called local, foreign and global ad, respectively. In a similar vein, the brands positioned to receive high scores on PBL, PBF and PBG will further be denoted local, foreign and global brand.

results revealed a significant difference among these means ($F(2,401) = 141.92, p < .001$). Perceived GCCP for the global ad was indeed significantly higher than the means of the local ad and the foreign ad ($p < .05$)

perceived FCCP	local ad	global ad	foreign ad
mean	2.48	5.63	4.09
standard deviation	1.34	1.57	1.61
ANOVA results	local ad < global ad > foreign ad ($p < .05$)		

Table 14: Manipulation Check Results GCCP

Summarising, it can be concluded that the manipulation of CCP was a success, as the local ad scored high on LCCP while the foreign ad scored high on FCCP and the global ad scored high on GCCP.

5.1.3.2 Manipulation check ad-brand incongruity

Next, the manipulation of ad-brand incongruity was checked⁵. As described earlier, it was manipulated by exposing respondents to a brand description that was followed by either a congruent or an incongruent advertisement. The brand description primed PBL, PBF or PBG and these constructs were measured to serve as manipulation checks. Additionally, expectancy and perceived ad-brand incongruity were measured to directly check incongruity.

For the first step, the mean comparison of PBL/PBF/PBG across the brand descriptions, all respondents were excluded that spent less than 5 seconds on the page with the brand description. A short test with a sample of 6 independent people, who did not know the experiment, showed that it took at least 6 seconds to read the descriptions. Based on this, we concluded that people who had spent less than 6 seconds on the relevant page could not have read the description in details and therefore make an informed rating on the scales for PBL/PBF/PBG.

Regarding PBL, the mean comparison between the local, foreign and global brand showed the highest mean for the local brand ($M = 2.14$) relative to the foreign brand ($M = 1.47$) and the global brand ($M = 1.72$) (Table 15). Generally, the mean for PBL is quite low with 2.14,

⁵ The analyses were conducted on the sub-sample of respondents who were exposed to the brand description before the advertisement ($n = 304$). The respondents not exposed to the brand description could not perceive any incongruity because of the absence of a brand schema and are therefore excluded.

indicating that the local brand was not really believed to be connected with the Austrian culture. This might be explained by the use of an artificial brand. Respondents did not know the brand and this might have been the reason for them not to perceive it to be a highly typical Austrian brand that is part of the Austrian culture and bought by typical Austrian people. ANOVA results showed that there is a significant influence of the brand description on PBL, $F(2,180.22) = 6.60$, $p < .05$. Games-Howell post-hoc tests to follow up on this result revealed a significant difference between the local brand and the foreign brand ($p < .05$). The difference between the local and the global brand was significant at a .10 level.

perceived PBL	foreign brand	local brand	global brand
mean	1.47	2.14	1.72
standard deviation	.92	1.57	.96
ANOVA results	foreign brand < local brand ($p < .05$) ; local brand > global brand ($p < .10$)		

Table 15: Manipulation Check Results PBL

For PBF, results of the relevant analysis are reported in Table 16. The mean for PBF is the highest at the foreign brand ($M = 5.71$). Additionally, ANOVA results confirmed a significant effect of the brand description on perceived brand foreignness, $F(2,184.41) = 31.63$, $p < .001$. Also, Games-Howell post-hoc mean comparisons reveal a significantly higher mean for the foreign brand than both the local and the global brand ($p < .05$).

perceived PBF	local brand	foreign brand	global brand
mean	4.96	5.71	5.18
standard deviation	1.70	1.33	1.54
ANOVA results	local brand < foreign brand > global brand ($p < .05$)		

Table 16: Manipulation Check Results PBF

As far as PBG is confirmed, mean comparisons (Table 17) showed a higher mean for the global brand ($M = 4.33$) than the local brand ($M = 3.81$) and the foreign brand ($M = 4.32$). Generally, ANOVA revealed a significant influence of the brand description on PBG, $F(2,283) = 3.68$, $p < .05$. Gabriel post-hoc tests showed that the mean for the global brand is significantly higher than for the local brand ($p < .05$), but does not significantly differ from the mean of the foreign brand.

perceived PBG	local brand	global brand	foreign brand
mean	3.81	4.33	4.32
standard deviation	1.54	1.43	1.55
ANOVA results	local brand < global brand ($p < .05$) ; global brand = foreign brand ($p > .05$)		

Table 17: Manipulation Check Results PBG

To conclude, the manipulation was successful for PBL and PBF, but only partly for PBG.

The second step to check the manipulation of ad-brand incongruity was the analysis of the direct measurement of perceived ad-brand incongruity and expectancy. These two constructs were compared using t-tests across the two groups achieved from the dummy variable incongruity, which took on values of 0 and 1 depending on whether the coding was “incongruent” or “congruent”. The results are reported in Table 18 and show that the manipulation of ad-brand incongruity worked as intended. The advertisements that were congruent with the previous brand descriptions were perceived significantly more expected than the advertisements that were incongruent with the brand descriptions ($p < .05$). Also, the perceived ad-brand incongruity was significantly lower when there was ad-brand congruity as opposed to ad-brand incongruity ($p < .05$).

Mean comparisons	congruity	incongruity	t-test results
Expectancy	4.40	3.86	$t(302) = -3.581, p \leq .001$
Perceived ad-brand incongruity	2.83	3.38	$t(302) = 3.173, p < .05$

Table 18: Manipulation Check Results Ad-Brand Incongruity

To summarise, the manipulation for ad-brand incongruity was regarded as successful. Although one of the manipulations for brand schema was only partly successful, manipulation checks using the direct measures of ad-brand incongruity showed significant effects which means that the ad-brand incongruity was perceived by respondents as manipulated by researchers.

5.2 Main Analysis

Having verified the success of the experimental manipulations, the following section will concentrate on an analysis of the research hypotheses, which were developed in chapter 3. While the first block of hypotheses (H1 to H5) focused on the effect of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP on consumers' brand perceptions, the second block of hypotheses (H6 to H11) dealt with the effect of ad-brand incongruity in advertisements using CCP.

5.2.1 CCP and Brand Perceptions

5.2.1.1 Main effect of CCP on brand perceptions

The first hypothesis investigated whether LCCP, FCCP or GCCP in advertising would lead to more favourable brand perceptions involving perceived quality, attitude towards the ad, brand attitude and purchase intention.

Mean and standard deviations of the dependent variables for LCCP, FCCP and GCCP are shown in Table 19. 130 respondents rated the local ad (LCCP) and the global ad (GCCP) while 144 respondents were exposed to the foreign ad (FCCP).

Mean (SD)	LCCP (n = 130)	FCCP (n=144)	GCCP (n=130)
Perceived Quality	4.41 (.88)	4.41 (.89)	4.64 (1.09)
Attitude (Ad)	4.41 (1.39)	4.41 (1.32)	4.91 (1.37)
Attitude (Brand)	4.18 (.74)	4.20 (.85)	4.44 (.82)
Purchase Intention	22.92 (25.86)	20.56 (24.6)	26.85 (25.79)

Table 19: Mean (SD) Brand Perceptions (LCCP vs. FCCP vs. GCCP)

To validate H1, a one-way independent ANOVA assessed the influence of CCP on brand perceptions in a way that it identified any differences in the means of the outcome variables across the three positioning approaches. Figure 14 compares the relevant means graphically and reports the results from the mean comparisons.

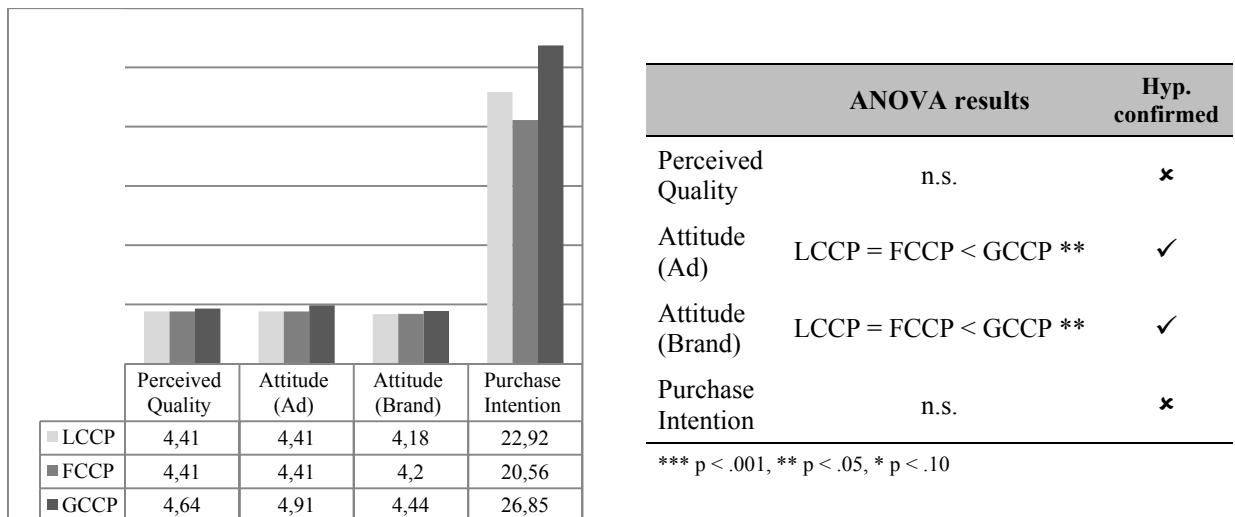


Figure 14: Mean Comparisons Brand Perceptions LCCP vs. FCCP vs. GCCP

With regards to perceived quality, the means for the local and foreign ads were exactly the same ($M = 4.41$) while the mean for the global ad was slightly higher ($M = 4.64$). However, this difference failed to reach statistical significance in the ANOVA. Thus, the perceived quality of RONDO was the same regardless which CCP approach had been used in the advertisement. As far as attitude towards the ad is concerned, ANOVA showed a significant influence of CCP on attitude towards the ad, $F(2,401) = 6.02$, $p = .003$. More specifically, pairwise Gabriel post-hoc tests revealed that the mean for the global ad ($M = 4.91$) was significantly higher than both the means for the local ad ($M = 4.41$) and the foreign ad ($M = 4.41$). For brand attitude, the results showed a similar pattern with a significant ANOVA, $F(2,401) = 4.19$, $p = .016$. Again, Gabriel post-hoc tests indicated that the brand attitude mean was significantly higher for the global ad ($M = 4.44$) as opposed to the local ad ($M = 4.18$) and the foreign ad ($M = 4.20$). Finally, for purchase intention we observed a slightly higher mean for the global ad ($M = 26.85\%$) than the local ad ($M = 22.92\%$) and the foreign ad ($M = 20.56\%$). However, ANOVA results indicated that this difference was not significant.

Summarising, the results revealed that the global ad caused on average higher attitudes towards ad and brand than the foreign and the local ad. H1 is therefore partly confirmed. CGGP led to higher attitudes towards ad and brand than FCCP and LCCP.

5.2.1.2 Do consumer characteristics moderate the effect of CCP?

Hypotheses 2 through 4 proposed that several consumer characteristics (CET, NID, COS, GID and BGC) would influence the relationship between CCP and brand perceptions. To get an impression of how respondents were characterised with respect to these variables, Table 20 presents means and standard deviations of these constructs.

N = 404	CET	NID	COS	GID	BGC
Mean	3.35	5.00	5.82	5.28	2.78
Std. Deviation	1.52	1.73	0.98	1.26	1.68

Table 20: Mean & Std. Deviation CET, NID, COS, GID, BGC

To test the hypotheses, moderated regression analyses were conducted. Moderated regression analysis is one of the most powerful statistical tools to assess the influence of a moderator variable on the relationship between two other variables (Aguinis, 1995; MacCallum & Mar, 1995; Mossholder et al., 1990; Stone-Romero & Anderson, 1994). Please refer to the following paragraphs “A brief aside on moderated regression analysis” for a description of this method and how it was applied in the subsequent analyses.

A BRIEF ASIDE ON MODERATED REGRESSION ANALYSIS

A moderator is a categorical or continuous variable, which impacts the strength or direction of a relationship between a predictor and an outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986) (Figure 15 left part). Moderated regression analysis is used to identify and specify the influence of such a moderator variable on the relationship between an independent and a dependent variable (MacCallum & Mar, 1995; Mossholder et al., 1990; Overton, 2001; Stone-Romero & Anderson, 1994). Especially when both the predictor and the moderator are measured on a continuous scale, moderated regression is the preferred method of analysis, because it retains the original continuous nature of the variables (Frazier et al., 2004). However, moderated regression models can also be used for categorical predictors and moderators, which then have to be represented by dummy variables (Frazier et al., 2004; Ledermann, 2007).

Technically, moderation effects can be viewed as an interaction between the predictor and the moderator, which takes the form of a multiplication of predictor and moderator in the

regression model (Baron & Kenny, 1986; MacCallum & Mar, 1995; Mossholder et al., 1990) (Figure 15 right side).

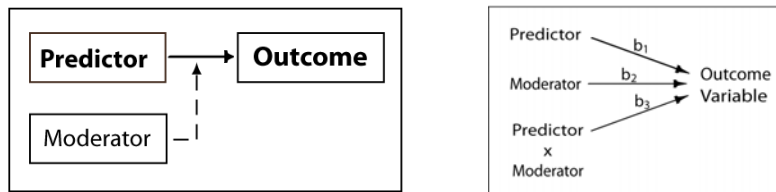


Figure 15: Modelling Moderator Effects

Source: left model adapted from Frazier et al. (2004), right model adapted from Baron & Kenny (1986)

In essence, moderated regression is the combination and comparison of two different ordinary least-square regression equations (Aguinis, 1995). The first regression (see Equation 1) tests the main, additive, effect of the predictor X and the moderator Y on the outcome variable Z . The second equation is then formed by adding the interaction term of the predictor and the moderator.

$$Z = b_0 + b_1 * X + b_2 * Y + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

$$Z = b_0 + b_1 * X + b_2 * Y + b_3 * (X * Y) + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

Z ... Outcome Variable X ... Predictor Y ... Moderator b_i ... Regression Coefficients ε ... Error Term

To assess the statistical significance of the interaction effect, an F-value is calculated based on the difference of the coefficients of determination (R^2) from regression 1 and 2 (Aguinis, 1995). In SPSS, this analysis is conducted by firstly calculating an interaction term between the predictor and the moderator ($X*Z$). Subsequently, a stepwise multiple regression is run, where the predictor and the moderator are forced into the model in a first step and the interaction term is added in a second step (Aguinis, 1995; Frazier et al., 2004). The additive effects of X and Z are entered first with the purpose to remove their effects from the interaction term (Bedeian & Mossholder, 1994). In case of two or more interaction terms, these should be entered into the model in one step (Aiken & West, 1996). The significance of the change in R^2 from the first to the second step is used to assess the interaction effect of X and Z (Aguinis, 1995).

An important assumption of multiple regression, which is of great concern in moderated regression, is the absence of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity exists if predictors in multiple regression correlate strongly (Field, 2009). In moderated regression, the assumption implies that the predictor, the moderator and the interaction term should not correlate strongly (Baron

& Kenny, 1986). However, predictor and moderator tend to correlate strongly with the interaction term, because it is a multiplication of predictor and moderator. To mitigate multicollinearity, researchers thus recommend to centre continuous predictor and moderator variables around their means before creating the interaction term (Aiken & West, 1996; Frazier et al., 2004; Tate, 1984, cited in Aguinis, 1995). This is done by subtracting the sample mean from each of the scores before creating the interaction term: $X' = X - \bar{X}$; $Z' = Z - \bar{Z}$; $X'Z' = (X - \bar{X}) * (Z - \bar{Z})$ (Tate, 1984, cited in Aguinis, 1995). Subsequently, all centred variables (X' , Z' and $X'Z'$) are entered into the multiple regression model as described above (Frazier et al., 2004).

Hypothesis 2

The second research hypothesis proposed that CET (H2a) and NID (H2b) would positively and COS (H2c), GID (H2d) and BGC (H2e) negatively influence the effect of LCCP on brand perceptions (Figure 16).

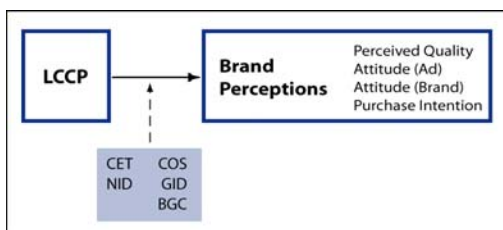


Figure 16: Hypothesis 2

According to the described procedure, moderated regression analyses were conducted to test Hypothesis 2. For each of the sub-hypotheses, four regression models were set up using LCCP, the moderator and the interaction term as independent variables and perceived quality, attitude towards the ad, brand attitude and purchase intention as dependent variables. Significant results are reported in the following paragraphs and an overview of the hypothesised relationships is given in Table 21. All detailed regression tables can be found in Appendix D.

Hypothesis	Confirmed	Effect Direction	
H2a	partly ✓	CET positively	
H2b	✗	NID positively	
H2c	partly ✓	COS negatively	moderates the relation between LCCP and brand perceptions.
H2d	partly ✓	GID negatively	
H2e	✗	BGC negatively	

Table 21: Hypothesis 2: Overview of Results

The assumption of no multicollinearity was assessed by the VIF (variance inflation factor) and tolerance statistics (Field, 2009). Bowerman & O'Connell (1990, cited in Field 2009) argue that the largest VIF should be smaller than 10 and the average VIF not substantially greater than 1 in order for multicollinearity not to be problematic. Additionally, tolerance should not be below .2 (Menard, 1995, cited in Field 2009). Moreover, the Durbin-Watson statistic was used to check the assumption of independent errors (Field, 2009). Field (2009) mentions that this value should be close to 2.0. As all of these conditions were met in all regression models, the two assumption were regarded as fulfilled.

General results from the moderated regression models showed that the link between LCCP and perceived quality was influenced by COS (H2c). Additionally, the effect of LCCP on purchase intention was moderated by CET (H2a), COS (H2c) and GID (H2d) (Table 22). H2a, H2c and H2d are therefore partly confirmed. Contrary to our expectations, however, NID (H2b) and BGC (H2e) did not moderate the link between LCCP and brand perceptions.

Outcome	Perceived Quality		Purchase Intention	
Model Parameters	$R^2 = .018$; $F(3,400) = 2.46^*$	$R^2 = .049$; $F(3,400) = 6.89^{***}$	$R^2 = .059$; $F(3,400) = 8.19^{***}$	$R^2 = .051$; $F(3,400) = 7.16^{***}$
Predictor				
LCCP	.105**	.182***	.181***	.183***
Moderators				
CET		.076		
COS	-.002		-.066	
GID				.082*
Interaction Terms				
LCCP*CET (H2a)		.100**		
LCCP*COS (H2c)	-.082*		-.141**	
LCCP*GID (H2d)				-.087*

Standardised coefficients are shown. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

Table 22: Moderated Regression LCCP

Detailed results for CET (H2a) show that the regression model for purchase intention explained 4.9% of the variance in purchase intention. The positive regression coefficient of the interaction term ($\beta = .1$, $p < .05$) confirmed the hypothesised positive moderating effect of CET on the relationship between LCCP and purchase intention and explained 1% of the variance in purchase intention (R^2 change = .001, $F(1,400) = 4.197$, $p < .05$). The effect of LCCP on purchase intentions was thus significantly stronger among consumers who showed high levels of CET than those who did not. H2a is thus confirmed for purchase intention.

Regarding COS (H2c), the regression model for perceived quality explained 1.8% and the model for purchase intention accounted for 5.8% of the variation in purchase intention. For perceived quality, the negative significant interaction term LCCP*COS ($\beta_{Qual} = -.082$, $p < .10$) indicated that COS negatively moderated the effect of LCCP on perceived quality, but only at the .10 level. The effect of LCCP on purchase intention was significantly and negatively moderated by COS, this time on the .05 level ($\beta_{PI} = -.141$, $p < .05$). The interaction terms explained .7% and 2% in the variance of perceived quality and purchase intention (R^2 change_{Qual} = .007, $F(1,400) = 2.77$, $p < .10$; R^2 change_{PI} = .02, $F(1,400) = 8.43$, $p < .05$). Thus, COS weakened the positive effect of LCCP on perceived quality and purchase intention. H2c is confirmed for perceived quality and purchase intention.

For GID (H2d), the regression model for purchase intention accounted for 5.1% of the variance in purchase intention. The interaction term was negative and slightly significant at the .10 level ($\beta = -.087$, $p < .10$) and explained 0.7% in the variance of purchase intention (R^2 change = .007, $F(1,400) = 3.06$, $p < .10$). The effect of LCCP on purchase intentions was thus weaker among consumers who showed a high degree of GID than among those with low levels of GID. H2d is confirmed for purchase intention.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 proposed that the effect of FCCP on brand perceptions would be positively moderated by COS (H3c) and negatively moderated by CET (H3a), NID (H3b), GID (H3d) and BGC (H3e) (Figure 17).

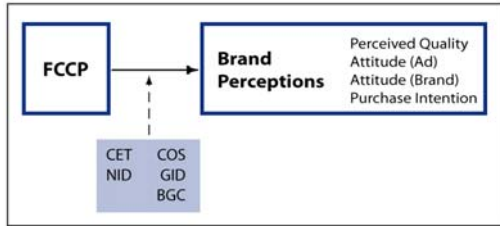


Figure 17: Hypothesis 3

For each of the sub-hypotheses, four moderated regression models tested the effect of FCCP, the respective moderator and the interaction terms between FCCP and moderator on perceived quality, attitude towards the ad, brand attitude and purchase intention. Table 23 gives an overview of the hypothesised relationships. The detailed regression tables can be found in Appendix D.

Hypothesis	Confirmed	Effect Direction	
H3a	✗	CET negatively	
H3b	✗	NID negatively	
H3c	✗	COS positively	moderates the relation between FCCP and brand perceptions.
H3d	✗	GID negatively	
H3e	✗	BGC negatively	

Table 23: Hypothesis 3: Overview of Results

Regarding the assumptions of no multicollinearity and independence of errors, none of the values for VIF were larger than 10 with an average around 1.0, tolerance statistics were close to 1.0 and the Durbin-Watson statistic close to 2.0. These results indicate that the two assumptions were met (Field, 2009).

As a result of the regression models, only two of the regression coefficients for the interaction effects reached a significant .10 level. COS (H3c) and GID (H3d) influenced the effect of FCCP on purchase intention. However, since these interaction terms were only significant at the .10 level, the overall regression model did not show a good fit ($p > .10$) and the first order effect of FCCP was not significant ($p > .10$), we did not regard the effect as strong enough to confirm our hypotheses. Instead, the results indicate that FCCP in combination with the personality variables mentioned above were not good predictors of consumers' perceptions of a brand that is advertised using FCCP. As a consequence, the whole H3 was discarded. The influence of CET, NID, COS, GID or BGC on the relationship between FCCP and brand perceptions could not be confirmed.

Hypothesis 4

In hypothesis 4, perceptions of a brand using GCCP in advertising were expected to be negatively moderated by CET (H4a) and NID (H4b) and positively moderated by COS (H4c), GID (H4d) and BGC (H4e) (Figure 18).

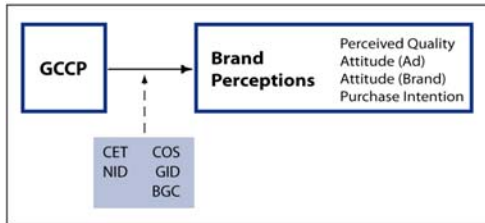


Figure 18: Hypothesis 4

Four regression models were again run for each of the personality variables. Table 24 gives an overview of the hypothesised relationships. All significant results are reported subsequently, while the detailed regression tables can be found in Appendix D.

Hypothesis	Confirmed	Effect Direction	
H4a	✗	CET negatively	
H4b	✗	NID negatively	
H4c	partly ✓	COS positively	moderates the relation between GCCP and brand perceptions.
H4d	partly ✓	GID positively	
H4e	partly ✓	BGC positively	

Table 24: Hypothesis 4: Overview of Results

In all regression models, the assumptions of no multicollinearity and independence of errors were met, because none of the values for VIF were larger than 10 with an average around 1.0, tolerance statistics were close to 1.0 and the Durbin-Watson statistic close to 2.0 (Field, 2009).

Generally, moderated regression analyses found positive moderator effects of COS (H4c) and BGC (H4e) on purchase intention and GID (H4d) on brand attitude and purchase intention (Table 25). H4c, H4d and H4e are therefore partly confirmed. Contrarily to the hypotheses, however, CET (H4a) and NID (H4b) did not influence the effect of GCCP on brand perceptions.

Outcome	Brand Attitude		Purchase Intention	
Model Parameters	$R^2 = .061$; $F(3,400) = 8.69***$	$R^2 = .063$; $F(3,400) = 8.99***$	$R^2 = .074$; $F(3,400) = 10.63***$	$R^2 = .083$; $F(3,400) = 12.04***$
Predictor				
GCCP	.213***	.218***	.225***	.215***
Moderators				
COS		.070		
GID	.047		.109**	
BGC				.155**
Interaction Terms				
GCCP*COS (H2c)		.100**		
GCCP*GID (H2d)	.120**		.111**	
GCCP*BGC (H2e)				.083*

Standardised coefficients are shown. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

Table 25: Moderated Regression GCCP

Regarding the hypothesised positive moderator effect of COS on the link between GCCP and brand perceptions (H4c), the moderated regression analyses revealed a significant effect in the model predicting purchase intention. GCCP, COS and the interaction between GCCP and COS were capable of explaining 6.3% of the variation in purchase intention. Since the interaction effect was significant and positive ($\beta = .1$, $p < .05$), COS strengthened the positive impact of GCCP on purchase intentions. The interaction term thereby accounted for almost 1% of the variance in purchase intention (R^2 change = .009, $F(1,400) = 4.02$, $p < .05$). As a result, H4c is confirmed for purchase intention. The effect of GCCP on purchase intention was significantly stronger among consumers who showed high levels of COS than those who did not.

Similarly, GID (H4d) positively moderated the effect of GCCP on purchase intention. Additionally, it was found to have a positive influence on the link between GCCP and brand attitude. The overall regression model for brand attitude explained 6.1% of the variance while the model for purchase intention was capable of explaining 7.4% of the variance in the dependent variable. In both models, the positive and significant interaction terms ($\beta_{A(\text{brand})} = .120$, $\beta_{A(\text{brand})} < .05$; $\beta_{PI} = .111$, $p_{PI} < .05$) indicate that GID positively moderated the impact of GCCP on brand attitude and purchase intention. The interaction term GCCP*GID thereby explained 1.4% in the variance of brand attitude and 1.2% in the variance of purchase intention (R^2 change $_{A(\text{brand})} = .014$, $F_{A(\text{brand})}(1,400) = 6.06$, $p_{A(\text{brand})} < .05$; R^2 change $_{PI} = .012$, $F_{PI}(1,400) = 5.242$, $p_{PI} < .05$). Therefore, H4d is confirmed for brand attitude and purchase

intention. The effect of GCCP on purchase intention and brand attitude was significantly more positive with higher levels of GID.

Additionally, BGC (H4e) was significantly related to the effect of GCCP on purchase intentions, but only on a .10 level. The regression model accounted for 8.3% of the variance in purchase intention. The interaction term was significantly positive ($\beta = .083$, $p < .10$) and explained 0.7% of the variance in purchase intention (R^2 change = .007, $F(1,400) = 2.98$, $p < .10$). Consequently, H4e is confirmed for purchase intention. When consumer had a stronger belief in a global citizenship, they were more likely to buy a brand advertised with GCCP than when they did not strongly believe in a global citizenship.

5.2.2 Ad-Brand Incongruity and Brand Perceptions

The second block of hypotheses (H5 through 10) dealt with the effect of incongruity between brand and ad perceptions on consumers' brand perceptions. Besides the main effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions, the hypotheses proposed several moderators that could influence this relationship.⁶

5.2.2.1 Main effect of ad-brand incongruity

The main effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions was tested in two steps, firstly with regards to attention (H5) and secondly with regards to brand perceptions (H6).

Hypothesis 5

In H5, we expected that advertisements that are incongruent with the brand schema will lead to higher attention in terms of the time respondents spent looking at the ad than advertisements congruent with brand perceptions (Figure 19).

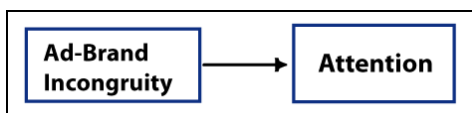


Figure 19: Hypothesis 5

⁶ All analyses were conducted on the sub-sample of respondents who were exposed to the brand description before the advertisement ($n = 304$). The respondents not exposed to the brand description could not perceive any incongruity because of the absence of a brand schema and are therefore excluded

Before testing H5, as the result of a first descriptive analysis, several extreme values of attention were excluded from the further analyses. More specifically, the extreme cases identified in the SPSS analysis were respondents, who had spent more than 100 seconds on the page with the advertisement. On average, the remaining respondents spent 14.5 seconds looking at the ad (SD = 8.20). The mean for the ads coded as congruent was 13.6 (SD = 7.49), while the average viewing time for the incongruent ads was slightly higher with a mean of 15.08 seconds (SD = 8.51).

For the local brand, an incongruent ad resulted in longer viewing times and the difference was significant at the .10 level ($t(95) = -1.859$, $p < .10$). Also, an incongruent ad by the foreign brand resulted in more attention to the ad ($t(95.376) = -2.336$, $p < .05$). However, the difference was not significant for the global ad indicating that incongruent ads by the global brand resulted in the same attention as brand schema congruent ads. Figure 20 compares the means graphically and reports the results from the mean comparisons for the three brands.

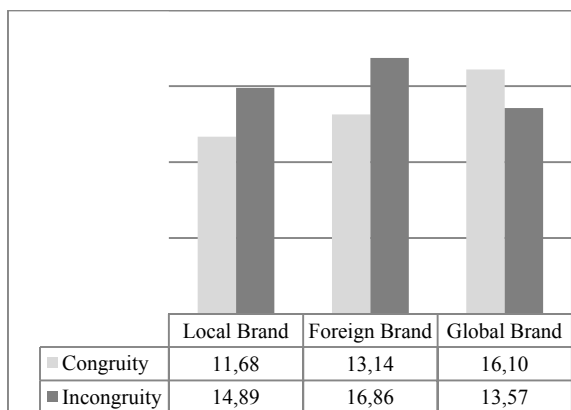


Figure 20: Attention Congruity vs. Incongruity

Brand	T-Test Results	Hyp. confirmed
Local Brand	$t(95) = -1.86^*$	✓
Foreign Brand	$t(95.38) = -2.34^{**}$	✓
Global Brand	$t(41.9) = 1.32$	✗

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

To conclude, H5 was partly confirmed. Incongruity led to significantly higher attention if it was used by a local or a foreign brand.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 proposed that perceptions of a specific brand scoring high on PBL, PBF or PBG would be more favourable for incongruent advertisements relative to congruent advertisements (Figure 21).

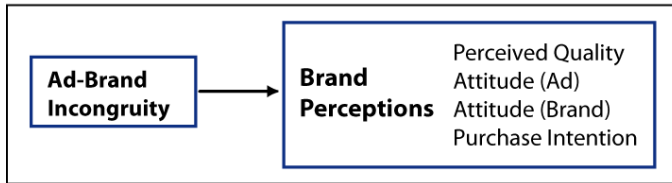


Figure 21: Hypothesis 6

Some descriptives for the dependent variables at for ad-brand congruity and ad-brand incongruity are reported in Table 26. Except for brand attitude, the average ratings were always higher for schema congruent ads than for incongruent ads. This is a first indication that that ad-brand incongruity might not lead to more favourable brand perceptions as hypothesised.

Mean (SD)	Ad-Brand Congruity (n = 103)	Ad-Brand Incongruity (n = 201)
Perceived Quality	4.51 (.99)	4.39 (.96)
Attitude (Ad)	4.67 (1.45)	4.42 (1.41)
Attitude (Brand)	4.21 (.73)	4.25 (.86)
Purchase Intention	24.08 (26.66)	22.04 (24.42)

Table 26: Mean (SD) for Brand Perceptions (Congruity & Incongruity)

In order to inferentially test the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions, t-tests were conducted for each of the brands comparing brand perceptions for congruent and incongruent advertisements.

For the local brand, the differences in perceived quality, attitude towards the ad, brand attitude and purchase intention between the congruent and incongruent ads were not significant ($p > .05$). Figure 22 depicts a graphical mean comparison and reports the results from the mean comparisons.

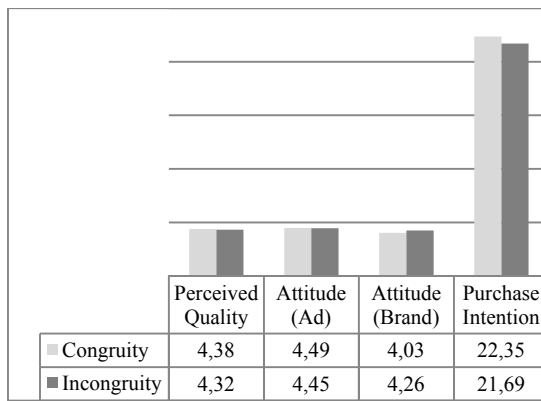


Figure 22: Brand Perceptions Congruity vs. Incongruity (Local Brand)

T-Test Results		Hyp. confirmed
Perceived Quality	$t(97) = .35$	✗
Attitude (Ad)	$t(97) = .12$	✗
Attitude (Brand)	$t(97) = -1.04$	✗
Purchase Intention	$t(97) = .12$	✗

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

With regards to the foreign brand, the results showed a similar pattern. Brand perceptions did not differ depending on ad-brand incongruity (Figure 23).

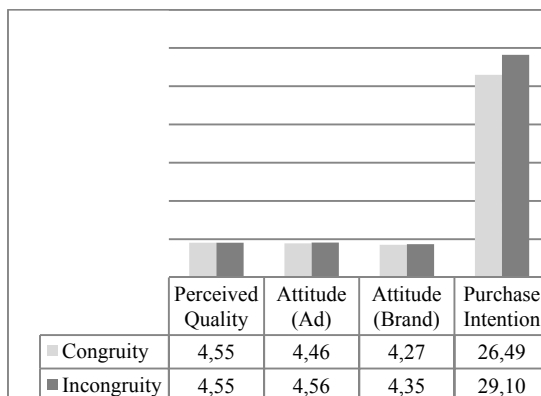


Figure 23: Brand Perceptions Congruity vs. Incongruity (Foreign Brand)

T-Test Results		Hyp. confirmed
Perceived Quality	$t(102) = .01$	✗
Attitude (Ad)	$t(102) = -.38$	✗
Attitude (Brand)	$t(102) = -.56$	✗
Purchase Intention	$t(102) = -.46$	✗

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

For the global brand, results did not show an influence of ad-brand incongruity on perceived quality and brand attitudes. For attitude towards the ad, however, the mean difference was significant ($p < .05$). If the global brand was advertised congruently (i.e. using GCCP), the advertisement was more favourably evaluated than if it was advertised incongruently (i.e. using FCCP or LCCP). Additionally, ad-brand incongruity significantly influenced purchase intention on the .10 level. Exposure to a congruent ad by the global brand led to higher purchase intentions than if the advertisement was incongruent with the brand schema. Figure 24 graphically compares brand perceptions for congruent and incongruent advertisements used by the global brand and reports the results of the mean comparisons.

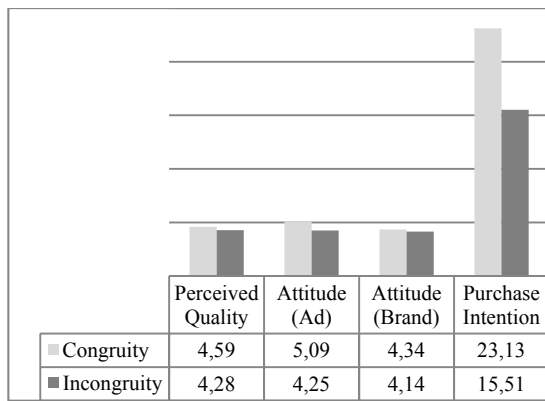


Figure 24: Brand Perceptions Congruity vs. Incongruity (Global Brand)

	T-Test Results	Hyp. confirmed
Perceived Quality	$t(47.63) = 1.45$	✗
Attitude (Ad)	$t(99) = 2.77^{**}$	✗
Attitude (Brand)	$t(99) = 1.41$	✗
Purchase Intention	$t(99) = 1.67^{*}$	✗

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

In summary, the analyses for H6 did not show significant effects of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions as far as the local and the foreign brands are concerned. For the global brand, however, congruent advertisements led to higher attitudes towards the ad and purchase intentions. A global brand is thus perceived more favourable in terms of attitudes towards the ad and purchase intention if it is advertised using GCCP.

As a result, H6 cannot be confirmed. Ad-brand incongruity did not lead to more favourable brand perceptions relative to ad-brand congruity. If it affected brand perceptions, the effect was in a negative direction.

5.2.2.2 Moderating Factors

Hypotheses 7 through 10 proposed that the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions would be contingent on success of resolution (ease of understanding and meaningfulness), brand credibility, product category involvement and perceived risk. To test these hypotheses, moderated regression analyses were conducted⁷. Prior to the hypotheses tests, Table 27 reports means and standard deviations of the relevant constructs.

Mean (SD)	Ad-Brand Congruity (n = 103)	Ad-Brand Incongruity (n = 201)
Ease of Understanding	6.03 (1.2)	5.69 (1.45)
Meaningfulness	5.13 (1.62)	4.86 (1.75)
Brand Credibility	4.68 (1.15)	4.25 (1.42)
Product Category Involvement	4.54 (1.91)	
Perceived Risk	4.32 (2.06)	

Table 27: Mean (SD) Ease of Underst., Meaningf., B. Cred., Prod. Cat. Inv., P. Risk

⁷ Please refer to section 5.2.1.2 for a detailed description of the procedure for moderated regressions

Hypothesis 7

H7 proposed that the effect of ad-brand incongruity would be positively influenced by success of resolution. The effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions was expected to be more positive with a higher degree of ease of understanding and meaningfulness (Figure 25).

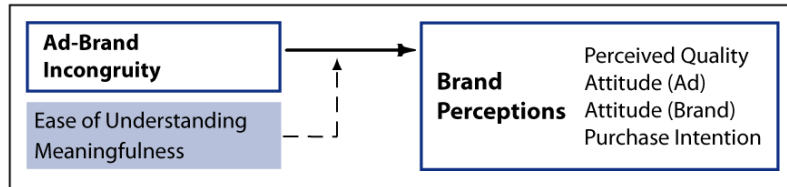


Figure 25: Hypothesis 7

As an overall result of the analyses, ease of understanding and meaningfulness did not significantly moderate the relationship between ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions (Table 28). Despite some positive first order-effects of ease of understanding and meaningfulness in the models predicting perceived quality, attitude towards the ad and brand attitude, the interaction terms were not significant for any of the outcome variables. The detailed regression tables are reported in Appendix E.

	Perceived Quality	Attitude (Ad)	Attitude (Brand)	Purchase Intention
Model Parameters	$R^2 = .074$; $F(5,298) = 4.77^{***}$	$R^2 = .207$; $F(5,298) = 15.58^{***}$	$R^2 = .041$; $F(5,298) = 2.57^{**}$	$R^2 = .025$; $F(5,298) = 1.52$
Predictor				
Ad-Brand Incongruity	-.031	-.027	.047	-.016
Moderators				
Ease of Understanding	.120	.293 ^{**}	.140	.204
Meaningfulness	.270 ^{**}	.433 ^{***}	.228 [*]	.043
Interaction Terms				
Incongruity * Ease of Understanding	-.029	-.144	-.089	-.060
Incongruity * Meaningfulness	-.086	-.138	-.102	-.070

Standardised coefficients are shown; *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

Table 28: Mod. Regression Incongr., Ease of Underst. & Meaningfulness, Brand Perc.

As a result, H7 cannot be confirmed. Ease of understanding and meaningfulness did not moderate the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions.

Hypothesis 8

In H8, we proposed that brand perceptions in response to ad-brand incongruity will be positively influenced by brand credibility (Figure 26).

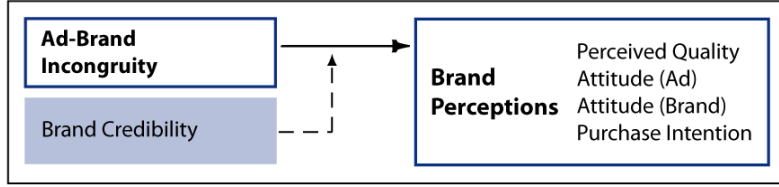


Figure 26: Hypothesis 8

Results from moderated regressions using ad-brand incongruity, brand credibility and the interaction term between incongruity and brand credibility as independent and brand perceptions as dependent variables revealed a significant interaction effect of ad-brand incongruity and brand credibility on perceived quality and purchase intention (Table 29, please refer to Appendix E for detailed regression tables).

	Perceived Quality	Attitude (Ad)	Attitude (Brand)	Purchase Intention
Model Parameters	$R^2 = .30$; $F(3,300) = 42.95***$	$R^2 = .178$; $F(3,300) = 21.68***$	$R^2 = .196$; $F(3,300) = 24.34***$	$R^2 = .069$; $F(3,300) = 7.40***$
Predictor				
Ad-Brand Incongruity	.035	-.013	.098*	.013
Moderator				
Brand Credibility	.719***	.496***	.570***	.432***
Interaction Term				
Incongruity * Brand Credibility	-.203**	-.091	-.148	-.222**

Standardised coefficients are shown; *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

Table 29: Moderated Regression Incongruity, Brand Credibility & Brand Perceptions

Generally, the models revealed significant and positive first-order effects of brand credibility indicating that brand credibility had a positive effect on brand perceptions without taking (in)congruity into account. However, the first-order effect of ad-brand incongruity was not significant. Together with the negative and significant interaction terms for perceived quality and purchase intention, this result indicates that the moderation effect occurred in a way that the positive effect of brand credibility on perceived quality and purchase intention was

weakened by ad-brand incongruity. The relationship becomes visible in Figure 27, which depicts the influence of brand credibility on perceived quality and purchase intention comparatively when the ad was schema congruent and incongruent. Indeed, when the ad was congruent with the brand schema (i.e. low ad-brand incongruity), brand credibility led to more favourable ratings of quality and a higher purchase intention than when the ad was incongruent with the brand schema. Looking at reactions to the incongruent advertisement, it also becomes visible that perceived quality and purchase intention is higher among consumers who perceived the brand to be a credible source of information than among those who did not.

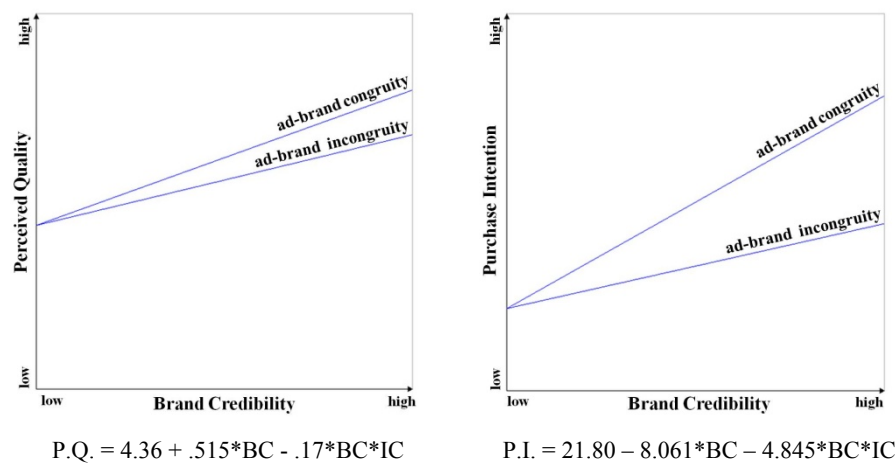


Figure 27: Quality & Purch. Intention as a Function of B. Credibility & Incongruity

To conclude, H8 is partly confirmed⁸. Perceived quality and purchase intention in response to ad-brand incongruity were positively influenced by brand credibility.

Hypothesis 9

Similarly to H7 and H8, H9 proposed a positive moderator effect of product category involvement on the link between perceived ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions (Figure 28).

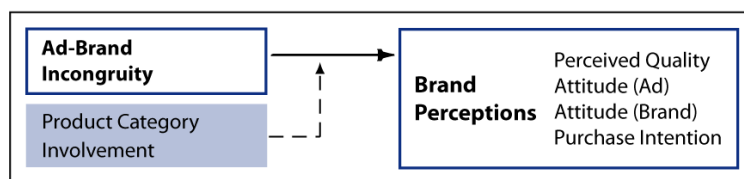


Figure 28: Hypothesis 9

⁸ Despite the partial support for H8, the results warranted further analyses, which are reported in section 5.3

However, the results of the moderated regression models for perceived quality, attitude towards the ad, brand attitude and purchase intention did not show significant interaction effects of ad-brand incongruity and product category involvement (Table 30, please see Appendix E for the detailed regression tables). Therefore, product category involvement did not significantly influence the effect of perceived ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions. H9 cannot be supported.

	Perceived Quality	Attitude (Ad)	Attitude (Brand)	Purchase Intention
Model Parameters	$R^2 = .017$; $F(3,300) = 1.73$	$R^2 = .02$; $F(3,300) = 2.26^*$	$R^2 = .007$; $F(3,300) = .67$	$R^2 = .03$; $F(3,300) = 3.13^{**}$
Predictor				
Ad-Brand Incongruity	-.062	-.081	.022	-.036
Moderator				
Product Category Involvement	-.079	.179*	.134	.270**
Interaction Term				
Incongruity * Product Category Involvement	-.041	-.078	-.121	-.154

Standardised coefficients are shown; *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

Table 30: Mod. Regression Incongruity, Prod. Cat. Involvement & B. Perceptions

Hypothesis 10

H10 proposed a negative effect of perceived risk on the relationship between ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions. Thus, when consumers associate a high degree of risk with the purchase situation, we expected the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions to be less positive (Figure 29).

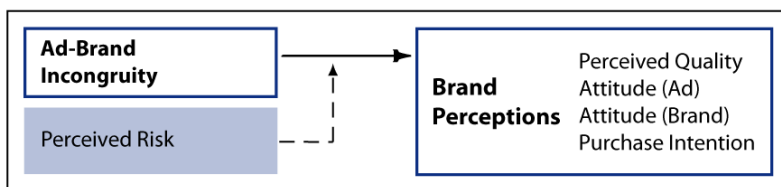


Figure 29: Hypothesis 11

Contrary to the expectations, however, moderated regression results showed that perceived risk was not related to the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions. Although the

interaction term of ad-brand incongruity and perceived risk was significant at the .10 level in the model predicting purchase intention, the overall model did not show a good fit. Thus, the interaction effect is judged to be non-existent (Table 31). Detailed regression tables are again reported in Appendix E. As a result, H10 is not confirmed. The effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions was not negatively moderated by perceived risk.

	Perceived Quality	Attitude (Ad)	Attitude (Brand)	Purchase Intention
Model Parameters	$R^2 = .004$; $F(3,300) = .386$	$R^2 = .01$; $F(3,300) = 1.18$	$R^2 = .006$; $F(3,300) = .64$	$R^2 = .02$; $F(3,300) = 1.53$
Predictor				
Ad-Brand Incongruity	-.062	-.088	.020	-.039
Moderator				
Perceived Risk	.018	.111	.072	.075
Interaction Term				
Incongruity * Perceived Risk	-.011	-.065	-.121	-.168*

Standardised coefficients are shown; *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

Table 31: Moderated Regression Incongruity, Perceived Risk & Brand Perceptions

5.3 Further Analyses

The combined effect of CCP and ad-brand incongruity

The preceding two sections and more specifically hypothesis 1 and 6 separately addressed the effect of CCP and incongruity on brand perceptions. CCP influenced brand perceptions in a way that GCCP led to higher attitudes towards the ad and the brand than LCCP and FCCP. Ad-brand incongruity did not influence brand perceptions in most of the cases and if so, the effect was negative. The combined effect of CCP and ad-brand incongruity was not part of any empirical research known to the author despite the fact that in advertising practice, brand managers have increasingly been using CCP irrespective of whether the brand is perceived to be a local, foreign or global brand (Sjödén & Törn, 2006; Zhou & Belk, 2004). As mentioned earlier, we did therefore not develop a specific hypothesis for these effects, but explore such a relationship in the following section. For each of the variables assessing brand perceptions, a

two-way independent ANOVA investigated the combined effect of CCP and ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions (Figure 30).

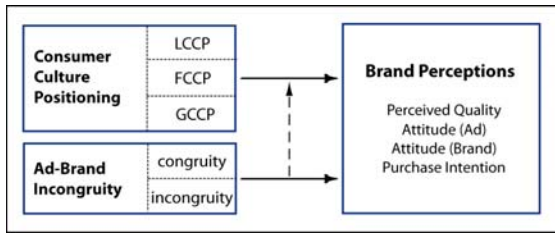


Figure 30: 2-way independent ANOVA CCP & Ad-Brand Incongruity

For perceived brand quality, results from two-way independent ANOVA did not reveal significant main effects of CCP ($F(2,298) = 2.265$, $p > .05$) and incongruity ($F(1,298) = 1.051$, $p > .05$). Also, the interaction effect between CCP and incongruity was not significant ($F(2,298) = 1.27$, $p > .05$), indicating that the effect of CCP on perceived quality did not vary depending on ad-brand incongruity.

With regards to attitude towards the ad and brand attitude, CCP had a significant main effect ($F_{A(Ad)}(2,298) = 5.68$, $p_{A(Ad)} < .05$; $F_{A(Brand)}(2,298) = 3.68$, $p_{A(Brand)} < .05$) in a way that the global ad led to significantly better attitudes towards ad and brand than the local and the foreign ad ($p < .05$). A non-significant main effect of incongruity ($F_{A(Ad)}(1,298) = 2.24$, $p_{A(Ad)} > .05$; $F_{A(Brand)}(1,298) = 0.18$, $p_{A(Brand)} > .05$) and a non-significant interaction effect between CCP and incongruity ($F_{A(Ad)}(2,298) = .021$, $p_{A(Ad)} > .05$; $F_{A(Brand)}(2,298) = 2.35$, $p_{A(Brand)} > .05$) indicated that this effect did not differ depending on ad-brand incongruity. Thus, GCCP led to more favourable attitudes towards ad and brand than LCCP or FCCP, regardless of whether an incongruent or a congruent ad was rated.

Next, two-way independent ANOVA for purchase intention showed non-significant main effects for CCP ($F(2,298) = 1.43$, $p > .05$) and incongruity ($F(1,298) = .34$, $p > .05$). However, there was a significant interaction effect between CCP and incongruity ($F(2,298) = 3.81$, $p < .05$). Specifically, when consumers were exposed to LCCP, their purchase intention was the same regardless if the ad was congruent or incongruent with the brand schema. For FCCP, however, the purchase intention was significantly higher when the ad was congruent with the preceding brand information than when it was incongruent with the brand schema. GCCP, again, did result in the same purchase intention, regardless of whether it was used congruently or incongruently with brand schemata. At the same time, the incongruent local and global ads

led to significantly higher purchase intention than the incongruent foreign ads. Summarising, the incongruent ads using FCCP caused significantly less average ratings of purchase intention than the incongruent ads using LCCP or GCCP as well as the congruent ad using FCCP (Figure 31).

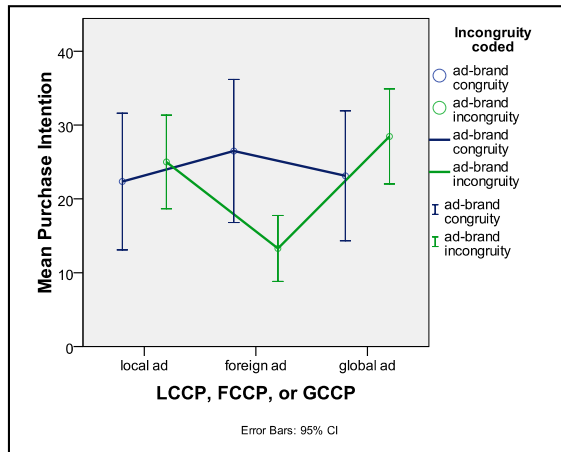


Figure 31: 2-way independent ANOVA Purchase Intention

Purchase Intention (%)			
Mean (SD)	local ad	foreign ad	global ad
congruity	22.35 (26.52)	26.49 (29.08)	23.13 (26.66)
incongruity	25 (25.8)	13.29 (18.71)	28.46 (24.42)

Brand credibility, ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions

Analyses for H8 revealed that brand credibility was an important factor when evaluating brands that were advertised incongruently to their brand schema. More specifically, we found that brand credibility had a positive influence on brand perceptions, but less so if consumers were exposed to an incongruent ad. This could be an indication for a negative impact of incongruity on brand credibility and therefore, we explored the relationship between incongruity, brand credibility and brand perceptions in greater details. The results are reported below.

First of all, we found that incongruity had a negative effect on brand credibility. Incongruently advertised brands were perceived significantly less credible (Table 32).

mean (SD)	ad-brand congruity	ad-brand incongruity	T-Test results
Brand Credibility	4.68 (1.15)	4.25 (1.42)	$t(246.51) = 2.84, p < .05$

Table 32: T-Test Ad-Brand Incongruity & Brand Credibility

Secondly, we found that brand credibility significantly predicted brand perceptions and accounted for relatively large shares of variance in the dependent variables (Table 33).

	Perceived Quality	Attitude (Ad)	Attitude (Brand)	Purchase Intention
Model Parameters	$R^2 = .33$; $F(1,302) = 123.18^{***}$	$R^2 = .17$; $F(1,302) = 64.39$	$R^2 = .18$; $F(1,302) = 67.53^{***}$	$R^2 = .06$; $F(1,302) = 18.10^{***}$
Predictor				
Brand Credibility	.538***	.419***	.427***	.238***

Standardised coefficients are shown; *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .10$

Table 33: Linear Regression Brand Credibility & Brand Perceptions

These results indicate a negative, indirect effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions via brand credibility. Apparently, ad-brand incongruity had a negative effect on brand credibility, which in turn positively influenced brand perceptions. Ad-brand incongruity might thus have a negative impact on brand perceptions, because incongruent advertisements lead to lower ratings of brand credibility.

5.4 Summary of Results

The preceding sections contained all the statistical analyses conducted in order to test the hypotheses. The results are shortly summarised below.

Manipulation Check

As a first important step, the two experimental manipulations for CCP and ad-brand incongruity were tested and judged as successful. For CCP, the local/foreign/global ad scored high on LCCP/FCCP/GCCP. For ad-brand incongruity, the ads coded as “incongruent” were perceived significantly more incongruent than the ads coded as “congruent” with the brand schema.

Effect of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP on consumers’ brand perceptions (H1 through 4)

In H1 through 4 (Table 34), we analysed how the different CCP approaches impact consumers’ perceptions of brand quality, attitude towards the ad, brand attitude and purchase intention.

Hypothesis		Hyp. confirmed
H1	LCCP, FCCP and GCCP in advertising have a differential impact on consumers' evaluations of the advertised brand.	partly ✓
H2	The effect of LCCP on brand perceptions will be a) positively influenced by CET, b) positively influenced by NID, c) negatively influenced by COS, d) negatively influenced by GID and e) negatively influenced by BGC.	partly ✓
H3	The effect of FCCP on brand perceptions will be a) negatively influenced by CET and b) negatively influenced by NID, c) positively influenced by COS, d) negatively influenced by GID, e) negatively influenced by BGC.	✗
H4	The effect of GCCP on brand perceptions will be a) negatively influenced by CET, b) negatively influenced by NID, c) positively influenced by COS, d) positively influenced by GID, e) positively influenced by BGC.	partly ✓

Table 34: Summary of Results H1 to H4

First of all, we found that CCP influenced attitudes towards the advertisement and brand attitudes (H1). Specifically, the global ad was better evaluated than the local and foreign ad and exposure to the global ad also led to higher brand attitudes than exposure to the foreign or local ad.

Secondly, hypotheses 2 through 4 dealt with several personality traits that were believed to moderate the link between CCP and brand perceptions. We proposed that CET, NID, COS, GID and BGC would be related to the effect of CCP on brand perceptions. Findings revealed that CET positively moderated the effect of LCCP on purchase intentions. With high levels of CET, consumers were more likely to buy a brand that had been advertised using LCCP than with low levels of CET. However, CET was not related to the effect of FCCP or GCCP on brand perceptions. Additionally, we could not confirm our hypotheses for NID as it showed no significant influence on the effect of LCCP, FCCP or GCCP on brand perceptions. Next, COS negatively influenced the effect of LCCP on perceived quality and purchase intentions. The positive effect of LCCP on purchase intentions was weakened among consumers who were open-minded, appreciated diversity and were willing to try products and services from other parts of the world. Such individuals were also more likely to buy a brand that had been advertised using GCCP, because COS was found to positively moderate the effect of GCCP on purchase intentions. However, COS was not related to the impact of FCCP on brand perceptions. Fourthly, GID was negatively related to the effect of LCCP on purchase intentions. Consumers who are more globally oriented recognising the commonalities rather than dissimilarities across the world were less likely to buy a locally advertised brand. However, consumers with such an orientation evaluated globally advertised brands more

favourably and were also more likely to buy such a brand as GID was positively related to the effect of GCCP on brand attitude and purchase intention. GID did not moderate the effect of FCCP on brand perceptions, though. Finally, BGC positively moderated the effect of GCCP on purchase intentions. Consumers who believe in a global citizenship are apparently more likely to buy a brand that uses GCCP in advertising. However, BGC was not related to brands advertised with LCCP or FCCP.

Effect of ad-brand incongruity on consumers' brand perceptions (H5 through 10)

H5 through 10 (Table 35) investigated consumers' reactions if advertisements using LCCP, FCCP or GCCP were incongruent with their brand schema involving perceptions of a brand's localness, foreignness or globalness.

Hypothesis	Hyp. confirmed
H5	For a specific brand scoring high on PBL, PBF or PBG, brand schema incongruent advertisements will lead to more favourable brand perceptions than a brand schema congruent advertisement.
H6	For a specific brand scoring high on PBL, PBF or PBG, brand schema incongruent advertisements will capture more attention in terms of viewing time of the advertisement than a brand schema congruent advertisement.
H7	The effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions is influenced by success of resolution. Higher levels of ad-brand incongruity together with higher a higher degree of meaningfulness and ease of understanding will lead to more favourable brand perceptions.
H8	Brand perceptions in response to ad-brand incongruity are positively influenced by brand credibility.
H9	Brand perceptions in response to ad-brand incongruity are positively influenced by brand product category involvement.
H10	Brand perceptions in response to ad-brand incongruity are negatively influenced by perceived risk.

Table 35: Summary of Results H5 to H10

Hypothesis 5 and 6 proposed that ad-brand incongruity would positively influence attention to the advertisement and brand perceptions for the local, foreign and global brand. When the local or the foreign brand used incongruity in advertisement, this caused indeed heightened attention. For the global brand, however, incongruity did not affect viewing time of the ads. With regards to brand perceptions, we found that exposure to the congruent ad led to significantly higher attitudes towards the ad and higher likelihood of purchase than the

incongruent ad if the global brand was concerned. If incongruity was used by a local or foreign brand, incongruity did not affect brand perceptions.

Hypothesis 7 through 10 argued that success of incongruity resolution, brand credibility and purchase intention would positively and perceived risk negatively moderate the link between ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions. Contrary to the expectations, success of resolution (H7), product category involvement (H9) and perceived risk (H10) were not related to the effect of incongruity on brand perceptions.

Brand credibility (H8), however, was related to ad-brand incongruity and brand perceptions. Generally, brand credibility had a positive influence on brand perceptions regardless of ad-brand incongruity. Perceived quality, attitudes towards ad and brand as well as purchase intention were significantly higher with a higher level of brand credibility. However, the effect of brand credibility on perceived quality and purchase intention was weakened by ad-brand incongruity. On the one hand, our expectations were confirmed because higher brand credibility led indeed to higher perceived quality and purchase intention when respondents were exposed to an incongruent ad. On the other hand, however, the positive effect of brand credibility was much stronger when they were exposed to a congruent ad. Thus, the incongruent ad caused lower levels of perceived quality and purchase intention than the congruent ad when brand credibility was high.

In addition to this, some further analyses to clarify the relationship between brand credibility and incongruity found that incongruity had a negative effect on brand credibility. Given that brand credibility was strongly responsible for increased brand perceptions, any advertising strategy that weakens brand credibility (and incongruity had such an effect) seems to be not advisable.

Combining the effect of CCP and incongruity on brand perceptions

Finally, we explored the combined effect of CCP and incongruity on brand perceptions, thereby assessing whether the effect of incongruity would differ across LCCP, FCCP or GCCP and vice versa.

The results did not show any combined effect on perceived quality, attitudes towards the ad and brand attitudes. Purchase intention, however, differed depending simultaneously on

differences in CCP and incongruity. Specifically, exposure to incongruent ads using FCCP led to significantly lower purchase intention than the congruent ad using FCCP and the incongruent ads using LCCP or GCCP. To conclude, if FCCP was used, it led to higher purchase intention if it was used congruently (i.e. by the foreign brand). At the same time, if an ad was incongruent with the brand schema, GCCP or FCCP caused higher purchase intention than FCCP.

6 Discussion

Investigating consumer culture positioning in advertising, our results generally support Alden et al.'s (1999) identification of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP as viable options for brand positioning. A pretest confirmed not only its use in Austrian print advertisements, but also the fact that such advertisements are perceived by consumers as intended, namely symbolising a local, foreign or global consumer culture. In the main experiment, we manipulated LCCP, FCCP and GCCP with the use of an artificial brand and artificial advertisements. Findings confirmed consumers' ability identify the positioning approach and perceive the ads as manipulated. The local ad was perceived to be connected to the Austrian culture, the foreign ad was judged to contain symbols of a foreign consumer culture and the global ad represented features of a global consumer culture in the eyes of consumers.

With regards to the effect of CCP on brand perceptions, our research found a superior effect of GCCP over LCCP and FCCP. The ad and the brand were evaluated more positively when the ad contained hints on a global consumer culture in a way that it depicted the coffee brand to be enjoyed by people from all over the world. Firstly, these results confirm recent empirical findings by Gammoh et al. (2011), who compared the effect of LCCP and GCCP among others on brand attitude and found a superior effect of GCCP over LCCP. Similarly to our study, Gammoh et al. (2011) used a fictitious brand to investigate these effects. Apparently, when consumers do not know a brand, they perceive it more favourable if it is positioned as being widely recognised and used by people all over the world. Secondly, our results also confirm previous findings about the positive effect of brand globality (Dimofte et al., 2008; Holt et al., 2004). Interestingly though, our findings run contrary to the least controversially discussed effect of brand globality in the literature: that of a positive effect of brand globality on perceived brand quality (Dimofte et al., 2010; Holt et al., 2004; Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou & Belk, 2004). Could it be that the positive effect on brand quality in these studies did not occur because of the brand globality but as a result of the use of well-known, strong global brands in popular product categories (Dimofte et al., 2008)? Indeed, Dimofte et al. (2008) argued that the globality-quality link might be a halo effect from brand strength. Given that we used an artificial and thus unfamiliar brand, were brand strength could not have a confounding effect, our findings that GCCP did not result in more favourable perceptions of brand quality compared to LCCP and FCCP provide support for this argument.

Despite a superior effect of GCCP over LCCP and FCCP on attitudes towards the ads and brand, our findings provide only partial support for our expectations that LCCP, FCCP and GCCP would lead to differences in brand perceptions. Rather, the contribution of CCP to brand perceptions was driven by individual consumer characteristics. This was especially true for the effect of LCCP and GCCP on purchase intentions. Westjohn et al. (2012) provide a detailed discussion of how the extent to which brand positioning and personalities are in line with consumers' personalities positively impacts brand perceptions and our findings comply with this argumentation as far as CET, COS, GID and BGC are concerned. Apparently, a brand advertised using LCCP would be preferentially bought by people who showed a strong ethnocentric orientation, a low degree of consumer cosmopolitanism in terms of open-mindedness, diversity appreciation and consumption behaviour transcending borders or a weak global identity. A brand advertised using GCCP, however, seemed to be preferred by people with a high cosmopolitan consumption orientation, a strong global identity or a strong belief in a global citizenship.

The positive influence of CET on purchase intentions of a locally advertised brand is in line with many studies investigating the effect of CET on the evaluations of local products and brands (Cleveland et al., 2009; Steenkamp & de Jong, 2010; Verlegh, 2007). The results also corroborate research by Nijssen & Douglas (2011) finding a positive effect of CET on attitudes towards LCCP and further confirm that CET is a consumer orientation playing an important role in domestic buying behaviour (Klein et al., 1998).

The negative effect of COS on purchase intentions of a locally advertised brand, which is opposite to the influence on CET, complies with previous research finding a negative relationship between (consumer) cosmopolitanism and CET (Riefler et al., 2012; Vida & Reardon, 2008). Also, our results that cosmopolitan consumers indicated a higher likelihood of buying a brand that has been advertised using GCCP are generally in line with findings that cosmopolitan consumers judge globally popular apparel more positively (Cleveland et al., 2009).

In parallel, we found that a high GID led to lower purchase likelihood if the brand was advertised by LCCP while it resulted in higher purchase intention of a brand using GCCP. Since Westjohn et al. (2012) find exactly the same effect of GID on attitudes towards GCCP,

our results explicitly confirm their research. Additionally, the negative link between GID and purchase intentions of a brand advertised by LCCP confirm Westjohn et al.'s (2012) rationale that evaluations of an advertisement are more positive with a higher degree of similarity between the positioning and a person's identity and thus also less positive with a lower degree of similarity between the positioning and a person's identity.

Additionally, our findings corroborate recently published research by Gammoh et al. (2011) with regards to the positive influence of BGC on purchase intentions of a brand that uses GCCP in its advertising. On the contrary, though, we did not find a relationship of BGC with perceptions of the ads using LCCP as in the study by Gammoh et al. (2011). However, the link between BGC and LCCP in the study by Gammoh et al. (2011) was much less distinct than its effect with GCCP indicating that it might not be replicable. Therefore, we conclude that the extent to which people believe that a global identity can be created by the purchase of global brands only causes a positive bias towards globally perceived advertisements but has no negative impact on advertisements that are perceived as local or foreign.

Despite the compliance of our findings with existing research as far as CET, COS, GID and BGC are concerned, the results for NID – which did not influence perceptions of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP – are in contrast not only to existing empirical research but also to the theoretical argument that a larger similarity between a person's identity and the advertisement positioning will have a positive effect (Westjohn et al., 2012). Could it be that consumption related characteristics like CET, COS and BGC play a more important role in a consumption context than a general concept like NID? The argument seems plausible, but is refuted firstly by Westjohn et al. (2012), who find NID to have a positive impact on attitudes towards LCCP. Secondly, the argument is refuted by our findings that GID – which is no consumption related concept either – indeed influenced purchase intentions of brands that are advertised by LCCP and GCCP. Therefore, our findings only allow the conclusion that CET is a stronger motivator to prefer locally advertised products than NID.

As far as the effect of ad-brand incongruity in the context of CCP is concerned, our findings did not reveal a clear pattern how incongruity affects attention and brand perceptions. Investigating the effect of incongruity on attention, we found that incongruity in some cases increased attention in terms of viewing time of the ads. Regarding the effect on brand perceptions, we found on the one hand that if ad-brand incongruity led to an increase in attention, it did not affect brand perceptions. If, on the other hand, incongruity did not increase attention, it had a negative effect on brand perceptions. In a more detailed simultaneous analysis of CCP and ad-brand incongruity, we found no effect of incongruity when the ads were positioned using LCCP or GCCP. However, when FCCP was used, incongruity had a negative effect on purchase intention. To conclude, the main effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions was either non-existent or negative.

In addition, we had expected that the effect of ad-brand incongruity would be contingent on successful resolution of the incongruity, brand credibility, product category involvement and perceived risk. Except for brand credibility, none of these factors were related to the effect of incongruity. We could confirm our hypothesis that higher brand credibility enhanced perceptions of an incongruent ad. However, the congruent ad resulted in even more positive brand perceptions when brand credibility was high, indicating superior effects of congruity over incongruity at high levels of brand credibility.

Generally, our expectations had been based on Mandler's (1982) schema-congruity-theory, which posits that resolved incongruity has a positive effect on both attention to the advertisement and brand perceptions. Indeed, our findings that incongruity has a superior effect on attention to the advertisements in some cases corroborate the theory and prior empirical findings. According to the schema-congruity-theory (Mandler, 1982), brand schema incongruent advertisements will attract attention, because the incongruity with consumers' expectations will lead to a more extensive processing (Lee & Schumann, 2004; Loef & Verlegh, 2002; Yoon, 2012).

As far as the effect of ad-brand incongruity on brand perceptions is concerned, however, our results refute Mandler's (1982) theory. The theory argues that incongruity, if resolved, will lead to favourable brand evaluations (Mandler, 1982; Yoon, 2012). Contrary to this argument, our findings showed that if incongruity had an effect on brand perceptions at all, the effect

was negative. Additionally, successful incongruity resolution was not at all related to the effect of ad-brand incongruity.

Could one explanation for our weak and unclear results how incongruity affects brand perceptions lie in the use of an unfamiliar brand and the consequently weak brand schema? The effect of incongruity depends on prior brand associations (i.e. the brand schema) and these associations are formed by experiences with a brand (Dahlén et al., 2005; Loef & Verlegh, 2002). A first point substantiating this argument is that the manipulation checks for brand schema were not always successful. Especially for a local or global brand, not knowing the brand seems to hinder judgements that it is a brand typically bought by local people or widely available across the world. For the foreign brand, however, the brand schema manipulation was clearly successful. Perceiving a brand as foreign that they don't know seems to be a more logical conclusion for consumers. A second point in favour of the argument is provided by empirical studies showing how the effect of ad-brand incongruity differs depending on the familiarity of the brand (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2012; Lange & Dahlén, 2003). Firstly, Delgado-Ballester et al. (2012) found that moderate incongruity led to higher brand attitude only when the brand was familiar to consumers, but they did not find any effect of incongruity on brand attitudes for the unfamiliar brand. Secondly, Lange & Dahlén (2003) studied the effect of brand schema incongruity for a familiar and an unfamiliar brand. Their results showed for the unfamiliar brand a negative effect of incongruity on brand memorability, but no difference in brand attitude between incongruent and congruent ads. Thus, if the brand schema is not well established, ad-brand incongruity makes it more difficult to remember the brand-related information. Because of this, Lange & Dahlén (2003) conclude that an unfamiliar brand cannot afford incongruent messages. Instead, the authors argue that for an unfamiliar brand, the goal of advertising is to establish and build a favourable brand image, which is more likely to be achieved by brand schema congruent advertising.

The argument that a brand with weak brand schema cannot afford incongruent communication is further corroborated by our findings regarding the relation between incongruity, brand credibility and brand perceptions. As mentioned above, we found that brand credibility strongly and positively influenced brand perceptions. This result is in line with existing research in a way that brand credibility does not only positively affect brand perceptions but is even one of the most important differentiating characteristics for the success of brands (Erdem & Swait, 2004; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). At the same time,

however, we found brand credibility to be negatively influenced by ad-brand incongruity. Given these findings, it is not advisable to use a communication strategy that weakens brand credibility (and incongruity has exactly this effect) when the brand schema is weak.

As a result of the above discussion, we conclude that for a weak brand schema Keller's (1993) argument in favour of a consistent brand communication seems to be more appropriate. Our findings provide support for the rationale that incongruent information makes it more difficult to form a cohesive and credible brand image possibly resulting in less favourable brand perceptions (Keller, 1993; van Rompay et al., 2009). The results of our study suggest that an unfamiliar brand should use consistent brand communication to enhance brand credibility, which in turn will lead to more favourable brand perceptions.

7 Conclusion

The purpose of the present research was twofold. On the one hand, it investigated how consumer culture positioning in advertising (LCCP, FCCP and GCCP) influenced consumers' brand perceptions. On the other hand, it examined the use of ad-brand incongruity relative to congruity in advertisements using CCP from a consumer's perspective.

A total of 404 people living in Austria participated in an experiment manipulating CCP and ad-brand incongruity in print advertising of a fictitious coffee brand. We now draw on the results of this experiment to answer the research questions. First of all, regarding the effect of CCP on brand perceptions, findings revealed a superior effect of GCCP over LCCP and FCCP. The ad and the brand were evaluated more positively when the ad was linked to a global consumer culture, depicting the coffee brand to be enjoyed by people all over the world, relative to a local and foreign consumer culture. Especially consumers who showed a high cosmopolitan consumption orientation, a strong global identity or a strong belief in a global citizenship were more likely to buy the brand advertised by GCCP. A brand advertised using LCCP, however, would be preferentially bought by people with a strong ethnocentric orientation, a low degree of consumer cosmopolitanism or a weak global identity. Secondly, regarding the effect of ad-brand incongruity, findings indicate that incongruity in the context of CCP can increase the attention consumers pay to the ad. However, incongruity is more likely to lead to less favourable brand perceptions relative to congruity. Brand credibility seems to play an important role in this respect. Findings indicate that the use of brand schema congruent advertisements enhances brand credibility, which will in turn cause more favourable brand perceptions. Combining the effect of CCP and incongruity, ad-brand incongruity especially led to a decrease in purchase likelihood if the brand was advertised using FCCP.

Theoretically, this research first of all adds insight into consumers' perceptions of consumer culture positioning. It confirms Alden et al.'s (1999) identification of the use of LCCP, FCCP and GCCP in advertising. Additionally, it augments the current knowledge by finding that GCCP leads to more favourable reactions towards the ad and the brand than both LCCP and FCCP. Moreover, it adds to the current literature (especially Gammoh et al., 2011; Nijssen & Douglas, 2011; Westjohn et al., 2012) that consumers' personal traits such as consumer ethnocentrism or cosmopolitanism, a global identity or a belief in global citizenship will

determine their attitudes and behaviour towards the different options of CCP. Secondly, the study sheds light on consumers' reactions if they perceive the brand to be a local, foreign or global brand and are subsequently exposed to advertising running contrary to these perceptions. The results confirm previous findings that brand schema incongruent advertisements might attract attention, because they break with existing expectations (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Loef & Verlegh, 2002). Yet, incongruity was not found to impact brand perceptions positively. Instead, the results of this research provide in general further support for the argument that congruity between brand associations and subsequent marketing communication will be more successful in creating a favourable brand image (Keller, 1993).

Managerially, recommendations are made as to how CCP can be used in marketing practice. Our findings provide support for the rationale that in cases where managers are faced with the decision to position a brand as symbolic of a global, local or foreign consumer culture, they should not only take into account the possible reactions of their target group to each of the cultural positioning but also existing perceptions of their brand. If marketers think of using consumer culture positioning for a new brand, GCCP seems to be the option that is likely to be the most successful. Care has to be taken, however, to specific target segment characteristics regarding their ethnocentric or cosmopolitan orientation, the existence of a certain global identity as well as beliefs in a global citizenship. If the target group already has perceptions of the brand's localness, foreignness or globalness, it is advisable to comply with these perceptions in future advertising. Despite the fact that the use of GCCP is likely to be successful regardless of whether the brand is perceived to be a global brand or not, when managers would like to use FCCP they are strongly advised to do this only if the brand is perceived to be a foreign one.

The empirical study possessed some limitations that lead us to establish several propositions regarding further research options. A first concern is connected to the generalisability of the results. Our findings are highly specific to one product category and one national context. Also, we used an artificial brand, a fact that could have led respondents to doubt the realistic background of the study. In addition, the use of online data collection together with convenience sampling implies a non-random selection of respondents and thus inhibits the generalisability of our results (cf. Schnell et al., 2005). It is therefore regarded worthy to conduct further research testing if our results are consistent across product categories and data collection methods. Also, testing CCP with real brands would be interesting in order to see

whether the results hold in a more realistic setting. Thereby, however, researchers should control for brand familiarity. Brand familiarity could confound the results, because it is believed to be one of the most differentiating features of brands (Lange & Dahlén, 2003).

Secondly, the measurement for LCCP/FCCP/GCCP and PBL/PBF/PBG in our study warrants further discussion. Since no scales measuring LCCP, FCCP and GCCP could be found in existing literature, new scales were established based on the conceptualisations of the three constructs. However, an extensive assessment of the scales' validity and reliability was beyond the purpose of this study. Similar issues arise with the scales of PBL, PBF and PBG. Although they could be adopted from existing literature, they had to be taken from different sources. While PBL was taken from Schiefer (2008), PBF and PBG were adapted from Zhou et al. (2010) and Batra et al. (2000). Particularly the scale for PBL had not been subject to extensive validity and reliability tests (Schiefer, 2008). Further research of qualitative and quantitative nature is recommended for developing sound measurement instruments for LCCP/FCCP/GCCP and PBL/PBF/PBG.

Thirdly, research on the effect of ad-brand incongruity seems to be a conceptually difficult field. Despite the large body of research, the definition and manipulation of incongruity often seems arbitrary (cf. Gierl et al., 2006). Further research is thus recommended to clarify the notion of incongruity in different contexts and provide frameworks of how it could affect different cognitive, affective and conative outcomes. First theoretical frameworks have been established by Lee & Schumann (2004), Sjödin & Törn (2006) and Yoon (2012) and it would be worthy to pursue their work by testing the frameworks empirically.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Experimental Stimuli

Brand Description

Manipulation	Brand Description
PBL	Die österreichische Kaffeerösterei RONDO überzeugt seit 1905 mit der höchsten Qualität ihrer Kaffee-Produkte. Das Know How von Generationen vereint mit der herausragenden Qualität sorgfältig ausgewählter Arabica-Bohnen machen RONDO Espresso zu einem einzigartigen Genuss-Erlebnis, mit dem der Traditions-Betrieb ein Stück Wiener Kaffeehauskultur zu Ihnen nach Hause bringt.
PBF	Von den Plantagen Kolumbiens kommt seit jeher der feinste Kaffee. RONDO, gegründet 1930 als kleine Kaffee-Rösterei, ist mittlerweile die Nr. 1 in den meisten Ländern Südamerikas. Die außergewöhnliche Qualität sorgfältigst ausgewählter Arabica-Bohnen und das Know How von Generationen machen RONDO Espresso zu einem einzigartigen Genuss-Erlebnis. Der Geschmack Südamerikas in einer Tasse Kaffee!
PBG	Die 1910 gegründete Kaffee-Rösterei RONDO Inc. ist heute mit über 70 Niederlassungen in aller Welt einer der größten und erfolgreichsten Kaffee-Hersteller weltweit. Die außergewöhnliche Qualität der aus den besten Anbaugebieten der Welt sorgfältigst ausgewählten Arabica-Bohnen und das Know-How von Generationen machen RONDO Espresso zu einem einzigartigen Genuss-Erlebnis, das Millionen Kunden auf der ganzen Welt tagtäglich begeistert.

Advertisements

Manipulation	Advertisements (selected ads for the main experiment framed with dotted line)
LCCP	 Ein Stück Wiener Kaffeehaus-Kultur für zu Hause. RONDO Espresso  Ein Stück Wiener Kaffeehaus-Kultur für zu Hause.
FCCP	 Der Geschmack Südamerikas in einer Tasse Kaffee! RONDO Espresso  Der Geschmack Südamerikas in einer Tasse Kaffee.
GCCP	 Enjoy the world's finest coffee! RONDO Espresso  today is a good day Enjoy the world's finest coffee! RONDO Espresso

Appendix B: Scales and Results from Reliability Analysis

* reverse coded items

** item excluded after reliability analysis

Construct	Definition	Type of Scale	Items	Source	Reliability Analysis
Manipulation Checks Consumer Culture Positioning					
LCCP	a positioning strategy in advertising that aims to lead consumers to associate “the brand with local cultural meanings” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 77)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Ich verbinde die gesehene Werbung mit Österreich.	own scale	.963 corrected item-total correlation > .87 for all items
			Mir kommt diese Werbung sehr heimisch (österreichisch) vor.		
			Wenn man sich die Werbung anschaut, scheint die Marke sehr mit der österreichischen Kultur verbunden zu sein.		
			Diese Werbung spiegelt die österreichische Kultur gut wider.		
			Diese Werbung enthält Anspielungen auf typisch österreichische Werte.		
FCCP	an advertising approach “that positions the brand as symbolic of a specific foreign consumer culture” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 77)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Ich verbinde die gesehene Werbung mit einem anderen Land.	own scale	.968 corrected item-total correlation > .88 for all items
			Mir kommt diese Werbung sehr ausländisch vor.		
			Wenn man sich die Werbung anschaut, scheint die Marke sehr mit der Kultur eines anderen Landes verbunden zu sein.		
			Die Werbung spiegelt die Kultur eines anderen (nicht-österreichischen) Landes gut wieder.		
			Die Werbung enthält Anspielungen auf die Kultur eines anderen Landes.		
GCCP	an advertising positioning that aims at identifying “the brand as a symbol of a [...] global culture” (Alden et al., 1999, p. 77)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Diese Werbung repräsentiert für mich Internationalität.	own scale	.958 corrected item-total correlation > .86 for all items
			Dies scheint eine globale Werbung zu sein.		
			Wenn man sich die Werbung anschaut, scheint die Marke sehr mit einer internationalen, weltübergreifenden Konsumentenkultur verbunden zu sein.		
			Die Werbung enthält Symbole/Anspielungen, die ich mit einer globalen Konsumkultur in Verbindung bringe.		

Construct	Definition	Type of Scale	Items	Source	Reliability Analysis
Manipulation Checks Brand Schema					
PBL	“degree to which a consumer feels a brand is connected to his or her own culture and region” (Schiefer, 2008, p. 26)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Diese Marke ist meiner Ansicht nach fixer Bestandteil des österreichischen Alltags. Dies ist für mich eine sehr heimische Marke. Ich verbinde diese Marke mit Österreich. Diese Marke ist Teil unserer (der österreichischen) Kultur. Der “typische” Österreicher kauft diese Marke.	Schiefer, 2008	.949 corrected item-total correlation > .81 for all items
PBF	a “consumer’s perception that a brand is of foreign or non-local origin” (Zhou et al., 2010, p. 202)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Dies ist für mich eine ausländische Marke. Für mich repräsentiert diese Marke etwas Ausländisches. Ich assoziiere diese Marke nicht mit Österreich. Ich verbinde diese Marke mit einer anderen Kultur.	Batra, 2000 adapted from Zhou et al., 2010	.884 corrected item-total correlation > .58 for all items
PBG	belief that “the brand is marketed in multiple countries and is generally recognized as global in these countries” (Steenkamp et al., 2003, p. 54)	7-point differential scale	Dies ist für mich eine globale Marke./ Dies ist für mich eine lokale Marke. Ich denke, dass Konsumenten in anderen Ländern diese Marke kaufen. / Ich denke nicht, dass Konsumenten in anderen Ländern diese Marke kaufen.** Diese Marke wird auf der ganzen Welt verkauft. / Diese Marke wird nicht auf der ganzen Welt verkauft. Für mich repräsentiert diese Marke eine globale Konsumkultur. / Für mich repräsentiert diese Marke keine globale Konsumkultur.	Steenkamp et al., 2003 own item	.805 corrected item-total correlation > .65 for all items
Manipulation Checks Ad-Brand Incongruity					
Expectancy	the “degree to which an item or information falls into a predetermined schema” (Fleck & Quester, 2007, p. 976)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Ich bin überrascht, dass diese Marke so beworben wird.* Man würde solch eine Werbung von dieser Marke erwarten. Es war nicht vorhersehbar, dass diese Marke so eine Werbung hat.*	adapted from Fleck & Quester, 2007	.660 corrected item-total correlation > .39 for all items

Construct	Definition	Type of Scale	Items	Source	Reliability Analysis
Perceived ad-brand incongruity	perceived mismatch between a stimulus element of an advertisement and the established brand schema (Dahlén et al., 2005; Törn & Dahlén, 2008)	7-point semantic differential	logisch / unlogisch	Aurier & Fort 2007	.876 corrected item-total correlation > .68 for all items
			natürlich / unnatürlich		
			verständlich / unverständlich		
			stimmig / nicht stimmig		
Outcome Variables					
Perceived Quality	consumers’ judgements of a brand to be of overall excellence or superiority relative to competing brands (Low, 2000)	7-point differential scale	Diese Marke hat eine sehr schlechte Qualität. / Diese Marke hat eine sehr gute Qualität.	Steenkamp et al. 2003	.888 corrected item-total correlation > .64 for all items
			Die Qualität dieser Marke ist minderwertig. / Die Qualität dieser Marke ist überlegen.		
Attitude towards the Ad	consumer evaluations of an ad involving judgements whether it is good or bad, liked or disliked and similar (Ajzen, 2001, cited in Riefler, 2012).	7-point semantic differential	schlecht / gut	Okazaki et al 2010	.879 corrected item-total correlation > .54 for all items
			nicht ansprechend / ansprechend		
			vorteilhaft / unvorteilhaft*		
			negativ / positiv		
Brand Attitude	consumers’ evaluative judgements of a brand, i.e. whether they judge it to be good or bad or whether they like it or not (Mitchell, 1981; Low & Lamb 2000).	7-point differential scale	Ich finde diese Marke gut. / Ich finde diese Marke schlecht.*	Park et al. 2010	.843 corrected item-total correlation > .67 for all items
			Ich habe eine negative Meinung über diese Marke. / Ich habe eine positive Meinung über diese Marke.		
			Ich mag diese Marke nicht. / Ich mag diese Marke.		
Purchase Intention	likelihood of future brand purchase (Sichtmann & Diamantopoulos, 2012)	11-point percentage scale from 0 to 100%	Wie hoch ist die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass sie RONDO kaufen, wenn Sie das nächste Mal Kaffee kaufen?	Sichtmann & Diamanto-poulos (2012)	-

Construct	Definition	Type of Scale	Items	Source	Reliability Analysis
Moderators CCP → Brand Perceptions					
CET	“beliefs [...] about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products” (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Österreicher sollten keine ausländischen Produkte kaufen, denn das schadet der heimischen Wirtschaft und erhöht die Arbeitslosigkeit.	Shimp & Sharma, 1987 (shortened scale used by; Verlegh, 2007; Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011)	.886 corrected item-total correlation > .53 for all items
			Ich bevorzuge immer österreichische Produkte statt ausländischen Produkten.		
			Ein wahrer Österreicher sollte stets österreichische Produkte kaufen.		
			Es ist nicht richtig ausländische Produkte zu kaufen, weil dadurch Arbeitsplätze in Österreich gefährdet werden.		
			Wir sollten stets in Österreich hergestellte Waren kaufen und nicht andere Länder reicher machen.		
NID	the extent to which people identify with the national community and define themselves in terms of their membership to this community (Bhattacharya et al. 1995; Verlegh 2007)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Österreicher(in) zu sein bedeutet mir viel.	Verlegh 2007, taken from Feather 1981, Doosje et al. 1998	.891 corrected item-total correlation > .62 for all items
			Ich bin stolz, Österreicher(in) zu sein.		
			Wenn Österreich von jemandem aus einem anderen Land gelobt wird, empfinde ich dies als ein persönliches Kompliment.		
			Ich fühle keine Verbundenheit zu Österreich.*		
COS	“the extent to which a consumer (1) exhibits an open-mindedness towards foreign countries and cultures, (2) appreciates the diversity brought about by the availability of products from different national and cultural origins, and (3) is positively disposed towards consuming products from foreign countries.” (Riefler et al., 2012, p. 287)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	OPEN-MINDEDNESS: Während meiner Reisen versuche ich bewusst, mit der lokalen Kultur in Berührung zu kommen. Ich begrüße die Möglichkeit, Menschen aus verschiedenen Ländern zu treffen. Ich pflege viel Kontakt zu Menschen aus anderen Kulturen. Ich habe großes Interesse an anderen Ländern.	Riefler et al., 2012	.858 corrected item-total correlation > .66 for all items
			DIVERSITY-APPRECIATION: Ich finde es wertvoll, Zugang zu Produkten aus aller Welt zu haben. Die Erhältlichkeit von ausländischen Produkten am einheimischen Markt bietet eine wertvolle Vielfalt. Ich mag es sehr, eine große Auswahl an Produkten aus verschiedenen Ländern zu haben.		.914 corrected item-total correlation > .79 for all items

Construct	Definition	Type of Scale	Items	Source	Reliability Analysis
			Immer dieselben einheimischen Produkte zu kaufen wird mit der Zeit langweilig.**		
			CONSUMPTION TRANSCENDING BORDERS: Ich sehe gerne ausländische Filme. Ich höre gerne Musik aus anderen Ländern. Ich probiere gerne ausländische Speisen. Ich probiere gerne Dinge aus, die anderswo auf der Welt konsumiert werden.		.875 corrected item-total correlation > .70 for all items
GID	“mental representations in which consumers believe in the positive effects of globalization, recognize the commonalities rather than dissimilarities among people around the world, and are interested in global events.” (Tu et al., 2012, p. 36)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Mein Herz gehört der ganzen Welt. Ich denke die Menschen sollten mehr darauf aufmerksam gemacht werden, wie verbunden wir mit dem Rest der Welt sind. Ich sehe mich selbst als Weltbürger. Ich interessiere mich für globale Ereignisse.	Tu et al., 2012	.832 corrected item-total correlation > .59 for all items
BGC	“belief that global brands create an imagined global identity that a person shares with like-minded people” (Strizhakova et al., 2008, p. 59)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Globale Marken zu kaufen, gibt mir das Gefühl, ein Weltbürger zu sein. Indem ich globale Marken kaufe, fühle ich mich als Teil von etwas Größerem. Globale Marken zu kaufen, gibt mir das Gefühl, Teil einer globalen Konsumkultur zu sein. Ich habe eine sehr positive Meinung von [Land].	Strizhakova et al., 2008	.948 corrected item-total correlation > .85 for all items
Moderators Ad-Brand Incongruity → Brand Perceptions					
Success of Resolution	consumers' ability to understand and attribute meaning to the incongruity (Halkias & Kokkinaki, 2011; Lee & Thorson, 2008)	7-point differential scale	sehr einfach zu verstehen / sehr schwierig zu verstehen* macht keinen Sinn / macht Sinn	Alden et al., 2000 Jhang et al., 2012	.688 corrected item-total correlation > .53 for all items
Brand Credibility	the degree of believability and trustworthiness of a brand (Erdem & Swait, 2004; van Rompay & Pruyn, 2011)	7-point Likert 1=“do not agree at all”, 7=“totally agree”	Diese Marke macht einen aufrichtigen Eindruck. Diese Marke macht einen glaubwürdigen Eindruck. Diese Marke macht einen vertrauenswürdigen Eindruck.	van Romay & Pruyn, 2011	.942 corrected item-total correlation > .86 for all items

Construct	Definition	Type of Scale	Items	Source	Reliability Analysis
Product Category Involvement	the degree to which a specific product category is personally relevant or important to consumers (Koschate-Fischer et al. 2012; Lee & Schumann, 2004; Lee & Thorson, 2008; Mittal & Lee 1988)	7-point Likert 1=”do not agree at all”, 7=”totally agree”	Ich habe ein starkes Interesse an Kaffee.	own item:	.925 corrected item-total correlation > .70 for all items
			Ich wähle meinen Kaffee sehr sorgfältig aus.	Mittal & Lee 1988 (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012 sec)	
			Welchen Kaffee ich kaufe hat für mich eine sehr große Bedeutung.		
			Eine Kaffeemarke auszuwählen ist für mich eine wichtige Entscheidung.		
Perceived Risk	perceived importance of negative consequences of a mistake or poor choice when purchasing a product (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985)	7-point Likert 1=”do not agree at all”, 7=”totally agree”	Es ist für mich ein großes Problem wenn ich den falschen Kaffee kaufe.	Batra et al., 2000	-
			Eine schlechte Wahl beim Kaffee-Kauf wäre für mich nicht schlimm. */ **		

Appendix C: Sample Questionnaire

A dotted line is used to indicate page breaks in the online questionnaire



0% ausgefüllt

Studie zur Werbewahrnehmung der Kaffeemarke "RONDO"



Liebe TeilnehmerInnen,

Im Rahmen eines Forschungsprojektes der Universität Wien interessiert mich Ihre Meinung zu einer **Kaffeewerbung** der Marke RONDO.

Bitte nehmen Sie sich **10 Minuten** dafür Zeit.

Ihre persönliche Einschätzung ist mir wichtig, es gibt also keine richtigen und falschen Antworten.

Alle Antworten sind natürlich anonym! Es ist keine Identifikation einzelner Teilnehmer möglich.

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme!

Weiter

Christine Milchram, Zentrum für Betriebswirtschaft, Universität Wien



6% ausgefüllt

Bitte lesen Sie sich zu Beginn kurz folgende Information durch, um einen Eindruck von RONDO zu erhalten.

Von den Plantagen Kolumbiens kommt seit jeher der feinste Kaffee. RONDO, gegründet 1930 als kleine Kaffee-Rösterei, ist mittlerweile die Nr. 1 in den meisten Ländern Südamerikas. Die außergewöhnliche Qualität sorgfältigst ausgewählter Arabica-Bohnen und das Know How von Generationen machen RONDO Espresso zu einem einzigartigen Genuss-Erlebnis. Der Geschmack Südamerikas in einer Tasse Kaffee!



Weiter

Christine Milchram, Zentrum für Betriebswirtschaft, Universität Wien



Bitte beantworten Sie nun einige Fragen zu dieser Marke.



Inwieweit stimmen Sie den folgenden Aussagen über RONDO zu?

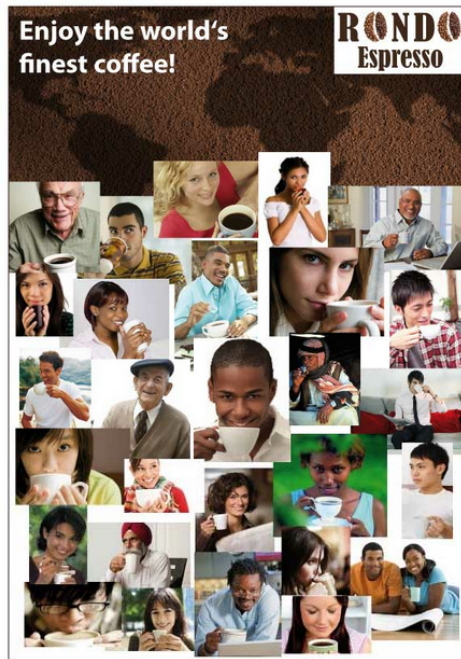
	stimme gar nicht zu								stimme voll zu
Diese Marke ist meiner Ansicht nach fixer Bestandteil des österreichischen Alltags.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Dies ist für mich eine sehr heimische Marke.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Ich verbinde diese Marke mit Österreich.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Diese Marke ist Teil unserer (der österreichischen) Kultur.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Der "typische" Österreicher kauft diese Marke.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Dies ist für mich eine ausländische Marke.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Für mich repräsentiert diese Marke etwas Ausländisches.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Ich assoziiere diese Marke <u>nicht</u> mit Österreich.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Ich verbinde diese Marke mit einer anderen Kultur.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	

Und wie denken Sie über folgende Aussagen?

Dies ist für mich eine globale Marke.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Dies ist für mich eine lokale Marke.
Ich denke, dass Konsumenten in anderen Ländern diese Marke kaufen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Ich denke nicht, dass Konsumenten in anderen Ländern diese Marke kaufen.
Diese Marke wird auf der ganzen Welt verkauft.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Diese Marke wird nicht auf der ganzen Welt verkauft.
Für mich repräsentiert diese Marke eine globale Konsumkultur.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Für mich repräsentiert diese Marke keine globale Konsumkultur.

Weiter

Bitte betrachten Sie jetzt die folgende Werbung.

[Weiter](#)

Christine Milchram, Zentrum für Betriebswirtschaft, Universität Wien

Ihre Meinung zur Werbeanzeige und zur Marke RONDO

Wie beurteilen Sie die gerade gesehene Werbung?

	schlecht		gut
	nicht ansprechend		ansprechend
	vorteilhaft		unvorteilhaft
	negativ		positiv

Und wie denken Sie über die Marke RONDO?

Ich finde diese Marke gut.	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	Ich finde diese Marke schlecht.
Ich habe eine negative Meinung über diese Marke.	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	Ich habe eine positive Meinung über diese Marke.
Ich mag diese Marke nicht.	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	Ich mag diese Marke.

Inwieweit stimmen Sie folgenden Aussagen über die Marke RONDO zu?

	stimme gar nicht zu		stimme voll zu
Diese Marke macht einen aufrichtigen Eindruck.	☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	☒
Diese Marke macht einen glaubwürdigen Eindruck.	☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	☒
Diese Marke macht einen vertrauenswürdigen Eindruck.	☐	☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐	☒

Wie schätzen Sie die Qualität der Marke RONDO ein?

Diese Marke hat eine sehr schlechte Qualität.  Diese Marke hat eine sehr gute Qualität.

Die Qualität dieser Marke ist minderwertig.  Die Qualität dieser Marke ist überlegen.

Weiter

[illegible]

Weiter

*

Manchmal können wir uns mit einer Marke identifizieren. Das passiert, wenn sich unsere Vorstellung von dem wie wir uns selbst sehen und definieren (das ist unsere eigene Identität) mit dem überschneidet, wofür die Marke steht (das ist die Identität der Marke).

Betrachten Sie das nebenstehende Bild. Stellen Sie sich vor, dass der linke Kreis in jeder Reihe Ihre eigene Identität darstellt. Der rechte Kreis steht für die Identität von RONDO.

Bitte kreuzen Sie an, welche Variante (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H) am besten beschreibt, wie sehr sich Ihre eigene Identität und die von RONDO überschneiden.

	Ich	RONDO	
☐ A			Weit auseinander
☐ B			Nah beieinander, aber verschieden
☐ C			Sehr kleine Überschneidung
☐ D			Kleine Überschneidung
☐ E			Mäßige Überschneidung
☐ F			Große Überschneidung
☐ G			Sehr große Überschneidung
☐ H			Vollständige Überschneidung

*

Wie sehr ähnelt sich, wie Sie sich selbst sehen (d.h. Ihre persönliche Identität) und wofür RONDO in Ihren Augen steht (d.h. die Identität von RONDO)?

Bitte kreuzen Sie das Feld an, das am ehesten Ihrer Einschätzung entspricht.

komplett verschieden					weder verschieden noch gleich					absolut gleich
-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4		
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Wie hoch ist die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass Sie RONDO kaufen, wenn Sie das nächste Mal Kaffee kaufen?

Bitte kreuzen Sie das Feld an, das am ehesten Ihrer Einschätzung entspricht.

0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Weiter

Allgemeine Fragen zur Werbung und zur Marke RONDO

Inwieweit stimmen Sie den folgenden Aussagen über die zuvor gesehene Werbung zu?

	stimme gar nicht zu						stimme voll zu
Ich verbinde die gesehene Werbung mit Österreich.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mir kommt diese Werbung sehr heimisch (österreichisch) vor.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wenn man sich die Werbung anschaut, scheint die Marke sehr mit der österreichischen Kultur verbunden zu sein.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Diese Werbung spiegelt die österreichische Kultur gut wider.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Diese Werbung enthält Anspielungen auf typisch österreichische Werte.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich verbinde die gesehene Werbung mit einem anderen Land.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mir kommt diese Werbung sehr ausländisch vor.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wenn man sich die Werbung anschaut, scheint die Marke sehr mit der Kultur eines anderen Landes verbunden zu sein.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Die Werbung spiegelt die Kultur eines anderen (nicht-österreichischen) Landes gut wieder.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Die Werbung enthält Anspielungen auf die Kultur eines anderen Landes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Diese Werbung repräsentiert für mich Internationalität.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Dies scheint eine globale Werbung zu sein.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wenn man sich die Werbung anschaut, scheint die Marke sehr mit einer internationalen, weltübergreifenden Konsumentenkultur verbunden zu sein.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Die Werbung enthält Symbole/Anspielungen, die ich mit einer globalen Konsumkultur in Verbindung bringe.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

[Weiter](#)



50% ausgefüllt

Was halten Sie von dieser Werbung?

Ich finde diese Werbung...

logisch	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	unlogisch
natürlich	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	unnatürlich
verständlich	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	unverständlich
stimmig	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	nicht stimmig

Ich finde diese Werbung...

sehr einfach zu verstehen	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	sehr schwierig zu verstehen
macht keinen Sinn	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	macht Sinn

Und inwieweit stimmen Sie den folgenden Aussagen zu?

stimme gar nicht zu stimme voll zu

Ich bin überrascht, dass diese Marke so beworben wird.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Man würde solch eine Werbung von dieser Marke erwarten.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Es war nicht vorhersehbar, dass diese Marke so eine Werbung hat.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Weiter

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56% ausgefüllt

Aus welchem Land, denken Sie, kommt RONDO?

Kolumbien	☐ weiß ich nicht
--	---

Weiter

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Comment 1: "Kolumbien" was inserted for the purpose of demonstration (see next page)

Comment 2: additional question not used in the present research

63% ausgefüllt

Wie sicher sind Sie sich dieser Einschätzung?

Ich glaube nicht, dass ich das Herkunftsland der Marke richtig identifiziert habe.

Ich bin mir nicht sicher, dass ich weiß woher diese Marke kommt.

Ich glaube, dass ich das Herkunftsland der Marke richtig identifiziert habe.

Ich bin mir sicher, dass ich weiß woher diese Marke kommt.

Wie denken Sie über Kolumbien?

Ich fühle mich sehr mit Kolumbien verbunden.
Ich habe eine sehr positive Meinung von Kolumbien.

überhaupt nicht voll und ganz

Segment	1	2	3	4	5	6
überhaupt nicht	1	2	3	4	5	6
voll und ganz	1	2	3	4	5	6

Weiter

Christine Milchram, Zentrum für Betriebswirtschaft, Universität Wien

Comment 1: “Kolumbien” was automatically inserted depending on the answer to the question asking for the COO (see previous page).

Comment 2: additional questions not used in the present research

69% ausgefüllt

Ihre Meinung zu österreichischen und globalen Marken im Allgemeinen

Wie sehr stimmen Sie den folgenden Aussagen über österreichische Erzeugnisse zu?

Oesterreicher sollten keine ausländischen Produkte kaufen, denn das schadet der heimischen Wirtschaft und erhöht die Arbeitslosigkeit.

Ich bevorzuge immer österreichische Produkte statt ausländischen Produkten.

Ein wahrer Österreicher sollte stets österreichische Produkte kaufen.

Es ist nicht richtig ausländische Produkte zu kaufen, weil dadurch Arbeitsplätze in Österreich gefährdet werden.

Wir sollten stets in Österreich hergestellte Waren kaufen und nicht andere Länder reicher machen.

stimme gar
nicht zu

Wie stehen Sie zu Österreich?

Österreicher(in) zu sein bedeutet mir viel.

Ich bin stolz, Österreicher(in) zu sein.

Wenn Österreich von jemandem aus einem anderen Land gelobt wird, empfinde ich dies als ein persönliches Kompliment.

Ich fühle keine Verbundenheit zu Österreich.

The diagram shows a wedge-shaped object, shaded in grey, resting on a horizontal surface. Below the surface is a grid of 20 small circles arranged in 4 rows and 5 columns. The circles are arranged in a way that suggests a perspective or a specific spatial relationship to the object above.

Weiter

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75% ausgefüllt

Inwieweit stimmen Sie folgenden Aussagen zu?

	stimme gar nicht zu	stimme voll zu
Ich finde es wertvoll, Zugang zu Produkten aus aller Welt zu haben.	☐	☐
Die Erhältlichkeit von ausländischen Produkten am einheimischen Markt bietet eine wertvolle Vielfalt.	☐	☐
Ich mag es sehr, eine große Auswahl an Produkten aus verschiedenen Ländern zu haben.	☐	☐
Immer dieselben einheimischen Produkte zu kaufen wird mit der Zeit langweilig.	☐	☐
Während meiner Reisen versuche ich bewusst, mit der lokalen Kultur in Berührung zu kommen.	☐	☐
Ich begrüße die Möglichkeit, Menschen aus verschiedenen Ländern zu treffen.	☐	☐
Ich pflege viel Kontakt zu Menschen aus anderen Kulturen.	☐	☐
Ich habe großes Interesse an anderen Ländern.	☐	☐
Ich sehe gerne ausländische Filme.	☐	☐
Ich höre gerne Musik aus anderen Ländern.	☐	☐
Ich probiere gerne ausländische Speisen.	☐	☐
Ich probiere gerne Dinge aus, die anderswo auf der Welt konsumiert werden.	☐	☐

Weiter

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81% ausgefüllt

Und wie denken Sie über folgende Aussagen?

	stimme gar nicht zu	stimme voll zu
Mein Herz gehört der ganzen Welt.	☐	☐
Ich denke die Menschen sollten mehr darauf aufmerksam gemacht werden, wie verbunden wir mit dem Rest der Welt sind.	☐	☐
Ich sehe mich selbst als Weltbürger.	☐	☐
Ich interessiere mich für globale Ereignisse.	☐	☐
Ich bin stolz darauf, Weltbürger zu sein	☐	☐
Ich fühle mich als Teil von etwas Größerem (und nicht nur als Bürger Österreichs).	☐	☐
Ich fühle mich als Teil einer globalen Konsumentengruppe.	☐	☐

Inwieweit treffen folgende Aussagen auf Ihre Einstellung zu globalen Marken zu?

	stimme gar nicht zu	stimme voll zu
Globale Marken zu kaufen, gibt mir das Gefühl, ein Weltbürger zu sein.	☐	☐
Indem ich globale Marken kaufe, fühle ich mich als Teil von etwas Größerem.	☐	☐
Globale Marken zu kaufen, gibt mir das Gefühl, Teil einer globalen Konsumkultur zu sein.	☐	☐

Weiter

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Abschließende Fragen zu Kaffee

Welche Bedeutung hat Kaffee für Sie?

[illegible]

Weiter



Bitte machen Sie zum Schluss noch einige Angaben zu Ihrer Person.
(ausschließlich für statistische Zwecke)

Alter:

Geschlecht:

Höchste abgeschlossene Schulbildung:

- ☐ Grundschule
- ☐ Pflichtschule
- ☐ Lehre / Fachschule
- ☐ Matura
- ☐ Universität / FH
- ☐ Sonstiges

Beruf:

- ☐ StudentIn/SchülerIn
- ☐ Erwerbstätig
- ☐ Arbeitslos
- ☐ In Pension
- ☐ Sonstiges

Monatliches Nettoeinkommen:

- ☐ weniger als € 650,-
- ☐ € 650,- bis € 1149,-
- ☐ € 1150,- bis € 1899,-
- ☐ € 1900,- bis € 2500,-
- ☐ mehr als € 2500,-

Mein Wohnort befindet sich in ...

Staatsbürgerschaft:

Wenn Sie nicht in Österreich geboren sind:

Seit wie vielen Jahren leben Sie schon in Österreich?

Weiter

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Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme!!

Ich würde mich freuen, wenn Sie den Link weiterleiteten oder auf Ihrer Facebook-Seite posten!

<https://www.soscurvey.de/rondo2012/>

(Die Daten wurden vollständig übertragen, Sie können das Fenster schließen.)



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Appendix D: Moderated Regression Analyses (H2, H3, H4)

Hypothesis 2

Predictors	Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ⁹			Coefficients				
			F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
LCCP CET LCCP* CET	Perceived Quality	,018	2,416	,066	,006	2,543	,112	constant	4,480	,048		,000
								LCCP	,055	,026	,106	,032
								CET	-,008	,031	-,013	,788
								LCCPxCET	,027	,017	,079	,112
	Attitude (Ad)	,015	2,023	,110	,002	,835	,361	constant	4,571	,068		,000
								LCCP	,066	,037	,089	,074
								CET	,063	,045	,070	,160
								LCCPxCET	,022	,024	,045	,361
	Attitude (Brand)	,012	1,598	,189	,007	2,738	,099	constant	4,270	,040		,000
								LCCP	,025	,022	,058	,245
								CET	-,022	,026	-,041	,409
								LCCPxCET	,023	,014	,082	,099
	Purchase Intention	,049	6,886	,000	,010	4,197	,041	constant	23,290	1,240		,000
								LCCP	2,499	,670	,182	,000
								CET	1,269	,816	,076	,121
								LCCPxCET	,892	,436	,100	,041
LCCP NID LCCP* NID	Perceived Quality	,013	1,724	,161	,000	,132	,717	constant	4,480	,048		,000
								LCCP	,054	,026	,104	,038
								NID	,019	,028	,033	,502
								LCCP x NID	,005	,015	,018	,717
	Attitude (Ad)	,035	4,907	,002	,001	,262	,609	constant	4,571	,068		,000
								LCCP	,059	,037	,080	,106
								NID	,131	,039	,164	,001
								LCCP x NID	,011	,021	,025	,609
	Attitude (Brand)	,022	3,002	,030	,006	2,398	,122	constant	4,267	,040		,000
								LCCP	,021	,022	,048	,335
								NID	,054	,023	,115	,021
								LCCP x NID	,019	,012	,077	,122
	Purchase Intention	,061	8,622	,000	,004	1,596	,207	constant	23,250	1,234		,000
								LCCP	2,366	,668	,172	,000
								NID	2,270	,716	,154	,002
								LCCP x NID	,482	,382	,061	,207

⁹ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Predictors	Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹⁰			Coefficients				
			F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
LCCP COS LCCP* COS	Perceived Quality	,018	2,463	,062	,007	2,768	,097	constant	4,480	,048		,000
								LCCP	,054	,026	,105	,036
								COS	-,002	,049	-,002	,967
								LCCPxCOS	-,042	,025	-,082	,097
	Attitude (Ad)	,009	1,213	,305	,001	,313	,576	constant	4,571	,069		,000
								LCCP	,067	,037	,090	,073
								COS	,017	,070	,012	,811
								LCCPxCOS	-,020	,036	-,028	,576
	Attitude (Brand)	,015	1,979	,117	,005	1,918	,167	constant	4,270	,040		,000
								LCCP	,025	,022	,058	,246
								COS	,067	,041	,081	,103
								LCCPxCOS	-,029	,021	-,069	,167
	Purchase Intention	,058	8,192	,000	,020	8,427	,004	constant	23,263	1,235		,000
								LCCP	2,494	,667	,181	,000
								COS	1,732	1,266	,066	,172
								LCCPxCOS	-1,894	,653	-,141	,004
LCCP GID LCCP* GID	Perceived Quality	,018	2,376	,070	,006	2,390	,123	constant	4,483	,048		,000
								LCCP	,057	,026	,109	,028
								GID	-,026	,039	-,034	,507
								LCCPxGID	-,034	,022	-,078	,123
	Attitude (Ad)	,010	1,363	,254	,002	,617	,433	constant	4,574	,068		,000
								LCCP	,068	,037	,092	,066
								GID	-,034	,056	-,031	,548
								LCCPxGID	-,025	,031	-,040	,433
	Attitude (Brand)	,005	,709	,547	,000	,099	,753	constant	4,271	,040		,000
								LCCP	,025	,022	,057	,257
								GID	,025	,033	,038	,452
								LCCPxGID	-,006	,019	-,016	,753
	Purchase Intention	,051	7,161	,000	,007	3,062	,081	constant	23,394	1,240		,000
								LCCP	2,512	,670	,183	,000
								GID	1,665	1,008	,082	,099
								LCCPxGID	-,996	,569	-,087	,081

¹⁰ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Predictors	Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹¹			Coefficients				
			F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
LCCP BGC LCCP* BGC	Perceived Quality	,026	3,506	,015	,001	,221	,638	constant	4,481	,047		,000
								LCCP	,055	,026	,107	,032
								BGC	,068	,028	,119	,017
								LCCPxBGC	,007	,015	,023	,638
	Attitude (Ad)	,027	3,657	,013	,004	1,712	,191	constant	4,573	,068		,000
								LCCP	,065	,037	,087	,079
								BGC	,095	,041	,116	,019
								LCCPxBGC	-,029	,022	-,065	,191
	Attitude (Brand)	,027	3,653	,013	,001	,498	,481	constant	4,271	,040		,000
								LCCP	,024	,022	,055	,265
								BGC	,071	,024	,147	,003
								LCCPxBGC	-,009	,013	-,035	,481
	Purchase Intention	,065	9,222	,000	,000	,037	,847	constant	23,341	1,230		,000
								LCCP	2,497	,665	,182	,000
								BGC	2,662	,735	,176	,000
								LCCPxBGC	-,076	,396	-,009	,847

Hypothesis 3

Predictors	Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹²			Coefficients				
			F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
FCCP CET FCCP* CET	Perceived Quality	,001	,155	,926	,000	,005	,944	constant	4,481	,048		,000
								FCCP	,015	,023	,032	,529
								CET	-,008	,032	-,012	,804
								FCCPxCET	-,001	,015	-,004	,944
	Attitude (Ad)	,007	,908	,437	,001	,447	,504	constant	4,573	,069		,000
								FCCP	,017	,033	,025	,613
								CET	,066	,045	,073	,144
								FCCPxCET	,014	,021	,033	,504
	Attitude (Brand)	,006	,749	,523	,002	,633	,427	constant	4,271	,040		,000
								FCCP	,018	,019	,047	,346
								CET	-,020	,027	-,038	,449
								FCCPxCET	,010	,012	,040	,427
	Purchase Intention	,007	,905	,439	,000	,075	,785	constant	23,333	1,268		,000
								FCCP	,303	,611	,025	,620
								CET	1,284	,835	,077	,125
								FCCPxCET	-,107	,390	-,014	,785

¹¹ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

¹² change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Predictors	Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹³			Coefficients				
			F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
FCCP NID FCCP* NID	Perceived Quality	,003	,440	,725	,001	,333	,564	constant	4,481	,048		,000
								FCCP	,013	,023	,029	,569
								NID	,021	,028	,037	,455
								FCCP×NID	,008	,013	,029	,564
	Attitude (Ad)	,030	4,080	,007	,001	,386	,535	constant	4,574	,068		,000
								FCCP	,015	,033	,023	,649
								NID	,135	,039	,169	,001
								FCCP×NID	-,012	,019	-,031	,535
	Attitude (Brand)	,016	2,120	,097	,000	,006	,937	constant	4,271	,040		,000
								FCCP	,018	,019	,046	,356
								NID	,054	,023	,115	,021
								FCCP×NID	-,001	,011	-,004	,937
	Purchase Intention	,027	3,693	,012	,000	,024	,877	constant	23,353	1,255		,000
								FCCP	,236	,606	,019	,697
								NID	2,398	,728	,163	,001
								FCCP×NID	-,054	,348	-,008	,877
FCCP COS FCCP* COS	Perceived Quality	,002	,226	,878	,001	,250	,617	constant	4,479	,048		,000
								FCCP	,016	,023	,035	,495
								COS	-,002	,051	-,002	,968
								FCCP×COS	,011	,022	,026	,617
	Attitude (Ad)	,001	,179	,910	,001	,274	,601	constant	4,568	,069		,000
								FCCP	,017	,033	,026	,610
								COS	,019	,073	,013	,795
								FCCP×COS	,017	,032	,027	,601
	Attitude (Brand)	,008	1,130	,337	,000	,191	,662	constant	4,269	,041		,000
								FCCP	,016	,020	,041	,414
								COS	,067	,043	,080	,120
								FCCP×COS	,008	,019	,023	,662
	Purchase Intention	,013	1,694	,168	,008	3,391	,066	constant	23,081	1,272		,000
								FCCP	,273	,615	,022	,657
								COS	2,172	1,344	,083	,107
								FCCP×COS	1,088	,591	,095	,066

¹³ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Predic- tors	Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹⁴			Coefficients				
			F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
FCCP GID FCCP* GID	Perceived Quality	,003	,421	,738	,002	,793	,374	constant	4,483	,048		,000
								FCCP	,016	,023	,035	,490
								GID	-,010	,038	-,013	,802
								FCCP×GID	,015	,017	,045	,374
	Attitude (Ad)	,003	,405	,749	,002	,828	,363	constant	4,574	,069		,000
								FCCP	,018	,033	,028	,583
								GID	-,020	,055	-,018	,715
								FCCP×GID	,022	,025	,046	,363
	Attitude (Brand)	,005	,645	,587	,000	,163	,686	constant	4,271	,040		,000
								FCCP	,020	,020	,052	,302
								GID	,029	,032	,045	,364
								FCCP×GID	,006	,015	,020	,686
	Purchase Intention	,020	2,661	,048	,008	3,125	,078	constant	23,409	1,260		,000
								FCCP	,405	,608	,033	,506
								GID	2,179	1,002	,108	,030
								FCCP×GID	,800	,452	,088	,078
FCCP BGC FCCP* BGC	Perceived Quality	,019	2,567	,054	,004	1,831	,177	constant	4,487	,048		,000
								FCCP	,007	,023	,015	,764
								BGC	,067	,028	,117	,019
								FCCP×BGC	-,018	,013	-,067	,177
	Attitude (Ad)	,016	2,112	,098	,001	,321	,571	constant	4,570	,068		,000
								FCCP	,012	,033	,018	,723
								BGC	,098	,041	,119	,017
								FCCP×BGC	,011	,019	,028	,571
	Attitude (Brand)	,024	3,237	,022	,000	,038	,846	constant	4,272	,040		,000
								FCCP	,014	,019	,036	,475
								BGC	,071	,024	,146	,003
								FCCP×BGC	-,002	,011	-,010	,846
	Purchase Intention	,032	4,344	,005	,000	,000	,988	constant	23,350	1,256		,000
								FCCP	,103	,608	,008	,865
								BGC	2,680	,749	,177	,000
								FCCP×BGC	,005	,354	,001	,988

¹⁴ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Hypothesis 4

Predictors	Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹⁵			Coefficients				
			F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
GCCP CET GCCP* CET	Perceived Quality	,039	5,351	,001	,001	,589	,443	constant	4,483	,047		,000
								GCCP	,094	,024	,192	,000
								CET	-,015	,031	-,023	,636
								GCCPxCET	-,012	,016	-,038	,443
	Attitude (Ad)	,111	16,606	,000	,003	1,420	,234	constant	4,576	,065		,000
								GCCP	,224	,033	,320	,000
								CET	,048	,043	,054	,258
								GCCPxCET	-,026	,021	-,056	,234
	Attitude (Brand)	,048	6,743	,000	,000	,000	,991	constant	4,271	,040		,000
								GCCP	,089	,020	,216	,000
								CET	-,027	,026	-,051	,300
								GCCPxCET	,000	,013	-,001	,991
	Purchase Intention	,072	8,035	,000	,001	,246	,620	constant	23,371	1,236		,000
								GCCP	2,897	,628	,224	,000
								CET	1,106	,814	,066	,175
								GCCPxCET	-,203	,409	-,024	,620
GCCP NID GCCP* NID	Perceived Quality	,039	5,358	,001	,001	,359	,550	constant	4,483	,047		,000
								GCCP	,092	,024	,189	,000
								NID	,019	,027	,034	,488
								GCCPxNID	-,008	,013	-,029	,550
	Attitude (Ad)	,131	20,100	,000	,002	,863	,353	constant	4,575	,064		,000
								GCCP	,220	,033	,315	,000
								NID	,128	,037	,160	,001
								GCCPxNID	-,017	,018	-,043	,353
	Attitude (Brand)	,057	8,129	,000	,000	,000	,988	constant	4,271	,039		,000
								GCCP	,086	,020	,210	,000
								NID	,051	,023	,109	,025
								GCCPxNID	,000	,011	-,001	,988
	Purchase Intention	,076	10,943	,000	,000	,028	,868	constant	23,346	1,223		,000
								GCCP	2,877	,623	,223	,000
								NID	2,282	,710	,155	,001
								GCCPxNID	,057	,345	,008	,868

¹⁵ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Predic- tors	Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹⁶			Coefficients				
			F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
GCCP COS GCCP* COS	Perceived Quality	,037	5,146	,002	,000	,026	,872	constant	4,481	,047		,000
								GCCP	,094	,024	,193	,000
								COS	-,017	,050	-,017	,732
								GCCPxCOS	,004	,024	,008	,872
	Attitude (Ad)	,107	16,005	,000	,003	1,136	,287	constant	4,567	,065		,000
								GCCP	,225	,033	,321	,000
								COS	-,004	,069	-,003	,955
								GCCPxCOS	,035	,033	,052	,287
	Attitude (Brand)	,053	7,462	,000	,003	1,445	,230	constant	4,267	,040		,000
								GCCP	,084	,020	,205	,000
								COS	,065	,042	,078	,120
								GCCPxCOS	,024	,020	,060	,230
	Purchase Intention	,063	8,989	,000	,009	4,022	,046	constant	23,164	1,235		,000
								GCCP	2,821	,629	,218	,000
								COS	1,820	1,306	,070	,164
								GCCPxCOS	1,264	,630	,100	,046
GCCP GID GCCP* GID	Perceived Quality	,038	5,238	,001	,001	,297	,586	constant	4,481	,047		,000
								GCCP	,094	,024	,192	,000
								GID	-,013	,038	-,017	,730
								GCCPxGID	,010	,017	,027	,586
	Attitude (Ad)	,110	16,558	,000	,005	2,374	,124	constant	4,570	,065		,000
								GCCP	,227	,033	,324	,000
								GID	-,024	,052	-,022	,639
								GCCPxGID	,037	,024	,073	,124
	Attitude (Brand)	,061	8,694	,000	,014	6,056	,014	constant	4,268	,039		,000
								GCCP	,088	,020	,213	,000
								GID	,031	,031	,047	,330
								GCCPxGID	,036	,015	,120	,014
	Purchase Intention	,074	10,631	,000	,012	5,242	,023	constant	23,278	1,224		,000
								GCCP	2,909	,622	,225	,000
								GID	2,200	,976	,109	,025
								GCCPxGID	1,038	,453	,111	,023

¹⁶ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Predictors	Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹⁷			Coefficients				
			F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
GCCP BGC GCCP* BGC	Perceived Quality	,047	,000	,003	6,525	,000b	,954	constant	4,482	,047		,000
								GCCP	,089	,024	,182	,000
								BGC	,057	,028	,100	,042
								GCCPxBGC	-,001	,014	-,003	,954
	Attitude (Ad)	,112	16,894	,000	,000	,019	,891	constant	4,574	,065		,000
								GCCP	,220	,033	,314	,000
								BGC	,074	,039	,090	,058
								GCCPxBGC	-,003	,019	-,006	,891
	Attitude (Brand)	,065	9,286	,000	,003	1,250	,264	constant	4,267	,039		,000
								GCCP	,083	,020	,203	,000
								BGC	,062	,023	,129	,008
								GCCPxBGC	,013	,011	,054	,264
	Purchase Intention	,083	12,043	,000	,007	2,977	,085	constant	23,159	1,223		,000
								GCCP	2,776	,622	,215	,000
								BGC	2,357	,730	,155	,001
								GCCPxBGC	,606	,351	,083	,085

¹⁷ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Appendix E: Moderated Regression Analyses (H7-H10)

Hypothesis 7

Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹⁸			Coefficients				
		F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
Perceived Quality	,074	4,772	,000	,003	,513	,599	constant	4,464	,094		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	-,063	,115	-,031	,583
							ease of understanding	,084	,088	,120	,341
							meaningfulness	,153	,065	,270	,020
							incongruity * ease of understanding	-,024	,104	-,029	,818
							incongruity * meaningfulness	-,059	,080	-,086	,463
Attitude (Ad)	,207	15,578	,000	,017	3,136	,045	constant	4,538	,128		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	-,082	,157	-,027	,602
							ease of understanding	,302	,120	,293	,013
							meaningfulness	,362	,089	,433	,000
							incongruity * ease of understanding	-,173	,142	-,144	,224
							incongruity * meaningfulness	-,139	,109	-,138	,205
Attitude (Brand)	,041	2,574	,027	,008	1,210	,300	constant	4,176	,081		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	,081	,099	,047	,413
							ease of understanding	,083	,076	,140	,276
							meaningfulness	,109	,057	,228	,054
							incongruity * ease of understanding	-,062	,090	-,089	,493
							incongruity * meaningfulness	-,059	,069	-,102	,393
Purchase Intention	,025	1,530	,180	,004	,544	,581	constant	23,150	2,512		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	-,873	3,075	-,016	,777
							ease of understanding	3,720	2,361	,204	,116
							meaningfulness	,641	1,750	,043	,715
							incongruity * ease of understanding	-1,267	2,784	-,060	,649
							incongruity * meaningfulness	-1,238	2,137	-,070	,563

¹⁸ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Hypothesis 8

Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ¹⁹			Coefficients				
		F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
Perceived Quality	,300	42,948	,000	,010	4,425	,036	constant	4,364	,082		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	,072	,101	,035	,474
							brand credibility	,515	,070	,719	,000
							incongruity * brand credibility	-,170	,081	-,203	,036
Attitude (Ad)	,178	21,679	,000	,002	,751	,387	constant	4,519	,132		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	-,039	,161	-,013	,810
							brand credibility	,524	,112	,496	,000
							incongruity * brand credibility	-,112	,129	-,091	,387
Attitude (Brand)	,196	24,343	,000	,005	2,049	,153	constant	4,116	,075		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	,170	,091	,098	,064
							brand credibility	,347	,064	,570	,000
							incongruity * brand credibility	-,105	,073	-,148	,153
Purchase Intention	,069	7,403	,000	,012	3,988	,047	constant	21,798	2,478		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	,713	3,023	,013	,814
							brand credibility	8,061	2,100	,432	,000
							incongruity * brand credibility	-4,845	2,426	-,222	,047

¹⁹ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Hypothesis 9

Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ²⁰			Coefficients				
		F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
Perceived Quality	,017	1,730	,161	,001	,171	,679	constant	4,511	,095		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	-,126	,117	-,062	,281
							product category involvement	-,040	,050	-,079	,424
							incongruity * product category involvement	-,025	,061	-,041	,679
Attitude (Ad)	,022	2,264	,081	,002	,617	,433	constant	4,664	,140		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	-,243	,172	-,081	,158
							product category involvement	,134	,074	,179	,071
							incongruity * product category involvement	-,071	,090	-,078	,433
Attitude (Brand)	,007	,665	,574	,005	1,481	,225	constant	4,212	,081		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	,038	,099	,022	,700
							product category involvement	,058	,043	,134	,179
							incongruity * product category involvement	-,064	,052	-,121	,225
Purchase Intention	,030	3,125	,026	,008	2,439	,119	constant	23,978	2,455		,000
							ad-brand incongruity	-1,927	3,019	-,036	,524
							product category involvement	3,561	1,297	,270	,006
							incongruity * product category involvement	-2,481	1,589	-,154	,119

²⁰ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Hypothesis 10

Outcome	R ²	ANOVA		Change Statistics ²¹			Coefficients				
		F-ratio	Sig.	R ² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change		b	SE	β	Sig.
Perceived Quality	,004	,386	,763	,000	,012	,913	constant	4,512	,096		,000
							incongruity	-,126	,118	-,062	,285
							perceived risk	,009	,045	,018	,851
							incongruity * perceived risk	-,006	,057	-,011	,913
Attitude (Ad)	,012	1,179	,318	,002	,459	,498	constant	4,684	,141		,000
							incongruity	-,266	,173	-,088	,126
							perceived risk	,077	,067	,111	,252
							incongruity * perceived risk	-,056	,083	-,065	,498
Attitude (Brand)	,006	,638	,591	,005	1,577	,210	constant	4,220	,081		,000
							incongruity	,034	,100	,020	,731
							perceived risk	,028	,038	,072	,460
							incongruity * perceived risk	-,060	,048	-,121	,210
Purchase Intention	,015	1,533	,206	,010	3,049	,082	constant	24,272	2,487		,000
							incongruity	-2,046	3,055	-,039	,503
							perceived risk	,911	1,176	,075	,439
							incongruity * perceived risk	-2,559	1,466	-,168	,082

²¹ change in model parameters as a result of the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression model

Appendix F: Deutsche Zusammenfassung

Die vorliegende Masterarbeit erforscht kulturelle Werbepositionierungen und die Inkongruenz zwischen Werbung und Marke in ihrer Wirkung auf die Markenwahrnehmung durch Konsumenten. Lokale, ausländische und globale Werbepositionierung stellen eine Marke in Verbindung mit einer spezifischen lokalen, ausländischen oder globalen Konsumentenkultur dar. Eine Inkongruenz zwischen Werbung und Marke tritt dann auf, wenn eine solcherart positionierte Werbung auf eine schon bestehende Wahrnehmung der Marke als lokale, ausländische oder globale Marke trifft. Die Auswirkungen auf die Markenwahrnehmung werden experimentell unter Manipulierung der kulturellen Positionierung und der Inkongruenz zwischen Werbung und Marke untersucht. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass globale Positionierung im Vergleich zu lokaler und ausländischer Positionierung zu einer positiveren Einstellung zu Werbung und Marke führt. Insbesondere kosmopolitische Konsumenten mit einer ausgeprägten globalen Identität und dem Glauben an eine ‚global citizenship‘ geben eine hohe Kaufwahrscheinlichkeit an, wenn die Marke als weltweit verfügbar und als weltweit konsumiert dargestellt wird. Ethnozentrische Konsumenten mit einer schwachen globalen Identität kaufen hingegen eher eine Marke, die mit typischen lokalen Werten in Zusammenhang gebracht und in einem lokalen Konsum-Kontext dargestellt wird. Sind die a-priori Markenwahrnehmung und die Werbepositionierung inkongruent, kann die Werbung eine erhöhte Aufmerksamkeit auf sich ziehen. Eine solche Inkongruenz hat jedoch im Vergleich zu einer kongruenten Werbung höchstwahrscheinlich eine weniger positive Einstellung zur Marke zur Folge. Die Arbeit leistet einen Beitrag zur bestehenden Literatur, indem die Auswirkungen von lokaler, ausländischer und globaler Werbepositionierung auf die Markenwahrnehmung verglichen werden. Zusätzlich dazu zeigen die Ergebnisse, dass Brand Manager kulturelle Werbepositionierungen eher in Übereinstimmung mit einer bestehenden Wahrnehmung als lokale, ausländische oder globale Marke anwenden sollten.

Appendix G: Curriculum Vitae

Christine Milchram, B.A.

Personal Information: born June 7th, 1987; Austrian nationality

Education:

- since Oct 2008 **University of Vienna, Master's programme International Business Administration**, focussed on: Int. Management and Int. Marketing
Thesis: Consumer Culture Positioning in Advertising and Ad-Brand Incongruity: Does it impact Brand Perceptions?
- Sep-Dec 2011 Joint-Study: John Molson School of Business, Concordia University, Montréal, Canada
- 2005-2008 **University of Applied Sciences Eisenstadt, Bachelor's programme International Business Relations**, A-7000 Eiseentadt
Degree: B.A. (passed with distinction)
- Sep 07-Jan 08 Erasmus: Waterford Institute of Technology, Waterford, Ireland
- 1997-2005 **Grammar School of the Viennese diocese in Sachsenbrunn**, A-2880 Kirchberg am Wechsel, focussed on: foreign languages, A-levels passed with distinction
-

Professional Experience:

- Mar-Jun 2012; **University of Vienna, Chair of International Marketing**
Oct 2010-Jun Bruenner Straße 72, A-1210 Vienna
2011 Student Assistant
- May-Aug & **3M Österreich GmbH**, Brunner Feldstraße 63, A-2380 Perchtoldsdorf
Feb-Mar 2010 Full- and part-time employments in the divisions Library Systems and Health Care and Occupational Health
- Jan-Jun 2009 **Henkel CEE GmbH, SBU Body/Oral/Skin**, Erdbergstraße 29, A-1030 Vienna
Internship in the CEE brand management of Schwarzkopf&Henkel Colorations
Managing of the artwork process for multilingual packages
Preparation of market analyses
- Mar-Sep 2008 **Škoda Auto a.s., Tř. V. Klementa 699, 293 60 Mladá Boleslav, Czech Republic**
Internship in the department Marketing/International Sales Strategy in the International Training Team; Organisation and coordination of product and sales trainings for importers world-wide
-

Languages:

German (mother tongue)
English (C1, CAE, TOEFL iBT score: 115)
French (B1)
Russian (A2)
Czech (A2)
