

Drivers of Brand Commitment: A Cross-National Investigation

Andreas B. Eisingerich and Gaia Rubera

ABSTRACT

Firms increasingly employ global brand management strategies for the effective coordination of their global activities. Effective coordination requires adapting global brand management strategies to cultural nuances. This study examines the influence of culture on the impact of four key brand management elements (i.e., brand innovativeness, brand customer orientation, brand self-relevance, and social responsibility) on customer commitment to a brand. Using responses from 167 U.K. and 230 Chinese consumers, the authors empirically demonstrate that brand innovativeness and brand self-relevance have a greater effect on brand commitment in cultures that are individualist, short-term oriented, and low on power distance (i.e., the United Kingdom), while brand customer orientation and social responsibility have a greater impact on brand commitment in cultures that are collectivist, long-term oriented, and high on power distance (i.e., China). Furthermore, the findings reveal that in collectivist, long-term-oriented, and high-power-distance cultures, the four brand management activities equally contribute to brand commitment. The research informs global brand managers wanting to optimize brand positioning and strengthen customers' brand commitment across cultures.

Keywords: brand commitment, global brand management, brand innovativeness, customer orientation, social responsibility

Brands play a critical role in developing customer relationships and determining firm performance (Rao, Agarwal, and Dahlhoff 2004; Schau, Muñoz, and Arnould 2009; Sprott, Czellar, and Spangenberg 2009). Scholars contend that global brands are attractive for firms because they enhance economies of scale and scope in manufacturing and research-and-development activities (Özsomer and Altaras 2008; Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008b). Previous research has also suggested that global brands not only take advantage of cost economies but also realize value from being global (Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004;

Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden 2003). However, although global brands can be attractive from a cost perspective, their relevance to consumers is not always clear.

Some scholars argue that consumers might have negative reactions toward a global brand that does not take into account local specificities (Cayla and Arnould 2008). When brands reflect differences in local culture, they are more likely to develop strong customer relationships across a range of geographic regions (Batra et al. 2000; Craig and Douglas 2000; Eckhardt 2005). Central to this argument is the notion that through an appreciation of cultural differences in the global econ-

Andreas B. Eisingerich is Assistant Professor of Marketing, Imperial College Business School, Imperial College London (e-mail: a.eisingerich@imperial.ac.uk).

Gaia Rubera is Assistant Professor of Marketing, The Eli Broad College of Business, Michigan State University (e-mail: rubera@bus.msu.edu).

Journal of International Marketing

©2010, American Marketing Association

Vol. 18, No. 2, 2010, pp. 64–79

ISSN 1069-0031X (print) 1547-7215 (electronic)

omy, a higher degree of localization is possible, which leads to more profitable customer relationships over time (Cayla and Arnould 2008; Douglas and Craig 1997; Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008a).

Prior research has noted that the management of global brands is not without risks (Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Schuiling and Kapferer 2004). To identify meaningful and more effective brand positioning strategies, brand managers need to consider cultural differences in global markets (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 1999; Cayla and Arnould 2008; Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Hsieh 2002). We examine the effectiveness of brand innovativeness, customer orientation, self-relevance, and social responsibility in global markets given their importance in brand management and their ability to influence consumer commitment toward a brand. As such, in this work, we attempt to make three specific contributions to the international marketing literature in relation to global brand management.

First, we advance current understanding of brand management and customer–brand relationships by integrating the diverse literature on international marketing, brand management, and consumer behavior to understand the connection between global brand management decisions and customer brand commitment more effectively. This is important because it provides a more holistic framework for understanding challenges associated with effective global brand management strategies (Cayla and Arnould 2008; Fournier 1998; Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis 1986).

Second, we examine how cultural dimensions, such as individualism, long-term orientation, and power distance (Hofstede 1980, 2001), influence the effectiveness of brands' innovativeness, customer orientation, self-relevance, and socially responsible behavior in building deeper customer–brand relationships. This is critical because global brand managers must understand how cultural nuances influence individual branding elements so that they can emphasize brand characteristics effectively in different countries.

Third, we provide managerial recommendations related to effective brand positioning across different cultural contexts. Prior research has highlighted the increasing managerial focus on maximizing brands' value through deeper customer–brand relationships worldwide (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 1999; Hsieh 2002; Schau, Muñoz, and Arnould 2009). We show that the four main ways

the literature identifies as being able to improve the customer–brand relationship are not universal: Some brand traits work in some specific cultural contexts; others work in different cultural contexts.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Brand Management in a Global World: Connecting Brands and Customers

Brand management is a complex set of activities that involve managing relationships with customers and other stakeholders, while accounting for a firm's own past actions and reputation and competitors' actions, in an effort to build a strong image that wins consumers' commitment to a product or a line of products (Shocker, Srivastava, and Ruekert 1994). Keller (1993) argues that companies use brands to establish deep relationships with their customers. More of note is the argument that it is through brand management decisions related to brand elements that firms relate to consumers. Two theoretical perspectives are relevant to understand how managers can influence consumers' perceptions of their brands to increase brand commitment.

First, the principle of self–brand connections has gained wide acceptance in the literature (Chaplin and John 2005; Kleine, Kleine, and Allen 1995). Prior research has demonstrated that people choose brands that are congruent with their self-concepts (Chaplin and John 2005; Muñoz and O'Guinn 2001; Schau, Muñoz, and Arnould 2009; Wallendorf and Arnould 1988). For example, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003, p. 76) even go so far as to suggest brand–self connections as the basis for “meaningful relationships that marketers are increasingly seeking to build with their customers.” The process of self–brand connections is based on people's comparison of their own defining characteristics, such as values and preferences, with characteristics that define a brand (Chaplin and John 2005; Escalas and Bettman 2005; Fournier 1998; Muñoz and O'Guinn 2001). For example, consumers who define themselves as being innovative are likely to connect with brands that they view as being focused on innovation.

Second, exchange theory argues that people are more likely to reciprocate when an exchange partner is perceived as having made equivalent contributions to the relationship (Bagozzi 1975; Deutsch 1985). The notion of restricted exchange draws attention to a brand's capability to respond to the concerns of its customers as

individual people (Bhattacharya and Sen 2003; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001). For example, if the brand is viewed as being focused on customer needs, individual customers will view the brand as being more involved and thus will reciprocate in kind. Furthermore, the notion of general exchange suggests that people also value a brand's involvement in socially beneficial activities, thus pointing attention to a brand's socially responsible activities (Klein and Dawar 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001). Therefore, an examination of customer-brand relationships needs to consider variables relevant to generalized exchange and dyadic transactions.

Drawing from these two theoretical foundations, we develop a general framework that identifies four brand management elements that serve as antecedents to brand commitment: brand innovativeness and brand self-relevance (which refer to the perceived image of a brand that consumers use to establish self-connections) and customer orientation and social responsibility (which refer to the way the consumers perceive the restricted and general exchange with the brand). In addition to these brand management elements, we account for the influence of national culture, a factor that has substantive influence in brand activities (Cayla and Arnould 2008; Eckhardt and Houston 2002; Guzman and Paswan 2009).

The Role of National Culture

National culture refers to the homogeneity of characteristics that distinguish human groups in terms of norms, values, and institutions. We adopt Hofstede's (2001) framework for two main reasons. First, from a theoretical point of view, this framework is particularly relevant for this study given Hofstede's focus on underlying values that drive attitudes and attitudinal and behavioral aspects that underlie consumer decisions to remain committed to a brand. Second, the use of Hofstede's framework is consistent with prior brand research exploring national culture influences (Hsieh 2002).

Hofstede (2001) specifies five national culture dimensions: individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and long-term orientation. Research consistent with Hofstede's approach employs culture at the nation-state level, thereby linking national culture to country. Although Hofstede denotes five dimensions of culture that can provide insights into each country's values and norms, to maintain parsimony in the theoretical explication of the relationships under study (Griffith, Hu, and Ryans 2000), we test the moderating effect of

only those dimensions that are theoretically linked to the four antecedents of brand commitment presented here or that have received previous empirical support. Therefore, this study does not include Hofstede's dimensions of masculinity (i.e., separation of emotional and social roles of gender within a society) and uncertainty avoidance (i.e., a person's attitude toward risk).

HYPOTHESES

Brand Innovativeness and Customer Commitment Across Cultural Dimensions

We define brand innovativeness as the extent to which consumers perceive brands as being able to provide new and useful solutions to their needs (Schumpeter 1934). Prior work has indicated that consumers interpret the introduction of new products as a signal that the product offers additional advantages over existing alternatives (Mukherjee and Hoyer 2001). To the extent that customers are likely to consider the interests of brands that focus on providing new, relevant solutions to customer needs in line with their own, customers will be more likely to relate to them in a positive manner (Bell and Eisingerich 2007; Eisingerich and Bell 2008; Schau, Muñiz, and Arnould 2009; Shah et al. 2006). As such, the greater the ability of a brand to address a consumer's wants and needs on a continuous basis, the greater is the consumer's commitment to the brand (Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis 1986; Reichheld and Sasser 1990).

However, cultures have different attitudes toward innovativeness (Steenkamp, Ter Hofstede, and Wedel 1999), thus implying that the effect of a brand's innovativeness on a consumer's commitment may vary across cultures. An extensive body of previous studies has argued and empirically demonstrated that innovativeness is positively regarded in individualist cultures, more so than in collectivist societies (Dwyer, Mesak, and Hsu 2005; Steenkamp, Hofstede, and Wedel 1999). The logic underlying this is that in individualist societies, people are expected to perform and cope on their own without relying too much on others (Hofstede 1980). In contrast, people in collectivist societies have larger support networks on which to rely for help. This suggests that individualist cultures should value brand innovativeness, or the provision of novel and useful ways of coping with daily life, more than collectivist societies. As a result, innovative brands should generate greater commitment in individualist than collectivist cultures. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H_{1a}: The positive influence of brands' innovativeness on customer commitment is stronger in individualist than collectivist cultures.

Long-term orientation refers to the extent to which a society exhibits a pragmatic, future-oriented perspective rather than a conventional historic or short-term perspective (Hofstede 1980). Because long-term-oriented cultures value perseverance, thrift, and adaptations of traditions to new circumstances, people are cautious and do not readily accept or adapt to novel ideas and sudden changes (Dwyer, Mesak, and Hsu 2005). Innovation implies the introduction of new processes or products. To the extent that people tend to be more cautious in long-term-oriented cultures, a brand's innovativeness will be more positively valued in short-term-oriented than long-term-oriented cultures. Thus, we predict the following:

H_{1b}: The positive influence of brands' innovativeness on customer commitment is stronger in short-term-oriented than long-term-oriented cultures.

In addition, we argue that a brand's innovativeness has a greater effect on commitment in cultures that are low on power distance than in those that are high on power distance. Specifically, we argue that people from high-power-distance cultures tend to accept and appreciate the status quo and thus do not value innovativeness to the same degree as people from low-power-distance cultures. This is consistent with the existing body of literature, which demonstrates that people from high-power-distance cultures are reluctant to accept or adopt innovations (Van den Bulte and Stremersch 2004; Yenyurt and Townsend 2003). When consumers do not readily accept or appreciate new products, they will be less committed to a brand on the basis of its innovativeness. Accordingly, we hypothesize the following:

H_{1c}: The positive influence of brands' innovativeness on customer commitment is stronger in cultures that are low on power distance than in those that are high on power distance.

Customer Orientation and Commitment Across Cultural Dimensions

Customer orientation refers to the extent to which an organization and the individuals in it focus their efforts on understanding and satisfying customers (Kohli and

Jaworski 1990). A brand's focus on meeting customer needs is likely to affect its relevance to customers positively and strengthen customer-brand relationships. Bagozzi's (1975) work on social exchange indicates that people reciprocate more readily when they perceive an exchange partner as exerting effort on their behalf. Consumers evaluate exchange partners, including firms and brands, according to the level of interpersonal treatment received (Eisingerich, Rubera, and Seifert 2009; Heskett, Sasser, and Schlesinger 1997; Jaworski and Kohli 1993; Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml 1991; Park and MacInnis 2006). Customer orientation communicates to consumers the efforts of a brand and its emphasis on treating customers with empathy and respect. In turn, customers are likely to reciprocate and stay with a brand they perceive as being attentive to their needs (Eisingerich and Kretschmer 2008; Maxham and Netemeyer 2003; Shah et al. 2006; Tuli, Kohli, and Bharadwaj 2007).

Applied to the global context, researchers indicate that culture plays a critical role in influencing the extent to which people trust an exchange partner and are willing to reciprocate (Griffith, Hu, and Ryans 2000). Therefore, the effects of customer orientation may vary across countries with different cultures. Because people in collectivist cultures tend to be more trusting (Griffith, Myers, and Harvey 2006), we argue that consumers in these cultures will value customer orientation more than consumers in individualist cultures. Furthermore, in collectivist societies, after a trust relationship is established, exchange members tend to develop a stronger commitment than in individualist societies (Griffith, Hu, and Ryans 2000). Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H_{2a}: The positive influence of brands' customer orientation on customer commitment is stronger in collectivist than individualist cultures.

Long-term-oriented cultures value thrift and perseverance (Hofstede 1980). Thus, consumers with a long-term orientation should perceive the continuous efforts that a brand demonstrates in being responsive to customer needs as value creation, as customer responsiveness signals a brand's commitment to building strong and lasting relationships (Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis 1986). Griffith, Hu, and Ryans (2000) indicate that trust generates greater commitment in cultures that are high (rather than low) on power distance. Thus, firms that show they care about their customers are likely to benefit from greater brand commitment in countries

high on power distance. In contrast, people in cultures that are low on power distance may simply expect customer orientation on the basis of equality. As Hofstede (1980) notes, people in cultures low on power distance do not accept power being distributed unequally and are more likely to assume that organizations and businesses are customer oriented. On the basis of these arguments, we hypothesize the following:

H_{2b}: The positive influence of brands' customer orientation on customer commitment is stronger in cultures high on power distance than in those low on power distance.

H_{2c}: The positive influence of brands' customer orientation on customer commitment is stronger in long-term-oriented than short-term-oriented cultures.

Brand Self-Relevance and Customer Commitment Across Cultural Dimensions

Prior work has indicated the possibility of connections between brands and consumers' self-concept (Chaplin and John 2005; Eckhardt and Houston 2002; Escalas and Bettman 2005). Self-concept refers to a set of self-schemas or knowledge structures about the self that help people represent, and make sense of, themselves in their environment (Aron, Aron, and Smollan 1992). Bhattacharya and Sen (2003, p. 76) describe the linkages between consumers' self and organizations as the "primary psychological substrate for the kind of deep, committed, and meaningful relationships that marketers are increasingly seeking to build with their consumers." Indeed, previous research has found that consumers' willingness to include brands in their self-concept positively influences their brand-related attitudes and behaviors (Spratt, Czellar, and Spangenberg 2009). Accordingly, Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) argue that consumers develop links between their self-concepts and brands in an effort to separate themselves from others, thus stimulating brand commitment.

Because consumers' need for distinctiveness varies across different cultural norms (Hofstede 1980), the effect of brand self-relevance on brand commitment may vary across cultures. First, we argue that individualist cultures are more sensitive to a brand's self-relevance than collectivist cultures. The logic underlying this is that consumers in individualist cultures wish to separate themselves from others (Hofstede 1980) and use products (or

brands) as a way to signal their identity (Escalas and Bettman 2005; Fournier 1998; Kleine, Kleine, and Allen 1995). Therefore, a brand with a deep connection with a consumer's self-image should be positively evaluated as a way to convey to other consumers his or her identity. In contrast, consumers in collectivist cultures work toward homogeneity with their peers (Hofstede 1980). In these contexts, the community's self-image is more relevant than a person's own self-image, and therefore a brand that establishes a deep connection with a consumer's self-image will be less relevant. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H_{3a}: The positive influence of brands' self-relevance on customer commitment is stronger in individualist than collectivist cultures.

Second, long-term orientation will decrease the effect of a brand's self-relevance on the decision to remain with a brand. Specifically, customers from a long-term-oriented culture are sensitive to keeping face, while short-term-oriented cultures may interpret face consideration as a sign of weakness (Hofstede 2001). We argue that in short-term-oriented cultures, consumers are more sensitive to the type of brands they consume. Consumers do not want to use brands that are not consistent with their own self-image. In contrast, consumers in long-term-oriented cultures are less sensitive and responsive to a brand's relevance to their self and are more concerned about protecting their image in front of others (Hofstede 1980). Thus, we predict the following:

H_{3b}: The positive influence of brands' self-relevance on customer commitment is stronger in short-term-oriented than long-term-oriented cultures.

Third, a brand's self-relevance should be more influential in purchase decisions for consumers in cultures low on power distance than for consumers in cultures high on power distance. Specifically, in high-power-distance cultures, purchase decisions are strongly influenced by opinion leaders: The less powerful are likely to emulate the purchase decisions of people with greater authority (Dwyer, Mesak, and Hsu 2005). We argue that in this context, consumers are more sensitive to the brands that influential people buy than to the relevance of brands to their self-image. In contrast, in cultures low on power distance, consumers are not as sensitive to the purchase decisions of people with power, and thus the influence of self is greater. More formally, we hypothesize the following:

H_{3c}: The positive influence of brands' self-relevance on customer commitment is stronger in cultures low on power distance than in those high on power distance.

Brands' Social Responsibility and Customer Commitment Across Cultural Dimensions

Social responsibility refers to a set of activities that are related to a company's perceived stakeholder and societal obligations (Sen and Bhattacharya 2001). An increasing number of firms in every country are investing a significant amount of money in initiatives and in advertising these in an effort to be perceived as socially responsible (Drumwright 1996; Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig 2004). The idea behind social responsibility initiatives is to generate value for the firm's stakeholders indirectly by generating value for other interest groups, such as employees, the government, and the community in which a firm operates (Porter and Kramer 2006). Social responsibility is considered an important constituent of brand image (Rust, Zeithaml, and Lemon 2000) and an antecedent of consumers' attitudes toward a brand (Berens, Van Riel, and Van Bruggen 2005). To the extent that consumers perceive themselves as being not only economic actors but also members of a broader community (Handelman and Arnold 1999; Nijssen and Douglas 2008), they can be more committed toward brands that are perceived as socially responsible (Bhattacharya and Sen 2003).

Culture is one of the most important variables influencing ethical decision making (Nijssen and Douglas 2008; Rawwas 2001). As such, the efficacy of social responsibility may differ across countries with different cultures. First, we argue that consumers from collectivist cultures place greater value on social responsibility initiatives than consumers from more individualist cultures. Specifically, the positive effects of social responsibility rest on the assumption that people perceive themselves as part of a broader community. Individualist cultures value the short-term betterment of the individual person, while collectivist cultures emphasize the needs of the community and the benefits of consensus (Hofstede 2001). Therefore, consumers in collectivist cultures tend to be more sensitive to socially responsible actions and are more likely to incorporate society's well-being in their purchase decisions because they generate value for the broad community to which they belong. This logic is consistent with Maignan (2001), who finds that French and German consumers are more supportive of

socially responsible firms than U.S. consumers (the United States is more individualist than France and Germany). Accordingly, we predict the following:

H_{4a}: The positive influence of brands' social responsibility on customer commitment is stronger in collectivist than individualist cultures.

Socially responsible firms attempt to build long-term relationships with the wider community in which they operate (Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001). Social responsibility initiatives involve activities related to the environment, poverty, and, more generally, the long-term welfare of a community. For this reason, we argue that social responsibility initiatives have a greater influence on consumers' commitment to a brand in countries whose cultures have long-term (rather than short-term) orientation because consumers in long-term cultures positively value commitments toward initiatives that generate rewards in the long run. In contrast, consumers in short-term-oriented cultures value quick results (Hofstede 2001; Van Everdingen and Waarts 2003). This logic is consistent with Singh, Sanchez, and Bosque's (2008) findings, which indicate that consumers are more concerned about social responsibility initiatives in the United Kingdom than in Spain (the United Kingdom is more long-term oriented than Spain). Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H_{4b}: The positive influence of brands' social responsibility on customer commitment is stronger in long-term-oriented than short-term-oriented cultures.

Second, we argue that socially responsible actions have a greater influence on consumers' commitment to a brand in countries whose cultures are high on power distance than in countries whose cultures are low on power distance. The logic underlying this argument is that consumers in low-power-distance cultures expect firms to be socially responsible (because all members of the society are viewed as needed to work toward equality across groups in the society). Therefore, social responsibility does not have a large influence on consumers' commitment to a brand. However, in high-power-distance cultures, in which firms are viewed as more powerful, social responsibility can be an effective measure for a brand to differentiate itself from competitors because firms are not expected to contribute to the social welfare of society (and, thus, to work toward

minimizing inequalities). Formally, we predict the following:

H_{4c}: The positive influence of brands' social responsibility on customer commitment is stronger in cultures that are high on power distance than in those that are low on power distance.

Figure 1 depicts a graphical representation of our hypotheses.

METHOD

Sample

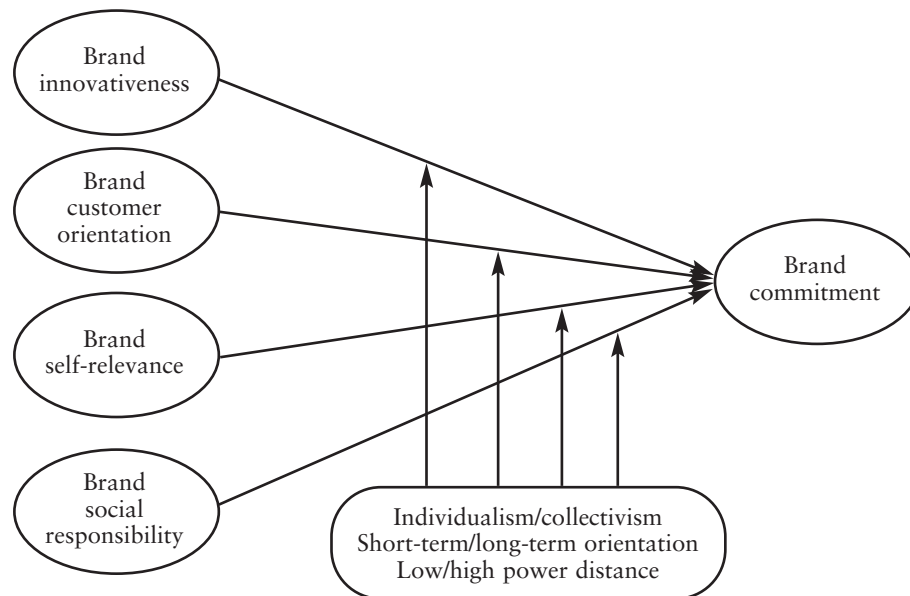
Because our aim was to investigate the role of culture in the relationships between key brand management decision elements and customers' commitment to a brand in the context of global brand management, we selected China and the United Kingdom as locations to collect data from consumers of a large, global furniture store brand. We chose these countries according to their cultural orientation as Hofstede (1980, 2001) identifies it. Hofstede's work on cultural dimensions indicates that China and the United Kingdom differ along the three cultural dimensions that are the object of our study: individualism (China = 10 versus United Kingdom = 80), long-term orientation (China = 100 versus United

Kingdom = 20), and power distance (China = 80 versus United Kingdom = 35). Customers of the same large, global furniture store brand were asked to fill out a questionnaire in one of the firm's stores in Shanghai, China, and London. Given that the furniture store brand markets a similar lifestyle across different countries, we could collect data from customers who share similarities in terms of consumption preferences and lifestyles. This provides for a conservative test of our analysis. In the end, we obtained 167 usable responses from U.K. customers and 230 from Chinese customers. Of the respondents, 58.7% were female and 41.3% were male. Local managers confirmed that this was largely representative of their customer base.

Development of Brand Innovativeness and Self-Relevance Scales

A review of the previous literature revealed limited work on scales to measure brands' innovativeness and self-relevance. Therefore, we developed two scales to measure these constructs. We followed a four-step procedure. First, we conducted exploratory face-to-face depth interviews with 18 consumers in the United Kingdom and 31 consumers in China. We asked open-ended questions about the ability to provide novel solutions and relevance to their daily lives. Second, using interview findings, we generated a pool of 15 items with "differ-

Figure 1. Cultural Dimensions and Customer Brand Commitment



ent nuances of meaning” (Churchill 1979, p. 68) for the brand innovativeness and brand–customer self-relevance scales. We pretested these items with 72 consumers in the United Kingdom and 64 in China to strengthen their clarity, and we asked participants to point out any ambiguity in responding to individual items. We followed Thomson, MacInnis, and Park’s (2005) recommended procedure and removed the items that were poorly understood.

Third, we discussed the pool of nine revised items for the brand innovativeness and brand–customer self-relevance scales with academic experts and a focus group of MBA students in both countries to test for clarity of construction and ensure domain representativeness. We reverse-

coded one item in the brand innovativeness and self-relevance scales to reduce yea-saying and nay-saying response bias (Baumgartner and Steenkamp 2006). Fourth, we conducted a pretest with 72 consumers in the United Kingdom and made minor revisions to the wording of scale items on the basis of the final pretest. All measures used seven-point Likert scales (1 = “not at all,” and 7 = “completely,” unless stated otherwise). Table 1 lists the individual scale items and factor loadings.

Final Measures

We adopted published scales whenever possible to help locate our study in the existing body of research on the management of customer–brand relationships. Customer

Table 1. Constructs and Measurement

Constructs	Measurement	Factor Loadings: United Kingdom	Factor Loadings: China
Commitment	I feel loyal towards [brand name].	.96	.90
	Even if [brand name] would be more difficult to buy, I would still keep buying it.	.97	.98
	I am willing “to go the extra mile” to remain a customer of [brand name].	.94	.95
	I will not buy [brand name] in the future. ^a	.95	.95
Brand innovativeness	[Brand name] provides effective solutions to customer needs.	.96	.95
	Customers can rely on [brand name] to offer novel solutions to their needs.	.94	.93
	[Brand name] always sells the same product offerings regardless of current customer needs. ^a	.93	.92
	[Brand name] is not able to provide new solutions to customer needs. ^a	.96	.89
Brand customer orientation	Every customer’s problem is important to [brand name].	.72	.72
	[Brand name] tries to make every customer feel like he/she is the only customer.	.83	.78
	[Brand name] does not provide individual attention to each customer. ^a	.91	.91
	[Brand name] is famous for its attentiveness to customer needs.	.86	.85
Brand self-relevance	It is easy to imagine a fulfilled life without [brand name]. ^a	.97	.89
	[Brand name] means a great deal to me.	.95	.87
	I cannot imagine life without [brand name].	.92	.83
	[Brand name] is one of the best things in my life.	.96	.94
Brand social responsibility	I consider [brand name] as a socially responsible brand.	.77	.78
	This brand is more beneficial to society’s welfare than other brands.	.82	.79
	This brand does not contribute something to society. ^a	.72	.73

^aItems were reverse coded.

Notes: Factor loadings are significantly different between countries.

commitment measured customers' willingness to stay with a brand and make efforts to sustain this relationship in the future. We adapted four items from the commitment scale that De Wulf, Odekerken-Schröder, and Iacobucci (2001) developed to measure customers' brand commitment (U.K. $\alpha = .87$; China $\alpha = .85$). We developed two four-item scales for brand innovativeness (U.K. $\alpha = .86$; China $\alpha = .87$) and customer self-relevance (U.K. $\alpha = .79$; China $\alpha = .82$) for the specific purpose of this study. We employed Donovan, Brown, and Mowen's (2004) published customer orientation scale to assess the extent to which respondents perceived the brand as being attentive to customers (U.K. $\alpha = .87$; China $\alpha = .85$). We measured corporate social responsibility with Brown and Dacin's (1997) published scale (U.K. $\alpha = .79$; China $\alpha = .78$). We assessed the appropriateness of these measures for the purpose of this study in one pretest ($n = 58$) and one focus group ($n = 9$). We accounted for relationship length as a control: The longer customers stay with a firm, the more difficult they may find it to switch because of switching costs and inertia; thus, they may indicate higher levels of commitment (Huang and Yu 1999; Wathne, Biong, and Heide 2001). The original questionnaire with construct items worded in English was translated into Chinese (standard Mandarin). Two independent experts, who were native speakers in Chinese and the local dialect spoken in Shanghai and the surrounding region, back-translated and retranslated the questionnaire for accuracy and consistency.

Reliability and Validity Tests of the Scales

We assessed the quality of our measurement development by examining the unidimensionality, convergent validity, reliability, and discriminant validity of the constructs. In support of unidimensionality and convergent validity, retained items minimally loaded .70 on their respective hypothesized construct ($p < .01$) and maximally loaded .40 on other constructs (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). Table 2 provides descriptive statistics for the individual constructs in the two countries. Furthermore, Cronbach's alphas were uniformly high, providing support for internal consistency. The average variance extracted and composite reliabilities exceeded the recommended thresholds (Bagozzi and Yi 1988). Finally, in support of discriminant validity (see Table 3), the squared correlation between any pair of constructs was indeed less than the respective average variance extracted for each of the constructs in the pair (Fornell and Larcker 1981).

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics

Variable	AVE	CR	M	SD
Brand Commitment				
United Kingdom	.81	.94	4.74	1.6
China	.76	.93	6.05	1.20
Brand Innovativeness				
United Kingdom	.75	.92	4.08	1.58
China	.65	.88	4.15	1.65
Brand Customer Orientation				
United Kingdom	.56	.69	4.40	1.54
China	.57	.70	4.63	1.67
Brand Self-Relevance				
United Kingdom	.74	.92	5.43	1.71
China	.67	.89	6.05	1.19
Brand Social Responsibility				
United Kingdom	.57	.84	5.79	.90
China	.50	.80	5.76	.95
Relationship Length				
United Kingdom			11.4	10.98
China			12.25	11.74

Notes: AVE = average variance extracted; CR = composite reliability.

Common Method Variance

We employed two techniques to examine the potential for common method variance. First, we used Harman's one-factor test and ran an exploratory factor analysis of all observed measures with varimax rotation (Podsakoff and Organ 1986). In both the U.K. and the Chinese groups, we found five clearly interpretable factors—one for commitment and one for each of our four independent variables—with no significant cross-loadings between the measures. In the U.K. sample, the first factor accounted for 23.2% of the variance, and the last for 17.0% of the variance. In the Chinese sample, the first factor accounted for 18.8% of the variance, and the last for 14.01% of the variance. These findings suggest that common method variance should not be a serious threat in our study.

Second, in light of possible limitations of Harman's one-factor test, we employed the partial correlation proce-

Table 3. Discriminant Validity

A. United Kingdom					
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Commitment	.81				
2. Brand social responsibility	.40	.57			
3. Brand customer orientation	.20	.43	.56		
4. Brand innovativeness	.44	.45	.44	.75	
5. Brand self-relevance	.45	.26	.16	.38	.74
B. China					
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Commitment	.76				
2. Brand social responsibility	.42	.5			
3. Brand customer orientation	.28	.38	.57		
4. Brand innovativeness	.42	.47	.41	.65	
5. Brand self-relevance	.35	.42	.19	.24	.67

Notes: Diagonal elements represent average variance extracted, and off-diagonal elements represent squared correlations between latent variables.

ture of including a marker variable in the model. Lindell and Whitney (2001) argue that common method variance can be assessed by identifying a marker variable (i.e., a variable that is not theoretically related to at least one other variable in the study). Similar to prior literature (e.g., Griffith and Lusch 2007), we used respondent gender as the marker variable. The marker variable was not related to any of the variables in the model in any of the two groups. This provides further evidence that common method variance is not a serious problem.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Measurement Model

We tested our measurement and structural models through structural equation modeling (Amos 16.0). We tested our measurement model in the entire sample. It resulted in an acceptable fit: $\chi^2/d.f. = 2.921$, comparative fit index = .964, normed fit index = .946, goodness-of-fit index = .913, Tucker–Lewis index = .957, and root mean square of approximation = .7.

Cross-cultural research relies on the possibility of generalizing different measures across multiple countries. To achieve this goal, we ran a multigroup confirmatory

factor analysis to assess measurement invariance (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998). In particular, we controlled for two types of measurement invariance: configural and metric. Configural invariance is achieved if the pattern of factor loadings is similar in the United Kingdom and China; that is, the factor loadings are significantly different from zero in both countries, the constructs exhibit discriminant validity, and the measurement model in the two countries is adequate. As Table 1 shows, factor loadings are significant and similar in both countries. Furthermore, discriminant validity exists in both countries (see Table 3). Finally, the measurement model demonstrates adequate fit in both countries. Thus, we show configural invariance between the two countries in our study.

Metric invariance refers to the equality of metrics and is established by setting constraints on factor loadings for each of the items and comparing obtained model fits with the base model (Steenkamp and Baumgartner 1998; Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price 2008b). We controlled for measurement invariance between the two countries by comparing two models: (1) a configural invariance model without equality constraints and (2) a metric invariance model in which we constrained the matrix of factor loadings to be invariant between the two countries. Because we found no significant increase

Table 4. Results: Determinants of Customer Brand Commitment

	Total Sample	United Kingdom (Individualist, Short-Term Oriented, Low Power Distance)	China (Collectivist, Long-Term Oriented, High Power Distance)	Critical Ratio for Difference Between United Kingdom and China
Brand innovativeness	.47	.46**	.23*	-2.50
Brand customer orientation	.13	.06	.25*	2.14
Brand self-relevance	.31	.46**	.18*	-2.02
Brand social responsibility	.11	.03	.25**	2.62
Relationship length	.02	.02	.03	.23
R ²	.61	.88	.43	

* $p < .01$.** $p < .001$.

between the configural invariance model and the metric invariance model ($\Delta\chi^2(15) = 21.54, p > .5$), we concluded that there is no difference in the measurement structure between the two groups. Moreover, we checked whether the critical ratio for each pair of factor loading is greater than the threshold of 1.96, which would suggest that a particular pair of factor loadings is not invariant in the two groups. We found that for only one item in the brand self-relevance scale, the difference was significant. Therefore, we can conclude that there is partial metric invariance in our sample. Consistent with Steenkamp and Baumgartner's (1998) suggested procedure, we freed these loadings when testing our hypotheses.

Structural Model

Our hypotheses test a cultural model effect on the antecedents of brand commitment. Before presenting the test of our hypotheses, we present the magnitude of the effects in the entire sample. This structural model has an acceptable fit: $\chi^2/d.f. = 2.067$, comparative fit index = .972, normed fit index = .948, goodness-of-fit index = .913, Tucker-Lewis index = .95, and root mean square error of approximation = .425. We found that corporate social responsibility ($b = .11, p < .05$), customer orientation ($b = .11, p < .01$), brand innovativeness ($b = .47, p < .001$), and brand self-relevance ($b = .31, p < .001$) have a positive effect on commitment. After establishing the magnitude of the effects in the entire sample, we proceeded to test our hypotheses through a multigroup comparison (i.e., United Kingdom versus China). We tested our hypotheses by analyzing

the critical ratio for difference between structural loadings. The critical ratio for difference tests the null hypothesis that the relationship between two pairs of structural loadings is the same in the two groups. At the $\alpha = .05$ level, correlation between the same two variables in the U.K. and China samples must be considered different if the critical ratio is higher than 1.96. Table 4 shows the results.

H₁ contended that brand innovativeness would have a stronger effect on commitment in countries whose cultures were (a) individualist, (b) short-term oriented, and (c) low on power distance than in countries with opposite cultures. We found that brand innovativeness had a positive effect both in the United Kingdom ($b_{\text{United Kingdom}} = .46, p < .001$) and in China ($b_{\text{China}} = .23, p < .01$). The critical ratio for difference between the structural loading linking brand innovativeness to commitment in the United Kingdom and China was greater than the critical threshold ($z = 2.50, p < .05$). Thus, we can conclude that the effect of brand innovativeness is stronger in the United Kingdom than in China, in accord with H_{1a}-H_{1c}.

We predicted that customer orientation would have a stronger effect on commitment in countries whose cultures were (a) collectivist, (b) long-term oriented, and (c) high on power distance than in countries with opposite cultures. We found that customer orientation had no effect in the United Kingdom ($b_{\text{United Kingdom}} = .06, p > .05$), while it had a significant, positive effect in China ($b_{\text{China}} = .25, p < .01$). The critical ratio for difference between the structural loadings in the two groups was

greater than 1.96 ($z = 2.14, p < .05$), in support of H_{2a} – H_{2c} .

According to H_3 , brand self-relevance would be more effective in affecting customers' commitment to a brand in countries whose cultures were (a) individualist, (b) short-term oriented, and (c) low on power distance than in countries with opposite cultures. We found that brand self-relevance had a positive effect both in the United Kingdom ($b_{\text{United Kingdom}} = .46, p < .001$) and in China ($b_{\text{China}} = .18, p < .01$). Moreover, in support of H_{3a} – H_{3c} , we found that the effect of brand self-relevance was stronger in the United Kingdom than in China (critical ratio for difference = 2.10).

Finally, H_4 maintained that corporate social responsibility would have a greater impact on commitment in countries with cultures that were (a) collectivist, (b) long-term oriented, and (c) high on power distance than in countries with opposite cultures. We found that corporate social responsibility had no effect in the United Kingdom ($b_{\text{United Kingdom}} = .03, p > .05$), while it had a significant, positive effect in China ($b_{\text{China}} = .25, p < .001$). The critical ratio for difference was greater than the critical threshold of 1.96 ($z = 2.62, p < .05$). Because China is more collectivist, long-term oriented, and higher on power distance than the United Kingdom, the results support H_{4a} – H_{4c} .

DISCUSSION

Scholars have suggested that global brands enjoy two main benefits: cost economies of developing a brand on a global scale and the value of being recognized in different countries (Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Hsieh 2002). However, other scholars have pointed out that global brands can suffer if they do not adapt to local specificities (Cayla and Arnould 2008). Although global brand management has received much attention in the literature (Craig and Douglas 2000; Eckhardt 2005; Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Hsieh 2002), the role of cultural differences remains unclear. In this study, we analyzed four different brand management decision elements that global brand managers can develop and emphasize to increase customer brand commitment. The findings of this study show that the effectiveness of each of these elements is strictly dependent on the type of culture in which the brand operates.

From a theoretical viewpoint, these results point out that companies must make different brand management

decisions in different countries to enhance customer commitment to their brands. Firm resources may well be wasted when a brand invests in characteristics that have no influence on customer commitment in a given cultural context. In particular, our findings reveal that there are brand elements that have no significant impact on customer commitment in some cultures. Our analysis reveals that creating an aura of brand innovativeness and creating brands that are relevant to consumers' self-image are more effective ways to strengthen consumers' commitment in countries whose cultures are individualist, short-term oriented, and low on power distance than in cultures with opposite traits.

The results also show that being customer oriented and socially responsible increases brand commitment in countries with cultures that are collectivist, long-term oriented, and high on power distance. In contrast, these branding activities have no effect in countries with cultures that are individualist, short-term oriented, and low on power distance. Therefore, this study makes an important contribution to the literature on international marketing and brand management in particular. Building on prior research on international marketing and brand management, we show that an assessment of customer–brand relationship strategies needs to account for the cultural context in which brands aim to build deeper connections with their customers (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 1999; Cayla and Arnould 2008; Eckhardt 2005; Holt, Quelch, and Taylor 2004; Hsieh 2002).

Managerial Implications

This study also helps resolve some limitations of prior work. For example, Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) find that social responsibility initiatives can reduce consumers' intentions to purchase a firm's products. We argue that firms can reduce this risk by considering the cultural context in which brands are positioned and sold. Furthermore, although only bold marketers would suggest that customer orientation does not matter, we demonstrate that customer orientation does not always significantly affect customers' commitment to a brand. This aspect has not been fully explored in the current literature on managing customer–brand relationships. Our findings suggest that the most successful global brands account for differences in cultural dimensions and are managed accordingly.

Managerially, this study makes a critical contribution to brand managers by empirically demonstrating which brand-related activities are more effective in which cul-

tural context. We compared two unique cultures along the traits of individualism, long-term orientation, and power distance. Our research illuminates ways of managing brands more effectively across cultures. The analysis revealed that in individualist, short-term-oriented and high-power-distance cultures, brand managers should just emphasize the innovativeness of their brands and work to establish the brands' relevance for consumers; they can be less concerned about customer orientation and socially responsible actions, because they have no influence on consumer commitment. On the basis of the findings, we encourage brand managers active in countries such as the United Kingdom, Germany, the United States, Norway, New Zealand, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Australia to develop an innovative image for their brands and work to increase the extent to which their brands are self-relevant for customers.

In contrast, brand innovativeness, customer orientation, self-relevance, and social responsibility equally contributed to brand commitment in China. On the basis of the findings, we encourage brand managers active in countries such as China, Japan, South Korea, and India to adopt a more balanced approach and emphasize all four brand management elements because each of them contributes to customer commitment.

Limitations and Further Research

The findings of this study are subject to the following limitations, which provide promising avenues for further research: First, we studied culture at the nation-state level, thereby linking national culture to individual countries. Further research could extend this study's findings by measuring cultural variables at the individual or regional level. Countries may be considered surrogates for culture; however, Hofstede's (1980) work defining cultural contexts may also be questioned. For example, within each country, there might be variations among citizens and regions along each cultural dimension. Thus, greater insights into the effectiveness of different branding activities may be gained by examining culture at the individual and regional levels.

Second, we collected data from two countries, and thus it would be worthwhile to test our model with a larger sample of countries with intermediate values on the cultural dimensions we studied to strengthen the confidence in the generalizability of the results. Finally, we relied on exchange and brand-self connection theory to identify and test key brand measures in customer-brand

relationships across different cultural contexts. We invite researchers to extend the current model by employing a different framework. Such research has the potential of deepening understanding about how brands create value for customers and how culture influences the value equation. A refined understanding of customer-brand relationships across cultures would provide useful guidance to firms' global brand management activities and make a significant contribution to the marketing literature.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, David A. and Eric Joachimsthaler (1999), "The Lure of Global Branding," *Harvard Business Review*, 77 (November-December), 137-44.
- Anderson, C. James and David W. Gerbing (1988), "Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-Step Approach," *Psychological Bulletin*, 103 (3), 411-23.
- Aron, Arthur, Elaine N. Aron, and Danny Smollan (1992), "Inclusion of Other in the Self Scale and the Structure of Interpersonal Closeness," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63 (4), 596-612.
- Bagozzi, P. Richard (1975), "Marketing as Exchange," *Journal of Marketing*, 39 (October), 32-39.
- and Youjae Yi (1988), "On the Evaluation of Structural Equation Models," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 16 (Spring), 74-94.
- Batra, Rajeev, Venkatram Ramaswamy, Dana L. Alden, Jan-Benedict E.M. Steenkamp, and S. Ramachander (2000), "Effects of Brand Local/Nonlocal Origin on Consumer Attitudes in Developing Countries," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9 (2), 83-95.
- Baumgartner, Hans and Jan-Benedict E.M. Steenkamp (2006), "Response Biases in Marketing Research," in *The Handbook of Marketing Research*, Rajiv Grover and Marco Vriens, eds. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 95-109.
- Bell, Simon J. and Andreas B. Eisingerich (2007), "The Paradox of Customer Education: Customer Expertise and Loyalty in the Financial Services Industry," *European Journal of Marketing*, 41 (5-6), 466-86.
- Berens, Guido, Cees B.M. Van Riel, and Gerrit H. Van Bruggen (2005), "Corporate Associations and Consumer Product Responses: The Moderating Role of Corporate Brand Dominance," *Journal of Marketing*, 69 (July), 18-35.
- Bhattacharya, C.B. and Sankar Sen (2003), "Consumer-Company Identification: A Framework for Understanding Consumers' Relationships with Companies," *Journal of Marketing*, 67 (April), 76-88.

- Brown, Tom J. and Peter A. Dacin (1997), "The Firm and the Product: Corporate Associations and Consumer Product Responses," *Journal of Marketing*, 61 (January), 68–84.
- Cayla, Julien and Eric J. Arnould (2008), "A Cultural Approach to Branding in the Global Marketplace," *Journal of International Marketing*, 16 (4), 86–112.
- Chaplin, Lan N. and Deborah Roedder John (2005), "The Development of Self-Brand Connections in Children and Adolescents," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32 (June), 119–29.
- Churchill, Gilbert A., Jr. (1979), "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16 (February), 64–73.
- Craig, Samuel C. and Susan P. Douglas (2000), "Configural Advantage in Global Markets," *Journal of International Marketing*, 8 (1), 6–21.
- De Wulf, Kristof, Gaby Odekerken-Schröder, and Dawn Iacobucci (2001), "Investments in Consumer Relationships: A Cross-Country and Cross-Industry Exploration," *Journal of Marketing*, 65 (October), 33–50.
- Deutsch, Morton (1985), *Distributive Justice: A Social-Psychological Perspective*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Donavan, Todd D., Tom J. Brown, and John C. Mowen (2004), "Internal Benefits of Service-Worker Customer Orientation: Job Satisfaction, Commitment, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors," *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (January), 128–46.
- Douglas, Susan P. and Samuel C. Craig (1997), "The Changing Dynamic of Consumer Behavior: Implications for Cross-Cultural Research," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 14 (4), 379–95.
- Drumwright, E. Minette (1996), "Firm Advertising with a Social Dimension: The Role of Noneconomic Criteria," *Journal of Marketing*, 60 (October), 71–87.
- Dwyer, Sean, Hani Mesak, and Maxwell Hsu (2005), "An Exploratory Examination of the Influence of National Culture on Cross-National Product Diffusion," *Journal of International Marketing*, 13 (2), 1–27.
- Eckhardt, Giana M. (2005), "Local Branding in a Foreign Product Category in Global Markets," *Journal of International Marketing*, 13 (4), 57–79.
- and Michael J. Houston (2002), "Cultural Paradoxes Reflected in Brand Meaning: McDonald's in Shanghai, China," *Journal of International Marketing*, 10 (2), 68–82.
- Eisingerich, Andreas B. and Simon J. Bell (2008), "Perceived Service Quality and Customer Trust: Does Enhancing Customers' Service Knowledge Matter?" *Journal of Service Research*, 10 (February), 256–68.
- and Tobias Kretschmer (2008), "In E-Commerce, More Is More," *Harvard Business Review*, 86 (March), 20–21.
- , Gaia Rubera, and Matthias Seifert (2009), "Managing Service Innovation and Interorganizational Relationships for Firm Performance: To Commit or Diversify?" *Journal of Service Research*, 11 (May), 344–56.
- Escalas, Jennifer E. and James R. Bettman (2005), "Self-Construal, Reference Groups, and Brand Meaning," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32 (December), 378–89.
- Fornell, Claes and David F. Larcker (1981), "Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (February), 39–50.
- Fournier, Susan (1998), "Customers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in Consumer Research," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24 (March), 343–73.
- Griffith, David A., Michael Hu, and John K. Ryans (2000), "Process Standardization Across Intra- and Inter-Cultural Relationships," *Journal of International Business Studies*, 31 (2), 303–324.
- and Robert F. Lusch (2007), "Getting Marketers to Invest in Firm-Specific Capital," *Journal of Marketing*, 71 (January), 129–45.
- , Matthew B. Myers, and Michael G. Harvey (2006), "An Investigation of National Culture's Influence on Relationship and Knowledge Resources in Interorganizational Relationships Between Japan and the United States," *Journal of International Marketing*, 14 (3), 1–32.
- Guzman, Francisco and Audhesh K. Paswan (2009), "Cultural Brands from Emerging Markets: Brand Image Across Host and Home Countries," *Journal of International Marketing*, 17 (3), 71–86.
- Handelman, M. Jay and Stephen J. Arnold (1999), "The Role of Marketing Actions with a Social Dimension: Appeals to the Institutional Environment," *Journal of Marketing*, 63 (July), 33–48.
- Heskett, James L., Earl W. Sasser, and Leonard A. Schlesinger (1997), *The Service Profit Chain*. New York: The Free Press.
- Hofstede, Geert (1980), *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- (2001), *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Holt, Douglas B., John A. Quelch, and Earl L. Taylor (2004), "How Global Brands Compete," *Harvard Business Review*, 82 (September), 68–75.
- Hsieh, Ming-Huei (2002), "Identifying Brand Image Dimensionality and Measuring the Degree of Brand Globalization: A Cross-National Study," *Journal of International Marketing*, 10 (2), 46–67.

- Huang, Ming H. and Shihti Yu (1999), "Are Consumers Inherently or Situationally Brand Loyal? A Set Intercorrelation Account for Conscious Brand Loyalty and Nonconscious Inertia," *Psychology and Marketing*, 16 (6), 523–44.
- Jaworski, Bernard J. and Ajay K. Kohli (1993), "Market Orientation: Antecedents and Consequences," *Journal of Marketing*, 57 (July), 53–70.
- Keller, Kevin L. (1993), "Conceptualizing, Measuring, and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity," *Journal of Marketing*, 57 (January), 1–22.
- Klein, Jill and Niraj Dawar (2004), "Corporate Social Responsibility and Consumers' Attributions and Brand Evaluations in a Product-Harm Crisis," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 21 (September), 203–217.
- Kleine, Susan S., Robert E. Kleine III, and Chris T. Allen (1995), "How Is a Possession 'Me' or 'Not Me'? Characterizing Types and an Antecedent of Material Possession Attachment," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22 (3), 327–43.
- Kohli, Ajay K. and Bernard J. Jaworski (1990), "Market Orientation: The Construct, Research Propositions, and Managerial Implications," *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (April), 1–18.
- Lichtenstein, R. Donald, Minette E. Drumwright, and Bridgette M. Braig (2004), "The Effect of Corporate Social Responsibility on Customer Donations to Corporate-Supported Nonprofits," *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (October), 16–32.
- Lindell, Michael K. and David J. Whitney (2001), "Accounting for Common Method Variance in Cross-Sectional Research Designs," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86 (1), 114–21.
- Maignan, Isabelle (2001), "Consumers' Perceptions of Corporate Social Responsibilities: A Cross-Cultural Comparison," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 30 (1), 57–72.
- Maxham, James G. and Richard G. Netemeyer (2003), "Companies Reap What They Sow: The Effects of Shared Values and Perceived Organizational Justice on Customers' Evaluations of Complaint Handling," *Journal of Marketing*, 67 (January), 46–62.
- Mukherjee, Ashesh and Wayne D. Hoyer (2001), "The Effect of Novel Attributes on Product Evaluation," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 28 (3), 462–72.
- Muñiz, Albert M., Jr., and Thomas C. O'Guinn (2001), "Brand Community," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27 (March), 412–32.
- Nijssen, Edwin J. and Susan P. Douglas (2008), "Consumer World-Mindedness, Social-Mindedness, and Store Image," *Journal of International Marketing*, 16 (3), 84–107.
- Özsomer, Aysegul and Selin Altaras (2008), "Global Brand Purchase Likelihood: A Critical Synthesis and an Integrated Conceptual Framework," *Journal of International Marketing*, 16 (4), 1–28.
- Parasuraman, A., Leonard A. Berry, and Valarie A. Zeithaml (1991), "Refinement and Reassessment of the SERVQUAL Scale," *Journal of Retailing*, 67 (4), 420–50.
- Park, C. Whan, Bernard J. Jaworski, and Deborah J. MacInnis (1986), "Strategic Brand Concept-Image Management," *Journal of Marketing*, 50 (October), 135–45.
- and Deborah J. MacInnis (2006), "What's In and What's Out: Questions on the Boundaries of the Attitude Construct," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 33 (June), 16–18.
- Podsakoff, Philip M. and Dennis W. Organ (1986), "Self-Reports in Organizational Research: Problems and Prospects," *Journal of Management*, 12 (4), 531–45.
- Porter, E. Michael and Mark R. Kramer (2006), "Strategy and Society: The Link Between Competitive Advantage and Corporate Social Responsibility," *Harvard Business Review*, 84 (December), 78–92.
- Rao, Vithala R., Manoj K. Agarwal, and Denise Dahlhoff (2004), "How Is Manifest Branding Strategy Related to the Intangible Value of a Corporation?" *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (October), 126–41.
- Rawwas, Mohammed Y.A. (2001), "Culture, Personality and Morality: A Typology of International Consumers' Ethical Beliefs," *International Marketing Review*, 18 (2), 188–210.
- Reichheld, F. Frederick and Earl W. Sasser Jr. (1990), "Zero Defections: Quality Comes to Services," *Harvard Business Review*, 68 (September–October), 105–111.
- Rust, Roland T., Valarie A. Zeithaml, and Katherine N. Lemon (2000), *Driving Customer Equity: How Customer Lifetime Value Is Reshaping Corporate Strategy*. New York: The Free Press.
- Schau, Hope J., Albert M. Muñiz Jr., and Eric J. Arnould (2009), "How Brand Community Practices Create Value," *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (September), 30–51.
- Schuiling, Isabelle and Jean N. Kapferer (2004), "Real Differences Between Local and International Brands: Strategic Implications for International Marketers," *Journal of International Marketing*, 12 (4), 97–112.
- Schumpeter, Joseph A. (1934), *The Theory of Economic Development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Sen, Sankar and C.B. Bhattacharya (2001), "Does Doing Good Always Lead to Doing Better? Consumer Reactions to Corporate Social Responsibility," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38 (May), 225–44.

- Shah, Denish, Roland T. Rust, A. Parasuraman, Richard Staelin, and George S. Day (2006), "The Path to Customer Centricity," *Journal of Service Research*, 9 (2), 113–24.
- Shocker, Allan D., Rajendra K. Srivastava, and Robert W. Ruekert (1994), "Challenges and Opportunities Facing Brand Management," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31 (May), 149–58.
- Singh, Jaywant, Maria del Mar Garcia Salmones Sanchez, and Igancio R. Bosque (2008), "Understanding Corporate Social Responsibility and Product Perceptions in Consumer Markets: A Cross-Cultural Evaluation," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 80 (3), 597–611.
- Sprott, David, Sandor Czellar, and Eric Spangenberg (2009), "The Importance of a General Measure of Brand Engagement on Market Behavior: Development and Validation of a Scale," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 46 (February), 92–104.
- Steenkamp, Jan-Benedict E.M., Rajeev Batra, and Dana L. Alden (2003), "How Perceived Brand Globalness Creates Brand Value," *Journal of International Business Studies*, 34 (1), 53–65.
- and Hans Baumgartner (1998), "Assessing Measurement Invariance in Cross-National Consumer Research," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 25 (1), 78–90.
- , Frenkel ter Hofstede, and Michel Wedel (1999), "A Cross-National Investigation into the Individual and National Cultural Antecedents of Consumer Innovativeness," *Journal of Marketing*, 63 (April), 55–69.
- Strizhakova, Yuliya, Robin Coulter, and Linda Price (2008a), "Branded Products as a Passport to Global Citizenship: Perspectives from Developed and Developing Countries," *Journal of International Marketing*, 16 (4), 57–85.
- , ———, and ——— (2008b), "The Meanings of Branded Products: A Cross-National Scale Development and Meaning Assessment," *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 25 (2), 82–93.
- Thomson, Matthew, Deborah J. MacInnis, and C. Whan Park (2005), "The Ties That Bind: Measuring the Strength of Consumers' Emotional Attachments to Brands," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 15 (1), 77–91.
- Tuli, Kapil R., Ajay K. Kohli, and Sundar G. Bharadwaj (2007), "Rethinking Customer Solutions: From Product Bundles to Relational Processes," *Journal of Marketing*, 71 (July), 1–17.
- Van den Bulte, Christophe and Stefan Stremersch (2004), "Social Contagion and Income Heterogeneity in New Product Diffusion: A Meta-Analytic Test," *Marketing Science*, 23 (4), 530–44.
- Van Everdingen, Yvonne M. and Eric Waarts (2003), "The Effect of National Culture on the Adoption of Innovations," *Marketing Letters*, 14 (3), 217–32.
- Wallendorf, Melanie and Eric Arnould (1988), "My Favorite Things: A Cross-Cultural Inquiry into Object Attachment, Possessiveness, and Social Linkage," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14 (March), 531–47.
- Wathne, Kenneth H., Harald Biong, and Jan B. Heide (2001), "Choice of Supplier in Embedded Markets: Relationship and Marketing Program Effects," *Journal of Marketing*, 65 (April), 54–66.
- Yeniyyurt Sengun and Janell D. Townsend (2003), "Does Culture Explain Acceptance of New Products in a Country? An Empirical Investigation," *International Marketing Review*, 20 (4), 377–96.

THE AUTHORS

Andreas B. Eisingerich is Assistant Professor of Marketing in the Imperial College Business School at Imperial College London. His research focuses on brand management, customer relationships, and service innovation strategies. He obtained his doctoral degree from the University of Cambridge and is a research fellow at the University of Southern California's Marshall School of Business.

Gaia Rubera is Assistant Professor of Marketing in the Eli Broad College of Business at Michigan State University. Her research interests focus on globalization, marketing strategy, aesthetic innovation, creativity, and organizational structures that foster innovation. She obtained her doctoral degree from Bocconi University and has published in *Journal of Service Research*, *Marketing Letters*, and other journals.

Copyright of Journal of International Marketing is the property of American Marketing Association and its content may not be copied or emailed to multiple sites or posted to a listserv without the copyright holder's express written permission. However, users may print, download, or email articles for individual use.