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With the expansion of globalization, the increasingly competitive environment of fashion has led to the diffusion of brands across borders and cultures. Furthermore, with the expansion of multinational brands as well as increasingly global media communications, young consumers represent an optimal segment for the proliferation of global consumer culture (GCC). Thus, the purpose of this study is to develop and empirically test a model of young consumers' apparel brand resonance within a global sportswear context. Specifically, the study seeks to 1) examine the role of socialization agents as determinants of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture (AGCC); 2) investigate the impact of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture on their perceived brand equity; 3) examine the effect of young consumers' perceived brand equity on brand attitudes, which in turn, is expected to influence brand resonance; and 4) to explore whether such a model can be applied with young consumers residing in Thailand. If the model can be applied across samples, we can further explore similarities and differences regarding the relationships proposed in the model.

Data was collected via a self-report questionnaire administered to samples of college students at major universities in metropolitan cities in the United States and Thailand. The study's final sample consisted of 636 responses. Of these, 336 were American and 300 were Thai. Confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis were

employed to answer all hypotheses using a structural equation model. Results showed that all three socialization agents (e.g., parents, peers and media) showed an influence on certain dimensions of the AGCC among young American consumers. That is, while parents positively influenced the cosmopolitan (COS) dimension, peers positively influenced the openness and desire to emulate the global consumer culture (OPE) dimension. In addition, media also positively influenced exposure to global media (GMM) dimension and openness and desire to emulate the global consumer culture (OPE) dimension. Among Thai consumers, only parents and peers revealed an influence on certain dimensions of AGCC. That is, while parents positively influenced EXM dimension, peers influenced OPE and ELU dimensions.

Furthermore, results showed that among young American consumers, while brand awareness was positively influenced by COS, brand awareness was negatively influenced by EXM and ELU. Also, while brand image was positively influenced by COS, brand image was negatively influenced by EXM and ELU. Among young Thai consumers, results showed that while brand awareness was positively influenced by ELU and GMM, brand awareness was negatively influenced by COS. In addition, brand image was positively influenced by EXM and GMM. Results further revealed that among young American consumers, brand awareness and brand image positively influenced attitudes toward global brands, which in turn positively influenced brand resonance. Among young Thai consumers, only brand image positively influenced attitudes toward global brands,

which in turn positively influenced brand resonance. Theoretical and managerial

implications are provided. Limitations and future research directions are addressed.

MODELING YOUNG GLOBAL CONSUMERS' APPAREL BRAND RESONANCE:

A CROSS-CULTURAL COMPARISON BETWEEN

THE UNITED STATES AND THAILAND

by

Phillip Frank

A Dissertation Submitted to
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in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
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Approved by

_____
Committee Chair

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this dissertation to James Ledbetter for teaching me how to me a man

and to Tyler Grubb for teaching me how to be a kid again.

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of

The Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Committee Chair _____

Dr. Kittichai Watchravesringkan

Committee Members _____

Dr. Nancy Hodges

_____

Dr. Jennifer Yurchisin

_____

Dr. Terry Ackerman

_____
October 23, 2013
Date of Acceptance by Committee

_____
October 23, 2013
Date of Final Oral Examination

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the dissertation and includes the following sections: (1) Research Background, including information pertaining to the impact of globalization and consumer markets and young consumers and global brands consumption; (2) Statement of Problem; (3)The study's Context; (4) Purpose of the Study; (5) Significance of the Study; (6) Definition of Key Terms; and (7) Organization of Chapters.

Research Background

The Impact of Globalization and Consumer Markets

Globalization has been described as "the rapidly developing and ever-dispensing network of interconnections and interdependences that characterize modern social life" (Tomlinson, 1999, p. 2). While there is much debate about the origins of globalization (Guillen, 2001) as well as about the general consensus on the benefits and consequences of the modern phenomenon (e.g., Hopper, 2007; Mills, 2009; Robertson, 1992), it is generally accepted that globalization is leading to greater interdependence and mutual awareness among economic, political, and social communities around the world.

One of the anticipated outcomes of globalization is the emergence of a global or "world culture" (Hannerz, 1992). According to Hannerz (1992), globalization leads to the

domination of peripheral cultures by more industrialized cultures, typically Western

European and North American societies. In this view, globalization has been seen as a

modern euphemism for colonialism (Robertson, 1992). Although there are mixed

findings as to the actuality of this global segment, a general consensus appears to be that

a proportion of national consumer markets tend to be appealed to through globally

oriented marketing messages (Hartinger-Saunders, 2008; Hassan & Kaynak, 1994;

Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006; Westjohn & Magnusson, 2012).

In Hassan and Kaynak's (1994), *Globalization of Consumer Markets: Structures*

and Strategies, the authors argue that, due to the modernization of technologies, financial

systems, global supply chains, communication options, and migration routes, a more

interconnected world has emerged for businesses to consider international market

segments. This argument posits that global consumers are becoming homogenized in

their expectations and desires in product choices. Consumers desire quality products at

reasonable prices no matter where they reside and businesses that can satisfy these

requests are likely to be successful on a global scale (Douglas & Craig, 2012; Hassan &

Kaynak, 1994). In subsequent chapters, Hassan and Kaynak (1994) also describe the

changes in consumer behavior as the result of the proliferation of global influences such

as increases in wages, life expectancy, literacy and education levels (p. 55). The authors

also postulate that these changes in individuals' daily lives has contributed to the

emergence of a global consumer mindset or culture and posit two core global segments:

(1) a global elite, which refers to a group of consumers who aspire to own brands and

products that evoke prestige, status, and universal admiration; and (2) global teenagers,

young consumers who are increasingly sharing similar experiences and ideals through the

proliferation of global media communications. Hassan and Kaynak (1994) further argue

that these two segments respond similarly in their attitudes and purchasing behaviors

across different markets: "Global teens from New York, Tokyo, and Hong Kong to those

from Paris, London, and Seoul are sharing memorable experiences that are reflected in

their consumption behavior" (p. 57-59). Hassan and Kaynak (1994) cite companies such

as Benetton, a global apparel retailer, as an example of how companies are promoting this

emerging consumer market: "Benetton introduced colorful Italian knitwear based on its

global advertising campaign, 'The United Colors of Benetton'" (p. 59). The authors

further note how campaigns such as this help promote a shared experience for young

consumers around the world to connect with one another through their consumption

practices.

One of the more important aspects of global consumer segments is the existence

of a shared culture among members, often referred to as a Global Consumer Culture

(GCC) (Arnold & Thompson, 2005). Arnold and Thompson (2005) define consumer

culture as a "social arrangement in which the relations between lived culture and social

resources, and between meaningful ways of life and the symbolic and material resources

on which they depend, are mediated through markets" (p. 869). Sklair (2001) posits that

the underlining ideology of globalization teaches individuals to identify themselves as

global consumers, separate from their regional locations. Appadurai (1990) suggests that

the flow of a global culture travels through five channels: (1) ethnoscapes, referring to the

flow of tourists, immigrants, international students, and others across borders; (2)

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mediascapes involving the flow of images and communications into new cultural realms, largely by marketers for the purpose of expanding communications; (3) technoscapes dealing with the flow of technology and know-how, often represented in the linkage of firms and operations across borders; (4) financescapes suggesting the flow of capital and money; and (5) ideoscapes concerning the flow of political ideas that enable global consumers to create non-territorially restricted meanings and symbols that can serve to unite markets around the world (Craig & Douglas, 2006; Strizhakova, Coulter, & Price, 2012). While this GCC concept assumes a shared meaning in consumption practices or "Consumptionscapes" (Ger & Belk, 1996), this does not necessarily infer a total homogenization of taste in consumption as others have contended (Artz & Kamalipour, 2003; Friedman, 2011). Instead, this may give recognition of common symbols and meanings that are thought of as non-territorially defined (Archpru & Alden, 2010).

Young Consumers and Global Brand Consumption

While there are different definitions of "youth" (Gallard, 2003), the term is typically defined by age. The American National Highway Traffic Safety Association (ANHTSA) classifies "youth" as a person under the age of 21 (ANHTSA, 2012). The majority of states (39 out of 50) define "youth" in relation to law and court jurisdiction to persons between the ages of 15 and 17 (Hartinger-Saunders, 2008). Internationally, an "official" definition of youth was created by the United Nations in 1999 and defines a youth as a person between the ages of 15 and 24 (UNESCO, 2012). Therefore, this current study uses the term "youth" (thereafter "young consumers") to describe a person between 15 and 24 years old as defined by the United Nations (UNESCO, 2012).

The symbols and myths that make up a global consumer culture are increasingly embodied in global brands. Motatemi and Shahroki (1998) argue that the development of a brand is a complex phenomenon, not solely limited to the actual, physical product, but also including the unique features attributed to the brand by individual owners, features developed through experiences that denote the tangible and intangible qualities that differentiate one brand over another in the marketplace. Aaker and Joachimsthaler (1999) provide a definition of global brands as "brands with a high degree of similarity across countries with respect to brand identity, position, advertising strategy, personality, product, packaging, and look or feel" (p. 306). Global brands have been shown to evoke symbols of status, higher quality, and a connection with the wider world of consumers (Holt et al., 2004; Özsomer, 2012; Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden, 2003) as well as to provide benefits to companies, including marketing efficiencies and uniform company cultures across national divisions; they can also serve as leverage in negotiations with suppliers or retailers (Bris et al., 2010; Hollis, 2010; Johansson, 2011).

However, recent global financial crises have reiterated the importance of firms leveraging their assets to seek development in new consumer markets (Douglas & Craig, 2012). For example, since launching its "Path to Growth" strategy in 2000, Unilever has significantly reduced the number of brands in its portfolio from 1600 to 400 leading brands, allowing the company to concentrate on global brands with strong growth potential for consumers around the world (Unilever Inc., 2007). At approximately the same time, Proctor and Gamble Co. also reduced its brand portfolio in favor of global brands (Pitcher, 1999). Likewise, in 2003 Heinz Co. declared its intentions to focus on a

smaller number of "power brands," opting to sell off many of its local brands (Özsomer, 2012b). Phillips-Van Heusen Co., the apparel branding firm that owns a variety of global brands such as Calvin Klein, IZOD, and Tommy Hilfiger also reported the consolidation of its brand portfolios with the intention of concentrating heavily on a global branding strategy (PVH Co., 2012). This has also worked in the other direction as companies operating in many emerging markets see global branding as a profitable strategy for extending their brands (Wooldridge, 2012).

Of all of the consumer segments, young consumers have been frequently identified as a prototypical example of global consumers (Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006). With the expansion of multinational brands and media communications, the youth consumer culture is seen now as a global phenomenon (Hartinger-Saunders, 2008; Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006), one that is being consolidated into a collection of common images and ideals that represent a new young global consumer culture (Kline, 1995). It is commonly accepted that the young global consumer market serves as an early consumer of new products and brands (Lingelbach et al., 2012). Brands that successfully tap into the youth market have greater longevity (McNeal, 2007). As such, brand managers know that building a relationship early in a consumer's lifespan can provide a prolonged brand relationship (Fournier, 1998), which will consequently result in increased market share and higher profits for the firm in the long run (Lindstrom & Seybold, 2004; Moschis & Churchill, 1978; Ross & Harradine, 2004).

The youth consumer market today is the second-largest market segment in the U.S. According to a recent report from the U.S. Census (2010), there are approximately

47 million American consumers between 15 and 24 years old, representing 15% of the

total U.S. population (NCES, 2011). Furthermore, young consumers have significant

spending power - USD 211 billion in 2012 (Harris Interactive, 2011). This trend appears

to be global as nearly half of the world's population is under the age of 25 (World

Population Foundation, 2012) with 18% between the age of 15 and 24 (Population Action

International, 2012). Furthermore, the majority of this age segment is found in many

developing countries such as China, India, Brazil and among others (Euromonitor, 2008),

with the latest figures showing half of the world's young population in the Asia Pacific

region (United Nations, 2012).

Among young consumers, "global brands" are viewed as having considerable

advantages over local and/or national brands in terms of social prestige (Douglas &

Craig, 2012; Quelch et al., 2004), quality (Quelch, 2004; Steenkamp et al., 2003), and

connection to a global community (Bris et al., 2010; Özsomer, 2012). Many multinational

companies have emphasized global brand strategies as a means of standardizing

marketing efforts across the globe (Matanda & Ewing, 2012). However, to date, an

examination of young consumers' attitudes and behaviors toward global brands has not

received significant cross-cultural research attention (Collins & Hitchings, 2012; Gupta et

al., 2009; Roberts & Cayla, 2009). Such research is needed to determine whether there

are theoretical and/or empirical reasons to regard these global young consumers as a

unified segment.

Statement of the Problem

The burgeoning youth cohort is greatly expanding around the world and is an attractive consumer segment for many multinational firms (Strizhakova et al., 2012). Young consumers are uniquely positioned because of their departure from the habitual indoctrination of cultural norms reminiscent of early childhood; they face a conflict in defining oneself based on tradition versus global ideals (Clark & Goldsmith, 2006). Lukose (2005) once wrote, "A short-hand way to mark the advent and impact of globalization is to point to the evidence of 'global' youth consuming practices" (p. 915). In Hassan and Katsanis's (1994) discussion of global market segments, they later describe the young global consumer segment as a growing proportion of the world's population that is increasingly being exposed to similar media and marketing messages, leading to a culture consisting of symbols, language and meanings that transcend national boundaries. The young consumer culture "on a global scale shares a youthful lifestyle that values growth and learning with appreciation for future trends, fashion, and music" (p. 59).

Young consumers today are more educated and enjoy a higher income than their parents' generation (Ashford et al., 2006). A young global consumer segment has been shown to have similar leisure activities (Kjeldaard & Askegaard, 2006) and similar brand interests (Lukose, 2005). The young consumer market is often seen as early consumers of new technologies, new products, and new brands and as an early entrant into new or foreign markets (Langer, 1994). Bullmore (2000) suggests that reason young consumers' practices and lifestyles choices are becoming more comparable across many countries

because of similarities in their technology usage and global media exposure. Assael (1998) argues that these consumers' values, regardless of their country of origin, are reinforced by similarities among cross-border music channels (e.g., MTV, VH1), experiences with international travel, and reliable global communications systems. More recently, Friedman (2007) claims that the world has become even more interconnected by the convergence of political events, technological innovations, and companies' business activities such as outsourcing off-shore production and supply chain management.

Because of their constant interest in innovations, the young global consumer segment has been recognized in the marketing literature as sharing a similar set of desires throughout the pursuit and purchase of global brands (Chu & Huang, 2010; Kjeldgaard & Askegaard, 2006). Chen (2003) argues that young consumers purchase these global brands to reinforce their membership in a specific reference group. Similarly, Alden et al. (1999) suggest that young consumers in developing countries are more prone to group influences; they conclude that the use of global consumer culture positioning strategies may target the younger generation more effectively. A recent study by Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price (2012) examined the homogeneity of college-aged consumers from Russia and Brazil. Their research found a consistently "glocally-engaged" segment of young consumers who viewed consumption of global brands as representative of both global and national identities. They also found a segment of "globally-engaged" consumers who showed an even higher identification as a global consumer market. Thus, global brands are internalized to localize meaning while at the same time some

consumers retain a separate, unique identity aligned with a global consumer segment through the purchase and use of global brands.

A number of researchers suggest that global brands have been shown to increase a firm's visibility with customers, distributors, and other strategic partners as well as provide a lynchpin for integrating and coordinating strategies across markets (Douglas & Craig, 2012; Holt et al., 2004; Johansson, 2011; Özsomer, 2012). Furthermore, global branding strategies have been shown to increase a firm's strength when negotiating with retailers (Douglas & Craig, 2012). A number of researchers also suggest that in many emerging markets (e.g., China, India), the purchase of global brands evokes a desirable connection with an ever-expanding business community (Hassan, Craft, & Kortam, 2003; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008).

Specifically, Lukose (2009) investigates how these new global forces impact the consumption behaviors of young consumers in India: these young consumers view the consumption of global brands from a local orientation and infuse global meaning with the local rituals and norms which are more commonly associated with the geographical locale in which they reside. In this instance, global brands provide an external voice that sometimes stands in contrast with tradition. Lukose (2009) further investigates how these alternative voices are becoming avenues for change, specifically with regard to gender identities. Recently, Özsomer (2012) extends this line of thought and posits that these global voices provide a shared experience for youth in different parts of the world, which then serves as a point of departure for knowledge, communications and meanings derived, shared, and amended through the marketplace.

While there is considerable research on the category of the young global consumer, there remains a dearth of research investigating how brands serve as a vehicle through which young consumers can connect with the larger global consumer culture (Collins & Hitchings, 2012; Gupta et al., 2009). In addition, several researchers have questioned whether these young consumers associate brands with similar meaning (Fournier, 1998; Keller, 2012; Motameni & Shahroki, 1998), particularly as they relate to "global" brands (Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004; Steenkamp et al., 2003). Specifically, from a theoretical standpoint, questions have been raised regarding how this global-brand association may affect young consumers' attitudes and behaviors toward global brands.

In addition, considerable consumer socialization literature suggests that these young consumers may learn to acquire consumption-related cognitions, attitudes, and behaviors to effectively operate in a modern consumer marketplace via different agents such as family, peers, and the media (Collins & Hitchings, 2012; Ferguson, Winegard, & Winegard, 2011; Moschis, 1985; Ward, 1974). For example, research reports that parents have been shown to hold high authority in their influence on the consumption choices of these young consumers (Carlson & Grossbart, 1988; Collins & Hitchings, 2012; Moschis, 1985). These researchers suggest that parents form the earliest example for how a young person acquires and adequately processes market information and makes informed buying decisions (Clark et al., 2001; John, 1999; Mangleburg & Bristol, 1998). In addition, parents and media (e.g., television) have been reported to influence children's and youth's development as consumers. Researchers suggest that parents may set goals for their children related to critical analysis of television shows and advertisements so

that children not only will gain knowledge from commercials, but also will view product claims with skepticism (Brucks, Armstrong, & Goldberg, 1988). Peers also play a critical role in young consumers' socialization processes (Ferguson et al., 2011) because they provide a subject of identity-conformation unique from that of parent, the latter of which is viewed as more authoritative (Corsaro, 2011). Researchers assert that peers provide these young consumers a point of comparison in their attitudes and behaviors toward consumption choices (Chen-Yu & Seock, 2002; Jacobson, 2004). Singh, Kwon, and Pereira (2003) confirm the importance of online peer groups on purchase decisions among young consumers.

Although these previous studies have explored how socialization agents (e.g., parents, peers) influence the acquisition of consumption-related skills among children and young consumers (Carlson & Grossbart, 1988; Clark et al., 2001; Collins & Hitchings, 2012; Ferguson, Winegard, & Winegard, 2011; Mangleburg & Bristol, 1998; Moschis, 1985), several researchers have asserted that cross-cultural consumer socialization research is still very much in a nascent stage and needs research attention (Childers & Rao, 1992; Kim, Yang, & Lee, 2009; Singh, Chao, & Kwon, 2006). In addition, particularly absent in marketing literature is how culturally diverse young consumer segments seek market information and develop consumption-related skills, knowledge, and attitudes relevant to their functioning in the global marketplace as these young consumers are becoming a part of global consumer culture.

While some researchers argue that young consumers in collectivist cultures tend to rely heavily on parental guidance and adoption of group norms as compared to their

counterparts (Ko et al., 2007) and they tend to display strong preferences for local brands over foreign brands (Gurhan-Canli & Maheswaran, 2000), little research has examined how young consumers in different cultures respond to global apparel brands in terms of the cognitive, affective, and behavioral outcomes of the consumer socialization process. This particular research area is relevant because a number of academics and practitioners have attempted to understand how global brands are integrated into the lives of young consumers around the world (Deli-Gray, Haefner, & Rosenbloom, 2012; Holt, Quelch, & Taylor, 2004; Kapferer, 1992; Steenkamp, Batra, & Alden, 2003). A better understanding of factors that might enhance brand equity may be critical because brand equity plays a strategic role in aiding sportswear brand managers to gain competitive advantage.

While the majority of studies have focused on measuring benefits or consequences of global brand strategies (e.g., uniformed marketing strategies and negotiating leverage with suppliers and retailers), there have been recent calls to understand how consumers develop perceptions of "global brands" (Gupta et al., 2009). To date, cross-cultural examination of young consumers' attitudes and behaviors toward global brands has not received much research attention. Such research is needed to determine whether there are theoretical and empirical reasons to regard these global young consumers as a unified segment.

<div align="center">**The Study's Context**</div>

Thailand versus the United States

The proposed dissertation examines the consumption habits of young consumers across two socioeconomically different and culturally significant countries (Thailand

<div align="center">13</div>

versus the United States). Specifically, the study looks at the impact of different socialization agents' influences on the acculturation of young consumers to global consumer culture and the effect of this acculturation on brand purchasing behaviors (i.e. attitudes toward global brands, brand equity and brand resonance). Thailand is ranked as the 19th most populated country in the world with 65.4 million citizens in 2010 (United Nations Population Foundation, 2011). The closest age break denoted by the Thai governmental census shows that of these 65.4 million people, 24% (or roughly 16 million) are between the ages of 15 and 29 (United Nations Population Foundation, 2011). Young Thai consumers have increasingly migrated to large, urban locations across the country (Fuller, 2012), allowing them greater access to international media and branded products (Sander, 2012).

Young American consumers between 15 and 24 years old account for the second largest market segment, approximately 15%, of the U.S. population. McKinsey's (2012) recent report on American consumers indicated that with the increased reliance on mobile devices and online media channels, young American consumers showed an increased reverence for multinational brands, as this ties them to a larger global consumer segment. Likewise, Label Networks (2012), a premier marketing research company, noted that young American consumer's mobile and fluid lifestyle can be seen in their preference for brands that demonstrate innovative strategies that allow for the individual customization of brands. Label Networks (2012) further added that the Design It Yourself (DIY) approach to fashion and apparel purchases is gaining popularity among young consumers as a means to learn about brands and their associated meanings.

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While reports such as those from McKinsey and Company and from Label Networks give some indication about young American consumers' purchase behaviors, they do not provide insights into the differences in behavior among young consumers in culturally disparate settings. What they do provide is evidence for young consumers' affinity to use consumption, specifically in the clothing context, as an early method to their inclusion in particular consumer groups, whether global in nature or locally defined and how brands play a key role in the lives of young consumers.

Thailand and the United States provide a comparison of young consumers' attitudes toward global brands in highly individualist (U.S.) and collectivist (Thailand) settings. Individualism-collectivism is the most central dimension of cultural value that has been used to compare Western and Eastern cultures (Kim, Kim, & Kang, 2007; Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006; McNeal, Viswanathan, & Yeh, 1993; Watchravesringkan & Yurchisin, 2007). Such cultural value of individualism-collectivism has been argued to be a key to understanding differences in acculturation behaviors to the global consumer culture (Cleveland, Laroche, & Hallab, 2012).

In individualistic countries, persons tend to prefer independent relationships to others and are more or less detached from the group (Hofstede, 2001). These individuals prefer independent relationships with one another and prioritize individual goals over group goals (Lee & Yoo, 2012). By contrast, in collectivist countries, individual goals are subverted to the priorities of the group (Kirkman et al., 2006). Members of individualist cultures do distinguish strongly between in-group or out-group membership, while collectivists cultures demonstrate a preference to endorse and maintain group

memberships (Hofstede, 2001). As a result, collectivists are willing to make sacrifices for their in-group memberships, which might be demonstrated in their preference to be associated with a global consumer culture.

Specific to the context of the study, ninety-five percent of Thai citizens are Buddhist which greatly contributes to their high collectivist values (Hofstede, 1980). Furthermore, Thailand has seen an explosion of foreign investment beginning in the mid-1980s with the reformation of many national trading regulations (Euromonitor, 2012). Jenks (2003) notes the growth in availability of global brands throughout Thai consumer markets and how these brands are perceived among the citizens. Van Esterk (2000) extends this duality of tradition and modernity and argues that Thai consumers must balance these two paradoxical ideologies through the internalization of global brand meanings and interpretations based on local beliefs and customs. In contrast, young American consumers have been often used as examples of consumer-oriented products in a commercialized society (Clarke & Micken, 2002; Jacobson, 2004; Schaefer et al., 2004; Stearns, 1998; Wang et al., 2007). It is also reported that young Americans highly regard materialistic values (Clarke & Micken, 2002; Schaefer et al., 2004), value individuality over conformity (Hofstede, 2001), have a high degree of exposure to the marketing activities of multinational firms and global communication technologies (Kjeldaard & Askegaard, 2006; Larson & Wilson, 2004), and have less parental controls (Wang et al., 2007). Such two distinct cultures may provide interesting contexts to study the possibility of uniformity among global young consumers' attitudes and behaviors toward global brands.

Sportswear

Clothing provides an adequate product category within which to investigate the similarities and differences among young consumers in culturally diverse settings as it can be viewed as an essential social tool in the lives of young people (Piacentrini, 2010). Among youth, clothes play a key role in defining who they are and communicating this to others around them (Sutherland & Thompson, 2001). Clothes are closely bound to self-concept, used as both a means of self-expression and as a way of judging people and situations (Wooten, 2006). Clothes also help youth "fit in" with their peers and signify an affiliation with others (Beaudoin & Lachance, 2006). The use of clothes as markers of identity is particularly important at times of uncertainty, such as the transition from adolescence to adulthood (Piacentini, 2010).

In the modern theme of branding someone as a global consumer, there is no easier means to express this identity than through clothing. Textile supply chains were some of the earliest sources of global channels (Casson, 1984; Dickerson, 1995). As such, young consumers around the globe are familiar with the majority of global apparel brands either through media communications or availability of merchandise. The global apparel market claims a worth of USD1.2 trillion in 2012 (Euromonitor, 2012). Of this, USD186 billion is commanded by a younger global generation (Marketline, 2012) because clothing plays an important role in their daily lives: clothing purchases are one of the biggest expenditures in their budgets (Saskisian-Miller, 2009). Researchers report a unifying theme in young consumer clothing consumption around the world, from Los Angeles, California to Tokyo, Japan with more and more young consumers participating in similar

clothing behaviors (The Nielsen Company, 2009; Wee, 1999). As domestic markets become more saturated, apparel firms actively seek to expand into new and emerging markets (Newman et al., 2011). Given that young consumers around the world have multiple opportunities for exposure to global brands, it is interesting to investigate the degree to which these unifying consumption habits exist among young Thai and American consumers related to sportswear consumption.

A number of researchers have stated that sportswear brands are representative of the globalized consumer (Corbellini & Saviolo, 2009; Douglas, 2004; Ko et al., 2011). The active sportswear apparel industry and footwear product group is one of the most heavily branded areas in the global apparel market (Hanazee & Asadollahi, 2012). Furthermore, many sportswear brands are consistently ranked as the most recognized global brands. For example, according to a recent report by Interlink (2011), Nike is ranked 25th and Adidas is ranked 60th among global apparel brands around the world. In addition, three sportswear firms today (Nike, Adidas, and UnderArmour) account for over 65% of the total U.S. sportswear market (Mintel, 2011). These brands have also adopted a heavily globalized marketing strategy with large proportions of their sales coming from international markets. Nike revealed that 57% of their revenue last year was from international markets (Nike, 2012), while Adidas stated that 77% of their profit in 2011 was from international operations (Adidas, 2012). In addition, UnderArmour, a relative newcomer to the market, showed that 25% of its operating income was derived from international markets in 2011 (UnderArmour, 2012).

In addition, according to Mintel's (2011) report, the young consumer segment represents a vital growth market for the sportswear industry. Active lifestyles are an emerging trend among young consumers who see the benefits of such lifestyles both physically and socially. Young consumers view an active lifestyle as inherently social in nature. This social dimension adds additional complexity to the fashion nature of sportswear apparel products (Hogg, Bruce, & Hill, 1998). Nearly half of sportswear purchases are bought with the approval of friends or family members and this trend is skewed even higher among younger consumers (Mintel, 2011).

Furthermore, the USD120 billion sportswear industry has seen double digit growth since 2009, surpassing other apparel segments (Mintel, 2011). In the American market alone, revenues generated from sporting goods, equipment, apparel and footwear reached a total of USD77.3 billion in 2011, an increased of 4.2% from 2010; revenues from this apparel segment is expected to increase in 2013 (Ganguly, 2012). Specifically, Asian markets, particularly within Chinese and Indian markets, are seeing an increased demand in sportswear (Wilson, 2012).

Purpose of the Study

Given the impact of globalization on consumer markets and the strategic implications of a global consumer culture, it is imperative that academics and practitioners examine factors influencing young consumers' attitudes and purchase behaviors toward sportswear products in a cross-cultural context. The current study seeks to examine how different socialization agents affect young consumers' socialization

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processes and help them to acquire certain mental and behavioral outcomes within a global consumer culture.

Therefore, the purpose of the study is to develop and empirically examine a model of young consumers' apparel brand resonance within a global sportswear context. Specifically, the research objectives guiding the study are four-fold:

1. to examine the role of socialization agents as determinants of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture (AGCC);

2. to investigate the impact of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture on their perception of brand equity;

3. to examine the effect of young consumers' perceived brand equity on brand attitude, which in turn, is expected to influence brand resonance; and

4. to explore whether such a model can be applied with young consumers residing in developing countries (i.e., Thailand). If the model can be applied across samples, we can further explore similarities and differences regarding the relationships proposed in the model.

Significance of the Study

With the advancement of global channels of communication and interaction among cultures in the modern consumer marketplace, global sportswear firms aspire to identify and target the growing young consumer segment in emerging markets around the globe (Mintel, 2011). In order to address this increased interest in the young global consumer segment, the proposed dissertation empirically investigates the antecedents and consequences of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture across two

socioeconomically and culturally different nations (e.g., Thailand and the United States). The findings contribute to both the practitioner and academic disciplines.

Managerially, the success of global brand management hinges upon consumers' favorable attitudes and positive behavioral responses to brands. Many companies who have attempted to expand their markets internationally have encountered challenges in effectively building their brand equity in foreign markets. An emerging body of research suggests that, in an increasingly competitive global marketplace, strong brand equity is likely to foster positive consumer attitudes and behavioral responses which consequently contribute to firms' financial successes (Keller, 1993; 2004; Motameni & Shahroki, 1998; Stahl et al., 2012). Therefore, identifying factors that influence consumers' perceived brand equity and brand purchasing behaviors help marketers and brand managers to better understand how to effectively market their brands in the global marketplace.

Furthermore, Riefler (2012) illustrates how positive evaluations of global brands depend on consumers' attitudes. While a plethora of studies have looked at the interpretation and benefits or consequences of global brands, there remains a dearth of research focusing on how young consumers connect global images and associations with sports apparel brands. While the sportswear industry is global in nature (Corbellini & Saviolo, 2009), the inherent nature of sporting events promote a national or local association which may overshadow any global associations with the brand name. The proposed dissertation answers an industry call for an investigation of the ways young

consumers come to associate global images with sportswear brands (Label Networks, 2012; Mintel, 2011).

The study's findings also contribute to an understanding of how socialization agents influence the consumption behaviors of young consumers in two cultural settings. By examining the socialization of each consumer group, this dissertation provides additional knowledge to global sportswear managers allowing for a more beneficial marketing communication strategy in both markets. The study's findings provide information for marketing channel direction, scope, and messaging for global sportswear managers.

In terms of theoretical contributions, the results provide empirical evidence for the interrelationships between brand equity, attitudes toward brands, and brand resonance. The theoretical model guiding the current study reflects the notion of an emerging global acculturation process among a segment of the world's population to a set of global consumer preferences and ideals that are increasingly being embodied in global brands. The study's findings also provide insights and new directions as to the permanency of such a global segment.

In addition, the current dissertation contributes to the body of consumer socialization literature through a cross-cultural examination of socialization agents and their influence on acculturation to a global consumer culture. With the growing proportion of young consumers around the world, the need to thoroughly understand socialization agents and their role in the development of young consumers' consumption behaviors has become increasingly important. The study provides information for

academics as to the potential formation of attitudes among these young consumers in two socioeconomically and culturally different countries. Furthermore, the study offers insights into how parents, peers, and the media play a role in the lives of these young adults in both settings.

Finally, the current study contributes to the global branding literature in that it will provide empirical support for the development of a model of young consumers' apparel purchase behavior within the global sportswear context that can generalized to different settings. It also provides information related to influencing factors of brand equity and brand purchase behavior that may serve as segmentation tools to better develop global branding strategies. Lastly, it demonstrates how global branding in the sportswear context is received among young consumers in varying cultural settings.

Definition of Key Terms

The following table provides definitions for key terms that are applied throughout this dissertation.

Table 1. Definition of Key Terms

Key term	Definition
Apparel	Clothing or attire used to dress the body (Rosenau & Wilson, 2006)
Apparel Industry	Industry involved in manufacturing garments and certain accessories (Dickerson, 1999).
Attitude toward Global Brands	A consumer's predisposition to respond in a favorable or an unfavorable manner towards global brands (Steenkamp et al., 2003, p. 37)

Brand Equity	A set of assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name, and symbol that adds or detracts from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to the firm's customers. (Aaker, 1991)
Brand Resonance	The conceptual encapsulation of brand-consumer relationship that reflects the extent to which the consumer feels the brand meaning resonates with their self-concept. Brand resonance can be usefully characterized in terms of two dimensions: intensity and activity. Intensity refers to the strength of the attitudinal attachment to the brand and sense of community with others. Activity refers to the behavioral changes engendered by this loyalty. (Keller, 2012)
Globalization	"The rapidly developing and ever-dispensing network of interconnections and interdependences that characterize modern social life" (Tomlinson, 1999, p. 2)
Global Brands	"Brands with a high degree of similarity across countries with respect to brand identity, position, advertising strategy, personality, product, packaging, and look or feel" (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 1999, p. 306)
Global Consumer Culture	"A social arrangement in which the relations between lived culture and social resources, and between meaningful ways of life and the symbolic and material resources on which they depend, are mediated through markets." (Arnold & Thompson, 2005, p. 869)
Local Brand	Brands only available in a specific geographic region (Dimofte, Johansson, & Ronkainen, 2008, p. 118).
Sportswear Industry	Any of a wide variety of apparel items designed to be worn for active sports. Not to be confused with official athletic uniforms worn by professional athletes, although such uniforms may serve as inspiration for the design of some sportswear products (Calasibetta & Tortora, 2003).
Teenager	Person aged 13-17 (Gallard, 2003).
Youth	Person between the age of 15 and 24 (UNESCO, 2012).

Organization of Chapters

Chapter I provides a general introduction to the overall dissertation, including the background of relevant research topics, statement of problem, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study and definitions of key terms. Chapter II provides a review of the literature pertinent to the current field of inquiry. Literature will be synthesized from the areas of the definition and development of youth culture, consumer socialization, globalization, global consumer culture, global branding, acculturation, AGCC scale development, and youth in Thailand. Chapter II also offers the conceptual framework and a set of testable hypotheses. Chapter III presents the methodology utilized in the study, including survey instrument development, sample selection, data collection procedures, and expected statistical analysis methods that will be used to test each of the hypothesized relationships.

Chapter IV presents the results of statistical analysis that were employed to answer all proposed hypotheses, including an overview of sample characteristics, descriptive statistics of all variables, confirmatory factor analysis, results of multigroup analysis and the results of measurement or statistical models. Chapter V presents the discussion and conclusion of the study including a discussion of each proposed hypothesized relationship, implications and limitations or future research directions.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides an overview of the literature that seeks to answer the research objectives discussed in the previous chapter. The literature review includes the following topics: the globalization of young consumer markets relative to the impact of globalization: homogenization versus hybridization of cultures, global consumer culture and its consumption of global brands, the young global consumer segment and its consumption of global brands, and strategic approaches of sportswear brands in global markets; and theoretical foundations relative to consumer socialization, acculturation to global consumer culture, consumer-based brand equity, and outcomes of consumer-based brand equity. This information is then utilized as a foundation to develop a conceptual framework and a set of testable hypotheses.

The Globalization of Young Consumer Markets

The Impact of Globalization: Homogenization versus Hybridization of Cultures

Globalization can be fundamentally defined as "the intensification of global interconnectedness, suggesting a world full of movement and mixture, contact and linkages and persistent cultural interaction and exchange" (Inda & Rosaldo, 2008, p. 4). Following nearly two decades of postwar industrial rehabilitation in Western Europe and Japan, transnational corporations (TNCs) made concerted efforts in the 1960s to relocate plants overseas, while flooding Third World countries with commercial advertising the

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speed the circulation of commodities and the absorption of surplus production

(Robertson, 1992). There have been a number of research studies on the positive or

negative sources of and outcomes associated with globalization (see Inda & Rosaldo,

2008 for a comprehensive review). The modern world is seeing an intensification of

global interconnection in various circuits, including economic, political, cultural and

ecological interdependence (Crothers, 2012). This fluidity of capital, people, images,

ideas, and goods across the globe has brought the most remote parts of the world into

contact with global centers (Crothers, 2012; Robertson, 1992).

From a cultural standpoint, the impact of globalization has traditionally been

viewed as falling into one of two perspectives (Machida, 2012). That is, some researchers

argue that globalization eliminates the diversity of local cultures and brings about a

"homogenization" of cultures. This "homogenization thesis" (Artz & Kamalipour, 2003;

Friedman, 2011; Van Elteren, 2003) argues that in a new twist in modern colonialism,

globalization serves as a vehicle through which to indoctrinate the globe into a single,

mostly Western, consumer-oriented culture. Sklair (2001) suggests that globalization

promotes cultural values that are consistent with capitalism. Tomlinson (1997) contends

that globalization is in actuality only the continuation of a long historical process of

Western imperialist expansions, embracing the colonial patterns of the early colonial

hegemony. Murphy (2003) further notes that through the act of urbanization of "global

cities" around the world, increasing numbers of citizens in Third World countries are

quickly becoming familiar with global media, brands, and products. "Globalization does

not mark a break from the exploitative relationships the West has established with the

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Third World; rather it reveals the current economic initiatives such as privatization and neoliberalism are intimately connected with colonialism and imperialism" (p. 58).

Globalization affects countries differently, particularly across industrialized nations and emerging nations (Giddens, 1990). According to Giddens (1990), it is the "intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa" (p. 64). These intensifications lead to struggles within cultures to incorporate the meaning of global issues into the context of a national or local life (Dadush & Shaw, 2011; Greene & Kuswa, 2012). Greene and Kuswa's (2012) article speak to how globalization is viewed by many in the emerging markets as a means through which to redistribute the global wealth from industrialized nations to emerging ones. Through the advancement of foreign direct investment (FDI) and proliferation of global brands, media and technologies, emerging nations today are more connected and more involved in global policies. Recently, Johnson and La Ferle (2012) state, "As the middle class rises in China, India and many parts of the world, consumers in Beijing and New Delhi gain the market importance that their 'Western' brethren have come to expect. Such influence changes cultures, individuals, and societies in startling, wondrous, and terrifying ways" (Johnson & La Ferle, 2012, p. 435).

This "homogenization" argument captures the early flows of information from Western or industrialized centers to peripheral locals. However, the homogenization discourse fails to capture the actual complexity of the real-global connectedness currently being seen (Inda & Rosaldo, 2008). One issue is that the model suggests that consumers

in Third World countries are passive consumers of imported cultural goods. Instead, Third World consumers will not simply absorb the foreign ideologies but will bring their own cultural dispositions and nuances into the assortment (Crothers, 2012).

While the homogenization thesis claims that globalization eliminates the diversity of local cultures (Artz & Kamalipour, 2003; Machida, 2012; Van Elteren, 2003), other scholars argue for a "hybridization" of cultures as more people become interconnected (Holton, 2000; Pieterse, 2009; Walker, 1988). Instead of a subversion of cultures, "hybridization" argues that as cultures come into contact, their intermingling can generate a unique set of images and meanings that are not tied to a single group but instead are deterritoralized (Pieterse, 2009). Pieterse (2009) calls hybridization a perspective belonging "to the fluid end of relations between cultures: the mixing of cultures and not their separateness is emphasized" (p.86). This hybridization has also been referred to as "Glocalization" (Robertson, 1992), where the new culture is internalized through the local culture and emerges as something unique to both the foreign and domestic cultures separately (Holt, 2012).

"Glocalized" branding practices, then, represent local interests and meanings, subverting global messages with more politically conscious interpretations and uses (Holt, 2012; Robertson, 1992). In Benjamin Barber's (1992) book *Jihad vs. McWorld*, McDonald's, an emblem of corporate globalization, was not colonizing regions but instead being presented, interpreted, and re-constructed in a collaboration of culture through both global and local meanings. Thus, the McDonald's brand is internalized into each new culture (Inda & Rasaldo, 2008). Additionally, other cross-national studies have

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indicated that cultures around the world still maintain their unique characteristics in the face of global influences (Ingelhart & Barker, 2000; Norasakkunkit, Uchida, & Toivonen, 2012). These scholars contend that the strength of local cultures can and does remain even in the face of global forces.

A number of researchers have argued that national cultural differences are engraved in consumers' perceptions through repetitive association with key institutions and agents central to the development, transmission, and retention of cultural norms and meanings (Barber, 1992; Inda & Rasaldo, 2009; Ingelhart, & Barker, 2000; Watson et al., 2002). Therefore, although consistent metaphors may be used in advertisements to convey brand meaning and enhance brand information processing, little is understood about consumers' comprehension of intended meanings (Morgan & Reichert 1999), and even less about consumers' comprehension in "global brands" meanings (Roberts & Cayla, 2009). For consumers from different socioeconomic backgrounds, it is likely that the same stimuli do not necessarily build equivalent meanings or associations, but rather may reflect different sets of personal meanings and associations (Khalid & Helander 2004; Thompson, Pollio, & Locander, 1994). Dilts and Delozier (2000) argue that this is because the messages, events, and experiences that consumers find the most meaningful are those which are the most connected to their local culture.

Berthon et al. (2009) suggest that brand meaning is an outcome of brand communication and the knowledge base of the recipient of the messages. They further suggest that consistent communication to different audiences will result in shared meaning only when the different groups share a common knowledge base. Thus, global

consumer culture relies on the existence of a set of shared symbols, experiences, and images that transcend the local cultural confines and associate the citizen with the larger, global marketplace (Douglas & Craig, 2012; Holt et al., 2004; Kjeldaard & Askegaard, 2006; Özsomer, 2012; Steenkamp et al., 2003).

This perspective describes global consumer groups around the world that draw upon a shared set of consumption-related symbols and resources (Holt et al., 2004) using consumption as a means to access symbolic properties from that which is consumed. In this perspective, hybridization is seen as a fusion of cultural elements from various cultural practices rather than the predominance of one cultural element over others (Pieterse, 2009). This view acknowledges the effects of globalization and the increasing ease with which groups can access information, images, and products from around the world as the basis to constitute the shared set of consumption-related symbols often referred to as a "global consumer culture" (Arnold & Thompson, 2005). However, it stops short of suggesting that different cultures will ultimately converge (Westjohn & Maggusson, 2011).

Global Consumer Culture and its Consumption of Global Brands

Definition of Global Brands

The term "brand" has become so overly defined that its meanings are as varied as the brand names under examination (Özsomer, 2012; Stern, 2006). While some researchers view brands as consisting of the visual and verbal representations associated with forms and their services (Farquhar et al., 1991; Simon & Sullivan, 1993; Stern, 2006), others define brand as a consumer's collection of perceptions pertaining to a

certain firm (Fournier, 1998; Keller, 1992; Washburn & Plank, 2002). Stern's (2006)

meta-analytical examination takes a historical evaluation of the multiple

conceptualizations of "brand" definitions over the years. Stern (2006) begins from a

literal meaning for brand as the "assets of a firm that reside in the brand name owned and

managed by the firm" (Varadarajan, Defanti, & Busch, 2006 cited in Stern, 2006, p. 221),

and moves to a metaphorical definition which views brands as "symbols around which

consumers and sellers can establish a relationship, thereby creating a focus or identity"

(Pitt et al., 2006 cited in Stern, 2006, p. 221).

In the modern space, brands take on additional importance in defining companies

and products within the marketplace as well as ascribing meaning to the consumer

(Özsomer, 2012). Aaker (1991) defines a brand's role as two-fold: 1) to provide an

identity to the sellers and 2) to differentiate itself from competitors. Hoyer and Brown

(1990) suggest that consumers use brand names as a heuristic cue when they are

inexperienced with a product or purchasing environment. In other words, the brand serves

to reduce consumers' search costs as they are able to use cognitive images, information,

and associations to shorthand mental evaluative processes (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987;

Özsomer, 2012).

An outcome of the growing influence of globalization is the emergence of brand

availability in a multitude of nations and regions (Hollis, 2010). As companies expand

into new markets, they see the new growth opportunities, untapped markets and new

consumer segments. As a result, firms are using their centralized brand names and

messaging for global growth (Douglas & Craig, 2012; Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004).

These global brands provide benefits for both firms and consumers and constitute a new era of brand management (Van Gelder, 2003; Steenkamp et al., 2003). Therefore, global brands are defined in the current study as "brands which are available in most countries worldwide, have a uniform positioning and image worldwide and are perceived by consumers as being 'global'" (Douglas & Craig, 2012, p.4).

Globalization has made it increasingly popular for businesses to leverage strong brand names as tools for growth in new or emerging markets (Douglas & Craig, 2012). Motameni and Shahrokhi (1998) posit that a global brand provides additional value to a firm compared to a brand restricted to local or regional values from both the financial and consumer market perspectives. Global brands provide efficiency, uniformity, and simplicity in the production, distribution, and promotion of a product (Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004). A global brand is marketed according to a set of core principles across the world, meaning that the brand relies on the same product formulation, the same core benefits and values, and the same positioning in various locations. However, one or more elements of the marketing mix, such as price, packaging, media, distribution channels, may be varied to suit the needs of individual markets (Aasker & Joachimsthaler, 1999). The main function of brands is no longer to protect from imitation by competitors, but to invent and disseminate identities and lifestyles (Ermann, 2011). Global brands reflect a global economy of signs where consumption "must not be understood as the use-values, as material utility, but primarily as the consumption of signs" (Featherstone, 2007, p. 83).

In addition, from a consumer perspective, global brands provide benefits such as associations with status and prestige (especially in emerging markets) and a connection to

a larger global community. Furthermore, global brands are widely popular today with billions of consumers buying and consuming them daily (Douglas & Craig, 2012). Global brands have widespread global awareness, availability, acceptance and demand. They are often found under the same name with consistent market positioning (Özsomer, 2012). Steenkamp and his colleagues (2003) stipulate that global brands signal high quality and prestige, social esteem and an aura of connection with a global community. Global brands satisfy an overwhelming desire for dependable, consistent modernity at lower prices (Johansson & Ronkainen, 2005; Steenkamp et al., 2003). As Özomer (2012) states, consumers equate global brand consumption with progress, success, efficiency and a promise of abundance. Researchers argue that global brands act as symbols of cultural ideals associated with a deterritorialized "global culture" (Hollis, 2010; Holt et al., 2004; Steenkamp et al., 2003). More and more, the global culture is being defined by the brand names and associated meanings (Hollis, 2010). More interestingly, as global culture is an ever-changing phenomenon, the global brands provide a channel through which international firms and consumers (and cultures) are continuously engaged in an open dialogue, intermingling and transitioning into the ever-expanding horizon. Hollis (2010) speculates that marketers provide a unifying and overarching theme that pulls global consumers together initially, serving to frame consumers' experiences and perceptions around a central concept of brand which the consumer then builds upon to collectively construct the global brand's definition. Thus, the typical definition for global brands centers on the supplier's and/or manufacturer's viewpoint, failing to take into account the consumers' perceptions of the brand's global image (Sterns, 2006). Therefore, there is a

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considerable move in the literature to understand how consumers develop the impression of a global brand image and to what extent this image effects their brand choices.

Global Consumer Culture

Global consumer culture is conceptualized as a modern result of the globalization effect. The traditional conceptualization of culture as being anchored to a specific region or location has given way to a new more global approach. The "nation-sate" (Appadurai, 1996) has historically functioned as a territorially constructed, culturally defined, political space (Crothers, 2012). A main way of achieving this cultural uniformity is through systematically subjugating the constituents living within its borders to a wide array of nationalizing policies and ceremonies such as citizenship granting, invention of symbols of nationhood, historical indoctrination, and institutions of bureaucracies and law (Inda & Rasaldo, 2009; Kamens, 2012). With the advancement of global systems, a collection of images, myths, and meanings have come to be regarded as non-territory specific and instead characteristic of a global consumer culture (GCC) (Özsomer, 2012; Ritzer, 2007; Westjohn & Magnusson, 2012).

Theodore Levitt (1983) is often credited as being the first to articulate the concept of a global marketplace and of global consumers. He posited that the development of technology and international media creates a homogenized market segment on a global scale. Arnold and Thompson (2005) later defined consumer culture as a "social arrangement in which the relations between lived culture and social resources, between meaningful ways of life and the symbolic and material resources on which they depend are mediated through markets" (p. 869). Similarly, Kozinets (2001) suggests that

consumer culture groups use market-generated commodities to orient the experiences and lives of its members. Westjohn and Magnusson (2011) refer to global consumer culture as "a particular state of consumption where groups draw on a globally available set of consumption-related symbols" (p. 324). The authors stated that as global brands became more widely available to consumers, these brands serve as symbols to open the door to connection with others outside the regional confines. A growing set of literature on this concept argues that a convergence of consumption habits is occurring for a select segment of global citizens (Özomer, 2011; Surman, 2009; Westjohn & Magnusson, 2011). Surman (2009) postulated that consumers gain exposure to more diverse ideas through global brands, contributing to the draw of the global consumer. Typically, these global consumers are thought to be the more affluent, younger members of a community (Hassan & Katsanis, 1994). Adding to the complexity of global consumer culture, cultures are not only multifaceted, they are very dynamic. Often as cultural forms or symbols enter a new culture, the meaning of the object or symbol changes (Archpru & Alden, 2010)

The central notion of global consumer culture is that in a modern world, core identities are defined and oriented in relation to consumption (Özsomer, 2012). Consumer culture has been called "a culture of consumption" (Slater, 1997, p. 8). People embracing consumer culture attempt to add meaning to their lives, to make sense of their environments, and to orient their own experiences and lives through consumption of products (Özsomer, 2012). The spread of global brands and products have led to the emergence of a global consumer culture that is not associated with any one particular

nation, though strongly reminiscent of Western brands and ideas (Westjohn &

Magnusson, 2012). This new hybrid culture is a conflicted entity initiated by the

globalization process. On one hand, the global culture can be seen to reduce diversity

among cultures; by contrast, it also induces a hybridization of an ever-increasing variety

of cultural nuances (Özsomer, 2012; Surman, 2009). Westjohn and Magnusson (2012)

recently conceptualized this global consumer culture as being "where consumer groups

around the world draw upon a shared set of consumption-related symbols and resources"

(p. 324). Consequentially, cultural patterns are no longer confined to a specific territory,

but rather interconnected across vast geographic areas (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007).

Global consumers are identified as individuals around the world whose cultural, social

and other differences are becoming less significant in terms of their consumption

(Keillos, D'Amico, & Horton, 2001). There is a general consensus among academics and

practitioners regarding the emergence of a homogenized market segment that extends

across national boundaries (Hassan & Katsanis, 1994; Westjohn & Magnusson, 2012).

Global consumer culture does not represent homogenization as originally

envisioned by Levitt (1983); it instead reflects the global diffusion of consumption signs

and behaviors predominately from Western or industrialized countries (Archpru & Alden,

2010). Consumers in different countries may recognize global consumer culture signs

such as global brand names, logos, or catchphrases, but still continuously rely on their

own local meaning system for interpretation, use, and display (Archpru & Alden, 2010;

Kjeldaard & Askegaard, 2006). Thus, global consumer culture is a complex phenomenon

comprising cultural similarities and differences as well as global and local meanings in a

constant state of change (Holton, 2000). This dynamic phenomenon is driven by the continuous transference of cultural artifacts and their embedded meanings to conventional thought (McCracken, 1986). Scholars argue that it is this discourse that continuously revitalizes and sustains the global consumer culture (Artz & Kamalipour, 2003; Crother, 2012; Holton, 2000; Sklair, 1994).

According to Kjeldaard and Askegaard (2006), as cultural meanings move through interconnected pathways, such as technology and media, new cultures are created that can be found within local cultures and span across nations. Strizhakova and her colleagues (2008) argue that this emergent culture is often identified through symbols such as global brands. The brand serves as a symbol that embodies the ideas and qualities associated with a global consumer culture (Hollis, 2010). Brands come to encapsulate the languages, myths, images, and customs associated with their parental firms (Stern, 2006), and/or the social groups made up primarily with customers, external from the production firm, that are associated with brand recall (Fournier, 1998).

Young Global Consumer Segment and Its Consumption of Global Brands

With the growth of global markets and multinational corporations, young consumers today are more familiar with products and brands available in multiple national locations (Deutsch & Theodorou, 2010). Hass and Katsanis (1994) postulate that young consumers around the world are increasingly being exposed to similar media and marketing messages, leading to a related culture consisting of symbols, language and meanings that transcend national boundaries. The young consumer culture on a global

scale tends to share "a youthful lifestyle that values growth and learning with appreciation for future trends, fashion, and music" (p. 59).

A young global consumer segment has been shown to have similar leisure activities (Kjeldaard & Askegaard, 2006) with similar brand interests (Lukose, 2005). Chen (2003) observes that young consumers around the world are likely to purchase these global brands to reinforce their membership in a specific reference group. Specifically, Chen argues that among young Chinese consumers, the global brands provide an avenue of dissention from national traditions and a medium through which to connect with an external world, separate and sometimes in conflict with national or local customs. This sentiment is echoed in Chu and Huang (2010) who found that young Chinese and American consumers tend to display similar values and preferences toward global brand purchases. That is, young consumers in the two countries viewed global brands as a vehicle through which to connect to the larger, global marketplace. Özsomer (2012) refers to this as "passports to global citizenship" (p. 44).

Brown and Larson (2002) note the union of young consumer habits across the globe, specifically in middle-class families, where youth have been shown to "wear the same clothes and hair styles, listen to some of the same music, and adopt similar slang expressions" (p. 1). Using data collected from eight different regions, Brown and Larson (2002) reported on an emerging class of young consumers around the world in terms of shared product interests and experiences, as well as aspirations.

Cole (2008) later showed how Western fashion consumption was proliferated in urban Madagascar among young consumers. In fact, fashion is an often utilized product

category for demonstrating similarities and differences related to global consumption because of its ability to serve as a social identifier for connecting with either a local or global group as well as constructing the internal concept of self for a young consumer (Cleveland, Laroche, & Papadopolous, 2009; Ermann, 2011; Hassler, 2003; Lumpkin & Crawford, 1985). For example, Cleveland et al. (2009) investigated ethnic food consumption and fashion product purchases as indicative of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture. Ermann (2011) investigated how young Bulgarian consumers viewed Western fashion brands as more prestigious, thus adding a higher value perception than traditionally ascribed to the brands. In contrast, Hassler (2003) investigated how fashions in the emergent countries were transcending their local locus and disseminating across modernized consumer markets, concluding that this blending of local images and practices with varying places and cultures allows for the continuation of an emergent young global consumer culture.

Strizhakova, Coulter, and Price (2012) recently examined the uniformity of college-aged consumers from Russia and Brazil. They took the stance that the young consumer cohort did indeed have diversity and set out to segment college-aged consumers in Russia and Brazil by their affinity to global versus local brand consumption. Their research found a consistent "glocally-engaged" segment of young adult consumers who viewed consumption of global brands as representative of both global and national identities. This segment of young consumers tended to use both local and global brands as identity markers to distinguish themselves from other segments in the marketplace. They also found a segment of "globally-engaged" consumers who

exhibited an even higher identification with a global consumer market, demonstrating the multifaceted notion of how global brands are both being internalized to localize meaning while also retaining a separate, unique identity with some members of the young global consumer segment.

Chen-Yu, Hong, and Seock (2010) investigated apparel store selection among young consumers from South Korea and America and found a group of consumers that shared similar apparel consumption motives and evaluation criteria for retail selection. Wee (1999) also examined young consumers in America and Asian countries (i.e., Singapore, Japan and China) and found dramatic similarities and differences across young consumer groups. While there was a consistent set of brands and consumption habits demonstrated by all consumer groups, young Asian consumers also demonstrated significantly different meanings attributed to consumption and a higher affinity towards social conformity while young American consumers demonstrated a more distinction-driven approach to consumption. Culture was seen as having an influential effect on the consumption choices of this young global consumer segment.

A commonly utilized dimension of cultural value that has been used to compare American and Asian cultures is individualism versus collectivism (Kim et al., 2006; Kirkman et al., 2006; McNeal et al., 1993). In individualistic countries (e.g., the United States), persons tend to prefer independent relationships to others and are more or less detached from the group (Hofstede, 2001). For example, in individualistic cultures that are predominately found in Western European and North America, individuals prefer independent relationships with one another and prioritize individual goals over group

goals (Lee & Yoo, 2012). By contrast, in collectivist countries, typically found in Asia, individual goals are subverted to the priorities of the group (Kirkman et al., 2006). As a result, collectivists are willing to make sacrifices for their in-group memberships which might be demonstrated in their preference to be associated with a global consumer culture.

The following section addresses the literature on global brand consumption in relation to the sportswear products category. It addresses how apparel brands are uniquely positioned in this category to expand into emerging markets. It also addresses how sportswear brands provide a unique position in consumer life as they are tied to a global image while also serving to reinforce local identification with sports teams or events. This provides credence for further investigation into how young consumers use sportswear brands to identify with a global consumer culture.

Strategic Approaches of Sportswear Brands in Global Markets

Within the apparel industry, global brands represent a dominant force. The industry's fragmentation and oligopolistic characteristics promote a "buyer-driven" market where brand names serve as strong corporate assets in gaining and maintaining a strong market presence (Gereffi & Frederick, 2010). Today, many apparel firms have chosen to focus on managing their brands rather than emphasizing an outsourcing strategy (Corbellini & Saviolo, 2009). The brand is fast becoming the fulcrum of marketing strategies with sportswear apparel companies today being increasingly aware of how the brand plays a fundamental role in stabilizing the relationship between the company and a given segment of consumers who identify with it.

A recent Mintel (2011) report revealed that the top three sportswear firms today - Nike, Adidas/Reebok and UnderArmour - account for over 65% of the total U.S. sportswear market. These brands spend a considerable proportion of their assets on promoting strong consumer-brand association and continuing relations (Dawes, 2009). Nike's former CEO Phil Knight noted regarding the importance of global brand management, "For years we thought of ourselves as a production-oriented company, meaning that we put all our emphasis on designing and manufacturing the product. We've come around to saying that Nike is a marketing-oriented company, and the product is our most important marketing tool" (cited in Klein, 2000, p.44).

In Goldman and Papson's (1998) book on Nike's global positioning, they describe how Nike's global *Just Do It* marketing campaign is one of the most widely known brand messages around the world and was instrumental in developing and sustaining Nike's ascent to the number one sports apparel company in the world. Likewise, Scherer and Jackson (2007; 2008; 2010) examined Adidas's global advertising campaign with the iconic "All Black" rugby team in New Zealand to explore the representations of national identity within the global and local nexus. Their analysis highlighted the complex nature of the global-local diffusion of brand meaning within varying cultural backdrops. In fact there has been an increased interest in the globalization of sports in recent years (Andrews & Ritzer, 2007; Cho, 2009; Giulianotti & Robertson, 2007; Kobayashi, 2011; Lee, Jackson, & Lee, 2007; Wedon, 2012).

A general consensus has been developed in that many global sport brands (i.e., Adidas and Nike) promote standardized marketing activities but localize their social

programs and celebrity endorsements (Kobayashi, 2012). Kobayashi (2012) further

provides an excellent case study of how Nike's recent *Where is the Next?* advertising

campaign was implemented across Australia, China, Japan, and South Korean cultures.

The campaign targeted young consumers in each of the countries with standardized

messages and an image component adjusted to localized sport icons who served to

endorse the brand; additionally, marketing events and social program campaigns within

each of the nations served to socially internalize the brand's campaign. Nike designed the

overall campaign to use Ronaldo de Assis Moreira (more commonly known as

Ronaldinho), a world-famous male soccer athlete, in marketing campaigns across

Australia, China, Japan and South Korea while localizing the marketing messages and

social programs to each locale. Ronaldinho was selected because he represented

achieving a person's peak performance and was highly identifiable among young

consumers across the globe. The advertising agency, Wieden+Kennedy (Tokyo) was

responsible for developing localized commercials with the central theme of achieving

peak performance while adapting to regional customs and nuances; for example,

Ronaldinho was depicted playing for a club team in Australia, on the city streets of

Beijing (China), and at a school in Japan. The media firm also emphasized national teams

in South Korea and Australia, having Ronaldinho partner with national athletes in media

and sponsored events.

Furthermore, the marketing of sports events also serves as a multi-billion-dollar

industry across the globe where global sportswear brands gain widespread notoriety and

recognition. Giddens (2006) discusses globalization by pointing to the FIFA World Cup

as a key example of the globalizing effects of information and communication technologies. FIFA boasts 209 national member organizations across six continents (FIFA, 2012) and oversees the FIFA World Cup, a tournament of member nations' teams that grossed USD 2 billion revenue in 2010 (Rambler, June 16, 2010). Sports mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic games illustrate the modern internationalization within the sports arena (Horne, 2012). Adidas, a sponsor for the 2012 London Olympic games, was recorded as paying around USD 62 million in advertising alone during the events. By contrast, Nike (not a registered sponsor of the 2012 London Olympic games) has nonetheless engaged in "ambush" marketing campaigns which were scheduled to be launched during the events without the written or paid consent of the Olympic Council. Ambush marketing ads are projected to have cost the global sportswear leader (i.e., Nike) tens of millions of pounds globally (Segal, July 24, 2012). These examples serve to illustrate the market importance of such global sports events for sportswear brands. According to Giddens (2006), brands are easily disseminated across borders, gaining international recognition, while promoting a global image and connection with a larger consumer community (Giddens, 2006).

In sum, the above section notes the breadth of literature pertaining to the globalization of young consumer markets and young consumers' consumption of global brands. The next section addresses the theoretical foundations pertinent to areas of consumer socialization, acculturation to the global consumer culture, consumer-based brand equity, and outcomes of consumer-based brand equity related to attitudes toward the brand and brand resonance.

Theoretical Foundations

Consumer Socialization

Socialization is defined as "the process by which individuals adapt to and internalize society" (Corsaro, 2011, p. 9). Ward (1974) described consumer socialization as the process by which a young person acquires the skills necessary to effectively operate in a modern, consumer marketplace. According to Ward (1974), children are a unique segment of the social population whose behaviors are becoming more and more influenced by market practices. He further suggests that there are three primary socialization agents: family, peer groups, and mass media; these three may influence young people's cognitive development and social learning skills.

A number of researchers have stated that consumer socialization research is driven by cognitive and social learning models (Bush, Smith, & Martin, 1999; Moschis, 1981, 1987). Based on the cognitive development model, learning occurs between infancy and adulthood via the constant interaction of cognitive-psychological processes of an individual with the environment. The cognitive development model focuses on the developmental process of an individual through different life stages (Moschis & Moore, 1979). The social learning model, on the other hand, describes learning as an interaction between an individual and socialization agents (e.g., family and friends). The social learning model also considers age as one of the more important structural variables (e.g., age, sex, ethnicity, income, and social class) affecting learning (Moschis & Moore, 1979). Most applications of socialization state that the repetitive influences of these sources provide the necessary motivations for proper manners to be instilled in a child

(Casaro, 2011; Gewirtz, 1969; John, 1999). In this context, learning typically includes

three processes: modeling, reinforcement, and social interaction (Moschis & Churchill,

1978). Modeling is where a young individual mimics the actions portrayed by authority

figures or individuals that they wish to appease (i.e., parents, peers, or media

personalities). Reinforcement occurs when the actions of an individual are either

rewarded or punished as to promote the desired actions and disapprove of the undesirable

choices. Finally, social interaction is also believed to be a very powerful influence on the

development of consumer beliefs and actions, particularly for young consumers (Rogoff,

2003). According to Moschis and Churchill (1978), all three socializers (parents, peers,

and media) expose the young consumer to the acceptable behaviors through providing

normative and informational influences. Normative influence deals with social

perceptions of acceptable practices and reinforces desirable behaviors through social

confirmation or rejection. Informative influence involves the exposure and internalization

of information necessary in weighing options and performing necessary consumer

practices in the marketplace (Lascu & Zinkhan, 1999). Normative influence operates

through compliance where the consumer accepts influence in order to obtain a favorable

reaction from others, a reward, or to avoid punishment, whereas informational influence

helps to guide consumers in product, brand, and store search (Bearden, Netemeyer, &

Teel, 1989; Mascarenhas & Higby, 1993).

Socialization Agents

<u>Parents</u>

Parents have historically played a pivotal role in the development of children. Wilkie (1994) describes four ways in which consumer socialization occurs within families: parents act as models for their children; parents discuss consumer activities with their children; younger children emulate older siblings; and the family provides opportunities for children to experience being consumers in their own right.

Driven by Ward's (1974) seminal work on consumer socialization, a number of pivotal articles with the focus on family communication begin with Moschis and colleagues in the early 1980s. One of the most notable leaders of this era was George Moschis. Moschis's (1985) seminal article entitled "The Role of Family Communication in Consumer Socialization of Children and Adolescents" appeared in the *Journal of Consumer Research*. The article presents a typology of family communication patterns and argues for two dimensions, socio-orientation and concept-orientation. Socio-orientation is defined as promoting a child's deference to parental instruction and authority, while concept-orientation promotes a more harmonious and open relationship with parental figures (Moschis, 1985). Four typologies were then proposed based on these two dimensions; laissez-faire, protective, pluralistic, and consensual. Laissez-faire approaches show a lack of emphasis on both socio-orientation and concept-orientation. There is little if any communication that occurs between parent and child. Protective families stress social harmony and obedience in their communication with their child with little concern over conceptual matters. Pluralistic families encourage open

communication with a mutual respect and interest demonstrated by parents. In pluralistic families, there is a discussion of ideas without insistence on obedience to authority. The child is encouraged to explore new ideas and express them without fear of retaliation. Finally, consensual families stress both types of communication and encourage the child to take an interest in the world, yet to do so without disturbing the family's hierarchy of opinion and internal harmony (Ekstrom, 2006; Moschis, 1985).

In parallel, another typology for parental communication and socialization practices emerged during this period. Carlson and Grossbart (1988) proposed five parental socialization types: *Authoritarian*, *Rigid Controlling*, *Permissive*, *Authoritative*, and *Neglecting*. Authoritarian parents seek high levels of control over children because they view children as dominated by impulsive forces that must be managed diligently. A rigid controlling parent style is similar to authoritarian; however, this type of parent displays a detachment from emotional involvement in their child's socialization. Permissive parents are less restrictive than authoritarian in their interaction with offspring. They also demonstrate a higher frequency of verbal interaction with their children and would encourage dialogues with children. Authoritative parents displayed a higher degree of "warmth" relationship than authoritarian parents but still retained much of the restrictive nature in their control over their offspring's behaviors. Finally, neglecting parental styles demonstrate low degrees of warmth relationship, restrictiveness and emotion involvement, thus showing a general detachment from the actions of their children; this type had the lowest amount of communication with their children of all parental-style segments.

Carlson and Grossbart's (1988) article cited parental communication habits as indicative of certain approaches to parental control. Control is seen as paramount in both Moschis and Churchill's (1978) as well as Carlson and Grossbart's (1988) approaches. Control and power are used to explain the level of interaction and influence that family members have with one another. The notion of power and control was extended throughout research in the 1990s by a number of scholars (e.g., John, 1999; Mangleburg, 1990; McNeal, 1992). For example, McNeal (1992) claimed that parents, as pivotal socialization agents of children, are the first medium for directing the child's understanding of material possessions, money, and prices, in addition to serving as initial moderators for other sources of influence such as peers and media. One seminal work illustrative of this aspect of family communication patterns research was conducted by Palan and Wilkes in 1997. They employed power theory to explore influence strategies of both parents and adolescents. The authors interviewed 70 families to ascertain bargaining methods that were utilized in parent-child dialogues. Four types of bargaining methods emerged: *Money Deals* (bargaining over price and payment for items/services), *Other Deals* (bartering), *Reasoning* (presenting sides), and *Negotiation* (compromising over purchase options).

Furthermore, Ritchie (1991) posited that family communication patterns could be extended to interpersonal communication and social comparison by observing how children generate their concept of self through social interaction with peers and family. Ritchie's (1991) work was an early attempt to illustrate the connection between family communication and social communication. Ritchie (1991) further argues that family

patterns drastically predict the level of influence peer groups will have on a youth as he

or she searches for an individual identity. Influence is therefore conceptualized as two

forms: normative influence (dealing with social perceptions of acceptable and reinforced

practices) and informative influence (involving the exposure and internalization of

information necessary in weighing options and performing necessary consumer practices

in the marketplace). Other researchers have concluded that as children get older, the

parental influence gives way as children search for autonomy and peers become an

increasingly influential group (Youniss, 1980).

<u>Peers</u>

Peer relationships are an integral part of the early socialization of children

(Rogoff, 2003). Peers are typically defined as "a person of the same age group or social

set" (Ladd, 2005, p. 2). Peer groups tend to have common leisure interests, ethical values,

and preferences concerning lifestyle characteristics deemed important to that clique

(Arnett, 2007). Social learning theory argues that peer groups are the backdrop against

which children begin to form the foundation of values and ideas as they serve as

reference points upon which to compare experiences, emotions, and behaviors (Bandura,

1986). Peers influence how children look at the material world; they provide comparisons

and serve to reinforce product consumption behaviors (Ferguson, Winegard, &

Winegard, 2011; Hawkins & Coney, 1976).

Until the early 1990s, peer relations were considered by scholars to be rare, short-

lived and volatile (Schaffer, 1984). Schaffer (1984) posited that peer relations were

unstable and thus their influence was only temporary, while parental influence was more

conspicuous. At this time, the field was primarily fragmented with isolated pockets of scholarly work in child development psychology throughout the United States and Europe (Kernan & Singer, 2011). Early researchers emphasized ethnographic and qualitative research approaches as a means to "collect the natural worlds of childhood" (Howes, 1988). Howes (1988) was one of the first to study the factors that influence peer relationships in younger children. In his study, Howes (1988) looked at the social competence of young children as demonstrated in their *complimentary* and *reciprocal* play with peers. Howes (1988) argued that peer influence does not begin until children enter into school but showed progressively more influence as they aged.

In addition, other scholars postulated that young children and teens were more receptive to peers beginning in early education and peaking during adolescence when peers not only gain more of an influence but adolescents spend a larger proportion of their time with peers than their parents (Singer & de Haan, 2007). Remmers and Radler (1957) reported that American youth were very receptive to peers' opinions on clothing items and hair styles. In addition, Brittian (1963) also showed that females wanted to exhibit similar taste with their peers in clothing and relied heavily on peers' influence on clothing purchase decisions. Evans (1964) suggested the importance of social approval among U.S. young adults' clothing choices. Recently, Hong and Seock (2010) reported that young adults in South Korea and the U.S. tend to demonstrate a similar degree of reliability on peer approval in clothing choices. Adolescents who demonstrated a stronger desire for peer approval relied on more flattering garments, new or different styles, and more expensive garments (Hong & Seock, 2010).

In addition, Corsaro (1988) coined the term *peer culture* to denote the contextual nature of peer groups and their exerted influence on values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors as early as preschool. Peer relations provide children and young adults with experiences that facilitate growth of social competence and serve as resources of emotional support (Price, 1996). One recent study suggested that friendships might be influential in preventing escalation of victimization from bullied or abused youth: only in children without any peer groups did victimization predict future bad behaviors (Vitaro & Bukowski, 1999).

In contrast, the idea of negative peer contagion, where the negative influence of peers counteracts any positive impact, has been raised as an objection to group placements in early school education (Dishion, McCord, & Poulin, 1999; Gatti, Tremblay, & Vitaro, 2009). This deviant-contagion has been documented in schools, neighborhoods, and in-home settings (Vigdor, 2006). Experimental evidence on the impact of peer group exposure in deviant neighborhoods can be seen in Kling and Liebman's (2004) study. This study transplanted at-risk young adults into new neighborhoods through housing vouchers and provided more positive structured afterschool programs. The young adults, regardless of gender, showed a significant decrease in level of aggravated behavior levels (Sanbonmatsu et al., 2007).

Furthermore, recent research has emphasized siblings' influence on socialization (East & Shi, 1997; Jaffee et al., 2005). Although the specific mechanisms of peer influence have yet to be identified, studies have shown strong sibling influence on age of first sexual intercourse and pregnancy (East & Khou, 2005). Previous studies have

suggested that young children and adolescents are most influenced, in both positive and negative ways, by siblings that are older, of the same sex, and with whom they have a close, positive relationship (Brody, 1998; East & Khou, 2005).

Media

The third major socialization agent is mass media (Ward, 1974). The effect of mass media on children and adolescents has long been a major concern of academics and policymakers alike (de Lock & Buckingham, 2007). Today, young consumers live in a media-saturated world (Dubow, Huesman, & Greenwood, 2006). The commonly held belief is that aside from parents and peers, media plays a critical role in socializing children and adolescents to the customs and norms of the prevailing order. Advertising has a direct influence on how children and adolescents learn to view the world. Previous studies posit that advertising serves as a driving force in the cultural reproduction of identity in relation to nationalism, gender, sexuality, race, and social class (du Gay et al., 1997; Goldman & Papson, 1998; Leiss et al., 2005; Jackson & Andrews, 2005). In addition, young people today are exposed to an increasing amount of advertising and media messages (Jacobson, 2004). The most recent data revealed that children and adolescents spend the equivalent of eleven hours a day consuming some form of media (Rideout, Foehr, & Roberts, 2010). With the development and adoption of online and mobile technologies, young people are becoming increasingly media-oriented (Rideout et al., 2010; Sultan, Rohm, & Gao, 2009). Sultan et al. (2009) examined young Americans' and Pakistanians' adoption of mobile marketing and reported that young consumers in both countries were the most familiar segment of the population with this new medium.

They explained that similar consumption habits among young Americans and Pakistanians may also be attributed to higher exposure and adoption of mobile devices.

Media forces are seen to have disrupted the general process of socialization (de Block & Buckingham, 2007), upsetting the transmission of cultural values and norms from one generation to the next. According to this line of thought, globalization will inevitably result in the construction of a homogenized young global consumer culture, dominated by a small number of media superpowers (de Block & Buckingham, 2007; Kline, 1995). The media continues to be dominated by a small number of large multinational firms, including Walt Disney, Viacom, AOL, Time Warner, and Murdoch's News International or "News Corp." These companies also operate across media platforms, extending the economies of scale and synergies across channels via integrated marketing effort (de Block & Buckingham, 2007). Pokémon, Teenage Mutant Ninja Turtles, and Mighty Morphin Power Rangers, just to name a few, were collaborative efforts across various channels, including computer, videogames, TV, associated with various licensed merchandise deals such as trading cards, apparel, toys and other paraphernalia. Westcott (2002) further argues that this current oligopoly of media firms is constrained by financial controls and thus tends to abandon particular markets if they do not receive a desired return on investment. As a result, these periphery markets continue to have strong local firms, building upon global branding efforts to "glocalize" trends.

Non-traditional media, such as online and mobile media, have also generated a new avenue for the socialization of young people. With their growing global availability, online and mobile media have also been cited as a major vehicle for the proliferation and

construction of young global consumer culture (Forge, 2007; Glotz & Bertschi, 2005; Rideout et al., 2010). Online social media websites such as Facebook, Twitter, and MySpace attract millions of users daily, with many integrating exposure to these sites into their daily lives (Lueg et al., 2006; Okazaki, 2009). Okazaki (2009) employs the consumer socialization theory to illustrate the importance of these interactive media marketing platforms on brand-consumer connection and word-of-mouth (WOM) referral among young consumers.

Non-traditional media such as online websites, mobile technologies, and social media sites also provide a public forum to voice individual consumers' opinions and experiences (Kozinets et al., 2010). User-generated online product reviews are becoming increasingly commonplace and have a great impact on marketing (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004; Trusov, Bodapati, & Bucklin, 2010; Wang, Yu, & Wei, 2012). Such communal word-of-mouth (WOM) not only increases the frequency of marketing message exposure, but can also alter consumers' decisions (Casteleyn, Mottart, & Rutten, 2009; Kozinets et al., 2010). Casteleyn et al. (2009) investigated how Facebook was being integrated into the daily lives of young consumers and how this social medium has altered the way these young consumers interact with the products. They further state that information found on this social medium is easily disseminated across online groups. Participants in this social medium also claim high reliance for both normative and informative information from their Facebook community contacts (Casteleyn et al., 2009).

Overall, the above section presents an extensive review of literature pertaining to studies dealing with consumer socialization, specifically in relation to the three major

socialization agents: parents, peers, and media. Consumer socialization has been shown to be an integral and complex process that serves to frame the procedure through which information is passed along to group members and how the "naïve" become indoctrinated into the group norms and customs associated with effective consumer marketplace practices. With the explosion of media in the daily lives of young consumers (Rideout et al., 2010), the proliferation of a young global consumer segment is increasingly becoming a product of symbols, experiences, and images that are easily transposed across borders (Kline, 1995; Kjeldaard, & Askegaard, 2006). Does this then mean that parents and peers have a more subjugated role in the consumer socialization lives of today's young people? How might culture impact these roles?

The next section presents literature on another part of the proposed theoretical foundation: acculturation to the global consumer culture (AGCC). Consumer socialization agents present the sources of influence on how these young consumers acculturate to a global consumer culture.

Acculturation to the Global Consumer Culture (AGCC)

<u>Acculturation</u>

All humans have some likelihood of adopting or otherwise reacting to aspects of alien cultures that they encounter (Rudmin, 2003). Acculturation occurs when an individual come into continuous first-hand contact with the host culture, resulting in subsequent changes in the original cultural values, norms, and/or behaviors (Redfield et al., 1936). One commonly utilized theory to explain this process has been Berry's Fourfold Theory of Acculturation. This bi-dimensional model replaced older, one-

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dimensional models which were based on the perception that as individuals spend more time in a second culture, they simultaneously become more oriented toward that culture and relinquish their home culture (Huynh, Howell, & Benet-Martinez, 2009).

Berry's (1988) Fourfold Theory of Acculturation postulates a typology of reactions to encountering foreign cultures based on dichotomous responses to two fundamental questions: 1) is it important to maintain my original cultural heritage?; and 2) is it important to engage in intercultural contact with other groups, including members of the dominant group? Berry (1988) uses the dichotomic outcomes (yes vs. no) to those two questions as a means to segment the acculturation process into four different acculturation outcomes. These acculturation outcomes are integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalization. Integration occurs when an individual adopts some cultural patterns of the host culture while still retaining portions of his/her cultural heritage. This most often occurs through a melding of cultural ideals into a blend that is often a gestalt manifestation of a new unique collection of cultural norms. Assimilation is where it is necessary to engage with the intercultural context but unnecessary to maintain the original heritage. That is, an individual traditionally adjusts to the dominant norms and customs at the loss of their original cultural practices. Separation is where it is deemed necessary to maintain an individual's original heritage while abstaining from inter-culture dialogues. Thus, an individual separates from the dominant group in an effort to retain a division of identities and cultures within the larger social collection. Finally, marginalization is when it is neither necessary to maintain the home heritage nor to engage in intercultural contact (see Figure 1).

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Figure 1. Berry's 4-Mode Model of Acculturation

	Culture Maintenance (Yes)	Culture Maintenance (No)
Contact Participation (Yes)	Integration	Assimilation
Contact Participation (No)	Separation	Marginalization

According to Berry (1997), "acculturation strategies have been shown to have substantial relationships with positive adaptation: integration is usually the most successful; marginalization is the least, and assimilation and separation strategies are intermediate. This pattern has been found in virtually every study and is present for all types of acculturating groups" (p. 24). The conceptual field of acculturation is most positioned in the larger context of cross-culture psychology, which is credited with the task of inquiry into the cultural factors that influence the development and display of individual human behavior (Berry, 1997). Berry extends previous research by Graves (1967) and argues that acculturation happens at both a group and individual level. He further contends the importance of this distinction in that it acknowledges the societal systems and an institution's role in the acculturation process and that different people tend to react differently to the exposure or interaction of differing cultures (Berry, 1997).

Consumer Acculturation

Understanding the acculturation process is critical to researchers and marketers as the market becomes more global (Penaloza, 1989). Driven by Berry's (1988) acculturation model, Penazola (1989) later defines the consumer acculturation process as,

"the acquisition of skills and knowledge relevant to engaging in consumer behavior in one culture by a member of another culture" (p. 110) This includes how someone learns to buy and consume goods as well as what meanings one may attribute to the consumption of such goods.

Sam and Berry (2010) proclaim that the investigation of consumer acculturation habits of young people is central to understanding the field as they "exemplify the complexities of the processes and outcomes of acculturation" (p. 473). Alden et al. (2006) consider consumer acculturation to the growing global consumer culture in the construct of global consumer orientation (GCO). They argue that the global consumer orientation measures attitudes toward consumption alternatives across a global-hybrid-local continuum.

Acculturation to the Global Consumer Culture (AGCC)

In Cleveland and Laroche's (2007) seminal work, they set out to develop a scale to capture how individuals acquire knowledge and assimilate to the emerging global consumer culture. Cleveland and Laroche (2007) propose acculturation to the global consumer culture (AGCC) as a process describing "how individuals acquire the knowledge, skills and behaviors that are characteristic of a nascent and deterritorialized global consumer culture" (p. 252). Their original argument for scale development was built from acculturation works derived from Mendoza and Martinez (1981) and Berry (1997). They explain that, due to the forces of globalization, the emergent global consumer culture requires researchers to assess how individuals acquire the knowledge, skills and behaviors that are essential in a global consumer culture.

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Cleveland and Laroche (2007) posit that the acculturation to the global consumer culture is a multiple dimension phenomenon consisting of seven dimensions: cosmopolitanism; exposure to the marketing activities of multinational companies; exposure to and the use of the English language; social interactions via travel, migration, and contact with foreigners; global or foreign mass media exposure; self-dentify with the global consumer culture and the openness and desire to emulate global consumer culture. Cosmopolitanism (COS) refers to specific qualities held by certain individuals including the willingness to engage with different cultures and a level of competence towards foreign cultures. Exposure to the marketing activities of multinational companies (EXM) refers to the degree to which a person is exposed to marketing practices and images from multinational corporations. Exposure to and the use of the English Language (ELU) reflects the extent to which a person is exposed to and uses the English language for various communications, both written and spoken. Social interactions (SIN) include traveling, migration, and contact with foreigners. Social interactions also reflect the degree to which one is exposed to mass migration, the relaxing of national barriers and reduction of cost for international travel, resulting in direct and indirect contacts with divergent cultures. Global or foreign mass media exposure (GMM) is more broadly defined than the marketing activities of multinational corporations, including exposure to foreign news, media, and politics. Openness and desire to emulate global consumer culture (OPE) reflects the degree to which a person admires the lifestyles of other countries.

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Cross-Cultural Studies of Acculturation to the Global Consumer Culture

The acculturation to the global consumer culture scale was extended conceptually to be one end of a continuum which encapsulates consumers' reactions to globalization of markets (Cleveland, Laroche, & Papadopoulos, 2009). The opposite reaction includes consumer ethnocentrism (CET), which entails the consumer's conscious resistance to buying non-domestic brands and a demonstrated preference for locally made products. Cleveland et al. (2009) found that ethnicity identification served to counterbalance the acculturation process and affected consumer behaviors. Likewise, Cleveland, Laroche and Hallab (2012) and Sobol (2008) also report similar results when investigating young Lebanese and Dutch consumers. Cleveland et al. (2012) also examined different religious segments of Christians versus Muslims and its relation to the degree of acculturation to the global consumer culture. They found that Muslims showed a negative association with their level of "religiousity" and their degree of acculturation to the global consumer culture whereas Christians showed a non-significant effect on acculturation to the global consumer culture. Sobol (2008) investigated young Dutch consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture and found that those with high degree of acculturation to a global consumer culture preferred "culture-free" products, whereas those with a low degree of acculturation to the global consumer culture preferred culturally rich products to re-emphasize their association with the local culture.

Since its introduction, the scale has only been partially tested in a few areas such as student travel (Hartman et al., 2009), internet adoption (Ayouby, Croteau, & Raymond, 2012), and consumer electronics adoption (Cleveland, Laroche, &

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Papadopoulos, 2009). For example, Hartman et al. (2009) examined the degree to which

cosmopolitanism (COS), social interaction via travel (SIN), and openness to emulate

global consumer culture (OPE) would influence students' consumption habits when

studying abroad. Hartman et al. (2009) found that COS and OPE dimensions showed a

positive association with college-aged students' willingness to participate in local

service-retail consumption and claimed higher satisfaction with the experience in the

Internet adoption context. Ayouby, Croteau, and Raymond (2012) also found that the

degree of acculturation to a global consumer culture influenced Jordanian participants'

attitudes toward Internet usage, specifically as it related to "ease of use" and '"perceived

usefulness." They further reported a significant, positive relationship between the degree

of acculturation to a global consumer culture and the participants' Internet adoption.

However, the study only investigated the intention to use the Internet as a vehicle for

communication, not a mode of consumption.

In the current proposed dissertation, acculturation to a global consumer culture

serves as the internalization of the effects of global consumer culture; it illustrates how a

young person develops aspirations to connect with a consumer group separate from his or

her local surroundings. Consumer-based brand equity is chosen as an outcome of

acculturation to the global consumer culture. The following section presents literature

pertaining to consumer-based brand equity.

Consumer-Based Brand Equity

Perceived brand equity is an important strategic planning tool for brand

management because it aids in maximizing marketing productivity as well as economic

performance (Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Brand equity can engender a unique and nurturing relationship, differentiating the bonds between a firm and its customers while promoting prolonged buying behaviors (Capron & Hulland, 1999; Christodoulides & Chernatony, 2010). In addition, brand equity has been shown to provide value for firms as well as consumers. For firms, brand equity is equated to increased shareholder value (Kerin & Sethuraman, 1998), long-term cash flow (Srivastava & Shocker, 1991), and resistance to product-harm crisis (Dawar & Pillutla, 2000). For consumers, brand equity has been shown to affect a consumer's willingness to pay a premium price for a brand (Yoo & Donthu, 2001), brand loyalty (Dobbs et al., 1991), and positive evaluation of marketing mixes (Christodoulides & Chernatony, 2010).

According to the literature, there are a number of definitions of consumer-based brand equity (for a summary see Cristodoulides & Chernatony, 2010). As Winter (1991) states, "if you ask ten people to define brand equity, you are likely to get ten (maybe 11) different answers as to what it means" (p. 70). Aaker (1991) defines brand equity as "a set of assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol that adds to or subtracts from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to the firm's customers" (p. 15). Srivastava and Shocker (1991) define brand equity as "a set of associations and behaviors on the part of a brand's consumers, channel members and parent corporation that enables a brand to earn greater volume or greater margins than it could without the brand name and, in addition, provides a strong, sustainable and differential advantage" (p.92). According to Yoo and Donthu (2001), brand equity is defined as the value that a brand name adds to a product based on consumers' associations with and perceptions of

that brand name. Based on the number of definitions of brand equity, the current study

employs a definition of brand equity provided by Yoo and Donthu (2001) because theirs

specifically approaches the conceptualization of brand equity from the consumer

orientation and acknowledges that brands "must not be understood as the use-values, as

material utility, but primarily as the consumption of signs" (Featherstone, 2007, p. 83).

Conceptualization of Brand Equity

One of the oldest models of brand equity was presented by Aaker (1991), who

offered a model consisting of five dimensions: brand awareness, brand associations,

perceived quality, brand loyalty, and other proprietary brand assets such as patents,

trademarks and channel relationships. This original conceptualization was later extended

to include the price premium attributed to the brand name (Aaker, 1996; Salinas, 2009).

Keller (1993) further extended this conceptualization of brand equity but referred

to it as brand knowledge, which was composed of brand awareness and brand image.

According to Keller (1993), brand knowledge is conceptualized as a brand node in

memory that serves as a connector for various associations attributed to the brand by the

customer. Brand knowledge is conceptualized as having two dimensions: brand

awareness and brand image (Keller, 2004). While brand awareness is the combination of

recognition and recall, brand image is defined as a set of beliefs held about a particular

brand (Kotler & Armstrong, 1996). Increased brand awareness has been shown to raise

the likelihood that the brand will be considered more frequently when purchases are

made (Keller, 1993). The depth and breadth of brand awareness define the salient

characteristics of how easily the brand is thought of under various situations (Keller,

2004; 2012). Brand image links characteristics of a particular brand to consumers' memories and builds a general brand impression. Brand imagery deals with the extrinsic assets of the brand, including the ways in which the brand attempts to meet customers` psychological or social needs (John & Senith, 2012). Keller (1993) further added that brand imagery is how people think about a brand abstractly, rather than what they think the brand actually does. Imagery associations can be formed through direct experiences and contact with the product/ brand, or indirectly, through brand advertising or word of mouth from peers or other social groups.

Consumers generally rely on their brand knowledge to decide among competing brands; this knowledge represents the meaning of brands for consumers by linking information about the brand at the time of purchase. The impact of such brand knowledge is determined by the brand's favorability and strength, as well as uniqueness for consumers (Keller, 1993). As previously mentioned, Berthon et al. (2009) argued that group members draw from a shared brand knowledge to develop shared brand meanings. Global consumer culture argues for the existence of a shared set of symbols, images, meanings, and experiences that are diffused across borders to a select segment of consumers (traditionally, young consumers or higher income citizens; see Hassan & Katsanis, 1994).

Attitudes toward the Brand and Brand Resonance as Outcomes of Consumer-Based Brand Equity

There are many outcomes of brand equity (see Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2010), including willingness to pay price premiums (Vázquez et al., 2002), product

quality (Dodds et al. 1991), purchase intention (Cobb-Walgren et al. 1995), market share (Agarwal & Rao 1996), consumer evaluations of brand extensions (Bottomley & Doyle 1996), and consumer price insensitivity (Erdem et al. 2002). However, the current study focuses on two outcomes: attitudes toward the brand and brand resonance. These two outcomes were chosen because attitudes toward the brand serve as the affective outcome of the acculturation to a global consumer culture and represent a person's evaluation (positive versus negative) toward a particular global sportswear brand. Brand resonance serves as the behavioral (or conative) result of a positive attitude towards the global sportswear brand and represents the top-tier outcome of a consumer-brand relationship (Keller, 2004).

Attitude towards the Global Brand

Attitude towards the global brand is defined as "a consumer's predisposition to respond in a favorable or an unfavorable manner towards global brands" (Steenkamp et al., 2003, p. 37). Several studies have investigated consumers' attitudes toward global brands (Roth, 1995; Riefler, 2012; Steenkamp et al., 2003). For example, Roth (1995) investigated the extent to which brand managers ought to customize or standardize brand images according to Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions as well as their socioeconomic development. Roth argued that these marketing strategies provided a general template that managers should consider when deciding whether to augment brand communications. Steenkamp, Aldan, and Batra (2003) posited that consumers tend to relate brand globalness with high quality products and high social esteem. Furthermore, Steenkamp et al. (2003) reported that consumers who held more positive attitudes toward

global consumer culture (GCC) tend to demonstrate more positive attitudes toward global brands.

The above results were confirmed and further extended by Kelley (2010) who investigated how young German and Brazilian consumers' perceived brand value would affect their attitudes toward global brands. Kelley found that perceived brand value was positively related to attitudes toward global brands. He also examined the impact of cosmopolitanism on perceived global brand value and found that cosmopolitanism only significantly influenced perceived global brand value among young Brazilian consumers, but not among young German consumers.

Recent work by Riefler (2012) examined how consumers' perceptions toward globalization forces influenced their attitudes toward global brands, specifically in the sports drink and intimate apparel product categories. Rielfer (2012) concluded that countries with large pro-global consumer segments, i.e., consumers who show more favorable attitudes toward globalization and global consumer culture such as Canadians and Austrians were naturally more attractive targets for global companies. Rielfer (2012) suggested that managers should emphasize global brand messages while still adhering to local preferences and trends. These findings were in line with Matanda and Ewing (2011), who conducted a case study looking at Kimberly-Clark's global branding strategy. The manufacturer promoted a standardized marketing, production and supplier mix for many of its global brands, but still reserves regional autonomy in some regions, allowing regional customization in marketing communications as long as the core messaging and brand images remains consistent. Likewise, Kobayashi (2012) found

similar results when analyzing Nike's *Where's the Next?* campaign. That is, a consistent theme emerged across various markets, while allowing for the regional differentiation of marketing messages to optimize an appeal for different audiences (Hollis, 2010).

Brand Resonance

According to Keller (2012), study, brand resonance is defined as "the nature of the consumer-brand relationship, and more specifically the extent to which a person feels that he or she resonates or connects with a brand and feels 'in sync'" (p. 188). Further, with true brand resonance, consumers feel an overwhelming degree of representation and conformity with the brand, and thereby showcase high brand loyalty and active participation in building and sustaining the consumer-brand relationship (Keller, 2012). These two dimensions, (i.e., intensity and activity) reflect the multidimensional composition of the construct. As previously denoted, global brands convey a unique image that consumers idealize as a connection with a global population (Hollis, 2010; Özsomer, 2012). The current study conceptualizes this fervor in brand resonance and argues that it serves to embody the high degree of brand relationship that young consumers around the world develop with global brands.

As a relatively new construct, brand resonance has only seen minimal application in the academic literature. Recently, Kim (2012) incorporated Keller's (1993) brand equity model in relation to the fashion consumption experience by investigating the influence of perceived brand performance, brand awareness, and brand image on attitudes toward fashion brands, and brand resonance among South Korean consumers. Kim

(2012) contended that fashion provides an ideal product category for the promotion of brand resonance through what she terms the "fashion-brand experience."

In addition, Vinodhini and Kumar (2012) state that brand resonance is the most important building block for brands in the modern competitive marketplace. They further suggest four categories of brand resonance: (1) behavioral trustworthiness as it relates to the frequency and volume of repeat purchases; (2) attitudinal relationship as it refers to the consumer's *love* or emotional affinity with the brand; (3) sense of community and connection with other brand consumers; and (4) active engagement where the consumer actively seeks out and participates in consumer groups. Examples of brands that illustrate high brand resonance are Harley-Davidson and Apple which showcase high levels of each of these categories of brand resonance. Both brands have been shown to maintain a close following of consumers who not only purchase their products but are also actively engaged with the brand. Specifically, Keller (2003) denoted that Apple and Harley-Davidson as being brands that contain both intensity and activity dimensions of brand resonance. Finally, it is suggested that in order to develop such brand resonance, brand managers need to find means to satisfy a unique desire of the consumers (Vinodhini & Kumar, 2012).

Proposed Conceptual Framework

The proposed conceptual framework of this dissertation is derived from three research streams: consumer socialization (Ward, 1974; Moschis & Churchill, 1978); acculturation to a global consumer culture (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007); brand management relative to consumer-based brand equity (Keller, 1993); attitudes toward the

brand (Steenkamp et al., 2003); and brand resonance (Keller, 2003). Consumer

socialization literature emphasizes the influence of three major socialization agents (i.e.

parents, peers, and mass media) on young consumers' development of cognitive and

behavioral outcomes (e.g., marketplace knowledge and skills). Acculturation to a global

consumer culture centers on how individuals acquire knowledge, skills and behaviors that

are characteristic of a deterritorialized global consumer culture. Consumer-based brand

equity encapsulates the value that a brand name adds to a product based on consumers'

associations and perceptions (i.e., brand image and brand awareness). Attitudes toward

the brand capture the consumer's positive or negative evaluation to a particular brand.

Finally, brand resonance serves as the top-tier outcome of a consumer's positive attitude

toward the brand and is conceptualized as the moment when a consumer experiences an

overwhelming degree of representation and conformity with the brand, high brand

loyalty, and active participation with building and sustaining the consumer-brand

relationship.

Thus, combining these research streams, this dissertation's adapted model (see

Figure 2) suggests that various socialization agents are expected to exert different degrees

of influence on young consumers' cognitive outcomes as measured in terms of how they

adapt to a global consumer culture. Various measures to becoming a global consumer that

these young consumers have adopted are expected to subsequently influence their

perception of global apparel brands as measured in terms of brand image and brand

awareness. These two types of brand perceptions are then expected to affect their attitude

towards the brand, which in turn, is expected to influence their brand resonance.

Figure 2. Proposed Conceptual Framework
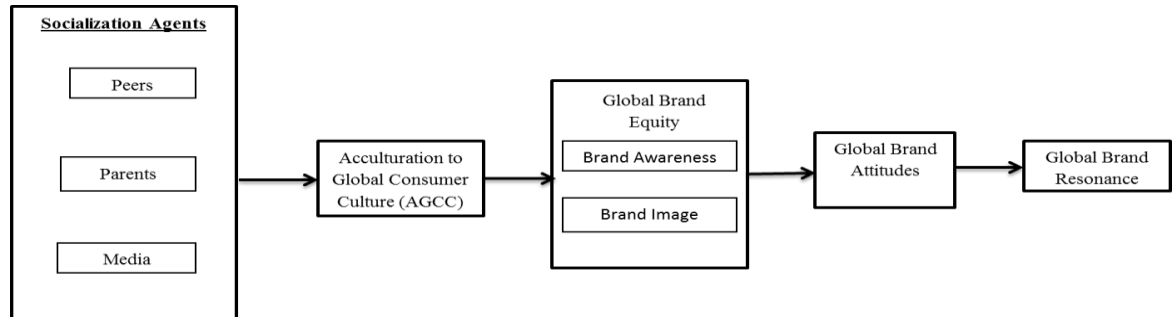
Hypothesis Development

Development of Hypothesis 1: Relationship between Socialization Agents and

Acculturation to Global Consumer Culture

The relationships between the primary socialization agents (i.e., parents, peers,

and mass media) and dimensions of acculturation to a global consumer culture have been

individually investigated in previous studies (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Özsomer,

2012; Ritchie, 1991; Walker, 1996). Parents have been shown to have a direct influence

on a young individual's initial exposure to market symbols and messages (Ritchie, 1991).

Peers have been shown to have a significant influence on a young individual's perception

and degree of association with a global consumer orientation (Özsomer, 2012). Walker

(1996) highlighted the fact that television plays a significant role in producing and

diffusing globally recognized symbols of consumption.

Socialization entails the process of indoctrinating the naïve into the customs,

practices, and norms of the host group (Corsaro, 2011). Consumer socialization refers to

the indoctrination of skills necessary to proficiently operate in a modern consumer

society (Ward, 1974). Furthermore, we have denoted how the process by which

information is passed along as well as the information that is included may depend on the cultural setting in which the induction occurs. Finally, due to the increased expansion of global forces (i.e., media, politics, tourism, and technology), it has also been detailed how consumers may have become exposed to a global consumer culture. Cleveland and Laroche (2007) articulated this modern process as the acculturation to a global consumer culture and proposed a scale from which to measure the process of acculturation.

The proposed study investigated the consumption habits of young consumers in two socioeconomically and culturally different nations (Thailand versus the United States). Thailand is regarded as a highly collectivist culture, while the U.S. represents a highly individualist culture (Hofstede, 2001). Thailand is predominately a Buddhist country (95%), which contributes significantly to Thai's highly collectivist characteristics (Boonsathorn, 2007; Hofstede, 2001; Niffenegger et al., 2006). In comparison, the United States ranks number one among the world's nations on individualism based on Hofstede's (2001) dimensions. Individualism-collectivism is one of the most often cited dimensions on which to compare countries (Triandis, 1995). In independent cultures such as the United States, consumers tend to prefer independent relationships to others and to subordinate in-group needs (e.g., family, peers) to their own needs or interests (Hofstede, 1980; 2001). In collectivist cultures (e.g., Thailand), by contrast, persons tend to integrate into strong, cohesive, and loyal groups and value maintenance of social relationships (Hofstede, 1980; 2001). Young individuals raised in collectivist societies are more likely to have interdependent relationships and value group conformity and harmony above their own individual interests (Triandis, 1995). As the Asian continent rapidly grows into

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the modern age (Shao et al., 1999), practitioners and academics are increasingly taking notice of the cultural implications in terms of consumer buying behavior (Kim et al., 2006; Panelli, Punch, & Robson, 2007; Schramm, 2006). Furthermore, half of the world's young population resides in the Asian Pacific region (United Nations, 2012). Thailand is noted by many for its rapid emergence as another Asian economic powerhouse (Arnett, 2007). Today, Thailand is ranked number 53 among 140 nations worldwide in terms of globalization based on the A.T. Kearney Globalization Index (A. T. Kearney, 2007). In comparison, the United States is ranked 7th in their degree of integration of global forces. Related to the geographical heart of Southeast Asia, Thailand is a heavily export-oriented country (Euromoniter, 2012). In addition, Bangkok was ranked one of the most global cities in the Asia-Pacific region in A.T. Kearney's 2012 report. However, few studies have examined young Thai consumers, particularly in the areas of their perception of global sportswear brands.

Recently, Dogerlioglu-Demir and Tansuhaj (2011) examined Thai consumers' perceptions of global versus local products. They argue that Thai consumers live in two worlds, one of modernization and one of tradition. While predominantly Buddhist, Thais denote that Buddhist teachings do not deny material life as long as consumers stay within their means. Wealthier and younger consumers tend to prefer Western or global brands as a way to denote status and exclusion in a perceived scarcity group affinity (Dogerlioglu-Demir & Tansuhaj, 2011). Furthermore, Parkvithee and Miranda (2012) investigated college-aged Thai consumers' perception of clothing brand labels as it pertains to the clothing origins. Low-involvement apparel items such as T-shirts as well as high-

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involvement items such as suits were found to be affected by the product's country of origins. Siriyuvasak and Hyunjoon (2007) also investigated Thai young adults' perceptions and acceptance of foreign music such as Korean pop-culture music. It is reported that these young Thai adults demonstrated a high level of acceptance of Korean "K-Pop" music and fashion. However, the researchers fall short as to whether the young adults accepted the music as "global" in nature or if instead, as collectively "Asian" stating, "Consumption of Asian pop in Asia lies between a kind of 'Euro-America envy' and a kind of 'Orientalist exoticism'" (p. 126). Thus, a focus emerges on how young adults in this market internalize these global brand messages and what role socialization agents play in their acculturation to a global consumer culture. Based on previous research, it was expected that young Thai adults will show a greater influence from family and peers on their acculturation to a global consumer culture (Kim et al., 2006; Panelli, Punch & Robson, 2007; Schramm, 2006). This is due in large part to the role of the collectivist values that are instilled in these young adults beginning at an early age. The need to maintain family- and peer-group harmony is anticipated to have a significant influence on how young people interact with a global consumer culture. Considerable research has examined how collectivist cultures (i.e., Thailand) affect the socialization process of young adults (Kang & Kim, 1998; Kim et al., 2006; Schaefer et al., 2004). Kang and Kim (1998) investigated young consumers' decision-making styles when purchasing apparel across three Asian ethnic consumer groups (i.e., Chinese, Japanese, and Korean). They found that the three groups exhibited similar influential sources of information in their apparel purchase decisions (i.e., peer-reference group and media

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influence). However, it is expected that media will play a greater influence on the lives of young American adults as compared to Thais. This is in large part due to the degree of exposure to mass media communications in both countries. While there is no direct comparison in young consumers exposure to mass media in these two countries, what research has been obtained suggests a higher exposure rate of media among young American adults (Rideout et al., 2010). Furthermore, the media has periodically come under governmental censorship in Thailand with the aftermath of the 2008 military supported coup prodding an increase in the government's influence on media (McCargo, 2000; Wissesang & Freeman, 2012). Television continues to be the dominant source of media influence on young adults in both Thailand and in the United States (Rideout et al., 2010; Siriyuvasak, 2002). The introduction and increased emphasis on foreign direct investments throughout the nation have led to the relaxation of media controls and the introduction of new media outlines (McKenzie & Collins, 2012; Wissesang & Freeman, 2012). Internet and mobile technologies are becoming the new medium through which the younger generations are being exposed to global media messaging (Rideout et al., 2010; Taylor, 2012). However, even with the recent reduction in media controls, the Thai government still exerts considerable control (more so than in the U.S.) on mass media in Thailand (McKenzie & Collins, 2012; Wissesang & Freeman, 2012).

Based on the aforementioned information, it is hypothesized that:

H1: Socialization agents (i.e., parents, peers, and mass media) will

influence young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture.

However, the degree of influence of each socialization agent on young

consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture will differ between American and Thai samples.

That is,

H1a: Parents will exert greater influence on young Thai consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture than their young American counterparts.

H1b: Peers will exert greater influence on young Thai consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture than their young American counterparts.

However,

H1c: Mass media will exert a greater influence on young American consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture than their young Thai counterparts.

Development of Hypothesis 2: Relationship between Acculturation to a Global Consumer Culture and Consumer-based Brand Equity

As mentioned, acculturation to a global consumer culture is defined as how individuals acquire the knowledge, skills, and behaviors that are essential in a global consumer culture (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007). This multidimensional construct captures the process by which consumers internalize and adopt perceptions, beliefs, and values that are consistent with a global consumer culture (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Özsomer, 2012). According to Cleveland et al. (2007), there is a growing segment of consumers

around the globe that shares similar needs and aspirations. As a person aligns more with the ideals of the global consumer culture, they may more frequently associate brand image with apparel brands that are aligned with the global culture.

In the current study, brand equity is conceptualized as consisting of brand awareness and brand image (Keller, 1993; 2004). While brand awareness is the combination of recognition and recall, brand image is defined as a set of beliefs held about a particular brand (Kotler & Armstrong, 1996). Increased brand awareness has been shown to raise the likelihood that the brand will be considered more frequently when a purchase is made (Keller, 1993). Brand image links characteristics of a particular brand to consumers' memory and builds a general brand impression. Consumers rely on their brand knowledge to decide among competing brands as it represents the meaning of brands for consumers by linking information about the brand at the time of purchase.

Looking at each dimension of acculturation to a global consumer culture construct separately, cosmopolitanism (COS) is expected to have a positive effect on both brand awareness and brand image. According to Özomer and Altaras (2008), an individual with high degree of cosmopolitan tendencies is usually aware of global brands and is likely to display a favorable evaluation toward global brands. Cosmopolitans tend to acquire goods that are high in cultural capital to promote or preserve their status in a society (Thompson, Rindfleisch, & Arsel, 2006). Steenkamp et al. (2004) stated that these cosmopolitan consumers tend to view global brands as having high levels of status. In addition, cosmopolitan consumers tend to like brands that are not traditionally found in their local culture (Holt, 1998; Thompson et al., 2006). Thus, it is expected that those

who are cosmopolitan tend to display more favorable images associated with, and greater awareness of global brands.

Generally, those who are cosmopolitan also tend to be exposed to multinational corporations' marketing activities and tend to have more chance to travel abroad (Artz & Kamalipour, 2003; de Lock & Buckingham, 2007; von Feilitzen & Carlson, 2002). Gilly (1999) argued that marketers pass a culture of consumption and materialism through market transactions. Furthermore, Ger and Belk (1996) posited that marketing activities of multinational corporations are a direct influence on the proliferation of a homogenized global consumer culture. Artz and Kamalipour (2003) echoed these assertions and speculated that as the modern media conglomerates become more aggressive in their expansion into emerging markets, the idea of consumerism becomes an ever-increasing part of individuals' daily lives. Aaker (1991) suggested that marketing activities have significant effects on brand image and brand awareness, which create and strengthen the equity of the brand. Yoo and Donthu (2002) investigated the impact of marketing activities on young American and South Korean consumers and found some relational linkages between multinational corporation marketing activities and brand equity related to brand image and brand awareness. Specifically, the effect was revealed to be stronger in the American sample as compared to the South Korean sample. Thus, Americans have greater awareness and display positive images toward global brands.

It is suggested that traveling and exposure to individuals from outside one's culture are likely to enhance brand awareness and brand image (Hartman et al., 2009; Steenkamp et al., 2003). Indeed, Hartman et al. (2009) found that college-aged students

who had opportunities to travel abroad tended to favor foreign retailers. Furthermore, one of the benefits attributed to global brands is their uniformity across national markets (Douglas & Craig, 2012). Therefore, it can be speculated that as a person is exposed to foreign markets or individuals from different cultures, they will perceive brands that are available in various market settings (i.e., global brands) more favorably. Furthermore, this relationship is believed to be more significant to Thai young consumers as compared to their American counterparts. This is due in large part to works conducted by Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003) who postulated that consumers in emerging markets viewed global brands more favorably. In addition, Kipnis et al. (2012) noted that ethnocentric consumers in the United Kingdom were likely to display favorable attitudes toward local brands with global images as compared to foreign brands. Such negative perceptions of foreign brands have been posited to be more pronounced in industrialized nations than emerging markets (Steenkamp et al., 2003; Tancor, 2008).

It is also expected that the degree of young consumers' exposure to global mass media tends to influence the degree of their global brand knowledge. Building on Ger and Belk's (1996) and Artz and Kamalipour's (2003) studies, "consumptionscapes" are increasingly being produced via global media. As many young adults across the globe have been exposed to global mass media, their awareness of global and foreign brands tend to increase and their impression towards these global brands tend to develop (Kline, 1995).

In addition, the English language has also solidified its place as the language of business, travel, and diplomacy, and as a symbol of modernism and international

relations (Gilsdorf, 2002; Huntington, 1996; Sobol, 2008). Gilsdorf (2002) posited that

the English language is spreading around the world and could be considered the "world's

language." In the context of globalization, the English language serves a unifying

dimension, infiltrating diverse cultures and "colonizing the space of other languages"

(Cleveland, 2006, p.66). Brand names and catchphrases are often retained in the English

vernacular, serving as a common identifier of brands and products across national

settings (Scherer & Jackson, 2010; Sobol, 2008). Scherer and Jackson (2010) noted how

Nike's global marketing campaign was consistently branded in English (e.g., Nike brand

name and campaign slogans), while imagery and local marketing events were localized to

each region. Furthermore, within the United States, bi-lingual education is heavily

supported in educational systems (Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009). Thorne, Black, and

Sykes (2009) discussed how new media tools such as Internet, electronic gaming

systems, and mobile technologies are integrated into education to promote multi-

linguistic learning experiences for young adults. Thus, one's exposure and integration of

a second language could influence one's image of a brand's name and meanings

associated with it.

Lastly, the openness and desire to emulate the global consumer culture is

anticipated to have a positive effect on brand knowledge. Özsomer (2012) concluded that

a consumer's desire to connect with a global consumer culture had a direct impact on

their attitudes toward global brands. Wee (1999) examined Singaporean and American

teenagers and found that the teenagers from these two countries tend to share similar

ideas when discussing global culture, referring to it as a culture that is shaped by

"Western themes and lifestyles brought through mass media and sold alongside the lifestyles urged upon the young consumers of that culture or nation" (p. 369).

Furthermore, Wee (1999) suggested that many young consumers in Asian countries may be inhibited in their desire to connect with a global consumer culture due to their traditional mores and increased influence of parents. In contrast, Steenkamp et al. (2003) stated that Asian consumers were more receptive to brands portraying a global image. Since acculturation to a global consumer culture and its relationships to brand equity have not been extensively employed in cross-cultural contexts, we propose the following hypothesis in the broader statement. That is,

> H2: Acculturation to a global consumer culture will influence young
>
> consumers' perceived brand equity as measured in terms of brand image
>
> and brand awareness. However, the degree of influence of each dimension
>
> of acculturation to a global consumer culture on young consumers'
>
> perceived brand equity will differ between American and Thai samples.

Development of Hypothesis 3: Relationship between Brand Equity and Global Brand Attitudes

Kotler and Armstrong (1996) conceptualized brand attitude as a unidimensional construct and defined it as a person's evaluation (favorable versus unfavorable) towards a particular brand name when encountering an assortment of brands in the marketplace. O'Cass and Lim (2002) demonstrated how brand association, including an individual's ability to identify a brand under different conditions (i.e., brand awareness), and brand image influenced the preference for foreign brands over local brands among young

Singaporean consumers. Faircloth, Capella, and Alford (2001) also suggested that manipulation of images and associations of brands may alter brand equity and brand attitudes.

Using this perspective, global brand attitude in the current study was viewed as the affective outcome of the socialization process and represents a person's evaluation (positive versus negative) toward a particular global sportswear brand. It is the strength of the recall of a brand under different circumstances in conjunction with the consumers' perceptions about the brand that drive consumers' attitudes toward brands (Keller, 1993; 2012). Consumers depend on their brand knowledge to decide among competing brands, which determines their response to different stimuli regarding a particular brand (Keller, 2012; Lim & O'Cass, 2001). Keller (1993) argued that images and the strength of the brand can influence consumers' attitudes. The current study argues that as a young consumer becomes more knowledgeable of global brands, he or she is more likely to display favorable attitudes towards global brands. Thus, it is anticipated that:

> **H3:** Perceived brand equity as measured in terms of brand image and brand
> awareness will influence young consumers' attitudes toward global brands.
> However, the degree of influence of perceived brand equity on young
> consumers' attitudes toward global brands will differ between American
> and Thai samples.

Development of Hypothesis 4: Relationship between Global Brand Attitudes and Global Brand Resonance

As discussed above, brand resonance refers to the relationship between a brand and its users, including consumers' willingness to purchase and to recommend to others (Wang et al., 2008). Keller (2004) conceptualized brand resonance as the top-tiered conclusion of positive brand equity; this concept has been utilized as a predictor of a repurchase intention, future earnings, and firm value. In addition, brand resonance reflects the extent to which the consumer feels that the brand's meaning reverberates with their self-concept. With true brand resonance, consumers are likely to demonstrate a high degree of loyalty marked by a close relationship with the brand such that they actively seek out different avenues and opportunities to interact with the brand and share experiences with others (Keller, 2012). Brands win in the marketplace by developing and sustaining deep connections with consumers (Holt, 2003; Wang et al., 2008). Wang et al. (2008) reported the positive relationship between brand attitudes and brand resonance among Chinese young consumers. Specific to the context of this study, the conceptualization of brand resonance serves as the conative outgrowth of a socialization process. Similar to Keller's (2004) study, the current study posits that brand resonance encapsulates a top-tiered outcome of the brand-equity pyramid with brand knowledge representing the salience of the global brands in the consumer minds and attitudes serving as the internalization of these values, culminating in superior brand resonance for global sportswear brands among young consumers Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H4: Young consumers' attitudes toward global brands will influence their brand resonance. However, the degree of influence of attitudes toward global brands on young consumers' brand resonance will differ between American and Thai samples.

Chapter Summary

The primary objective of this chapter is to provide relevant information related to the major constructs examined in the current study, including consumer socialization, acculturation to the global consumer culture, consumer-based brand equity, attitudes toward the brands, and brand resonance. This information is then utilized to develop the proposed conceptual model of young consumers' attitudes and behavioral behaviors toward global brands. The proposed model was empirically examined in the following chapter with a number of testable hypotheses in the context of global sportswear brands using young consumers from the American and Thai samples.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the dissertation's research methodology, including (1) Equivalence Issues in Cross-cultural Studies; (2) Stimuli Selection; (3) Instrument Development; (4) Pretest of Instrument; (5) Sampling and Data Collection Procedures; (6) Statistical Analysis; and (7) Chapter Summary.

As indicated in Chapter I, the purpose of the study is to develop and empirically examine a model of young consumers' apparel brand resonance within a global sportswear context. Specifically, the research objectives guiding the study are four-fold:

1. to examine the role of socialization agents as determinants of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture;

2. to investigate the impact of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture on their perception of brand equity;

3. to examine the effect of young consumers' perceived brand equity on their brand attitude, which in turn, is expected to influence brand resonance; and

4. to explore whether such a model can be replicated with young consumers residing in developing countries (i.e., Thailand). If cross-cultural validation of the model is established, we can then further explore similarities and differences regarding the relationships proposed in the model.

Below is the detailed information about the methodology employed to accomplish these research objectives.

Equivalence Issues in Cross-Cultural Studies

Prior to providing detailed information about methodology, it is important to address equivalence issues when conducting cross-cultural studies. A number of researchers (Douglas & Craig, 1983; Mullen, 1995; Triandis, 1994) have suggested that there are three issues of equivalence that must be addressed to ensure comparability prior to examining any cross-cultural comparisons: the equivalence of constructs, samples, and measurement. Firstly, construct equivalence addresses the question of whether marketing measures (i.e., acculturation to the global consumer culture, brand equity) display the same meaning and significance across cultures. To obtain construct equivalence, translation equivalence and questionnaire calibration equivalence must be achieved. Translation equivalence addresses whether a construct can be measured by the same items in different cultures, whereas calibration equivalence addresses whether the units of measurement are the same in different cultures (Mullen, 1995). These two issues provide the evidence that instruments reflect their original meaning after translation. As Mullen (1995) states, calibration equivalence should be achieved when the instrument is translated. Secondly, sample equivalence can be achieved when the samples are selected based on certain comparable demographic information (e.g., age) as well as interests (Douglas & Craig, 1983). Finally, measurement equivalence, or the relationships between latent variables and their indicators, can be assessed through statistical analysis (e.g., confirmatory factor analysis). In addition, as suggested by several cross-cultural

researchers (Steenkamp & and Baumgartner, 1998; van de Vijver & Leung, 1997), measurement equivalence needs to be addressed prior to conducting any cross-cultural comparison studies.

<div align="center">**Stimuli Selection**</div>

Central to the proposed research is the ability to provide sportswear brands that are consistently perceived as being "global" in nature. In order to classify such sportswear brands, a pilot study was conducted with young American consumers (n = 29) between the age of 18 to 22 in class to select appropriate stimuli (i.e., global sportswear brands) to be incorporated in the final questionnaire. Respondents were first provided a definition of "global apparel brands," and were then were instructed to list the top five global sportswear brands that they were most familiar with. This task was done to help narrow down the sportswear brands relevant to the present study in terms of global presence. Data were then entered into SPSS statistical software version 20 for descriptive analysis. Frequency results showed that, among young American consumers, the top five global sportswear brands mentioned were Nike (100%), Adidas (66%), Reebok (49%), Puma (28%), and New Balance (7%).

In order to choose sportswear brands that are perceived as global across two countries, we also performed another pilot study with young Thai consumers (n = 28) between the age of 18 to 22 in class to obtain the names of global sportswear. Similar to the procedure with young American consumers, these Thai respondents were first given the same definition of global apparel brands and then were asked to provide five sportswear brands that they believe are global brands. Data were also entered into SPSS

statistical software version 20 for descriptive analysis. Frequency results showed that, among young Thai consumers, the top five global sportswear brands mentioned were Nike (93%), Adidas (86%), Puma (43%) Football Thai (FBT) (39%), and Grand Sport (11%). Although FBT and Grand Sport brands were mentioned among the respondents, these two sportswear brands were available in only East Asian markets. In order to make cross-cultural comparison meaningful in the current study, FBT and Grand Sport brands were removed. The other two global sportswear brands mentioned among Thai respondents were Reebok (7%) and New Balance (4%). As a result, we concluded that among young Thai consumers, Nike, Adidas, Puma, New Balance, and Reebok were among the top five global sportswear brands mentioned.

Based on the results from these two pilot studies, we therefore selected Nike, Adidas, Puma, New Balance, and Reebok to be included in the final study because these five brands were commonly the most among respondents from the two countries.

Instrument Development

A structured questionnaire was developed based on a review of extant literature as an aid to obtain conceptual and measurement information related to variables being investigated. As a result, a multi-sectioned questionnaire was comprised of the following variables: socialization agents, acculturation to a global consumer culture, attitudes toward the brands, brand equity (i.e., brand awareness and brand image), brand resonance, and demographic information (e.g., age, gender, monthly income, year in school, and major).

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In the questionnaire, prior to questions assessing young consumers' overall attitudes toward the brand, respondents were given a list of global sportswear brands (i.e., Nike, Adidas, Reebok, New Balance, and Puma) and were asked to indicate which of these sportswear brands they believed to be a global brand (they could check all that apply). Then, they were instructed to select one out of five global sportswear brands that they like the most and answer questions pertaining to their overall attitude toward the brand, brand equity, and brand resonance, keeping in mind the global sportswear brand they had previously indicated.

The questionnaire was constructed in accordance with guidelines suggested by cross-cultural researchers (Brislin, 1980; Douglas & Craig, 1983). That is, the questionnaire was first constructed in English. A native Thai graduate student who is fluent both in English and Thai translated the questionnaire into Thai. Next, the Thai version of the questionnaire was back-translated into English by a native Thai professor who is also fluent both in English and Thai to ensure translation accuracy (Brislin, 1980). In addition, the back-translation was employed for the purposes of providing evidence that the instrument reflects its original meaning after translation, suggesting that an instrument establishes translation equivalence (Brislin, 1980; Douglas & Craig, 1983). The original English version and the back-translated Thai version were then compared and analyzed to check accuracy.

Measures

Table 3.1 summarizes the major constructs that were employed in the current study.

<u>Socialization Agents</u>

The scale measuring the influence of socialization agents (i.e., family, peers, and media) on young consumers' apparel consumption behaviors consists of twenty-four items. While twenty-three items were derived from Mascarenhas and Higby (1993), the two remaining items were developed by the researchers to capture the influence of online media. Since the original measures related to media influence on consumption habits proposed by Mascarenhas and Higby (1993) only capture the influence of traditional media such as television and magazines (e.g., "I tend to search for apparel information from magazines"), we developed two additional items (e.g., "I tend to search for apparel information from the Internet") to measure the influence of online media on consumption habits. Specifically, Mascarenhas and Higby's (1993) socialization agents scale assesses three primary socialization agents as follows: eight items for family (e.g., "I always shop with my parents" and "I never buy any new product until my parents and I discuss it"); eleven items for peers (e.g., "I rarely purchase the latest products until I am sure my friends approve of them" and "I regularly ask my friends about the latest fashions"); and five items for traditional media (e.g., "Advertisements determine what brands I will buy" and "I always consider the media when deciding which products/ brands to buy"). Mascarenhas and Higby's (1993) socialization agents scale has gone through numerous validity and reliability checks, which have been reported in the literature (Gounaris & Stathakopoulos, 2004; Mangleburg & Bristol, 1998; Wakefield & Inman, 2003). Respondents were asked to indicate the level of their agreement with each statement on a

7-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree." (see Appendix A).

Acculturation to a Global Consumer Culture (AGCC)

Acculturation to a global consumer culture scale was adopted from Cleveland and Laroche (2007) and consists of 56 items. As discussed in Chapter II, the scale consists of seven dimensions represented by multiple items: (1) eleven items for cosmopolitanism (e.g., "I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries"); (2) ten items for exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (e.g., "It is quite common to see ads for foreign or global products in local media"); (3) six items for social interaction through traveling (e.g., "I prefer spending my vacations outside of the country that I live in"); (4) nine items for exposure to global and foreign mass media (e.g., "I enjoy listening to music that is popular in foreign countries"); (5) five items for openness to and desire to participate in the global consumer culture (e.g., "I think people my age are basically the same around the world"); (6) eight items for self-identification with the global consumer culture (e.g., "I prefer to wear clothing that I think is popular in many countries around the world rather than clothes traditionally worn in my own country"); and (7) seven items for English language usage/exposure (e.g., "I feel very comfortable speaking in English/a foreign language"). For the Thai sample, the 7 items used to assess the English language usage/exposure dimension of AGCC remain the same as in the original version of AGCC. However, seven items assessing English language usage/exposure dimension of AGCC were modified to reflect the foreign language usage/exposure among American respondents. Although the acculturation to a global

consumer culture scale has just recently been developed, it is evident in the literature that the scale displays acceptable psychometric properties (Carpenter, Moore, & Doherty, 2012; Cleveland, Laroche, & Papadopolous, 2009; Hartman et al., 2009). Respondents were asked to indicate the level of their agreement with each statement on a 7-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree." (See Appendix A).

<u>Overall Attitudes toward the Brands</u>

Overall attitudes toward the brands were adopted from Aaker and Keller (1990) and Batra and Stayman (1991) based on five items (e.g., "Bad/Good"). The scale has shown acceptable validity and reliability in previous studies (Nebenzahl & Jaffe, 1996; Riefler, 2012). Respondents were asked to rate all items assessing overall attitudes toward the brand on 7-point semantic differential scales (e.g., "Unfavorable/ Favorable," "Dislike/Like") (see Appendix A).

<u>Consumer-based Brand Equity</u>

Consumer-based brand equity is conceptualized as a bi-dimensional construct consisting of brand awareness and brand image. The brand awareness scale was adapted from Yoo and Donthu (2001) and consists of four items (e.g., "I am aware of this apparel brand"). The brand image scale was adapted from Batra et al. (2000) and Wang et al. (2008) and consists of four items as well (e.g., "This brand has a very good/high image"). It is evident that these scales have gone through numerous validity and reliability checks with an acceptable degree of psychometric properties (Kim & Kim, 2005; Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2006). Respondents were asked to indicate the level of their

agreement with each statement on a 7-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree." (See Appendix A).

<u>Brand Resonance</u>

Brand resonance was adapted from Wang et al.'s (2008) scale consisting of six items (e.g., "I am willing to recommend this apparel brand to my friends"). Again, this scale has gone through numerous validity and reliability checks, which have been reported in the literature (Maxwell et al., 2012; Roy & Chau, 2011; Wang et al., 2012). Respondents were asked to indicate the level of their agreement with each statement on a 7-point Likert-type scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree." (See Appendix A).

<u>General Questions</u>

General questions related to media usage were assessed based on the average media exposure of respondents across a multitude of different media platforms (e.g., television, radio, print, online, etc.). The scale was adapted from Rideout et al.'s (2010) Kaiser Foundation report on young consumers' media usage. Respondents were asked, "On average, how many hours do you spend per week using the following media sources?" These media include television, radio, newspaper or magazines, books, Internet, mobile phone, iPod/ MP3 player, tablet or Kindle, and others. Average weekly exposure was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = "0 Hours", 2 = "1-5 Hours," 3 = "5-10 Hours," 4 = "10-15 Hours," 5 = 15-20 Hours," 6 = "20-25 Hours," and 7 = "More than 25 Hours"). (See Appendix A).

<u>Demographic Information</u>

Demographic information was assessed related to respondents' gender, age,

monthly allowance, ethnicity (for the American sample only), year in school, and

academic major. Data pertaining to gender, ethnicity, monthly allowance, year in school,

and academic major will be nominal (categorical) data. Data pertaining to age will be

ratio data. (See Appendix A).

Table 2. Summary of Key Measures

Construct (No. of Items)	Examples of Item Description	Source(s)
Socialization Agents		
Parents (8 items)		Mascarenhas and Higby (1993)
	My parents come with me when I purchase apparel. When I do not understand prices and quality, I ask my parents.	
Peers (11 items)		
	I feel a sense of belonging by buying the same brands my friends buy. To make sure I buy the right product, I often watch what my friends buy.	
Traditional media (5 items)		
	I continue buying the same brands as long as my favorite celebrity uses them. I always consider the media when deciding the best products/ brands to buy.	
Online media (2 items)		Researchers
	I tend to search for products information online (i.e., social networking websites, company websites, etc.).	
Acculturation to the Global Consumer Culture		Cleveland and Laroche (2007)
Cosmopolitanism (11 items)		
	I like to learn about other ways of life. I find people from other countries stimulating.	
Exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (10 items)		
	When I read a newspaper, I come across many	

advertisements for foreign or global products.
When shopping, I am often exposed to foreign or global brands.
Social interaction through travelling (6 items)
Visiting foreign countries is one of my favorite things.
I feel at home in other countries
Exposure to global and foreign mass media (9 items)
I enjoy watching movies that are in a foreign language.
Some of my favorite actors/ actresses are from foreign films.
Openness to and desire to participate in the global consumer culture (5 items)
I think my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my age-group in other countries.
I would rather live like people do in other countries.
Self-identification with global consumer culture (8 items)
I try to pattern my lifestyle, way of dressing, etc. to be a global consumer.
I actively seek to buy products that are not only thought of as 'local.'
English usage and/or exposure (7 items)
I often speak English/ a foreign language with family and friends.
Many of my favorite shows on TV are in English/ a foreign language.

Overall Attitudes toward the Brand (5 items)	Aaker and Keller
Negative/ Positive	(1990) and Batra
Unfavorable/ Favorable	and Stayman
	(1991)
Consumer-based Brand Equity	
Brand awareness (4 items)	Yoo and Donthu
I can recognize this apparel brand among other	(2001)
competing brands.	
I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of this brand.	
Brand image (4 items)	Batra et al. (2000)
This brand is very famous.	and Wang et al.
This brand really makes me look good in front of my	(2008)
friends.	
Brand Resonance (6 items)	Wang et al.
I will not buy other brands if this apparel brand is	(2008)

available at the store.
This apparel brand would be my first choice.

Media Usage (9 items)	Rideout et al.
Books	(2010)
Mobile Phone	

* denotes reverse items

Pretest of Instrument

Prior to final data collection, a pretest of the instrument was conducted to assure question comprehension and clarity in both U.S. and Thai samples. For the U.S., the pretest was conducted via the use of college students, attending CRS 463: Global Sourcing for Apparel and Related Consumer Products class (n=35) at the University of Greensboro in spring 2013. Respondents were given the survey in class and asked to complete the survey. They were then asked to denote any concerns regarding clarity, readability, and comprehension of measurement items.

Similarly, a pretest of an instrument of the Thai version was also conducted with Thai students, attending undergraduate business-related class (n=40) at Mahidol University, Nakornpratom province, Thailand in spring 2013. Students were given the Thai version of the survey and asked to complete the survey. Similar to American students, these Thai students were then instructed to note any concerns regarding the reading, clarity, and comprehension of items included in the survey. Any suggestions related to clarity of the items, wording, and spacing to the instrument of both versions were addressed. On the average, it took approximately 15-20 minutes for each respondent to complete the survey.

Sampling and Data Collection Procedures

For the current study, data was collected during the months of March and April, 2013, from two different countries: the United States and Thailand. A convenience sample using undergraduate students was employed across both countries. All respondents were between 18 to 22 years old. For the U.S. sample, respondents were recruited from various classes offered at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro (e.g., CRS 221: Culture, Human Behavior, and Clothing; CRS 231: Introduction to Apparel and Consumer Retailing; CRS 481: Contemporary Professional Issues in Consumer, Apparel, and Retail Studies; HEA 331: Alcohol, Tobacco, and Other Drugs; ISM 280: Business Processes in Informational Technology; RCS 261: Introduction to Consumer Retailing; and REL 204: New Testament and the Origin of Christianity). Likewise, for the Thai sample, respondents were recruited from various business- and science-related classes (e.g., Management, Physiology) offered at Mahidol University, Nakornpratom campus. Students in both countries were asked to voluntarily participate in the study. Those students who agreed to participate in the current study were then provided two identical consent forms to read and sign. They were asked to return one signed copy to the researcher and to keep the other one for their personal records. After receiving the signed copy of the consent form, the researcher handed out the questionnaire for them to complete. A self-administered questionnaire was utilized through undergraduate classes in both countries.

There are several reasons for using students. First, students tend to be homogeneous in nature, (i.e., many extraneous variables such as age, education, and

shopping behavior can be controlled), which is desirable for theory testing (Calder, Phillips, & Tybout, 1981; Malpass & Poortinga, 1986; Vishwanath, 2005). Second, a number of cross-cultural researchers suggest that testing for marketing universals requires a matched sample (i.e., sample equivalence) with each country; therefore, college students were chosen because we could assure a matched sample across countries (Douglas & Craig, 1983; Mullen, 1995; Parameswaran & Yaprak, 1987). It is acknowledged that although this sampling frame cannot be viewed as nationally representative, it constitutes comparable populations by maximizing the equivalence of sampling groups (Netemeyer, Durvasula, & Lichtenstein, 1991; Osgood, May, & Miron, 1975). In addition, Hofstede and Bond (1988) contended that, for cross-cultural studies, ensuring a matched sample through the use of students is superior to the risk of extraneous variables through national samples. Lastly, college students are a prime market for many sportswear products (Andrews & Ritzer, 2007; Cho, 2009; Kobayashi, 2012).

Approximately 600 responses were collected in class from the two countries (300 responses each). This estimated sample size was based on Boomsma's (1982) suggestion that the sample size obtained from each country should not be less than 200 responses in order to avoid any risk of drawing erroneous conclusions.

Statistical Analysis

Data obtained in this study was entered into IBM SPSS version 20.0 for descriptive analysis (e.g., frequency, means, and etc.). Reliability was assessed on an individual factor using Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is a widely used measure for

assessing the reliability of a psychometrically developed scale (Peter, 1979). The value

of the Cronbach's coefficient ranges from 0 and 1, where 0 indicates a completely

unreliable measure and 1 indicates a completely reliable measure. Nunnally and

Bernstein (1994) recommend that the reliability of all latent constructs should exceed the

benchmark of 0.70 as an indication of acceptable measures.

Multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (MGCFA)

As mentioned earlier, several cross-cultural researchers (Mullen, 1995;

Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998; Triandis, 1994) have stated that in order to examine

the degree of similarity and differences between cultures in relation to the prescribed

theoretical model, it is important to first establish measurement equivalence (or

measurement invariance). According to Horn and McArdle (1992), measurement

invariance refers to "whether or not, under different conditions of observing and studying

phenomena, measurement operations yield measures of the same attribute" (p. 117). This

is a major concern in cross-cultural studies that use translated survey instruments

(Mullen, 1995; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) because if there is no evidence of

measurement invariance, conclusions drawn on cross-cultural differences related to

materialism can be ambiguous and erroneous (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). In such

cases, "cross-cultural differences in scale means might be due to true differences between

countries on the underlying construct or due to systematic biases in the way people from

different countries respond to certain items" (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998, p. 78).

Hair et al. (2010) also add that measurement invariance ensures that the measurement

model conducted under different settings yield comparable representations of the same constructs.

Mullen (1995) suggests that measurement invariance should be diagnosed through multigroup analysis. A multigroup analysis via LISREL (i.e., multigroup confirmatory factor analysis or MGCFA) allows one to explore "whether the respondents relate observed measures to latent constructs the same way in different populations" (Mullen, 1995, p. 581). MGCFA is a powerful approach for testing measurement invariance across cultures (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). First, the basic CFA framework accounts for measurement error via the inclusion of error terms. Second, MGCFA permits a direct examination of measurement invariance; therefore, it allows one to specify constraints in an *a priori* manner which consequently allows one to test for measurement invariance across cultures. Last, MGCFA examines across groups simultaneously and thus is preferred when multigroups are being compared (Mead & Lautenschlager, 2004a). Measurement invariance is achieved when the scale factor structure and respondents' scores are the same (Myers et al., 2000).

Establishing measurement invariance involves a sequential testing procedure with increasingly restrictive forms of invariance, starting from the assessment of equality of covariance matrices and mean vectors, configural invariance, metric invariance, scalar invariance, factor covariance invariance, factor variance invariance, and error variance invariance (Hair et al., 2010; Mullen, 1995; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Detailed information related to each procedure is discussed as follows:

1. The first step in assessing the cross-cultural validity of the measures is to determine whether covariance matrices and mean vectors are similar (or invariant) across countries. In the event that they are invariant, then data can be pooled across the countries and separate country analysis need not to be performed. However, if this is not the case, then configural invariance (or factor structure) model is estimated and will be used as the basis for comparing other more restricted model.

2. The second step, configural invariance or factor structure, examines whether the forms of the model are the same across cultures. In other words, configural invariance addresses whether the number of latent constructs is the same across two countries, and the same variable loaded on each latent construct.

3. The third step, metric invariance, assesses whether the factor loadings are identical for each scale item across cultures. As configural invariance only indicates that factor structure is identical across cultures, it does not imply that consumers in those countries respond to the items the same way. Thus, a stringent test for measurement invariance is to demonstrate that the scale establishes metric invariance. Metric invariance establishes the equivalence of the basic "meaning" of the construct and serves as a crucial stage in that this metric invariance test determines cross-group validity past the basic factorial structure (Hair et al., 2010). According to Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998), if an item possesses metric invariance, meaningful

cross-cultural comparisons can be addressed based on the different scores of the item because "the observed item differences are indicative of similar cross-national differences in the underlying construct" (p. 80).

4. The fourth step, scalar invariance, examines whether there is consistency between cross-cultural differences in latent versus observed means by imposing equal intercept constraints. Scalar invariance is necessary if any comparisons of latent mean scores are made across groups.

5. The fifth step, factor covariance invariance, assesses whether the correlations among factors are equal across groups.

6. The sixth step, factor variance invariance, assesses the equality of the variances of the constructs across groups. If both factor covariance invariance and factor variance invariance hold, then the latent constructs' correlations are equal across groups.

7. Finally, the seventh step, error variance invariance, examines whether error variances are identical for each scale item across groups.

According to Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998), for a measurement scale to be equally reliable across cultures, it must be shown that factor loadings (metric), factor covariances, and error variances are all invariant or the same across cultures.

A number of researchers (Byrne et al., 1989; Hair et al., 2010l; Millsap & Kwok, 2004) have stated that while each of the proposed steps provide additional insights as to the degree of invariance in measurement models in multiple group scenarios, they also understand that these tests persist considerable difficult when applied. Thus, partial

invariance testing is also noted at each stage (beyond configural invariance). Partial

invariance is a more liberal standard where at least more than one parameters must hold

equivalent across groups at each stage of comparison. Hair et al. (2010) denote that a

general consensus among scholars has arisen that holds that two parameters per construct

must be found to be invariant at each stage (e.g., loadings in metric invariance, intercepts

at scalar invariance step, error terms in error variance invariance stage) for partial

invariance to hold. If "full" invariance is not supported, then a researcher is allowed to

systematically "free" or relax the constraints on each factor that have the greatest

differences in the hope that the chi square change will become non-significant.

Structural Equation Model (SEM) Analysis

Once equivalence in measurements (i.e., metric, factor covariance, and error

variance) is established, an analysis of the entire model can be tested across both groups

(American versus Thai). The model of young consumers' global apparel brands purchase

behavior was examined via structural equation analysis using LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog &

Sorbom, 1993). Structural equation model is "a technique to specify, estimate, and

evaluate models of linear relationships among a set of observed variables in terms of

generally smaller number of unobserved variables" (Shah & Goldstein, 2006). We

followed the two-step procedure, using a maximum likelihood estimation technique

recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1998) to establish the measurement and

structural models. In addition, the two-step approach was executed in order to avoid the

confusion in interpreting from a one-step approach. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

with LISREL 8.8 was first performed to establish the measurement model where we

tested the relationships of an unobserved variable (i.e., a latent variable or a construct) with a set of observed variables (i.e., indicators or measured variables) using maximum likelihood estimation. Also, the CFA was performed to confirm unidimensionality, discriminant and convergent validity, and examine the goodness-of-fit of the measurement model. Then, the structural model (or a path model) was executed to specify causal relationships among latent variables. The structural model consisted of a number of exogenous (i.e., three socialization agents) and endogenous (e.g., dimensions of acculturation to the global consumer culture, brand equity dimensions) variables.

Different fit indices were employed to assess the model fit. These fit indices are model chi-square (χ^2), normed chi-square (χ^2/df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), normed-fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and non-normed fit index (NNFI or Tucker-Lewis index, TLI).

Model chi-square (χ^2) and normed chi-square (χ^2/df) are often classified as absolute fit indices. According to McDonald and Ho (2002), absolute fit indices determine how well *a priori* models fit the sample data and show which proposed model has the most superior fit. These fit indices provide the most fundamental indication of how well the proposed theory fits the data. Researchers typically use a chi-square test statistic as a test of overall model fit in SEM. The chi-square (χ^2) value assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariances matrics (Hu & Bentler, 1992). A good model fit would provide an insignificant result at a 0.05 threshold (Barrett, 2007); hence, the chi-square statistic is often called a badness-of-fit (Kline, 2005). According to Bentler and Bonett (1980), the chi-square statistic is criticized for its

sensitivity to sample size (i.e., larger sample size produce larger chi-squares that are more likely to be significant). Thus, the chi-square statistic is not a good fit index in practice. Researchers have suggested alternative indices to assess the model fit to minimize the impact of sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Wheaton et al., 1977). These researchers have suggested using normed chi-square (χ^2/df) index to assess the model fit and recommend an acceptable ratio for this statistic ranging from 2.0 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) to 5.0 (Wheaton et al., 1977).

The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is classified as a noncentrality-based index. The concept of noncentrality is based on the idea of basing goodness-of-fit assessment on an estimation of the population noncentrality parameter (Steiger & Lind, 1980 as cited in Steiger, 1990). According to Byrne (1998), RMSEA indicate how well the model, with unknown but optimally chosen parameter estimates, would fit the population's covariance matrix. Values for the RMSEA at or less than 0.08 demonstrate a good fit (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996).

Normed-fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and non-normed fit index (NNFI or Tucker-Lewis index, TLI) are classified as incremental fit indices. Incremental fit indices are also known as comparative or relative fit indices (McDonald & Ho, 2002). According to McDonald and Ho (2002), these indices do not employ the chi-square in its raw form but compare the chi-square value to a baseline model. For these models, the null hypothesis is that all variables are not correlated (McDonald & Ho, 2002). Normed-fit index (NFI) assesses the model by comparing the chi-square value of the model to the chi-square value of the null model (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980). Values for the NFI at or

more than 0.90 indicate a good fit (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980). Comparative-fit index (CFI) is a revised version of NFI (Bentler, 1990) which take sample size into account (Byrne, 1998). Values for the CFI at or more than 0.90 indicate a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Several researchers (e.g., Bentler, 1990; Mulaik et al., 1989) have suggested that NFI may underestimate the model fit when the sample size is less than 200 and thus is not recommended to be solely relied on (Kline, 2005). These researchers have suggested the use of non-normed fit index (NNFI or Tucker-Lewis index, TLI) to indicate the model fit because this index seems to prefer a simpler model. Values for the TLI at or more than 0.90 indicate a good fit (Bentler & Hu, 1999).

Chapter Summary

This chapter provides detailed information related to research methodology related to stimuli selection, instrument development, and pretest of the instrument, sampling and data collection procedures and statistical analysis that needs to be employed to test hypothesized relationships addressed in Chapter II. The following chapter presents the analysis and its results.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of statistical analyses that were employed to answer all proposed hypotheses addressed in Chapter II. This chapter begins with an overview of sample characteristics followed by descriptive statistics of all variables investigated in the study. Next, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that was employed for the purpose of validation and purification of constructs are presented, followed by the results of multi-group analysis. Finally, the results of measurement and structural models are addressed. In addition, these statistical results are addressed along with the hypotheses proposed in Chapter II.

Sample Characteristics

The demographic characteristics of the sample are summarized in Table 3. The American data were comprised of 336 usable subjects. Approximately thirty-two percent (n=108) of the sample was male, and sixty-eight percent (n=228) was female. Almost seventy-eight percent of respondents (n=262) were between the ages of 18-21 years (the average age of the American sample was 20.4 years). Related to monthly income, almost eighty-seven percent (n=292) reported a monthly income of less than 1,500 USD. Within the sample, fifty-three percent (n=178) were Caucasian, followed by thirty-one percent African-American (n=104), eight percent Hispanic-American (n=27), less than one

percent (0.3%) Native American (n=1), and roughly eight percent for all other ethnicities

(n=26). Year in school distribution was proportionate for sophomores and juniors

(approximately 30% in each, or n=100 followed by freshmen (26%; n=87) and seniors

(15%; n=50). In addition, sixty-four percent of the American participants (n=215)

indicated that they have at least one or two siblings.

For the Thai data, the final sample consisted of 300 usable responses. About

twenty percent (n=59) of the sample was male, and eighty percent (n=241) was female.

Almost ninety-eight percent of the respondents (n=293) were between the ages of 18-21

years (the average age of the Thai sample was 19.7 years). Related to monthly income,

nearly eighty-four percent (n=251) reported a monthly income of less than 1,500 USD

(equivalent to 45,000 Thai Baht). In addition, most of the Thai participants were either in

their freshman, or sophomore year in college (42% or n=126 and 41% or n=124,

respectively). In addition, most of the Thai participants (80%; n=240) indicated that they

have at least one or two siblings.

Table 3. Participants' Demographic Characteristics

		USA (n=336)		Thailand (n=300)	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	108	32.1	59	19.7
	Female	228	67.9	241	80.3
Age	18	43	12.8	34	11.3
	19	78	23.2	85	28.3
	20	75	22.3	123	41.0
	21	65	19.3	51	17.0
	22	32	9.5	5	1.7
	23	16	4.8	1	.3
	24	27	8.0	1	.3

Monthly Income	Under $500	151	44.9	11[a]	3.7
	$500 - $749	71	21.1	49	16.3
	$750-$999	36	10.7	118	39.3
	$1,000-$1,499	34	10.1	72	24.0
	$1,500-$1,999	20	6.0	33	11.0
	$2,000 or more	24	7.1	17	5.7
School Year	Freshman	86	25.6	127	42.3
	Sophomore	101	30.1	122	40.7
	Junior	99	29.5	50	16.7
	Senior	49	14.6	1	0.3
Ethnicity	Caucasian	178	53.0	N/A	N/A
	African-American	104	31.0	N/A	N/A
	Hispanic	27	8.0	N/A	N/A
	Native American	1	0.3	N/A	N/A
	Others	26	7.8	N/A	N/A
No. of Siblings	0	32	9.5	0	0
	1	119	35.4	97	32.3
	2	97	28.9	145	48.3
	3	47	14.0	49	16.3
	4	20	6.0	8	2.7
	5	8	2.4	0	0
	> 5	13	3.9	1	0.3

Note: a: Monthly income for Thailand: 1 = < 15,000 Baht; 2 = 15,000 Baht – 22,499 Baht; 3 = 22,500 Baht – 29,999 Baht; 4 = 30,000 Baht – 44,999 Baht; 5 = 45,000 Baht – 59,999 Baht; 6 = > 60,000 Baht
N/A: "Not Applicable"

Participants' Response to Global Brands

As detailed in Chapter III, in the questionnaire, participants were given a

definition for global brands as "brands which are available in most countries worldwide,

have a uniform positioning and image worldwide and are perceived by consumers as

being 'global'" (Douglas & Craig, 2012). Participants were then provided with a list of

five brand names (i.e., Nike, Adidas, Reebok, New Balance, and Puma) and asked

various questions (e.g., "Do you personally own any of the brands listed above?" and

"Which of these brands do you think should be classified as "global?") Figure 3

illustrates the percentage of participants who selected each of the prelisted brands as

being perceived as "global" in nature. Nike was perceived by most, if not all, participants

across both countries (American=100% and Thai=97.7%) as being perceived as "global."

For Adidas, 92.6% of American respondents felt that the brand met the definition of

"global brand" while a comparable percentage (94.3%) felt similarly among young Thai

consumers. Puma ranked third among young American and Thai consumers

(American=56.8% and Thai=60.3%). Reebok was perceived as global by 43.2% of

American respondents and 36.0% of Thai participants. Finally, 27.4% of young

American consumers and 24.0% of Thai young consumers claimed that New Balance met

the definition of a global brand.

Figure 3. Perceived Global Brand Percentage (In Percentages)
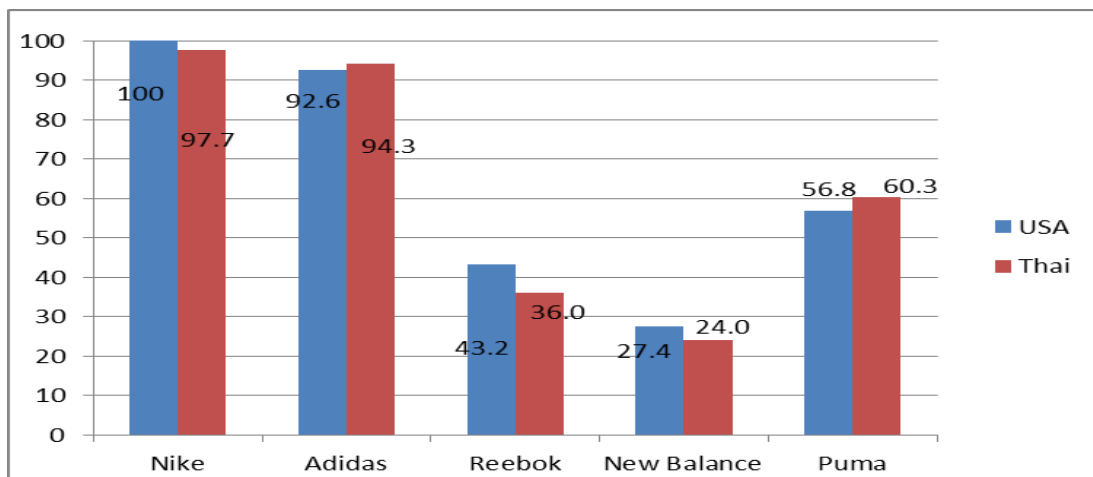
When asked which specific brand *best* matched the definition of a global brand (select one), 79.5% of young American consumers claimed that Nike best represented a global apparel brand while Thai participants were split among Nike (45.7%) and Adidas (40.0%) (see Figure 4).

Figure 4. Which Brand Best Matches "Global Brand?" (In Percentages)
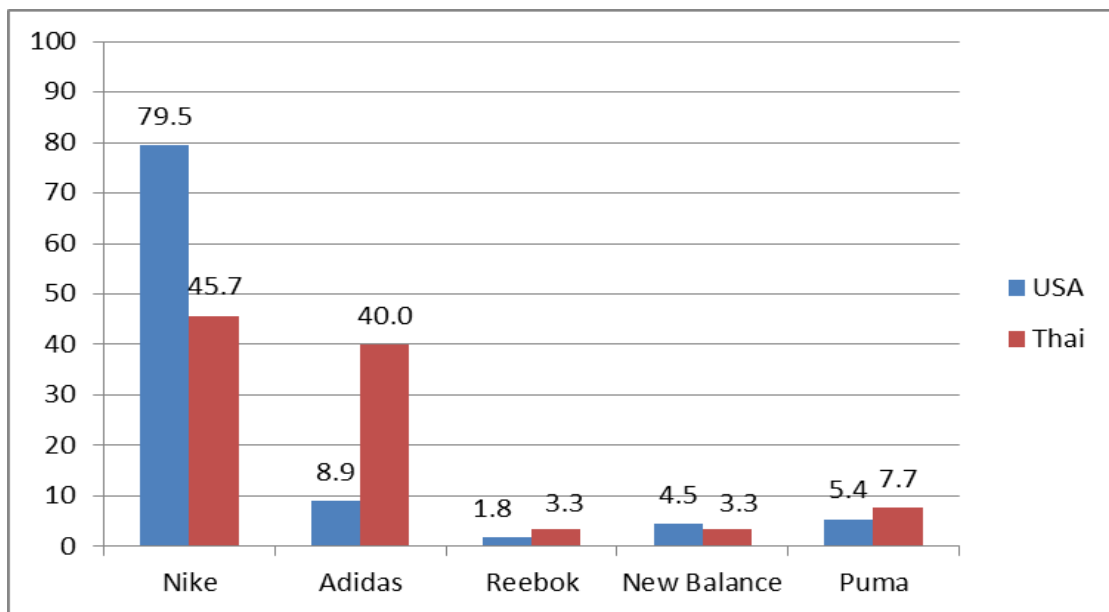
Finally, when asked whether participants currently owned any of these brands (i.e., Nike, Adidas, Reebok, New Balance, or Puma), almost all young American consumers claimed current ownership of at least one of the listed brands (87.8%). In contrast, less than half of young Thai consumers claimed current ownership of at least one of the brands listed (45.3%) (see Table 4).

Table 4. Do You Personally Own Any of The Brands Listed? (In Percentages)

	USA (n=336)	Thai (n=300)
Yes	87.8	45.3
No	12.2	54.7

Validation and Purification of Constructs

In order to first validate the proposed scales and hypothesized model proposed in this study, the study followed procedures proposed by Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998). This included confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) via LISREL 8.8 with maximum likelihood as the estimation method performed to validate all major constructs being investigated in the current study independently across samples, including Socialization Agents' Influence on Apparel Purchases, Acculturation to Global Consumer Culture, Brand Knowledge, Attitudes toward Global Apparel Brand, and Brand Resonance. According to Griffin, Babin, and Modianos (2000), this statistical technique allows for a comprehensive examination for scale validation and provides a mechanism for establishing measurement invariance.

Socialization Agents' Influence on Apparel Purchases

Table 5 shows scale items and descriptive statistics for Socialization Agents' Influence on Apparel Purchases for both samples (the United States and Thailand). The original Socialization Agents' Influence on Apparel Purchases scale proposed by Mascarenhas and Higby (1993) consisted of twenty-four items, in which eight items captured the parent influence dimension, eleven items captured the peers influence dimension, and five items captured the media influence dimension.

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Table 5. Descriptive Statistics and CFA Results for the Original 24-item 3-factor Model of Socialization Agents: the

United States versus Thailand

Items' Abbreviation	Items' description	Countries			
		USA (n=336)		Thailand (n=300)	
		Means (S.D.)	Factor Loadings (t-values)	Means (S.D.)	Factor Loadings (t-values)
Dimension 1: Parents (8 items)					
PAR1	I always purchase the same products and brands that my parents purchase.	2.40 (1.68)	0.63 (12.42)	3.84 (1.68)	0.67 (12.94)
PAR2	My parents come with me when I purchase apparel.	2.27 (1.60)	0.78 (16.43)	4.06 (1.78)	0.80 (16.33)
PAR3	What, where and which brands I buy are very much influenced by my parents.	2.29 (1.66)	0.76 (15.92)	3.88 (1.78)	0.83 (17.25)
PAR4	I always shop with my parents.	1.89 (1.46)	0.82 (17.90)	4.16 (1.70)	0.80 (16.26)
PAR5	My parents decide all of my shopping needs.	1.44 (1.09)	0.77 (16.13)	3.53 (1.74)	0.76 (15.13)
PAR6	I never buy a new product until my parents and I discuss it.	1.53 (1.17)	0.78 (16.61)	3.20 (1.74)	0.66 (12.44)
PAR7	When I do not understand prices and quality, I ask my parents.	2.61 (1.88)	0.60 (11.76)	3.75 (1.74)	0.70 (13.55)
PAR8	I often discuss my purchase plans with my parents.	2.65 (1.74)	0.70 (14.18)	3.68 (1.74)	0.70 (13.36)
	Composite Reliability	**0.90**		**0.91**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.73**		**0.74**	
Dimension 2: Peers (11 items)					
PER1	I rarely purchase the latest products until I am sure my friends approve of them.	2.12 (1.43)	0.64 (12.91)	3.50 (1.71)	0.50 (8.91)
PER2	It is important that my friends approve of the	1.81 (1.35)	0.82 (17.97)	3.15 (1.66)	0.70 (13.73)

	stores I shop at.				
PER3	I am very loyal to stores where my friends shop.	2.17 (1.53)	0.76 (16.02)	2.96 (1.58)	0.81 (16.70)
PER4	If I want to be like my friends, I always buy the brands they buy.	1.85 (1.38)	0.82 (18.24)	2.51 (1.55)	0.84 (17.67)
PER5	I work long hours and save to afford the things my friends buy.	1.97 (1.59)	0.73 (15.23)	2.62 (1.62)	0.85 (18.07)
PER6	I feel a sense of belonging by buying the same brands my friends buy.	1.96 (1.38)	0.86 (19.37)	2.52 (1.64)	0.89 (19.68)
PER7	My friends very much influence my choices in shopping.	2.33 (1.50)	0.81 (17.83)	2.99 (1.55)	0.81 (16.75)
PER8	I regularly ask my friends about the latest fashions.	2.32 (1.59)	0.67 (13.67)	2.91 (1.65)	0.73 (14.45)
PER9	I always talk to friends about prices and quality of products before I buy them.	3.07 (1.80)	0.51 (9.80)	4.43 (1.56)	0.25 (4.33)
PER10	To make sure I buy the right product, I often watch what my friends buy.	2.01 (1.45)	0.77 (16.38)	3.42 (1.61)	0.63 (11.97)
PER11	My friends always talk to me about ads before I buy anything.	1.80 (1.33)	0.68 (13.74)	3.40 (1.58)	0.62 (11.60)
	Composite Reliability		**0.93**		**0.92**
	Average Variance Extracted		**0.73**		**0.69**
Dimension 3: Media (5 items)					
MED1	I buy only those products and brands that are advertised on TV, Radio, Print, or the Internet.	1.95 (1.42)	0.78 (16.26)	3.19 (1.64)	0.70 (13.32)
MED2	Advertisements determine what brands I will buy.	2.33 (1.52)	0.74 (15.25)	3.20 (1.61)	0.76 (14.78)
MED3	I continue buying the same brands as long as my favorite celebrity uses them.	1.66 (1.26)	0.81 (17.27)	3.20 (1.84)	0.78 (15.55)
MED4	I always consider the media when deciding the best products/ brands to buy.	2.28 (1.53)	0.80 (16.96)	3.50 (1.67)	0.83 (17.60)
MED5	I always look for ads before I buy something.	2.18 (1.54)	0.73 (15.04)	3.53 (1.78)	0.75 (14.47)

Composite Reliability	**0.88**	**0.88**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.77**	**0.76**
Model Fit Indicator	USA	Thailand
χ^2	1,025.30[***]	1,123.51[***]
df	249	249
χ^2/df	4.12	4.51
RMSEA	0.096	0.11
CFI	0.96	0.94
NFI	0.94	0.92
TLI	0.95	0.93
SRMR	0.07	0.08

Note: * p < .05; *** p < .001

The original twenty-four items of socialization agents in the American data were constrained to be consistent with the three-factor structure of socialization agents proposed by Mascarenhas and Higby (1993) (see Table 5). The CFA results revealed standardized factor loadings that ranged from 0.51 (PER 9) to 0.86 (PER 6) for the American data; all were significant. Furthermore, the χ^2 statistic resulting from the American three-factor structure model of socialization agents' influence on apparel purchase decisions was 1,025.30 with 249 degrees of freedom at p < .001. The normed chi-square (χ^2/df) was 4.12, the root mean square of error approximation (RMSEA) was 0.096, the comparative fit index (CFI) was 0.96, the normed fit index (NFI) was 0.94, the Tucker-Lewis fit index (TLI) was 0.95, and the standardized RMR (SRMR) was 0.07. The chi-square statistic was significant at the 0.001 level; however, this measurement has been shown to be overly sensitive to sample size (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). Thus, additional indices were employed to assess the model fit. The values of CFI, NFI and TLI exceeded the 0.90 cut-off point, suggesting the satisfactory fit of the model (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In addition, the value of RMSEA was below the minimum value of 0.10 suggested by Brown and Cudeck (1993). Finally, the value of SRMR also was below the 0.08 cut-off value proposed by Hu and Bentler (1999). In general, these fit indexes revealed a somewhat satisfactory fit.

The same analysis was carried out for the Thai sample as for the American sample. According to CFA results, the original measurement model for a twenty-four item three-factor structure of socialization agents revealed an overall χ^2 of 1,123.51 with

249 degrees of freedom at p < .001, a normed chi-square (χ^2/df) of 4.51, a RMSEA of 0.11, a CFI of 0.94, a NFI of 0.92, a TLI of 0.95, and a SRMR of 0.08. These fit indexes also revealed a somewhat satisfactory fit for the Thai sample. In addition, CFA results showed standardized factor loadings ranged from 0.25 (PER 9) to 0.89 (PER 6) for the Thai sample; all were significant.

Following the procedure suggested by Bearden et al. (1989), the measurement model of the 24-item, 3-factor structure of socialization agents was purified. Furthermore, in an attempt to maintain shared items across countries as much as possible, items with factor loadings less than 0.40 were removed and items with excessive cross loadings on one or more dimensions were also removed (Bernard, 1998). As a result, one item (PER 9 from the peer's influence dimension) was removed due to the low factor loading in the Thai sample and four items (i.e., PAR4, PAR5, and PAR6 from the parents' influence dimension and PER11 from the peer's influence dimension) were also removed due to excessive cross loadings on more than one dimension in both the U.S. and Thai samples from subsequent analysis (see Table 6). Thus, a total of five items were removed, resulting in the revised 19-item 3-factor structure model of socialization agents scale.

These nineteen items of socialization agents scale were again subjected to further analysis. The CFA results revealed that the revised measurement model of 19-item 3-factor structure of socialization agents showed a much improved fit over the original measurement model in both the American (χ^2 = 472.75, df = 149, p < .001, χ^2/df = 3.17, RMSEA = 0.081, CFI = 0.97, NFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.97, and SRMR = .049) and the Thai (χ^2 = 603.61, df = 149, p < .001, χ^2/df = 4.05, RMSEA = 0.101, CFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.94,

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TLI = 0.94, and SRMR = .062) samples (see Table 6). A similar investigation that was

conducted for the American sample using multiple model fit indices was carried out. The

value for CFI, NFI, and TLI all exceeded the 0.90 cutoff point suggested by Hu and

Bentler (1999). In addition, the value of RMSEA metric also was below the maximum

cutoff value of 0.10 (Brown & Cudeck, 1993). Finally, the SRMR was also below the

0.08 maximum value suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999). Thus, the model was

considered as a good fit to the American data and a reasonable fit to the Thai data. In

addition, all factor loadings were significant at $p < .001$ and exceeded 0.40 across

samples.

For the revised 19-item 3-factor model of socialization agents the scale

reliabilities revealed an improvement; construct reliability (CR) ranged from 0.86 (the

parent influence dimension) to 0.94 (the peer influence dimension) in the American

sample and ranged from 0.86 (the parent influence dimension) to 0.92 (the peer influence

dimension) in the Thai sample. The average variance extracted also showed an

improvement over the original model, ranging from 0.74 (the parent influence dimension)

to 0.77 (the media influence dimension) in the American sample and ranging from 0.75

(both the parent and the peer influence dimensions) to 0.76 (the media influence

dimension) in the Thai sample.

Table 6. CFA for the Revised 19-item 3-factor Model of Socialization Agents: The United States versus Thailand

Items' Abbreviation	Items' description	Countries			
		USA (n=336)		Thailand (n=300)	
		Factor Loadings	(t-values)	Factor Loadings	(t-values)
Dimension 1: Parents (5 items)					
PAR1	I always purchase the same products and brands that my parents purchase.	0.70	(13.73)	0.72	(13.57)
PAR2	My parents come with me when I purchase apparel.	0.76	(15.52)	0.80	(15.78)
PAR3	What, where and which brands I buy are very much influenced by my parents.	0.79	(16.43)	0.82	(16.33)
PAR7	When I do not understand prices and quality, I ask my parents.	0.68	(13.37)	0.70	(13.04)
PAR8	I often discuss my purchase plans with my parents.	0.77	(15.89)	0.71	(13.29)
	Composite Reliability	**0.86**		**0.86**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.74**		**0.75**	
Dimension 2: Peers (9 items)					
PER1	I rarely purchase the latest products until I am sure my friends approve of them.	0.64	(12.86)	0.50	(8.91)
PER2	It is important that my friends approve of the stores I shop at.	0.81	(17.88)	0.71	(13.86)
PER3	I am very loyal to stores where my friends shop.	0.76	(15.99)	0.81	(16.75)
PER4	If I want to be like my friends, I always buy the brands they buy.	0.84	(18.64)	0.84	(17.82)
PER5	I work long hours and save to afford the things my friends buy.	0.74	(15.49)	0.86	(18.31)
PER6	I feel a sense of belonging by buying the same brands my friends buy.	0.87	(19.82)	0.90	(19.94)

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PER7	My friends very much influence my choices in shopping.	0.81	(17.77)	0.80	(16.50)
PER8	I regularly ask my friends about the latest fashions.	0.66	(13.28)	0.72	(14.11)
PER10	To make sure I buy the right product, I often watch what my friends buy.	0.75	(15.86)	0.61	(11.46)
	Composite Reliability		**0.94**		**0.92**
	Average Variance Extracted		**0.76**		**0.75**
Dimension 3: Media (5 items)					
MED1	I buy only those products and brands that are advertised on TV, Radio, Print, or the Internet.	0.77	(16.13)	0.70	(13.30)
MED2	Advertisements determine what brands I will buy.	0.74	(15.29)	0.76	(14.77)
MED3	I continue buying the same brands as long as my favorite celebrity uses them.	0.80	(17.05)	0.75	(15.57)
MED4	I always consider the media when deciding the best products/ brands to buy.	0.81	(17.15)	0.83	(17.01)
MED5	I always look for ads before I buy something.	0.74	(15.05)	0.74	(14.45)
	Composite Reliability		**0.88**		**0.87**
	Average Variance Extracted		**0.77**		**0.76**
	Model Fit Indicator		**USA**		**Thailand**
	χ^2		472.75[***]		603.61[***]
	df		149		149
	χ^2/df		3.17		4.05
	RMSEA		0.081		0.101
	CFI		0.97		0.95
	NFI		0.96		0.94
	TLI		0.97		0.94
	SRMR		0.05		0.06

Note: * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$

Acculturation to Global Consumer Culture (AGCC)

Table 7 displays scale items and descriptive statistics for the AGCC scale for both

the United States and Thailand samples. The original AGCC scale proposed by Cleveland

and Laroche (2007) suggested that eleven items captured the cosmopolitan (COS)

dimension, ten items captured the exposure to the marketing activities of multinational

corporations (EXM), six items captured the social interaction through travelling (SIN),

nine items captured the exposure to global and foreign mass media (GMM), five items

captured the openness to and desire to participate in the global consumer culture (OPE),

eight items captured the self-identification with global consumer culture (IDT), and seven

items captured English/ foreign language usage and/or exposure (ELU) (see Table 7).

The American and the Thai Samples

Similar to the procedure conducted for the socialization agents scale, the original

56-item AGCC scale proposed by Cleveland and Laroch (2007) was first assessed

independently across samples. A CFA via LISREL 8.8 with maximum likelihood as the

estimation method was performed following Steenkamp and Baumgartner's (1998)

proposed procedure. According to Table 7, the initial CFA results revealed significant

standardized factor loadings ranging from 0.26 (OPE4) to 0.93 (ELU3) for the American

sample. Furthermore, the χ^2 statistic resulting from the American seven-factor structure

model was 4,514.25 with 1,463 degrees of freedom at $p < .001$, the normed chi-square

(χ^2/df) of 3.09, a RMSEA of 0.079, a CFI of 0.95, a NFI of 0.93, a TLI of 0.95, and a

SRMR of 0.10. The chi-squared statistic was significant at a level of .001; however, this

measure has been shown in the past to be overly sensitive to sample size (Bentler &

Bonett, 1980). Thus, additional measures were also assessed. The CFI, NFI and TFI

values were greater than the cut-off criteria value of 0.90 for the American sample. The

SRMR value was revealed to be marginally above the maximum cutoff value of 0.08

suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999) and the RMSEA values was below the 0.10 cut-off

level suggested by Brown and Cudeck (1993). Hence, these fit indexes revealed an overall

satisfactory model fit for the American data.

Similar analysis was performed for the Thai sample. According to CFA results, the

original measurement model for the fifty-six items seven-factor structure of the

acculturation to global consumer culture (AGCC) scale revealed an overall χ^2 of 4,707.94

with 1,463 degrees of freedom at p < .001, a normed chi-square of 3.22, a RMSEA of

0.086, a CFI of 0.92, a NFI of 0.88, a TLI of 0.91 and a SRMR of 0.098. These fit indexes

suggested a satisfactory overall model fit for the Thai sample.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics and CFA Results for the Original 56-item 7-factor Model of AGCC: the United States versus

Thailand

Items' Abbreviation	Items' description	Countries			
		USA (n=336)		Thailand (n=300)	
		Means (S.D.)	Factor Loadings (*t-values*)	Means (S.D.)	Factor Loadings (*t-values*)
Dimension 1: Cosmopolitanism (11 items)					
COS1	I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.	5.71 (1.40)	0.85 (19.29)	5.36 (1.28)	0.69 (13.26)
COS2	I like to learn about other ways of life.	5.85 (1.31)	0.88 (21.69)	5.31 (1.18)	0.70 (11.26)
COS3	I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their unique views and approaches.	5.81 (1.34)	0.89 (22.00)	5.17 (1.17)	0.75 (12.05)
COS4	I like to try restaurants that offer food that is different from that in my own culture.	5.71 (1.48)	0.57 (11.31)	5.43 (1.31)	0.65 (10.48)
COS5	I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.	5.67 (1.34)	0.89 (22.25)	5.33 (1.32)	0.73 (11.67)
COS6	I like to observe people of other cultures, to see what I can learn from them.	5.66 (1.36)	0.87 (21.18)	5.36 (1.29)	0.78 (12.44)
COS7	I find people from other countries stimulating.	5.58 (1.42)	0.84 (19.93)	4.77 (1.38)	0.68 (10.99)
COS8	I enjoy trying foreign foods.	5.62 (1.56)	0.55 (11.01)	5.44 (1.33)	0.66 (10.72)
COS9	When traveling, I like to immerse myself in the culture of the people I am visiting.	5.63 (1.36)	0.75 (16.59)	4.83 (1.33)	0.62 (10.04)
COS10	Coming into contact with people of other cultures has greatly benefited me.	5.57 (1.47)	0.83 (19.64)	4.87 (1.19)	0.70 (11.22)
COS11	When it comes to trying new things, I am very open.	5.78 (1.34)	0.59 (11.97)	5.27 (1.19)	0.60 (9.68)
	Composite Reliability	**0.94**		**0.91**	

	Average Variance Extracted	**0.77**		**0.69**

Dimension #2: Exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (10 items)					
EXM1	When I am watching TV, I often see advertising for products that are from outside my country.	3.96 (1.62)	0.71 (14.76)	5.07 (1.23)	0.61 (11.20)
EXM2	Ads for foreign or global products are everywhere.	4.14 (1.58)	0.78 (13.94)	5.24 (1.32)	0.68 (12.98)
EXM3	In my city, there are many billboards and advertising for products that are from outside my country.	3.35 (1.65)	0.82 (14.69)	4.89 (1.30)	0.74 (14.45)
EXM4	It is quite common to see ads for foreign or global products in local media.	3.62 (1.68)	0.83 (14.81)	5.18 (1.38)	0.74 (14.61)
EXM5	When I read a newspaper, I come across many advertisements for foreign or global products.	3.35 (1.62)	0.81 (14.39)	4.82 (1.28)	0.76 (15.10)
EXM6	The magazines that I read are full of ads for foreign or global products.	3.66 (1.69)	0.74 (13.23)	4.99 (1.36)	0.75 (14.81)
EXM7	When I am watching TV, it seems that the number of advertisements for foreign brands is quite high, when compared to the number of advertisements for local brands.	3.37 (1.70)	0.78 (13.85)	4.22 (1.37)	0.68 (12.87)
EXM8	I often watch TV programming with advertisements from outside my country.	3.08 (1.66)	0.81 (14.36)	4.39 (1.32)	0.73 (14.37)
EXM9	When shopping, I am often exposed to foreign or global brands.	4.28 (1.64)	0.68 (12.06)	4.83 (1.38)	0.76 (15.13)
EXM10	Many of the TV commercial I see are placed by multinational companies.	4.10 (1.54)	0.59(10.56)	4.51 (1.29)	0.71(13.77)
	Composite Reliability	**0.93**		**0.91**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.76**		**0.72**	
Dimension 3: Social interaction through travelling (6 items)					

SIN1	If I had the chance to vacation, I would prefer to travel in my home country.[a]	2.79 (1.75)	0.43 (7.84)	4.98 (1.53)	0.00 (0.00)
SIN2	I prefer spending my vacations outside of the country that I live in.	5.43 (1.60)	0.80 (17.12)	4.26 (1.63)	0.69 (12.63)
SIN3	Visiting foreign countries is one of my favorite things.	5.17 (1.70)	0.92(18.32)	4.82 (1.56)	0.88(17.45)
SIN4	I often think about going to different countries and doing some traveling.	6.04 (1.40)	0.67 (12.94)	4.67 (1.64)	0.78 (14.93)
SIN5	I have thus far visited 1 or more foreign countries.	4.51 (2.80)	0.44 (7.94)	3.78 (2.34)	0.16 (2.59)
SIN6	I feel at home in other countries	3.75 (1.95)	0.57 (10.64)	3.10 (1.69)	0.28 (4.67)
	Composite Reliability	**0.81**		**0.69**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.64**		**0.50**	
Dimension 4: Exposure to global and foreign mass media (9 items)					
GMM1	I enjoy watching foreign films at the theatre.	3.63 (2.04)	0.78 (16.73)	5.41 (1.53)	0.64 (11.69)
GMM2	I enjoy watching movies that are in a foreign language.	3.25 (2.17)	0.82 (16.40)	5.40 (1.49)	0.65 (11.96)
GMM3	I enjoy listening to music that is popular in foreign countries.	3.54 (2.08)	0.81 (16.17)	5.53 (1.49)	0.76 (14.67)
GMM4	Some of my favorite actors/ actresses are from foreign films.	3.44 (2.05)	0.82 (16.47)	5.35 (1.61)	0.75 (14.53)
GMM5	I like the way people dress in foreign countries.	4.86 (1.72)	0.60 (11.39)	4.55 (1.60)	0.62 (11.39)
GMM6	In general, I do not like foreign television programs.[a]	3.74 (1.93)	0.29 (5.15)	3.15 (1.59)	0.20(3.31)
GMM7	I like to read magazines that contain information about popular foreign celebrities.	3.46 (1.87)	0.70 (13.53)	4.21 (1.58)	0.54 (9.51)
GMM8	I enjoy reading foreign magazines.	3.04 (1.86)	0.79 (15.60)	4.30 (1.53)	0.69 (13.02)
GMM9	I often watch foreign television programs.	2.90 (1.94)	0.76 (14.94)	4.43 (1.55)	0.66 (12.30)
	Composite Reliability	**0.90**		**0.85**	

	Average Variance Extracted	0.71		0.61	

Dimension 5: Openness to and desire to participate in the global consumer culture (5 items)

OPE1	I think people my age are basically the same around the world.	3.21 (1.80)	0.77 (16.04)	3.84 (1.49)	0.74 (14.38)
OPE2	I think my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my age-group in other countries.	2.84 (1.68)	0.90 (16.60)	3.63 (1.44)	0.85 (17.58)
OPE3	I think my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my social class in other countries.	3.10 (1.65)	0.82 (15.54)	3.64 (1.45)	0.89 (18.81)
OPE4	When traveling abroad, I appreciate being able to find other culture's products and restaurants.	5.00 (1.70)	0.26 (4.52)	4.46 (1.49)	0.34 (5.67)
OPE5	I would rather live like people do in other countries.	3.44 (1.86)	0.38 (6.63)	3.84 (1.46)	0.60 (11.00)
	Composite Reliability	0.79		0.83	
	Average Variance Extracted	0.63		0.68	

Dimension 6: Self-identification with global consumer culture (8 items)

IDT1	The way that I dress is influenced by the advertising activities of foreign or global companies.	3.21 (1.86)	0.79 (17.22)	3.76 (1.52)	0.73 (14.42)
IDT2	I pay attention to the fashion worn by people in my age-group that live in other countries.	3.58 (2.06)	0.82 (16.98)	3.82 (1.53)	0.81 (14.10)
IDT3	Advertising by foreign or global brands has a strong influence on my clothing choices.	3.02 (1.81)	0.88 (18.64)	3.85 (1.59)	0.83 (14.36)
IDT4	I like reading magazines about fashion, décor, and trends in other countries.	3.69 (2.15)	0.75 (15.01)	4.17 (1.60)	0.64 (10.96)
IDT5	I try to pattern my lifestyle, way of dressing, etc. to be a global consumer.	3.22 (1.89)	0.82 (16.94)	3.50 (1.60)	0.82 (14.15)
IDT6	I prefer to wear clothing that I think is popular in many countries around the world rather than clothes traditionally worn in my own country.	3.12 (1.83)	0.84 (17.58)	3.53 (1.60)	0.85 (14.79)
IDT7	I actively seek to buy products that are not only	3.58 (1.85)	0.65 (12.55)	3.66 (1.61)	0.65 (11.11)

		USA		Thailand	
	thought of as 'local.'				
IDT8	I identify with famous international brands.	3.58 (1.85)	0.61 (11.75)	3.13 (1.76)	0.66 (11.23)
	Composite Reliability	**0.92**		**0.91**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.77**		**0.75**	
Dimension 7: English usage and/or exposure (7 items)					
ELU1	I feel very comfortable speaking in English/ a foreign language.	2.77 (2.02)	0.88 (20.17)	3.36 (1.61)	0.80 (15.20)
ELU2	I often speak English/ a foreign language with family and friends.	2.38 (2.03)	0.92 (25.32)	2.87 (1.58)	0.84 (16.09)
ELU3	I speak English/ a second language regularly.	2.39 (2.14)	0.93 (25.57)	2.94 (1.65)	0.85 (16.26)
ELU4	Many of my favorite shows on TV are in English/ a foreign language.	2.13 (1.93)	0.74 (16.72)	3.76 (1.68)	0.67 (12.11)
ELU5	My parents and I always communicate in English/ a foreign language.	5.99 (1.93)	0.70 (15.31)	4.15 (2.12)	0.02 (0.33)
ELU6	Many of the textbooks and articles that I read are in English/ a foreign language.	1.75 (1.41)	0.56 (11.30)	3.92 (1.53)	0.43 (7.41)
ELU7	I prefer to watch English/ foreign language television than any other language I speak	1.73 (1.33)	0.58 (11.84)	3.83 (1.55)	0.49 (8.40)
	Composite Reliability	**0.91**		**0.81**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.76**		**0.59**	

Model Fit Indicator	**USA**	**Thailand**
χ^2	4,514.25[***]	4,707.94[***]
df	1,463	1,463
χ^2/df	3.09	3.22
RMSEA	0.079	0.086
CFI	0.95	0.92
NFI	0.93	0.88
TLI	0.95	0.91
SRMR	0.10	0.098

Note: * p < .05; *** p < .001

Related to scale purification procedure, we followed similar steps as were carried out when purifying scales for socialization agents' influence scale. As a result, two items (ELU5, from the English/ foreign language usage dimension, and SIN1 from the social interaction through travelling dimension) were removed due to insignificant factor loadings for the Thai sample. In addition, five items (i.e., GMM6, from the exposure to global and foreign mass media, OPE4, and OPE5, from the openness to and desire to participate in the global consumer dimension, and SIN5 and SIN6 from the social interaction through travelling dimension) revealed standardized factor loadings (β coefficients) lower than the proposed cutoff point of 0.40 (Bernard, 1998). Specifically, SIN5, in the Thai sample, GMM6 and OPE4 in both the American and Thai samples and OPE5 showed low factor loadings (< 0.40) in the American sample. Furthermore, modification indices suggested the deletion of an additional three items because of cross-loading (ELU4, IDT8, and GMM5) in both samples and were removed from further analysis. Thus, a total of ten items were further removed from the original Cleveland and Laroche's (2007) AGCC scale and a second CFA was ran across samples for the revised 46-item 7-factor structure model of the AGCC scale (see Table 8).

The CFA results for the revised measurement model of the AGCC scale (with the ten items deleted) indicated a reasonable model fit for both the American sample (χ^2 = 2,692.08, df = 968, p < .001, RMSEA = 0.073, CFI = 0.96, NFI = 0.94, TLI = 0.96, and SRMR = 0.07) and the Thai sample (χ^2 = 2,575.89, df = 968, p < .001, RMSEA = 0.080, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90, TLI = 0.93, and SRMR = 0.08). Similar to previous scale purification scenarios, the chi-squared statistic for the revised 46-item, 7-factor

measurement model of the AGCC scale was significant at a level of .001. As stated previously, this measure has been shown to be overly sensitive to sample size (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). Thus, additional measures were also assessed. The CFI, NFI, and TLI values were greater than the cut-off criteria value of 0.90 for both groups. The SRMR value met or was below the criterion value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and the RMSEA values in both groups were below the 0.10 cut-off level suggested by Brown and Cudeck (1993). Hence, the model was considered to have acceptable fit for the American and Thai samples.

In addition, all standardized factor loadings were significant (p<.05) and exceeded the 0.40 cutoff value (Bernard, 1998). Internal consistency was assessed via composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2010). CR ranged from 0.85 (SIN dimension) to 0.97 (IDT dimension) for the American sample and from 0.75 (SIN dimension) to 0.91(EXM dimension) for the Thai sample, indicating acceptable reliability of scale. Average variance extracted (AVE) ranged from 0.72 (GMM dimension) to 0.83 (OPE dimension) for the American sample and from 0.62 (GMM dimension) to 0.84 (OPE dimension) for the Thai sample (see Table 8). Thus, it was concluded that the AGCC scale possesses acceptable reliability for both samples.

Table 8. CFA for Revised 46-item 7-factor Model of AGCC Scale: The United States versus Thailand

Items' Abbreviation	Items' description	Countries			
		USA (n=336)		Thailand (n=300)	
		Factor Loadings	(t-values)	Factor Loadings	(t-values)
Dimension 1: Cosmopolitanism (11 items)					
COS1	I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.	0.85	(19.30)	0.69	(13.28)
COS2	I like to learn about other ways of life.	0.88	(20.36)	0.70	(13.51)
COS3	I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their unique views and approaches.	0.89	(20.59)	0.75	(14.92)
COS4	I like to try restaurants that offer food that is different from that in my own culture.	0.57	(11.10)	0.65	(12.18)
COS5	I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.	0.89	(20.82)	0.73	(14.22)
COS6	I like to observe people of other cultures, to see what I can learn from them.	0.87	(19.94)	0.78	(15.67)
COS7	I find people from other countries stimulating.	0.84	(18.85)	0.68	(13.00)
COS8	I enjoy trying foreign foods.	0.55	(10.81)	0.66	(12.56)
COS9	When traveling, I like to immerse myself in the culture of the people I am visiting.	0.75	(15.96)	0.62	(11.48)
COS10	Coming into contact with people of other cultures has greatly benefited me.	0.83	(18.61)	0.70	(13.38)
COS11	When it comes to trying new things, I am very open.	0.59	(11.72)	0.60	(10.99)
	Composite Reliability	**0.95**		**0.91**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.77**		**0.69**	

Dimension #2: Exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (10 items)					
EXM1	When I am watching TV, I often see advertising for products that are from outside my country.	0.71	(14.76)	0.61	(11.19)
EXM2	Ads for foreign or global products are everywhere.	0.78	(16.84)	0.68	(12.97)
EXM3	In my city, there are many billboards and advertising for products that are from outside my country.	0.82	(18.23)	0.74	(14.44)
EXM4	It is quite common to see ads for foreign or global products in local media.	0.83	(18.44)	0.74	(14.61)
EXM5	When I read a newspaper, I come across many advertisements for foreign or global products.	0.81	(17.65)	0.76	(15.10)
EXM6	The magazines that I read are full of ads for foreign or global products.	0.74	(15.63)	0.75	(14.81)
EXM7	When I am watching TV, it seems that the number of advertisements for foreign brands is quite high, when compared to the number of advertisements for local brands.	0.78	(16.67)	0.68	(12.88)
EXM8	I often watch TV programming with advertisements from outside my country.	0.81	(17.59)	0.73	(14.37)
EXM9	When shopping, I am often exposed to foreign or global brands.	0.68	(13.79)	0.76	(15.13)
EXM10	Many of the TV commercial I see are placed by multinational companies.	0.59	(11.66)	0.71	(13.78)
	Composite Reliability	**0.94**		**0.91**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.78**		**0.72**	

	Dimension 3: Social interaction through travelling (3 items)				
SIN2	I prefer spending my vacations outside of the country that I live in.	0.82	(17.15)	0.67	(12.40)
SIN3	Visiting foreign countries is one of my favorite things.	0.90	(19.70)	0.89	(17.80)
SIN4	I often think about going to different countries and doing some traveling.	0.70	(13.86)	0.78	(14.99)
	Composite Reliability	**0.85**		**0.75**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.81**		**0.62**	
	Dimension 4: Exposure to global and foreign mass media (7 items)				
GMM1	I enjoy watching foreign films at the theatre.	0.78	(16.57)	0.66	(12.18)
GMM2	I enjoy watching movies that are in a foreign language.	0.82	(17.91)	0.68	(12.74)
GMM3	I enjoy listening to music that is popular in foreign countries.	0.81	(17.51)	0.78	(15.40)
GMM4	Some of my favorite actors/ actresses are from foreign films.	0.82	(17.98)	0.75	(14.33)
GMM7	I like to read magazines that contain information about popular foreign celebrities.	0.70	(14.46)	0.51	(8.91)
GMM8	I enjoy reading foreign magazines.	0.79	(17.08)	0.67	(12.36)
GMM9	I often watch foreign television programs.	0.77	(16.30)	0.64	(11.64)
	Composite Reliability	**0.91**		**0.84**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.72**		**0.62**	
	Dimension 5: Openness to and desire to participate in the global consumer culture (3 items)				
OPE1	I think people my age are basically the same around the world.	0.77	(16.05)	0.76	(14.67)
OPE2	I think my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my age-group in other countries.	0.93	(20.98)	0.89	(18.63)
OPE3	I think my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my social class in other countries.	0.80	(16.94)	0.88	(18.21)

	Composite Reliability	**0.87**		**0.88**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.83**		**0.84**	

Dimension 6: Self-identification with global consumer culture (7 items)

IDT1	The way that I dress is influenced by the advertising activities of foreign or global companies.	0.80	(17.31)	0.74	(14.54)
IDT2	I pay attention to the fashion worn by people in my age-group that live in other countries.	0.82	(18.11)	0.84	(17.53)
IDT3	Advertising by foreign or global brands has a strong influence on my clothing choices.	0.88	(20.28)	0.85	(17.92)
IDT4	I like reading magazines about fashion, décor, and trends in other countries.	0.74	(15.54)	0.66	(12.45)
IDT5	I try to pattern my lifestyle, way of dressing, etc. to be a global consumer.	0.82	(17.96)	0.80	(16.33)
IDT6	I prefer to wear clothing that I think is popular in many countries around the world rather than clothes traditionally worn in my own country.	0.84	(18.78)	0.84	(17.50)
IDT7	I actively seek to buy products that are not only thought of as 'local.'	0.64	(12.71)	0.62	(11.51)
	Composite Reliability	**0.97**		**0.91**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.79**		**0.76**	

Dimension 7: English usage and/or exposure (5items)

ELU1	I feel very comfortable speaking in English/ a foreign language.	0.89	(20.63)	0.80	(15.89)
ELU2	I often speak English/ a foreign language with family and friends.	0.94	(22.45)	0.87	(18.02)
ELU3	I speak English/ a second language regularly.	0.92	(21.71)	0.87	(17.99)
ELU6	Many of the textbooks and articles that I read are in English/ a foreign language.	0.55	(10.63)	0.40	(6.79)
ELU7	I prefer to watch English/ foreign language	0.55	(10.78)	0.45	(7.86)

television than any other language I speak

	USA	Thailand
Composite Reliability	**0.87**	**0.82**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.77**	**0.68**
Model Fit Indicator	**USA**	**Thailand**
χ^2	2,692.08***	2,575.89***
df	968	968
χ^2/df	2.78	2.66
RMSEA	0.073	0.080
CFI	0.96	0.94
NFI	0.94	0.90
TLI	0.96	0.93
SRMR	0.07	0.08

Note: * p < .05; *** p < .001

Brand Knowledge

Brand knowledge was conceptualized in this dissertation as being composed of brand awareness and brand image (Keller, 1993; 2004). As denoted in Chapter III, items utilized to assess brand awareness were comprised of four items adapted from Yoo and Donthu's (2001) study. Likewise, items utilized to assess brand image were comprised of four items adapted from Batra et al. (2000) and Wang et al. (2008). Thus, there were eight items used to capture brand knowledge. Table 9 displays scale items and descriptive statistics for brand knowledge for both samples (the United States and Thailand).

The American and the Thai Samples

The original eight-items of brand knowledge were constrained to be consistent with the two-factor structure of brand knowledge proposed by Keller (1993; 2004). A CFA was also conducted in order to assess the measurement model fit of the data across samples. For the American sample the initial results of CFA showed that standardized factor loadings ranged from 0.34 (BI4) to 0.92 (BI1) and were all significant at the $p<.01$ level. Furthermore, the χ^2 statistic resulting from the American two-factor structure model of brand knowledge was 300.21 with 19 degrees of freedom at $p < .001$. The normed chi-square (χ^2/df) was 15.80, a RMSEA was 0.21, a CFI was 0.88, a NFI was 0.87, a TLI was 0.82, and a SRMR was 0.10. In general, these fit indexes suggest a less than desirable overall model fit.

Similarly, the same analysis was executed for the Thai sample. According to CFA results, the original measurement model for the eight-item, two-factor structure of brand knowledge revealed an overall model fit (χ^2) of 422.47 with 19 degrees of freedom at $p <$

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.001, a normed chi-square (χ^2/df) of 22.24, RMSEA of 0.27, a CFI of 0.75, a NFI of 0.74, a TLI of 0.63, and a SRMR of 0.16. These fit indexes also suggested a less than desirable model fit for the Thai sample. In addition, the CFA results showed standardized factor loadings ranged from 0.19 (BI4) to 0.95 (BI2) and were all significant at the p<.01 level for the Thai data.

As recommended by Bearden et al. (1989), the original measurement model of the eight-items, two-factor structure of brand knowledge was purified following similar steps performed on the socialization agents and the AGCC scales. As a result, one item (BI4 from the brand image dimension) was removed because of a low standardized factor loading on the Thai sample. In addition, one item (BA3 on the brand awareness dimension) was removed due to cross-loading on both the brand awareness and brand image dimensions across both the American and Thai samples. Thus, a total of two items were removed from the original measurement model, resulting in a revised six-items, two factor structure model for brand knowledge.

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics and CFA Results for the Original 8-item 2-factor Model for Brand Knowledge: the United

States versus Thailand

Items' Abbreviation	Items' description	Countries			
		USA (n=336)		Thailand (n=300)	
		Means (S.D.)	Factor Loadings (*t-values*)	Means (S.D.)	Factor Loadings (*t-values*)
Dimension 1: Brand awareness (4 items)					
BA1	I can recognize this apparel brand among other competing brands.	5.89 (1.35)	0.74 (15.15)	4.31 (1.52)	0.60 (10.22)
BA2	I am aware of this apparel brand.	6.12 (1.21)	0.88 (19.60)	4.28 (1.52)	0.64 (11.10)
BA3	I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of this brand.	6.29 (1.38)	0.66 (13.16)	4.12 (1.63)	0.71 (12.69)
BA4	Some characteristics of this brand come to mind quickly.	6.02 (1.44)	0.69 (13.83)	3.81 (1.52)	0.74 (13.29)
	Composite Reliability	**0.83**		**0.77**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.74**		**0.67**	
Dimension 2: Brand image (4 items)					
BI1	This brand is very famous.	6.28 (1.14)	0.92 (21.44)	5.08 (1.47)	0.84 (16.82)
BI2	This brand has a very good/high image.	6.17 (1.20)	0.91 (21.16)	4.90 (1.39)	0.95 (19.96)
BI3	This brand really makes me look good in front of my friends.	4.67 (1.81)	0.44 (8.27)	4.06 (1.61)	0.57 (10.39)
BI4	This apparel brand helps me express my personality.	4.09 (1.90)	0.34 (6.19)	3.15 (1.42)	0.19 (3.18)
	Composite Reliability	**0.86**		**0.74**	
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.65**		**0.64**	

Model Fit Indicator	USA	Thailand
χ^2	300.21[***]	422.47[***]
df	19	19
χ^2/df	15.80	22.24
RMSEA	0.21	0.27
CFI	0.88	0.75
NFI	0.87	0.74
TLI	0.82	0.63
SRMR	0.10	0.16

Note: * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$

The revised 6-item, 2-factor model of brand knowledge was subsequently subjected to the same model purification suggested by Bearden and colleagues (1989). The CFA revealed that the revised model showed a much improved fit over the original measurement model in the American sample ($\chi^2 = 29.37$ df = 8, p < .001, RMSEA = 0.089, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0. 98, TLI = 0 .97, and SRMR = 0.033) (see Table 10). The normed chi-square (χ^2/df) was reduced from 15.80 to 3.67 in the revised 6-item 2-factor model. Furthermore, the CFI, NFI, and TLI indexes showed acceptable levels exceeding the minimum 0.90 cut-off point. In addition, the RMSEA was also below the minimum value of 0.10 (Brown & Cudeck, 1993). Finally, the SRMR was below the minimum cut-off value of 0.08 suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999) and was even below the more stringent 0.05 value suggested by Kline (1994). Thus, the revised 6-item 2-factor model was determined to provide a satisfactory fit for the American sample.

For the Thai sample, the CFA results revealed a "reasonable" fit for the revised 6-item, 2-factor model for brand knowledge ($\chi^2 = 99.84$, df = 8, p < .001, RMSEA = 0.19, CFI = 0.89, TLI = 0.80, and SRMR = 0.12) (see Table 10). The normed chi-square (χ^2/df) again showed a significant reduction from the original 8-item 2-dimension model at 22.24 to a reduced 12.48 in the revised 6-item, 2-dimension model. CFI and NFI were both documented at 0.89; marginallybelow the suggested 0.90 cut-off point (Kline, 1994). Furthermore, the SRMR revealed a value of 0.12 which was concluded as being 'marginally' acceptable range of values; slightly above the 0.08 cutoff value. Thus, it was conclude that the model was considered as a reasonable fit to the American and Thai data.

Table 10. CFA Results for Revised 6-item 2-factor Model of Brand Knowledge: The United States versus Thailand

Items' Abbreviation	Countries			
	USA (n=336)		Thailand (n=300)	
	Factor Loadings	(*t-values*)	Factor Loadings	(*t-values*)
Dimension 1: Brand Awareness				
BA1	0.73	(14.98)	0.77	(14.27)
BA2	0.90	(20.28)	0.87	(16.27)
BA4	0.63	(12.33)	0.51	(9.18)
Composite Reliability	**0.80**		**0.77**	
Average Variance Extracted	**0.75**		**0.72**	
Dimension 2: Brand Image				
BI1	0.92	(21.47)	0.83	(17.03)
BI2	0.92	(21.39)	0.98	(21.22)
BI3	0.43	(8.00)	0.55	(10.62)
Composite Reliability	**0.82**		**0.83**	
Average Variance Extracted	**0.76**		**0.79**	
Model Fit Indicator	**USA**		**Thailand**	
χ^2	29.37***		99.84***	
df	8		8	
χ^2/df	3.67		12.48	
RMSEA	0.089		0.19	
CFI	0.99		0.89	
NFI	0.98		0.89	
TLI	0.97		0.80	
SRMR	0.033		0.12	

Note: * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$

Attitudes Toward Global Brands (ATGB)

Attitudes toward global brands (ATGB) were assessed by measuring participants' responses to 5 semantic-scaled items. Table 11 displays scale items and descriptive statistics for the ATGB scale across both samples (the United States and Thailand). Participants were asked to select one apparel brands (i.e., Nike, Adidas, Reebok, New Balance, and Puma) in their opinion that best matched the global apparel brand definition put forth by Douglas and Craig (2012). Each of these five items was measured on a seven-point semantic differential scale (i.e., good/bad, positive/negative, pleasant/unpleasant, favorable/unfavorable, and reliable/unreliable).

The American and the Thai Samples

The original five items of ATGB were constrained to be consistent with the one-factor structure of attitudes toward global brand (see Table 11). The initial CFA results revealed standardized factor loadings ranged from 0.82 (ATGB5) to 0.95 (ATGB2) for the American sample. Furthermore, the chi-square value was 23.27 with 5 degrees of freedom and significant at p <.001. The normed chi-square (χ^2/df) was calculated at 4.65, a CFI was 0.99, a NFI of 0.99, a TLI of 0.98 and a SRMR of 0.012. Thus, based on these various indexes, it was concluded that the original five-item one-factor measurement model was a satisfactory fit for the American sample.

A parallel analysis was also conducted for the Thai sample. The CFA results revealed standardized factor loadings ranged from 0.60 (ATGB5) to 0.92 (ATGB1) and were all significant at the p < .001 level. Furthermore, results revealed that the model demonstrated a good fit to the data (χ^2 = 35.15 df = 5, p < .001, RMSEA = 0.142, CFI =

0.97, NFI = 0.97, TLI = 0.95, and SRMR = 0.033). The chi-square value was 35.15 with

5 degrees of freedom with a normed chi-square value of 7.03. In addition the CFI, NFI,

and TLI all exceeded the 0.90 cutoff value suggested by Hair et al. (2010). Finally, the

SRMR value was lower than the 0.08 cutoff value suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999).

Thus, based on these multiple indices, it was concluded that the measurement model fit

the Thai date reasonably well.

Following the procedure proposed by Bearden et al. (1989), the original five-item

one-factor measurement model of ATGB was purified. Items with factor loadings less

than 0.40 were removed and items with excessive cross-loadings on one or more

dimension were removed. As a result, one item (i.e., ATGB4) was removed due to cross-

loading on both American and Thai sample. Thus, a revised four-item measurement

model was reassessed by a subsequent CFA.

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics and CFA Results for the Original 5-item 1-factor Model for Attitudes toward Global Brands:

The United States versus Thailand

Items' Abbreviation	Items' description	Countries			
		USA (n=336)		Thailand (n=300)	
		Means (S.D.)	Factor Loadings (t-value)	Means (S.D.)	Factor Loadings (t-value)
Overall my attitudes toward this global apparel brand are (5-iyems)					
ATGB1	Bad/ Good	6.35 (1.06)	0.87 (19.88)	5.67 (1.05)	0.91 (19.83)
ATGB2	Negative/ Positive	6.34 (1.03)	0.95 (23.29)	5.64 (1.02)	0.89 (19.13)
ATGB3	Unpleasant/ Pleasant	6.34 (1.06)	0.93 (22.60)	5.63 (0.97)	0.81 (16.68)
ATGB4	Unfavorable/ Favorable	6.34 (1.09)	0.94 (22.82)	5.83 (0.96)	0.73 (14.36)
ATGB5	Unreliable/ Reliable	6.36 (1.01)	0.82 (18.16)	5.77 (1.22)	0.60 (10.97)
	Composite Reliability		**0.97**		**0.89**
	Average Variance Extracted		**0.90**		**0.79**

Model Fit Indicator	USA	Thailand
χ^2	23.27***	35.15***
df	5	5
χ^2/df	4.65	7.03
RMSEA	0.105	0.142
CFI	0.99	0.97
NFI	0.99	0.97
TLI	0.98	0.95
SRMR	0.012	0.033

Note: * p < .05; *** p < .001

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The CFA results for the revised 4-item 1-factor measurement model of attitudes toward global brands (ATGB) indicated a very good fit to both the American ($\chi^2 = 7.53$ df = 2, p-value = 0.02, RMSEA = 0.091, CFI = 1.00, NFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.99, and SRMR = 0.010) and to the Thai sample ($\chi^2 = 2.47$, df = 2, p-value = 0.29, RMSEA = 0.028, CFI = 1.00, NFI = 1.00, TLI = 1.00, and SRMR = .013). The chi-square statistic for the American sample was significant with a p-value of .02. However, CFI showed a value of 1.00 and a NFI and a TLI resulted in values of 0.99; all values indicating a very good model fit with the American sample. Thai model fit showed a chi-square value of 2.47 with 2 degrees of freedom, which was non-significant, indicating that the model fit the data very well (p > 0.05). Furthermore, the CFI, NFI, and TLI all showed a value of 1.00 indicating very good fit. The SRMR was also below the maximum 0.08 cutoff point thus indicating overall that the model fit the sample date very well across both young consumer groups (see Table 12).

Table 12. CFA Results for the Revised 4-item 1-factor Model of Attitudes Toward Global Brands: the United States versus

Thailand

Items' Abbreviation	Items' description	Countries				
		USA (n=336)		Thailand (n=300)		
		Factor Loadings	(t-value)	Factor Loadings	(t-value)	
Overall my attitudes toward this global apparel brand are (4-items)						
ATGB1	Bad/ Good	0.88	(20.26)	0.91	(19.64)	
ATGB2	Negative/ Positive	0.96	(23.54)	0.91	(19.64)	
ATGB3	Unpleasant/ Pleasant	0.92	(21.93)	0.79	(15.98)	
ATGB5	Unreliable/ Reliable	0.81	(17.78)	0.58	(10.64)	
	Composite Reliability	**0.94**		**0.88**		
	Average Variance Extracted	**0.89**		**0.80**		
	Model Fit Indicator	**USA**		**Thailand**		
χ^2		7.53		2.47		
df		2		2		
χ^2/df		3.77		1.24		
RMSEA		0.091		0.028		
CFI		1.00		1.00		
NFI		0.99		1.00		
TLI		0.99		1.00		
SRMR		0.010		0.013		

Note: * p < .05; *** p < .001

Brand Resonance

Table 13 shows scale items and descriptive statistics for brand resonance for both samples (U.S. and Thai). The original brand resonance scale proposed by Wang et al. (2008) was assessed utilizing six-items, one-factor structure model (see Table 13).

The American and Thai Samples

An initial CFA results revealed that standardized factor loadings for the American data ranged from 0.71(BR1) to 0.87 (BR2) and ranged from 0.66 (BR6) to 0.87 (BR2) for the Thai data, and all were statistically significant at $p < 0.001$ level. Results indicated a good fit to both the American ($\chi^2 = 84.97$ df $= 9$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA $= 0.16$, CFI $= 0.96$, NFI $= 0.96$, TLI $= 0.94$, and SRMR $= 0.041$) and to the Thai data ($\chi^2 = 72.44$ df $= 9$, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA $= 0.15$, CFI $= 0.95$, NFI $= 0.94$, TLI $= .91$, and SRMR $= 0.053$). Similar to other scales' results, the χ^2 statistic for the original 6-item 1-factor model of brand resonance revealed a significant value. However, researchers have noted that the χ^2 statistic may be overly sensitive to sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Thus, additional fit indices were assessed. The CFI, NFI, and TLI values were each greater than the cut-off criterion value of 0.90 as recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). In addition, the SRMR value met the recommended criterion value of 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999) across both the American and Thai samples. Hence, the models were considered as a good fit to the American and Thai data.

Furthermore, construct reliability (CR) employed to assess internal consistency, exceeded the minimum value of 0.70 (0.91 for U.S. and 0.87 for Thai) (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, the average variance extracted (AVE) also exceeded suggested cut-off

value of 0.50 for both samples (0.79 U.S. and 0.73 Thai). Thus, these indexes suggested a satisfactory model fit for both the American and Thai data. Based on the various model fit indexes (i.e., CFI, NFI, TLI, SRMR) all six items from the originally proposed measurement model were retained for further analysis.

We have denoted the individual CFA for each of the major latent constructs utilized in the proposed theoretical measurement mode, we then proceeded to examine measurement invariance across samples. Measurement invariance is concerned with the extent to which parameters comprising the measurement portion of a structural equation model (SEM) are similar across groups (Bryne, 2008). For the purpose of the dissertation, we are concerned at examining the structural equivalence or the equality of relations among factors across young American and Thai consumers. In order to establish measurement equivalence, a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) was performed to ensure that each major latent construct was invariant across the American and Thai samples.

Table 13. Descriptive Statistics and CFA Results for the Original 6-item 1-factor Model for Brand Resonance: the United States versus Thailand

Items' Abbreviations	Items' description	USA (n=336) Means (S.D.)	USA (n=336) Factor Loadings (t-value)	Thailand (n=300) Means (S.D.)	Thailand (n=300) Factor Loadings (t-value)
			Countries		
Brand Resonance (6 items)					
BR1	I prefer to buy this apparel brand over alternative local choice.	4.77 (1.72)	0.71 (14.53)	3.58 (1.63)	0.69 (12.95)
BR2	I consider myself to be loyal to this apparel brand.	4.17 (1.98)	0.87 (19.57)	2.74 (1.48)	0.87 (18.00)
BR3	I am willing to recommend this apparel brand to my friends.	5.36 (1.62)	0.78 (16.70)	3.10 (1.47)	0.77 (15.07)
BR4	I am used to this apparel brand.	5.30 (1.69)	0.81 (17.73)	3.29 (1.60)	0.70 (13.31)
BR5	This apparel brand would be my first choice.	4.86 (1.84)	0.85 (19.09)	3.18 (1.66)	0.67 (12.56)
BR6	I will not buy other brands if this apparel brand is available at the store.	3.68 (2.04)	0.73 (15.25)	2.78 (1.55)	0.66 (12.32)
Composite Reliability		**0.91**		**0.87**	
Average Variance Extracted		**0.79**		**0.73**	

Model Fit Indicator	USA	Thailand
χ^2	84.97***	72.44***
df	9	9
RMSEA	0.16	0.15
CFI	0.96	0.95
NFI	0.96	0.94
TLI	0.94	0.91
SRMR	0.041	0.053

Measurement Invariance Assessment

Several researchers have suggested that it is important to establish measurement invariance before examining any cross-cultural comparisons (Cheung & Rensvold, 2000; Mullen, 1995; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Measurement equivalence represents "whether or not, under different conditions of observing and studying phenomena, measurement operations yield measures of the same attributes" (Horn & McArdle, 1992, p. 117). If there is no evidence of measurement equivalence, conclusions drawn on cross-cultural differences related to materialism can be ambiguous and erroneous (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Mullen (1995) suggests that measurement invariance should be diagnosed via multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) of LISREL 8.8. This approach has been viewed as superior over the traditional MANOVA and univariate ANOVA approaches that depend on raw factor means comparison because it accounts for systematic response bias and random measurement errors (Wang & Waller, 2006).

Measurement invariance can be assessed through different stages following Steenkamp and Baumgartner's (1998) suggestion (i.e., configural invariance and metric invariance). Configural invariance addresses whether the forms of the model are the same across groups. In other words, the number of latent constructs is the same for two samples and the same variable loaded on each latent construct. This stage serves as the most unrestrictive model from which to assess invariance of measurement models across groups and must be established before any comparative inferences can be drawn in interpretations of cross-cultural research (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). In addition,

this baseline model serves as the benchmark for which to assess more restrictive models, i.e., metric invariance.

Metric invariance examines whether participants in the different groups responded to the items of measure in the same manner. That is, metric invariance is established when the factor loadings for the observed indicators for the latent constructs are equivalent between groups (Hair et al., 2010). Analogous to beta coefficients in regression analysis, the factor loadings show how changes in observed scores are related to corresponding changes in scores of the underlying construct. The metric invariance model is then compared to the baseline, configural invariance model via a χ^2 difference test. If there is a significant change in the χ^2, then the metric invariance assumption is not met. Additional analysis is further performed to determine which indicators may be relaxed in order to proceed to under partial metric invariance assumptions (Hair et al., 2010).

It has been argued that while the multiple-step systematic approach of invariance testing serves as a well-defined and appropriate theoretical approach to justifying cross-cultural measurement models, the application of these strict definitions become problematic (Hair et al., 2010; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Thus, partial invariance has been suggested as a means with which to assess measurement models where at least two invariant indicators must be established. Byrne, Shavelson, and Muthén (1989) propose the concept of partial measurement invariance as another avenue for cross-cultural comparisons. In practice, partial metric invariance can be established when at least the factor loading of one item besides the fixed item (item-loading

identification) holds as invariant (Kline, 2005; Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 1998). Thus, for the current dissertation, partial metric invariance needs to be at least established for each latent construct being investigated in the study before testing hypotheses.

The following section addresses the investigation of measurement invariance for each construct (i.e., socialization agents, acculturation to global consumer culture, brand knowledge, attitudes towards global brands, and brand resonance).

Socialization Agents

The revised 19-item 3-factor model of socialization agents was subjected to a multi-group analysis via LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). The first level of analysis, configural invariance was first examined to determine whether this 19-item 3-factor model of socialization agents is applied across samples. This model is totally noninvariant and serves as a baseline for comparison of more restricted constrained tests of invariance. As reported in Table 14, the results revealed that, despite the significant chi-square, the two-group model with free factor loadings provided a reasonable fit to the data: $\chi^2 = 1,076.36$, df = 298, p < .001, $\chi^2/df = 3.61$, RMSEA = 0.091, CFI = 0.96, and TLI = 0.96, indicating that these two groups had the same factor structure and all factor loadings to their respective latent constructs were significant. Thus, it is concluded that this 19-item, 3-factor structure of socialization agents was configurally invariant across samples.

The full metric invariance model was then examined by constraining all factor loadings to be invariant between the American and Thai samples. Table 14 revealed that the two-group model also provided a reasonable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 1,115.27$, df =314,

$\chi^2/df = 3.55$, p-value $< .001$, RMSEA $= 0.090$, CFI $= 0.96$, and TLI $= 0.96$). However, when comparing the difference in χ^2 statistics between the configural invariance model and the full metric invariance model, results showed that the increase in χ^2 of the full metric invariance model over the configural invariance model was significant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 38.91$, $\Delta df = 16$, $p < .001$), indicating that the full metric invariance was not established. That is, all factor loadings are not invariant across samples.

As discussed previously, researchers argue that although desirable, full metric invariance is difficult to achieve in practical applications (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Thus, researchers have suggested a partial metric invariance (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2005; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Data were then further analyzed to determine the variant item(s). Results revealed that in assessing a partial metric invariance model, factor loadings of two items (MED3 and PER6) were "freed up," (i.e., allowing these two items to vary across samples), while factor loadings of the remaining seventeen items remained invariant across groups, resulting in a $\chi^2 = 1,095.42$, df $= 312$, $\chi^2/df = 3.51$, p-value $< .001$, RMSEA $= 0.089$, CFI $= 0.96$, and TLI $= 0.96$ (see Table 14). When comparing the difference in χ^2 statistics between the configural invariance model and the partial metric invariance model, results showed that the increase in χ^2 of the partial metric invariance model over the configural invariance model was insignificant ($\Delta \chi^2 = 19.06$, $\Delta df = 14$, $p > .05$). It is concluded that the partial metric invariance was established.

Table 14. Assessment of Measurement Invariance: Socialization Agents

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p-value
Configural Invariance	1076.36	298	0.091	0.96	0.96	-	-	-
Full Metric Invariance	1115.27	314	0.090	0.96	0.96	38.91	16	<.00
Partial Metric Invariance	1095.42	312	0.089	0.96	0.96	19.06	14	=.16

Acculturation to Global Consumer Culture (AGCC)

The revised 46-item 7-factor model of acculturation to a global consumer culture (AGCC) was also subjected to a MGCFA using via LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996). A configural invariance model was first performed to determine whether the factor structure of AGCC is invariant across samples. As reported in Table 15, the configural invariance model results indicated a reasonable fit ($\chi^2 = 3{,}014.60$, df $=1{,}012$, $\chi^2/\text{df} = 2.98$, p-value $< .001$, RMSEA $= 0.079$, CFI $= 0.95$, and TLI $= .95$). Therefore, it can be said that configural invariance assumption holds for both samples for the revised 46-item 7-factor structure of AGCC. Next, the more restricted, full metric invariance analysis was executed, resulting in a reasonable fit to the data as well ($\chi^2 = 3{,}125.43$, df $=1{,}047$, $\chi^2/\text{df} = 2.99$, p-value $< .001$, RMSEA $= 0.080$, CFI $= 0.93$, and TLI $= 0.94$). However, when comparing the difference in χ^2 statistic between the configural and the full metric model, results showed that the increase in χ^2 of the full metric invariance model over the configural model was significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 110.83$, Δdf $= 39$, p $< .001$).

As discussed, since full metric invariance was not established, data was further assessed to determine whether partial metric invariance could be established.

Results revealed that in assessing a partial metric invariance model, factor loadings of

eight items (i.e., COS4, COS8, COS10, COS11, EXM2, EXM3, EXM4, and SIN4) must

be "freed up," while the factor loadings of the remaining 38 items remained invariant

across samples. The results of partial metric invariance showed a satisfactory fit ($\chi^2 =$

3059.63, df = 1039, p < .001 χ^2/df = 2.94, RMSEA = 0.078, CFI = 0.95, and TLI = 0.95)

(see Table 15). When comparing the difference in χ^2 statistic between the configural

invariance model and the partial metric model, results indicate that the increase in χ^2 of

the partial metric model over the configure invariance model was not significant ($\Delta\chi^2 =$

44.4, Δdf = 27, p > 0.05). Thus, a partial metric invariance was established for the

acculturation to a global consumer culture (AGCC) scale.

Table 15. Assessment of Measurement Invariance: AGCC

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p-value
Configural Invariance	3014.60	1012	0.079	0.95	0.95	-	-	-
Full Metric Invariance	3125.43	1047	0.080	0.93	0.94	110.83	35	<0.001
Partial Metric Invariance	3059.63	1039	0.078	0.95	0.95	44.4	27	= 0.11

Brand Knowledge

Following similar procedure of the measurement invariance test on socialization

agents and AGCC, the revised 6-item 2-factor model of brand knowledge was also

subjected to MGCFA. Results of the configural invariance test revealed a reasonable

model fit (χ^2 = 146.48, df =16, p-value < .001, RMSEA = 0.15, CFI = 0.95, and TLI =

0.90) (see Table 16). Thus, it is concluded that the revised 6-item 2-factor model of brand knowledge was configurally invariant across samples. We then proceeded to the more restricted model, full metric invariance. Results of full metric invariance test showed that the two-group model also provided a reasonable fit ($\chi^2 = 154.65$, df =20, p-value < .001, RMSEA = 0.13, CFI = 0.95, and TLI = 0.92) (see Table 17). Furthermore, when comparing the difference in χ^2 statistic between the configural model and the full metric invariance model, results showed that the increase in χ^2 was non-significant. Therefore, it is concluded that the full metric invariance for the revised 6-item 2-factor model of brand awareness exists across both the American and Thai samples.

Table 16. Assessment of Measurement Invariance: Brand Knowledge

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	$\Delta \chi^2$	Δdf	p-value
Configural Invariance	146.48	16	0.15	0.95	0.90	-	-	-
Full Metric Invariance	154.65	20	0.13	0.95	0.92	8.17	4	0.09

Attitudes Toward Global Brands (ATGB)

The revised 4-item 1-factor measurement model of attitudes toward global brands (ATGB) was also subjected to MGCFA. The configural model was first examined and revealed a reasonable fit ($\chi^2 = 48.02$, df =6, p-value < .001, χ^2/df = 8.00, RMSEA = 0.15, CFI = 0.98, and TLI = 0.96), indicating that the American and the Thai samples had the same factor structure. Thus, it was concluded that the 4-item 1-factor structure model for ATGB was configurally invariant across samples.

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Subsequently, the full metric invariance test was performed to ascertain whether factor loadings across samples were invariant. The results revealed that the full metric invariance model also showed reasonable fit to the data (χ^2 = 75.56, df =10, p-value < .001, χ^2/df = 7.56, RMSEA = 0.16, CFI = 0.96, and TLI = 0.95) (see Table 17). However, when comparing the difference in the χ^2 statistic between the configural invariance model and the full metric invariance model, the results showed significant difference between these two models ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 27.54, Δdf = 4, p-value <.001). Further data analysis was carried out for a partial metric measurement test. Results showed that by allowing one item (i.e., ATGB3) to be freed up, a partial metric model was established ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 5.89, Δdf = 3, p-value > 0.05) (see Table 17). Thus, it is concluded that the partial metric invariance has been achieved across both the U.S. and Thai samples.

Table 17. Assessment of Measurement Invariance: ATGB

Model	χ^2	Df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p-value
Configural Invariance	48.02	6	0.15	0.98	0.96	-	-	-
Full Metric Invariance	75.56	10	0.16	0.96	0.95	27.54	4	<0.001
Partial Metric Invaiance	53.91	9	0.13	0.98	0.96	5.89	3	= 0.11

Brand Resonance

The original 6-item 1-factor model of brand resonance was also subjected to a MGCFA. The first level, configural invariance, was carried out and results of model fit indexes suggested a reasonable fit (χ^2 = 157.31, df =18, χ^2/df =8.74 p-value < .001,

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RMSEA = .016, CFI = 0.96, and TLI = 0.93). Since configural invariance was established, a full metric invariance tests was subsequently conducted. Results of the full metric invariance also revealed a reasonable model fit (χ^2 = 170.38, df =23, χ^2/df = 7.41, p-value < .001, RMSEA = 0.016, CFI = 0.95, and TLI = 0.94). However, when comparing the change in the χ^2 statistic from configural invariant model and the full metric invariant model, a significant change in the χ^2 statistic was detected, ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 13.07, Δdf = 5, p-value <.00). Thus, full metric invariance was not established (See Table 19).

As discussed previously, a partial metric measurement model was further investigated. By allowing one item (i.e., BR3) to vary across samples, results revealed a satisfactory fit to the data for the partial metric invariance (χ^2 = 165.39, df =22, χ^2/df = 7.52, p-value < .001, RMSEA = 0.014, CFI = 0.96, and TLI = 0.94). Furthermore, when comparing the change in the χ^2 statistic between the configural invariance model and the partial metric invariance model, results revealed an insignificant change in χ^2 statistic value ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 8.08, Δdf = 4, p-value >.05) (see Table 18). Thus, the partial metric invariance was established for the 6-item 1-factor model of brand resonance.

Table 18. Assessment of Measurement Invariance: Brand Resonance

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p-value
Configural Invariance	157.31	18	0.16	0.96	0.93	-	-	-
Full Metric Invariance	170.38	23	0.14	0.95	0.94	13.07	5	0.02
Partial Metric Invariance	165.39	22	0.14	0.96	0.94	8.08	4	0.09

With evidence of measurement invariance for all constructs investigated in the study, we provide the following information related to reliability for each latent construct. Furthermore, only invariant items were included for each latent construct for the subsequent analysis (i.e., measurement and structural models) (see Table 19).

Table 19. Summary of Latent Constructs with Cronbach Alpha

Construct	Items Retained	No. Items	Alpha USA (n=336)	Thailand (n=300)
Socialization Agents				
PAR	PAR1, PAR2, PAR3, PAR7, PAR8	5	0.911	0.862
PER	PER1, PER2, PER3, PER4, PER5, PER7, PER8, PER10	8	0.856	0.902
MED	MED1, MED2, MED4, MED5	4	0.851	0.846
Acculturation to Global Consumer Culture				
COS	COS1, COS2, COS3, COS5, COS6, COS7, COS9	7	0.948	0.875
EXM	EXM1, EXM5, EXM6	3	0.800	0.758
SIN	SIN2, SIN3	2	0.853	0.749
GMM	GMM1, GMM2, GMM3, GMM4, GMM7, GMM8, GMM9	7	0.917	0.850
OPE	OPE1, OPE2, OPE3	3	0.873	0.879
IDT	IDT1, IDT2, IDT3, IDT4, IDT5, IDT6, IDT7	7	0.919	0.906
ELU	ELU1, ELU2, ELU3, ELU6, ELU7	5	0.886	0.819
Brand Knowledge				
BA	BA1, BA2, BA4	3	0.799	0.809
BI	BI2, BI3, BI4	3	0.720	0.795
Attitudes toward Global Brands				
ATGB	ATGB1, ATGB2, ATGB5	3	0.939	0.863
Brand Resonance				
BR	BR1, BR2, BR4, BR5, BR6	5	0.896	0.847

Note: PAR= Parent's Influence; PER=Peer's Influence; MED=Media's Influence; COS=Cosmopolitan; EXM=Exposure to Marketing Activities of Multinational Corporations; SIN=Social Interaction; GMM= Exposure to Global Mass Media; OPE=Openness to Emulate Global Consumer Culture; IDT=Self-identification with Global Consumer Culture; ELU=Exposure and Usage of English/Foreign Language; BA=Brand Awareness; BI=Brand Image; ATGB=Attitude toward Global Brands; BR=Brand Resonance

Measurement and Structural Models

Measurement Model

The two-step approach procedure suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1998) was followed to establish measurement and structural models for each sample (the U.S. and Thailand). The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to estimate a measurement model using maximum likelihood estimation in LISREL 8.8 in the analysis and the sample covariance matrix as input prior to incorporating the structural restrictions (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). All observed variables employed to capture each latent construct were identical across samples.

For the American sample, the CFA model consisted of fourteen 65-item constructs. CFA results revealed that the chi-square statistic was statistically significant, $\chi^2 = 4,195.10$, df =1,849, p -value < .001, suggesting a lack of satisfactory model fit. However, researchers have noted that the chi-square statistic may be somewhat overly sensitive to sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1999) and to model complexity (Bollen, 1989). Thus, additional indexes were employed to assess the model fit, i.e., χ^2/df, RMSEA, CFI, NFI, TLI, and SRMR. Table 20 showed that each index displayed an acceptable level of model fit, (i.e., χ^2/df = 2.27, RMSEA = 0.062, CFI = 0.95, NFI = 0.91, TLI = .94, and

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SRMR = .088). Therefore, it is concluded that the CFA model fit the American data

reasonably well using latter fit indexes.

Related to the Thai sample, the CFA model also consisted of fourteen 65-item

constructs. According to the CFA results, the chi-square was statistically significant, $\chi^2 =$

4,232.38, df =1,849, p -value < .001, suggesting a lack of satisfactory model fit.

However, other fit indexes displayed an acceptable level of model fit, i.e., $\chi2/df = 2.29$,

RMSEA = 0.068, CFI = 0.92, NFI = 0.90, TLI = .92, and SRMR = .085 (see Table 21).

Therefore, it is also concluded that the CFA model fit the Thai data reasonably well using

latter fit indexes.

Table 20. Measurement Model: the United States versus Thailand

Construct/ Indicators	Countries	
	USA	Thailand
	Factor Loading (t-value)	Factor Loading (t-value)
Parent Influence ξ_1 (5 items)		
X_1: (I always purchase the same products and brands that my parents purchase.)[a]	0.69 (12.31)	0.71 (12.66)
X_2 (My parents come with me when I purchase apparel.)	0.75 (12.09)	0.78 (12.52)
X_3(What, where and which brands I buy are very much influenced by my parents.)	0.77 (12.44)	0.82 (12.86)
X_4(When I do not understand prices and quality, I ask my parents.)	0.68 (11.20)	0.70 (11.22)
X_5 (I often discuss my purchase plans with my parents.)	0.78 (12.51)	0.72 (11.42)
Composite Reliability	**0.86**	**0.85**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.74**	**0.75**
Peer Influence ξ_2 (8 items)		
X_6 (I rarely purchase the latest products until I am sure my friends approve of them.)	0.66 11.45	0.51 5.60

X_7 (It is important that my friends approve of the stores I shop at.)	0.82 13.18	0.72 8.91
X_8 (I am very loyal to stores where my friends shop.)	0.77 12.51	0.83 9.50
X_9 (If I want to be like my friends, I always buy the brands they buy.)	0.80 12.86	0.82 9.43
X_{10} (I work long hours and save to afford the things my friends buy.)	0.71 11.70	0.83 9.47
X_{11} (My friends very much influence my choices in shopping.)	0.80 12.86	0.78 9.23
X_{12} (I regularly ask my friends about the latest fashions.)	0.68 11.21	0.72 8.78
X_{13} (To make sure I buy the right product, I often watch what my friends buy.)	0.76 12.37	0.62 8.04
Composite Reliability	**0.94**	**0.91**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.79**	**0.77**

Media Influence ξ_3 (4 items)

X_{14} (I buy only those products and brands that are advertised on TV, Radio, Print, or the Internet.)[a]	0.63 11.98	0.59 10.98
X_{15} (Advertisements determine what brands I will buy.)	0.57 9.37	0.65 12.71
X_{16} (I always consider the media when deciding the best products/ brands to buy.)	0.60 9.67	0.60 12.64
X_{17} (I always look for ads before I buy something.)	0.61 9.83	0.57 11.99
Composite Reliability	**0.87**	**0.82**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.77**	**0.75**

Cosmopolitanism (COS) η_1 (7 items)

Y_1 (I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.) [a]	0.87 20.99	0.72 11.58
Y_2 (I like to learn about other ways of life.)	0.90 23.35	0.72 11.41
Y_3 (I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their unique views and approaches.)	0.89 22.96	0.76 12.15
Y_4 (I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.)	0.89 22.78	0.74 12.08
Y_5 (I like to observe people of other cultures, to see what I can learn from them.)	0.87 22.12	0.80 13.12
Y_6 (I find people from other countries	0.82	0.68

stimulating.)	19.82	10.93
Y$_7$ (When traveling, I like to immerse myself in	0.72	0.56
the culture of the people I am visiting.)	16.01	8.92
Composite Reliability	**0.92**	**0.91**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.76**	**0.68**

Exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (EXM) η_2 (3 items)

Y$_8$ (When I am watching TV, I often see	0.65	0.56
advertising for products that are from outside my	10.66	6.56
country.)[a]		
Y$_9$ (When I read a newspaper, I come across	0.85	0.80
many advertisements for foreign or global	11.29	8.66
products.)		
Y$_{10}$ (The magazines that I read are full of ads for	0.78	0.84
foreign or global products.)	11.04	8.28
Composite Reliability	**0.93**	**0.91**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.77**	**0.70**

Social interaction through travelling (SIN) η_3 (2 items)

Y$_{11}$ (I prefer spending my vacations outside of	0.48	0.78
the country that I live in.) [a]	8.56	10.02
Y$_{12}$ (Visiting foreign countries is one of my	0.52	0.77
favorite things.)	10.46	9.30
Composite Reliability	**0.80**	**0.71**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.75**	**0.52**

Exposure to global and foreign mass media (GMM) η_4 (7 items)

Y$_{13}$ (I enjoy watching foreign films at the	0.68	0.75
theatre.) [a]	11.32	9.34
Y$_{14}$ (I enjoy watching movies that are in a	0.72	0.55
foreign language.)	11.56	8.43
Y$_{15}$ (I enjoy listening to music that is popular in	0.77	0.67
foreign countries.)	13.70	8.68
Y$_{16}$ (Some of my favorite actors/actresses are	0.80	0.70
from foreign films.)	14.15	7.90
Y$_{17}$ (I like to read magazines that contain	0.77	0.60
information about popular foreign celebrities.)	13.76	9.13
Y$_{18}$ (I enjoy reading foreign magazines.)	0.84	0.77
	14.98	8.82
Y$_{19}$ (I often watch foreign television programs.)	0.76	0.72
	13.52	14.72
Composite Reliability	**0.93**	**0.86**

Average Variance Extracted	**0.71**	**0.61**

Openness to and desire to participate in the global consumer culture (OPE) η_5 (3 items)		
Y_{20} (I think people my age are basically the same around the world.)[a]	0.77 13.87	0.76 14.56
Y_{21} (I think that my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my age-group in other countries.)	0.93 16.95	0.89 15.55
Y_{22} (I think my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my social class in other countries.)	0.81 15.48	0.87 15.31
Composite Reliability	**0.78**	**0.83**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.63**	**0.68**

Self-identification with global consumer culture (IDT) η_6 (7 items)		
Y_{23} (The way that I dress is influenced by the advertising activities of foreign or global companies.)[a]	0.79 16.32	0.74 12.11
Y_{24} (I pay attention to the fashion worn by people in my age-group that live in other countries.)	0.82 16.98	0.84 14.65
Y_{25} (Advertising by foreign or global brands has a strong influence on my clothing choices.)	0.88 14.66	0.85 14.82
Y_{26} (I like reading magazines about fashion, décor, and trends in other countries.)	0.74 14.91	0.66 11.31
Y_{27} (I try to pattern my lifestyle, way of dressing, etc. to be a global consumer.)	0.82 15.32	0.81 14.04
Y_{28} (I prefer to wear clothing that I think is popular in many countries around the world rather than clothes traditionally worn in my own country.)	0.84 17.56	0.83 14.54
Y_{29} (I actively seek to buy products that are not only thought of as 'local.')	0.64 12.39	0.63 10.74
Composite Reliability	**0.91**	**0.91**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.77**	**0.75**

English usage and/or exposure (ELU) η_7 (5 items)		
Y_{30} (I feel very comfortable speaking in a foreign language.)[a]	0.89 24.11	0.79 15.01
Y_{31} (I often speak a foreign language with family and friends.)	0.94 26.77	0.87 16.17

Y_{32} (I speak a second language regularly.)	0.92	0.87
	15.66	16.18
Y_{33} (Many of the textbooks and articles that I read are in a foreign language.)	0.55	0.41
	11.01	6.64
Y_{34} (I prefer to watch foreign language television than any other language I may speak.)	0.56	0.45
	11.18	7.71
Composite Reliability	**0.90**	**0.80**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.74**	**0.58**

Brand Awareness (BA) η_8 (3 items)

Y_{35} (I can recognize this apparel brand among other competing brands.)[a]	0.74	0.76
	5.09	6.56
Y_{36} (I am aware of this apparel brand.)	0.90	0.73
	7.60	6.16
Y_{37} (Some characteristics of this brand come to mind quickly.)	0.60	0.93
	9.34	8.75
Composite Reliability	**0.90**	**0.80**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.74**	**0.58**

Brand Image (BI) η_9 (3 items)

Y_{38} (This brand is very famous.)[a]	0.92	0.87
	23.69	12.90
Y_{39} (This brand has a very good/high image.)	0.92	0.93
	24.06	13.19
Y_{40} (This brand really makes me look good in front of my friends.)	0.43	0.76
	19.22	11.43
Composite Reliability	**0.80**	**0.76**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.75**	**0.72**

Attitudes toward Global Brand (ATGB) η_{10} (3 items)

Y_{41} (Bad/Good)[a]	0.88	0.74
	14.70	16.89
Y_{42} (Negative/Positive)	0.95	0.93
	15.67	16.58
Y_{43} (Unreliable/Reliable)	0.81	0.73
	8.12	10.42
Composite Reliability	**0.94**	**0.88**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.89**	**0.80**

Brand Resonance (BR) η_{11} (5 items)

Y_{44} (I prefer to buy this apparel brand over alternative local choice.)[a]	0.73	0.72
	13.31	11.11
Y_{45} (I consider myself to be loyal to this apparel	0.88	0.81

brand.)	15.48	12.42
Y_{46} (I am used to this apparel brand.)	0.78	0.69
	13.78	10.78
Y_{47} (This apparel brand would be my first	0.85	0.73
choice.)	14.99	11.41
Y_{48} (I will not buy other brands if this apparel	0.76	0.69
brand is available at the store.)	13.34	10.75
Composite Reliability	**0.90**	**0.85**
Average Variance Extracted	**0.76**	**0.75**
Model Fit Indicators		
χ^2	4,195.10	4,232.38
df	1,849	1,849
χ^2/df	2.27	2.29
RMSEA	0.062	0.068
CFI	0.95	0.92
NFI	0.91	0.90
TLI	0.94	0.92
SRMR	0.088	0.085

Note: a = the path parameter was set to 1; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Assessment of Validity and Reliability

CFA was also further employed to assess the psychometric properties of the

measures, i.e., validity and reliability. Table 20 showed that factor loadings of the

indicators for the underlying constructs were all significant at the 0.001 level and

completely standardized factor loadings were quite high for both the American and Thai

samples, suggesting that convergent validity was established (Bagozzi et al., 1988).

To examine discriminant validity, we employed the confidence interval test (Anderson &

Gerbing, 1988). The confidence interval test requires that the correlation between the two

latent constructs, plus or minus the standard of errors, does not include the value of 1.0

(the highest value for the American sample was $0.72 \pm 0.18 = 0.54$ to 0.90 and the

highest value for the Thai sample was $0.60 \pm 0.21 = 0.38$ to 0.80). Results revealed that

these conditions were met for both samples and therefore the constructs being investigated in the study were distinct from each other, confirming discriminant validity.

Composite reliability was also assessed using CFA. Composite reliability represents the shared variance among a set of observed variables measuring an underlying construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). A composite reliability threshold of 0.60 or greater is suggested (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Table 20 showed that all composite reliability estimates were higher than the recommended level for both samples (ranging from 0.80 (SIN) to 0.94 (PER) for the American sample and ranging from 0.71 (SIN) to 0.91 (PER) for the Thai sample). Therefore, it is concluded that the measurement model meets all requirements for psychometric properties for both samples.

Structural Model

After the measurement model was confirmed, structural equation modeling was next performed to test all hypothesized relationships. For the American sample, the model fit statistics revealed a χ^2 of 4,195.10 with a degree of freedom of 1,849 at $p < .001$, χ^2/df of 2.27, RMSEA of 0.062, CFI of 0.95, NFI of 0.91, TLI of 0.94, and SRMR of 0.088, suggesting that the hypothesized structural relationships fit the data satisfactorily. Regarding the Thai sample, the model also showed a satisfactory fit, χ^2 of 4,232.38, df of 1,849 at $p < .001$, χ^2/df of 2.29, RMSEA of 0.068, CFI of 0.92, NFI of 0.90, TLI of 0.92, and SRMR of 0.085.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Examining the Relationships between Socialization Agents and AGCC

H1 proposed that different socialization agents (i.e., parents, peer, and media) would have a significant effect on different dimensions of AGCC (e.g., cosmopolitanism, exposure to the marketing activities of multinational corporations, social interactions, and etc.). Results showed that for the American sample, while all three dimensions of socialization agents significantly affected all seven dimensions of AGCC, their gamma coefficients (γ) were all greater than 1.0, i.e., ranging from -5.11 (peer influence on GMM) to 7.90 (media influence on GMM). Likewise, results also revealed that for the Thai sample, although all three dimensions of socialization agents also significantly affected all seven dimensions of AGCC, their gamma coefficients (γ) all exceeded 1.0, i.e., ranging from -4.16 (peer influence on GMM) to 4.94 (media influence on GMM). According to Hair et al. (2010), if coefficients are greater than 1.0, a Heywood case could be presented. A Heywood case may occur due to a number of statistical abnormalities including identification of one or more of the latent constructs (Boomsma & Hoogland 2001; Van Driel 1978). In order to locate and isolate the cause for the Heywood case, additional analysis was performed.

An individual path analysis was performed for each relationship between socialization agents and AGCC for both samples via LISREL 8.8. For example, the relationship between parents influence and COS was first conducted and then we added the relationship between parents influence and EXM, GMM, OPE, SIN, IDT, and ELU one at a time for both samples. As a result, we detected that SIN and IDT dimensions of

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AGCC were problematic, causing all gamma coefficients to be greater than 1.0 in both samples. Similar problems caused by these two dimensions of AGCC (i.e., SIN and IDT) also occurred when examining the relationships between peers influence and different dimensions of AGCC and the relationships between media influence and different dimensions of AGCC. In addition, SIN and IDT dimensions of AGCC also demonstrated negative error variance. As a result, we removed the SIN and IDT dimensions of AGCC from the structural model (Rindskopf, 1984). Therefore, the revised structural equation model consisted of twelve 53-item constructs (i.e., three dimensions of socialization agents, five dimensions of AGCC, two dimensions of brand knowledge, one dimension of ATGB, and one-dimensional of brand resonance).

Figure 5. Model Predicting Brand Resonance Among Young American Consumers
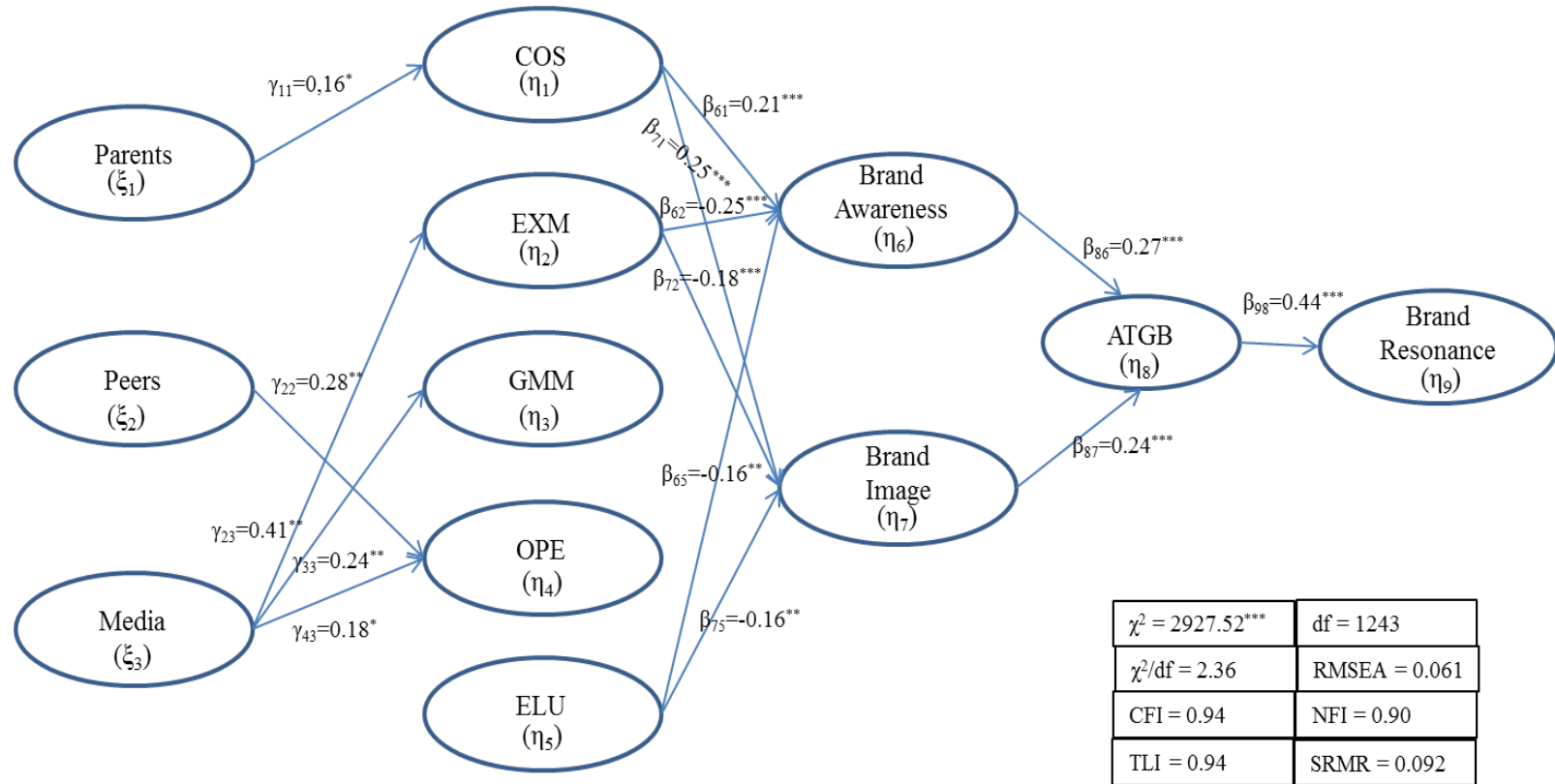
Figure 6. Model Predicting Brand Resonance Among Young Thai Consumers
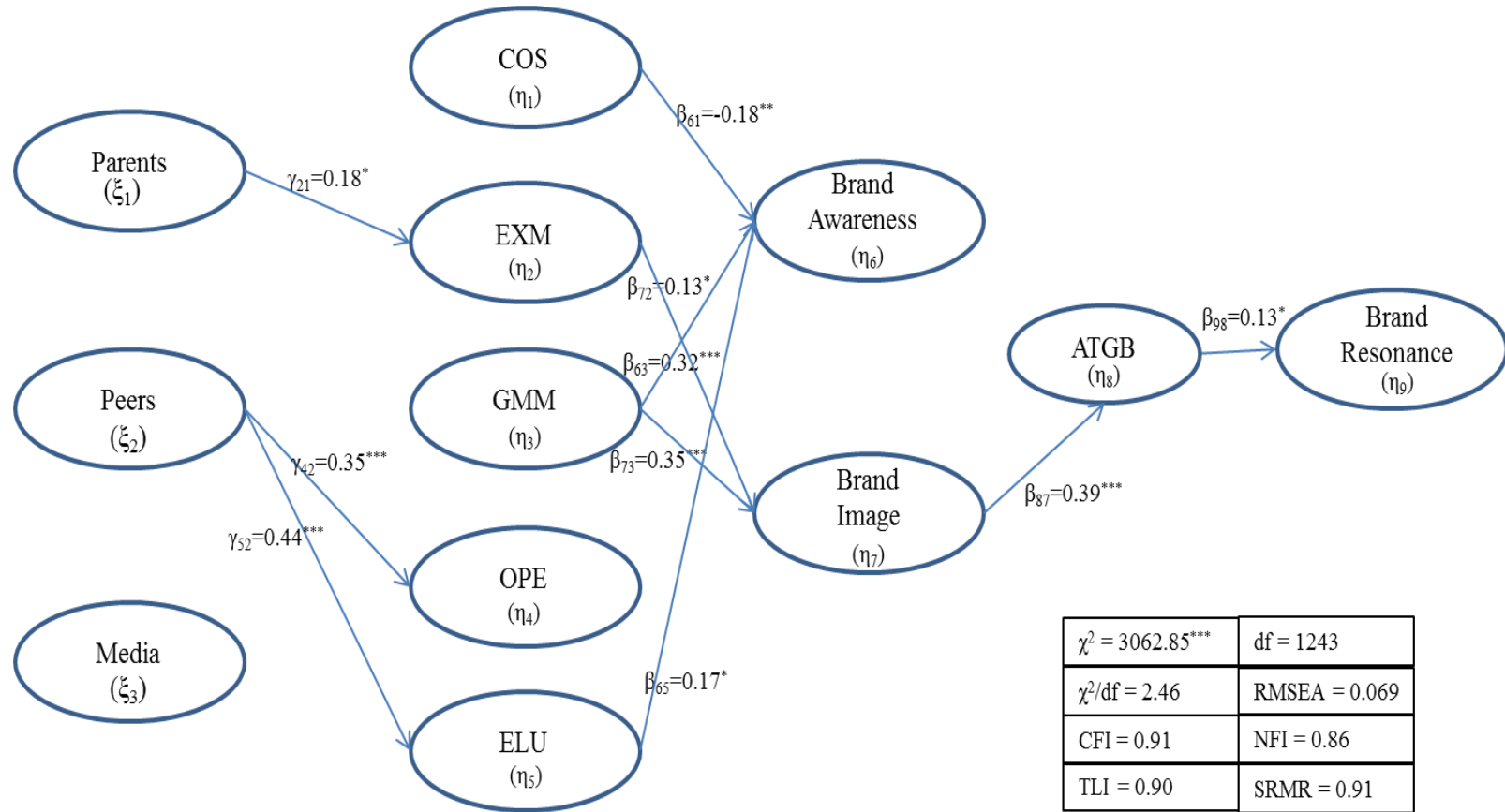
Table 21. Correlation Matrix for all Latent Constructs for American Sample

	PAR	PER	MED	COS	EXM	GMM	OPE	ELU	BA	BI	ATGB	BR
PAR	1.00											
PER	.424**	1.00										
MED	.481**	.575**	1.00									
COS	.112*	.012	.024	1.00								
EXM	.144**	.165**	.279**	.241**	1.00							
GMM	.194**	.147**	.174**	.516**	.398**	1.00						
OPE	.207**	.363**	.277**	.163**	.258**	.383**	1.00					
ELU	.167**	.246**	.226**	.203**	.243**	.588**	.284**	1.00				
BA	-.029	-.013	-.017	.141**	-.127*	-.098	-.046	-.229**	1.00			
BI	.008	.073	.119*	.093	-.074	-.098	.001	-.151**	.715**	1.00		
ATGB	.039	.045	.039	.064	-.056	-.055	-.011	-.060	.344**	.390**	1.00	
BR	.129*	.258**	.292**	.013	.007	-.033	.114*	.002	.439**	.546**	.405**	1.00

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$*** $p < .001$

Table 22. Correlation Matrix for all Latent Constructs for Thai Sample

	PAR	PER	MED	COS	EXM	GMM	OPE	ELU	BA	BI	ATGB	BR
PAR	1.00											
PER	.368**	1.00										
MED	.386**	.600**	1.00									
COS	.090	.069	.050	1.00								
EXM	.116*	-.006	-.049	.379**	1.00							
GMM	.032	-.006	.010	.465**	.348**	1.00						
OPE	.129*	.359**	.306**	.252**	.107	.281**	1.00					
ELU	.189**	.421**	.269**	.308**	.219**	.270**	.374**	1.00				
BA	.090	.046	.160**	.054	.150**	.267**	.031	.178**	1.00			
BI	.138*	.020	.043	.148*	.192**	.305**	.072	.164**	.594**	1.00		
ATGB	-.002	-.062	-.052	.129*	.065	.242**	.033	-.017	.268**	-.379**	1.00	
BR	.220**	.381**	.362**	-.044	-.018	.088	.201**	.231**	.498**	.385**	.101	1.00

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$*** $p < .001$

<u>The Revised Measurement and Structural Models</u>

CFA was performed via LISREL 8.8 on the revised measurement model with twelve 53-item constructs across samples. Figures 5 and Figure 6 provide the overall model for the proposed measurement model for both young American sample and young Thai sample respectively. For the American sample, CFA results showed a $\chi^2 = 2,240.53$, df = 1,259 at p < .001, χ^2/df = 1.79, RMSEA = 0.048, CFI = 0.96, NFI = 0.93, TLI = 0.96, and SRMR = 0.059. For the Thai sample, the CFA results revealed a $\chi^2 = 2,567.57$, df = 1,259, p < .001, χ^2/df = 2.04, RMSEA = 0.061, CFI = 0.93, NFI = 0.88, TLI = 0.92, and SRMR = 0.064. Therefore, it is concluded that the CFA revised model fit the data reasonably well for both samples.

We then performed structural equation modeling on the revised twelve 53-item constructs to test the hypothesized relationships again. For the American sample, the model fit statistics revealed a $\chi^2 = 2,927.53$, df = 1243 at p < .001, χ^2/df = 2.36, RMSEA = 0.061, CFI = 0.94, NFI = 0.90, TLI = 0.94, and SRMR = 0.087. For the Thai sample, the model fit statistics revealed a $\chi^2 = 3,062.65$, df = 1,243, p < .001, χ^2/df = 2.46, RMSEA = 0.07, CFI = 0.91, NFI = 0.87, TLI = 0.90, and SRMR = 0.092.

After successfully revising the structural model, we reexamined Hypothesis 1 stating that socialization agents would have an effect on young consumers' acculturation to global consumer culture. For the American sample, results revealed that all three socialization agents had a significant influence on at least one of the dimensions of AGCC. That is, parents only positively influenced cosmopolitanism (COS) ($\gamma_{11} = 0.16$, t-value = 2.00, p < 0.05). In addition, while peers also only positively influenced young

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consumers' openness and desire to emulate the global consumer culture (OPE) (γ_{42} = 0.28, t-value = 3.42, p <0.01), media positively influenced the exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (EXM) (γ_{23} = 0.41, t-value = 4.00, p < 0.001), global/foreign mass media exposure (GMM) (γ_{33} = 0.24, t-value = 2.60, p <0.01), and openness and desire to emulate a global consumer culture (OPE) (γ_{23} = 0.18, t-value = 1.99, p <0.05) among these young American consumers (see Figure 7).

For the Thai sample, results revealed that only two socialization agents (i.e., parents and peers) had a significant influence on certain dimensions of AGCC. That is, while parents only positively influenced the exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (EXM) (γ_{21} = 0.18, t-value = = 2.25, p <0.05), peers positively influenced both openness and desire to emulate the global consumer culture (OPE) (γ_{42} = 0.35, t-value = 3.65, p <0.001) and exposure and use of English/foreign language (ELU) (γ_{52} = 0.44, t-value = 4.56, p <0.001) among young Thai consumers (see Figure 8). Thus, H1 was partially supported.

Figure 7. Structural Model Results: The Relationship between Socialization Agents and AGCC Among Young Americans
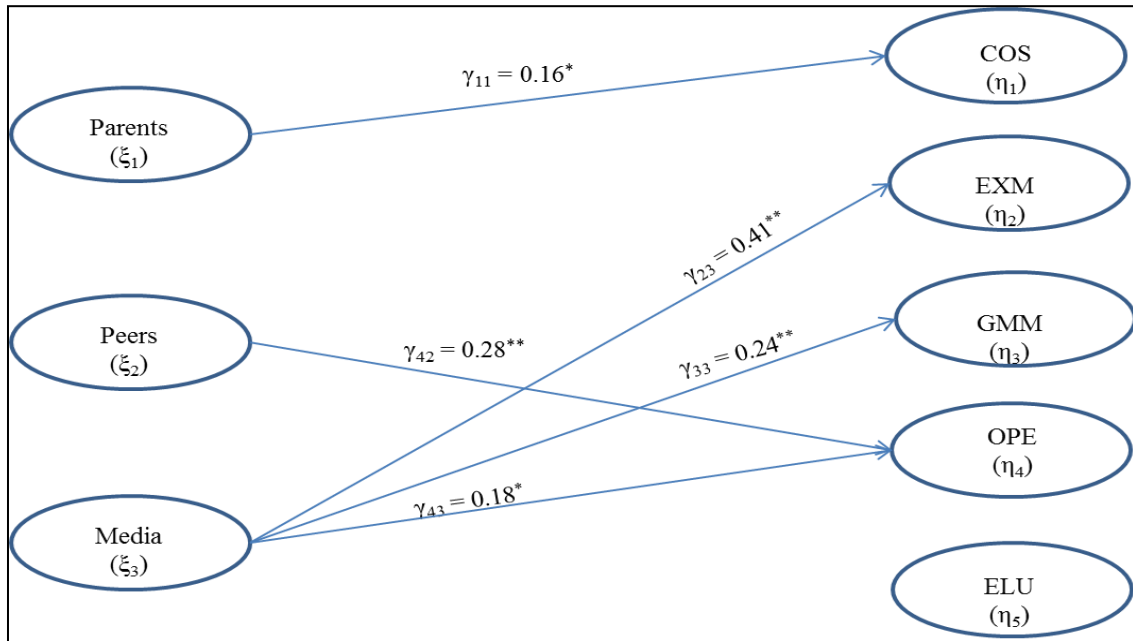
Note: * p < .05; ** p < .01*** p < .001

Specifically, when examining the relationship between parents influence and dimensions of AGCC, results showed that parents exerted stronger influence on Thai young consumers' exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (EXM) (γ_{Thai}= 0.18, t-value = 2.25, p <.05) as compared to their young American counterparts ($\gamma_{American}$ = 0.01, t-value = 0.09, p > .05). However, the relationship between parent influence and cosmopolitism (COS) seems to be stronger in the American sample ($\gamma_{American}$ = 0.16, t-value = 2.00, p <.05) as compared to the Thai sample (γ_{Thai} = 0.10, t-value = 1.30, p > .05). Thus, H1a was partially accepted.

Related to peer influence, results revealed that peers tended to exert stronger influence on openness and desire to emulate the global consumer culture (OPE) and exposure and use of English/foreign language (ELU) among young Thai consumers as compared to their young American counterparts (OPE: $\gamma_{Thai} = 0.35$, t-value = 3.65, p <0.001 vs. $\gamma_{American} = 0.18$, t-value = 1.99, p <0.01, and ELU: $\gamma_{Thai} = 0.44$, t-value = 4.56, p < .001 vs. $\gamma_{American} = 0.07$, t-value = 1.08, p > .05). Thus, H1b was accepted.

Related to media influence, our results showed that media displayed stronger influence on exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (EXM), global/foreign mass media exposure (GMM), and openness and desire to emulate a global consumer culture (OPE) among American consumers as compared to Thai consumers (EXM: $\gamma_{American} = 0.41$, t-value = 4.00, p <0.001 vs. $\gamma_{Thai} = -0.18$, t-value = 1.60, p >0.05; GMM: $\gamma_{American} = 0.24$, t-value = 2.60, p <0.01 vs. $\gamma_{Thai} = 0.02$, t-value = 0.19, p >0.05; and OPE: $\gamma_{American} = 0.18$, t-value = 1.99, p <0.05 vs. $\gamma_{Thai} = 0.14$, t-value = 1.41, p >0.05, respectively). Thus, H1c was also accepted.

Figure 8. Structural Model Results: The Relationship between Socialization Agents and
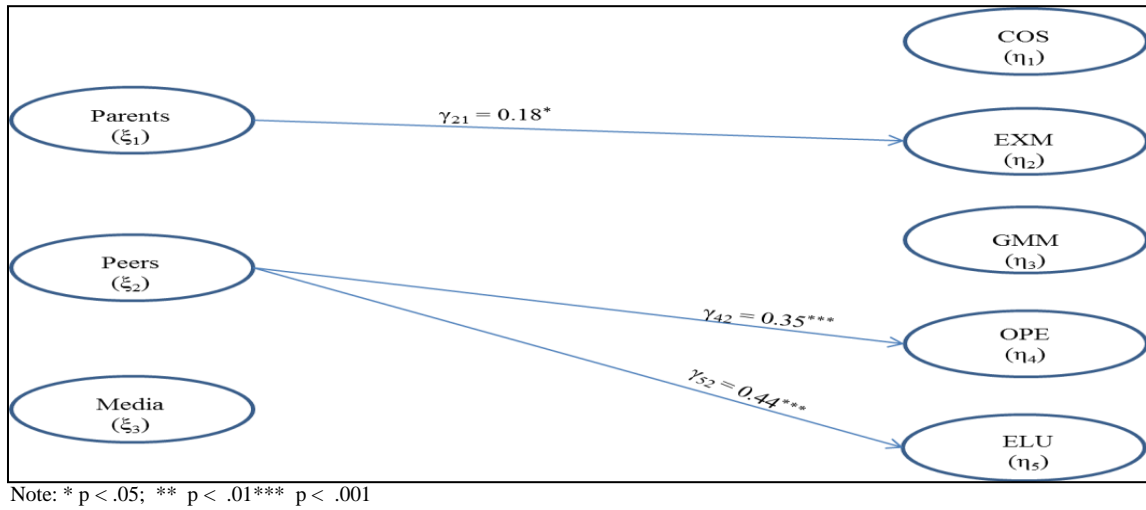AGCC Among Young Thais

Note: * p < .05; ** p < .01*** p < .001

Hypothesis 2: Examining the Relationships between AGCC and Brand Equity

Hypothesis 2 stated that acculturation to the global consumer culture (e.g.,

cosmopolitanism, exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations) would

have a significant effect on perceived brand equity (as measured in terms of brand

knowledge, consisting of brand awareness and brand image). For the American sample,

results revealed that while brand awareness was positively influenced by

cosmopolitanism (COS) ($\beta_{61} = 0.21$, t-value 3.67, p < 0.001), brand awareness was

negatively influenced by exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations

(EXM) ($\beta_{62} = -0.25$, t-value = - 3.67, p < 0.001), and use of English/foreign language

(ELU) ($\beta_{75} = -0.16$, t-value = - 2.86, p <0.01). Furthermore, brand image was positively

influenced by cosmopolitanism (COS) ($\beta_{71} = 0.25$, t-value = 4.47, p < 0.001), but

negatively influenced by use of English/foreign language (ELU) (see Figure 9).

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For the Thai sample, results showed that brand awareness was positively influenced by use of English/foreign language (ELU) ($\beta_{65} = 0.17$, t-value = 2.54, p <0.05) and global/foreign mass media exposure (GMM) ($\beta_{63} = 0.32$, t-value =4.36, p< 0.001), but negatively influenced by cosmopolitanism (COS) ($\beta_{61} = -0.18$, t-value = - 2.78, p < 0.01). Furthermore, brand image was positively influenced by exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (EXM) ($\beta_{72} = 0.13$, t-value = 2.10, p< 0.05), and global/foreign mass media exposure (GMM) ($\beta_{73} = 0.35$, t-value = 4.81, p< 0.001) (see Figure 10).

When examining the relationship between dimensions of AGCC and two-dimensional construct of brand knowledge between the American and the Thai samples, results showed that the degree of influence of each dimension of AGCC on brand equity seemed to vary across two samples. That is, the influence of COS on brand awareness and brand image tended to be stronger among young American consumers as compared to their Thai counterparts (brand awareness: $\beta_{American} = 0.21$, t-value = 3.83, p <0.001 vs. $\beta_{Thai} = -0.18$, t-value = -2.78, p <0.01; and brand image: $\beta_{American} = 0.25$, t-value = 4.47, p <0.001 vs. $\beta_{Thai} = 0.02$, t-value = 0.07, p >0.05). In addition, while the EXM exerted a negative influence on both brand awareness ($\beta_{American} = -0.25$, t-value = 3.67, p <0.001) and brand image ($\beta_{American} = -0.18$, t-value = 3.00, p <0.01) in the American sample, the EXM exerted a positive influence only on brand image ($\beta_{Thai} = 0.13$, t-value = 2.10, p <0.05) among the young Thai consumers. Furthermore, while the ELU exerted a negative influence on both brand awareness ($\beta_{American} = -0.16$, t-value = -2.78, p <0.01 and brand image ($\beta_{American} = -0.16$, t-value = -2.86, p <0.01) among young American consumers,

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the ELU showed a positive influence only on brand awareness ($\beta_{Thai} = 0.17$, t-value = 2.12, p <0.05) among the Thai consumers. In contrast, the influence of GMM on both brand awareness and brand image tended to be stronger among young Thai consumers as compared to their American counterparts (brand awareness: $\beta_{Thai} = 0.32$, t-value = 4.36, p <0.001 vs. $\beta_{American} = -0.05$, t-value = -0.39, p > .05; and brand image: $\beta_{Thai} = 0.35$, t-value = 4.81, p <0.001 vs. $\beta_{American} = 0.07$, t-value = 1.02, p > .05). Based on the results mentioned above, it is concluded that H2 was partially accepted.

Figure 9. Structural Model Results: The Relationship between AGCC and Brand Equity Among Young Americans

Note: * p < .05; ** p < .01*** p < .001

Figure 10. Structural Model Results: The Relationship between AGCC and Brand Equity Among Young Thais

Note: * p < .05; ** p < .01*** p < .001

Hypothesis 3: Examining the Relationships between Brand Equity and Attitudes toward Global Brands

Hypothesis 3 proposed that consumers' perceived brand equity as measured in terms of brand knowledge consisting of awareness and brand image would have a significant effect on their attitudes toward global brands. For the American sample, results revealed that both brand awareness and brand image positively influence consumers' attitudes toward global brands ($\beta_{American} = 0.27$, t-value $= 4.23$, $p < 0.001$, $\beta_{Thai} = 0.24$, t-value $= 4.26$, $p < 0.001$, respectively) (see Figure 11).

Figure 11. Structural Model Results: The Relationship between Brand Equity and ATGB

Among Young Americans

Note: * p < .05; ** p < .01*** p < .001
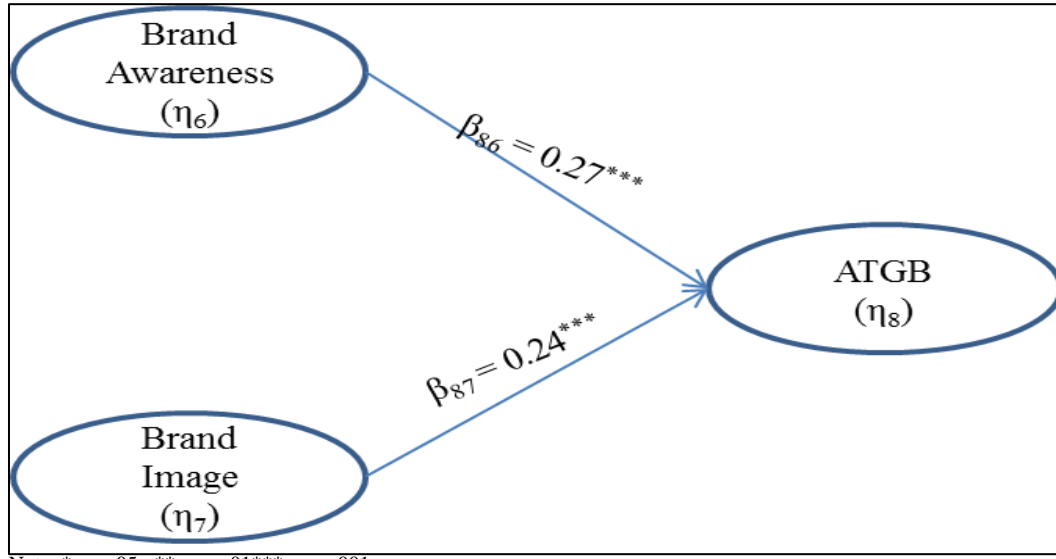
However, among young Thai consumers, only brand image positively influenced their attitudes toward global brands (β_{Thai} = 0.39, t-value = 6.16, p<0.001) (see Figure 12). Specifically, while the influence of brand awareness on consumers' attitudes toward global brands was stronger among young American consumers as compared to their Thai counterparts ($\beta_{American}$ = 0.27, t-value = 4.23, p < 0.001 vs β_{Thai} = 0.06, t-value = 0.89, p > .05), the influence of brand image on consumers' attitudes toward global brands was stronger among young Thai consumers as compared to their American counterparts (β_{Thai} = 0.39, t-value = 6.16, p < 0.001 vs. ($\beta_{American}$ = 0.24, t-value = 4.26, p < 0.001). Hence, H3 was partially accepted.

Figure 12. Structural Model Results: The Relationship between Brand Equity and ATGB Among Young Thais

Note: * p < .05; ** p < .01*** p < .001
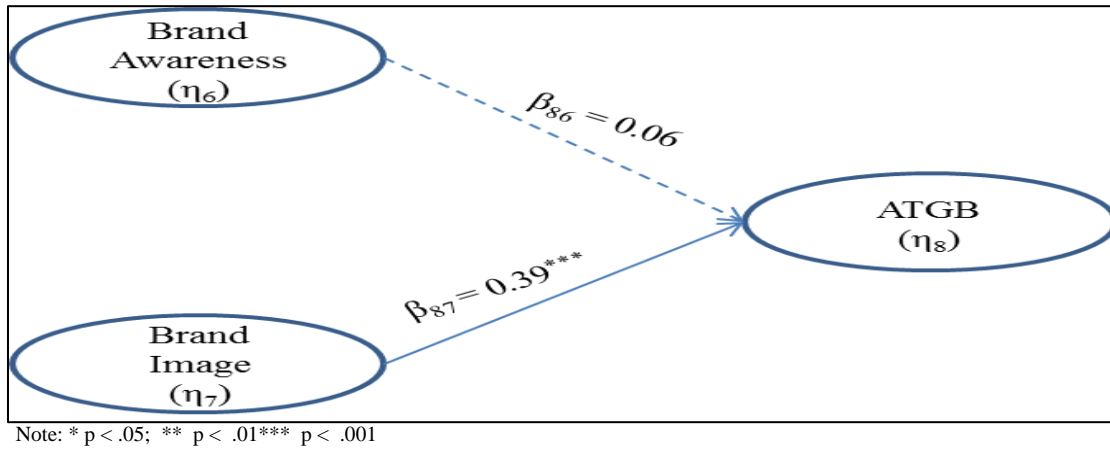
Hypothesis 4: Examining the Relationships between Attitudes toward Global Brands and Brand Resonance

Hypothesis 4 posited that consumers' attitudes toward global brands would have a significant effect on brand resonance. Results revealed that brand resonance was positively influenced by attitudes toward global brands for both the American and Thai samples (American: $\beta_{98} = 0.44$, t-value = 7.23, p <0.001; and Thai: $\beta_{98} = 0.13$, t-value = 2.02, p < 0.05). However, the influence of attitudes toward global brands was stronger among young American consumers as compared to their Thai counterparts ($\beta_{American} = 0.44$, t-value = 7.23, p <0.001 vs. $\beta_{Thai} = 0.13$, t-value = 2.02, p < 0.05). Therefore, H4 was accepted (see Figure 13 and Figure 14).

Figure 13. Structural Model Results: The Relationship between ATGB and Brand Resonance Among Young Americans
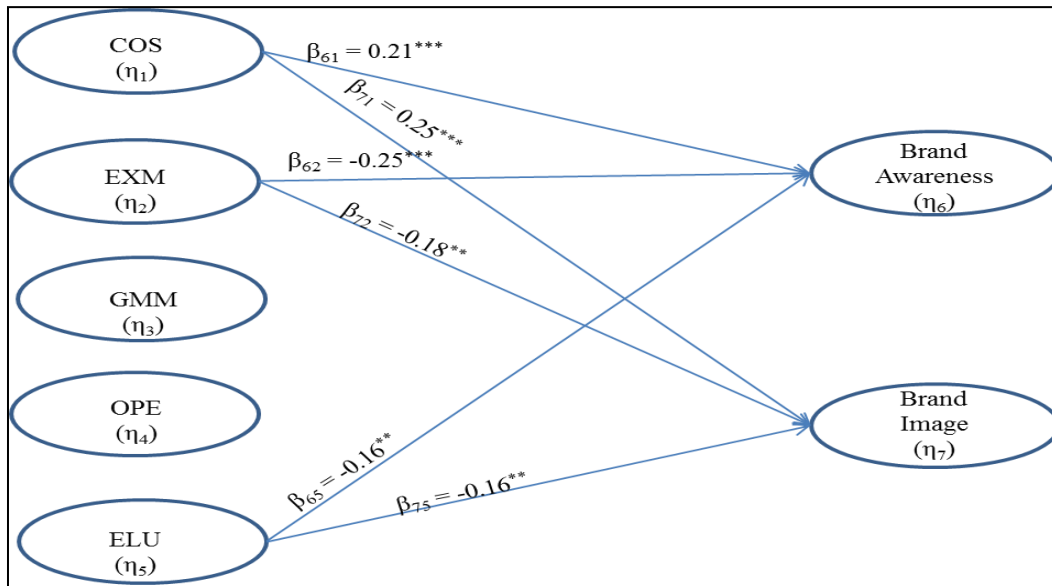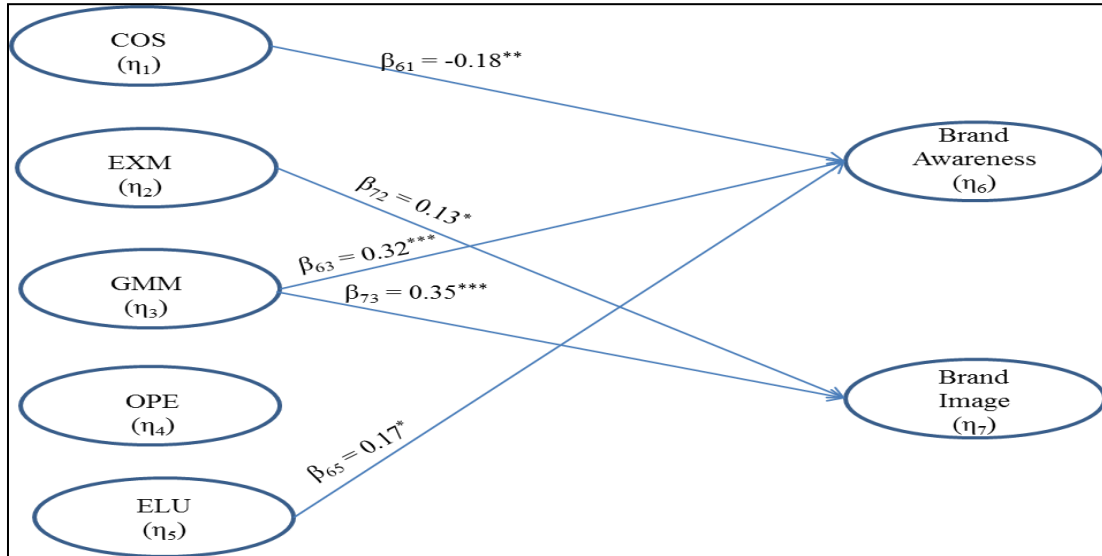

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$*** $p < .001$
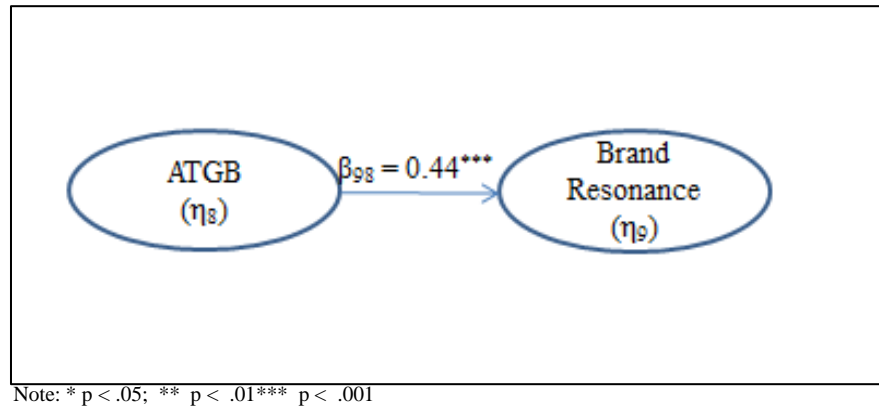
Figure 14. Structural Model Results: The Relationship between ATGB and Brand Resonance Among Young Thais

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$*** $p < .001$
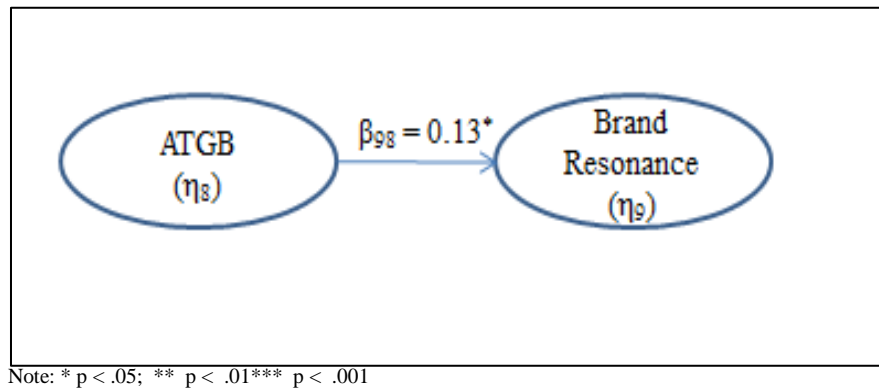
Chapter Summary

This chapter presents statistical analysis (i.e., descriptive statistics, confirmatory factor analysis, measurement invariance analysis, and structural equation modeling) and findings related to hypotheses proposed in the previous chapter. In the following chapter, a discussion of conclusions related to these findings is addressed. Theoretical and

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managerial implications are provided. We conclude the next chapter with limitations and

future research directions.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents the following sections: (1) Discussion, (2) Conclusions, (3) Implications, and (4) Limitations and Future Research Directions.

Discussion

The overall purpose of this study was to develop and empirically examine a model of young consumers' apparel purchasing behavior (as measured in terms of brand resonance) within a global sportswear context. Specifically, the current study looked to empirically test four core research objectives: 1) to examine the role of socialization agents as determinants of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture; 2) to investigate the impact of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture on their perception of brand equity; 3) to examine the effect of young consumers' perceived brand equity on their attitudes toward global brands, which in turn, would influence brand resonance; and 4) to explore whether such a model can be applied to young consumers residing in developing countries (i.e. Thailand).

Objective 1: Relationship between Socialization Agents and Acculturation to Global Consumer Culture

In answering the first objective, hypothesis 1 stated that socialization agents (i.e., parents, peers, and mass media) would influence young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture. However, the degree of influence of each socialization agent on

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young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture will differ between American and Thai samples. Overall, the current dissertation provided invaluable findings in relation to the influence of socialization agents on young consumers' acculturation to global consumer culture across two divergent cultural settings. Findings suggest that the degree to which socialization agents impact young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture (AGCC) tends to differ among young consumers in the United States and Thailand.

Among young American consumers, three socialization agents (i.e., parents, peers, and media) were found to positively influence young American consumers' acculturation to the global consumer culture. In comparison, the results showed that only parents and peers socialization agents were shown to significantly influence young Thai consumers' acculturation to the global consumer culture.

The Influence of Parents

Among young American consumers, the results showed that parents significantly influenced the cosmopolitanism (COS) dimension of the AGCC ($\gamma_{11\text{-American}} = 0.16$, t-value = 2.00, p < 0.05). Interestingly, we did not find a significant relationship between parents influence and cosmopolitanism (COS) among young Thai consumers ($\gamma_{11\text{-Thai}} = 0.10$, t-value = 1.29, p > .05). That is, while parents exerted an influence on young American consumers' willingness to engage with different cultures and encourage their competency towards foreign cultures, such an influence from parents on young Thai consumers' willingness to participate in foreign cultures seems to be insignificant. According to Saran and Kaliny (2012), cosmopolitan consumers tend to demonstrate a

higher desire for cultural capital through the consumption of products high in cosmopolitan-oriented images and taste. In his 2013 book, *The Globalization of Strangeness,* Chris Rumford contends that the growth of cosmopolitanism is largely a generational development as younger consumers are more aware of other cultures and experiences.

Chattalas and Harper (2007) reported that among Hispanic and non-Hispanic immigrant families living in the United States, parents served as a significant influential factor in the acculturation process, specifically as it related to clothing brand preferences. In addition, Cleveland et al. (2011) investigated adult consumers in South Korea and Canada and found parental control was an important influence on consumers' COS or connection with a foreign or global culture and their association with the local culture as conceptualized in Ethnic Identity (EID). The findings of this current study reinforce previous findings in terms of how parents in the United States demonstrate a positive influence on young consumers' development of an affinity towards other cultures (i.e., cosmopolitanism). Thus, it can be inferred that among young American consumers, parental opinion of other cultures may result in their children being more exposed to other opinions and experience another way of life, which may lead to more empathy towards different cultures as displayed in cosmopolitanism (Rumford, 2013).

Although Szerszynski and Urry (2006) have argued for a growth of cosmopolitan ideals around the world due to the proliferation of global symbols and narratives made available through the media and popular culture, Rumford (2013) contended that this development is more prevalent in industrialized nations where global exposure is more

likely to have occurred in the past generation (i.e., parents). This may be one reason that we found no significant relationship between parents and cosmopolitanism among young Thai consumers.

Related to the influence of parents on young consumers' exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (EXM), we found that parents showed a positive influence on EXM among young Thai consumers ($\gamma_{21\text{-Thai}} = 0.18$, t-value $= 2.25$, p $<$ 0.05), but not among young American consumers ($\gamma_{21\text{-American}} = 0.01$, t-value $= 0.09$, p $>$ .05). That is, for young Thai consumers, parents were viewed as having a direct influence on their AGCC through the young consumers' exposure to marketing activities. Thai parents may serve as a more direct control over their children's exposure to marketing messages than American parents (Siriyuvasak & Hyunjoon, 2007).

Siriyuvasak and Hyunjoon (2007) reported that young Thai consumers displayed positive attitudes toward the adoption of Korean pop-culture music and further noted the importance of parental control over the degree of exposure to marketing materials of these youths. Furthermore, Suebsman et al. (2009) investigated young Thai consumers' exposure to marketing activities of global fast-food restaurants such as McDonalds and concluded that parents played a pivotal role in determining the degree to which young Thai consumers' were exposed to the marketing materials and messages from these global fast-food giants. Specifically, these researchers also stated that youth from families with parents from higher educational levels (specifically mothers) were more knowledgeable about the negative effects of high-fat, unhealthy food consumptions, which resulted in greater control over their children's consumption of fast-food.

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Furthermore, parents were described as role-models in directing young Thai consumers' familiarity and opinion of marketing messages regarding fast-food consumption (Suebsman et al., 2009). In contrast, young American consumers have traditionally been regarded as one of the most media-saturated demographics (Jacobson, 2004; Rideout et al., 2010; Sultan, Rohm, & Gao, 2009). Furthermore, American culture (high Individualism) promotes independent self-expression; as such, young American consumers' media exposure may be higher compared to other, oftentimes more collectivist, nations (e.g., Thailand) (Jacobson, 2004). Furthermore, the media has periodically come under governmental censorship in Thailand with the 2008 military-supported coup aftermath seeing an increase in the government's influence on media (McCargo, 2000; Wissesang & Freeman, 2012). Thus, media control differs significantly across the two countries. Therefore, parents may not serve as a significant influence on EXM of young American consumers as it does for young Thai consumers.

In addition, considerable research has been conducted to investigate how collectivism affects the socialization process of young East Asian adults, such as Thais (Kang & Kim, 1998, Kim et al., 2006; Schaefer et al., 2004). The desire to maintain parental-harmony may greatly impact the degree to which a young Thai consumer would desire to deviate from local customs. McCarty et al. (2003) investigated the coping mechanisms of young Thai and American consumers and denoted the difference between these two culturally distinct consumer groups. That is, Thai youth utilized more covert coping mechanisms when dealing with authority figures such as parents, while American youth were shown to utilize more abrupt actions as part of their coping. Furthermore,

McCarty and colleagues (2003) showed how Thai youth manage dual roles: one in a traditional local world and the other one trapped in a world of modern and global images, narratives, and connections.

In the current study, we further found that parents did not exert an influence on young consumers' global or foreign mass media exposure (GMM), openness and desire to emulate global consumer culture (OPE), and exposure to and the use of the English language (ELU) for both cultures. In investigating why this might have occurred, it is proposed that parents' influence appears to be pushed through a single dimension (i.e., COS with young American consumers and through EXM for young Thai consumers). Furthermore, the current sample investigated apparel consumption choices among consumers aged eighteen through twenty-four years of age. It might be that consumers groups in both countries at this age might be more independent of parental control than younger consumer groups (Jacobson, 2004). Researchers have argued that parental control dissipates as the individual ages (Churchill & Moschis, 1979; Ekstrom, 2006), thus it is likely that consumers within this demographic (i.e., 18 – 24 years of age) are more likely to demonstrate less parental influence than younger consumer groups may depict. Specifically pertaining to GMM, OPE and ELU, results suggest that peers may have more of an influence on these dimensions than parents.

The current study serves to illustrate how these two young consumer groups rely differently on parental influence as a mechanism for their development or resistance to the acculturation to a global consumer culture process. That is, American youth's parents are viewed as having a direct influence in the development of empathy and willingness to

accept different cultures or points of view among American consumers (i.e., COS), while

parents of young Thai consumers were shown to have more direct involvement in their

exposure to the marketing communications of multinational corporations (EXM).

The Influence of Peers

Related to the influence of peers on AGCC, we found that peers had a significant

influence on openness and desire to emulate global consumer culture (OPE) for both

young American and Thai consumers ($\gamma_{42\text{-American}} = 0.18$, t-value = 3.42, p < 0.01; $\gamma_{42\text{-Thai}} =$

0.35, t-value = 3.65, p < .001, respectively). These findings suggest that the influence of

peers on young consumers' acculturation to the global consumer culture comes through

their desire to emulate their perception of a global consumer culture. In addition, despite

the cultures, this finding supports previous research suggesting that peers serve as a

mirror through which these young consumers can compare themselves and their position

in society (Arnett, 2007).

Several researchers suggest that peers serve as an integral part of young

consumers' socialization process (Arnett, 2007; Rogoff, 2003). Arnett (2007) stated that

peers tend to have common leisure interests, ethical values, and preferences concerning

lifestyle characteristics deemed important to that clique. Likewise, Rogoff (2003) posited

that peers groups can influence how young consumers view the material world. That is,

they provide comparisons and serve to reinforce product consumption behaviors.

Furthermore, according to social learning theory, one's peer group serves as a backdrop

against which young consumers compare experiences, emotions, and behaviors,

specifically as it relates to consumption (Bandura, 1986; Ferguson et al., 2011; Hawkins

& Coney, 1976). Furthermore, the results in this study are in line with previous literature

that argued that peer groups serve to reinforce one's desire to connect with a wider world

(Özsomer, 2012a; 2012b). Özsomer (2012) argues that young consumers use

consumption choices (i.e., global brands) as a means to affirm their association with a

global peer group. A significant factor in young consumers' acculturation to a global

consumer culture is whether their peer set views the images, beliefs, and actions depicted

in the global consumer culture as desirable. While parents may serve to promote exposure

to other cultures (i.e., COS), peers can be seen as gatekeepers in influencing the eventual

perceived desirability of the global culture. Thus, the current results give support to these

findings that among young American and Thai consumers, peers play a significant role in

their openness and desire to emulate a global consumer culture.

Regarding the relationship between the influence of peers and exposure and use of

English/foreign language (ELU), results revealed that peers significantly influenced ELU

among young Thai consumers, but not young American consumers ($\gamma_{52\text{-Thai}} = 0.44$, t-value

$= 4.56$, $p < .001$; $\gamma_{52\text{-American}} = 0.07$, t-value $= 1.08$, $p > .05$, respectively). It can be

explained that peers strongly reinforce the use of the English language among young Thai

consumers and are less influential on the use of foreign language among young American

consumers. Since most secondary educational programs in Thailand encourage students

to take English courses, young Thai consumers are exposed to English predominately in

their peer group settings (Wiriyachitra, 2001). It is also suggested that English may serve

to connect these youth with their peers (Arnett, 2007; Swain, Brooks, & Tocalli-Beller,

2002; Wiriyachitra, 2001). In addition, Brooks and colleagues (2002) discussed how

sociocultural theory postulates that language serves as a tool for the further development of cognition and knowledge and that as peer groups use common languages, this serves to reinforce common themes, norms, and customs. Cleveland and Laroche (2007) further contended that the expansion and use of English language may serve to connect consumers around the globe with a wider, Western world. Alden, Steenkamp, and Batra (1999) noted that based on three major components of a culture (its aesthetics, language, and lifestyle), the use of the English language in global advertisements has conditioned consumers around the globe to associate the English language with a global consumer culture (GCC). Thus, the exposure and use of the English language among young Thai consumers and their peers may reinforce their connection with a wider global culture and openness or desire to emulate such a global culture.

No similar relationship was found for young American consumers. This may be in part due to the degree of exposure that young American consumers have with a foreign language (which might be much less than the degree of young Thai consumers' exposure). Whereas young Thai consumers have an institutional mandate for encouraging the exposure and usage of the English language, for American young consumers, foreign language is traditionally seen as an elective option. Furthermore, while the English language has been shown to be associated with a global consumer culture (Alden et al., 1999), a "foreign language" may not necessitate a similar association among young American consumers.

Interestingly, however, we did not find the influence of peers on cosmopolitanism (COS), exposure to the marketing communications of multinational corporations (EXM),

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and global or foreign mass media exposure (GMM) among young American and Thai

consumers. As previously mentioned, COS has been shown to be a generational

development specifically in developed countries. Secondly, media control appears to be

more a product of parental control in both the United States and Thailand than of peer

influence. Peers may serve as confirmation influence where as parents serve as

gatekeepers to the flow of marketing communications. Thus, where parents serve to

influence or direct the degree to which young American or Thai consumers are exposed

to various media communications, (i.e., EXM and GMM) peers serve to verify the

images or messages seen in the communications (i.e., OPE).

<u>The Influence of Media</u>

The current study revealed interesting results regarding the influence of media on

young consumers' acculturation to the global consumer culture. While media

significantly influenced exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations

(EXM), exposure to global mass media (GMM), and openness and desire to emulate a

global consumer culture (OPE) among young American consumers (EXM: $\gamma_{23\text{-American}} =$

0.41, t-value = 4.00, p < .001 vs. $\gamma_{23\text{-Thai}} = -0.18$, t-value = 1.60, p >0.05; GMM: $\gamma_{33\text{-American}} = 0.24$, , t-value = 2.60, p <0.01 vs. $\gamma_{33\text{-Thai}} = 0.02$, t-value = 0.19, p >0.05; and

OPE: $\gamma_{43\text{-American}} = 0.18$, t-value = 1.99, p <0.05 vs. $\gamma_{43\text{-Thai}} = 0.14$, t-value = 1.41, p >0.05,

respectively), media did not significantly influence any dimensions of AGCC among

young Thai consumers.

Both the EXM and GMM have direct implications from the media as a

socialization agent's influence. By definition, EXM and GMM are a byproduct of media.

The influence of media on OPE serves to demonstrate the importance of media (similar to peers) as promoting a young consumers' willingness to identify and desire connection with a global consumer culture. That is, media serves as the vehicle through which global images, narratives, and associations are disseminated to the global audience (Appadurai, 1990). According to Appaduri (1990), mediascapes serves to connect regions to a wider, global marketplace. Previous studies have advocated how media serves as a driving force in the cultural reproduction of identity in relation to nationalism, gender, sexuality, race, and social class (du Gay et al., 1997; Goldman & Papson, 1998; Leiss et al., 2005; Jackson & Andrews, 2005). Thus, as young American consumers are exposed to global marketing messages, media serve to reinforce the ideals, images, narratives and principles that serve to define a global consumer culture.

In contrast, as indicated, no parallel relationship was found for media and young Thai consumers' acculturation to the global consumer culture. This finding, when seen in conjunction with the findings of parental influence and as previously discussed, for young Thai consumers, shows that parents may serve as initiators and controls of the degree to which media plays a significant role in their acculturation process. Taken collectively, these results suggest that, unlike American consumers, who may be more prone to seek out images and portrayals seen in global media communications, young Thai consumers may prefer to have their acculturation process reaffirmed through reference groups including parents and peers. This is in line with previous studies on collectivist cultures that have argued that messages and ideas need to first be internalized by the larger group before they are adopted by individuals (Bhagat et al., 2003; Han &

Shavitt, 1994; Rice et al., 1998). Han and Shavitt (1994) reported that advertising appeals in individualistic countries tended to emphasize individual benefits, personal success, and independence, while advertisements in collectivist cultures preferred in-group benefits, harmony, and family integrity. Similarly, Rice et al. (1998) found that consumers from collectivist cultures prefer synchronous media messaging as this allows them to gauge other communication partners' reactions to messages and make adjustments necessary for continued group harmony. Finally, Bhagat and colleagues (2003) argued that individualistic cultures (e.g., United States) prefer direct messaging, while collectivist cultures (e.g. Thailand) rely more contextual cues in communication messages from which to infer meanings. Thus, the findings from the current dissertation support the argument that young consumers in individualistic countries (i.e., the United States) may show a higher reliance on media for the dissemination of cues, meanings, and narratives in their acculturation process, while young consumers in collectivist cultures (i.e., Thailand) rely more on group confirmations and inferential individuals from which to draw meanings.

Objective 2: Relationship Between AGCC and Perceived Brand Equity

To answer the second objective, hypothesis 2 predicted that acculturation to a global consumer culture would influence young consumers' perceived brand equity as measured in terms of brand image and brand awareness. However, the degree of influence of each dimension of acculturation to a global consumer culture on young consumers' perceived brand equity will differ between American and Thai samples.

Overall, the dissertation's findings support the hypothesis that young consumers'

in the United States and Thailand acculturation to a global consumer culture influences

their perceived brand equity (i.e., brand knowledge). Building on Keller (1993; 2004), the

current dissertation conceptualized brand equity as consisting of brand awareness and

brand image. Results from both countries confirm the influence of dimensions of the

AGCC on brand awareness or brand image. However, the results revealed differences in

the dimension through which brand awareness and brand image are influenced across

young American and Thai consumers.

<u>The Influence of COS on Brand Equity</u>

Results showed that while cosmopolitanism (COS) positively influenced both

brand awareness ($\beta_{61\text{-American}} = 0.21$, t-value =3.67, p < .001) and brand image ($\beta_{71\text{-American}}$

= 0.25, t-value = 4.47, p < .001) among young American consumers, COS only

negatively influenced brand awareness among young Thai consumers ($\beta_{61\text{-Thai}} = -0.18$, t-

value = -2.75, p < .01). That is, young Americans with high degrees of cosmopolitanism

were more likely to be aware of global apparel brands and associate higher brand images

to global apparel brands. Cosmopolitan consumers exhibit a higher desire for cultural

capital through the consumption of products high in global images and tastes (Saran &

Kalliny, 2012). Recently, Scheibel (2012) posited that the emergence of a cosmopolitan

consumer is an increasingly important component of the modern consumption landscape.

Scheibel (2012) conceptualized COS as an ideological view of an interconnected world

and that this belief influences the attitudes and behaviors of consumers and further

reported that cosmopolitan-oriented consumers oftentimes display higher attitudes toward

global brands. More interestingly, we did not find a significant relationships between COS and brand image among young Thais; however, we found that the relationship between COS and brand awareness was negative among young Thai consumers. This can be explained that COS is conceptualized as encompassing empathy for a foreign culture. Researchers have argued that for consumers in non-Western nations, global consumer culture is traditionally connected to the English/Western culture (Alden et al., 1999; Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Özsomer, 2011). Thus, COS may serve as a negative influence on brand awareness because it is perceived as empathy towards cultures not necessarily connected to U.S. or Western cultures while global brands utilized in this study are associated with English or Western cultures. Thus, while a young Thai consumer may demonstrate familiarity or empathy towards a foreign culture, global sportswear brands may be seen as associated more with English or Western cultures among consumers in this culture.

The Influence of EXM on Brand Equity

We found that while exposure to marketing activities of multinational corporations (EXM) negatively influenced brand awareness ($\beta_{62\text{-American}}$ = - 0.25, t-value = -3.67, p < .001) and brand image ($\beta_{72\text{-American}}$ = - 0.18, t-value = 3.00, p < .01) among young American consumers, EXM positively influenced brand image ($\beta_{72\text{-Thai}}$ = 0.13, t-value = 2.10, p < .05) among young Thai consumers.

Results suggested that among young Americans, one's exposure to multinational media outlets may have a counterproductive result that may have caused these young consumers to perceive mass media as less reliable than alternative channels such as word-

of-mouth (WOM) from peer groups (Eisend & Knoll, 2012). It may also be that for this segment, the marketing messages are first internalized by referent group members who have a major influence on young consumers' apparel purchasing. In a recent work by Wolny and Mueller (2013) related to the new role of technology in marketing, they concluded that Generation Y consumers in the United States may view WOM marketing as more authentic than traditional marketing channels (i.e., mass media television, radio, and print). Furthermore, they argued that WOM serves as a "viral" dissemination of marketing information through this younger demographic.

With the establishment and expansion of electronic WOM, such as Twitter, Instagram and others, online WOM was promoted as a viable and preferred marketing channel for this population. This finding is supported by research from Ayouby, Croteau, and Raymond (2012), who demonstrated how AGCC may serve as a predictor for the degree to which a consumer is more likely to engage in internet retailing. Furthermore, Barber (2013) argued that the Internet and "non-traditional" marketing channels may even serve as socialization agents for this young American demographic. Rideout et al. (2010) already demonstrated the degree to which young American consumers are exposed to nearly eleven hours of media per week with an increasing percentage of that coming through more modern, non-traditional vehicles. Thus, the current dissertation's findings reveal a negative association that young American consumers hold for EXM, suggesting a preference for alternative channels when communicating with this target segment.

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In addition, the positive influence of EXM on young Thai consumers' brand image dimension of global brands reveals how important marketing communications can be to this demographic in the development of images and meanings associated to those images in relation to brand knowledge. Steenkamp et al. (2003) further discussed the role marketing plays in the development of brand images and associations for consumers around the globe, specifically in emerging markets. Furthermore, Kinra (2006) investigated Indian consumers' perception of brands' country of origins and concluded that while Indian consumers showed favoritism toward local brands as compared to some global brands, their positive attitudes toward global brands were influenced by their embracement of a global consumer culture that can be caused by their exposure to various marketing activities of multinational corporations.

The Influence of GMM on Brand equity

While the study's results revealed that global or foreign mass media exposure (GMM) did not significantly influence either brand awareness ($\beta_{63\text{-American}} = -0.05$, t-value $= -0.39$, p $> .05$) or brand image ($\beta_{73\text{-American}} = 0.07$, t-value $= 1.02$, p $> .05$) among young American consumers, GMM positively influenced both brand awareness ($\beta_{63\text{-Thai}} = 0.32$, t-value $= 4.36$, p $< .001$) and brand image ($\beta_{73\text{-Thai}} = 0.35$, t-value $= 4.81$, p $< .001$) among young Thai consumers.

Among young Thai consumers, the positive influence of GMM on brand awareness and brand image dimensions of global brands reveals how important marketing communications can be to this demographic in the development of awareness, images, and meanings associated to those images in relation to brand knowledge.

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Steenkamp et al. (2003) further discussed the role marketing plays in the development and creation of brand awareness, brand images, and associations to consumers around the globe, specifically in emerging markets. Global consumer culture notes that media flows promote the cultural ideals, symbols and myths associated with global brands (Holt, Quelch, & Taylor, 2004; Özsomer 2008; 2012a). In addition, in Keller's (2003) article, brand knowledge is defined as brand image being the memory nodes and associations that consumers attribute to a brand, while brand awareness serves to denote the strength prevalence of these nodes. Appadurai (1990) posited that the potential for global brands is focused in the degree to which consumers believe the brand would enable them to act out participation in the global marketplace. Thus, the media's role in creating awareness and inculcating these imagined or real images or nodes associated with a global brand play a critical part in the perceived global brand attitudes of world consumers.

Additionally, the influence of GMM on both brand awareness and brand image among young Thai consumers may be that young consumers in emerging markets (i.e., Thailand) are utilizing various channels of marketing information within which to determine the brand equity of global apparel brands, reiterating the importance of global brand managers considering all channels of media communication when developing and transmitting their marketing messages. de Lock and Buckingham (2007) discussed a timeline on the progression of globalization and assert that the inherent characteristics of electronic and digital media platforms, particularly as they relate to the distribution and circulation of media information, have resulted in a significant acceleration in the globalization process (i.e., the transference of brand knowledge around the global). Artz

and Kamalipour (2003) also argued that, as a result of the convergence of traditional media channels into "global media giants," non-traditional sources are serving to expand the media choices for consumers.

Thus, it appears that while both GMM and EXM showed significant influence on brand image among young Thais, only EXM showed a significant influence on brand image for young American consumers. While Thais may be pulling information from various media channels, including marketing communications directed by multinational corporations as well as more general media outlets such as news and political channels, young American consumers may be drawing more from direct marketing communications from corporations or at least perceive that marketing messages, regardless of channel, are directed from multinational corporations. It can be argued that given the recent political events within Thailand (e.g., the military coup in 2008), young consumers in Thailand may be more politically aware than young American consumers. Lopez and colleagues (2005) argue that there is dwindling American youth participation in political matters such as voting in presidential and non-presidential campaigns, volunteering in political causes, or attending or having membership in political organizations and clubs since the mid 1970's. The 2004 and 2008 presidential campaigns saw the largest increase in youth voting, peaking at 45% (Flanagan & Levine, 2010). Flanagan and Levine (2010) argue that today's young adults are less likely than previous generations to be civically engaged. Today's young Americans view politics with a higher degree of skepticism than previous generations and as such may be more likely to

perceive all marketing communications as disseminating from multinational corporations (i.e., EXM).

The Influence of OPE on Brand Equity

Surprisingly, the current study revealed that openness and desire to emulate global consumer culture (OPE) did not influence either brand awareness or brand image in in both American (brand awareness: $\beta_{64\text{-American}} = 0.09$, t-value = 1.52, p > .05; and brand image: $\beta_{74\text{-American}} = -0.04$, t-value = -0.65, p > .05) and Thai (brand awareness: $\beta_{64\text{-Thai}} = -0.07$, t-value = -1.03, p > .05; and brand image: $\beta_{74\text{-Thai}} = -0.12$, t-value = -1.77, p > .05) samples.

It may be that OPE entails the internalization of the images (media) portrayed in the global consumer culture but not necessarily impact young consumers' awareness or image of those global brands. Thus, the OPE dimension of the AGCC scale serves to capture the degree to which individuals identify with the global consumer culture while relying on other dimensions (i.e., EXM, GMM etc.) to encapsulate an individual's knowledge of global apparel brands.

The Influence of ELU on Brand Equity

The study results showed that the exposure and usage of English or a foreign language (ELU) negatively influenced both brand awareness ($\beta_{65\text{-American}} = -0.16$, t-value = -2.78, p < .01) and brand image ($\beta_{75\text{-American}} = -0.16$, t-value = -2.86, p < .01) among young American consumers, but positively influenced only brand awareness ($\beta_{65\text{-Thai}} = 0.17$, t-value = 2.12, p < .05) among young Thai consumers.

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That is, a young American consumer who has more foreign language usage is less likely to claim higher brand awareness and brand image of these global apparel brands (i.e., Nike, Adidas, Reebok, Puma, and New Balance). It seems that secondary-language exposure and use may be an indicator for the familiarity young consumers may have with a foreign population. According to Cleveland and Laroche (2007), the use of English language (as a second language) was a way for one to connect with an external world. The current study used exposure and use of a foreign language to see whether this bi-lingual proficiency did in fact influence consumers' perceived brand equity towards global brands. As Corarso (2011) stated, language is a hallmark attribute of group composition. Language is how histories are passed down from one generation to another. Thus, resistance to a foreign language can be seen as a protectionist act to conserve one's cultural norm and ethnocentricity (Cleveland et al., 2009). Exposure to a second language can serve as a gateway to a new branch of knowledge, culture and way of thinking (Alden et al., 1999; Graddol, 2000). Looking specifically at the use of the English language, Graddol (2000) argued that language serves to connect a wider audience and that "secondary-language audiences" are thus exposed to global ideas and meanings. Thus, in the current study, we conceptualized the ELU dimension as consisting of exposure and usage of the English language for young Thai participants and as more general definition of exposure and usage of a "foreign" language for young American participants. It may be that as Cleveland and Laroche originally argued, individuals are connecting the English language specifically with the global consumer culture. Thus, a more general classification of familiarity and adoption of a foreign language may not

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necessarily dictate whether a young individual demonstrates more favorable awareness and image of a global apparel brand.

Objective 3: Relationship among Brand Equity, Attitudes toward Global Brands and Brand Resonance

Hypotheses 3 and 4 were proposed to answer objective 3. Hypothesis 3 proposed that perceived brand equity as measured in terms of brand image and brand awareness would influence young consumers' attitudes toward the global brands. However, the degree of influence of perceived brand equity on young consumers' attitudes toward the global brands would differ between American and Thai samples.

Results revealed that both brand awareness ($\beta_{86\text{-American}} = 0.27$, t-value = 4.23, p < .001) and brand image ($\beta_{87\text{-American}} = 0.24$, t-value = 4.26, p < .001) positively influenced consumers' attitudes toward global brands among young Americans; however, only brand image ($\beta_{87\text{-Thai}} = 0.39$, t-value = 6.16, p < .001) positively influenced consumers' attitudes toward global brands among young Thais.

Consistent with Keller (2004), this dissertation's results showed that as young American consumers become more knowledgeable about global apparel brands, their attitudes toward global brands tended to be more positive. This can be explained that attitudes toward global brands serves as the emotional stage of brand internalization (Keller, 2004), illustrating how increasing brand images and brand awareness results in a positive emotional association by young consumers (as conceptualized as ATGB) toward these global apparel brands.

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These results suggest that young Thai consumers' attitudes toward global brands are more contingent on the images and associations tied to those global apparel brands and not the strength of those images. Item memory or brand image is a fundamental part of brand building in the mind of the consumer (Aaker, 1996; Keller 1993; 2012). However, Keller (2012) also noted the importance of both brand image along with brand awareness as driving more lasting brand-consumer relationships (see Warlop et al., 2005).

Lastly, hypothesis 4 predicted that young consumers' attitudes toward global brands would influence their intention to purchase the brands (i.e., brand resonance). However, the degree of influence of attitudes toward global brands on young consumers' purchase intention of the brands (i.e., brand resonance) would differ between American and Thai samples. Results demonstrated that consumers' attitudes toward global brands positively influenced brand resonance in both the American ($\beta_{98\text{-American}} = 0.44$, t-value = 7.23, $p < .001$) and Thai ($\beta_{98\text{-Thai}} = 0.13$, t-value = 2.02, $p < .05$) samples. That is, as young consumers from these two countries expressed favorable attitudes toward global brands, their brand resonance, or a strong sense of connection with the global brands, tended to increase.

However, the influence of attitudes toward global brands tended to be stronger among young American consumers as compared to their Thai counterparts. This may be that, according to prior research on brand knowledge, while brand image helps consumers distinguish brands from their competitors in the marketplace, brand awareness denotes the ability of consumers to retrieve such information in busy perceptual fields such as in a

grocery aisle or busy retail environments (Warlop et al., 2005). Thus, the lower significance seen between attitudes and brand resonance among Thai young consumers compared to young American consumers may in part be a function that brand awareness was not also conferred. That is, as young Thai consumers are exposed through various marketing messaging channels (e.g., EXM and GMM), the image (or memory nodes) associated with the brand are introduced to Thai consumers, which leads to favorable attitude and behavior changes. Furthermore, because these images are not supported by an increased strength (i.e., brand awareness) the attitudinal and behavior consequences are less profound than the results in young American consumer.

Conclusions

This study was designed to empirically examine a model of young consumers' apparel purchasing behavior within a global sportswear context. Specifically, this study utilized Cleveland and Laroche's acculturation of global consumer culture to guide the theoretical model. The study further investigated antecedents in the form of primary socialization agent's influence (e.g., parents, peers and media) as well as attitudinal and behavior outcomes of the acculturation process (e.g., brand knowledge, attitudes toward global brands and brand resonance). Furthermore, the current study replicates the model in two socioeconomic and culturally diverse countries (i.e., United States and Thailand). It was hoped that findings from this study might offer suggestions to brand managers who are looking to market their global brands in these two countries or similar national settings.

The study also looked to investigate the argument of a homogenization of young consumers' attitudes, beliefs and behaviors in the context of global sportswear apparel product category. One primary dilemma for international marketers concerns the degree to which marketing programs should be standardized globally versus tailored to local cultures. The current study adds to this argument by empirically arguing for a shift away from segmenting markets at the country-level towards segmentation at the level of the individual (i.e., identifying common consumer groups irrespective of national frontiers). According to the results, media both in the form of marketing communications personally directed by multinational corporations (i.e., EXM) as well as more general media communications such as global news programs (i.e., GMM) serve to positively impact young consumers' brand image of a global sportswear brand. Furthermore, brand image was consistently shown to have a positive impact on young consumers' attitudes toward these brands, resulting in behavior modification in the context of higher brand resonance across both countries.

Regarding the influence of socialization agents (i.e., parents, peers and media) on the acculturation process, the current study provided interesting contributions. Findings revealed the importance of all three socialization agents on the acculturation process among young American consumers while in contrast only parents and peers showed significant influence on young Thai consumers. This difference belies an important finding for practitioners in the importance of culture impacting the channels through which acculturation may potentially occur. For the United States (a highly individualist culture) independence and self-express are strongly valued. Thus, we see the

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development of empathetic opinions towards foreign cultures (i.e., COS) being

significantly associated with parental influence while parents serve more as mediators to

young Thai consumers' exposure to media communications (i.e., EXM). While

dimensional differences emerged in the results, there were also similarities across the

countries' young populations. Peers in both countries served to affirm the acculturation

process (i.e. OPE) suggesting a certain degree of group approval is needed before

individual acceptance occurs among young consumers in both cultural settings.

Overall, these findings provide a clearer understanding of consumers' propensity

towards an acculturation to a global consumer culture as well as attitudinal and

behavioral results of such acclimatization. Findings indicate that young consumers'

acculturation to global consumer cultural has a positive impact on their brand knowledge,

attitudes toward global brands and brand resonance. Results indicate how media plays a

significant role in the development of brand awareness for young consumers in

developing countries (i.e., Thailand) as well as for brand awareness and brand image for

young consumers in more developed countries (i.e., United States). As media becomes an

increasing influence in the global marketplace, it is important that the effects are assessed

for inclusion in the discussion of media's role in the today's young consumers'

socialization process. The concerns over the harmful effects of media on young people

have long been documented (see Chapter 2 for overview of literature) thus, the current

dissertation provides empirical evidence to further the dialogue and to, in hopes, assist in

the development of more beneficial policies.

Furthermore, the current study's results reaffirm the importance of positive brand knowledge and illustrates that attitudes toward global brands play significant roles in the behavior outcomes of young consumers in both national settings. Finally, the current study posits the sportswear apparel product category as ideally situated for investigating the brand resonance construct as the optimal "high-tier" behavioral outcome signifying a close brand-consumer relationship.

Implications

This research revealed valuable and significant implications for both academics and practitioners. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed below.

Theoretical Implications

The current dissertation empirically examines the antecedents and consequences of young consumers' acculturation to a global consumer culture across two socio-economically and culturally diverse nations. The findings build on previous literature and suggest potential sources of influence for young American and Thai consumers' ability to acculturate to a global consumer culture. The results of the study contribute to existing literature on cross-cultural studies related to socialization agents. That is, the current study demonstrated that three socialization agents (i.e., parents, peers, and media) tend to play different roles in influencing young consumers' acculturation to the global consumer culture between the American and Thai consumers. Specifically, parents, peers, and media play a significant role in shaping young American consumers' acculturation to the global consumer culture, while only parents and peers are important in influencing young Thai consumers' acculturation to the global consumer culture. Findings suggest the role

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that parents and peers play in the interplay between the local and global culture. This

glocalization process serves to disseminate the global myths and images associated with

the global culture while also serving to blend new aspects of the host culture into the

global culture domain. These additions act to revitalize the global consumer culture as

culture is always in flux. Özsomer (2012a) posits how the proliferation of global

consumer culture does not result in homogenization of cultures but instead a splintering

of international segments, with each group contributing in their own way to the

development and sustainability of a global consumer culture that reflects the various

viewpoints of the participants.

Furthermore, in response to calls from researchers (e.g., Gupta et al., 2009), this

study's findings provide empirical evidence as to how young consumers describe

associations with global apparel brands. Results suggest young American and Thai

consumers associate unique images with global apparel brands in such ways that a

specific group of consumers may see consumption of brands as a means to connect with a

wider world (Özsomer, 2012). These findings extend the current literature by providing

an acculturation to a global consumer culture as a vehicle through which the added value

(i.e., brand equity) of global apparel brands can be affected.

The current dissertation's findings also add to the current literature on how global

consumer culture is malleable, diverse, and always in a constraint state of change (Hollis,

2010; Kjeldaard & Askegaard, 2006). Kjeldaard and Askegaard (2006) suggested that

cultural meanings can be transferred through interconnected pathways such as media

channels and interpersonal exposure to new and immigrant populations, resulting in the

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creation of new cultures. The fluidity of a global culture allows for culture to be deterritorialized and separated from a central locale and instead may rely more on an individual's construction and diffusion of meaning. According to Tomlinson (1999), culture is "the order of life in which human beings construct meaning through practices of symbolic representations" (p. 18). Thus, global culture is the sphere of existence in which individuals make their lives individually and collectively meaningful; encompassing both the learned practices generated by socialization and the material products in which it is embodied (Alden et al. 2006; Kjeldaard & Askegaard, 2006; Özsomer, 2012a; 2012b).

Cohen (2009) conducted an anthropological investigation of Thai youth and found an increased observance of global consumer culture themes and consumption of globally rich products. However, even with this increased participation in a global consumer culture, Cohen notes Thai youth's contribution to the development and sustainability of a global consumer culture. Thus, while Thai youth may be using global brands to connect with a wider youth group, they also are actively engaged in the creation of the global culture phenomenon. The current study provides evidence of the AGCC as a vehicle through which young consumers in both the United States and Thailand develop these aspirations and identification with a wider global consumer culture. Furthermore, as young consumers grow more knowledgeable of these global apparel brands through increase brand image and awareness, they demonstrate more favorable attitudes and behavioral changes in their apparel consumption habits (e.g., brand resonance).

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Lastly, the current dissertation also contributes to a better understanding of the relationship among perceived brand equity, attitudes toward global apparel brands, and brand resonance. Building on previous models (i.e., Keller 1993; 2012), the current study expands the literature by providing empirical support for how perceived brand equity (as conceptualized in brand knowledge, consisting of brand awareness and brand image) impacts consumers' attitudes toward global apparel brands in two cross-cultural samples of young adult consumers. These findings also extend the current literature by demonstrating the application of brand resonance in association with the fashion and apparel product category as an ideal construct for demonstrating the strong association that consumers hold toward their apparel purchases (Kim, 2012). As Keller (2012) stated, brand resonance can be viewed as a top-tier behavioral outcome indicative of an optimal consumer-brand relationship.

Managerial Implications

Managerially, the current investigation contributes to marketers' practices in developing proper messaging for consumers in culturally different nations. Specifically, the current dissertation provides empirical evidence for global brand managers to better develop marketing strategies targeting young consumers in the United States and Thailand. As we have denoted previously, the United States and Thailand provide vital markets for global apparel brands, specifically when targeting young consumer segments. The current study provides a more complete understanding for global brand managers to develop communication strategies focusing on socialization agents (i.e., parents, peers, and media). For example, when targeting young American consumers, cosmopolitan

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images should be the focus in the communication vehicle. Also, among young Thai consumers, parents and peers are key influencers. Messages should promote more association or identification with a global consumer culture for both young American and Thai consumer. Cohen (2009) argues that these global associations show strong prevalence among Thai young consumers as they attempt to connect with a wider modern world.

Furthermore, the current study provides confirmation for the importance of positive brand equity (i.e., brand knowledge) as it enhances consumers' attitudes toward global apparel brands and brand resonance. Interestingly, the model provides variations across two national settings. That is, young American consumers tended to show an internalization of perceived brand equity via attitudinal changes, while young Thai consumers show only an attitudinal adjustment for brand images with sequential behavior changes occurring. Such difference suggests the importance of marketing messages for young Thai consumer segments. Findings suggest that marketers should pay specific attention to the social context in which the message is presented when directed towards young Thai consumers. Images should promote social and family harmony as young Thai consumers are drawing from these images and their contextual meanings to determine their behavioral reactions.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study contains a few limitations. First, the respondents were from one city in each country; thus, they represent only one specific demographic group in the United States and Thailand. In addition, drawing from university students allowed more

comparable samples across nations, but it also provides limitations related to the generalization of findings. Thus, the findings of this study may vary if data were collected from different areas or among different respondent groups. For future studies, a random selection of consumers across multiple geographic locations is suggested to provide more generalized results. In addition, as participants in the current investigation were aged between 18 and 24 years old, future investigations of younger consumers (aged between 15 and 17 years old) or older (e.g., Generation X) would provide additional insights into the formation of acculturation to a global consumer culture.

Second, the current study used a specific list of global sportswear brands. While intensive efforts were made to develop a list of generally acceptable brand names, future studies may utilize a list of different global apparel brands. In addition, the current study focuses on a specific product category (i.e., global sportswear brands). Sportswear was specifically chosen as to provide an ideal product category to test the antecedents and effects of a global consumer culture. However, future investigations might consider different product categories for examinations.

Lastly, this study collected data from two nations (the United States and Thailand). These countries were selected for the specific purpose of examining the model in two distinctly different cultural settings (i.e., collectivist vs. individualistic). Future replications might consider different nations to compare as to provide additional results from a broader range of national contexts.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

(ENGLISH VERSION)

My name is Phillip Frank and I am a graduate student majoring in Consumer Apparel Retail Studies at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. I am conducting research to better understand consumers' attitudes and behaviors toward global apparel brands. Thus, your input is very important to our study and is greatly appreciated.

You are invited to voluntarily participate in this study. Please take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete this survey. Please remember that there are no right or wrong answers to the questions. Your answers will be kept confidential. If you decide to participate in this study, you are agreeing that you are at least 18 years old and can read English. You are allowed to work at your own pace. You may stop filling this survey at any time you feel uncomfortable. There is no risk or benefit to you by participating in this study.

Thank you in advance for your participation. If you have any questions, please feel free to ask the researchers. We would be glad to assist you. In addition, if you have any questions concerning your rights as a research subject, you may contact the University of North Carolina at Greensboro Institutional Review Board at 1-336-256-1482. Thank you again, for your time as we greatly appreciate your input.

Sincerely,

Phillip M. Frank
Ph.D. Student
Dept. of Consumer, Apparel, and Retail Studies
The Bryan School of Business and Economics
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
Greensboro, NC 27402
Tel: (336) 225-4449
Email: pmfrank@uncg.edu

Kittichai (Tu) Watchravesringkan, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Dept. of Consumer, Apparel, & Retail Studies
The Bryan School of Business and Economics
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
Greensboro, NC 27402
Tel: 336-256-2474
Email: k_watchr@uncg.edu

Section 1: Exposure to Global Cultures

Please circle the number that best fits how well each the following statements apply to you.

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1.	I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I like to learn about other ways of life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their unique views and approaches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I like to try restaurants that offer food that is different from that in my own culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I like to observe people of other cultures, to see what I can learn from them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I find people from other countries stimulating.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I enjoy trying foreign foods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	When traveling, I like to immerse myself in the culture of the people I am visiting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Coming into contact with people of other cultures has greatly benefited me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	When it comes to trying new things, I am very open.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	When I am watching TV, I often see advertising for products that are from outside my country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Ads for foreign or global products are everywhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	In my city, there are many billboards and advertising for products that are from outside my country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	It is quite common to see ads for foreign or global products in local media.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	When I read a newspaper, I come across many advertisements for foreign or global products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	The magazines that I read are full of ads for foreign or global products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	When I am watching TV, it seems that the number of advertisements for foreign brands is quite high, when compared to the number of advertisements for local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I often watch TV programming with advertisements from outside my country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	When shopping, I am often exposed to foreign or global brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Many of the TV commercial I see are placed by multinational companies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	If I had the chance to vacation, I would prefer to travel in my home country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I prefer spending my vacations outside of the country that I live in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Visiting foreign countries is one of my favorite things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I often think about going to different countries and doing some traveling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
26.	I have thus far visited 1 or more foreign countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	I feel at home in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	I enjoy watching foreign films at the theatre.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	I enjoy watching movies that are in a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	I enjoy listening to music that is popular in foreign countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	Some of my favorite actors/actresses are from foreign films.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	I like the way people dress in foreign countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	In general, I do not like foreign television programs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	I like to read magazines that contain information about popular foreign celebrities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	I enjoy reading foreign magazines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	I often watch foreign television programs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	I think people my age are basically the same around the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	I think that my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my age-group in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	I think my lifestyle is almost the same as that of people of my social class in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	When traveling abroad, I appreciate being able to find other culture's products and restaurants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	I would rather live like people do in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	The way that I dress is influenced by the advertising activities of foreign or global companies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	I pay attention to the fashion worn by people in my age-group that live in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	Advertising by foreign or global brands has a strong influence on my clothing choices.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	I like reading magazines about fashion, décor, and trends in other countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	I try to pattern my lifestyle, way of dressing, etc. to be a global consumer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	I prefer to wear clothing that I think is popular in many countries around the world rather than clothes traditionally worn in my own country.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	I actively seek to buy products that are not only thought of as 'local.'	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	I identify with famous international brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	I feel very comfortable speaking in a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	I often speak a foreign language with family and friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	I speak a second language regularly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53.	Many of my favorite shows on TV are in a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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54.	My parents and I always communicate in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	Many of the textbooks and articles that I read are in a foreign language.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56.	I prefer to watch foreign language television than any other language I may speak.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 2: Socialization Influences

Please circle the number that represents how well each the following statements apply to you.

In general, …	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I rarely purchase the latest products until I am sure my friends approve of them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. It is important that my friends approve of the stores I shop at.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I am very loyal to stores where my friends shop.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. If I want to be like my friends, I always buy the brands they buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I work long hours and save to afford the things my friends buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I feel a sense of belonging by buying the same brands my friends buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. My friends very much influence my choices in shopping.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I regularly ask my friends about the latest fashions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I always talk to friends about prices and quality of products before I buy them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. To make sure I buy the right product, I often watch what my friends buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. My friends always talk to me about ads before I buy anything	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I always purchase the same products and brands that my parents purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. My parents come with me when I purchase apparel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. What, where and which brands I buy are very much influenced by my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I always shop with my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. My parents decide all of my shopping needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I never buy any new product until my parents and I discuss it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. When I do not understand prices and quality, I ask my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I often discuss my purchase plans with my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I buy only those products and brands that are advertised on TV, Radio, Print, or the Internet.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Advertisements determine what brands I will buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I continue buying the same brands as long as my favorite celebrity uses them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I always consider the media when deciding the best products/ brands to buy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I always look for ads before I buy something.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I tend to search for product information through newspaper, magazines, and television sources.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I tend to search for product information online (i.e. social networking websites, company websites, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3: Media Usage

On average, how many hours do you spend per <u>week</u> using the following media sources?

		0	1-5 <u>Hours</u>	5-10 Hours	10-15 Hours	15 – 20 Hours	20 – 25 Hours	More than 25 Hours
1.	T.V.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Radio	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Newspaper or Magazines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Books	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Internet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Mobile Phone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	IPod/MP3 Player	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Tablet/Kindle etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Other (Please List): _____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 4: Global Apparel Brands – Sport Wears

Please read the definition of global apparel brands (see below) and answer the following questions.

Global apparel brands are typically defined as, "apparel brands which are available in most countries worldwide, have a uniform positioning and image worldwide and are perceived by consumers as being 'global'"

1. Based on the definition of global apparel brands provided above, which of the followings do you think should be classified as "**global brands for sport wears**" category? (Check all that apply)

_____ Nike   _____ Adidas   _____ Reebok

_____ New Balance   _____ Puma

2. Do you personally own any of the brands mentioned above?

_____ No; please go to question # 4

_____ Yes (please list which brand: _____) and answer question # 3.

3. If you answer "yes" in the above question (#2), please mark (X) how satisfied you are with your experience from owning that specific global apparel brand(s).

Unsatisfied   _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____   Satisfied

4. If you answer "no" in question #2, which brand(s) you would like to purchase in the future? (i.e., Nike, Adidas, Reebok, New Balance, or Puma). Please list the name of the brand(s): _____

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Section 5: Attitudes toward Global Apparel Brands

Among these (7) brands of sports apparel (i.e. **Nike, Adidas, Reebok, New Balance, and Puma**), which brand do you like the most (<u>Answer Only One Brand Name</u>): _____

Then, please keep in mind the brand of sport wears you just mentioned above when answering the following questions.

Overall, my attitudes toward this global apparel brand are (please mark X):

Bad	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Good
Negative	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Positive
Unpleasant	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Pleasant
Unfavorable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Favorable
Unreliable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Reliable

Please circle the number that represents the extent to which each of the following statements apply to you.

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1.	I prefer to buy this apparel brand over alternative local choice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I consider myself to be loyal to this apparel brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I am willing to recommend this apparel brand to my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I am used to this apparel brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	This apparel brand would be my first choice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I will not buy other brands if this apparel brand is available at the store.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	The likely quality of this apparel brand is extremely high.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	This brand has high quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Compared to other apparel brands, this apparel brand is of high quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	The apparel brand is the best in its product class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I can recognize this apparel brand among other competing brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I am aware of this apparel brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
13.	This brand is very famous.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	This brand has a very good/high image.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	This brand really makes me look good in front of my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	This apparel brand helps me express my personality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Some characteristics of this brand come to mind quickly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Even if another brand has the same features as this apparel brand, I still would prefer to buy this brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	If another brand is not different from this apparel brand in any way, it seems smarter to purchase this apparel brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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21.	It makes sense to buy this apparel brand instead of any other brand even if they are the same.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I trust the company which makes this apparel brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	I like the company which makes this apparel brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I would feel proud to own products from the company which makes this apparel brand.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	There are reasons to buy this apparel brand over competitors in this nature.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 6: General Attitudes toward Global Brands – Sport Wears

Please circle the number that represents the extent to which each the following statements apply to you regarding your overall impressions of **all "global sport wears brands."**

In general, global brands that are sport wears, …..	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. … are basically the same everywhere.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. … are more powerful than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. … dominate local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. … have higher quality than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. … do not have high quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. … are a safer choice than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. … are more up-to-date than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. … offer better value than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. … are more predictable than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. … are more expensive than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. … are more exciting than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. … are more stylish than other brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. … are more prestigious than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. … have more status than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. … are less intimate than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. … are less personal than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. … are more ethical than local brands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. … are particularly concerned about the environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. … have a unique aura.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Your gender: _____ Male _____ Female

2. Your age: _____

3. What is your average monthly gross income (including scholarships, earnings, allowances, and etc.)?

___ Under $500   ___ $500 - $749   ____$750 – $999

___ $1,000 - $1,499   ___$1,500 – $1,999   ___ $2,000 or more

4. Year at school:

___ Freshman   ___ Sophomore   ___ Junior   ___ Senior

5. Ethnicity   _____

6. How many siblings do you have?   _____

☺ **THANK YOU VERY MUCH** ☺

APPENDIX B

SURVERY QUESTIONNAIRE

(THAI VERSION)

THE UNIVERSITY of NORTH CAROLINA
GREENSBORO

     ผมนายฟิลลิป แฟรงค์ นิสิตปริญญาเอกสาขา Consumer Apparel และ Retail Studies มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เมืองกรีนส์โบโร ประเทศสหรัฐอเมริกา กำลังทำงานวิจัยเกี่ยวกับทัศนคติและพฤติกรรมของผู้บริโภคต่อเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์ต่างประเทศ เนื่องจากความเห็นของท่านมีความสำคัญเป็นอย่างยิ่งต่อการวิจัยครั้งนี้

     ท่านได้รับเชิญให้ตอบแบบสอบถามฉบับนี้ โดยการตอบแบบสอบถามจะใช้เวลาประมาณ 10 ถึง 15 นาที
คำตอบของท่านจะไม่มีผิดหรือถูก และข้อมูลที่ของท่านจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับ
หากท่านตกลงตอบแบบสอบถามแสดงว่าท่านมีอายุ 18 ปีหรือมากกว่าและสามารถอ่านภาษาอังกฤษได้
ท่านสามารถตอบคำถามได้อย่างเสรีโดยสามารถหยุดได้ทันทีที่ต้องการ
ซึ่งการตอบแบบสอบถามในครั้งนี้ไม่มีความเสี่ยงต่อท่านแต่อย่างใด

     ขอขอบคุณล่วงหน้าสำหรับความร่วมมือของท่าน หากท่านมีข้อสงสัยใดๆ กรุณาสอบถามนักวิจัย
นักวิจัยยินดีที่จะตอบทุกข้อสงสัย นอกจากนี้หากท่านมีข้อสงสัยเกี่ยวกับสิทธิในฐานะผู้ถูกศึกษา
ท่านสามารถติดต่อสำนักงานวิจัย มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เมืองกรีนส์โบโร ที่เบอร์โทร 1-336-256-1482
ขอขอบคุณเป็นอย่างยิ่งอีกครั้งในความร่วมมือ

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

ฟิลลิป แฟรงค์

ดร.กิตติชัย วัชรเวชศริงคาร

นักศึกษาปริญญาเอก

รองศาสตราจารย์

สาขา Consumer Apparel และ Retail Studies

Consumer Apparel และ Retail Studies

มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เมืองกรีนส์โบโร

มหาวิทยาลัยนอร์ทแคโรไลนา เมืองกรีนส์โบโร

โทร 336-334-5250

โทร 336-256-2474

Emails: pmfrank@uncg.edu

Email: k_watchr@uncg.edu

กรุณาทำเครื่องหมายวงกลมรอบตัวเลขที่ตรงกับความเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด

	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง						**เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง**
1. ฉันสนใจที่จะเรียนรู้เกี่ยวกับคนที่อาศัยในประเทศอื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ฉันชอบที่จะเรียนรู้การดำเนินชีวิตแบบอื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ฉันพอใจในการอยู่ร่วมกับคนที่มาจากต่างประเทศ เพื่อที่จะได้เรียนรู้มุมมองและการปฏิบัติที่แตกต่าง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ฉันชอบที่จะเข้าร้านอาหารและลองรับประทานอาหารชาติอื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ฉันรู้สึกสนุกในการแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดกับคนต่างชาติหรือคนที่มีวัฒนธรรมที่แตกต่าง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. ฉันชอบที่จะมองดูคนที่มาจากต่างวัฒนธรรม เพื่อดูว่าฉันสามารถเรียนรู้อะไรจากเขาบ้าง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. ฉันพบว่าคนที่มาจากต่างประเทศเป็นแรงกระตุ้นสำหรับฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. ฉันพอใจที่จะลองรับประทานอาหารต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. ขณะท่องเที่ยว ฉันชอบที่จะฝังตัวอยู่กับวัฒนธรรมของคนท้องถิ่นนั้นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. การเข้ามาของคนต่างวัฒนธรรมเป็นประโยชน์อย่างยิ่งต่อฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. เมื่อถึงเวลา ฉันเป็นคนเปิดรับที่จะลองสิ่งใหม่ๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. ขณะดูทีวี ฉันมักจะเห็นโฆษณาสินค้าจากต่างประเทศบ่อยๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. โฆษณาสินค้าต่างประเทศมีอยู่ทุกที่	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. เมืองที่ฉันอยู่มีป้ายโฆษณากลางแจ้งและโฆษณาสินค้าต่างประเทศมากมาย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. ค่อนข้างเป็นเรื่องธรรมดาที่จะเห็นโฆษณาสินค้าต่างประเทศในสื่อประเทศไทย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. เมื่อฉันอ่านหนังสือพิมพ์ ฉันเห็นโฆษณาสินค้าต่างประเทศมากมาย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. นิตยสารที่ฉันอ่านเต็มไปด้วยโฆษณาสินค้าต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. เมื่อฉันดูทีวี ดูเหมือนโฆษณาสินค้าต่างประเทศจะมีมากกว่าโฆษณาสินค้าในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. ฉันดูรายการทีวีที่มีโฆษณาสินค้าต่างประเทศบ่อยๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. เมื่อฉันหาซื้อสินค้า ฉันมันจะเจอสินค้าต่างประเทศบ่อยๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. โฆษณาทางทีวีที่ฉันเห็นเป็นโฆษณาจากบริษัทข้ามชาติ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. ถ้าฉันได้ลาพักร้อน ฉันเลือกที่จะเที่ยวภายในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
23.	ฉันเลือกที่จะพักร้อนในต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	ไปเที่ยวต่างประเทศคือหนึ่งในสิ่งที่ฉันชอบที่สุด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	ฉันนึกถึงการเดินทางและท่องเที่ยวในต่างประเทศบ่อยๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	ฉันเคยไปต่างประเทศอย่างน้อย 1 ประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	ฉันรู้สึกเหมือนอยู่บ้าน แม้จะอยู่ในประเทศอื่น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	ฉันพอใจที่จะดูหนังต่างประเทศที่ฉายในโรงหนัง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	ฉันพอใจที่จะดูหนังที่ใช้ภาษาต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	ฉันพอใจที่จะฟังเพลงฮิตในต่างประทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	ดาราบางคนที่ฉันชอบเป็นดาราต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	ฉันชอบการแต่งกายของคนต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	โดยทั่วไปฉันไม่ชอบรายการทีวีต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	ฉันชอบอ่านนิตยสารที่มีเนื้อหาเกี่ยวกับดาราหรือคนที่มีชื่อเสียงในต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	ฉันพอใจอ่านนิตยสารต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	ฉันดูรายการทีวีต่างประเทศบ่อยๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	ฉันคิดว่าคนวัยเดียวกับฉันมีความเหมือนกันทั่วโลก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	ฉันคิดว่าการดำเนินชีวิตของฉันเหมือนกันกับคนวัยเดียวกันในต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	ฉันคิดว่าการดำเนินชีวิตของฉันเหมือนกับคนต่างประเทศที่อยู่ในสังคมระดับเดียวกับฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	เมื่อเที่ยวในต่างประเทศ ฉันชอบที่สามารถหาสินค้าหรือร้านอาหารที่แตกต่างจากวัฒนธรรมไทย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41.	ฉันชอบที่จะใช้ชีวิตเหมือนคนในต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42.	การแต่งตัวของฉันได้รับอิทธิพลจากโฆษณาของบริษัทต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43.	ฉันสนใจเสื้อผ้าที่คนต่างประเทศรุ่นเดียวกับฉันใส่	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44.	โฆษณาสินค้าต่างประเทศมีผลต่อการเลือกเสื้อผ้าของฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45.	ฉันชอบอ่านนิตยสารที่มีเนื้อหาเกี่ยวกับแฟชั่น การตกแต่ง หรือเทรนด์ในต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46.	ฉันพยายามออกแบบการใช้ชีวิตและการแต่งตัวให้เหมือนกับคนในต่างประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47.	ฉันชอบที่จะสวมเสื้อผ้าที่เป็นที่นิยมทั่วโลกมากกว่าเสื้อผ้ารูปแบบเดิมที่ใส่กันในประเทศไทย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.	ฉันกระตือรือร้นที่จะหาซื้อสินค้าที่ไม่เป็นเพียงแค่สินค้า "ภายในประเทศ"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49.	แบรนด์ต่างประเทศที่เป็นที่นิยมบ่งบอกความเป็นตัวฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50.	ฉันรู้สึกสบายมากในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51.	ฉันพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับครอบครัวและเพื่อนบ่อยๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52.	ฉันพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นประจำ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
53.	รายการทีวีที่ฉันชอบหลายรายการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54.	ฉันไม่เคยใช้ภาษาอังกฤษสื่อสารกับพ่อแม่	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55.	หนังสือและบทความที่ฉันอ่านหลายฉบับเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56.	ฉันชอบที่จะดูรายการทีวีเป็นภาษาอังกฤษมากกว่าภาษาอื่นที่ฉันอาจพูดได้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ส่วนที่ 2: อิทธิพลทางสังคม

กรุณาทำเครื่องหมายวงกลมรอบตัวเลขที่ตรงกับความเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด.

โดยทั่วไป

		ม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1.	ฉันไม่ค่อยซื้อสินค้าแบบล่าสุด จนกว่าจะมั่นใจว่าเพื่อนๆ ยอมรับมัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	มันเป็นสิ่งสำคัญที่เพื่อนๆ ต้องยอมรับในร้านค้าที่ฉันซื้อเสื้อผ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	ฉันภักดีต่อร้านที่เพื่อนๆ ซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	ฉันต้องการเป็นเหมือนเพื่อน ฉันมักจะซื้อแบรนด์ที่เพื่อนซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	ฉันทำงานมากขึ้นเพื่อที่จะสามารถซื้อสิ่งที่เพื่อนซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	ฉันรู้สึกเป็นส่วนหนึ่งในกลุ่มเมื่อซื้อแบรนด์เหมือนที่เพื่อนซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	เพื่อนของฉันมีอิทธิพลต่อการเลือกซื้อสินค้าของฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	ฉันมักจะถามเพื่อนๆ เป็นประจำเกี่ยวกับแฟชั่นล่าสุด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	ฉันคุยกับเพื่อนเกี่ยวกับราคาและคุณภาพของสินค้าก่อนที่จะซื้อเสมอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	เพื่อความมั่นใจในการซื้อสินค้าที่เหมาะสม ฉันจะมองที่เพื่อนซื้อบ่อยๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	เพื่อนของฉันมักจะบอกฉันเกี่ยวกับโฆษณาก่อนที่ฉันจะซื้อของต่างๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	ฉันมักจะซื้อสินค้าเหมือนที่พ่อแม่ฉันซื้อ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	พ่อแม่มาซื้อเสื้อผ้าด้วยกันกับฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	ไม่ว่าจะเป็นแบรนด์อะไร ซื้อที่ไหน พ่อแม่จะมีอิทธิพลต่อฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	ฉันมักจะไปซื้อสินค้ากับพ่อแม่เสมอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	พ่อแม่จะเป็นคนตัดสินใจว่าฉันควรซื้ออะไร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	ฉันไม่เคยซื้อสินค้าใหม่จนกว่าจะได้คุยกับพ่อแม่ก่อน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	ฉันมักจะถามพ่อกับแม่เมื่อฉันไม่เข้าใจในราคาและคุณภาพ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	ฉันจะคุยกับพ่อแม่เกี่ยวกับแผนในการซื้อสินค้าบ่อยๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	ฉันซื้อสินค้าเฉพาะที่โฆษณาตามทีวี วิทยุ สิ่งพิมพ์หรืออินเตอร์เน็ต	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	โฆษณาสามารถบอกได้ว่าฉันซื้อแบรนด์ไหน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	ฉันจะซื้อแบรนด์เดิมๆ ตราบใดที่ดาราที่ฉันชอบโฆษณาแบรนด์นั้น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	ฉันมักจะใช้สื่อในการตัดสินใจซื้อสินค้าหรือแบรนด์ที่ดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	ฉันมักจะมองหาโฆษณาก่อนที่จะซื้อสินค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	ฉันตั้งใจหาข้อมูลสินค้าตามหนังสือพิมพ์ นิตยสาร และทีวี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	ฉันตั้งใจหาข้อมูลสินค้าทางออนไลน์ (เช่น สังคมออนไลน์ เว็บไซต์ของบริษัท และอื่นๆ)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

โดยเฉลี่ยในหนึ่งสัปดาห์ ท่านใช้เวลากี่ชั่วโมงในในการใช้สื่อเหล่านี้

		0	1-5 ชม.	5-10 ชม.	10-15 ชม.	15 – 20 ชม.	20 – 25 ชม.	มากกว่า 25 ชม.
1.	โทรทัศน์	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	วิทยุ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	หนังสือพิมพ์หรือนิตยสาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	หนังสือ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	อินเตอร์เน็ต	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	อินเตอร์เน็ตผ่านมือถือ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	IPod หรือเครื่องเล่น MP3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Tablet/Kindle หรืออื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ): _____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

กรุณาอ่านคำนิยามของแบรนด์เสื้อผ้าต่างประเทศ (ด้านล่าง) และตอบคำถามต่อไปนี้
**โดยปกติแบรนด์เสื้อผ้าต่างประเทศหมายถึง "แบรนด์เสื้อผ้าที่มีขายในต่างประเทศทั่วโลก
มีตำแหน่งทางการตลาดและภาพลักษณ์เหมือนกัน ผู้บริโภครับรู้ความเป็นสากล"**

1. คำนิยามข้างต้น ข้อใดต่อไปนี้ที่จัดเป็น **"แบรนด์ต่างประเทศ สำหรับชุดกีฬา"** (สามารถเลือกได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)
_____ Nike _____ Adidas _____ Reebok
_____ New Balance _____ Puma

2. ท่านเป็นเจ้าของแบรนด์ข้างต้นหรือไม่?
_____ ไม่; ไปที่คำถามข้อ # 4
_____ ใช่ (กรุณาระบุแบรนด์: _____) และตอบคำถามข้อ # 3.

3. หากท่านตอบว่า "ใช่" ในคำถามข้างต้น (#2) กรุณาทำเครื่องหมาย (X) บ่งบอกความพึงพอใจในการเป็นเจ้าของแบรนด์เสื้อผ้าดังกล่าว
ไม่พึงพอใจ _____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____ พึงพอใจ

4. If หากท่านตอบว่า "ไม่" ในคำถามข้อที่ #2 แบรนด์ใดบ้างที่ท่านตั้งใจจะซื้อในอนาคต? (เช่น Nike, Adidas, Reebok, New Balance และ Puma). กรุณาระบุชื่อแบรนด์: _____

ในจำนวน 7 แบรนด์ของชุดกีฬา (เช่น **Nike, Adidas, Reebok, New Balance, Puma**) แบรนด์ใดที่ท่านชอบมากที่สุด (<u>ระบุเพียง 1</u>
<u>แบรนด์</u>): _____

<u>จากนั้น กรุณานึกถึงแบรนด์ชุดกีฬาที่ท่านตอบข้างต้น ขณะตอบคำถามต่อไปนี้</u>

โดยภาพรวม ทัศนคติของฉันที่มีต่อแบรนด์นี้คือ (กรุณาทำเครื่องหมาย X):

ไม่ดี	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	ดี
เป็นลบ	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	เป็นบวก
ไม่น่าพอใจ	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	น่าพอใจ
ไม่น่าชื่นชอบ	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	น่าชื่นชอบ
ไม่น่าเชื่อถือ	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	น่าเชื่อถือ

กรุณาทำเครื่องหมายวงกลมรอบตัวเลขที่ตรงกับความเห็นของท่านมากที่สุด

		<u>ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง</u>						<u>เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง</u>
1.	ฉันชอบที่จะซื้อเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้มากกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	ฉันคิดว่าตัวเองเป็นลูกค้าที่ภักดีต่อเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	ฉันจะแนะนำเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้กับเพื่อน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	ฉันคุ้นเคยกับเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	เสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้เป็นตัวเลือกแรกของฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	ฉันจะไม่ซื้อแบรนด์อื่นหากมีแบรนด์นี้ขายในร้าน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	แบรนด์นี้มีคุณภาพเป็นที่น่าเชื่อถือระดับสูงมาก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	แบรนด์นี้มีคุณภาพสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	เมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับแบรนด์อื่นๆ แบรนด์นี้มีคุณภาพสูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	แบรนด์นี้เป็นแบรนด์ที่ดีที่สุดในสินค้าประเภทเดียวกัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	ฉันสามารถจำแบรนด์นี้ได้ท่ามกลางแบรนด์เสื้อผ้าอื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	ฉันรับรู้ในแบรนด์นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	แบรนด์นี้เป็นแบรนด์ที่มีชื่อเสียง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	แบรนด์นี้มีภาพลักษณ์ที่ดีมาก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	แบรนด์นี้ทำให้ฉันดูดีสายตาเพื่อน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
16.	แบรนด์นี้ช่วยแสดงความเป็นตัวตนของฉัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	ฉันสามารถนึกถึงสัญลักษณ์หรือเครื่องหมายของแบรนด์นี้ได้อย่างรวดเร็ว	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	ลักษณะเฉพาะบางอย่างของแบรนด์นี้เข้ามาอยู่ในใจฉันอย่างรวดเร็ว	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	แม้ว่าแบรนด์อื่นจะมีรูปแบบเหมือนแบรนด์นี้ ฉันก็ยังเลือกที่จะซื้อแบรนด์นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	ถ้าแบรนด์อื่นไม่ได้แตกต่างอย่างใดอย่างหนึ่งจากเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้ การซื้อแบรนด์นี้เป็นทางเลือกที่ฉลาด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	มันสมเหตุสมผลที่จะซื้อเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้แทนที่จะซื้อแบรนด์อื่น แม้ว่าจะเหมือนๆ กัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	ฉันเชื่อถือในบริษัทที่ผลิตเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	ฉันชอบบริษัทที่ผลิตเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	ฉันรู้สึกภูมิใจที่จะเป็นเจ้าของสินค้าจากบริษัทที่ผลิตเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	ฉันมีเหตุผลที่จะซื้อเสื้อผ้าแบรนด์นี้มากกว่าเสื้อผ้าของแบรนด์คู่แข่ง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ส่วนที่ 6: ทัศนคติทั่วไปเกี่ยวกับตราสินค้าต่างประเทศ-ชุดกีฬา

กรุณาทำเครื่องหมายวงกลมรอบตัวเลขที่ตรงกับความเห็นของท่าน ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับภาพรวมของความประทับใจในแบรนด์
"ชุดกีฬาต่างประเทศทั้งหมด"

โดยทั่วไป แบรนด์ชุดกีฬาต่างประเทศ.....	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1. ... โดยพื้นฐานเหมือนกันทุกที่	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. ... มีอิทธิพลเหนือแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. ... ครอบงำแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. ... มีคุณภาพสูงกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. ... มีคุณภาพไม่สูง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. ... เป็นทางเลือกที่ปลอดภัยกว่าการเลือกแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. ... ทันสมัยมากกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. ... เสนอคุณค่ามากกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. ... สามารถคาดการณ์ได้มากกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. ... ราคาแพงกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. ... น่าตื่นเต้นกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. ... เก๋ ทันสมัยกว่าแบรนด์อื่น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. ... มีชื่อเสียงเป็นที่ยอมรับมากกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง						เห็นด้วยอย่ างยิ่ง
14.	... มีสถานะภาพสูงกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	... มีความคุ้นเคยน้อยกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	... มีความเฉพาะตัวน้อยกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	... มีจริยธรรมมากกว่าแบรนด์ในประเทศ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	... มีรัศมีของความแตกต่าง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	... มีรัศมีของความเป็นเอกลักษณ์	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ส่วนที่ 6: ลักษณะทางประชากรศาสตร์

1. เพศของท่าน: _____ ชาย _____ หญิง

2. อายุของท่าน: _____

3. รายรับต่อเดือน (รวมทุนการศึกษา รายได้จากการทำงาน เบี้ยเลี้ยง และอื่นๆ)

___ น้อยกว่า 15,000   ___ 15,000 – 22,499   ___ 22,500 – 29,999

___ 30,000 – 44,999   ___ 45,000 – 59,999   ___ 60,000 หรือมากกว่า

4. ชั้นปีที่ศึกษา:

___ ปีหนึ่ง   ___ ปีสอง   ___ ปีสาม   ___ ปีสี่

5. เชื้อชาติ   _____

6. จำนวนพี่น้องที่มี   _____

☺ **ขอบคุณมากครับ** ☺