

WHEN IS IT NECESSARY TO LOCALISE THE PACKAGING OF FOREIGN BRANDS IN NON-WESTERN MARKETS?

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I finish with “Alhamdulillah”

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I declare that:

This thesis presents work carried out by myself and does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any university. To the best of my knowledge, it does not contain any materials previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text. All substantive contributions by others to the work presented, including jointly authored publications, is clearly acknowledged. Edit 911 editing service edited this thesis, and editorial intervention was restricted to the Australian Standards for Editing Practice. Sections of this thesis have already been published in conference proceedings, in the ANZMAC conference and ANZMAC doctoral proceedings 2014. Some part of this thesis is also published in Journal of Product and Brand Management in 2015.

_____

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

As international marketers seek to find ways to influence consumer behaviour across cultures, an ongoing debate is whether marketing approaches should be localised as international brands enter foreign markets (Eckhardt, 2005; Fastoso & Whitelock, 2012; Okazaki, 2004). While extant research has offered practical evidence to support international marketers strategising their marketing communication activities in culturally and linguistically different countries, these studies primarily concern the effects of advertising (Akaka & Alden, 2010; De Mooij, 2010; Pagani, Goldsmith, & Perracchio, 2015; Xie & Zhang, 2013; Yap & Yazdanifard, 2014). Hardly any empirical studies have examined the effects of localising or standardising a brand's packaging, and yet the communicative role of packaging plays an important role in influencing consumer decisions (Baruk & Iwanicka, 2015; Luis Méndez, Oubiña, & Rubio, 2011; Steenkamp, 1990; Van Tonder & Mulder, 2015; Venter, van der Merwe, de Beer, Kempen, & Bosman, 2011).

To address this key gap, this thesis examines whether localising a foreign product's packaging would enhance its effectiveness in influencing consumers' attitude and choice, particularly with non-Western consumers. Over four empirical studies and across two countries, it examines non-Western consumers' attitudinal preference and behavioural choice of localised versus standard packaging of identical products. Generalisations of the findings are achieved using food and non-food products, as well as hedonic and utilitarian products. This thesis also enhances external validity by using real brands and conducting an in store experiment in a supermarket. To further illuminate these findings from the four studies, it reports the views and practices, obtained through in depth interviews, of ten brand managers of reputable global brands.

The four studies were completed in two culturally and linguistically distinct non-Western countries, China and Pakistan. Study 1 was conducted in Pakistan to determine whether consumers' preference for standard versus localised packaging differs for varying product types (hedonic versus utilitarian). Pakistani university

students (n=370) rated their likeability for standard versus localised packaging via a paper-based survey. The brands used were popular Western brands of food products that consumers were highly familiar with (i.e., strong brands).

In addition to checking for consistencies in the results of Study 1, Study 2 extended Study 1 by addressing the question whether consumers' familiarity with particular brands (strong versus weak brands) makes any difference to their preference for standard versus localised packaging. Like Study 1, Study 2 was also undertaken in Pakistan but this time using a mall-intercept design to survey consumers across a wider demographic cohort rather than just students. Participants answered the same paper-based questionnaire as Study 1 (n=371), but to enhance generalisability, the survey included both food and non-food products.

Study 3 was conducted in China to determine whether the results in Pakistan would hold in another non-Western country with a different language and culture. A reputable panel provided the participants for an online survey (n=383). Similar to the previous two studies, this study tested for consumers' preferences for standard and localised packaging for both product types (hedonic versus utilitarian) and brand familiarity (strong versus weak brands) of food and non-food products. However, Study 3 extended the previous studies in two ways. First, there was the additional use of discrete choice experiments (DCE). The combination of attitudinal ratings of packaging likability along with stated choice data increases the predictive validity of the model for consumers' preferences (Carlsson & Martinsson, 2001; Eom & Larson, 2006). The DCE also included price as a variable in order to determine whether price is a determining factor in consumer choice of packaging type. Second, Study 3 included individual psychological dispositions (fun-seeking and quality consciousness) in order to determine whether these individual variables moderate consumers' preference for standard versus localised packaging.

The final study of this thesis, Study 4, was an in-store experiment carried out in a supermarket in China by randomly approaching shoppers in the supermarket (n=130). The objective of this study is to uncover answers regarding how consuming products under conspicuous versus inconspicuous situations may moderate the preference of standard versus localised packaging. Actual products in different packaging were displayed on shelves. Experimental manipulations randomly put

shoppers into one of two consumption conditions (conspicuous versus inconspicuous). Price manipulations were incorporated at the store shelves to add complexity of the DCE design. This enables Study 4 to determine whether standard packaging may command a price premium over a localised packaging, as well as whether this premium differs across consumption situations.

The findings of the first two studies in Pakistan consistently show that localisation of packaging in Pakistan is not effective for hedonic products, since consumers liked these products more in standard packaging. However, for utilitarian products, packaging type does not make any difference to consumers' likability. Study 2 further shows that the results—packaging type matters only for hedonic products—hold for both food and non-food products. It also shows that brand familiarity (strong versus weak brand) makes no difference to consumer's preference of packaging type.

Even though China is distinct from Pakistan from a cultural and language perspective, Study 3 in China shows Chinese consumers behaved in similar ways compared to Pakistan consumers. They too favoured standard packaging over localised packaging, but only for hedonic products and regardless of brand familiarity. Furthermore, the DCE results reveal that packaging is the most important attribute for choice decisions, followed by price, and least by brand familiarity. Study 4 replicates these results regarding stated choice behaviour, which provides confirmation for the preference and choice of standard packaging, specifically for strong hedonic brands.

Regarding the influence of psychological disposition (fun-seeking and quality consciousness) in Study 3, the findings suggest that for hedonic products, consumers who are more fun-seeking tend to prefer standard packaging even more. The choice results are also consistent with the attitudinal results; whereby high fun-seekers chose the standard packaging more often. By contrast, for utilitarian products, while consumers who are more quality conscious rated the standard packaging higher, they did not necessarily pick the standard packaging during the discrete choice procedure. That is, what the participants reported could differ from what they actually chose. Therefore, the result for the influence of quality consciousness on packaging-type preference is inconclusive.

The China in-store experiment of Study 4 finds that consumers not only liked, but also chose, standard packaging over the localised packaging regardless of whether the products are for conspicuous or inconspicuous consumption. However, consumers' preference (likability and choice) of standard packaging is greater under conspicuous than under inconspicuous situation. Interestingly, a noteworthy finding of Study 4 is the effect of price premiums under conspicuous and inconspicuous situations on the preference of standard versus localised packaging. It appears that Chinese consumers are willing to pay more for standard packaging when they purchase for conspicuous consumption. Furthermore, the influence of fun-seeking tendencies is stronger under conspicuous consumption conditions, where high fun-seeking consumers are willing to pay an even greater price premium than low fun-seeking consumers. However, for inconspicuous consumption, high fun-seeking consumers prefer the standard packaging unless it is more expensive than the localised packaging, at which point the choice of packaging type makes no difference.

Overall, this thesis contributes to academic and applied research in several ways. While both advertising and packaging are forms of marketing communications, they differ across many aspects, particularly regarding how each medium influences consumer behaviour (Griffith et al. 2003). Hence, the primary academic contribution of this thesis is in extending research on the effects of localising marketing communications from an advertising to a packaging perspective. Another important academic contribution is that this thesis is well grounded and conceptually developed on multiple consumer behaviour and psychological theories. First, it applies and extends the use of signalling theory by Spence (1973) to packaging research. Secondly, this thesis draws on symbolism theory by Cooley (1902) and accessibility and diagnosticity theory by Feldman and Lynch (1988) to draw inferences for conceptual and hypothesis development.

The findings also provide useful guidelines for international brands in non-Western markets. It is clear from the in-depth interviews with the ten global Western brand managers that they believed that localisation is an important factor for gaining sales by enhancing competitiveness in foreign markets. The managers consistently asserted that packaging localisation makes their brands distinct and more

recognisable, especially in markets such as Pakistan and China where the main language is not English. However, all managers admitted that they *did not know* whether local consumers actually favour the localised packaging. It does appear from these thesis' findings that indiscriminately localising the packaging of any products may not be the most effective strategy. The findings of the studies cumulatively suggest that hedonic products do not benefit and may even suffer from localisation. Indeed, particularly with hedonic products, Western brands in standard packaging may even be priced at a premium compared to the localised packaging. For utilitarian products, the type of packaging does not make a difference. The findings also suggest that international marketers should be cognisant of the potential influence of individual psychological dispositions (fun-seeking and quality consciousness), and marketing communications messages should account for these differences with appropriate messages and imageries.

Finally, this thesis highlights some potential issues for future research. First, differences in socio-economic status may question whether the attitudes and behavioural patterns observed in the studies are generalisable across the whole population (Manrai, Lascu, & Manrai, 2000). Future studies may examine the perception of these societal clusters. Next, the findings can be further generalised by replicating this study in Western markets using imported non-Western products. Furthermore, comparison of foreign versus domestic brands in standard and localised packaging may also provide a new angle to this research stream.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Recent visits to 30 major supermarkets across multiple metropolises in China and Pakistan revealed an interesting phenomenon; the shelves were well stocked with major Western brands across different product categories, including the likes of Procter & Gamble (www.pg.com.cn) and Mars (www.mars.com/china/en). Furthermore, in both countries, virtually all the major Western brands are sold in packaging that is customised for the particular country. Throughout this thesis, the term 'localised packaging' refers to product packaging customised specifically for a country, whereas 'standard packaging' refers to the packaging that would typically appear in a Western English-speaking country. Figure 1 shows typical examples of the localised versus standard packaging of a Western brand.



Figure 1: Example of Standard and Localised packaging

As evident in the example, these modifications to the packaging are primarily for marketing reasons rather than for regulatory purposes, such as translations of ingredient labels. This study concerns only the former type of modifications.

In all observed cases of the products, such as with chocolate and shampoo, the physical containers of the products are similar to how they are sold in Western markets except that the brand names or descriptions, or both, are written in the local language. Figure 1 shows the *Coca Cola* brand written in Chinese and Urdu, for the Chinese and Pakistani market respectively. Ostensibly, localising the packaging of foreign products would allow domestic consumers to understand, recognise and relate to the products better, which in turn would enhance the products' competitiveness (Cleveland & Chang, 2009; De Mooij, 2010; Eckhardt, 2005; Jin, Yong Park, & Sang Ryu, 2010; Kaynak & Kara, 2002).

As developed Western markets reach maturity, international marketers naturally look to the vast and largely emerging non-Western markets for growth (Murray, Gao, Kotabe, & Zhou, 2007; Walters & Samiee, 2003). In support of localisation, advertising research suggests that symbolically customising marketing messages, such as using pictorial cues or languages, may reach local consumers better; the rationale is that if local consumers can identify with these symbolic cues, then they would be more inclined to buy the products (Laforet, 2011; Silayoi & Speece, 2007). For example, studies have shown that localising advertising messages to target linguistically different countries are effective (Akaka & Alden, 2010; De Mooij, 2010). Similarly, advertising research has alluded to the efficacy of using local models and representatives to influence consumers of similar ethnic background (D'Alessandro & Chitty, 2011; Forehand & Deshpandé, 2001; Zúñiga, 2015).

While both advertising and packaging are forms of marketing communication, they differ across many aspects, particularly regarding how each medium influences consumer behaviour (Griffith et al., 2003). It remains unclear how the findings in advertising research regarding localisation would apply to research into product packaging: where consumers often discern product quality from the packaging appearance, attesting to how important packaging is for forming positive or negative expectations about the product (Ragaert et al., 2004) as opposed to advertising which is not a part of product itself.

Therefore, these findings in support of localisation are not unequivocal. For example, Asian consumers have also been found to be insensitive to localisation and showed positive attitude towards the use of foreign models in advertising (Neelankavil et al. 1995). Another study found that when Chinese consumers are exposed to English language advertising as opposed to advertising in the native language, they perceive greater source honesty and show more positive attitude towards the brands (Toffoli & Laroche, 2002). Indeed, academics and international marketers have continued to grapple with the issue of whether or not foreign brands should localise their marketing strategies (Busnaina & Woodall, 2015; Checchinato, Colapinto, & Giusto, 2014; Eckhardt, 2005; Evirgen & Miracle, 2015; Fastoso & Whitelock, 2012; Nyukorong, 2014; Pagani et al., 2015; Rajabi et al., 2015; Rohn, 2015).

To understand this confounding issue better, interviews were conducted with five brand managers in charge of major Western brands in China, and five brand managers in Pakistan (on page 216, the interview findings are discussed in detail). All managers confirmed the 'normal and common' practice of packaging localisation, particularly in non-Western markets like China and Pakistan. They further stressed that localisation is important for export development and profit considerations. However, the managers unanimously acknowledged that they *do not know* whether local consumers actually prefer the localised packaging to the standard packaging. The managers also admitted that localising the brands' packaging might create multiple identities for the brand, consequently affecting its global identity or distinctiveness. Consistent with this argument, Dan Zhang (2014) contends that packaging modification reduces consumers' ability to recognise the brand, thereby leading to loss sales opportunities.

Because of these findings, it appears that actual market practices are not particularly aligned with research that shows that localisation may not necessarily work; or perhaps the confounding findings of advertising research do not apply to packaging, and hence by conventional wisdom, *all* products should still be localised. It therefore remains unclear whether or under what conditions foreign product packaging should be localised. Apparently, no studies have addressed this question empirically, but

research has established that packaging may be more important than advertising in influencing consumers, especially when packaging serves as the last point of communication with consumers before their actual purchase (Thomas, 2000). Research suggests that packaging attributes, cues such as colour, size and shape, can lead to differences in consumers' perceptions and brand evaluation (Clement, 2007; Clement, Kristensen, & Grønhaug, 2013; Littel & Orth, 2013), and the differences may be explained by cultural differences (Van den Berg-Weitzel & Van de Laar, 2001). Despite these studies establishing the effectiveness of cues in packaging, there have been no contributions regarding the differential effects of using foreign versus local symbolic cues on product packaging.

To address this gap, this thesis investigates whether the standardisation or localisation of product packaging of Western brands would indeed influence the effectiveness to non-Western consumers in terms of their attitude and behavioural choice towards the brands. Specifically, it examines how the influence of the two packaging types (standard versus localised) on consumer behaviour may differ under four conditions. The sections below discuss these conditions and their respective research questions.

1.1 Research Questions and Test Conditions

1.1.1 Condition 1: The Role of Hedonic Versus Utilitarian Products

Drawing on the distinction between hedonic and utilitarian products (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Shih-Tse Wang, 2015), some products may serve functional purposes, while others are more for pleasure than utility. Hedonic consumption often evokes emotive sensations, such as excitement or the feeling of fun derived from experiencing a product (Wakefield & Barnes, 1997; Woods, 1960). These products, such as chocolate and perfume, provide an experiential view relating to the affective responses elicited by a product (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). By contrast, consumers derive utilitarian values from the functions performed by utilitarian products such as laundry detergents and toothpaste (Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003).

Research has established that the effects on symbolic cues differ across product types (Leclerc, Schmitt, & Dubé, 1994; Solomon, 1983). Particularly with hedonic versus utilitarian products, prominent and attention grabbing cues are important for hedonic products (Van Rompay, de Vries, Bontekoe, & Tanja-Dijkstra, 2012; Ward & Loken, 1988). By contrast, such cues are less effective with utilitarian products because these products are evaluated more cognitively (Ryu, Park, & Feick, 2006). None of these studies, however, concerns packaging cues, and it is unknown if differences in consumer behaviour for hedonic and utilitarian products similarly apply to packaging. Furthermore, the country of origin (COO) cues for hedonic and utilitarian products may also cause differences in developing product perceptions. These cues enhance the brand equity of hedonic brands, but not for utilitarian ones (Yang, 2015). Therefore, it may be inferred that localisation with foreign imported brands may not be effective specially for hedonic products, as the consumption of such products itself symbolises ties with Westernisation for non-Western consumers. This thesis determines whether the effects of standardisation and localisation differ between hedonic or utilitarian products. Hence, the first research question of this thesis is as follows:

> *RQ1: How do consumers' preferences for standard versus localised packaging differ for varying product types (hedonic versus utilitarian)?*

1.1.2 Condition 2: The Role of Brand Familiarity

Literature on consumer information processing for varying strengths of brands has shown the influence of brand familiarity on consumer behaviour and attitudes (Alba & Marmorstein, 1987; Brucks, 1985; Hammerl, Dorner, Foscht, Brandstätter, & Biswas, 2016). Specifically, brand familiarity refers to consumers' knowledge about a brand in a particular category (Phau & Suntornnond, 2006). This knowledge is often based on how brands are compared on their product attributes and which brands acquire unique attributes in comparison to others in the same category (Baker, Hunt, & Scribner, 2002). Past research also relates brand familiarity with higher market share (Ehrenberg, Uncles, & Goodhardt, 2004). Hence, brands are often classified as strong or weak depending upon their familiarity (Aaker, 2012) and

market share (Ehrenberg et al., 2004). Subsequently, strong brands often enjoy higher levels of liking among consumers, which results in a bias for consumers' choice of these brands (Rindfleisch & Inman, 1998).

Studies on standardisation and localisation have shown diverging results for the effects of brand familiarity on communication messages. On one hand, it has been suggested that brand managers should use consistent and standard messaging for strongly familiar brands in order to stimulate positive consumer evaluations, and for weakly familiar brands in order to build associations and awareness of the brand (Delgado-Ballester, Navarro, & Sicilia, 2012). This implies that regardless of the brand familiarity, foreign marketers must adopt standardisation for its packaging. On the other hand, other research indicates, particularly when brand familiar is low, the communication cues have to be more creative to develop positive associations (Pae, Samiee, & Tai, 2002). Therefore, questions remain on the role of brand familiarity on the effects of standardisation strategies. Moreover, how these results are applicable to packaging of foreign brands is yet to be determined. The second research question addresses this issue. It does so by testing the role of brand familiarity for both hedonic and utilitarian products. Throughout this thesis, the term *strong brands* refer to brands that are high in familiarity and market share (e.g., M&M chocolate), and the term *weak brands* refer to brands that are low in familiarity and with low or no market share (e.g., Wonka chocolate).

> *RQ2: How do consumers' preferences for standard versus localised packaging differ for brands with varying familiarity (strong versus weak brands)?*

1.1.3 Condition 3: The Role of Psychological Dispositions: Fun-seeking and Quality Consciousness

Research has established that due to their individual psychological dispositions, consumers do not behave similarly when consuming products (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Hung & Mukhopadhyay, 2012; Swaminathan, Page, & Gürhan-Canli, 2007). Rather, consumers tend to seek congruence between their perceptions of the product and

their psychological dispositions (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Dolich, 1969; Hung & Mukhopadhyay, 2012). Specifically, consumers with fun-seeking tendencies usually seek products for affective brand experience (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Therefore, positive hedonic emotions such as fun-seeking influence the consumption of hedonic products (Zhong & Mitchell, 2010). Consequently, brand managers would induce the fun-seeking disposition of the consumers by making product cues more experiential for the consumer (Shaw, 2007).

By contrast, as consumers often analyse the attributes of functional products (Chattalas, Kramer, & Takada, 2008; Drolet, Williams, & Lau-Gesk, 2007), their quality consciousness may play an important role while purchasing utilitarian products (Bloch, 1995; Creusen & Schoormans, 2005; Dawar & Parker, 1994). Quality conscious consumers would search for cues that symbolise quality in products, by cognitively and rationally examining and comparing the product before making a purchase (Sprotles & Kendall, 1986). This is because the utility of utilitarian products is based on its perceived quality (Tsai, 2005), and quality-based beliefs about a product are found to be strong predictors of product image (Homer, 2008).

Therefore, as the previous research questions postulate that the differential influence of packaging types varies across product types (hedonic versus utilitarian), a corollary question is whether the influence may be moderated by consumers' psychological dispositions. Specifically, the following questions address this focus:

> *RQ3a: How does fun-seeking influence consumers' preference for standard versus localised packaging for hedonic products?*
>
> *RQ3b: How does quality consciousness influence consumers' preference for standard versus localised packaging for utilitarian products?*

1.1.4 Condition 4: The Role of Conspicuous Versus Inconspicuous Consumption

Another phenomenon in consumer behaviour is conspicuous versus inconspicuous mode of consumption. Veblen (1899) first introduced the concept of conspicuous consumption, suggesting that consumers choose a certain product to communicate their identities. Because conspicuous consumption takes place in a social setting, consumer behaviour is often subject to social influence (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005; Brinberg & Plimpton, 1986; Gierl & Huettl, 2010; Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2014). This is due to the desirability to create of favourable impressions on others, and one way to achieve this to be seen in possession of or consuming distinctive products (Jaikumar & Sarin, 2015; Ordabayeva & Chandon, 2011). As discussed previously, packaging localisation is a mechanism for brands to highlight their distinctiveness.

By contrast under inconspicuous consumption, defined as routine consumption pertaining to the use of ordinary products in private situations (Shove & Warde, 2002; Sullivan & Gershuny, 2004), consumers are less concerned with being appreciated by or involving others during the act of consumption. However, it seems just as plausible that consumers would prefer product distinctiveness even when they are consuming the products in private (Hill, Rodeheffer, Griskevicius, Durante, & White, 2012; Lu, 2008). Therefore, the importance of packaging distinctiveness through localisation may also be important under inconspicuous situation. This issue has not been examined in context of product packaging. Therefore, this thesis seeks answer to the question:

> *RQ4: How does consumers' preference for standard versus localised packaging differ by the mode of consumption (conspicuous versus inconspicuous consumption)?*

1.2 Structure of Thesis

This thesis progressively steps through four studies to address the research questions outlined in the above four conditions. While more details are contained in the Methods section of each study (see later chapters), we first provide an overview of

these studies in order to show how they tie structurally together to form the entire thesis.

Study 1 was conducted in Pakistan to address the first research question regarding whether consumers' preference for standard versus localised packaging differs for varying product types (hedonic versus utilitarian). The final sample size consisted of 370 Pakistani students as respondents. Participants rated their likeability for standard versus localised packaging via a paper-based survey. The brands used were popular Western brands of food products that consumers were highly familiar with (i.e., strong brands).

In addition to checking for consistencies in the results of Study 1, Study 2 extended Study 1 addressing Research Question 2, which asks whether brand familiarity (strong versus weak brands) makes any difference to the consumer's preference of standard versus localised packaging. Like Study 1, Study 2 took place in Pakistan but this time using a mall-intercept design to survey consumers across a wider demographic cohort rather than just students. Participants answered the same paper-based questionnaire as Study 1 (n=371), but to enhance generalisability, the survey included both food and non-food products.

Study 3 was conducted in China to determine whether the results in Pakistan would hold in another non-Western country with a different language and culture. It used a reputable panel to provide participants for an online survey. Like the previous two studies, this study tested for consumers' preferences for standard and localised packaging for both product types (hedonic versus utilitarian) and brand familiarity (strong versus weak brands) of food and non-food products. A key extension of Study 3 was the additional use of discrete choice experiments (DCE). The combination of attitudinal preference (likability) along with stated choice data (choice behaviour) increases the predictive validity of the model for consumers' preferences (Carlsson & Martinsson, 2001; Eom & Larson, 2006). The DCE also included price as a variable in order to understand whether price is a determining factor in consumer choice of packaging type. Study 3 (n=383) also extended the previous studies by addressing the third research question, which asks whether

individual psychological dispositions (fun-seeking and quality consciousness) moderate consumers' preference for standard versus localised packaging.

The final study of this thesis, Study 4, was an in-store experiment (n=130) carried out in a supermarket in China by randomly approaching shoppers in the supermarket. The objective of this study is to uncover answers pertaining to Research Question 4 regarding how consuming products under conspicuous versus inconspicuous situations may moderate the preference of standard versus localised packaging. Actual products in different packaging were displayed on shelves. Experimental manipulations randomly put shoppers into one of two consumption conditions (conspicuous versus inconspicuous). Price manipulations were incorporated at the store shelves to add complexity to the DCE design. This allows Study 4 to determine whether standard packaging may command a price premium over a localised packaging, as well as whether this premium differs across consumption situations.

1.3 Contributions

In marketing communication research, theoretical progress in standardisation and localisation field has been so far been limited to the effects of standardisation and localisation practices in advertising. Early research into this field analysed the outcomes of using standard strategies compared to deployment of localisation d of advertisements in overseas markets (Donnelly & Ryans, 1969; Kacker, 1973). Later on, additional contributions were made in areas such as articulating the different strategic levels of advertising localisation (James & Hill, 1991; Ryans & Ratz, 1987), comparing the effectiveness of localisation across countries (Kustin, 2004; Okazaki et al., 2007; Sandler & Shani, 1992; Zou, Andrus, & Norvell, 1997), and determining the factors such as market and environment similarities in influencing advertising standardisation (Griffith et al., 2003).

However, while both advertising and packaging are forms of marketing communications, they differ across many aspects, particularly regarding how each medium influences consumer behaviour (Griffith et al., 2003). Hence, the primary academic contribution of this thesis is in extending research into the effects of

localising marketing communications from an advertising to a packaging perspective. According to a review of the literature, this is the first study to explore the effectiveness of standard and localised product packaging in influencing consumer perception of likability and choice of the packaging.

The theoretical foundation of this thesis and hypothesis is supported by signalling theory by Spence (1973) in packaging research. Because consumers often draw signals from extrinsic attributes of products such as packaging (Espejel, Fandos, & Flavián, 2009; Richardson, Dick, & Jain, 1994), this theory may explain the influence of standardisation and localisation of packaging on consumer. Additionally, since consumers derive symbolic meanings through different languages (John, 2015; Kuehnl & Mantau, 2013; Robert, 2014), symbolism theory may also explain what underpins the differences during conspicuous versus inconspicuous consumption. Finally, this thesis uses Feldman and Lynch's (1988) theory of accessibility and diagnosticity to illustrate the link between packaging cues and consumers' memory; consumers often form diagnostic evaluations of the package via accessible cues.

Research into branding strategies suggests that companies may brand the product globally and advertise them locally (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008; Sandler & Shani, 1992), but according to Huang & Chan (1997), this strategy may not be applicable broadly because these studies typically examine the product expansion in linguistically and culturally similar Western countries. Another contribution of this thesis is that it uses Western brands in non-Western markets, specifically Pakistan and China, linguistically and culturally dissimilar Western countries. As the two countries are also dissimilar to each in terms of language and cultural, they enhance the generalisability of this thesis's findings.

This thesis also contributes from a methodological perspective by adopting a multiple-method approach to lead to more robust and generalisable results. It first uses self-reported attitudinal measures to capture participants' rating of brand and packaging variables. These variables were then compared to the results of discrete choice experiments (DCE) that captured participants' choice behaviour. Finally,

qualitative interviews with 10 brand managers in charge of major Western brands in Pakistan and China are triangulated with the quantitative findings.

Another methodological contribution is in carrying out a particular experiment within an actual supermarket in China. The use of a discrete choice experiment within an actual store serves as a proxy to actual purchase behaviour. Additionally, the surveys and experiments in this thesis use only Western brands commonly found in the supermarkets in China and Pakistan. Collectively, these approaches contribute to research by enhancing the external validity of this thesis' findings.

This thesis provides several applied contributions, particularly to marketers of Western brands. Analyses of industry and literature in marketing communication reveal that when companies want to market their products abroad, it is of fundamental importance for them to decide whether to standardise or localise their marketing mix approach (Hollensen, 2007; Terpstra, 2000; Vrontis & Thrassou, 2007). Since packaging modification incurs huge costs to the marketers, it is important to understand whether standard or localised packaging strategy is more appealing from consumers' perspective, as well as under what circumstances each approach is effective.

Finally, a managerial contribution of this thesis stems from comparing brand managers' views obtained from the interviews with the quantitative data from consumers' perspectives about packaging preferences. This comparison enables marketers to understand better the effectiveness or pitfalls of their current strategies, and to modify them accordingly. As the conceptualisation of this thesis draws substantially from advertising studies, the findings shall clarify the distinction between packaging and advertising localisation to brand managers. This will allow to them develop more holistic and effective marketing communication strategies across different mediums.

1.4 Context of Thesis

The share of world's GDP has increased by 17% due to non-Western countries including Pakistan and China from 2005 to 2015, and these countries are further projected to contribute 47% of the global growth through 2025 (Dobbs et al., 2012; Farrell, Gersch, & Stephenson, 2006). As a result, these markets are expected to grow by 2025, pushing annual consumption growth by US $10 trillion (Dobbs et al., 2012; Farrell et al., 2006). The contributory factors for growth in GDP are increases in urbanisation and the rise of the middle class, specifically in Pakistan (2015) and China (Farrell et al., 2006; Schmitt, 2015). Given the significant and exciting opportunities for international marketers, this thesis uses these non-Western growth markets as the research contexts. Below, it highlights the consumption landscape of the two specific markets for this research, Pakistan and China.

1.4.1 Consumption Landscape for Pakistan

Population census reveals that the Pakistani middle class is expanding rapidly. Consumers' annual disposable income per household has increased by 143% from 1995 to 2011, and the trend of growth is likely to persist for the next decade (Euromonitor, 2013). The country's GDP has been rising at about 5% per annum since 2005 until present (Trading-Economics, 2015), making it the highest per capita income in the entire South Asian region (Tanvir et al., 2012).

In line with this economic expansion, a recent economic survey shows that Pakistani consumers' literacy and awareness of, as well as the demand for, Western brands are persistently strong (Pakistan Economic Survery, 2015). This also evident from the initial supermarket scans in major metropolises of Pakistan, which found that supermarket shelves were predominantly occupied with Western imported brands, such as Mars, Procter & Gamble, Unilever, Coca Cola, etc. Pakistani consumers are consumption oriented and spend significantly on the consumption of foreign brands (Khan, Bamber, & Quazi, 2012). This is why Pakistan has a vast expenditure on imported goods, estimated to be approximately $10 billion per annum, particularly by the middle class and above (Khan & Bamber, 2007). These consumers contribute

about 30% of the total country's domestic spending, including the highest spending on foreign brands (Trading-Economics, 2015).

Other than for economic reasons, another important rationale to conduct this study in Pakistani is due to the recent shift in consumption patterns from non-packaged goods to packaged goods in this country, particularly for fast moving consumer goods. The recent report on consumption of packaged products in Pakistan clearly indicates a shift in consumer preference from loose or unpackaged food to the packaged products, mainly for quality, safety and hygiene reasons. (Euromonitor, 2015). The shift to packaged products is also because Pakistani consumers are becoming more brand conscious. For example, instead of consuming loose cow milk, they have now shifted their purchase to packaged milk. Hence, it makes sense that Western brands must determine the important strategic issues pertaining to packaging of their products in order to be successful in this market. Since research has established foreign and local cues on packaging symbolise different implications to consumers, the above findings support the use of Pakistan as a context for this research.

1.4.2 Consumption Landscape for China

Driven by tremendous economic growth of about 10% per year, China's domestic economy has been doubling about every seven years for the past three decades (Lysonski, 2014). The International Monetary Fund Association (IMF) has reported that China is the top economic market, based on its purchasing price parity (PPP) (China overtook the US as the world's largest economy, Oct 9, 2014). Recent IMF figures also suggest that China has 16% of world's PPP, about the same as the US.

This growth is further evident in the growth of the Chinese middle class (Dong & Tian, 2009; Zhou & Belk, 2004), where it is forecasted that by 2020, this population will have a total disposable household income of more than $8 billion (Meet the Chinese consumers of 2020, March, 2012). Consequently, the rise in purchasing power of individuals has led to China being the fastest and most important market to many Western brands where the consumption of Western brands is widespread and a significant component of domestic consumption (Cui & Liu, 2001). Indeed,

materialism has become the new devotion amongst Chinese consumers as they demand for more foreign products (Durvasula & Lysonski, 2010).

Many multinational companies have become successful in introducing foreign brands to the Chinese market (Lianxi & Hui, 2003; H. Liu & Li, 2002). Tai and Pae (2002) reviewed a Gallop survey and found that foreign brands have gained recognition amongst Chinese consumers in comparison to local brands. The survey data further revealed that nine out of the top 10 companies rated for high level of brand awareness were foreign brands, such as Coca-Cola. Recent visits to Chinese supermarkets in major metropolises confirmed this point: the supermarket shelves were predominantly stocked with Western imported brands, including Mars, Procter & Gamble, Unilever, etc.; virtually all the Western brands are sold there in localised packaging only.

In summary, the growing wealth and consumption among Chinese consumers, the proliferation of Western brands, and the virtual absence of Western brands in standard packaging make China a suitable context for this research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Importance of Product Packaging

Packaging is typically defined in the literature as a container that holds and protects the product, encompasses attributes such as shape, design and symbols, and facilitates handling and commercialisation (Aday & Yener, 2014; Ampuero & Vila, 2006; Underwood, 2003). Given the proliferation of and intense competition among consumer goods, packaging plays a key role in influencing consumer choice decisions (Ampuero & Vila, 2006; Ballantyne, Warren, & Nobbs, 2006; Baruk & Iwanicka, 2015; Clement, 2007; Gelici-Zeko et al., 2013; Luis Méndez et al., 2011; Mueller, Lockshin, & Louviere, 2010; Steenkamp, 1990; Van Tonder & Mulder, 2015; Venter et al., 2011).

As the 'silent salesman' (Pilditch, 1957), packaging helps convey to consumers' product characteristics such as quality and benefits, thereby signalling the importance of packaging in consumer behaviour (Ampuero & Vila, 2006; Clement, 2007). For example, a survey of people purchasing snack foods found that packaging ranked second behind taste in brand choice criteria (Silayoi & Speece, 2007). The study also reported that 86% of the respondents were willing to pay a higher price for a nicer package. Similarly, another study revealed that consumers evaluate message information provided on the package to justify the price charged (Breetz, 2014; Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). Indeed, consumers' overall propensity to stay with a brand or switch brands may depend on their perceptions of a product through its packaging (Håkansson, Kvarnström, & Nilsson, 2014).

The critical role of packaging can be further supported by studies in a retail context that show that most consumer purchase decisions occur in store spontaneously at store shelves, rather than being premeditated (Chandon et al., 2009; Inman, Winer, & Ferraro, 2009; Kacen, Hess, & Walker, 2012; Rao, Bergen, & Davis, 2000; Stilley,

Inman, & Wakefield, 2010). Consumers' intentions to purchase products depend on the degree to which they expect to derive satisfaction from their use, but when little thought goes into product purchasing, point-of-purchase communication determines branch choice decisions (Bell, Corsten, & Knox, 2011; Clement et al., 2013; Kacen et al., 2012; Silayoi & Speece, 2007; Steckel et al., 2005). For example, Steckel et al. (2005) explored that consumers' decision to choose a particular brand changes when a clutter of information is available at point of purchase. Resonating with this finding, Sharp (2010) contends that unless brands are noticed at point-of-purchase, they are unlikely to be purchased. Consequently, packaging has become a crucial factor in marketers' arsenal, as it attempts to shape consumer decision making at the point in time when consumers are actually making a choice (See Figure 2). Despite the importance of packaging in influencing consumers at point of purchase, Teichert and Schöntag (2010) lamented that little is understood about this behaviour.



Figure 2: Purchase Decision Making from Clutter of Available Brands

The efficacy of packaging in influencing consumer behaviour is also manifested in the lack of time that consumers spend noticing products on a typical supermarket shelf. For example, a study found that almost 50% of the shoppers spend less than five seconds at point of purchase (Dickson & Sawyer, 1990). Studies into a brand's distinctive assets are built upon knowledge about cues and their identification and association in the consumers' mind. Therefore, as a prominent distinctive brand asset, packaging must be distinctive enough to be identified quickly by the shoppers to ease their choice decisions (Georgieva, Todorova, & Chrysochou, 2013; Piñero, et al., 2010; Sharp, 2010). Sharp (2010) and Dan Zhang (2014) argued that a change in packaging reduces consumers' ability to recognise the brand. Consequently, appearance becomes important in determining consumers' evaluation and choice based on attention drawing attributes (Creusen & Schoormans, 2005).

In summary, the above literature shows the importance of packaging from a retailing, brand management and consumer perspective. Research by Young (2002) placed the emphasis on the effectiveness of packaging cues to gain the lead over competing brands. As a specialised form of communication, these cues not only influence consumers at point-of-purchase, but also continue to communicate brand messages when the products are consumed at home (Ampuero & Vila, 2006). Packaging studies are also relevant to the manufacturers, as packaging accounts for a substantial amount of investments for the companies. It is estimated that approximately 40% of the marketing budgets are allocated to the packaging designs by most of companies (Gómez, Rao, & McLaughlin, 2007; Rettie & Brewer, 2000). Thus, it is important to design packaging in such a way that it stands out amongst all competitors of the brand at the supermarket shelve and attracts consumers' attention. The next section discusses the importance of the appearance of packaging and its symbolic value to consumers.

2.2 Packaging Appearance and its Symbolic Value

Consumers' expectations and evaluations of a product are often based on the product's packaging appearance (Orth, Campana, & Malkewitz, 2010; Van Rompay et al., 2012). The most profound reason lies in its attention-drawing ability that results in raising consumers' probabilities of purchase (Ares, Besio, Giménez, & Deliza, 2010; Garber, 1995; Garber, Burke, & Jones, 2000). Research has established that acquiring consumers' attention is the initial and imperative step in influencing consumers' purchase decisions (Chandon et al., 2009; Clement et al., 2013; Creusen & Schoormans, 2005). Hence, the appearance of packaging is a critical source for grabbing attention; it is consumers' first point of contact with a product before actual purchase that may influence their product choice (Orth & Crouch, 2014; Pietersen, 2010; Westerman et al., 2013).

Consumers often discern product quality from the packaging appearance, attesting to how important packaging is for forming positive or negative expectations about the product (Ragaert, Verbeke, Devlieghere, & Debevere, 2004). If packaging symbolises inferior quality, the consumer perceives the product as lower quality (Silayoi & Speece, 2004). For example, favourable or unfavourable taste perceptions may stem from visually appealing or non-appealing cues present on product packaging (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008; Mueller, Lockshin, & Louviere, 2010). Similarly, visual cues such as colour, shape and size may influence consumers' product evaluations (Banerjee, 2013; Deng & Srinivasan, 2013; DeRosia, 2008; Otterbring et al., 2013; Shekhar & Raveendran, 2014; Van Ooijen et al., 2016; Westerman et al., 2013) and packaging evaluation (Liao, Corsi, Chrysochou, & Lockshin, 2015). For example, Madden, Hewett, and Roth (2000) found that bright colours on product packaging are visually appealing to some consumers but not to others, and consumers inferred the quality of the product differently because of different meanings attached to colours in different societies. Thus, packaging cues act as strategic method to enhance consumer's consciousness about the products and may bias their preference by developing positive or negative perceptions (Håkansson et al., 2014; Newman, Howlett, & Burton, 2015; Orth, Koenig, & Firbasova, 2007; Silayoi & Speece, 2007).

Burbank and Martins (2010) argued that the interpretation of cues varies across context and situations in which consumers comprehend the object. Hence, what one can draw from above discussion is the importance of cues in changing the appearance of packaging for consumers, consequently providing some kind of symbolic meaning to the consumers. Based on the theory of symbolism (see page 61 for a discussion of the theory), consumers draw a certain meaning from cues present on an object, such as its packaging (Blumer, 1969). The association of cues to meanings are often innate or determined by a context where the product is being marketed (Creusen & Schoormans, 2005). A classic example of this is a brand perceived as foreign when communication programs utilise foreign brand names or advertisement themes; these cues symbolise Westernisation and modernity for non-Western consumers (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra, 1999; Batra et al., 2014). This shows that the meaning of a cue on the product package first transfers to the product and consumers purchase the product to benefit from the symbolic value associated with the product via the cue (Rompay & Veltkamp, 2014; Van Ooijen, 2016).

In summary, studies have determined the symbolic value that packaging creates by developing impressions on consumers through cues on package design (Baruk & Iwanicka, 2015; Jinkarn & Suwannaporn, 2015; Vihma, 1995). Manipulation of one or more cues on product packaging changes its appearance and aesthetics for consumers, consequently connoting different symbolic meanings for different consumers (Silayoi & Speece, 2007). As the next section discusses, using different cues on an identical product can symbolically emphasise the origin of the product (i.e., its localness or foreignness), thereby influencing consumers' preference for the product.

2.3 Standardisation and Localisation of Packaging

The issue regarding whether marketing approaches should be localised as international brands enter foreign markets continues to challenge both academics and managers (Bartsch, Riefler, & Diamantopoulos, 2015; Busnaina & Woodall, 2015; Checchinato et al., 2014; Chung, Wang, & Huang, 2012; Eckhardt, 2005; Evirgen & Miracle, 2015; Nyukorong, 2014; Pagani et al., 2015; Rohn, 2015). Applied to

packaging, this dilemma similarly concerns whether there is a need to offer foreign brands, especially globally recognisable names such as Coca Cola, in localised packages when they are exported to foreign markets. A standardisation approach would mean that brands retain the same packaging cues (e.g., shape, colour, and symbols), thereby maintaining a consistent brand image and identity, and offering benefits such as economies of scale in production and marketing. Conversely, a localisation approach requires customised product packaging in order to cater to differences in each local market (Kraus et al., 2014; Papadopoulos et al., 2011; Schmid & Kotulla, 2011; Vrontis, Thrassou, & Lamprianou, 2009). As an example of standardisation and localisation of packaging (by language modification) in context of this thesis, please see Figure 3.



Figure 3: Standardisation and Localisation of Product Packaging in China

Advocates of standardisation argued that there is a growing trend of a homogeneous global market-segment, hence marketing efforts should be standardised across markets (Melewar & Vemmervik, 2004; Tan & Sousa, 2013). They assert that cultural differences across global markets are lessening and marketers should address areas of communality rather than tap into trivial differences among consumers (Herbeig, 1998; Toyne & Walters, 1989). Standardisation means that marketers need to develop strategies as if the world is one large marketplace and

ignore superficial country differences (Tan & Sousa, 2013). Advertising studies support this view, which confirmed the existence of consumer homogeneity across a wide range of countries (Dawar & Parker, 1994; Holt, Quelch, & Taylor, 2004; Tan & Sousa, 2013).

Further supporting the above argument, a meta-analysis of 152 studies on the determinants of standardisation and localisation of international marketing strategies found no statistically significant differences in the influence of localisation on the effectiveness of international marketing (Cheon, Cho, & Sutherland, 2007). Conversely, the strength of relationship between various marketing elements and marketing strategy are relatively similar across national markets (Cheon et al., 2007). The authors concluded that firms are better off standardising their products, as a localisation strategy seems to provide no competitive advantages. Particularly, multinational firms with larger market shares are encouraged to adopt standardisation in communication strategy (Kanso, Nelson, & Kitchen, 2015).

By contrast, localisation rests on the assertion that consumer differences are widening; therefore, marketers need to tailor marketing communication strategies according to culture, environment and the industry structure of the country where products are sold (Cheon et al., 2007; Samli, Wilkinson, & Mutscheller, 2015; Seitz, 2015; Singh & Martinengo, 2015; Vrontis et al., 2009). A key argument for adapting marketing practices as brands enter foreign markets is the heterogeneity of consumer behaviour across markets (Yu Xie & Boggs, 2006). The rationale is due to factors such as culture (Cleveland & Chang, 2009; De Mooij, 2010; Eckhardt, 2005; Jin et al., 2010; Kaynak & Kara, 2002), economy (Hoskisson, Eden, Lau, & Wright, 2000; Jin et al., 2010) or even religion (Eckhardt, 2005; Rahman & Bhattacharyya, 2003; Shankarmahesh, 2006; Srivastava, 2010). Therefore, consumers may perceive brands differently and hence international marketers need to be cognisant of and cater to these differences in marketing their products.

Some researchers further assert that cultural differences are now becoming so vast that it makes standardisation problematic and unfeasible, leading to lower sales and loss of competitive advantage (Herbeig, 1998; Melewar & Vemmervik, 2004;

Middleton, 2015; Yap & Yazdanifard, 2014). Therefore, one would conclude that product packaging should be customised to serve best the targeted local markets. In other words, foreign brands sold in domestic markets should be localised in order to gain competitive advantage (Herbeig, 1998; Massa & Testa, 2009; Melewar & Vemmervik, 2004). By adapting marketing strategies to each target country, packaging localisation can tap the uniqueness of each market in order to differentiate and gain advantages against competing brands. Consistent with this argument, research involving 500 UK based companies revealed that companies adopted localisation strategies for reasons such as culture, competition, and differences in sociological conditions (Vrontis, 2005).

However, the review of studies found that most studies regarding localisation versus standardisation are conceptual and lack empirical robustness to test their postulations (Fastoso & Whitelock, 2007; Krolikowska & Kuenzel, 2008; Taylor, 2005; Yap & Yazdanifard, 2014). These studies mostly adopt a macro perspective and focus on market-level issues such as market-entry strategy (Craig & Douglas, 2000; Griffith, Kiessling, & Dabic, 2012; Vrontis & Kitchen, 2005), the role of culture (Jiang & Wei, 2012; Magnusson et al., 2013), and environmental factors (Eberhardt et al., 2004; Theodosiou & Leonidou, 2003; Wu, Peng, Shi, & Sia, 2015) rather than on the external validity of adopting localised packaging compared to standard packaging.

Additionally, the majority of the studies on standardisation and localisation of cues in marketing communications were conducted primarily in an advertising context (Cui, Yang, Wang, & Liu, 2012; De Meulenaer, Dens, & De Pelsmacker, 2015; Fastoso & Whitelock, 2007; Lianxi, Poon, & Wang, 2015; Pagani et al., 2015; Rajabi et al., 2015; Yang, 2015). There has not been empirical exploration of the issue of whether and under what conditions foreign brands should localise product packaging.

Due to unavailability of the literature on packaging standardisation and localisation, in the next section, this thesis attempts to draw inferences for packaging effectiveness by discussing research into the use of cues to localise advertising. Specifically, the section discusses the effects of localisation in advertising (Tavassoli

& Lee, 2003) through verbal cues. Similar to other researchers (Baccarella, Scheiner, Trefzger, & Voigt, 2016; Dogerlioglu-Demir & Koçaş, 2015; Kubat & Swaminathan, 2015; Sengupta & Fitzsimons, 2004), for this thesis verbal cues are defined as cues that use written language to symbolically convey the intended meaning of an advertisement or to portray the advertisement in an intended manner.

2.3.1 Verbal Cues in Localisation of Advertisements

According to Mick (1986), consumers' interpretation of advertised products is coloured by the meanings they derive from cues, and the meanings may differ across cues and different consumers. The advertising literature has identified language or verbal symbols as important symbolic cues (Kim & Lennon, 2008; Mueller, Lockshin, & Louviere, 2010; Scott, 1994; Silayoi & Speece, 2007; Venter et al., 2011). Studies examining how consumers process advertising have shown that verbal cues play a dominant role in facilitating overall message communication (Alesandrini, 1983; Chang, 2002; Holbrook & Moore, 1981; Hong & Zinkhan, 1995; Putrevu, 2001; Yilmaz et al., 2011).

Fitzsimons et al. (2002) contend that verbal cues induce efficient cognitive processing, which lead to effective consumer responses towards product evaluations. This contention resonates with research in marketing communication that shows that local language cues in advertisements are effective because consumers notice and respond to relevant native cues present in the elements of communication (Brumbaugh, 2002; Dimofte, Forehand, & Deshpandé, 2003; Dublish, Seaton, & Laskey, 2015; Koslow, Shamdasani, & Touchstone, 1994; Torres & Luna-Nevarez, 2012). In their study on ease of how processing of language cues facilitates consumers' recall and recognition of the advertised brand, Ahn and Ferle (2008) used English (foreign) versus Hangul (local) language effectiveness (in terms of recognition and recall) on South Korean consumers when language is manipulated for brand name and body copy of the advertising message. The author found that the brand name written in a foreign language with the body copy in local language is an effective strategy to target South Korean consumers.

Ostensibly, verbal cues work by raising the salience of local consumers (Argo, Dahl, & Morales, 2006; Argo & White, 2012; Bishop, Brocato, & Vijayalakshmi, 2015), allowing them to identify with the advertised products, and help develop favourable responses towards the advertisements and products, which increase purchase intention (Brumbaugh, 2002; Butt & de Run, 2011; Chang, 2014; Nagar, 2015; Tal & Wansink, 2015). Consequently, local language has been used as a strategic tool for reaching ethnic consumers. For instance, an experiment tested the effectiveness of local language for targeting ethnic groups (Chinese, Malay and Iban) in Malaysia and revealed that consumers respond unfavourably to the advertisement in a language that was foreign to their ethnic background (De Run, 2005).

As part of this literature review, Table 1 lists studies that show the influence of verbal cues on advertising effectiveness. These studies consistently support that localisation of advertising using native language is effective. They show that advertising messages in local languages help local consumers relate products to their needs, raising consumers' salience and helping them to associate their selves to the advertisements (Carroll & Luna, 2011; Deshpandé & Stayman, 1994; Koslow et al., 1994; La Ferle & Lee, 2005; Noriega & Blair, 2008; Puntoni, De Langhe, & Van Osselaer, 2009; S. Zhang & Schmitt, 2004). In particular, cues that have native associations such as local language and customs can dictate various aspects of consumption patterns and local consumers' responses towards advertisements (Al-Olayan & Karande, 2000; Cho, Kwon, Gentry, Jun, & Kropp, 1999; Cleveland, Laroche, & Hallab, 2012; Cui et al., 2012; Rice & Al-Mossawi, 2002). In other words, the consumers feel that advertisements are meant for them; and they feel important because of marketers' focus on their culture. Major reasons for the effectiveness of local language include the ease in comprehension (Hornikx, van Meurs, & Hof, 2013) and emotional attachment of consumers with their own language (Puntoni et al., 2009). Moreover, native language evokes more positive associations than that evoked by foreign language to non-Western consumers, endorsing the symbolic value carried by verbal cue in communication (Puntoni et al., 2009). Therefore, researchers have argued that local language is a cue that eases the transferability of message to convey symbolic meaning to non-Western consumers.

Table 1: Studies on effectiveness of local language in advertising

Source	Language	Marketing Tool	Dependent Variables	Findings
Koslow et al. (1994)	Spanish language	The study tested the effectiveness of native language in advertising to Hispanic consumers.	Advertising likability	Hispanics are more sensitive to the use of their native language in advertising and respond more favourably to Spanish language in advertising.
Shoham (1996)	Standard (English) versus Native (Israel) language	The study tested the effectiveness of standardisation and localisation of television advertising.	Advertising evaluation (recognition and recall)	Local language is more effective than standard (English) language in terms of recognition and recall.
Luna and Peracchio (2001)	Spanish language	The study conducted on bilingual consumer to test the advertising effectiveness in Spanish and English language.	Advertising evaluation (recall)	The use of first language in advertising is more effective for recall than second language.
Noriega and Blair (2008)	Spanish Language in ads	Bilingual Spanish respondents were exposed to print advertisement in both English and native language.	Attitude towards advertising, behavioural intention	Native language advertisement is likely to gauge more favourable attitudes towards advertisement and behavioural intentions.
Puntoni et al. (2009)	French and Dutch Language	The study conducted in Brussels, bilingual French Dutch capital city of Belgium. The study tested the combination of	Emotions towards advertising	Textual information provided in consumers' native language is more emotional than messages in

		native language and English language slogans in print ads.		second language.
Hornikx, van Meurs, and de Boer (2010)	Dutch language	The study conducted on Dutch consumers to determine the effects language in advertising effectiveness.	Attitude towards advertising	Communication in native language is effective due to ease of understanding. Difficulty of language reduces the consumers' preference for language other than native.
Myers and Sar (2013)	Language versus visual cue in tagline	The study tested for social cues in visual and textual format of print ads to measure consumers' brand evaluation and purchase intention.	Brand evaluation, purchase intention	Language cues have more influence when visual cues are not dominant in presence.
Nickerson and Camiciottoli (2013)	Arabic language versus foreign language	The study conducted in United Arab Emirates to test for consumers' preference of language in the advertising.	Advertising effectiveness	Native language is more effective for advertising, and consumers consider English language as a threat to national language.

However, the above findings in support of localisation in advertising are far from conclusive, as other researchers have identified contradictory results for the use of local verbal cues in communication, and conversely favoured the use of foreign language. These studies are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Studies on Effectiveness of Foreign Language in Advertising

Source	Language	Marketing Tool	Dependent Variables	Findings
Steenkamp, Batra, and Alden (2003)	Foreignness	The study tested how perceived brand globalness creates value for consumers.	Brand quality and prestige	When foreignness is used as a brand attribute in overseas markets, it would have a strong effect on purchase intentions of consumers because of high quality perceptions associated with these brands.
Hornikx, van Meurs, and Starren (2007)	French as foreign language in Dutch advertising	The study tested for effectiveness of multilingual advertising.	Advertising language evaluation	Foreign language (French) is associated with elegance and attractiveness.
Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008).	English versus Hindi language	The study tested the effectiveness of the native and foreign language in advertising luxury and necessity products.	Advertising slogan evaluation	After bilingual consumers' exposure to English and native language advertisements, English is found to be an effective strategy and implies modernity, whereas native language provides sense of belongingness. Language is an important consideration for foreign companies in non-Western markets.
Micu and Coulter (2010).	English versus Romanian	The study tested the foreign versus local language in advertising evaluation in non-Western	Advertising evaluation (language choice)	Foreign brands benefit from using English language in advertising regardless of the level of self-referencing, but not local. English

		market.		language enhances modernity of the brand. Therefore, it is recommended for local brands communication as well.
Holmquist and Cudmore (2013)	English language	The study tested the effectiveness of English language in Korean magazine advertising	Advertising evaluation (in English language)	The use of English language is considered as novel and exotic, found to be appealing to consumers, regardless of language proficiency.

In general, these studies show that the use of a foreign, rather than local or native, language in advertising can favourably shape consumers' perceptions of products. Using English language in advertising may be beneficial regardless of the level of self-referencing (Micu & Coulter, 2010). A rationale in support of these findings is derived from negative impact of localisation on the viability of foreignness of foreign brands in international markets (Gaur, Kumar, & Sarathy, 2011; Kim & Jensen, 2014; Lianxi, Yang, & Hui, 2010).

Take China, the context of this study, for example. From one perspective, international marketers often localise their advertising strategies (Jiafei, 1999), and a primary reason is the lack of English literacy amongst Chinese consumers (Tai, 1997). However, another study in the similar context showed that about 56% of Chinese consumers favoured the foreign communication strategies, with only 3% disliking it (Wang et al., 2000). Furthermore, 70% of respondents claimed that foreign advertising had positively influenced their purchase decision. Given the recent and well-publicised health-related problems with Chinese food products (Pei et al., 2011; Dongyong Zhang, Gao, & Morse, 2015), Chinese consumers may prefer products in standard packaging because they may signal greater source honesty (Toffoli & Laroche, 2002).

Similarly, the use of the English language implies Westernisation, modernity, status and quality to the consumers in non-Western markets (Bhatia, 2000; Piller, 2003), whereas the local language signifies national and cultural values (Zhou & Belk, 2004). For example, Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) found that when bilinguals were exposed to product advertisements in English and separately in their native language, they associated the product with sophistication in the English copy and with belongingness in the native-language copy. Figure 4 shows English and Urdu language of Coca-Cola advertising themes, implying exactly the same meaning but promoted in English and Urdu language.



Figure 4: Advertising Theme Using Foreign and Local Verbal Cues

Given the conflicting findings regarding standardising and localising advertising strategies, the same question applies regarding which of the two strategies is the more effective for foreign products' packaging. No empirical research has attempted to compare standard versus localised packaging and gauge its effectiveness in influencing consumers in non-Western markets. Yet packaging and advertising have different applications and implications in marketing communication (Keller & Lehmann, 2006).

Therefore, it seems that there is no clear theoretical rationale for localising packaging, although marketers appear to support this stance. It also remains unclear whether support exists for *not* localising packaging. If such a support is tenable, then international marketers might be better off selling a standard version of their product in non-Western markets. Especially for popular foreign brands, such as Coca Cola, Mars chocolate and even Apple computers, that are easily recognised as originating from Western markets, managers face a challenge of what meanings consumers derive from consumption of these brands should the products be sold in localised or standard packaging (Dimofte, Johansson, & Ronkainen, 2008). Drawing upon earlier arguments on packaging as an important distinctive asset of a brand (See section 2.1), it is therefore questionable whether manipulation of language on the packaging would change its effectiveness.

Despite the common managerial practice of localising packaging in non-Western markets, there is a lack of consistent support from advertising research, compounded by a dearth of similar research in the context of packaging. Particularly in non-Western markets, where consumers may associate the standard packaging of hedonic products with a high status symbol and Western culture, localised packaging may be viewed less favourably over standard packaging. This raises a strategic concern whether foreign marketers need to unquestionably localise their product packaging using native language based on the conventional findings of advertising studies. The following section further discusses the effectiveness of verbal cues, but this time regarding their use in products and brand name localisation rather than in advertising.

2.3.2 Verbal Cues in Localisation of Product and Brand Name

In entering non-Western countries, a common localisation strategy is the use of the local or native language. Resonating with this contention, a multi-country experiment shows that consumers perceived a product to be more foreign when it was marketed in English (the foreign language) than in the country's native language (Gerritsen et al., 2007). Steenkamp et al. (2003) argue that if 'foreignness' is used as a brand and product attribute in overseas markets, it would have a strong effect on

purchase intentions of consumers because of high quality perceptions associated with these brands. A study on Chinese consumers, for example, found that brand names written in English language enhance the attitude towards the brand (Li, Li, & Kambele, 2012). Similarly, to Russian consumers, foreign language (English) in brand names equates to prestige, and hence explains the profuse use of English in many local products (Ustinova, 2006).

However, just like the studies in advertising reviewed in Section 2.3.1, there is inconclusive support on whether a foreign or local language cue would benefit product perceptions. For example, a study testing the effectiveness of Arabic and English language in advertising to non-Western consumers found no differential effects of language on consumers' attitudes towards advertising (Nickerson & Camiciottoli, 2013). Similarly, English language does not appear to have any impact on product perception but affects comprehension, whereby consumers irrespective of their self-reported high proficiency in English did not understand almost 40% of English phrases (Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2010). When consumers perceive the image of such products as ordinary, their attitudes and preferences decline (Bettman & Sujan, 1987; Levy & Gendel-Guterman, 2012; Ward & Loken, 1988).

While explaining the non-arbitrary phenomenon of using foreign language in product marketing and branding, Kelly-Holmes (2005) argues that generally the language is used according to its fit with the nature of the product. For example, when a certain foreign language is associated with elegance and style (Hornikx et al., 2007), it should then be used for marketing goods, such as perfumes and accessories (Haarmann, 1989). By contrast, if the local culture or country were well known for a particular product, then using the local language would be more beneficial (Melnyk, Klein, & Völckner, 2012). For example, German products retain German names to infer quality perceptions (Melnyk et al., 2012). Local language is also preferred when foreign language is hard to comprehend by consumers (Hornikx & Starren, 2006).

Extending the stream of research on language effectiveness, Krishna and Ahluwalia (2008) compared the native language with English language for different companies

(foreign versus local) and for varying product types (hedonic versus utilitarian). Their study found that for hedonic products (chocolate), English language is often preferred whereas native language is more effective for utilitarian product (detergent) for communication. This study hinted one thing: that the effectiveness of foreign and local language may also depends on the *nature* of the product. A particular interest of this thesis is whether non-Western consumers prefer hedonic products in foreign packaging, since the inherent characteristics of product hedonism is perceived to originate from with the Western countries (Hui & Lianxi, 2002). The next section of literature therefore discusses the differential effects of cues for the products that are hedonic and utilitarian in nature.

2.4 Differential Effects of Cues on Hedonic and Utilitarian Products

Some consumption may serve functional purposes, while others may evoke more pleasure than utility (O'Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001). Based on this observation, researchers have drawn a distinction between hedonic and utilitarian products (Babin et al., 1994; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Shih-Tse Wang, 2015). Hedonic consumption concerns emotive sensations, such as excitement or the feeling of fun derived from experiencing a product (Wakefield & Barnes, 1997; Woods, 1960). For example, chocolate fudge, fragrances and fashion items have been categorised as hedonic products as they are typically consumed for pleasure (Choi, Li, Rangan, Chatterjee, & Singh, 2014; Norton, Fryer, & Parkinson, 2013; O'Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001; Roy & Ng, 2012; Ryu et al., 2006; Yoon, 2013). These products provide an experiential view relating to the affective responses elicited by a product (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). As an example of hedonic product, Figure 3 shows some hedonic products used in this thesis.



Figure 5: Example of Hedonic Products

By contrast, consumers derive utilitarian values from the functions performed by a product (Voss et al., 2003). By providing cognitively oriented benefits, laundry detergents, shampoo and microwaves are examples of utilitarian products that fulfil functional needs (Chang & Yen, 2013; Choi et al., 2014; Crowley, Spangenberg, & Hughes, 1992; O'Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001; Rossiter & Bellman, 2012; Yang, 2015; Yi-Cheon Yim et al., 2014; Yoon, 2013). Hedonism and utilitarianism have also been classified as two ends of a one-dimensional scale (Voss et al., 2003); products can simultaneously possess varying degrees of utilitarian and hedonic attributes (Crowley et al., 1992). For example, car purchases may focus on a utilitarian attribute (e.g., petrol mileage) as well as a hedonic value (e.g., sporty look) (Wertenbroch & Dhar, 2000). Figure 6 shows some utilitarian products that are used in this thesis



Figure 6: Example of Utilitarian Products

Research has established that the effects on symbolic perceptions of verbal cues differ across product types (Leclerc et al., 1994; Solomon, 1983). Particularly with hedonic versus utilitarian products, prominent and attention grabbing cues are important for hedonic products (Van Rompay et al., 2012; Ward & Loken, 1988). For example, an experiment found that brand names in French as opposed to in English were evaluated more positively for hedonic products, but the effects were weak for utilitarian products (Leclerc et al., 1994). A supporting rationale is that when consumers seek fun in their consumption, they prefer noticeable and distinct appeal (Gammoh, Koh, & Okoroafo, 2011). Since brand experiences for hedonic products are created through marketing practices (Ding & Tseng, 2015), using foreign language in marketing communications may result in enhancing the perception of hedonism for hedonic products (Hui & Lianxi, 2002). By contrast,

language cues are less effective with utilitarian products because these products are evaluated more cognitively (Ryu et al., 2006).

Pertaining to packaging, Underwood et al. (2001) show that customised packaging positively affected consumers' perceptions, while choice might not be equally strong for all product types. Specifically, their study found that for products with high experiential benefits (e.g., sweets), consumers responded more favourably towards the packaging when a cue (picture of the product) was present on the packaging. The authors also argued that perceptually salient packages enhance the positive influence in terms of grabbing a shopper's attention. Moreover, consumers do not find their purchase to be important if packaging is not noticeable (Hoyer, 1984).

Advertising cues for hedonic and utilitarian products may also not be equally effective. For example, endorsements by cues that effectively project trust and expertise for hedonic products may not necessarily work for a utilitarian service (Stafford, Stafford, & Day, 2002). The use of foreign language can also enhance the foreignness, thereby increasing the hedonic value of products. Leclerc et al. (1994) show that brands in French as opposed to in English were evaluated more positively for hedonic products, but the effects were weak for utilitarian products. In another study, foreign models were more effective in advertising hedonic products (cosmetics) than for utilitarian (health related products) (Morimoto & Chang, 2009). Another study compared the two foreign languages (English and French) combined with native language (Spanish) in order to test for branding effectiveness. The results revealed that English language generates positive effects for hedonic brands, and no differential effects were found for foreign and local language for utilitarian products (Olavarrieta, Lillo, & Patuelli, 2015).

The country of origin (COO) for hedonic and utilitarian products may also cause differences in developing product perceptions. COO cues enhance the brand equity of hedonic brands, but not for utilitarian ones (Yang, 2015). The author also finds that foreign cues may enhance and strengthen brand ties with a Western origin such as French perfumes, Italian suites and Swiss chocolates and watches (Yang, 2015) (See Figure 7 showing COO cues such as Paris tower and French language in

print advertisement of a luxury perfume). Therefore, it may be inferred that creating local ties with foreign imported brands may not be effective for hedonic products, as the consumption of hedonic products itself symbolises ties with Westernisation for non-Western consumers.



Figure 7: Hedonic Product with French Cues (including language and COO)

In summary, the nature of the product plays a moderating role in the localisation approach, and its performance is measured by elements of the marketing mix (Chung et al., 2012). Direct and expected linguistics in communication of hedonic products enhance receivers' attention (Forgas, 1995; Kronrod, Grinstein, & Wathieu, 2012). This is particularly pertinent in non-Western markets, where standard packaging may be preferred or even expected with hedonic products, as this product-type symbolises Westernisation. Since foreign cues on products' packaging of imported Western brands may be expected more by consumers, especially in case of hedonic brands, these cues may serve as source of differentiation for foreign marketers in non-Western markets. However, there is no clear and convincing evidence for localisation effectiveness of product packaging with the consideration of varying product type. In addition, it is unclear if the effects of localisation using verbal cues further depend on individual consumer dispositions. In other words,

while this review suggests that verbal cues have differential effects on hedonic versus utilitarian products, the effects might vary even more depending on personal dispositions, particularly fun-seeking tendencies and quality consciousness. The next section discusses these dispositions and their potential impacts on the effects of verbal cues on product packaging.

2.5 Consumers' Affective and Cognitive Psychological Dispositions

Psychological influence plays a role in consumer purchase process activities such as information processing (of foreign and local cues on packaging), value formation (associating Westernisation with cues) and finally choice decision (purchase of a product in either packaging) (Bartsch et al., 2015; Yi-Cheon Yim et al., 2014). When consuming products, consumers seek congruence between their perceptions of the product and their personal values (Limon, Kahle, & Orth, 2009; Lin & Shih, 2015). This is also consistent with signalling theory (see page 56 for signalling theory), which surmises that people choose products that are consistent with their self-image and psychological dispositions (Hosany & Martin, 2012). This implies that consumers' preference for a particular packaging type (i.e., standard or localised) may be determined, at least partially, by their personal dispositions.

Research on consumers' psychological dispositions has been divided into affective and cognitive emotions and is widely used to underpin psychological reasons for consumer behaviour (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Han, Lerner, & Keltner, 2007; Hung & Mukhopadhyay, 2012). Affective emotions are generally described as emotions built without thoughtful elaboration (Hung & Mukhopadhyay, 2012; Ramanathan & Williams, 2007). Consumers often express these emotions when they consume hedonic products (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Since the underlying objective for consumption of hedonic products is to seek fun, enjoyment or pleasure (Choi et al., 2014; Norton et al., 2013; O'Curry & Strahilevitz, 2001; Roy & Ng, 2012; Ryu et al., 2006; Yoon, 2013), positive affective emotion (such as fun-seeking) may be particularly pertinent in the consumption of such products (Zhong & Mitchell, 2010). Consequently, brand managers may appeal to

the fun-seeking tendencies of consumers by making the products' attributes more experiential for the consumers (Shaw, 2007).

By contrast, cognitive emotions are regarded as more relevant to utilitarian products and are based on thoughtful and information-based processing (Chattalas et al., 2008; Drolet et al., 2007) because functional attributes, such as product quality, are often important attributes when evaluating utilitarian products (Bloch, 1995; Creusen & Schoormans, 2005; Dawar & Parker, 1994; Dolgopolova, Teuber, & Bruschi, 2015; Jiang & Lu Wang, 2006). Although the review of the literature on utilitarian products suggests that there are no significant differential effects with foreign and local language (see section 2.4), it may be that not accounting for differences in consumer quality-consciousness is masking the underlying differences. This is a question under examination in this thesis.

Contemporary research confirms that consumer motivation to purchase products does not only depend only upon the nature of the product but also on the sub-goals of consumption (Barbopoulos, Johansson, & Biswas, 2016). As Section 2.4 shows, foreign cues enhance hedonistic perception of hedonic brands (Hui & Lianxi, 2002). Hence, consumers may activate pleasure or fun-seeking oriented goals when considering hedonic brands and their attributes (Chernev, 2004; Chitturi, Raghunathan, & Mahajan, 2008). Conversely, functionality related goals, in particular quality consciousness, are induced when purchasing utilitarian products (Chernev, 2004). In short, consumers' processing strategies (fun-seeking and quality consciousness) may directly be affected by the nature of the product (hedonic and utilitarian), consequently affecting the purchase intentions (Melnyk et al., 2012). Following on from Section 2.4 regarding the influence of different verbal cues on hedonic versus utilitarian products, the subsequent sections will shed more light on consumers' fun-seeking literature in consumption of hedonic products and consumers' quality consciousness in consumption of utilitarian products.

2.5.1 Fun-Seeking and Hedonic Product Consumption

Fun-seeking hedonists are typically portrayed as individuals primarily directed to satisfy the need for sensual gratification (Jantzen et al., 2012). Hence, they desire pleasure, excitement and novelty in their consumption (Mueller, 2011), and less experiential consumption cues may not influence their purchase behaviour (Goulding et al., 2009). The literature on consumption of hedonic products concurs that the motivation for consumption of hedonic brands is primarily based on concerns with affective judgements (Kim, Yang, & Lee, 2009). In particular, a strong influence of fun-seeking on hedonic brand experience has been identified (Ding & Tseng, 2015). For example, a study found that fun-seeking drives the perceptions of chocolate, a hedonic product, but not for bottled water which is a functional product (Linden, 2011). Another study found that sensory emotions played a role in the liking of a sweet yogurt as opposed to unsweetened yogurt (Pohjanheimo & Sandell, 2009).

Due to the feelings for fantasy stoked by hedonism in consumption (Kwortnik & Ross, 2007), the presence and appraisal of affective cues may result in the preference and choice of hedonic products (Pham, 2004). As this thesis argues, a verbal cue on product packaging is one such cue. In a context similar to this thesis's, a study on Chinese consumers found that when the degree of fun-seeking is high, foreign brand names are preferred for hedonic products (Tang & Fu 2005). In another study, consumers with high fun-seeking values gave the lowest rating for a brand of bread, signifying that the role of fun-seeking may not be pertinent to utilitarian products (Pohjanheimo et al., 2010). When functional utility is increased in a product, the fun-seeking consumers may even ignore it (Zhu et al., 2009). Indeed, consumers' fun-seeking values are weakly correlated with the purchase of utilitarian products (Krystallis et al., 2008) and the packaging likeability of such products (Hoogland, de Boer, & Boersema, 2007). Collectively, these studies suggest that the role of fun-seeking is important for hedonic but not utilitarian products.

The experiential and sensory marketing literature also support the influence of experiential cues in the purchase of hedonic products. For example, particularly for hedonist consumers, the use of scents increases hedonism in restaurants that result in

spending more money and increasing appetite (Guéguen & Petr, 2006). Similarly, consumers were reportedly more satisfied with a café (hedonic in nature of service) when their fun-seeking disposition were intentionally aroused at the point of consumption (Mattila & Wirtz, 2006). The study also reported that congruency between desired and actual arousal of fun-seeking influenced satisfaction with the cafe. Specifically, higher fun-seeking arousal resulted in higher satisfaction and vice versa. Although these studies do not concern packaging, they do infer that cues on hedonic products may influence fun-seeking consumers' perceptions of the products.

The review of the literature highlights that consumers' psychological disposition plays a role in determining the purchase of hedonic products (Dubois & Laurent, 1994). More specifically, fun-seeking or consumer hedonism seeking attributes have been found to play a role in the purchase of hedonic products (Fiore, Jin, & Kim, 2005). Since, hedonic products are often consumed for variety seeking purposes, extrinsic factors such as displaying the product itself, packaging or the brand name are found to be important in seeking desirability, novelty and acceptability of the product (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Lianxi & Wong, 2008). Consequently, localising the packaging of hedonic brands is questionable for its packaging effectiveness. Therefore, this thesis tests the influence of fun-seeking on foreign and localised packaging of hedonic products.

2.5.2 Quality Consciousness and Utilitarian Product Consumption

Consensus shows quality is the primary motivator for purchasing utilitarian products (Hellén & Sääksjärvi, 2011; Kirmani & Baumgartner, 2000). Consumers make rational decisions when choosing such products (Drolet et al., 2007). Furthermore, these products are analysed more thoughtfully and analytically (Kim et al., 2009). These thoughtful or cognitive inferences are often drawn from product cues that raise consumers' quality consciousness when they purchase utilitarian products (Steenkamp, 1990).

In the literature, the definition of a quality conscious consumer is a consumer who searches for cues that symbolise quality in products, by cognitively and rationally

examining and comparing the product before making a purchase (Sprotles & Kendall, 1986). This is because the utility of utilitarian products is based on their perceived quality (Tsai, 2005), and quality-based beliefs about a product are found to be strong predictors of product image (Homer, 2008). Therefore, quality consciousness raises the salience of intrinsic and extrinsic cues for product evaluation, having more affinity for the attributes of utilitarian product evaluation (Forsythe, 1991). When evaluating a utilitarian product such as a battery, consumers gave more emphasis to quality attributes and functional benefits, as opposed to hedonic attributes (Chandon, Wansink, & Laurent, 2000). For example, a study found that Chinese consumers evaluate clothing more on its utilitarian aspects, and hence advertising that portrays features of product quality are more effective (Lim & Ang, 2008). Furthermore, they evaluate the branded clothing based on its quality dimensions by considering its functionality rather than hedonistic values (Farrell et al., 2006).

Additionally, research testing for differential effects of moods on hedonic and utilitarian products found that affective mood (fun-seeking) works for hedonic products and cognitive mood (particularly quality consciousness) works more in case of utilitarian products (Zhao, Hoeffler, & Zauberman, 2011). In short, a clear distinction exists in literature using different psychological constructs to measure for hedonic and utilitarian products (Clarkson, Tormala, & Rucker, 2011), and quality consciousness is particularly relevant for utilitarian products (Babin, Chebat, & Michon, 2004).

Support for this contention is also shown in advertising studies, where cognitive or rational based appeals are more effective for advertisements of utilitarian products (Drolet et al., 2007; Pham, 1998). For example, Johar and Sirgy (1991) tested emotional advertising for utilitarian products and found that they were ineffective in case of utilitarian products. Shavitt (1989) shows that advertising for a utilitarian product (air conditioner) is more effective and persuasive when its quality benefits are advertised using rational appeals and based on conscious evaluation. The opposite is true for hedonic products (coffee) when hedonic benefits are communicated to consumers using a more affective appeal.

As shown above, the underlying reasons for consumer judgements on utilitarian products are typically derived from the functional characteristics of the products themselves (Park & Moon, 2003). Hence, it is probable that quality conscious consumers are more likely to pay attention to the information on the product package, particularly verifiable descriptions on the package and obtain subjective impressions of the products (Eun Park, Yu, & Xin Zhou, 2010; Venkatraman & MacInnis, 1985). As argued in this thesis, when consumers are more quality conscious, they may pay more attention to foreign and local verbal cues on product packaging in order to draw inferences about the product's quality and functionality, but whether verbal cues on packaging would serve as a cue for the quality of a utilitarian product is yet to be determined. This thesis tests for the consumers' quality consciousness to determine the likability of the foreign and localised packaging in the case of utilitarian products.

Having discussed about how individual dispositions (fun-seeking and quality consciousness) may influence product perceptions, the next section switches focus from the individual to the product. In the section, the review centres on whether the strength or size of a brand may also influence product perceptions.

2.6 Brand Familiarity and Market Share: Proxies to Measure Brand Strength

2.6.1 Defining Strong and Weak Brand

The literature on consumer information processing for varying strengths of brands has shown the influence of brand strength on consumer behaviour and attitudes (Alba & Marmorstein, 1987; Brucks, 1985; Hammerl et al., 2016). Strength of brand is often classified as strong or weak depending upon its familiarity (Aaker, 2012) and market share (Ehrenberg et al., 2004). This thesis similarly defines a strong brand as one that has high familiarity and market share when compared to a weak brand. Specifically, brand familiarity refers to consumers' knowledge about a brand that subsists in the particular product category (Phau & Suntornnond, 2006). This knowledge depends on the comparison of brands by their product attributes and

which brands acquire unique attributes in comparison to others in the same category (Baker et al., 2002). Subsequently, brands that are more familiar often enjoy higher levels of liking among consumers, hence result in a bias for consumers' choice of brands (Rindfleisch & Inman, 1998). Similarly, whether a brand is strong or weak depends on its market share, whereby stronger brands are associated by more consumers who are more favourable of and more loyal to the brands (Bandyopadhyay & Gupta, 2004; Fader & Schmittlein, 1993). As an example within the context of this thesis, the Mars chocolate brand 'M&M' is a strong brand and Wonka is weak brand because Chinese consumers are more familiar with Mars than with Wonka as a brand of chocolate; Mars also enjoys a high market share (see Figure 8; also see Study 2 for more details). Throughout this thesis, the term *strong brands* refer to brands that are high in familiarity and market share (e.g., Mars chocolate), and the term *weak brands* refer to brands that are low in familiarity and with low or no market share (e.g., Wonka chocolate). As detailed in Study 2, this thesis tested strong versus weak brands in the same product categories to determine whether packaging likability varies with brand strength.



Figure 8: Strong (M&M's) Versus Weak (Wonka) Brand

Consumer-based brand equity is the resultant advantage of brands being strong in the market (Keller, 1998; Keller, Parameswaran, & Jacob, 2011; Romaniuk, 2013).

Brand equity occurs because of exceptional associations that consumers hold for strong brands relative to weak brands in the market (Hoeffler & Keller, 2003). As an effect of these established associations, brands with *higher market share* have as an outcome higher brand equity (Burmann, Jost-Benz, & Riley, 2009; S. Chu & Keh, 2006; Simmons, Bickart, & Buchanan, 2000). Moreover, these brands also enjoy *more consumer familiarity* (in terms of prior knowledge, ownership, usage or exposure to the brand), which is a more conceptual measure of brand equity (Keller, 1998; Lee & Ganesh, 1999; Romaniuk & Gaillard, 2007; Teichert & Schöntag, 2010; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). As opposed to strong brands, weak brands have been operationalised in the literature as those that hold a *low level of familiarity* amongst consumers and *low market share* (Keller, 1998; Low & Lamb, 2000; Roehm & Brady, 2007).

Strong and weak brands also follow a predictable pattern explained by the negative binomial distribution (NBD-Dirichlet) estimation (Ehrenberg, 1959). Based on NBD estimation, brands higher in market share enjoy behavioural loyalty (Ehrenberg & Goodhardt, 2002). The market share of strong brands is usually correlated with higher purchase frequencies (Morrison, 1966; Sharp & Sharp, 1997), repeat purchase rates (Macdonald & Sharp, 2000), share category requirements (Dawes, Meyer-Waarden, & Driesener, 2015; Pare & Dawes, 2012) tenure (length of time buyer remains a buyer) (East, Lomax, & Narain, 2001), and sole loyalty (Raj, 1985). Strong brands have more behavioural loyalty in relation to weak brands (Ehrenberg & Goodhardt, 2002). Therefore, in order to increase the penetration and strengthen the brands in non-Western markets, foreign marketers must induce consumer awareness and mental availability with appropriate communication tactics (including packaging) (Banerjee, 2008; Gielens & Steenkamp, 2007; Henderson et al., 2003).

The NBD-Dirichlet depends on the assumption of a steady state market and is perfectly applicable for packaged goods (Ehrenberg et al., 2004). The authors further provide the explanation and reason that the effects of packaging effectiveness are already subsumed in the market-share (Ehrenberg et al., 2004). Therefore, this explanation supports the fact that packaging influences brand equity and consequently contributes in setting the norms for the market and behaviour for

strong and weak brand purchase patterns (Ehrenberg et al., 2004). The subsequent sub-section discusses the differential effectiveness of packaging for strong versus weak brands and provides support for why brand strength is important to consider for this research.

2.6.2 Differential Effectiveness of Packaging for Strong and Weak Brands

Research shows the differential effects for strong and weak brand packaging strategies (Jo, Nakamoto, & Nelson, 2003; Mueller & Lockshin, 2008). On one hand, the packaging literature supports effective packaging design for weak brands in order to develop brand equity. Conversely, the literature provides evidence for the effectiveness of packaging to be more crucial for strong brands. Discrepancies were gauged in evaluations, mainly due to brand familiarity reasons. For example, packaging cues (pictures with illustration of a product) works effectively (in terms of receiving shoppers' attention) for low familiarity brands as opposed to brands holding higher familiarity (Underwood, Klein, & Burke, 2001). The authors further explained that when brands are unfamiliar and consumers do not have much information about intrinsic attributes of a product (e.g. taste of a product), they draw inferences from extrinsic attributes (packaging cues). This shows that packaging cues are more important when brand familiarity is weak.

In contrast to the above findings that cues are more important with low familiarity brands, the power of a brand is argued to reside in consumers' minds (Keller, 1993), and therefore packaging cues serve as a tool to communicate meanings and sustain equity for strong brands (Underwood, 2003). Providing support for this, more than 70% of consumers base their purchase decisions for strong brands on product packaging (Wells, Farley, & Armstrong, 2007). There is an increase in the role of packaging effectiveness for strong brands when consumers rate the taste of the food better when wrapped in strong brands' packaging as opposed to unfamiliar packaging (Robinson et al., 2007). Discrete choice experiment also confirmed the role of packaging to be more important for higher market share brands (Mueller, Lockshin, & Louviere, 2010). The authors found extrinsic attributes (packaging)

drive choice of strong brands in wine. Furthermore, in-store attention is also important for strong brands particularly when consumer is a frequent user of the product (Chandon et al., 2009) that is often gauged through using appropriate textual elements (language) on product packaging (Otterbring et al., 2013).

Early research similarly confirmed that consumers utilised different schemas to evaluate strong and weak brands in terms of familiarity (Park & Lessig, 1981). Brand familiarity reduces the cognitive effort involved in evaluating those brands due to the established knowledge structures associated with them (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Peracchio & Tybout, 1996). Therefore, strong brands gain better cognitive correlations with brand perceptions and processing (Cheung, Chan, & Sze, 2010), product perceptions (McClure et al., 2004), brand recall (Esch et al., 2012), and brand judgements (Yoon et al., 2006). Consistently, a study found that familiar brands generally attain better recall and tendency to influence consumer preferences (Carpenter & Nakamoto, 1994; Kent & Allen, 1994; W. Park & Lessig, 1981). Hence, strong brands evoke reference points in the memory for better product evaluations (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Bettman & Sujan, 1987; Kirmani & Baumgartner, 2000; Rao & Monroe, 1988).

Studies on standardisation and localisation have also shown diverging results for the effects of brand familiarity on communication messages. For example, brand familiarity is found to be insufficient to determine the effectiveness of marketing communication (Esch et al., 2006). The authors argue that brand managers must develop tactical initiatives to aid consumers to hold unique associations with the brand and sustain their feeling of contentment about them. Hence, regardless of brand familiarity, this requires managers to employ standard and consistent elements to the marketing mix (including product packaging), so that consumers may think, feel, sense and relate these cues for better brand evaluations (Schmitt, 1999, 2000). Brand communication studies suggest that brand managers should use consistent and standard messaging for familiar brands to stimulate positive consumer evaluations. For weak brands, it is suggested to use the standard messaging to create associations and awareness of the brand (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2012). This implies that

regardless of the brand familiarity, foreign marketers must adopt standardisation for their packaging.

Conversely, a completely different set of findings emerged when consumers are less familiar with the brand, communication cues are suggested to be more creative and standardised to develop positive associations (Pae, Samiee, & Tai, 2002), while familiar brands are favourably viewed despite the content of the communication (Shapiro, MacInnis, & Heckler, 1997). Therefore, it seems unclear whether standardisation is more effective in strong or weak brands and under what conditions such effectiveness occurs. Moreover, the applicability of these results to packaging of foreign brands is yet to be determined. Given these contradictory outcomes for standardisation and localisation of varying brand strength, it remains questionable whether strong versus weak brands would lead to different results for Western and localised packaging likability.

2.7 Conspicuous Versus Inconspicuous Consumption

Veblen (1899) first introduced the concept of conspicuous consumption, suggesting that consumers choose a certain product to communicate their identities. Conspicuous consumption refers to the extent to which consumption occurs in a social setting (Phillips & Back, 2011). It typically occurs when conscious involvement to become prominent in a social setting is important (Chaudhuri & Majumdar, 2010) or for the sake of appreciation by others (Veblen, 1899). Use of visible products commonly demonstrates conspicuous consumption (Roy Chaudhuri, Mazumdar, & Ghoshal, 2011). By contrast, inconspicuous consumption is defined as routine consumption pertaining to the use of ordinary products in a private situation (Shove & Warde, 2002; Sullivan & Gershuny, 2004). With inconspicuous consumption, consumers are little concerned with being appreciated by or involving others during the act of consumption. Figure 9 depicts an example of a conspicuous situation in print advertisement where there is product (Coca Cola) consumption in a social gathering (with family and friends).



Figure 9: Illustration of Conspicuous Consumption Situation

Symbolism theory (see page 61) posits that brand choice depicts symbolic meaning to others based on the association between brand and type of person consuming the brand and his/her attitudinal disposition (Muniz Jr & O'guinn, 2001). Researchers have shown that products consumed in social or public settings generally hold higher symbolic value than products consumed in private situations (Childers & Rao, 1992). This is because product attributes and cues can symbolise certain meanings, and others comprehend these meanings when an individual consumes the product in a social place (Lianxi & Wong, 2008; Souiden & M'Saad, 2011). As a result, consumers use these products to communicate symbolic meanings to others about their self-image (Roy Chaudhuri et al., 2011; Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991). For example, when individuals wish to symbolise their modernity in social situations, they prefer to consume foreign products or products with foreign names in order to create an impression of being modern (Doğan & Özkara, 2013; Lianxi & Wong, 2008; Piron, 2000).

2.7.1 Conspicuous Consumption and Social Influence

Researchers agree that the possession and consumption of certain brands signify distinctiveness (McCracken, 1986, 2005; O'Shaughnessy, 1992). Hence, brands

create values such as good taste in selection of brands through the symbolic value (such as foreignness, quality etc.) ascribed to them (O'cass & Frost, 2002). Research argued that enhancement of conspicuousness and hedonism occurs due to the presence of distinct brand elements, making it visually appealing to consumers. (Han, Kwortnik, & Wang, 2008). Berger and Ward (2010) further assert that for products consumed in conspicuous settings, the brand name must be presented on a product in such a way that observers are able to see and make inferences about the product and person consuming it. Consequently, showing these products publically is a behavioural tendency to reveal the possession and owning of something special and novel (O'Cass, 2004). Self-congruity theory may explain this; congruence between self-image and product image is crucial for product modification strategies (Miranda, 2009). The theory contends that consumers choose certain products, believing products depict their image and lifestyle to others in the society (Miranda, 2009) and enhance their self-concept (Ekinci & Riley, 2003).

Possessions often help identify consumers (Belk, 1988; Richins, 1994a), product distinctiveness becomes an important mechanism for consumers to be recognised and to portray a certain desired image to others (Richins, 1994a; Snyder, 1992). The discernment of distinctiveness or scarcity is emphasised from a psychological and social point of view, whereby products that symbolise distinctiveness are emphasised in terms of value judgements more than products that merely possess ordinary appeals to consumers (Holt, 1998; Jang et al., 2015; Lynn, 1992; Lynn & Harris, 1997; Tian, Bearden, & Hunter, 2001; Verhallen, 1982). This phenomenon may be explained using a supply-demand rule (Gierl & Huettl, 2010) such that when a product is scarce and has limited or no availability in the market, consumers tend to favour these products more under conspicuous situations mainly due to their exclusivity and rarity attributes. The element of distinctiveness can be added to using cues on packaging designs or advertising of hedonic products (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005; Huettl & Gierl, 2012). However, most studies have been conducted on prestige brands and yet to be tested for fast moving consumer products.

The dimension of conspicuousness is based on both possession gap (Jaikumar & Sarin, 2015; Ordabayeva & Chandon, 2011), which refers to how distinct packaging

may lead to the creation of impression on others. Consumers may even switch between their favourite or non-favourite items when it comes to consumption of products under conspicuous setting (Ratner & Kahn, 2002). Consequently, consumers' behaviour is more subjected to social influence (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra, 2006; Chan, Berger, & Van Boven, 2012; Escalas & Bettman, 2003; Han, Nunes, & Drèze, 2010; Park & Lessig, 1977; Thomas, Jewell, & Wiggins Johnson, 2015; Wooten & Reed, 2004). A study finds the greater effect of social influence in conspicuous consumption as opposed to inconspicuous situation (Kulviwat et al., 2009). For example, Chinese consumers become more hedonic value driven when witnessed by others (Liao & Wang, 2009). Consequently, they are more willing to spend money for conspicuous products that symbolise modernity and affordability to others (Atsmon et al., 2010).

As opposed to products for conspicuous consumption, the majority of utilitarian goods such as shampoo, milk and bottled water are typically considered as inconspicuous products (Lianxi & Wong, 2008; Piron, 2000; Wong & Lianxi, 2005). Since inconspicuous consumption motivation is non-exclusive and not prominent to others, the effect of social influence on inconspicuous consumption is generally *not* strong (Childers & Rao, 1992). As a result, consumers become less concerned about the symbolic value of their consumption (Rahman, Zhu, & Liu, 2008). Interestingly, however, emerging literature on inconspicuous consumption of hedonic brands has identified that brand managers often use distinctive elements for their product marketing (Anaya, March 2013) and this practise is explained as a shift from conspicuousness to inconspicuousness consumption whereby distinctiveness is generally of lesser importance than conspicuous situation (Eckhardt, Belk, & Wilson, 2015; Kulviwat et al., 2009). However, in some situations consumers may prefer distinction in products in order to satisfice their own selves, rather than to please others or to gain social appraisals (Han et al., 2010). Hill et al. (2012) similarly show that when it comes to hedonic products, consumers prefer some distinctiveness regardless of mode of consumption. Therefore, this implies the importance of standard packaging may also be important under inconspicuous situations.

In summary, while distinctiveness is a key factor for conspicuous consumption, it appears that demand for distinct products in inconspicuousness situations is also sought by Chinese consumers (Lu, 2008), though this postulation is still inconclusive (Wang, 2010). Therefore, later in the conceptual development section of Study 4, this thesis tests for preference of standard packaging in both conspicuous and inconspicuous situations.

2.7.2 Influence of Fun-Seeking in Conspicuous Consumption

A key concept related to conspicuous consumption is fun-seeking. That is, consumers' consumption goals often go beyond rational reasons to include an element of psychological disposition (Fitzmaurice & Comegys, 2006). The impression creation process is concerned with image of the product in social situations as well as communicating the traits of the individual consuming the product (O'Cass & Frost, 2002). Since hedonism is one of the attributes for conspicuousness in that a conspicuous situation increases the salience of hedonic characteristics in products (Doğan & Özkara, 2013; Marcoux, Filiatrault, & Cheron, 1997; Phillips & Back, 2011), fun-seeking is an important individual disposition that may influence the consumption of hedonic products in conspicuous settings.

Earlier research in marketing has defined fun-seeking in different aspects, such as pleasure for leisure class (Veblen, 1899), sensory gratification (Rossiter & Percy, 1987), happiness or hedonic potential (Richins, 1994a), intrinsic satisfaction (Christodoulides, Michaelidou, & Li, 2009; Tsai, 2005) and pleasure experience (Richins, 1994a). Researchers argue that some consumers tend to seek pleasure, specifically defined as individuals who want to receive instant gratification (O'Shaughnessy & O'Shaughnessy, 2002). A fun-seeker or hedonist consumer is defined as a consumer who derives a sense of joy from the consumption experience, resulting from fantasy and feelings that generate a more emotional response for product preference. Although these pleasure seeking tendencies are internally gratifying, they are reflected and symbolised through the consumption of hedonic products for the desire of creating impression on others (Shukla, 2012). Fun-seeking

also links to symbolism derived from the possession of distinct products (Vigneron & Johnson, 2004).

Consumer product preference do not only depend only upon the nature of the product, but also on the sub-goals of consumption (Barbopoulos et al., 2016; Lindenberg & Steg, 2007). Therefore, fun-seeking may be considered as a sub-goal of consumption that enhances pleasure. This is demonstrated by a study on Chinese consumers who prefer foreignness, especially when the hedonic values of consumers are strong (Wang et al., 2000). The authors relate consumers' hedonic values with enjoyment and fun-seeking tendencies. Furthermore, these values also relate to consumers who spend emotionally and like to seek social appraisal for their consumption. The authors further provided the argument that fun seekers derive more emotional value from products and their packaging. Therefore, they tend to seek novelty and experiential values in them. This particular study also exemplifies the fact that fun-seeking has become synonymous with consumption that arises from Western markets (Campbell, 2005), as well as spreading to non-Western markets (Shukla, 2010, 2011)

Research has defined conspicuousness to be itself a kind of fun-seeking or hedonist behaviour, especially in social settings (Tsang, 2015). Fun-seeking consumers or hedonists desire to be socially regarded when they consume a certain product (O'Shaughnessy & Jackson O'Shaughnessy, 2002). Because of the delight received by consuming products in a social context that show distinctiveness to others, conspicuous situations boost the tendencies to seek fun (Hirsch, 2005). The social psychology phenomenon may further explain this, whereby consumers want to be perceived as more cheerful when they are in the presence of their social circle (Jordan et al., 2011). Conspicuous sociality is observed when consumers tend to reveal fun from their behaviour (in context of social media) to others (Reagle, 2015). Therefore, it appears that increasing fun-seeking or hedonism is often desirable under conspicuous situations for gaining social acceptability (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012), and more particularly in the context of Chinese consumers, where conspicuousness in consumption is a growing phenomenon (Podoshen, Li, & Zhang, 2011). Moreover, these values for seeking fun are observed and evident in

their consumption patterns, implying that fun-seeking impacts consumers' choice behaviour when they are subject to social examination (De Bettignies et al., 2011).

Although fun-seeking is commonly associated with conspicuous consumption, studies have reported conflicting and differential effects for fun-seeking under conspicuous and inconspicuous consumption situations. For example, in an early study that investigates the dissimilarities and similarities of various consumption values under conspicuous and inconspicuous consumption situations, Richins (1994b) found that under both situations, the appearance of the products matters to consumers. Specifically, fun-seeking tendency is rated more important under conspicuous situations, whereas utilitarian evaluation is more important under inconspicuous consumption. However, another study tested the influence of fun-seeking under inconspicuous situations (using hedonic products) and found the influence of pleasure seeking in the purchase decision (Phau et al., 2013).

Eastman and Eastman (2015) propose a conceptual framework for status gains under conspicuous and inconspicuous situations. The authors argue that status gain comes from intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors, whereby the effect of fun-seeking (intrinsic motivation) is more influential under inconspicuous settings than conspicuous situations. In their conceptual model, fun-seeking is an antecedent of status consumption that may not be required in conspicuous situations but it is required to boost self-enhancement in inconspicuous consumption. Furthermore, researchers claim that social extrinsic factors such as product evaluations, conspicuousness and social identity are more influential under conspicuous consumption rather than fun-seeking.

Given the conflicting findings, this thesis raises the question of whether fun-seeking would yield a more positive influence for conspicuous rather than inconspicuous situations. In particular, it seeks answers to this question using products that are suitable for use under both conspicuous and inconspicuous situations (see Study 4 method section). As individuals susceptible to social influence would prefer standardisation in the products they consume (Özsomer, 2012), high fun-seeking consumers in non-Western markets would prefer to consume products that signify

foreignness in order to impress others and seek acknowledgement from them (Özsomer, 2012). Hence, the consumption of hedonic products may not only result from a drive to seek fun, but also may increase in conspicuous situations where fun-seeking tendencies could be raised and result in different purchase patterns opposed to a private consumption context. For example, researchers contend that consumption under conspicuous situations takes place in order to seek pleasure from aesthetic beauty and appearance of the products (Wiedmann et al., 2009). Therefore, as later hypothesised in this thesis, it is likely that effects of foreign cues may be more salient for fun-seeking consumers in a conspicuous situation as opposed to an inconspicuous setting.

2.8 Theoretical Underpinning of the Influence of Packaging Symbols on Consumer Behaviour

This thesis draws on three key theories to support the hypotheses regarding the influence of product packaging symbols on consumer behaviour. The first is signalling theory (Spence, 1973); the second is symbolism theory Cooley (1902); and the third is accessibility-diagnosticity theory (Feldman & Lynch, 1988). The following sections review these theories, particularly within the marketing context of this research.

2.8.1 Signalling Theory

Spence's (1973) theory of signals concerns how individuals and organisations communicate through signal transmission, and how the receivers interpret these signals. According to Spence (1973), signals are manipulative attributes or cues that may convey information about an object. The application of signalling theory was initially implemented in higher education, which serves as a signal in the job market (Spence, 1973). The study took into consideration the organisational problems, where managers encounter difficulties in hiring suitable candidates for the job mainly due to lack of awareness about applicants' competencies and skills. In order to signify their potential and aptitude for the job, candidates strive to attain higher education. The higher education therefore acts as a signal of higher quality in

comparison to those who could not attain higher education, and hence are classified as low quality candidates.

Subsequently, signalling theory was applied and extended to organisational behaviour research to determine the quality of organisations (Cadsby, Frank, & Maksimovic, 1990). In specific, the researchers developed a certain benchmark of reward structure as a signal of quality for customers and investors (Cadsby et al., 1990). The theory application then extended to the field of sociology (Glazer & Konrad, 1991), economics (Corneo & Jeanne, 1997; Wright, 1998) and finance (Benartzi, Michaely, & Thaler, 1997; Robbins & Schatzberg, 1986).

2.8.1.1 Applying Signalling Theory to Marketing

Later, this theory was also deployed in marketing, particularly in advertising research to underpin how advertising transmits signals to consumers about product quality (Kirmani, 1997; Kirmani & Baumgartner, 2000). Researchers have discovered the role of signalling theory in the context of marketing communications using visual and verbal cues. For example, creative advertising (using visual cues) sends quality signals to consumers about the product quality and results in increasing purchase intentions towards advertised products (Grewal et al., 2014). The authors however argue that creativity can also arise from verbal or language cues (Grewal et al., 2014). Therefore, consumers also perceive product quality from verbal elements of advertising, assuming it as a kind of signal from marketers (Dahlén, Rosengren, & Törn, 2008). It has also been established that in order to signal excellence of the firm and its products to consumers, companies spend significant amount of budget in advertising and packaging modification (Erdem & Swait, 1998) to build brand equity (Luo & Donthu, 2006; Yoo, Donthu, & Lee, 2000). Managers' rationale for expenditure on packaging and advertising is to send out credible signals to consumers regarding their effort in communication of products, as a result providing signals to consumers to expect a higher value product from them (Kirmani & Wright, 1989). Therefore, this formed the basis for the application and extension of this theory into developing effective packaging design.

The application of this theory also extended to consumer behaviour in order to explain the underlying phenomenon of product quality perception by consumers (Boulding & Kirmani, 1993; Rao, Qu, & Ruekert, 1999). More specifically, it was applied to study extrinsic cues on products as a signal for evaluation, such as brand name (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001; Erdem, Swait, & Valenzuela, 2006), retailers' image (Beneke et al., 2013; Biswas & Biswas, 2004; Mitra & Fay, 2010), product warranties (Fang, Gammoh, & Voss, 2013), and price (Bellezza, Gino, & Keinan, 2014; Mastrobuoni, Peracchi, & Tetenov, 2014). For example, the use of an extrinsic cue (product warranties) is studied as a signal for better product quality (Boulding & Kirmani, 1993). Similarly, umbrella branding (which involves the use of the same brand name to market multiple products) is used to signal transferability of quality of a parent brand to a new product in the market (Wernerfelt, 1988).

Packaging design, using language manipulation as verbal cues to consumers, has not been tested using signalling theory. Rao and Monroe (1989) indicate a basis for further research by defining signals as cues that aid in delivering information about the product perception to consumers, which therefore supports the applicability of this theory in the context of this thesis. Signalling theory postulates that cues can only function when there is information irregularity and cues have high credibility for recipient of the message (Tirole, 1988). Therefore, this postulation also fits well in the context of packaging research, as foreign and local language may provide information asymmetry to consumers and either of the languages may serve as appealing signals to consumers in non-Western markets.

2.8.1.2 Verbal Cues on Product Packaging as Signals to Consumers

Within the context of this thesis, because signals derive from extrinsic attributes such as packaging of the products (Espejel et al., 2009; Richardson et al., 1994), signalling theory has been applied to explain the influence of packaging on consumer behaviour. While consumers may utilise both extrinsic and intrinsic cues to evaluate products, the effectiveness of extrinsic signals is more influential even when all intrinsic cues were present to them for evaluation (Veale & Quester, 2009). There are three underlying reasons for relying more on extrinsic signals. The first

reason is availability in comparison to intrinsic cues and more observability at point of purchase (Underwood, Klein, & Burke, 2001). Consequently, packaging at point of purchase communicates and transmits signals about product quality to consumers, particularly when it is more distinct and appealing (Warlop, Ratneshwar, & Van Osselaer, 2005). Secondly, extrinsic signals are easier to comprehend and understandable by consumers (Atkinson & Rosenthal, 2014; Bloom & Reve, 1990). Thirdly, consumers have less time to spend in shopping and making product choices (Dickson & Sawyer, 1990). Therefore, these cues on product packaging are worthwhile for extending research and application of this theory.

In support to this argument, Rocchi and Stefani (2006) show that packaging labels are signals that draw product perceptions and consumers view products as either exclusive or traditional and basic through the labels. Similarly, when easy to understand language is used on product packaging, it signals managers' competencies and results in more trustworthiness and reliability (Elsbach & Elofson, 2000). Furthermore, interaction of brand naming strategy with product packaging (rice) positively signals and enhances quality for consumers (Sarkar, Sharma, & Kalro, 2015).

Recent research in the context of packaging has also shown the use of multi-language in signalling product quality and developing positive perceptions (Huettl-Maack & Schwenk, 2016). The authors provided an example of a real market based practise, whereby Nivea Company practises multi-language strategy for its products such as bath care and soap in Germany. The authors argued that consumers often find a mix of English, French, Spanish, Greek or Dutch simultaneously in product packaging of this brand in addition to product information only found in the German language. Furthermore, Huettl-Maack and Schwenk (2016) contend this is due to consolidated international marketing practise where the production of products occurs in one country and distributed into many other countries. Findings revealed that multiple languages on product packaging did not signal quality itself, but have effects through consumers' belongingness and associations with the language.

This is consistent with the findings of another study where there is comparison of English language on packaging with English and Spanish together on product other packaging (Gopinath, Glassman, & Nyer, 2013). The results show that bilingual packaging is ineffective. The test for a multilingual package description using English, Spanish and French moderates the lowest evaluation for bilingual packaging. However, the authors argued that multiple languages on packaging reduce package readability unless there is removal of other information about product features and functionality description from the packaging. The English language package preference for Hispanics is based on consideration for English language association to be their own language by default. However, the results also confirmed that Hispanics buy low quality products; therefore, bilingual packaging is rated less likable. This depends on the inference that inclusion of the Spanish language (local language) signals low product quality perception, consequently resulting in negative evaluation.

Research has further indicated that the perception of foreign language differs from consumers' perception of local language (Also see section 2.3.2 for detailed discussion on how product perception changes with the change in language), as foreign signifies Westernisation (Gerritsen et al., 2007) and the native language is associated with belongingness for product marketing (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008). Therefore, knowing the fact that Western and local language affects product perceptions and may signal different meanings to consumers, it is important to study the effectiveness of Western and local language as an extrinsic signal for packaging evaluation of foreign brands in non-Western markets.

In summary, signalling theory is applicable to this thesis as it explains the rationale for driving effectiveness of language signalling on packaging for consumers (in terms of their resultant behavioural choice and attitude) under varying situations (hedonic and utilitarian products in Study 1, hedonic and utilitarian products with varying brand familiarity in Study 2, hedonic and utilitarian products with varying consumers' attitudinal dispositions in Study 3, and hedonic products only in conspicuous and inconspicuous situation in Study 4).

2.8.2 Symbolic Theory

Cooley (1902) was credited with the original conceptualisation of symbolic theory by providing an argument for early childhood self-concept development, where children develop a self-concept by observing others' behaviour towards them. Related to signalling theory, Mead (1938) extended symbolic theory into the field of sociology. Later, Blumer (1969) coined the term called 'Symbolic Interactionism' in order to further extend the application of this theory, particularly social psychology (Balmer, Hudson, & Balmer, 2013; Fine & Martin, 2006; Kuhn, 1964; Stryker, 1980, 1987). The theory revolved around how individuals interpret and draw meanings from the objects around them (Blumer, 1969). In turn, the meanings allow people to develop self-perception and portray their self-image to others (Blumer, 1969; Forgas, 1995). The meanings associated with objects is also expected to vary according to the situation or environment within which the object is present (Burbank & Martins, 2010).

Starting from the 80's, symbolic theory has also been extended beyond social psychology to marketing and consumer behaviour to explain how symbolic consumption occurs as a phenomenon (Solomon, 1983) and how these meanings derive from product consumption (Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk, & Preciado, 2013; Leigh & Gabel, 1992; Sirgy & Su, 2000). Within a marketing context, the theory posits that consumers associate certain products or brands with certain symbolic values. Possessions of products serves as consumer's identity, which is influenced by symbolic meaning associated to those products (Dittmar, 1992; O'Cass, 2004). Symbolic meanings of products are used as an outward expression of one's self that helps in constructing impression of others in society (Elliott & Wattanasuwan, 1998). In addition to this, individuals often hold communicative associations with brands, as brand depicts social identity of consumers (Reed, 2004; Wilcox, Kim, & Sen, 2009). For instance, possession of hedonic products in a social setting may indicate a person is a fun seeker (O'cass & Frost, 2002). Therefore, consumers often define the construct of their social identity through their consumption (Fitzmaurice & Comegys, 2006). Similarly, possessing a foreign brand may symbolise status, and consumers seeking prestige would look favourably at this brand (Keller, 1993). As

symbolic value is primarily used for constructing and modelling consumers' self-concept, symbolic consumption is, therefore, a way for consumers to express their identity often derived by symbolic attributes of the products (Fischer, 2000; Hogg, Cox, & Keeling, 2000). Consequently, brand managers would purposely attach certain symbolic cues to products or brands in order to take advantage of this consumer phenomenon (Ekinci et al., 2013)

Research investigating the underlying rationale of symbolism and semiotics has conceptualised the motivations of symbolic consumption by using symbolic theory across different domains, including the psychological effects on symbolic value of brands on reference groups (Childers & Rao, 1992), ethnic identity (Maldonaldo & Tansuhaj, 1999), consumer experience (Tsai, 2005), materialism (Richins, 1994b), country of origin effects (Piron, 2000), and public versus private consumption (Sundie et al., 2011). Further studies also found that symbolic values drive brand choice and send meaningful signals to consumers taking into consideration their psychological dispositions (Berger & Ward, 2010; Han, Nunes, & Drèze, 2013; Kapferer & Bastien, 2009; Mathur, Chun, & Maheswaran, 2016; Murphy & Dweck, 2016). For example, preference for foreign brands depends on the level of consumer attachment to the global values, mediated by the identity function of being foreign and moderated by the product category symbolism (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015).

Within the context of this research, symbolic value refers to the extent consumer attach psychological meaning to objects on a product packaging (Smith & Colgate, 2007; Van Ooijen, 2016). For utilitarian products, literature on symbolism theory has argued these products are often evaluated more on functional attributes, involving consumers' cognitive schemas to draw meaningful symbols from product attributes. In contrast, for hedonic products, there is activation of affective schema to evaluate these products (Smith & Colgate, 2007). Building on these studies, one can surmise that standard and localised packaging may provide different symbolic values to the consumers for hedonic and utilitarian products packaging. Since foreign brand itself symbolises quality status for non-Western markets the foreign and local semiotics on the packaging may influence consumers prefer ability of the packaging and the brand itself. A review of the literature has already highlighted that

consumers perceive foreign and local cues differently; therefore, foreign and local language on the pack may provide different symbolic values to the consumers. As an example of this, see Figure 11 that shows how language on packaging may infer different meanings to consumers.

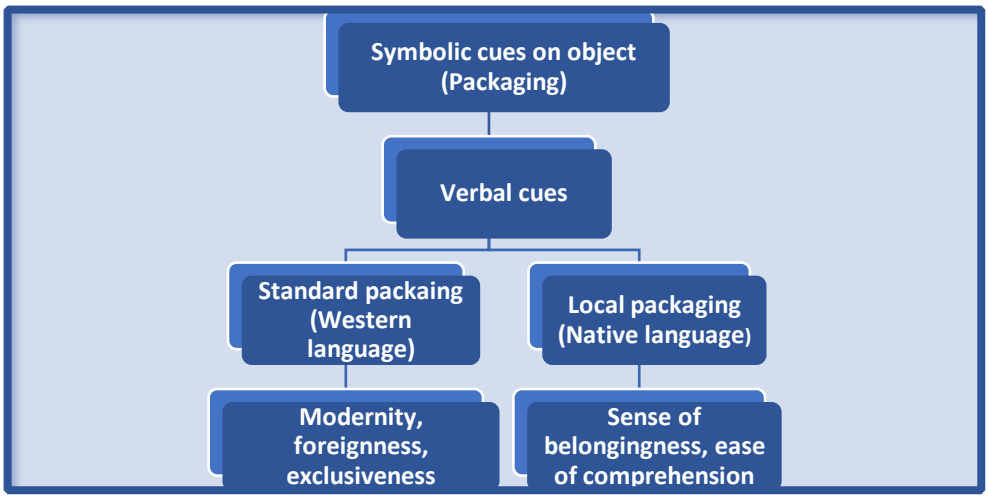


Figure 10: Symbolic Meaning Inferred from Foreign and Local Language on Packaging

According to Mick (1986), semiotic principles are applicable to objects because of the linguistic and psychological dimensions of brand characteristics (Robertson, 1992). Semiotics is a process of communicating with signs and symbols (Eco, 1976). Product package symbolises meaning to consumers through its possession of different cues (Pantin-Sohier, 2009), and the process of deriving meaning is situation specific (Chiang, 2009; Geertz, 1973). Consumers may draw symbolic meaning and association such as foreignness or casualness depending upon the typeface of the packaging (Van Rompay & Pruyn, 2011) and through use of different languages (John, 2015; Kuehnl & Mantau, 2013; Robert, 2014). Therefore, language on the packaging of foreign brands is essentially a symbol for consumers and depicts some kind of meaning for them. The topic of packaging has been well studied in the past two decades in this context; however, there has been less attention given to the foreign and local cues on packaging of foreign brands. Understanding how consumers respond to these packaging types is essential for foreign marketers under varying situations.

The application of this theory is also evident in the conspicuous product consumption literature. For example, Goffman (1979) extended the root of this theory by arguing that in order to create a desired impression on others in a social setting, consumers symbolise this impression via their consumption. According to earlier research by Holman (1981), in order to symbolise self-image to others, the product should be distinct to others in social setting. This is because a match between the self-image of consumers and a product helps in enhancing the impression management on others (O'cass & Frost, 2002; Roy & Rabbanee, 2015).In relation to this, packaging design also creates symbolic meanings in public and private settings (Underwood, 2003). For example, a consumer may prefer Western packaging to enhance self-image to appear modern when subject to social examination. The same individual may also like the local packaging during unobserved consumption, but for private use only. Based on the conspicuous and inconspicuous discussion, this thesis proposes this conceptual model (see Figure 11) on how symbolic interaction occurs in the context of this thesis (particularly in Study 4).

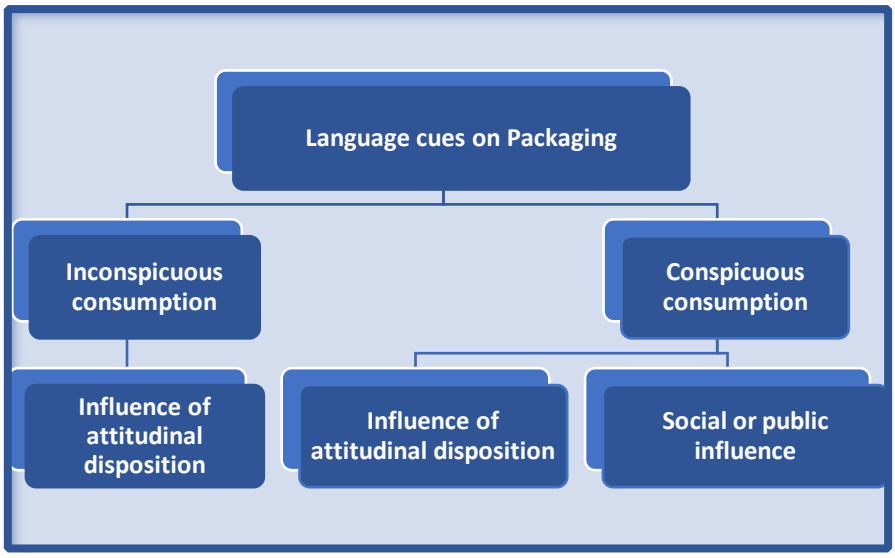


Figure 11: Symbolic Interaction of Packaging under Conspicuous and Inconspicuous Situation

In summary, symbolic theory fits well with this thesis to explain importance of verbal symbols on packaging (Study 1 and 2), as well as how effectiveness of these

cues vary for attitudinal dispositions (Study 3) and finally for conspicuous and inconspicuous situations (Study 4). Drawing on the theory, this thesis contends that language cues engender different symbolic meanings to consumers under different conditions.

2.8.3 Accessibility and Diagnosticity Theory

Feldman and Lynch (1988) established the foundation of accessibility-diagnosticity theory in the field of consumer psychology and behaviour for measuring individuals' beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behavioural responses towards products. Researchers explain accessibility as saliency or familiarity that requires less effortful cue retrieval from memory (Fazio, 1990; Fazio, Powell, & Williams, 1989). By contrast, diagnosticity is described as a sufficiency of cue for evaluation of an attribute (Unni & Pillai, 2010). Diagnosticity implies cue exclusivity or distinctiveness that is adequate for product evaluation (Feldman & Lynch, 1988; Lynch Jr, Marmorstein, & Weigold, 1988). Both accessibility and diagnosticity are highly correlated to each other (Herr, Kardes, & Kim, 1991).

The underpinning of this theory depends on three assumptions (Feldman & Lynch, 1988). Firstly, the more accessible (or salient) the cue is in memory, the greater are its influences. Secondly, when a single cue is more diagnostic (i.e., more useful or more meaningful) for its evaluation, other moderating diagnostic cues and alternative available cues for evaluation may be ignored. It is further assumed that cues are interpreted on a chronological basis, whereby if a cue is more salient to consumers, then there is subsequent rejection of cues even if they also have similar diagnostic values. Therefore, if an initial cue reaches diagnostic threshold, the decision is made at that point and the process of retrieval is terminated for any further evaluation of alternatives. Thirdly, differences in the disposition of individuals matters for accessibility of the cues. Lynch et al. (1988) explored the dual functionality of accessibility of cue, where they help in retrieval of source of information associated with the cue and successively helps in diagnosis (evaluation).

The large volume of literature supporting the accessibility-diagnosticity theory has led to the theory gaining popularity in marketing research, in particular to uncover the possible explanations in the context of consumer behaviour (Langner et al., 2014; Lynch et al., 1988; Menon, Raghubir, & Schwarz, 1995, 1997; Rich, 2015; Simmons, Bickart, & Lynch, 1993; Underwood, 1997). The theory infers that cues that are highly accessible (familiar) and diagnostic (distinct cues) are helpful in positive product evaluations (Jo, 2005). Consequently, more accessible and diagnostic cues on the object lead to better evaluation (Jo, 2005; Jo et al., 2003). The concepts of accessibility and diagnosticity also imply that consumers are cognitive misers in that they will not retrieve all possible information to make a judgment (Anderson, Green, & McCulloch, 2000; Meyvis & Janiszewski, 2004; Raggio, Leone, & Black, 2014). Instead, consumers will first try to retrieve the most accessible information and then process the information by making associations based on their consumption motives and personal values.

Within the context of this thesis, the accessibility-diagnosticity theory can help explain the influence of standard versus local cues in packaging because at the point of purchase packaging is physically more accessible than any other form of marketing communication (Krystallis & Chrysochou, 2014). The theory implies that making symbols on a packaging more accessible (e.g., using English or native language) would improve diagnosticity to and subsequently evaluations by consumers (Erdem & Swait, 1998; Erdem et al., 2006; Jamal, Khan, & Tsesmetzi, 2012). Indeed, the use of the accessibility-diagnosticity theory in packaging research to determine the influence of packaging information on consumers is common (Sinapuelas, Wang, & Bohlmann, 2015; Underwood, Klein, & Burke, 2001; Yan, Sengupta, & Wyer, 2014; Yuri Seo, Ono, & Ono, 2015). The theory is based on the postulation that marketers may use information cues on the product package as an input for judgement, and the judgement is a function of accessibility (retrieved from cues) and the diagnosticity of the cue (for example, likability) (Underwood & Klein, 2002).

To support the relevance of accessibility-diagnosticity theory for this thesis, research has suggested that consumers often base purchase decision on value perceptions that

are derived from extrinsic attributes such as packaging (Brucks, Zeithaml, & Naylor, 2000; Lee & Lou, 2011). As packaging design helps develop consumers' first impression (Becker et al., 2011) and communicates differential advantage (Nancarrow, Tiu Wright, & Brace, 1998; Orth & Malkewitz, 2008), putting the right cues on product packaging would allow consumers to arrive diagnostically at positive evaluations for the products (Liao et al., 2015; Simonson & Schmitt, 1997; Vihma, 1995). In this sense, putting distinct country-of-origin cues by using language symbols on packaging can influence consumers' perceptions of the product. Further support for the importance of the accessibility-diagnosticity theory to this thesis can also be gleaned from one of the assumptions of the theory—the assumption on discounting function of alternative cues present to individual, whereby if one attribute results in positive diagnostic evaluation the other is rejected even if it also has diagnostic value (Feldman & Lynch, 1988). In context of this thesis, if foreign packaging results in greater and choice behaviour, then there will be rejection of choice of localised packaging even if it also holds some diagnostic value in the minds of consumers (Lynch et al., 1988).

The diagnosticity of cues are also related to consumers' self-concept (Wheeler, Petty, & Bizer, 2005; Zhang & Khare, 2009). Zhang and Khare (2009) provided an example whereby Chinese consumers' accessibility to their own cultural identity may increase by showing them congruent Chinese cultural symbols. Similarly, reducing accessible local identity would lead to foreign products being evaluated more positively (Wheeler et al., 2005). When Chang (2012) found that consumers with greater hedonic dispositional goals tended to consume more hedonic products, he reasoned that the relevance of self and consumption is a phenomenon that stems from the accessibility-diagnosticity framework.

To conclude Section 2.8 regarding the theoretical underpinnings of this thesis, the above review shows that three theories can lend support to this thesis' hypotheses that using foreign versus local cues on product packaging can influence consumers, particularly those in non-Western markets. Each theory offers a different yet corroborative perceptive on the differential effects of language cues on product packaging. To recapitulate, signalling theory (Spence, 1973) infers that cues on

packaging are a form of signals and consumers develop perceptions of a product by interpreting these signals. Extending beyond the application of signalling theory for this thesis, Cooley's (1902) symbolism theory suggests that packaging cues not only signal to consumers about a product, they provide the products with symbolic meaning and hence consumers will prefer packaging with meaning congruent with their symbolic self-concept. Finally, the accessibility-diagnosticity theory (Feldman & Lynch, 1988) offers the explanation that the effectiveness of cues on packaging is primarily because of the ability of the cues to access memory contents related to the cues, and consequently consumers form diagnostic evaluations of the products via the accessed cues.

2.9 Attitude and Behaviour

In order to obtain corroborating evidence and provide more insights, this thesis uses a mixed method approach, with both attitudinal and behavioural choice measures (Scandura & Williams, 2000). This section discusses the issues of attitudinal versus behavioural measures in research, as well as provides an overview of the discrete choice modelling.

2.9.1 Defining Attitude and Attitudinal Measures

Consumer behaviour research has widely focused on attitudinal measures to underpin consumer preferences and product perceptions. For this purpose, researchers have used various attitudinal measures to understand consumers purchase decision (Hornikx et al., 2013; Mockaitis, Salciuviene, & Ghauri, 2013). Conversely, contemporary research in consumer behaviour casted a doubt about attitudes as strong predictors of actual behaviour (Bem, 1973; Wicker, 1969). Relying on this rationale, many researchers have now been switched to outcome based behavioural measures (Mueller & Lockshin, 2008; Mueller, Lockshin, & Louviere, 2010; Mueller et al., 2010; Wang, Menictas, & Louviere, 2007).

Attitudinal measures have so far been used extensively to measure consumer behaviour towards different stimuli in marketing communication, more

predominantly in context of advertising (Lianxi et al., 2015), packaging (Ares et al., 2010; Moraes, Carrigan, & Szmigin, 2012) and product perceptions (Alden et al., 2006; Guo, 2013; Kumar, Lee, & Kim, 2009; Marlow & Jansson-Boyd, 2011; Son, Jin, & George, 2013). Attitudinal measures include likability and willingness to purchase. In relation to behavioural measure, consumer stated choice has been used as a proxy of behaviour. This study has adopted both attitudinal (likability) and behavioural (choice) measures to understand whether choice differs from attitudinal ratings. The subsequent section discusses the importance and rational for electing both attitudinal and behavioural methods.

Early research in social psychology used attitudinal measure to understand individuals' response towards stimuli (Ajzen, 2001; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Eagly and Chaiken (1993) defined attitude as a criterion for evaluation of an entity. The authors defined it to be a composite of three elements: objects, tendency, and evaluation. Together these three elements refer to individuals' tendency to evaluate a certain object, whereby evaluation may be cognitive, affective or behavioural. Since then numerous definitions for attitude emerged, whereby Allport (1935) provided an abstract definition after reviewing definitions for attitude from the middle 1800s. Allport defines attitude as an affective consequence of a prompt arising from neural activity, due to experiencing a stimulus. Progressively, many other definitions of attitude emerged in the literature so far. For example, attitude is defined as psychological propensity of individuals to hold some degree of favour or disfavour towards an object (Eagly & Chaiken, 2007). Gawronski (2007) provided an inclusive definition of attitude as a composite of inner propensities, evaluation associations and activation of patterns (favour or disfavour) in the memory.

Research has further classified attitude as an affective construct and ascribed varying processing terms in literature of marketing and consumer behaviour. For example, attitude is defined as a filtration process depicting how people may perceive a stimulus (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1977), learning susceptibility process to respond either positively or negatively towards an object (Fishbein, 1966; Koballa, 1988), perception process of an individual and the tendency to react towards a certain object (Ajzen, 2001), and as a dispositional process towards an object, which may lead to

actual behaviour (Lutz, 1980), despite the validation for instable attitude that weakens the prediction of consumer behaviour (Eagly & Chaiken, 1995). Based on this review on attitude, Figure 12 represents a conceptual model of attitude.

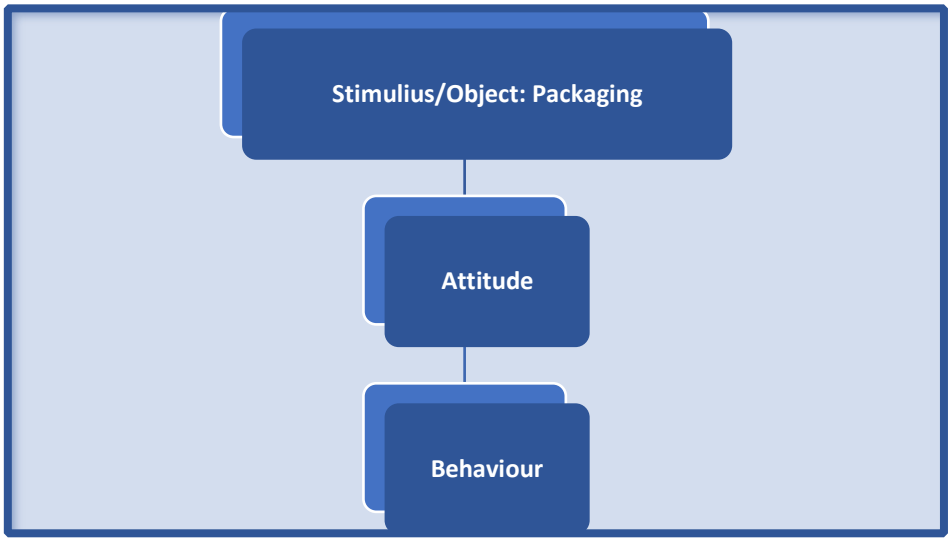


Figure 12: Conceptual Model for Attitude Influencing Behaviour

Researchers have also linked the attitudinal process to consumers' memory. For example, studies reported that attitude is memory based and is generally stowed in consumers' minds due to prior exposure with an object that provide an ease in evaluation of that particular object (Eagly & Chaiken, 2007; Glaser et al., 2015). Some researchers disagree with this argument, postulating attitude to be a spontaneous reaction towards an object regardless of prior cues stored in the memory (Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2007; Schwarz, 2007).

2.9.2 Attitude Research in Consumer Behaviour

Consumer behaviour studies have widely deployed the construct of attitude in determining product perceptions. Examples include determining attitude towards elements of marketing mix including product quality (Ahmed et al., 2002; Elliott & Cameron, 1994), country of origin (Kaynak, Kucukemiroglu, & Hyder, 2000), brand evaluation (Ettenson, 1993; Gil et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2012), and marketing strategies evaluation (Ilicic, Baxter, & Kulczynski, 2015; Lenoir et al., 2013; Pae et al., 2002; Pappu, Quester, & Cooksey, 2007).

Besides these, there is an extant body of literature measuring attitude of consumers towards foreign products in the context of non-Western countries (Beaudoin, Moore, & Goldsmith, 1998; Bhuian & Kim, 1999; Kaynak & Kara, 2002; Watson & Wright, 2000). For example, when attitude towards brand becomes more favourable, it increases brand equity (Baldinger & Rubinson, 1996). Nevertheless, studies also reported that attitude predicts intention to purchase, brand equity and helps determine process of consumption behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Faircloth, Capella, & Alford, 2001). Aggregate findings of these studies shows that consumers hold different attitudes towards different marketing mix elements (including product packaging) of imported products in the country. These findings are gauged by different attitudinal measures such as brand likability, product likability, packaging likability, likability of an advertisement, and willingness to purchase a product.

Study 1 and 2 of this thesis utilised attitudinal measures (packaging likability) only to test postulations for standard and localised packaging evaluation for brands. However, the literature has criticized attitudinal measure and argues that consumers may not choose what they report (Roberts, 1996). Therefore, the subsection discussed attitude behaviour inconsistency to shed more light on the importance of using mixed method including both attitudinal and behavioural measures.

2.9.3 Attitude-Behaviour Inconsistency

Fazio (2007) criticised the Allport's (1935) speculation about behaviour to be consistent with attitudinal responses. The author condemns that such definitions lack empirical support to confirm consistency. Therefore, researchers began to examine the consistency between attitudinal and behavioural responses towards object. Studies raised serious concerns against using attitude as a means to postulate for consistent behavioural responses (Bem, 1973; Wicker, 1969). Hence, Zanna, Higgins, and Herman (1982) argued that the behavioural component should not be a part of an attitude definition, unless there is proven consistency between the two by empirically testing it. DeFleur and Westie (1963) referred to this to as the 'fallacy of expected correspondence'. As a reason for identification of gaps in verbal expression

and actual behaviour in the past research, models of attitude acknowledge this fallacy or attitude-behaviour inconsistency (Fazio, 2007).

Consistent with the concerns raised regarding attitude predicting behaviour, validation for an existence of incongruity between verbal expressions of consumers and their actual behavioural outcomes was found, whereby asking consumers what matters for them may not provide a true picture for what they actually choose (Carrington, Neville, & Whitwell, 2010; Mueller, Lockshin, & Louviere, 2010). Earlier, researchers generally assumed attitudes as good estimators of actual behaviour; however, it is often not true when it comes to market behaviour (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; Sheeran, 2002). This is often termed as a gap between attitude and behaviour, also known for 'words deed gap' in the literature (Roberts, 1996). There has been confirmation of this gap between attitude and behaviour, whereby contradictory results have shown a difference between what consumers claim to buy and like and what they actually buy (McEachern et al., 2005).

Besides recent research arguing for an attitude-behaviour gap, this argument was raised in 1930's with the finding of unpredictable patterns in consumer attitudes and their behaviours (LaPiere, 1934). LaPiere (1934) found a weak correlation between attitude and behaviour; however, these findings were ignored until the 1960s. Therefore, to validate these findings, a researcher correlated attitude and behaviour across 47 studies, finding the same patterns and approximately zero correlation (Wicker, 1969).

Some studies argue that attitude might predict behavioural patterns for consumers. For instance, a study found a hierarchical relationship from product values to purchase intention, which further relates to purchase behaviour (Follows & Jobber, 2000). However, numerous studies have shown inconsistency between actual behaviour of consumer as opposed to their claimed behaviour. For example, consumers that hold socially responsible attitudes were more likely to buy products from socially responsible firms (Boulstridge & Carrigan, 2000). However, the actual market share data revealed that sale of those products remained less in the observed period and only 20% continued to buy those products (Boulstridge & Carrigan,

2000). Similarly, another survey revealed that 51% of respondents claimed that they would quit the use of a brand if they knew child labour resulted in its production, but approximately 20% actually supported inaction in such cases (Rogers, 1998).

The above studies show a notable difference in claim of attitude and actual behaviour. Furthermore, researchers define the inconsistency between attitude and behaviour as 30:3 phenomena, where 30 percent of consumers claim to buy ethical products and only three percent buy in reality (Cowe & Williams, 2000). Another study showing a weak relation between attitude towards product (pork) and actual buying behaviour (in Brazil) demonstrates this (De Barcellos, et al., 2011). The author finds that knowledge about production function did not moderate the consumption behaviour despite the prevalence of environmental consciousness amongst consumers. Developing this finding, a study proposes potential factors such as prior knowledge or familiarity with brands and brand loyalty that may interfere in influencing inconsistencies between attitude and behaviour (Papaoikonomou, Ryan, & Ginieis, 2011). On a similar notion, consumers' positive attitude towards products does not comply with behavioural responses due to product availability and price (Aschemann-Witzel & Niebuhr Aagaard, 2014). Therefore, it is important for marketers to estimate consumer behaviour using a mixed method approach (using attitudinal and behavioural measures) that is more reflective in gauging precision, accuracy and validity of results.

2.9.4 Discrete Choice Experiments (DCEs)

Discrete choice experiments depend on a number of hypothetical choice sets given to consumers from which to choose. A set of attributes that vary under a plausible range of levels describes each choice given to them. Levels are defined as a range over which attributes vary across their options. For instance, when choosing between shampoo products, consumers may make a decision between price (high or low) and its functional value (such as for normal hair, dull hair, coloured hair) that often compels them to trade-off between these attributes. Therefore, price and functional values are described as alternatives to consumers from which to choose. However, there are two levels of price defined as high and low and three levels of functional

value (normal hair, dull hair and coloured hair). The resulting choice is analysed to determine the contribution of the attribute and level to overall utility.

An obvious use of product evaluation is based on attitudinal ratings (likability) in consumer behaviour (Khan, Lee, & Lockshin, 2015; Lianxi et al., 2015) and cost and benefit analysis (trade off) in economics (McIntosh, 2006). However, discrete choice experiment emerged from random utility theory in the context of psychology and economics to provide researchers a way to explain choices of consumers as real market based choice (Louviere & Timmermans, 1990b; Louviere, Flynn, & Carson, 2010). Hence, DCEs involve construction of hypothetical markets for choice of products. DCE imitates the actual markets to extract consumers' preference for the products for which markets may or may not physically exist (Lancsar & Louviere, 2008). There are good reasons to use DCE. Firstly, DCE provides various alternatives to the consumers to choose their preference from by doing trade-offs for one or another (Lancsar & Louviere, 2008). Secondly, in field of consumer behaviour research, one of the most important advantages of DCE is that it provides rich data sources for consumer decision making, which allows analysis of the alternatives given to consumers based on its utility (Lancsar & Louviere, 2008; Lancsar & Louviere, 2006). Thirdly, based on the earlier discussion about consumers' attitude, asking consumers to state what they like may not result into actual buying behaviour (Mueller, Lockshin, & Louviere, 2010).

DCE has been successfully used by various marketing researchers to underpin consumer behaviour towards packaged goods, using various levels and attributes (Casini, Rungie, & Corsi, 2009; Cohen et al., 2009; Williamson et al., 2016). According to Louviere et al. (2008), the DCE approach can determine indirect importance weights for an attribute through consumer choice of a stimulus, without requiring explicit attention for each attribute. Literature has also referred these combinations to a product concept, where attributes having different levels are combined and presented in various random combinations to make trade-offs (Cohen, Goodman, & Cohen, 2009). In context of this thesis (particularly in Study 3), consumers are given different alternatives such as packaging (standard and localised), brands (strong, weak, any other brand) and price points (+20% market

price, +10% market price, -10% market price and-20% market price) to make trade-offs for their choice. The resulting choice is then analysed for determining the weight of importance of each attribute (such as, packaging hold 50% importance in choice behaviour followed by brand say 30% and then by price say 20%).

2.9.5 Importance of using DCEs

The introduction and applicability of deployment of DCE in marketing research is credited to Louviere and Woodworth (1983) and is now been extensively accepted and used in recent product-choice based studies in context of consumer behaviour (Scozzafava et al., 2016). DCE has gained recognition over the past decade in areas of economics, marketing and consumer behaviour research as it forces the respondent to trade off different attributes to make a choice decision comparable to the realistic purchase of products (Mueller, Lockshin, & Louviere, 2010). Ever since acceptance of DCE as a proxy of real market based choices, researchers began to use DCEs to study different attributes and their choices. For instance, an earlier study tested the effects of various price levels on choice consistencies (Dellaert, Brazell, & Louviere, 1999). Similarly, visual presentation of products is studied to understand activation of set of attributes that can be captured in consumers' choices (Mueller, Lockshin, & Louviere, 2010).

Since consumers encounter a wide range of choice situations in everyday life, DCEs have been deployed in researching supermarket purchases (Chang, Lusk, & Norwood, 2009), making choices for transportation (Currim, 1981), deciding for recreational destination (Haab & Hicks, 1997; Louviere & Timmermans, 1992) and residential location (Sener, Pendyala, & Bhat, 2011), making decisions in health care choices (Lancsar & Savage, 2004; Lancsar & Louviere, 2008; Telser & Zweifel, 2007) and for product based choices (Corsi, Mueller, & Lockshin, 2012; Lagerkvist et al., 2014; Mueller et al., 2010).

Discrete choice approaches claim to have greater external and predictive validity in estimating actual market outcomes in comparison to attitudinal based methods of measuring purchase intention or product likability (Louviere, Hensher, & Swait,

2000), whilst preferences measured using traditional Likert-type instruments are subject to variation in accuracy and biased on predictive inferences (Adamowicz, Louviere, & Williams, 1994; Ben-Akiva et al., 1994; Ben-Akiva et al., 1999). Using combinations of attitudinal measures (likability) with stated preference data (choice behaviour) to increase the predictive validity of the model for consumer preferences confirms this (Carlsson & Martinsson, 2001; Eom & Larson, 2006).

In addition to measuring consumer preferences, DCEs also provide assessment for change in level of attributes to the change in importance of attribute. As an example of this, Lockshin et al. (2006) found differential choice behaviour for brand, price and region of product (wine) when consumers are more or less involved with the product. Similarly, to elaborate more, this thesis tests for packaging choice in standard and localised form with sensitivity to varying price points (+20% market price, +10% market price, -10% market price and-20% market price) along with brands (strong, weak and any other brand).

Having completed the literature view, the next chapter describes Study 1. The aim of Study 1 is to identify the effectiveness of foreign and local cues on packaging for hedonic and utilitarian products. It is the initial study to test this thesis' overarching postulations that consumers may prefer foreign products in standard packaging rather than in localised packaging, and the preference may be stronger for hedonic than for utilitarian products. As a reminder, this thesis defines standard packaging as the packaging of a Western product, as such products would normally be seen and sold in a Western country; the language cues on the packaging are in English. Conversely, a localised packaging is defined as the packaging of a Western product as seen and sold in a non-Western country; the languages cue on the packaging are in the native language of the country. As an example, see Figure 1 on page 1.

CHAPTER 3: STUDY 1

3.1 Objective of Study 1

Study 1 represents the initial study to understand the effectiveness of foreign and local cues on product packaging of hedonic and utilitarian products. This study aims to test the postulations regarding the effectiveness of language cues in the packaging of Western products imported in a non-Western country. It also further determines whether the packaging cues work differently for hedonic versus utilitarian products.

As detailed later, the study is conducted in Pakistan, a popular non-Western market for consumption of foreign brands (Akram, Merunka, & Shakaib Akram, 2011). According to South Asia Investor Review (2013), the rapid urbanisation and rising middle class in major metropolitan cities of Pakistan, including Lahore and Karachi, has been publicised as a key reason for the increase in sales of foreign products. Proliferation of foreign brands in this market and consumers' orientation towards Westernisation has led to a rationale to test the postulations on these consumers. The study used a between-subjects design for standard and localised packaging to investigate consumers' preference for standard versus localised packaging across hedonic and utilitarian products. The next section outlines the hypotheses for this study.

3.2 Conceptual Development

Drawing on signalling theory, researchers agree that consumers utilise signals to guide their product evaluation (Dawar & Parker, 1994; Zeithaml, 1988). However, symbolic signals arising from foreign and local cues may give rise to different signals and hence differential evaluation (Lianxi et al., 2010; Sichtman, 2013; Westjohn, Magnusson, & Zhou, 2015). This phenomenon has been found in advertising (Stafford et al., 2002), branding (Olavarrieta et al., 2015) and product packaging research (Underwood, Klein, & Raymond, 2001).

In studying differential effects of cues for foreign brands, researchers have identified the impacts of Western and native language in the context of international marketing and communication (Ahn & Ferle, 2008; Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008). From different standpoints, these researchers have described the rationale and motivation for the use of Western language and native language for non-Western consumers (Hornikx & van Meurs, 2015; Hornikx et al., 2010; Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008). For example, two major reasons for the use of English language in a context whereby it is treated as a foreign language are to ease global communication with consumers and to symbolise the language with modernity and internationalisation (Kuppens, 2010).

According to Santello (2013), English language is more complex to understand by the consumers and has different symbolic implications from national local languages; therefore, it evokes different associations for consumers. Furthermore, particularly with non-Western consumers, the English language symbolises and signals novelty, exclusiveness or unusual uniqueness compared to the local language (Santello, 2013). Similarly, research in advertising and consumer behaviour studies suggest that consumers perceive a product to be more Western when advertised in the foreign language as opposed to in the local language (Gerritsen et al., 2007). Conversely, the use of local language cues is found to be associated with belongingness for product marketing (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008), ease of comprehension (Hornikx et al., 2013) and emotional attachment of consumers with national language (Puntoni et al., 2009). Drawing on accessibility and diagnosticity theory to support these arguments, one may infer that foreign and local cue may increase or decrease the diagnostic value for packaging effectiveness (Erdem & Swait, 1998; Erdem et al., 2006; Jamal et al., 2012).

Particularly in the context of packaging, researchers have established that for hedonic products, exclusiveness is important for making them visually appellant (Read & Loewenstein, 1995; Van Rompay & Pruyn, 2011; Ward & Loken, 1988). Furthermore, it has been found that for such products, consumer preferences decrease when the image is perceived as ordinary (Bettman & Sujan, 1987; Ward & Loken, 1988), and consumers do not find their purchase to be important if the

packaging is visually unnoticeable or less prominent (Hoyer & Ridgway, 1984; Huettl & Gierl, 2012). For example, a study using Chinese consumers found that Western cues work better for a hedonic product (lipstick) than a utilitarian one (lip balm) (Xu & Chen, 2016). The authors reasoned that hedonic products are more affect driven, and therefore consumers pay more attention to symbolic meanings attached to hedonic products. This may be because luxury diffusions are generally essential for hedonic products (Arora et al., 2015). Furthermore, hedonic products are evaluated on novelty features as opposed to what is existent in the market (Im, Bhat, & Lee, 2015). Research shows that foreign language implies luxuriousness and exclusiveness (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008); therefore, it raises the argument that the use of foreign language cue on product packaging may be particularly effective for non-Western consumers. That is, the exclusiveness arises from Western language on the packaging, which would increase consumers' affective response towards hedonic products.

Mantonakis et al. 2013 provides support for the postulation that foreign language cues are important for hedonic products. The authors find that foreign language cues on hedonic products increase consumers' preference, particularly when the influential cues derive from extrinsic information (such as brand name, product labels or package). The authors argue that change in fluency of cues alter sensory experiences and symbolic value, and because influential cues that are hard to pronounce or read, they create a sense of exclusivity with the products. This is consistent with the study by Pocheptsova, Labroo, and Dhar (2010), which suggests that higher exclusivity ratings positively correlate with language difficulty. Since English language fluency is typically less prevalent in non-Western consumers, particularly within this thesis' context of Pakistan and China, it is plausible that non-Western consumers in these markets will prefer standard packaging, as it implies exclusivity in hedonic products. Therefore, this thesis hypothesises the following:

> *H1: For hedonic products, consumers like the standard packaging more than the localised packaging.*

In contrast with the above hypothesis that foreign language cues are effective in influencing consumer product preference for hedonic products, research regarding the use of language cues for utilitarian products revealed conflicting results. For example, Salciuviene et al. (2010) tested the effectiveness of English, German and French language for brand name localisation of utilitarian service product (insurance), and found that when presenting a brand name in a language incongruent to the country of origin, it works effectively for utilitarian products. That is, foreignness in language cues work equally well for utilitarian products. This finding however contradicts with another study in the context of brand name localisation (Chow, Tang, & Fu, 2007). This second study found a similar effectiveness of localisation in the case of utilitarian products for Chinese consumers, but not for hedonic products (Chow et al., 2007). The authors further pointed out that for hedonic products localisation does not work at all regardless of consumer involvement with product. Conversely, for utilitarian products, they argued that the translation depends upon the level of involvement with the product. If involvement is low, localisation is strongly suggested. If involvement is higher, then localisation is only suggested when it seems feasible. High involvement for these products disregards localisation and utilitarian naturally favours for localisation. Therefore, the effect of high involvement and utilitarian effects may outweigh each other, and therefore, it is still unclear whether language strategies work for utilitarian products.

Despite a certain level of controversy, it is more plausible that foreign language cues are ineffective in influencing consumer evaluations. Research has shown that for products that are more utilitarian in nature, consumers prefer ordinary products and the usual appeals for them (Hoyer, 1984). Consumers also put more focus on product functionality and less focus on country of origin cues (Im et al., 2015; Melnyk et al., 2012). As utilitarian products are more cognition driven, consumers rely more on functionality than on symbolic appeals when evaluating the products. Therefore, consumers are indifferent to the Westernisation appeal, and foreign language effects are weak for utilitarian products due to the same reason that evaluation of utilitarian products is more inclined towards functional attributes such as packaging (Batra & Ahtola, 1991). Other studies reach similar conclusions, which

suggest the use of affective symbolic appeal for hedonic products and rational appeal for utilitarian products (Botti & McGill, 2011; Drolet et al., 2007). That is, extrinsic attributes, such as product packaging, have less effect on the evaluation for utilitarian products (Voss et al., 2003). This may be due to utilitarian products being evaluated on product centric thinking (Rintamäki et al., 2006) and a requirement for different messaging cues for marketing hedonic products (Micu & Chowdhury, 2010).

Based on evidence so far, the extant literature shows that product types influence the decision for standardisation and localisation approaches. Therefore, contrary to the first hypothesis (H1), this thesis contends that there is no difference between standard and localised packaging of utilitarian products as the consumption motive for such products is particularly to satisfy a need:

> *H2: For utilitarian products, packaging likability does not differ for standard and localised packaging.*

3.3 Methodology

3.3.1 Pre-Test

Study 1 tested for the likability towards standard and localised packaging for hedonic and utilitarian products. Pakistan is an ideal non-Western country for this study. The national and official language of the country is Urdu, and its vast consumer market ensures that major international brands are present in the country. The attractiveness of the market also ensures the abundant presence of competing brands, both foreign and domestic, to allow consumers choice. This thesis chose Pakistan as the context for this study because foreign brands are widely appreciated in this non-Western market mainly due to symbols associated with the consumption of foreign products such as social status and the perception of high quality (Batra et al., 2014; Kotler & Gertner, 2002). Loose and Szolnoki (2012) confirmed the importance of packaging elements for foreign brands, finding that packaging

elements influenced the perceptions of foreign brands more than for domestic brands.

The pre-test occurred in two steps to identify suitable hedonic and utilitarian product categories and brands for the main survey. For this purpose, this pre-test provided four products to the respondents to classify on hedonic and utilitarian dimensions. The four products presented to the participants were carbonated soft drink, potato chips, powdered milk and bottled water. Similar to other studies, potato chips (Spangenberg et al. 1997) and carbonated soft drink (Crowley et al. 1992) served as hedonic products, whereas milk (Maehle et al. 2015) and bottled water (Micu & Chowdhury 2010) served as utilitarian products. The pre-test confirmed that carbonated soft drink and potato chips to be relatively hedonic as opposed to powdered milk and bottled water.

Firstly, 50 students in a Pakistani university based in Lahore rated four products on a 1 to 7 semantic differential scale anchored on utilitarian and hedonic values. The scale was adapted from Voss et al. (2003) and varied from 1 to 7, where one denotes *most utilitarian* and seven denotes *most hedonic*. This study used a single item asking the students to rate the products on whether they felt the product served more utilitarian (functional) or more hedonic (enjoyment) purpose. Respondents were also provided with a definition of hedonic and utilitarian, including an example of each. Utilitarian products serve functional needs such as calculators, whereas hedonic products are consumed for enjoyment, such as DVD movies. For hedonic products, carbonated soft drink and potato chips were identified. Similarly, the identified utilitarian products were powdered milk and bottled water. As shown in Table 3, these products were classified as hedonic and utilitarian based on the respective respondents' rating.

Table 3: Classification of Hedonic and Utilitarian Product

	Mean of ratings for Hedonic and Utilitarian products*	Standard Deviation
Fried potato chips	5.72	1.05
Carbonated soft drink	5.78	1.29
Canned milk powder	2.26	1.56
Bottled water	1.98	1.09

** On a scale of 1-7, a higher mean denotes more hedonic and a lower mean denotes more utilitarian*

Secondly, a scan of foreign brands in supermarkets in the capital city of Lahore helped the selection of brands needed for the main experiment. The foreign brands selected for the respective product categories were Coca Cola for carbonated soft drink, Lays for potato chips, Nido for powdered milk and Nestlé for bottled water. Interestingly, these brands were selected as one could find their availability in both the standard and localised form of packaging in Pakistan.

3.3.2 Survey Design and Analysis

The survey used a 2 (product type: hedonic vs utilitarian) x 2 (packaging type: standard vs localised) factorial design. In order to ensure external validity, this study used popular brands that were readily available in Pakistani supermarkets. As mentioned earlier, for hedonic products, Coca Cola for carbonated soft drinks and Lays for chips were used for this study. For utilitarian products, Nido powdered milk and Nestlé bottled water were selected for the main experiment. Since the only actual modification in packaging in the local market is language, this thesis only maintained this manipulation in the experiment in order to ensure external validity.

For each brand, two versions of packages were selected: one representing standard packaging that is Western language and the other localised packaging that is native or Urdu language packaging. In the context of this thesis, standard packaging of brands means the packaging is in English language only, which one would normally see in a Western market. Likewise, the localised packaging is customised for the contextual market, Pakistan, and available for consumers in the Urdu language. Both the standard and localised packaging were identical in size and shape. For example, the Coca Cola cans were identical for both versions, except one had the standard English name which is the foreign packaging, whereas the localised product had the name written in the Pakistani language of Urdu which is the localised packaging. Table 4 shows the observed products for this experiment in localised packaging.

Table 4: Observed Brands for Experiment

Carbonated Soft Drink	Canned Powdered Milk
	
Bottled Water	**Potato Chips**
	

Undergraduate students in a major Pakistani university in Lahore volunteered for the experiment, and they were randomly assigned to one of two groups to reduce learning effects. No incentives or course credits were given for participation. Although the study used convenience sample, students were considered an appropriate choice, as this cohort is less biased from worldly views and provide relatively homogeneous occupations, education levels, and age groupings (Crompton, 1979; Peterson, 2001; Stayman & Deshpande, 1989). For instance, a meta-analysis on the use of students as opposed to non-students as a sample argued in favour of using student samples as they enhanced homogeneity, and hence improved generalisability (Peterson, 2001).

In this study, bilingual Pakistani students based in Lahore were recruited as participants. The participants were recruited from a private and ranked business university, where the mode of instruction is English to make sure respondents could read the packaging in English. Therefore, all the participants recruited in the

experiment were able to read and understand English language. The product type and brands were within-subjects, but packaging design was between-subjects in order to minimise learning effects. One group was exposed to all four brands and product categories (hedonic and utilitarian) in their standard packaging and the other group was exposed to the same brands and product categories in their localised packaging. The sample size for Group 1 (those presented with standard packaging = 220 participants) and Group 2 (those presented with localised packaging =150 participants), resulting in a total sample size of 370 respondents. According to Hair et al. (2006), a minimum sample size of 50 is adequate for t-tests and chi-square calculations, which were the main tests to determine statistical differences between the two groups.

For each group, the respondents rated packaging likeability using a 7-point scale, anchored on dislike and like adapted from marketing studies measuring advertising attitude or brand attitude (Batra et al., 2014; Speck & Elliott, 1997). The scale varied from -3 to 0 and to +3, whereby positive 3 denotes *strongly agree* and negative 3 denotes *strongly disagree*. This study used only single item "How much do you like the packaging of this brand?" on a Likert scale. Participants of this study were also required to rate the brand likability on the same scale used for packaging likability rating using a single item measure, except this time the rating pertained to brand rather than packaging. The respondents were also required to answer how often they purchased the brands on a scale of *never, once a week, twice a week, thrice a week, more than three times a week*. The usage frequency scale is adapted from Tarkiainen and Sundqvist (2005). The *never bought to almost always bought* response option was modified to *never bought to bought more than three times a week* to reflect the specified usage rate of respondents on weekly basis.

To further minimise learning effects, a filler task activity was placed between the rating and the perception of brand origin. The filler task asked respondents to circle three products from a list of 10 products that they considered as most hedonic in nature (See Figure 13). A good mix of foreign (such as L'Oréal lip-gloss, Kit-Kat chocolate and Garnier hair-dye) and local brands (such as Sufi ghee, Shezan juice, and Kohinoor rice) was provided to respondents to circle the three most hedonic

products. The objective was to mislead them from understanding the objective of the research.



Figure 13: Illustration of Filler Task Activity for Study 1

Participants' demographics such as age and gender were recorded for reporting purposes only. The final sample contained 370 student participants, with 72% males and 28% females. Age measured as a categorical variable ranged from 18 to 26 years or older.

The data were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 14) software. The aggregate results for packaging likability were analysed using paired sample t-tests for standard and localised packaging for both groups (one group saw all brands in standard packaging and the other who saw all brands in localised packaging). The mean rating and significance of the ratings are reported in the results section. The data were then analysed for users of the brands only to exclude any confounding effects for non-users. The criterion for splitting the sample into users and non-users is based on their purchase frequency in the month. The respondents who answered that they never purchase in the month were excluded from the post-analysis for users only. The rationale for dividing the sample between the two groups is to ensure consistency of the results between users and non-users. It is also important to segregate the results as non-users have been found to have

confounding effects on the results and may give biased responses (Bandyopadhyay & Martell, 2007; Romaniuk, 2008; Romaniuk & Ehrenberg, 2012).

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Main Results

First, the results were analysed for packaging likability using paired t-test statistics. For hedonic products, participants liked the standard packaging more than the localised packaging. This outcome held for both brands, Coca Cola (carbonated soft drink) and Lays (potato chips). However, with utilitarian products, there were no significant differences in rating between standard and localised packaging likeability (see Table 5). These results support the first (H1) and second hypotheses (H2). The aggregate results for hedonic products also show the likability of standard packaging more than localised packaging. For utilitarian products, the cumulative results of utilitarian products show approximately equal standard and localised packaging mean rating.

Table 5: Results for Between-Subjects t-test for Packaging Likability

Brands	Category	Mean value	Mean value	S.D	S.D	Sig.
		Standard Pack	***Localised Pack***	***Standard Pack***	***Localised Pack***	
Coca Cola soft drink	Hedonic	2.53	1.71	.98		<.01
Lays potato chips	Hedonic	1.97	.75	1.07	1.44	<.01
Aggregate (Coca Cola +Lays)		**2.25**	**1.23**	**1.02**	**1.32**	
Nido powdered milk	Utilitarian	1.74	1.69	1.11	1.13	.75
Nestlé bottled water	Utilitarian	2.28	2.27	.88	.99	.66
Aggregate (Nido+Nestlé)		**2.01**	**1.98**	**.99**	**1.06**	

In the post-hoc investigation, 42.4% of the participants were non-users of Nido milk. This percentage of non-users was very high compared to those for Nestlé water (9.5%), Coca Cola carbonated soft drink (3.2%) and Lays potato chips (1.4%). This unexpected result might be due to the student sample used for this study; students are less likely to buy powdered milk products. Therefore, all tests were re-run, but this time excluding non-users across all products to see whether the results would be different. As Table 6 shows, this analysis on users only produced the same

outcomes. Additionally, product usage was controlled that would have affected the perceptions of packaging likeability. The results for users also show the same patterns of results, where hedonic products are preferred in standard packaging and no difference in packaging likability is found for utilitarian products.

Table 6: Results for t-test on Packaging Likability for Users

Brands	Category	Mean Value (Standard pack)	Mean Value (Localised pack)	Sig.
		Packaging likeability		
Coca Cola	Hedonic product	2.62	1.72	<.01
Lays	Hedonic product	1.97	.75	<.01
Nido	Utilitarian product	1.73	1.67	.41
Nestlé	Utilitarian product	2.25	2.23	.75

Table 7 provides a review of acceptance or rejection of hypotheses for Study 1.

Table 7: Hypothesis Confirmation Table for Study 1

Hypothesis Statements	Hypothesis Confirmation
H1: For hedonic products, consumers like the standard packaging more than the localised packaging.	Accepted
H2: For utilitarian products, packaging likability does not differ for standard and localised packaging	Accepted

3.4.2 Other Noteworthy Findings

Table 8 shows some noteworthy findings that are also worth acknowledging for the study. Except for utilitarian products in localised packaging, all other correlations between brand likeability and product packaging were positive and significant. The correlation for standard packaging with brand likability was even stronger than for the correlation of localised packaging with brand likability.

Table 8: Correlation Between Packaging Likability and Brand Likability

Brands	Product category	Packaging type	Correlation Coefficient, r	Sig.
Coca Cola	Hedonic	Standard pack	.85**	<.01
		Localised pack	.75**	<.01
Lays	Hedonic	Standard pack	.81**	<.01
		Localised pack	.16*	.04
Nido	Utilitarian	Standard pack	.26**	<.01
		Localised pack	.11	.17
Nestlé	Utilitarian	Standard pack	.43**	<.01
		Localised pack	.11	.14

As further indicated in Table 9, brand likability for the hedonic products was more positive in standard packaging than in localised packaging. Therefore, it can be inferred that brands tended to be more likable when they were in standard packaging. For utilitarian products, the difference is insignificant, therefore there seems to be no influence of packaging likability on these brands. These results hinted on the influence of packaging likability on brand likability, while researchers in the field of brand management have also considered the role of packaging to be the most important element for likability of the brand (Garber et al., 2000; Gmuer, Siegrist, & Dohle, 2015; Pires & Agante, 2011; Schoormans & Robben, 1997; Underwood, Klein, & Raymond, 2001; Venter et al., 2011).

Table 9: Brand Likability t-test

Brands	Category	Mean	Mean	S.D	S.D	Sig.
		Standard Pack	*Localised Pack*	*Standard Pack*	*Localised Pack*	
Coca Cola soft drink	Hedonic	2.66	1.75	.88	1.23	<.01
Lays potato chips	Hedonic	2.04	1.61	1.22	.88	.03
Aggregate (Coca cola +Lays)		2.35		1.05	1.05	
Nido powdered milk	Utilitarian	1.80	1.63	1.15	1.15	.79
Nestle' bottled water	Utilitarian	2.36	2.42	.80	.72	.40
Aggregate (Nido+Nestlé)		2.08	2.02	.97	.93	

Table 10 shows the frequency statistics for respondents' usage of the brand in the month period. This is used as a criterion to exclude the non-users from the post-hoc analysis for packaging likability to overcome any effects caused by non-user sample bias (see page 90 for users only results). It is noteworthy that few respondents were non-users for the hedonic products. Even the percentage was not very high for

bottled water. However, for Nido powdered milk, the percentage of non-users was rather higher. Since students seemed less likely to be the users for such product type, it was worth controlling for in the analysis to see whether excluding non-users from the sample would make any difference to the outcome of the study.

Table 10: Usage Frequency: Criterion to Split User and Non-User Group

Brands	Never (%)	Once a month (%)	Twice a month (%)	Thrice a month (%)	More than three times a month (%)
Coca Cola	3.2	9.2	4.3	10	73.2
Lays	1.4	8.1	7.0	14.3	69.2
Nido	42.4	38.4	11.9	5.4	1.9
Nestlé	9.5	14.3	7.3	13.8	55.1

3.5 Discussion

Past research has provided a good understanding of how local consumers respond to advertising cues. This study extends this research stream by providing empirical evidence on how standard versus localised packaging of foreign products may influence consumers' perceptions and choice decisions of the foreign brands. Based upon an extensive review of literature, this is the first study that explored the effectiveness of standardisation and localisation in a product-packaging context. It further illuminates the differences for products that differ in hedonic and utilitarian attributes. Hence, this study significantly contributes to theories of standardisation and localisation of brands and marketing communication activities by providing a new theme for research in packaging. A better understanding into how consumers perceive these packaging strategies would also help international marketers operating in local markets.

Overall, this study presents initial evidence that localisation of packaging of foreign brands may not necessarily be effective for international marketers. Findings show that foreign cues improve packaging likeability only for hedonic products. By contrast, the role of packaging is less pertinent with foreign utilitarian products, where there are no significant differences in ratings between the standard and localised packaging. Collectively, the findings raise doubts about the need for Western imported brands to localise their packaging when entering markets,

regardless of the product type. In addition, not having to localise the packaging would lead to manufacturing, logistics and marketing cost savings. Screening out the non-user responses from the analysis addressed potential usage bias. However, the results for users and non-users were found to be the same in this case.

With utilitarian products, consumers do not appear to favour a particular packaging type. This result sits well with other studies, which suggest that utilitarian products are evaluated more on functional attributes such as performance, hygiene, and quality (Voss et al., 2003). It does appear that the use of foreign cues does not communicate these attributes more positively than local cues. Otherwise, consumers would have preferred the standard packaging. This is consistent with Mackie et al.'s (1990) findings that foreign language and brand names enhance the brand equity of hedonic products but not utilitarian products. Still, a future study should explicitly test whether and how foreign cues change the perceptions of a product's functional attributes.

Two additional findings are noteworthy. Firstly, there is a significant correlation between brand likeability and packaging likeability. This is consistent with the finding that suggests that cues can enhance advertising effectiveness, which in turn can enhance brand evaluation (Keller, 1987). This strengthens the argument regarding the important role that packaging plays in enhancing product attractiveness and competitiveness. Earlier discussions on hedonic products were often associated with foreignness, and such products were evaluated more on cues such as packaging aesthetics rather than functional attributes (Hagtvedt & Patrick, 2009; Reimann et al., 2010). Therefore, it can be surmised that in non-Western markets, using standard packaging for hedonic products would enhance product attractiveness and consequently lead to greater brand likability. Secondly, from a methods perspective, likability measurement should consider potential confounds from users compared to non-users, which is controlled by testing packaging likability for users only. The rationale for taking into account users only was based on the role of habit in consumer decision making, as past purchase behaviour reflects habit and has direct effects on future consumption (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). The results of the study do not change by excluding the non-user respondents from the sample.

To conclude, in order to provide guidelines for packaging designs for marketers importing products into foreign countries, it is important to understand under what circumstances the packaging is to be localised or standard. Insights into the standard versus localised approach to packaging strategies may influence consumers' evaluation of the packaging and consequently brand itself. Therefore, this thesis calls for managers' attention about these circumstances, where packaging modification by language is an important product-marketing tool in sales development

Clearly, the study provides useful implications for foreign marketers; however, it is not without limitations. Firstly, Study 1 used only food products, but past studies have found differential marketing effects for food and non-food product categories in determining consumer behaviour (Childs & Maher, 2003; Chu et al., 2010). Secondly, the study used only popular brands that are readily available in the supermarkets found to be hedonic and utilitarian from the pre-test. However, the research has shown that brand familiarity plays a key role in determining consumers' likability that often drives their purchase patterns (Cerjak, Haas, & Kovacic, 2010; Macdonald & Sharp, 2003). Therefore, it is important to measure whether the results differ across high familiarity and low familiarity brands in the market.

Based on the outlined limitations of Study 1, a subsequent study was conducted again in the same context of Pakistan. Study 2 takes into account both food and non-food products for the sake of generalisability of the results. It also extends Study 1 by differentiating between high and low familiarity brands. Learning from Study 1, Study 2 takes into consideration another shortcoming of Study 1 by screening out the non-users at the preliminary stage of the survey. By doing so, the objective was to ensure that later studies remove the confounding effects of non-users that were tested but not found in Study 1. Therefore, the brand usage effect controlled for in Study 2, as well as in the subsequent studies.

CHAPTER 4: STUDY 2

To recapitulate this thesis, Study 1 measured the likability of standard and localised form of packaging in terms of attitudinal rating. The study used hedonic and utilitarian product categories to understand whether product categories moderate the likability of one packaging to another. The study tested for food products only and found that packaging standardisation is effective for hedonic products only, whereas for utilitarian products packaging standardisation or localisation does not make any difference to the consumer. A possible explanation of these results are discussed in detail in the discussion section of Study 1, whereby utilitarian products are surmised to be evaluated more on intrinsic attributes rather than extrinsic elements such as packaging cues.

Study 1 provides useful implication for foreign brand managers to consider for the possible effects of product categories, without having to localise unconditionally. The study however holds some limitations, henceforth could not be generalizable to all product types. The study tests for one product type that is food only. The generalisability of the results for non-food product types calls for conducting another study. Furthermore, the study used strong popular and available brands in the supermarket without having to test for the brand strength and to compare whether the results differ between strong and weak brands. The pre-test of Study 1 was also not free from flaw. First, only four products were provided to respondents to rate on hedonic and utilitarian dimensions. This is a shortcoming whereby the study used the same product categories classified as relatively more hedonic and utilitarian. This also did not provide many options for respondents for classification.

Given these limitations, Study 2 extends Study 1 by addressing these shortcomings while replicating the study in Pakistan. The sections that follow describe this new study.

4.1 Objective of Study 2

Like Study 1, the primary objective of Study 2 is to determine the differences between standard and localised packaging of foreign brands in influencing consumers' perceptions of the packaging and the brands. Unlike Study 1 which only used food products, Study 2 extended the study to include both food and non-food products. Progressing to food and non-food categories allowed Study 2 to provide evidence on the persistence or variation in results across different product categories. The study also uses a within-subjects design to compare the differences in the likability of standard and localised packaging of a brand for the same individual, as well as how the packaging likeability relates to brand perceptions.

Secondly, Study 2 took into consideration the role of brand familiarity. This is because the literature review (see page 43) has established that consumers' familiarity with a brand may influence their beliefs and evaluations of the brand (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Bettman & Park, 1980; Bettman & Sujan, 1987; Kirmani & Baumgartner, 2000; Rao & Monroe, 1988). For this purpose, Study 2 tests for packaging likability in standard and localised packaging for strong and weak brands. As introduced on page 44, this thesis defines strong brands as those that hold higher familiarity amongst consumers along with the higher market share based on secondary data. Similarly, weak brands are defined as those that hold lower consumer familiarity and market share.

Thirdly, Study 2 overcomes another shorting coming of Study 1 by excluding non-users of a product from the sample. This eliminated any potential confounding effects that may arise from mixing users and non-users in the sample. The study administered this by including a screening question at the start of the survey such that respondents who indicated that they did not purchase the brands in the past six months were screened out from undertaking the main survey.

The products and brands used in Study 1 were simply developed by this thesis' author, without actually eliciting them from a representative sample. Lastly, this study extended the previous study by including a pre-test to first identify, from a

representative sample similar to the main survey sample, the selection of products to be used in the study. The final selection of products comprised hedonic and utilitarian, as well as food and non-food, products.

4.2 Conceptual Development

Research has established that the consumption of foreign brands portrays a highly desirable social distinction, particularly with hedonic products (Alden et al., 1999; Lianxi & Wong, 2008; Liu et al., 2012). Non-Western consumers often buy hedonic foreign products to enhance their social image (Friedman, 1990). Study 1 has shown that standard packaging is particularly effective for hedonic products (Hui & Lianxi, 2002; Zhou & Belk, 2004) as opposed to the products consumed on regular basis to serve functional purposes (Shukla, 2012). Thus, a key question of Study 2 was to determine whether similar results hold for strong versus weak brands. That is, Study 1 has shown that standard packaging was preferred over localised packaging for hedonic products. Similarly, Study 1 shows that for utilitarian products, there were no differences in packaging likeability of the standard versus the localised packaging. This is a key question in Study 2, the extent to which there would be a similar result for strong versus weak brands.

Especially for strong brands in the non-Western markets like Coca-Cola, it is possible to promote the products in the English language, despite the small number of English speakers in the country, ostensibly because these brands serve as a status symbol or denote Western culture (Ger & Belk, 1996). Therefore, it raises a question whether or not localisation is effective for such strong brands that possess higher familiarity among consumers. If so, a subsequent question would be whether it is also true for weak brands. Indeed, research has found that effective packaging design is equally important for weak brands in order to develop their brand equity. For example, when Underwood, Klein, and Burke (2001) found that packaging cues were effective for low familiarity brands in influencing consumer perceptions, the authors surmised that when brands are unfamiliar and consumers do not have much information about intrinsic attributes of a product (e.g. taste of a product), they tend

to draw inferences from extrinsic attributes (packaging cues). This shows that packaging cues are also more important when brand familiarity is weak.

Studies in standardisation and localisation have suggested the use of foreign cues for familiar brands (Pae et al., 2002). Westernisation is suggested to ensure consistency in brand image and to strengthen the brand equity (Okazaki et al., 2007), thereby supporting standardisation for familiar brands. Furthermore, study testing the strength of brands for country of origin cues in determining product favourability revealed consistency of results for both strong and weak brands (Chu et al., 2010). These studies argue that just because a brand is strong, it may not mitigate the negative effects of unfavourable cue utilised for its marketing. Hence, brand strength did not moderate the results differently. This postulation is also supported from studies that show that when brand is more accessible (strong) in the market it may not always be retrieved unconsciously; hence cues play a role in retrieval and diagnostic evaluation of these brands (Alba & Chattopadhyay, 1985; Romaniuk & Sharp, 2004). For example, when a cue is retrieved for evaluation; it results in over shadowing the brand and reduces recall (Erfgen, Zenker, & Sattler, 2015). This implies that foreign and local cues are important for evaluation of brands whether the brand is strong or weak.

Additionally, advertising research has also shown no effects of brand familiarity on the effectiveness of communication messages. For example, brand familiarity is insufficient to determine effectiveness of marketing communication (Esch et al., 2006). The authors argue brand managers should keep consistent messaging for product marketing in order to promote for unique identifying associations. Regardless of brand familiarity, this requires managers to employ standard marketing mix elements (including product packaging), and entice experiential cues with the brand so that consumers may think, feel, sense and relate these cues for better brand evaluation (Schmitt, 1999, 2000). Furthermore, study in brand communication suggests the managers should use standard messaging for familiar brands to stimulate positive consumer evaluations, and for weak brands, it is also suggested to use the standard messaging to create association and awareness of the brand (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2012). This also implies that foreign marketers must

adopt standardisation for its packaging particularly in case of hedonic products irrespective of consumers' familiarity with the brand.

From this conceptual development, it is clear that the influence of packaging elements on consumer perceptions may be found with both strong and weak brands. Hence, consistent with Study 1, this thesis posits that while using standard or localised packaging makes a difference for hedonic brands, this difference holds both strong as well as weak brands. As Study 1 found no difference in standard or localised packaging for utilitarian products, this study similarly posits this same outcome for both strong and weak brands:

> *H3: For hedonic products, consumers like the standard packaging more than the localised packaging (a) for strong brands (b) and for weak brands.*

> *H4: For utilitarian products, packaging likability does not differ for standard and localised packaging (a) for strong brands (b) and for weak brands.*

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Pre-test

Prior to executing the main survey, this study first carried out a pre-test in two steps to identify suitable hedonic and utilitarian categories, as well as suitable brands, for the main survey. In order to maximise external validity, the main survey needed to be based only on strong foreign brands commonly available in major supermarkets across Pakistan while the selection of weak brands were those that are either less available or not sold were selected as weak brands for their respective product category. The first step involved visiting 15 supermarkets in metropolitan areas across Pakistan, specifically Lahore and Islamabad. Following the visits, this study identified a list of hedonic and utilitarian products, as well as a commonly available major foreign brand for each category. Examples of these products/brands include nail colour/L'Oréal, soft drink/Coca Cola, and shampoo/Pantene. Secondary market data and statistics on market share also confirmed that the identified brands are major players in their respective categories in Pakistan. For example, P&G and

L'Oréal are top selling brands in cosmetic and personal care product categories (Euromonitor, July, 2015). To further generalise the findings, the study also ensured that there was a good mix of food and non-food products in the list.

In the second step, 52 Lahore-based participants were recruited via convenience sampling, where they rated the 17 products on a 1 to 7 semantic differential scale anchored on utilitarian and hedonic values (a lower rating means more hedonic, higher rating denotes utilitarian). The semantic scale classifying whether the product is hedonic or utilitarian in nature of consumption is adapted from Voss et al. (2003), subsequently used by Kleijnen, De Ruyter, and Wetzels (2007). Brand familiarity was also measured to ensure that selected brands were the strong brands in the market. For this purpose, respondents were required to rate familiarity on Likert scale using the single item measure: 'Rate your level of familiarity with the brand' adapted from Thompson, Hamilton, and Rust (2005), ranging from 1 that denotes *unfamiliar* to 7 denoting *very familiar*. Researchers have also measured the familiarity through prior exposure or usage of the product (Hamilton & Thompson, 2007) or rudimentary knowledge about product measure through prior usage and prior exposure (Baker et al., 1986). Therefore, to further confirm brand familiarity of the pre-test brands, participants were also required to report their usage from no prior exposure to the brand (never seen before), prior exposure (seen before) and prior purchase (purchased before) adapted from Zaichkowsky (1988). Purchase frequency of those products was also recorded for the prior three months. Purchase frequency was recorded using never purchased, 1-2 times, 3-4 times, 5 times and more than 5 times.

Because this study found during the supermarket visits that two of the products were available in different package sizes, specifically in the case of M&M's chocolate and Pantene shampoo, the pre-test also exposed the participants to different package sizes for these products in order to check whether there was any difference in rating of hedonic and utilitarian values of the products (See Table 11).

As shown in Table 11, a paired t-test for differences in ratings of packaging size showed that there were no significant differences in the ratings between the small

and large pack sizes across the two product categories (all $p > 0.05$) not only for hedonic and utilitarian rating but for the familiarity rating as well. Hence, in the main survey, this study only used one pack size per product category.

Table 11: Paired t-test for Difference in Mean Rating for Bigger and Smaller Pack

Products	Brands in big and small pack size	*Mean difference hedonic and utilitarian rating	S.D	S.E	Sig.	*Mean difference familiarity rating	S.D	S.E	Sig.
Chocolate	M&M's	.28	1.27	.17	.10	.23	1.61	.22	.30
Shampoo	Pantene	.13	.86	.11	.26	-.15	1.50	.20	.46

Table 12 shows chocolate was the most hedonic food product (mean rating = 1.94) and nail colour (mean = 2.13) was the most hedonic non-food product. Participants also rated tomato sauce (mean = 6.15) and shampoo (mean = 6.44) as utilitarian food and non-food products, respectively. Furthermore, familiarity results for these brands also indicate that respondents were quite familiar with these brands: chocolate (familiarity mean rating =6.00), and nail colour (mean = 5.38), tomato sauce (mean =6.09), and shampoo (mean =6.00). Hence, these product categories and the same brands tested in the pre-test were used in the main survey to ensure the uniformity and control for any brand effects on hedonic and utilitarian ratings.

Table 12: Hedonic-Utilitarian and Familiarity Rating

Hedonic Products	Brands tested	Product Category	*Mean Hedonic products	S.D	S.E	Familiarity rating	S.D	S.E
**Chocolate	M&M's (small pack)	Food	1.94	.84	.11	6.00	1.10	.15
Chocolate	M&M's (big pack)	Food	2.23	.87	.12	5.84	1.30	.18
Carbonated soft drink	Coca Cola	Food	2.19	.99	.13	6.15	.72	.10
Energy drink	Red bull	Food	2.26	.76	.10	5.11	1.54	.21
**Nail colour	L'Oréal	Non-Food	2.13	.86	.11	5.38	1.40	.19
Lipstick	L'Oréal	Non-Food	2.59	1.25	.17	5.42	1.62	.22
Utilitarian Products	**Brands tested**	**Product Category**	***Mean Utilitarian products**	**S.D**	**S.E**	**Familiarity rating**	**S.D**	**S.E**
Bottled water	Nestlé	Food	6.17	.87	.12	5.26	1.34	.18
**Tomato sauce	Maggi	Food	6.15	.87	.12	6.09	1.01	.14
**Shampoo	Pantene (big pack)	Non-Food	6.44	.60	.08	6.00	1.10	.15
Shampoo	Pantene (small pack)	Non-Food	6.30	.72	.10	5.76	1.24	.17
Toothpaste	Sensodyne	Non-Food	5.86	.79	.10	4.88	1.33	.18
Insect Repellent	Baygon	Non-Food	5.76	.94	.13	4.65	1.64	.22
Pet food	Pedigree	Non-Food	5.76	.80	.11	3.34	1.67	.23
Tissue paper	Kleenex	Non-Food	5.65	.90	.12	4.67	1.60	.22
Sunscreen	Nivea	Non-Food	5.11	1.18	.16	5.13	1.41	.19
Air freshener	Glade	Non-Food	4.98	1.35	.18	4.15	1.63	.22
Deodorant	Nivea	Non-Food	4.57	1.27	.17	4.53	1.72	.23

**On a scale of 1-7, a higher mean denotes more utilitarian and a lower mean denotes more hedonic.*
***Double-asterisk represents selected product categories and brands.*

Furthermore, for the four identified hedonic and utilitarian categories, most of the participants had seen the brands on supermarket shelves before, and many had also bought the brands in the three months prior to the survey (see Table 13) and most of them had also purchased in the prior three months (see Table 14). Collectively, these results confirmed the suitability of the four product categories and brands for the main survey.

Table 13: Brand Usage Reporting

Hedonic Products	Brands tested	Product category	Never seen before (%)	Seen before (%)	Purchased before (%)	Total exposure (seen + purchased before) (%)
**Chocolate	M&M's-small	Food	0	19.2	80.8	100
Chocolate	M&M's-big	Food	3.8	9.6	86.5	96.1
Soft drink	Coca Cola	Food	0	25	75	100
Energy drink	Red bull	Food	0	59.6	40.4	100
**Nail colour	L'Oréal	Non-Food	9.6	44.2	46.2	90.4
Lipstick	L'Oréal	Non-Food	5.8	50.8	44.2	95
Utilitarian Products	**Brands tested**	**Product category**	**Never seen before (%)**	**Seen before (%)**	**Purchased before (%)**	**Total exposure (seen + purchased before) (%)**
Bottled water	Nestlé	Food	0	40.4	59.6	100
**Tomato sauce	Maggi	Food	5.8	17.3	76.9	94.2
**Shampoo	Pantene-big	Non-Food	0	26.9	73.1	100
Shampoo	Pantene-small	Non-Food	0	34.6	65.4	100
Toothpaste	Sensodyne	Non-Food	3.8	51.9	44.2	96.1
Insect Repellent	Baygon	Non-Food	17.3	46.2	36.5	82.7
Pet food	Pedigree	Non-Food	51.9	34.6	13.5	48.1
Tissue paper	Kleenex	Non-Food	26.9	34.6	38.5	73.1
Sunscreen	Nivea	Non-Food	0	53.8	46.2	100
Air freshener	Glade	Non-Food	40.4	30.8	28.8	59.6
Deodorant	Nivea	Non-Food	11.5	44.2	44.2	88.4

***Double-asterisk represents selected product categories and brands.*

Table 14: Brands Purchase Frequency for Past Three Months

Hedonic Products	Brands tested	Never (%)	1-2 times (%)	3-4 times (%)	5 times (%)	More than 5 times (%)	Bought in past three months (%)
**Chocolate	M&M's-small	21.2	19.2	19.2	15.4	25	78.8
Chocolate	M&M's-big	13.5	28.8	25	19.2	13.5	86.5
Soft drink	Coca Cola	28.8	19.2	21.2	21.2	9.6	71.2
Energy drink	Red bull	59.6	7.7	7.7	17.3	7.7	40.4
**Nail colour	L'Oréal	46.2	25	15.4	5.8	7.7	53.8
Lipstick	L'Oréal	48.1	15.4	17.3	17.3	1.9	51.9
Utilitarian Products	**Brands tested**	**Never (%)**	**1-2 times (%)**	**3-4 times (%)**	**5 times (%)**	**More than 5 times (%)**	**Bought in past three months (%)**
Bottled water	Nestlé	38.5	15.4	9.6	15.4	21.2	61.5
**Tomato sauce	Maggi	23.1	17.3	17.3	19.2	23.1	76.9
**Shampoo	Pantene-big	26.9	17.3	15.4	21.2	19.2	73.1
Shampoo	Pantene-small	28.8	15.4	23.1	23.1	9.6	71.2
Toothpaste	Sensodyne	53.8	28.8	13.5	1.9	1.9	46.2
Insect Repellent	Baygon	59.6	17.3	15.4	7.7	0	40.4
Pet food	Pedigree	86.5	7.7	5.8	0	0	13.5
Tissue paper	Kleenex	51.9	32.7	7.7	7.7	0	48.1
Sunscreen	Nivea	51.9	28.8	17.3	1.9	0	48.1
Air freshener	Glade	65.4	19.2	11.5	3.8	0	34.6
Deodorant	Nivea	53.8	32.7	7.7	5.8	0	46.2

***Double-asterisk represents selected product categories and brands.*

Finally, age and gender of the respondents were also recorded for reporting purpose only. Out of 52 respondents in the pre-test, 50% respondents were females and remaining 50% were male. The participants of the pre-test age vary from 20 years to 50 years, with median age of 20 years and mean of 24 years approximately.

Table 15 shows a four-cell matrix organising the product categories and product types used in the main experiment. The matrix shows the selected strong brands for the study identified from the pre-test, where the selection of weak brands was based on supermarket scan. Those brands that are either less available or not sold were selected as weak brands for their respective product category.

Table 15: Matrix for Identified Product Categories and Brands for Main Experiment

Product Type	Product Category	
	Hedonic	***Utilitarian***
Food	Chocolate	Tomato sauce
	Strong brand = **M&M's**	Strong brand = **Maggi**
	Weak brand = **Wonka**	Weak brand = **McCormick**
Non Food	Nail colour	Shampoo
	Strong brand = **L'Oréal**	Strong brand = **Pantene**
	Weak brand = **Sally Hansen**	Weak brand = **Natures**

4.3.2 Survey Design and Analysis

The main survey used attitudinal measures to determine the packaging and brand likability. The survey was conducted using convenience sampling outside the popular shopping centre of the Lahore district in 2015. To reduce respondent fatigue and minimise learning effects, each participant only had to answer a questionnaire containing two of the four categories; exhaustively, there were six possible sets of questionnaires (nail colour and shampoo; nail colour and tomato sauce; chocolate and nail colour; chocolate and shampoo; chocolate tomato sauce; tomato sauce and shampoo).

In order to ensure the participation of users only in the main survey, participants self-reported their usage and non-usage for the eight product categories in the screening question. Of these eight categories, four were hedonic products (chocolate, nail colour, soft drink, and hair colour) and four were utilitarian products (tomato sauce, shampoo, bottled water, detergent). Four of the eight categories were those identified as hedonic and utilitarian in the pre-tests (chocolate, nail colour, tomato sauce and shampoo), and the remaining four acted as distractors (soft drink, hair colour, bottled water, detergent). The respondents were allocated to the questionnaire depending upon their usage of the product, while simultaneously balancing the sample quota for approximately 62 responses across the six questionnaires. Only respondents who reported their usage for at least two of the product categories in the past six months were screened for the questionnaire, and non-users were screened out. The

participants received no incentive for participating in the survey. The final sample contained 371 participants, with 41.2% males and 58.8% females. Age ranged from 20 to 50 years or older, with a mean age of 1.96 and a median age of 2. Roughly 35% respondents belong to age 20-30 years, 34% were from age 31-40 years, 29% from age 41-50 years and remaining 1% belongs to older than 50 years of age. The participants were divided across the six questionnaires, with each set of questionnaires having roughly 62 participants each.

Within the main survey for each set of questionnaires, respondents were asked to state their rating of the packaging likability of the two respective product categories to which they were assigned. Respondents were requested to state how much they like the packaging on a 7-point scale, where one denotes *strongly dislike* and seven denotes *strongly like,* adapted from marketing studies measuring advertising or brand attitude (Speck & Elliott, 1997). This study uses a single item 'How much do you like the packaging of this brand?' on a Likert scale. Both standard and localised packaging of the brand were analysed as within-subjects to determine the differences of liking for the same individual. Respondents rated the packaging likability for both standard and localised packaging. The analysis of packaging likability was entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and was analysed through a paired sample t-test.

In order to shed light on the findings, respondents were also requested to report their familiarity with the brands in the main survey to re-ensure the selection of strong as well as weak brands. Likewise, in the pre-test, brand familiarity was measured in the main survey. Respondents rated their level of familiarity with the brand adapted from Thompson et al. (2005), ranging from 1 that denotes *not at all familiar* to 7 denotes *very familiar*. Furthermore, they were requested to rate the brand likability for reporting purposes only. The question for brand likability was measured using the single item 'How much do you like the packaging of this brand?' on a Likert scale. Respondents' age and gender was recorded for reporting purposes.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Main Results

To reconfirm the brand familiarity of the selected brands within the main survey, this study initially focused on the familiarity using paired t-test statistics. The analysis for brand familiarity is performed to ensure the selection of both strong and weak brands. As shown in Table 16, familiarity of strong brands is significantly greater than familiarity of weak brands for the four product categories tested in this study. Therefore, the analysis confirms that M&M's (chocolate), L'Oréal (nail colour), Maggi (tomato sauce) and Pantene (shampoo) are strong brands. Similarly, Wonka, Sally Hansen, McCormick and Natures are weak brands in their respective product categories.

Table 16: Paired t-test Statistics on Brand Familiarity for Strong and Weak Brands

Hedonic brands n =186	Brand tested	Product category	Mean	Mean difference	S.D	S.E	t-value (Sig.)
Chocolate							
M&M's	Strong	Food	5.34	2.40	1.48	.10	22.05 (<.01)
Wonka	Weak	Food	2.94				
Nail colour							
L'Oréal	Strong	Non-food	5.37	2.21	1.69	.12	17.82 (<.01)
Sally Hansen	Weak	Non-food	3.16				
Utilitarian brands n = 185	**Brand tested**	**Product category**	**Mean**	**Mean difference**	**S.D**	**S.E**	**Sig.**
Tomato sauce							
Maggi	Strong	Food	5.28	2.44	1.58	.11	21.07 (<.01)
McCormick	Weak	Food	2.83				
Shampoo							
Pantene	Strong	Non-food	5.34	2.25	1.67	.12	18.32 (<.01)
Natures	Weak	Non-food	3.08				

The results were analysed for packaging likability using paired t-test statistics. For hedonic products, participants liked the standard packaging more than the localised packaging. This outcome held for all hedonic brands including food and non-food, M&M's and Wonka (chocolate) and L'Oréal and Sally Hansen (nail colour). In other words, standard packaging was preferred for strong as well as for weak brands, regardless of food or non-food categories (see Table 17). These findings support

hypotheses H3a and H3b, which postulated that consumers like the standard packaging more than localised packaging for strong brands as well as for weak brands for hedonic products. Furthermore, a t-test found that the effects of standardisation to be even greater for strong brands than for weak brands for chocolate (t-value = 6.60; df = 185, p < .01) and nail colour (t-value = 8.22; df = 185, p < .01).

With utilitarian products, there were no significant differences in rating between standard and localised packaging likeability for both strong and weak brands, regardless of food or non-food products. These results support Hypotheses 4a and 4b, which postulated no difference between standard and localised packaging for strong as well as weak brands of utilitarian products. In summary, brand strength (strong or weak) did not moderate the packaging likability results for hedonic and utilitarian products.

Table 17: Paired t-test Statistics for Standard and Localised Packaging

Hedonic brands (n= 186)	Brand tested	Mean Standard packaging	Mean Localised packaging	Mean difference	S.D	S.E	Sig.
Chocolate							
M&M's	Strong	5.65	4.96	.68	1.98	.14	<.01
Wonka	Weak	5.17	3.68	1.48	2.36	.17	<.01
Nail colour							
L'Oréal	Strong	5.53	4.87	.66	2.50	.18	<.01
Sally Hansen	Weak	4.93	3.75	1.17	2.69	.19	<.01
Utilitarian brands (n=185)	**Brand tested**	**Mean Standard packaging**	**Mean Localised packaging**	**Mean difference**	**S.D**	**S.E**	**Sig.**
Tomato sauce							
Maggi	Strong	5.36	5.34	.02	2.10	.15	.88
McCormick	Weak	5.66	5.42	.23	1.94	.14	.09
Shampoo							
Pantene	Strong	5.49	5.45	.03	2.17	.16	.84
Natures	Weak	5.51	5.46	.04	2.45	.18	.78

Table 18 provides a concise review of the hypothesis confirmation for Study 2.

Table 18: Hypothesis Confirmation Table for Study 2

Hypothesis Statements	Hypothesis Confirmation
H3: For hedonic products, consumers like the standard packaging more than the localised packaging (a) for strong brands (b) and for weak brands.	Accepted
H4: For utilitarian products, packaging likability does not differ for standard and localised packaging (a) for strong brands (b) and for weak brands.	Accepted

4.4.2 Other Noteworthy Findings

Beyond the study's findings that standard packaging is effective for both strong and weak hedonic brands, there are additional noteworthy findings. Firstly, since the study setting was within-subjects for the brands' packaging, this thesis was able to analyse whether strong brands were more likable than weak brands. This was confirmed, as shown in Table 19, and is consistent with studies that similarly found that as brand familiarity increases, consumers tend to evaluate the brands more favourable (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Bettman & Park, 1980; Bettman & Sujan, 1987; Kirmani & Baumgartner, 2000; Rao & Monroe, 1988).

Table 19: Paired t-test Statistics on Brand Likability for Strong and Weak Brands

Hedonic brands n = 186	Brand tested	Product category	Mean	Mean difference	S.D	S.E	Sig.
M&M's Chocolate	Strong	Food	5.25				
Wonka Chocolate	Weak	Food	4.05	1.19	1.38	.10	<.01
L'Oréal Nail colour	Strong	Non-food	5.16				
Sally Hansen Nail colour	Weak	Non-food	3.97	1.18	1.48	.10	<.01
Utilitarian brands n =185	**Brand tested**	**Product category**	**Mean**	**Mean difference**	**S.D**	**S.E**	**Sig.**
Maggi Tomato sauce	Strong	Food	5.16				
McCormick Tomato sauce	Weak	Food	4.26	.89	1.20	.08	<.01
Pantene Shampoo	Strong	Non-food	5.12				
Natures Shampoo	Weak	Non-food	4.12	1.00	1.28	.09	<.01

Another noteworthy finding is the strong and positive correlation between brand familiarity and standard packaging (See Table 20). However, localised packaging has significant and negative correlation. Therefore, it can be drawn that localising

the packaging of foreign brands tends to reduce the established brand equity in the minds of the consumers.

Table 20: Correlation of Strong Packaging Likability with Brand Familiarity

Hedonic brands	Brand tested	Product category	Standard packaging likability r (sig.) at n=186	Localised packaging likability r (sig.) at n = 186
M&M's Chocolate	Strong	Food	.54**(<.01)	-.03 (.62)
L'Oréal Nail colour	Strong	Non-food	.61**(<.01)	-.23**(<.01)
Utilitarian brands	**Brand tested**	**Product category**	**Standard packaging likability r (sig.) at n=185**	**Localised packaging likability r (sig.) at n = 185**
Maggi Tomato sauce	Strong	Food	.43**(<.01)	-.05(.42)
Pantene Shampoo	Strong	Non-food	.42** (<.01)	-.12 (.08)

** Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)*
*** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)*

4.5 Discussion

Overall, the collective findings of Study 1 and Study 2 show that indiscriminately localising the packaging of any products as they enter foreign markets may not be the most effective strategy for international marketers. While some localisation may be necessary due to legislative compliance (e.g., non-Western markets often require food labels to be translated to native language), the types of localisations shown and tested in this study were for marketing reasons. The study suggests that hedonic products, Western brands such as L'Oréal and Sally Hansen, do not benefit and may even suffer from localisation, regardless of brand familiarity. For utilitarian products, the type of packaging does not make a difference. This study confirmed these results by assessing both self-reported attitudinal measures of consumers.

The findings that consumers favour hedonic products with standard packaging whereas there is no difference with utilitarian products, are consistent for food and non-food products, and for both strong and weak brands. Brand familiarity has been found *not* to be influential in determining effectiveness of foreign and local cues on product packaging. The results are consistent with the study that suggests using

standard cues for familiar brands stimulates positive consumer evaluations, also for weak brands to create association and awareness of the brand (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2012). Furthermore, with another study brand familiarity is found to be insufficient to determine effectiveness of marketing communication (Esch et al., 2006).

Some additional findings are also noteworthy. Firstly, foreignness becomes even more important when brand is strong and hedonic. Secondly, brand likability of strong brands is greater than brand likability for weak brands. Hence, strong brands result in better product evaluation, as similarly found by other studies (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Bettman & Park, 1980; Bettman & Sujan, 1987; Kirmani & Baumgartner, 2000; Rao & Monroe, 1988). Thirdly, the confirmation for brand familiarity results also shows that consumers were more familiar with the selected strong brands than for weak brands. Interestingly, brand familiarity is negatively correlated with the localised packaging, which seems to support that localisation may affect the established brand equity of foreign brands in consumers' mind.

In conclusion, while this study presents some evidence that questions the effectiveness of packaging localisation, it still raises more questions that are unanswered. Actual international marketer practise is not fully aligned with these research findings. Unless and until this thesis is definitively answered through more research, the question will remain regarding whether localising product packaging really adds value to or enhances the competitiveness of the product. For this purpose, the study analysed the weaknesses of the present study, and a subsequent study was conducted in the context of China to overcome the shortcomings of the previous studies and to gain more insight into consumer behaviour towards localisation of product packaging.

Clearly, Study 2 has provided useful findings and contributed to the literature on standardisation versus localisation strategies. However, it does contain some limitations. First, Study 2 did not test whether consumers' psychological motivations may be a moderating factor in the relationship between packaging types and packaging likeability. In particular, studies have shown that fun-seeking individuals

tend to be influenced by hedonic products (Fiore et al., 2005). Similarly, for utilitarian products, consumers who are quality conscious tend to evaluate products more intuitively using extrinsic cues (Steenkamp, 1990), as these product evaluations are often based on perceived quality (Tsai, 2005). Additionally, the two studies thus far had both used only attitudinal-based ratings for consumer preference, which is a traditional marketing measure. However, researchers have criticised attitude-based measures, suggesting for the use of more contemporary choice behaviour as a proxy of actual choice (Louviere et al., 2008).

To overcome these shortcomings, the next study (Study 3) extends Study 2 have two psychological dispositions, fun-seeking and quality consciousness, in order to investigate whether these psychological dispositions affect the influence of packaging type on consumer perceptions. It also has a different methodological approach to the analyses by carrying out a discrete choice experiment (DCE) with multiple attributes (standard versus localised packaging, strong versus weak brands, varying price levels) to determine consumers' choice behaviour. Using the DCE also checks whether consumers' choice behaviour is consistent with their self-reported attitudinal ratings. Finally, to further generalise the results and applicability of this thesis' findings, Study 3 was conducted in another non-Western country, China.

CHAPTER 5: STUDY 3

Study 1 and 2 provide insight about packaging standardisation and localisation conditions in the context of Pakistan. These studies set the scene for rudimentary conditions by showing that it may not necessarily be a Western brand's best interest to have localise its packaging for non-Western markets. Specifically, packaging standardisation was effective for hedonic products, while no difference in packaging likability was found for utilitarian products. Cumulatively, Study 1 and 2 tested for hedonic and utilitarian products categories across food and non-food product types and found a consistent pattern across the two studies. Furthermore, the studies revealed that packaging standardisation is similarly important for both strong and weak hedonic brands. By contrast, in case of utilitarian products, whether the packaging is standardised or localised seems to be ineffective, regardless of brand familiarity (i.e., strong or weak brands).

The two studies were conducted in Pakistan, and hence a question remains whether the findings are generalisable to other non-Western markets where the proportion of foreign brands prevails significantly. One such lucrative market for foreign brands is China. Hence, for this thesis, Study 3 was conducted in China to check whether the findings hold across other non-Western markets. Beyond this replication, Study 3 extends the first two studies in several ways. The next section outlines this extension by highlighting the key objectives of Study 3.

5.1 Objective of Study 3

Similar to Study 2, Study 3 tests for both food and non-food products under hedonic and utilitarian product categories, and for both strong and weak brands. In addition, Study 3 replicates Study 2, including all the attitudinal measures of packaging likability and brand familiarity, but in the context of China rather than Pakistan. As discussed in Section 1.4, for the purpose of this thesis, Pakistan and China differ in several ways although both are non-Western markets. Briefly, both markets are

profound with consumption foreign brands despite differences in their consumption patterns and lifestyle. This is the first reason to conduct this study: to determine the generalisability of the results to other non-Western markets.

The second objective is the introduction of the two individual dispositional variables, fun-seeking and quality consciousness. The inclusion of these attitudinal variables allows determining whether the results of Study 1 and 2 vary according to the extent that people have fun-seeking or quality-consciousness tendencies. As reviewed in Section 2.5, fun-seeking has been argued to influence the evaluation of hedonic product evaluation, while quality consciousness is more pertinent to the evaluation of utilitarian products. However, these dispositions have not been tested for standardisation and localisation of packaging for hedonic and utilitarian product categories. Therefore, it remains unclear whether the preference for standard packaging with hedonic products only pertains to those with high fun-seeking tendencies, rather than homogeneously across all consumer types. Similarly, quality consciousness may influence preference for standard packaging in case of utilitarian products or remain consistent across all consumer segments. The determination of the influence of fun-seeking and quality consciousness on packaging likeability is carried out using structural equation modelling with AMOS software (version 22).

The third objective of Study 3 is the use of discrete choice modelling to augment the structural modelling tests. As discussed in section 2.9.6 on page 77, discrete choice method is a robust and popular method for testing consumer preferences. Many consumer behaviour studies have now shifted their attention from measuring attitudes to behavioural choices. Discrete choice modelling is an effective method to determine consumer choices along with likability measures to understand if they produce similar results. Through a series of DCE, this study analyses the choice of standard and localised packaging of varying brand familiarity (strong versus weak brands), and at four different price points. The choices are analysed using Latent Gold Choice (version 5.0).

Some studies suggest that people's behaviour often differ from their attitude towards the behaviour (De Barcellos et al., 2011; Wicker, 1969). The choice results are also

matched with attitudinal ratings for standard and localised packaging in order to check for consistency between self-reported behaviour and attitudinal rating.

5.2 Conceptual Development

Study 3 adopted a replication of attitudinal ratings of hedonic and utilitarian products in standard and localised packaging for both strong and weak brands. Based on the same conceptual development and arguments in support of hypotheses of Study 2 (see page 97), packaging standardisation argued to be effective for strong brands (to sustain brand equity) and for weak brands (to develop brand equity) are used in this study. Hence, Study 3 first re-tests the same hypothesis formulated in Study 2 for hedonic and utilitarian products to check whether the results are replicable in a Chinese context. The hypotheses made in Study 3 are as follows:

> *H5: For hedonic products, consumers like the standard packaging more than the localised packaging (a) for strong brands (b) and for weak brands.*
>
> *H6: For utilitarian products, packaging likability does not differ for standard and localised packaging (a) for strong brands (b) and for weak brands.*

In addition to attitudinal ratings, Study 3 hypothesises that also from a behavioural perspective hedonic products are chosen in standard packaging (H7) and no differences in packaging choice are detectable for utilitarian products (H8).

> *H7: For hedonic products, consumers choose the standard packaging of more than the localised packaging.*
>
> *H8: For utilitarian products, packaging choice does not differ for standard and localised packaging.*

Regarding the influence of consumer psychological dispositions on packaging likeability and choice, the literature established that influence of psychological dispositions varies for hedonic and utilitarian products (see Section 2.5). Briefly, more affective dispositions are raised in consumption and purchase of hedonic

products (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982), whereas cognitive or rational dispositions and decision-making criteria are more critical for utilitarian products (Chattalas et al., 2008; Drolet et al., 2007).

From one perspective, research on Asian consumers has revealed their preference for fun-seeking in consumption more than Western consumers do. Consequently, hedonic products are more susceptible for this affective disposition (Shukla, 2010). This may be exemplified by taking China as an example, where hedonic consumption has been reported to surpass the United States (Yi-Cheon Yim et al., 2014). Furthermore, Asian hedonic brands account for approximately 37% of the entire global market, and the market is expected to grow, regardless of overall decline in the global economy (Wassener, 2011). Hence, a relationship between hedonic brands and fun-seeking can be theorised (Völckner, 2008). From another perspective, particularly in non-Western markets, consciousness about quality attributes is considered more important when a product is a necessity or serves utilitarian functions (Chandon et al., 2000).

Foreign cues often boost the fun-seeking perception of hedonic brands (Hui & Lianxi, 2002). Hence, consumers may activate fun-seeking oriented goals when evaluating hedonic brands and their respective attributes (Chernev, 2004; Chitturi et al., 2008). However, quality consciousness is activated when purchasing utilitarian products (Chernev, 2004). Therefore, consumers' processing strategies (fun-seeking and quality consciousness) may directly be determined by the nature of the product (hedonic and utilitarian), consequently affecting their purchase intentions (Melnyk et al., 2012). In particular, strong influence of fun-seeking on hedonic brand experience has been identified in past research (Ding & Tseng, 2015). As an example, fun-seeking is found as a driver for perceptions of chocolate, a hedonic product, but not for bottled water, which is a functional product (Linden, 2011). Similarly, the relationship between fun-seeking and hedonic product is further confirmed (Zhong & Mitchell, 2010). This is particularly the case of Chinese consumers, where foreign brand names are often preferred for hedonic products when their fun-seeking tendencies are high (Tang & Fu, 2005). In another study, consumers with high fun-seeking values gave the lowest rating for a utilitarian product (bread), signifying that

the role of fun-seeking may not be pertinent to utilitarian products (Pohjanheimo et al., 2010). Therefore, when functional utility is increased in a product, the fun-seeking consumers may even ignore such products (Zhu et al., 2009). Indeed, consumers' fun-seeking values are weakly correlated with the purchase of utilitarian products (Krystallis et al., 2008) and the packaging likeability of such products (Hoogland et al., 2007). Collectively, these studies suggest that the role of fun-seeking is important for hedonic but not utilitarian products. Therefore, for hedonic products, this study hypothesises the following:

> *H9a: For hedonic products, fun-seeking influences standard packaging likability more than localised packaging likability.*
>
> *H9b: Compared to low fun-seeking consumers, high fun-seeking consumers choose the standard packaging of hedonic products more than the localised packaging of the products.*

So far, Study 1 and 2 along with the support from literature on utilitarian products suggests no significant differential effects with foreign and local language. However, this may be due to not taking into account the psychological dispositions of consumers. Utilitarian products' promotion strategies differ from hedonic products, where more cognitive decision making arouses relating to those products (Palazon & Delgado-Ballester, 2013). Furthermore, it is confirmed that when consumers are more cognitively engaged, they become more attentive to extrinsic product attributes (such as product design and aesthetics) (Kumar & Garg, 2010). Therefore, it is more likely that quality conscious consumers pay attention to the information on the product package, particularly about the verifiable descriptions on the package, and draw more subjective impressions of the products (Eun Park et al., 2010; Venkatraman & MacInnis, 1985). Therefore, moderation of results for packaging likability of utilitarian products may be achieved by testing for high and low quality conscious consumers in the case of utilitarian products.

Similarly, earlier research by Shavitt (1989) found that advertising for a utilitarian product (air conditioner) was more effective and persuasive when consumers'

quality consciousness was raised using rational appeals. Another study also showed that consumers followed either hedonistic style or utilitarian style in their purchase decision of products (Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013). The authors found that hedonist style was linked to exclusivity seeking and utilitarian style was associated with quality consciousness. In short, a clear distinction exists in literature using different psychological constructs to measure for hedonic and utilitarian products (Clarkson et al., 2011), and quality consciousness is particularly relevant for utilitarian products (Babin et al., 2004; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013). As the literature review on foreign and cues shows that local cues often implies inferiority and foreign cues shows exclusivity to non-Western consumer, this study presents the following hypotheses for testing on utilitarian products:

> *H10a: For utilitarian products, quality consciousness influences standard packaging likability more than localised packaging likability.*
>
> *H10b: Compared to low quality-conscious consumers, high quality-conscious consumers choose the standard packaging of utilitarian products more than the localised packaging of the products.*

5.3 Methodology

5.3.1 Pre-Test

As discussed in Section 1.4.2, China is a suitable non-Western country for this study. The national and official language of the country is Mandarin, and its vast consumer market ensures that major international brands are present in the country. The attractiveness of the market also ensures the abundant presence of competing brands, both foreign and domestic.

As in Study 2, a two-step pre-test was carried out prior to the main study to identify suitable hedonic and utilitarian categories and brands. In order to maximise external validity, this study is based on well-known foreign brands that are commonly available in major supermarkets across China. Therefore, the initial step involved visits to 15 supermarkets in the metropolitan areas of Beijing, Guangzhou, Shanghai,

and Shenzhen. Following the visits, this thesis' author identified a list of 15 products, seven of which could be thought of as relatively hedonic, while the other eight relatively utilitarian. The study uses a commonly available major foreign brand for each product. Examples of these products/brands include tissue paper (Kleenex), soft drinks (Coca Cola), and shampoo (Pantene). Secondary market data and statistics on market share also confirmed that the identified brands were major players in their respective categories in China. To further generalise the findings, this first step of pre-test also ensured that there was a good mix of food and non-food products in the list.

In the second step, 61 Shanghai-based participants recruited via a professional panel provider completed an online survey, in which they rated the fifteen products on a 1 to 7 semantic differential scale anchored on utilitarian and hedonic values (a lower rating means a more hedonic evaluation of the product). Because it was found during the supermarket visits that nine of the products were available in different pack sizes, participants were exposed to different package sizes for these products in order to check whether there was any difference in rating of hedonic and utilitarian values of products, thereby rating 24 products altogether. Respondents were required to rate familiarity with the brands on Likert scale using single item measure: 'Rate your level of familiarity with the brand' adapted from Thompson et al. (2005), ranging from 1 that denotes *unfamiliar* to 7 denotes *very familiar*. Researchers have also measured the familiarity through prior exposure of the product (Hamilton & Thompson, 2007) or knowledge about product measure through prior usage and prior exposure (Baker et al., 1986). Therefore, to further confirm for the brand familiarity of the pre-test brands, participants were also required to report their usage through no prior exposure to the brand (never seen before), prior exposure (seen before) and prior purchase (purchased before) adapted from Zaichkowsky (1988). Purchase frequency for the last three months was also recorded using never purchased, 1-2 times, 3-4 times, 5 times and more than 5 times.

As mentioned earlier that supermarket scanning revealed the availability of varying package sizes for some of the products in the pre-test; therefore, it was important to make sure package size variability did not change the utilitarian or hedonic rating.

For this purpose, within the pre-test, those products that were available in big and small packaging were presented to respondent in both package sizes to rate for utilitarian and hedonic dimension.

As shown in Table 21, a t-test for differences in ratings of packaging size showed that there were no significant differences in the ratings between the small and large package sizes across all product categories (all $p < 0.05$) except for bottled water. Hence, in the main survey, the study only used one package size per product category for the selected hedonic and utilitarian product.

Table 21: Paired t-test for Difference in Mean Rating for Bigger and Smaller Pack

Products	Mean Small pack	Mean Big pack	Mean difference	S.D	S.E	t-value; df=60	P-value
Chocolate	2.79	3.00	.21	2.12	.27	.78	.43
Carbonated Soft drink	2.97	3.10	.13	1.72	.22	-.59	.55
Bottled water	4.26	4.56	.29	.98	.127	2.33	.02
Air freshener	5.07	4.72	.34	1.85	.23	1.45	.15
Sunscreen	5.41	5.23	.18	1.48	.19	-.94	.34
Tooth paste	5.46	5.98	.52	2.07	.26	-1.97	.05
Facial tissues	5.57	5.80	.23	1.76	.22	1.01	.31
Deodorant	5.61	5.84	.23	1.21	.15	1.47	.14
Shampoo	6.15	6.05	.09	1.37	.17	.55	.57

** On a scale of 1-7, a higher mean denotes more utilitarian and a lower mean denotes more hedonic.*

As shown in Table 22, chocolate was the most hedonic food product (mean rating = 2.79) and nail colour (mean = 3.49) was the most hedonic non-food product. Participants also rated tomato sauce (mean = 4.95) and shampoo (mean = 6.05) as the most utilitarian food and non-food products, respectively. The pre-tests also identified wine, chocolate and carbonated soft drinks to be the most hedonic food products in terms of their ranking respectively. The study selected chocolate, which was the second highest ranked hedonic product for food category, as the final category for use in the main experiment. This was mainly due to three reasons: Firstly, results for the wine brand indicated that the brand was rated low in familiarity and usage (see Table 23 and 24). Secondly, wine is a controversial product for market research and has already been researched extensively in areas of consumer behaviour and choice (Herche, 1992; Lockshin et al., 2006). Thirdly, for the sake of consistency of brands between Study 2 and Study 3 to confirm

generalisability and compare results across the two countries, the study used the same food brand in Study 3. For non-food hedonic product, the top ranked product (nail colour) in terms of its hedonism were selected.

Similarly, the selections of food and non-food utilitarian products that are ranked highest amongst different categories were made. Therefore, tomato sauce and shampoo were selected as the most utilitarian in their consumption values. Overall, the mean ratings of the selected products were higher than mean ratings of other products in the pre-test. As t-test result for difference in packaging size variability indicated no significant difference across product categories for mean ratings of hedonic and utilitarian, the results in Table 22 refer to mean rating for smaller size packaging only.

Table 22: Hedonic-Utilitarian and Familiarity Rating

Hedonic Products	Brands tested	Product Category	Mean ratings for Hedonic products*	S.D	S.E	Familiarity Rating**	S.D	S.E
Wine	Jacobs Creek	Food	2.31	1.66	.21	2.51	1.95	.25
Chocolate	M&M's	Food	2.79	1.89	1.89	5.26	1.82	.23
Soft drink	Coca Cola	Food	2.97	2.34	.30	6.61	.98	.12
Nail colour	L'Oréal	Non-Food	3.49	1.98	.25	4.30	2.04	.26
Utilitarian Products	**Brands tested**	**Product Category**	**Mean of ratings for Utilitarian products***	**S.D**	**S.E**	**Familiarity Rating****	**S.D**	**S.E**
Tomato sauce	Maggi	Food	4.95	2.12	.27	3.84	2.23	.28
Pet food	Pedigree	Food	4.48	2.23	.28	2.43	1.88	.24
Bottled water	Evian	Food	4.26	2.18	.27	3.79	2.10	.27
Shampoo	Pantene	Non-Food	6.15	1.24	.16	5.62	1.67	.21
Insect repellent	Baygon	Non-Food	5.80	1.98	.25	3.00	2.10	.27
Deodorant	Nivea	Non-Food	5.61	1.63	.20	4.36	1.89	.24
Facial Tissue	Kleenex	Non-Food	5.57	1.84	.23	4.11	2.26	.29
Toothpaste	Sensodyne	Non-Food	5.46	2.02	.25	3.56	2.07	.26
Sunscreen	Nivea	Non-Food	5.41	1.86	.23	4.69	1.77	.22
Air freshener	Glade	Non-Food	5.07	2.09	.26	3.11	2.11	.27
Lipstick	L'Oréal	Non-Food	4.61	2.07	.26	4.72	2.05	.26

** On a scale of 1-7, a higher mean denotes more utilitarian and a lower mean denotes more hedonic.*
*** On a scale of 1-7, a higher mean denotes more familiarity with the brand.*
**** Mean rating is presented for smaller pack size only.*
***** Light grey highlight represents selected product categories and brands.*

In addition to familiarity (See Table 22), the usage results also showed that most respondents were not only familiar with the brand but also had prior exposure to the brand in terms of having been seen and purchased before (See Table 23). Finally, respondents also reported their purchase of those brands in the past three months prior to the survey (See Table 24). Cumulatively, these results confirmed the suitability of the four product categories and brands for the main survey.

Table 23: Brands Usage Reporting

Hedonic Products	Brands tested	Product Category	Never seen before (%)	Seen before (%)	Purchased before (%)	Exposure (seen + Purchase before) (%)
Wine	Jacobs Creek	Food	50.8	42.6	6.6	49.2
Chocolate	M&M's	Food	9.8	31.6	59	90.6
Soft drink	Coca Cola	Food	1.6	8.2	90.2	98.4
Nail colour	L'Oréal	Non-Food	19.7	60.7	19.7	80.4
Utilitarian Products	**Brands tested**	**Product Category**	**Never seen before (%)**	**Seen before (%)**	**Purchased before (%)**	**Exposure (seen + Purchase before) (%)**
Tomato sauce	Maggi	Food	34.4	27.9	37.7	65.6
Pet food	Pedigree	Food	44.3	50.8	4.9	55.7
Bottled water	Evian	Food	27.9	54.1	18	72.1
Shampoo	Pantene	Non-Food	9.8	29.5	60.7	90.2
Insect repellent	Baygon	Non-Food	47.5	31.1	21.3	52.4
Deodorant	Nivea	Non-Food	18	65.6	16.4	82
Facial Tissue	Kleenex	Non-Food	20	22	19	41
Toothpaste	Sensodyne	Non-Food	32.8	34.4	32.8	67.2
Sunscreen	Nivea	Non-Food	16.4	59	24.6	83.6
Air freshener	Glade	Non-Food	41	39.3	19.7	59
Lipstick	L'Oréal	Non-Food	11.5	60.7	27.9	88.6

** Light grey highlight represents selected product categories and brands.*

Table 24: Brands Purchase Frequency for Past Three Months

Hedonic Products	Brands tested	Never (%)	1-2 times (%)	3-4 times (%)	5 times (%)	More than 5 times (%)	Bought in past three months (%)
Wine	Jacobs Creek	85.8	8.2	4.9	1.6	0	14.7
Chocolate	M&M's	39.3	39.3	8.2	6.6	6.6	60.7
Soft drink	Coca Cola	4.9	27.9	29.5	8.2	29.5	95.1
Nail colour	L'Oréal	82	11.5	4.9	1.6	0	18
Utilitarian Products	**Brands tested**	**Never (%)**	**1-2 times (%)**	**3-4 times (%)**	**5 times (%)**	**More than 5 times (%)**	**Bought in past three months (%)**
Tomato sauce	Maggi	60.7	27.9	6.6	1.6	3.3	39.4
Pet food	Pedigree	91.8	3.3	1.6	3.3	0	8.2
Bottled water	Evian	75.4	11.5	4.9	1.6	6.6	24.6
Shampoo	Pantene	45.9	29.5	13.1	8.2	3.3	54.1
Insect repellent	Baygon	75.4	18	3.3	3.3	0	24.6
Deodorant	Nivea	73.8	18	3.3	3.3	1.6	26.2
Facial Tissue	Kleenex	63.9	13.1	13.1	4.9	4.9	36
Toothpaste	Sensodyne	68.9	19.7	8.2	3.3	0	31.2
Sunscreen	Nivea	80.3	11.5	6.6	1.6	0	19.7
Air freshener	Glade	75.4	14.8	4.9	4.9	0	24.6
Lipstick	L'Oréal	72.1	16.4	3.3	3.3	4.9	27.9

** Light grey highlight represents selected product categories and brands.*

Like Study 2, to provide an overview of the selection of brands, a four-cell matrix organised the product categories and product types used in the main experiment (See matrix Table 25). Table 25 also shows the brands selected as strong brands for the study identified from the pre-test, whereby the selection of weak brands was based on a supermarket scan. These brands that were less readily sold or unavailable were selected as weak brands for their respective product category.

Table 25: Matrix of Identified Products and Brands for the Main Experiment

Product Type	Product Category	
	Hedonic	***Utilitarian***
Food	Chocolate Strong brand = **M&M's** Weak brand = **Wonka**	Tomato sauce Strong brand = **Maggi** Weak brand = **McCormick**
Non Food	Nail colour Strong brand = **L'Oréal** Weak brand = **Sally Hansen**	Shampoo Strong brand = **Pantene** Weak brand = **Natures**

5.3.2 Methodology for Main Survey

5.3.2.1 Questionnaire Development And Experiment Prdocedure

The experiment was conducted online via a professional panel provider. To reduce respondent fatigue and minimise learning effects, each participant only had to answer a questionnaire containing two of the four categories; exhaustively, there were six possible sets of questionnaires (chocolate and nail colour; chocolate and tomato sauce; chocolate and shampoo; tomato sauce and nail colour; tomato sauce and shampoo; shampoo and nail colour), out of which each respondent was supposed to answer one set of questionnaires only.

The participants self-reported their purchases for all eight categories (from zero to five or more times in the past six months). Of these, four were hedonic products (chocolate, nail colour, soft drinks, hair colour) and four were utilitarian products (tomato sauce, shampoo, bottled water, detergent). Four of the eight categories were the categories identified in the screening questionnaire within the pre-tests, and the remaining four acted as distractors. A survey script allocated participants to the appropriate questionnaire based on their purchases in the past six months, while simultaneously balancing the sample quota across the six questionnaires. Only respondents who purchased at least two of the product categories in the past six months were allowed to continue with the questionnaire. The final sample contained 383 participants, with 36% males and 64% females. Age measured as a categorical variable ranged from 20 to 50 years,. Participants were divided across the six questionnaires, with each questionnaire having roughly 63 participants.

The entire questionnaire was first developed in English and then translated into Chinese following standard double translation procedure (Craig & Douglas, 2005). Given the mixed method approach adopted in this study, the online questionnaire comprised two parts. The first part of the questionnaire was a discrete choice experiment (DCE), which captured participants' choice behaviour. The experiment design was 2 (brand familiarity) x 2 (packaging types) x 4 (prices). Respondents were required to choose among products with varying levels of brand familiarity

(strong vs. weak), packaging (standard vs. localised), and price (-20% of the average price, -10%, +10%, +20%).

Familiarity had two levels. As the main aim of the DCE was to determine the preferences towards strong and weak brands, this study introduced strong and weak brands as two levels for DCE. The concept for weak brand in this thesis was that the brand was either unavailable or held lower familiarity. In addition, one more level was presented as an alternative to the strong and weak brands in each of the four categories. This was named ‘any other brand’ to reflect the reality that respondents may choose another brand than the given ones. Finally, a ‘none of these brands’ option was included to offer respondents the possibility to avoid choosing any of the given options.

The packaging attribute had two levels, where one represented standard (English) and other represented localised (Chinese) packaging, similar to the examples in shown in Figure 1 on page 1.

Finally, price had four levels. The price for each brand was set at -20%, -10%, +10% and +20% relative to the average market price noted during the supermarket visits. As weak brands were unavailable in China, this thesis’ researcher obtained the average price of the weak brands by visiting supermarkets in a Western country where these brands were actually sold. On average, the market price for the weak brands were about 20% less than the market price for the corresponding focal brands. The market price for ‘Any other brand’ was the average of market prices of strong and weak brand. All of these attributes and their levels are displayed in Table 26, and a sample screen is presented in Figure 14 for the choice task.



Figure 14: Sample Discrete Choice Screen

Table 26: Attributes and Levels for Discrete Choice Experiment

Attributes	Levels	1	2	3	4
Packaging	2	Standard	Localised		
Price	4	-20% Market price	-10% Market price	+10% Market price	+20% Market price
Brand Familiarity	3	Strong brand	Weak brand	Any other brand	None of these

The levels and attributes were combined according to L^MA design (Street, Burgess, Viney, & Louviere, 2008). Each participant was required to answer one version of a DCE with 16 choice sets with alternatives presented in Table 27, repeated for two product categories since each set of questionnaires was based on two product categories only.

A typical DCE design consists of a series of choice sets, containing alternatives displaying various combinations of product attributes' levels. The combinations of alternatives' characteristics and their appearance in the various choice sets are the result of an experimental design. Although DCE can require respondents to choose alternatives in different ways, in this study respondents were asked to choose the most preferred option. Given the simple nature of the experiment, in fact, the thesis' researcher thought it was not necessary to ask for more information from the respondents.

In discrete choice experiments, combinations of attributed and levels are often very large in numbers; therefore, certain experimental designs are adapted to develop appropriate choice sets with statistically applicable properties in order to allow the quantification effects of the attributes. Fractional factorial design was used to reduce the design size. Louviere et al. (2000) explained the extensive literature available on various DCE designs.

L^{MA} is an orthogonal experiment design that can be described as if product is expressed by $\boldsymbol{A}$ number of attributes, with $\boldsymbol{L}$ levels, then there will be $\mathbf{L^A}$ possible alternatives existing in each of the choice sets. These attributes and levels are constructed in each choice set with $\boldsymbol{M}$ that is described as number of alternatives or options. The number of choice sets increases as the number of levels and alternatives increase. The idea for conceptualization of choice sets is to ensure alternatives are viewed as trade-offs in the eyes of respondents over a wide range of options (Viney, Savage, & Louviere, 2005). Based on the above discussion on the importance of L^{MA} design, this study utilised L^MA typology of the design, whereby this design holds nearly equal utility with none of the pairs of alternatives within choice sets having dominance over one another, and finally the options were randomly assigned in pairs (See Table 27). The analysis was conducted through Latent Gold Choice software version 5.0. An L^MA design was chosen for this study given the better results it offers in terms of the calculation of predicted probabilities, goodness-of-fit tests, and standard errors (Viney et al., 2005). Furthermore, L^MA designs overcome the problems of utility balance without affecting respondent's choices (Viney et al., 2005).

Table 27: Discrete Choice Sets

Choice Sets	Alternative 1	Alternative 2	Alternative 3	Alternative 4
Choice set 1				
Packaging	Localised	Localised		
Price	-20% Market Price	-20% Market Price	-20% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 2				
Packaging	Localised	Localised		
Price	-10% Market Price	+10% Market Price	+20 Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 3				
Packaging	Standard	Localised		
Price	-20% Market Price	-10% Market Price	+20 Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 4				
Packaging	Localised	Localised		
Price	+10% Market Price	+20% Market price	-10% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 5				
Packaging	Standard	Standard		
Price	+10% Market Price	-10% Market Price	-20% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 6				
Packaging	Localised	Localised		
Price	+20 Market Price	-10% Market Price	+10 Market Price	
Strength	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 7				
Packaging	Localised	Standard		
Price	-20% Market Price	+20% Market Price	+10 Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 8				
Packaging	Localised	Standard		
Price	-10% Market Price	-10% Market Price	-10% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 9				
Packaging	Localised	Standard		
Price	+10% Market Price	-20% Market Price	+20% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 10				
Packaging	Standard	Standard		
Price	-20% Market Price	+10% Market Price	-10% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 11				
Packaging	Standard	Localised		
Price	+10% Market Price	+10% Market Price	+10% Market Price	

Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 12				
Packaging	Standard	Standard		
Price	+20 Market Price	+20% Market Price	+20% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 13				
Packaging	Standard	Localised		
Price	-10% Market Price	+20% Market Price	-20% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 14				
Packaging	Standard	Localised		
Price	+20 Market Price	-20% Market Price	-10% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 15				
Packaging	Localised	Standard		
Price	+20 Market Price	+10% Market Price	-20% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these
Choice set 16				
Packaging	Standard	Standard		
Price	-10% Market Price	-20% Market Price	+10% Market Price	
Familiarity	Weak	Strong	Any other brand	None of these

Before starting the DCE, respondents were instructed to imagine a situation where they were shopping and the given options were the only products that were available on a supermarket shelf. In each choice set, the participants had to choose one out of four options given (see sample screen in Figure 14). Within each choice set, the position of the alternatives was randomised.

After completion of the DCE, participants answered a set attitudinal questions regarding their attitude towards the strong and weak brands. Respondents were requested to rate the extent to which they liked the strong brand and how much they liked the standard packaging and localised packaging of the brand. Then, they answered the same three questions for the weak brand. Respondents were requested to rate the packaging likeability and brand likability, anchored on *dislike* and *like* adapted from marketing studies measuring advertising attitude or brand attitude (Speck & Elliott, 1997). The scale varied from 1 to 7, whereby one denotes *strongly disagree and* seven denotes for *strongly agree*. This study uses the single item ‘How much do you like the standard packaging of this brand?’, ‘How much do you like the

localised packaging of this brand?' and 'How much do you like this brand?' to measure packaging and brand likability.

Subsequently, consumers' psychological disposition scales were measured to test for difference in choice and attitudinal rating. For this purpose, the quality conscious scale was adapted from Ailawadi, Neslin, and Gedenk (2001) and the fun-seeking scale was adapted from Carver and White (1994) and Völckner (2008). These scales had established reliability and validity. Quality consciousness (QC) used three items and Fun-seeking (FS) used four items. All items were measured on Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 7, where by one denotes *strongly disagree* and seven denotes for *strongly agree*.

The age and gender of the respondents were also recorded for descriptive purpose only. Finally, covariate variables were described below are measured to control for the possible potential influence on packaging likability in structural equation modelling.

5.3.2.2 Control Variables

Studies found that brand usage may influence consumers' brand perceptions (Bridges, Briesch, & Yim, 2006; Voorveld, Van Noort, & Duijn, 2013; Winchester & Romaniuk, 2008). Brand evaluation responses are often strongly related to prior usage of the brand (Romaniuk, Bogomolova, & Riley, 2012). Moreover, brand usage contributes to the familiarity of the brand and helps develop brand equity (Huang & Sarigöllü, 2012). Having prior exposure to the brand has also been related to attaining more favourable consumers' attitudes than for brands that consumers have never seen before (Howard & Kerin, 2011). The authors also confirm that changes in brand exposure mediate the attitudes towards the brand. This phenomenon is explained by the likelihood of consumers' evaluation to be more favourable for the products or brands they are familiar with, possess or had used in the past (Banaji & Prentice, 1994; Higgins, 1987). Hence, this thesis controlled for this variable by including it as covariates in the structural modelling. This is consistent with past studies that have operationalised brand familiarity as past exposures or usage of a

brand (Baker et al., 1986; Hamilton & Thompson, 2007). Past exposure is measured as a 3-point scale ranging from no prior exposure to the brand (never seen before), prior exposure (seen before) to prior purchase (purchased before) adapted from Zaichkowsky (1988).

In addition, particularly with Chinese consumers, ethnocentrism may bias their preference against foreign brands (Lu Wang & Xiong Chen, 2004; Watson & Wright, 2000; Zeugner-Roth, Zabkar, & Diamantopoulos, 2015). Consumer ethnocentrism is defined as consumers' preference for localised products and prejudice against foreign products. This occurs because they believe that products from their own country are the best (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998), and they feel a moral obligation to buy localised products even if the quality is less than foreign products (Wall & Heslop, 1986). According to Shimp and Sharma (1987), consumer ethnocentrism moderately predicts consumers' intention to purchase, attitude, beliefs and purchase decisions. Consumption of foreign brands is generally linked to symbolic meaning of Western lifestyle, status and fashion; therefore, it sometimes offset the influence of ethnocentrism (Wang & Chen, 2004). If not, ethnocentric consumers prefer to buy domestic products and promote local cultural values and consumption of foreign brands are unacceptable to them due to their effect on the national economy and de-promotion of foreignness (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Furthermore, brand foreignness is more beneficial for consumers with low level of ethnocentrism in developing brand value (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008).

Some research showed significant effects of ethnocentrism on consumers' attitude towards foreign brands (Klein, Ettenson, & Krishnan, 2006). Therefore, it becomes important to control for possible ethnocentrism effects in consumers' likability of foreign products' packaging in standard and localised forms. Therefore, to control for any potential moderating or interaction effects from consumer ethnocentrism, the questionnaire contained four items on consumer ethnocentrism taken from Shimp and Sharma's (1987) CETSCALE. This 4-item scale was also used by Lee and Tae Lee (2013) and adapted from there. Using a 7-point Likert scales anchored on *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*, respondents were requested to indicate their agreements or disagreements with the ethnocentrism construct.

5.3.2.3. Data Analysis

Prior to fitting the models shown Figure 16 and 17 on pages 137 and 138 respectively for hypothesis 9a and 10a in structural equation modelling, this thesis tested for the factor loadings of the items for each of the scales to test for goodness of fit for the data. The factor loadings were tested using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in SPSS. The EFA performed on these factors helped to exclude the items having factor loading less than 0.60 cutoff (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) and .63 cutoff (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). As shown in Table 28, the study used four items for fun-seeking, but the fourth item did not load into the factor, and reliability of fun-seeking with all four factors was not greater than the 0.70 cutoff (Peter, 1979). Therefore, the fourth item was excluded from the analysis.

Table 28: Exploratory Factor Analysis

Scales	Factor Loading	Mean (Std Dev)	KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's test of Sphericity $\chi 2$ (df), p
Funs seeking (four items)				
1. I often do things for no other reason that they might be fun.	.78	5.56 (1.17)	.74	567.91 (6), <.01
2. I crave excitement and new sensation.	.88	5.78 (1.06)		
3. I am always willing to try something new if I think it will be fun.	.82	5.93 (.99)		
4. I often act on spur of the moment.	.25	4.29 (1.53)		
Fun-seeking (three items)				
1. I often do things for no other reason that they might be fun.	.78	5.56 (1.17)	.73	541.50 (3), <.01
2. I crave excitement and new sensation.	.89	5.78 (1.06)		
3. I am always willing to try something new if I think it will be fun.	.82	5.93 (.99)		
Consumer ethnocentrism				
1. Only those products that are unavailable in China should be imported.	.70	3.45 (1.71)	.79	943.62 (6), <.01
2. Chinese products, first, last, and foremost.	.75	4.37 (1.62)		
3. Chinese people should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Chinese business and causes unemployment.	.97	3.45 (1.69)		
4. Chinese consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Chinese out of work.	.84	3.15 (1.70)		
Quality Consciousness				
1. It is important for me to know the quality of the product before I buy it.	.86	6.13 (.98)	.73	536.43 (3), <.01
2. It is important for me to buy high quality product.	.86	6.05 (.99)		
3. I search for information about product quality before I make purchase decision.	.76	5.86 (1.01)		

Progressively, the scale reliabilities were also tested. Cronbach's alpha value was used as a predictor of reliability for the scales. The value of Cronbach's alpha was .87 for the fun-seeking scale, .89 for the ethnocentrism and .87 for the quality consciousness scale; these scores were greater than the minimum threshold value for reliability of .70 (Peter, 1979), Therefore, all scales were considered as reliable. Furthermore, the average variance extracted (AVE) for all three factor came out to be less than 0.5. Since, AVE of each factor was greater than sum of square of correlations between the factors, all three factors were discriminately valid with

Cronbach's alpha showing that factors were also reliable (See Table 29), showing support for construct validity.

Table 29: Reliability and Validity Tests for Factors

Variables	M	SD	Cronbach Alpha	AVE	1	2	3
1. Fun-seeking	5.76	.96	.87	.68	1.00	*.01*	*.39*
2. Consumer Ethnocentrism	3.60	1.45	.89	.68	-.12	1.00	*.02*
3. Quality Consciousness	6.01	.89	.87	.67	.62	-.16	1.00

**Square of correlation is reported in italics.*

Besides reliability and validity checks, multi-collinearity was also tested using Harman's one factor analysis in EFA to ascertain for common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). First, EFA was performed using maximum likelihood analysis that yielded for three factors based on Eigen values criterion. Then, within EFA, one factor was forced for extraction. The percentage of variance of one factor (36.92%) was less than cumulative variance of each factor in exploratory factor analysis (67.92%). Since a single factor resulted in low explained variance, it was concluded that factors were free from problem of multi-collinearity or common method variance. Furthermore, maximum correlation between any two items of the three constructs was .72, which was well below collinearity cutoff of .90. Therefore, the data fulfilled the criterion for reliability and validity.

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Attitudinal Ratings

First, the analysis was performed for attitudinal rating, as completed for the first two studies. The purpose of doing this was to see whether consistency of results for hedonic and utilitarian product packaging hold for this study as well. For the first two studies that were carried out in Pakistan, results revealed that standard packaging is more likable for hedonic product, and packaging standardisation or localisation do not make any difference for utilitarian products.

The results were first analysed for packaging likability using paired t-test statistics. For hedonic products, participants liked the standard packaging more than the localised packaging. This outcome held true for all hedonic brands including food and non-food for both strong and weak brand, M&M's and Wonka (chocolate) and L'Oréal and Sally Hansen (nail colour) (See Table 30). These findings supported H5a and H5b hypotheses, which postulated that consumers like the standard packaging more than localised packaging for strong brands as well as for weak brands for hedonic products. Furthermore, a paired t-test found that the effects of standardisation to be even more positive but insignificantly different for strong brands than for weak brands for chocolate (t-value = 1.13; df= 185, p =.19) and positively significant for nail colour strong brand than for weak brand (t-value = 4.72; df = 197, p < .01).

With utilitarian products, there were no significant differences in rating between standard and localised packaging likeability for both strong and weak brands, regardless of food or non-food products. These results supported H6a and H6b hypotheses, which postulated no difference between standard and localised packaging for strong as well as weak brands of utilitarian products. In summary, brand familiarity (strong or weak) did not moderate the packaging likability results for hedonic and utilitarian products.

Table 30: Paired t-test Statistics for Standard and Localised Packaging

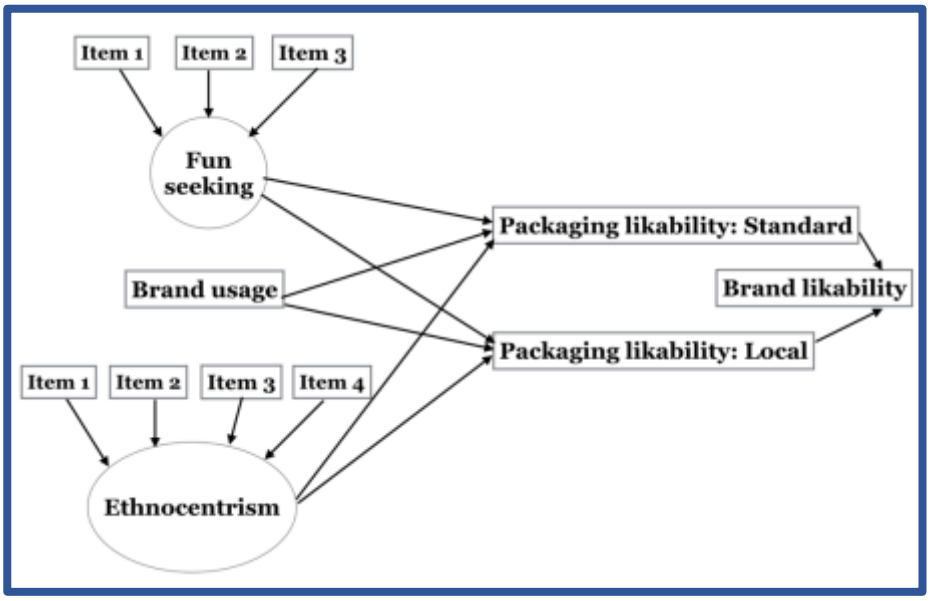
Hedonic brands	Brands tested	Mean Standard packaging	Mean Localised packaging	Mean difference	S.D	S.E	Sig.
M&M's Chocolate	Strong	5.43	5.28	.14	.98	.07	.04
Wonka Chocolate	Weak	5.30	4.95	.34	1.18	.08	<.01
L'Oréal Nail colour	Strong	5.54	5.21	.32	1.55	.11	<.01
Sally Hansen Nail colour	Weak	5.16	4.94	.21	1.17	.08	.01
Utilitarian brands	**Brand tested**	**Mean Standard packaging**	**Mean Localised packaging**	**Mean difference**	**S.D**	**S.E**	**Sig.**
Maggi Tomato sauce	Strong	5.32	5.26	.05	.89	.06	.36
McCormick Tomato sauce	Weak	5.48	5.49	-.01	.87	.06	.80
Pantene Shampoo	Strong	5.37	5.39	-.02	.92	.06	.70
Natures Shampoo	Weak	4.94	4.92	.02	.87	.06	.68

5.4.2 Consumer Psychological Dispositions

Psychological dispositions were then analysed using structural equation modelling (AMOS version 22) to test the influence of fun-seeking on standard and localised packaging likability of hedonic products. Similarly, quality consciousness was analysed for utilitarian products' packaging likability. The purpose of doing this was to test the hypotheses 9a and 10a that argue the influence of these dispositions to be greater on attitudinal ratings of standard packaging than for localised packaging.

In order to analyse the influence of psychological disposition on hedonic and utilitarian products for hypotheses 9a and 10a, the dataset was split into four product categories (chocolate, nail colour, tomato sauce and shampoo). Quality consciousness influence was tested on utilitarian products and influence of fun-seeking was tested on hedonic products, controlling for brand usage and ethnocentrism in the model. The analysis was performed for each brand independently in the model.

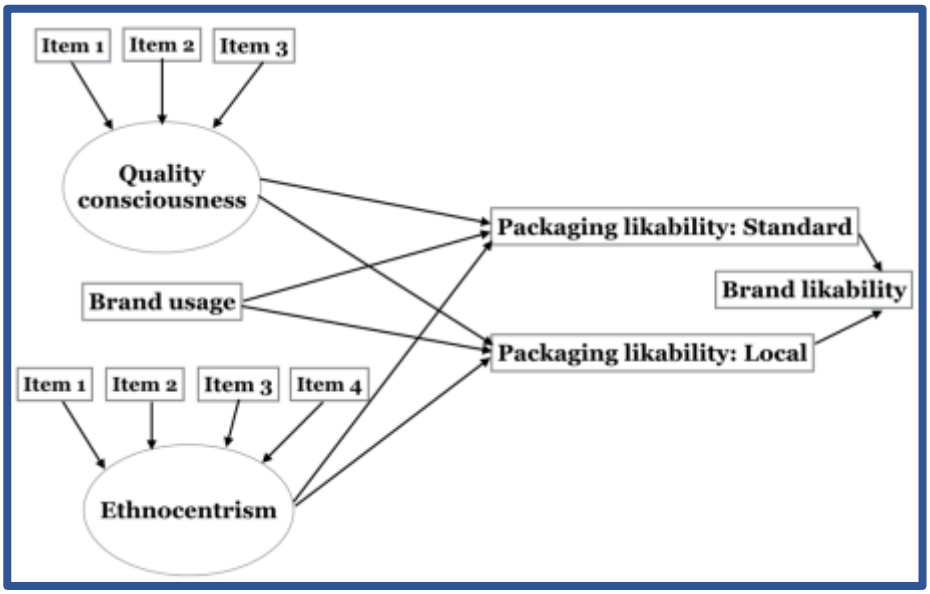
In order to test the influence of fun-seeking on hedonic products, the study analysed the following model using structural equation modelling, controlling for ethnocentrism and brand usage (See Figure 15). The analysis was performed on both the strong and weak brand of nail colour (L'Oréal, Sally Hansen) and chocolate (M&M's, Wonka) independently, whereby packaging likability (standard and localised) and brand likability in the model referred to the specific tested brand.



**Packaging likability and brand likability refers to each brand tested in the model*

Figure 15: Structural Model for Testing Influence of Fun-Seeking Hedonic Products (Chocolate and Nail Colour)

Similarly, the influence of quality consciousness on utilitarian products was tested as depicted in Figure 16. The study analysed the following model using structural equation modelling, controlling for ethnocentrism and brand usage (See Figure 15 and 16). The analysis was performed on both the strong and weak brand of tomato sauce (Maggi, McCormick) and shampoo (Pantene, Natures) independently, whereby packaging likability (standard and localised) and brand likability in the model refers to the specific tested brand.



**Packaging likability and brand likability refers to each brand tested in the model*

Figure 16: Structural Model for Testing Influence of Quality Consciousness on Utilitarian Products (Tomato Sauce and Shampoo)

Within structural equation modelling, the influence of fun-seeking on hedonic products and quality consciousness on utilitarian products were tested (See Figure 15 and 16 for model). Regression on hedonic products showed that estimate β for standard packaging was greater than localised packaging (See Table 31). The estimate of standardisation and localisation were positive and significant; however, β was more positive in standardised packaging showing greater influence of fun-seeking on hedonic products in standardised packaging in comparison to localised packaging. Therefore, Hypothesis 9a was accepted that postulated the influence of fun-seeking to be greater for hedonic products likability in standard packaging than for localised packaging.

Table 31: Influence of Fun-Seeking on Hedonic (Food and Non-Food) Products

Fun-seeking	Dependent Variable: Packaging likability (Standard and Localised)			
Chocolate (Strong brand)	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
M&M's	.97	<.01	.65	<.01
Chocolate (Weak brand)	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Wonka	.99	<.01	.55	<.01
Nail colour (Strong brand)	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
L'Oréal	.41	<.01	.24	<.01
Nail colour (Weak brand)	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Sally Hansen	.99	<.01	.57	<.01

** β denotes regression estimate*
***Model controls for consumer ethnocentrism and brand usage*

Similarly, the estimated β for utilitarian products was greater for standard than for localised packaging in the case of both strong and weak brands, showing the superiority of influence of quality consciousness on standard packaging over localised packaging (see Table 32). Therefore, hypothesis 10a postulation for the greater influence of quality consciousness on standard packaging likability than on localised packaging likability of utilitarian products was also accepted. In summary, as predicted, the results showed a persistent pattern for the greater influence of psychological dispositions on standard packaging over localised regardless of the brand familiarity (strong or weak brand) and product category (hedonic or utilitarian).

Furthermore, the model fit was tested using different indicators to test goodness of the model. Firstly, the chi-square statistic was used, which is often also explained as a minimum sample discrepancy function in the model. It is normally used to determine the likelihood that an observed distribution is occurred due to chance. The Chi-square statistic (χ^2) is calculated by dividing minimum value of sample by degree of freedom. The cutoff for model fit using chi-square is less than 3 or closer to 1 for the models to be acceptable (Byrne, 2010). The minimum threshold for using chi-square less than 5 is also reasonably acceptable for model fit (Hair, Black, & Babin, 2010). The chi-square for each model of the brand tested and overall measurement model was less than 5 (see Tables 33).

Table 32: Influence of Quality Consciousness on Utilitarian (Food and Non-Food) Products

Quality consciousness	Dependent Variable: Packaging likability (Standard and Localised)			
Tomato sauce (Strong brand)	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Maggi	.97	<.01	.72	<.01
Tomato sauce (Weak brand)	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
McCormick	1.05	<.01	.87	<.01
Shampoo (Strong brand)	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Pantene	.89	<.01	.78	<.01
Shampoo (Weak brand)	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Natures	.91	<.01	.70	<.01

** β denotes regression estimate*
***Model controls for consumer ethnocentrism and brand usage*

Table 33: Model Fit Summary

	χ2	Probability level	CFI	TLI	IFI	NFI	RMSEA
Hedonic							
M&M's Chocolate	2.26	<.01	.95	.92	.95	.91	.08
Wonka Chocolate	1.53	.01	.98	.97	.98	.94	.05
L'Oréal Nail Colour	2.71	<.01	.93	.90	.93	.90	.09
Sally Hansen Nail Colour	1.59	.01	.97	.96	.97	.94	.05
Utilitarian							
Maggi Tomato Sauce	2.91	<.01	.93	.90	.93	.90	.10
McCormick Tomato Sauce	1.97	<.01	.96	.94	.96	.93	.07
Pantene Shampoo	3.27	<.01	.92	.89	.93	.90	.10
Nature's Shampoo	1.91	<.01	.97	.95	.97	.94	.06

*χ2= CMIN/df
***CFI stands for Comparative fit index, TLI stands for Tucker-Lewis index, IFI stands for Incremental fit index, NFI stands for Normed fit index, RMSEA stands for root mean square error of approximation*

Despite chi-square showing the model fit, it is sensitive to the sample size (Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999); therefore, this study also looked at various other indicators of model fit. One such measure is the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), based on the population discrepancy and most commonly used in structural equation modelling. The cutoff for RMSEA is <.05 for very good fit and < .10 to achieve reasonable model fit, where any value greater than .10 shows misfit between model and data (Steiger, 1989). RMSEA was less than 1, showing the model was a good fit. The other significant indices for comparison to a baseline

model are Normed fit index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), Comparative fit index (CFI) and IFI (Incremental fit index) (Arbuckle, 2005, Byrne 2010; Holmes-Smith et al., 2000). All these indicators have a cutoff of .90 for model accuracy (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The model fit summary denoted in Table 33 shows that the models were good fit, as CFI and NFI showed greater than .90 and RMSEA for models were also equal to or smaller than .10. Table 34 indicates the measurement models for hedonic and utilitarian products testing for respective psychological disposition. The estimates for measurement models were reported for all goodness of fit indicators. All indicators for model fit were well above the threshold for model acceptability.

Table 34: Measurement Model Estimate

Measurement Model	$\chi 2$	Probability level	CFI	TLI	IFI	NFI	RMSEA
Fun-seeking model	1.98	.02	.99	.98	.99	.98	.05
Quality consciousness model	3.49	<.01	.97	.96	.97	.97	.08

*$\chi 2$= CMIN/df

***CFI stands for Comparative fit index, TLI stands for Tucker-Lewis index, IFI stands for Incremental fit index, NFI stands for Normed fit index, RMSEA stands for root mean square error of approximation*

5.4.3 Discrete Choice Experiment

To analyse the discrete choice experiment, analysis was performed in two steps. Firstly, in order to test Hypothesis 7 for hedonic products and Hypothesis 8 for utilitarian products, the analysis was performed for all four product categories to understand consumers' overall choice for the packaging (standard or localised), brand (strong, weak, any other brand or none of the given brands) at certain price point (-20%, -10%, +10% and +20% market price). Consumers' choices were analysed using a Multinomial Logit (MNL) model (Train, 2009).

To estimate the relative importance of each attribute for this model, each attribute's partial R-square (the partial log-likelihood associated with each attribute across all of its levels) was calculated (Louviere & Islam, 2008). The part-worth utilities were estimated based on dummy variable coding and added up to zero. These were evaluated by means of z-scores and Wald statistics. The Wald statistics and part-

worth were used to test if the part-worth utilities were significantly different between the choices of packaging.

Secondly, the choice data was sub-divided into pre-identified segments based on consumers' psychological dispositions (high versus low fun-seeking; and high versus low quality consciousness) for testing Hypotheses 9b and 10b. This was performed similar to cluster analysis. Since consumer behaviour is often derived by their psychological dispositions (Ding & Tseng, 2015; Han et al., 2007; Hung & Mukhopadhyay, 2012; Swaminathan et al., 2007), the rationale for a division based on respondents' psychological dispositions was to see whether there existed any differences in their choice patterns for standard versus localised packaging of hedonic and utilitarian products. For this purpose, the sample was pre-split into different product categories; chocolate, nail colour, tomato sauce and shampoo. Next, the pre-classification of groups was completed to underpin their differences of choice across product categories (such as, high fun seekers choice for hedonic products). Later, MNL on these groups was performed to see difference for psychological disposition on packaging choice for product categories.

The combined results for discrete choice experiments (DCE) for all four product categories indicate that packaging was the most important factor (72%) for consumers' choice in this experiment, followed by price (22%) and brand (5%) respectively (see Table 35). The table also indicates that the part-worth for standard packaging was greater than localised packaging, meaning that consumers generally preferred the standard packaging to the localised packaging for all four product categories.

Table 35: Overall Discrete Choice Results Including Hedonic and Utilitarian Products

Attributes	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	***0.62***	1325.11	**72.35**	1.8e-28	0.62	0
Localised	0.60				0.60	0
Any other brand	-1.22				-1.22	0
Brand						
Strong brand	***0.20***	97.87	5.34	5.6e-22	0.20	0
Weak brand	-0.06				-0.06	0
Any other brand	-0.14				-0.14	0
Price Points						
p20	-0.36	408.44	22.30	3.3e-88	-0.36	0
p10	-0.13				-0.13	0
n10	0.19				0.19	0
n20	***0.29***				0.29	0
Sum of Wald		1831.42				

Adj. R^2 = .15; LL= -14399.50; BIC (LL)=28840.64, N=383; df = 376
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Tables 36 and 37 contain the DCE results for the individual categories for hedonic products and utilitarian products. Across all categories, packaging type was the most important attribute (ranging from 50% for nail colour to 90% for tomato sauce) followed by price (ranging from 8% for tomato sauce to 34% for chocolate) and then brand (ranging from 0.6% for tomato sauce and 26.3% for nail colour).

Packaging type was the most important attribute for hedonic products (i.e. chocolate and nail colour). Participants clearly preferred the standard packaging over the localised packaging in the case of chocolate (part-worth standard = .63 > part-worth localised =.44). In the case of nail colour, there was a very marginal preference of standard packaging over localised packaging (part-worth standard = .61, part-worth localised =.60). Hence, the Hypothesis 7 postulation was partially accepted which hypothesised for the choice of standard packaging in the case of hedonic products.

Table 36: Discrete Choice Results for Hedonic Products

Chocolate	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	***0.63***	294.42	**64.36**	4.3e-65	0.63	0
Localised	0.44				0.44	0
Any other brand	-1.08				-1.08	0
Brand						
Strong brand	***0.09***	4.64	1.00	0.09	0.09	0
Weak brand	-0.10				-0.09	0
Any other brand	-0.00				-0.00	0
Price Points						
p20	-0.41	158.39	34.62	4.1e-34	-0.41	0
p10	-0.22				-0.22	0
n10	0.25				0.25	0
n20	***0.38***				0.38	0
Sum of Wald		457.45				

Adj. R ² = .12; LL= -3630.95; BIC (LL)=7298.49, N=186; df = 179
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given level*

Nail colour	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	***0.61***	273.01	**50.01**	5.2e-60	0.61	0
Localised	0.60				0.60	0
Any other brand	-1.21				-1.21	0
Brand						
Strong brand	***0.51***	143.62	26.30	6.5e-32	0.51	0
Weak brand	-0.20				-0.20	0
Any other brand	-0.30				-0.30	0
Price Points						
p20	-0.36	129.26	23.67	7.8e-28	-0.36	0
p10	-0.22				-0.22	0
n10	0.26				0.26	0
n20	***0.32***				0.32	0
Sum of Wald		545.89				

Adj. R ² = .21; LL= -3471.68; BIC (LL)=6890.38, N=198; df = 191
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

The DCE results for tomato sauce showed that participants preferred the standard packaging, but only very marginally (part-worth standard = .82 > part-worth localised =.81), showing no difference in standard and localised packaging likability. This was consistent with Hypothesis 8. However, for shampoo, there was a clear preference for localised packaging (part-worth standard = .54 < part-worth localised =.67). Therefore, Hypothesis 8 was only partially accepted, as it was predicted that for utilitarian products, there should be no difference in preference for packaging type (see Table 37). The discussion section offers possible explanations for this result.

Table 37: Discrete Choice Results for Utilitarian Products

Tomato Sauce	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	***0.82***	518.02	**90.66**	3.3e-11	0.82	0
Localised	0.81				0.81	0
Any other brand	-1.64				-1.64	0
Brand						
Strong brand	-0.07	3.41	0.60	0.18	-0.07	0
Weak brand	***0.22***				0.22	0
Any other brand	-0.14				-0.14	0
Price Points						
p20	-0.21	49.92	8.74	8.3e-11	-0.21	0
p10	-0.14				-0.14	0
n10	0.17				0.17	0
n20	***0.18***				0.18	0
Sum of Wald		571.35				

Adj. R ² = .19; LL= -3337.29; BIC (LL)=6711.24, N=188; df = 181
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Shampoo	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	0.54	340.06	**69.55**	1.4e-74	0.54	0
Localised	***0.67***				0.67	0
Any other brand	-1.21				-1.21	0
Brand						
Strong brand	***0.23***	28.02	5.73	8.2e-7	0.23	0
Weak brand	-0.29				-0.29	0
Any other brand	0.06				0.06	0
Price Points						
p20	-0.48	120.91	24.72	4.9e-26	-0.48	0
p10	0.05				0.05	0
n10	0.11				0.11	0
n20	***0.32***				0.32	0
Sum of Wald		488.99				

Adj. R ² = .14; LL= -3690.86; BIC (LL)=7418.59, N=194; df = 187
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

5.4.4 Influence of Psychological Disposition in Discrete Choice

Across the hedonic categories, packaging was the most important attribute, ranging from 58% for low fun-seekers to 84% for high fun-seekers. Particularly for high fun seekers, packaging type was the most important attribute (ranging from 62% for nail colour to 82% for chocolate). Price (13% for chocolate) and brand (23% in the case of nail colour) follow in terms of importance. The least important attributes were brand (2% for chocolate) and price (15% for nail colour) (see Table 38 and 39). Interestingly, when fun-seeking tendencies were low, the overall weight of importance for packaging reduced drastically from 84% to 39% in the case of chocolate and the price became the important attribute with 61% weight of

importance. In case of nail colour, the packaging attributes still remained the most important attribute for low fun-seekers, but the overall weight of importance reduced from 62% to 58% and the importance given to price raised from 15% to 32%.

Results for chocolate (part-worth standard = .80; part-worth localised =.62) and nail colour (part-worth standard = .85; part-worth localised =.73) clearly indicated the preference of standard packaging over localised packaging for high-fun seekers. Therefore, Hypothesis 9b prediction for the choice of standard packaging of hedonic products for high-fun-seekers could be accepted.

Table 38: Influence of High and Low Fun-Seeking on Chocolate

High Fun seeker	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	***.80***	215.20	**84**	-1.9e-47	.80	.00
Localised	.62				.62	.00
Any other brand	-1.42				-1.42	.00
Brand						
Strong brand	.14	5.79	2	.05	.14	.00
Weak brand	***-.20***				***-.20***	.00
Any other brand	.06				.06	.00
Price Points						
p20	-.31	34.37	13	1.7e-7	-.31	.00
p10	-.08				-.08	.00
n10	.13				.13	.00
n20	***.20***				.20	.00
Sum of Wald		255.36				

Adj. R^2 = .15; LL=-1706.46; BIC (LL)=3444.49, N=91; df =84
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Low Fun seeker	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	***.48***	90.10	39	2.7e-20	.48	.00
Localised	*.30*				.30	.00
Any other brand	-.78				-.78	.00
Brand						
Strong brand	***.04***	.41	0	.81	.04	.00
Weak brand	.03				.03	.00
Any other brand	-.07				-.07	.00
Price Points						
p20	-.49	142.83	**61**	9.2e-31	-.49	.00
p10	-.36				-.36	.00
n10	.36				.36	.00
n20	***.49***				.49	.00
Sum of Wald		233.34				

Adj. R^2 =.11; LL=-1888.67; BIC (LL)=3809.23, N=95; df =88
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Table 39: Influence of High and Low Fun-Seeking on Nail Colour

High Fun seeker	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	***.85***	207.62	**62**	8.2e-46	.85	.00
Localised	.73				.73	.00
Any other brand	-1.59				-1.59	.00
Brand						
Strong brand	***.51***	76.58	23	2.3e-17	.51	.00
Weak brand	-.29				-.29	.00
Any other brand	-.22				-.22	.00
Price Points						
p20	-.32	49.12	15	1.2e-10	-.32	.00
p10	-.17				-.17	.00
n10	.30				.30	.00
n20	***.20***				.20	.00
Sum of Wald		333.32				

Adj. R ² = .26; LL=-1725.45; BIC (LL)=3483.41, N=104; df =97
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Low Fun seeker	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	.56	158.22	**58**	4.4e-35	.56	.00
Localised	***.67***				.67	.00
Any other brand	-1.24				-1.24	.00
Brand						
Strong brand	***.33***	27.59	10	1.0e-6	.33	.00
Weak brand	-.29				-.29	.00
Any other brand	-.03				-.03	.00
Price Points						
p20	-.40	88.85	32	3.9e-19	-.40	.00
p10	-.20				-.20	.00
n10	.22				.22	.00
n20	***.45***				.45	.00
Sum of Wald		274.66				

Adj. R ² =.16; LL=-1723.28; BIC (LL)=3478.36, N=94; df =87
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Across utilitarian categories, packaging was the most important attribute, ranging from 69% for low quality consciousness to 94% for high quality consciousness consumers. Particularly for high quality consciousness, packaging type was the most important attribute (ranging from 69% for shampoo to 94% for tomato sauce). The importance was followed by price (5% for shampoo and 24% for tomato sauce) (See Table 40 and 41). When quality consciousness tendencies were low, the overall weight of importance for packaging reduced from 94% to 85% in the case of tomato sauce and marginally dropped from 69% to 68% in the case of shampoo. Moreover,

it is interesting to note that overall weight of importance for price raised from 5% to 14% in case of tomato sauce and 24% to 27% in case of shampoo.

Table 40: Influence of High and Low Quality Consciousness on Tomato Sauce

High Quality consciousness	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	***.96***	299.50	**94**	9.2e-66	.96	.00
Localised	.94				.94	.00
Any other brand	-1.91				-1.91	.00
Brand						
Strong brand	-.07	1.95	1	.38	-.07	.00
Weak brand	***.24***				.24	.00
Any other brand	-.16				-.16	.00
Price Points						
p20	-.13	16.34	5	.00	-.13	.00
p10	-.15				-.15	.00
n10	.12				.12	.00
n20	***.16***				.16	.00
Sum of Wald		317.79				

Adj. R ² =.21; LL=-1641.3; BIC (LL)=3314.58, N=96; df =89
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Low Quality consciousness	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	.71	221.27	**85**	8.9e-49	.71	.00
Localised	***.72***				.72	.00
Any other brand	-1.44				-1.44	.00
Brand						
Strong brand	-.07	1.61	1	.45	-.07	.00
Weak brand	***.19***				.19	.00
Any other brand	-.12				-.12	.00
Price Points						
p20	-.30	37.05	14	4.5e-8	-.30	.00
p10	-.13				-.13	.00
n10	***.23***				.23	.00
n20	.20				.20	.00
Sum of Wald		259.93				

Adj. R ² = .17; LL=-1685.27; BIC (LL)=3402.19, N=92; df =85
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Results for tomato sauce (part-worth standard = .96; part-worth localised =.94) and shampoo (part-worth standard = .61; part-worth localised =.69) indicated that hi-quality conscious consumers marginally preferred standard packaging over localised packaging for tomato sauce and seemed to be indifferent between their choice with part-worth of .96 for standard packaging and .94 for localised packaging. However, there was a clear preference of localised packaging over standard in the case of

shampoo. Therefore, Hypothesis 10b prediction for the choice of standard packaging of utilitarian products for high quality conscious consumers was completely rejected, whereby consumers were found to be indifferent for their choice of packaging in the case of food product, and localised packaging was the most preferred for non-food. Possible explanations for the rejection of hypothesis are explored in the discussion section of this study.

Table 41: Influence of High and Low Quality Consciousness on Shampoo

High Quality consciousness	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	*.61*	171.21	**69**	6.6e-38	.61	.00
Localised	***.69***				.69	.00
Any other brand	-1.3				-1.3	.00
Brand						
Strong brand	**.27**	18.30	7	.00	.27	.00
Weak brand	-.32				-.32	.00
Any other brand	.04				.04	.00
Price Points						
p20	-.53	59.90	24	6.1e-13	-.53	.00
p10	.13				.13	.00
n10	.10				.10	.00
n20	***.29***				.29	.00
Sum of Wald		249.41				

Adj. R ² = .17; LL=-1667.49; BIC (LL)=3366.48, N=90; df =83
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Low Quality consciousness	Part-worth	Wald	Wald %	p-value	Mean	S.D
Packaging Type						
Standard	.46	162.41	**68**	5.4e-36	.46	.00
Localised	***.64***				.64	.00
Any other brand	-1.10				-1.10	.00
Brand						
Strong brand	***.20***	12.11	5	.00	.20	.00
Weak brand	-.25				-.25	.00
Any other brand	.04				.04	.00
Price Points						
p20	-.44	64.12	27	7.7e-14	-.44	.00
p10	-.01				-.01	.00
n10	.12				.12	.00
n20	**.34**				.34	.00
Sum of Wald		238.64				

Adj. R ² =.12; LL=-2017.34; BIC (LL)=4067.20, N=104; df =97
**Bold value represents the most important attribute*
***Bold and italic values represent the preferred attributes amongst the given levels*

Before discussing other noteworthy results and discussion of the results, Table 42 provides a concise review of the hypotheses and their acceptance and rejection for this study.

Table 42: Hypothesis Confirmation Table for Study 3

Hypothesis statements	Hypothesis confirmation
H5: For hedonic products, consumers like the standard packaging more than the localised packaging (a) for strong brands (b) and for weak brands.	Accepted
H6: For utilitarian products, packaging likability does not differ for standard and localised packaging (a) for strong brands (b) and for weak brands.	Accepted
H7: For hedonic products, consumers choose the standard packaging of more than the localised packaging.	Partially accepted
H8: For utilitarian products, packaging choice does not differ for standard and localised packaging.	Partially accepted
H9a: For hedonic products, fun-seeking influence standard packaging likability more than localised packaging likability	Accepted
H9b: Compared to low fun-seeking consumers, high fun-seeking consumers choose the standard packaging of hedonic products more than the localised packaging of the products.	Accepted
H10a: For utilitarian products, quality consciousness influence standard packaging likability more than localised packaging likability	Accepted
H10b: Compared to low quality conscious consumers, high quality conscious consumers choose the standard packaging of utilitarian products more than the localised packaging of the products.	Rejected

5.4.5 Other Noteworthy Findings

Some additional findings of this study are worthwhile to note. First, it was found that standard packaging was influenced more by psychological disposition in comparison to localised packaging. A post-hoc analysis was performed on standard packaging to test for differences, if any, between strong and weak brands. Table 43 shows the influence of fun-seeking products and quality consciousness on utilitarian products for both strong and weak brands. For hedonic brands, influence of psychological disposition was even greater for strong brands than for weak brands. For utilitarian, the results seem to provide no evidence for standardised packaging likability of strong brand to be greater than the weak brand. For tomato sauce, the influence of psychological disposition was even more in the case of weak brand. Contrary to this, influence of psychological disposition was greater for strong brands in standard packaging. It is established from Study 2 that brand familiarity (strong or weak) does not make any difference to packaging likability. The sub-analysis and statistics showed that strong brands on some occasions gain more benefits than weak brands in the case of hedonic products. This is consistent with the theoretical support from

the literature where weak brands are suggested for standardised marketing mix, for developing brand equity and strong brands are suggested for standardisation to hold on their equity whilst strong brands gain more advantages of being more familiar to the consumers. Table 44 contains the model fit statistics, showing the model was a good fit.

Table 43: Comparison of Estimates of Strong and Weak Brands in Standard Packaging

Influence of psychological disposition	Dependent Variable: (Standard packaging likability of strong and weak brand)			
	Strong brand		**Weak brand**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Chocolate	.48	<.01	.44	<.01
	Strong brand		**Weak brand**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Nail colour	.80	<.01	.59	<.01
	Strong brand		**Weak brand**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Tomato sauce	.58	<.01	.71	<.01
	Strong brand		**Weak brand**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Shampoo	.66	<.01	.63	<.01

** β denotes regression estimate*
***Model controls for consumer ethnocentrism and brand usage*
**** Fun-seeking was tested on hedonic products (chocolate and nail colour), Quality consciousness was tested on utilitarian products (tomato sauce and Shampoo).*

Table 44: Model Fit Summary for Strong and Weak Brands in Standard Packaging

	χ2	Probability level	CFI	IFI	RMSEA
Hedonic products					
Chocolate	2.05	<.01	.94	.94	.07
Nail colour	3.07	<.01	.90	.91	.10
Utilitarian products					
Tomato Sauce	2.43	<.01	.92	.92	.08
Shampoo	2.42	<.01	.93	.93	.08

*χ2= CMIN/df
***CFI stands for Comparative fit index*
****IFI stands for Incremental fit index*
*****RMSEA stands for root mean square error of approximation*

This study also reports the additional finding about the control variable in the model that was consumer ethnocentrism. It is important to note that ethnocentrism influenced standard packaging negatively. Despite the insignificant influence of ethnocentrism on standard packaging, the negative estimate showed the interesting patterns of results where perceived foreignness was influenced by consumers' level

of ethnocentrism. This is consistent with the findings that brand foreignness is more beneficial for consumers with low level of ethnocentrism in developing brand value (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). Furthermore, significant effect of ethnocentrism on consumers' attitude towards foreign brands is shown (Klein et al., 2006). Though weak ethnocentric tendencies were found for the consumers, however, the negative beta for standard packaging showed that the use of Western language in the packaging had more negative influence than the use of local language in which all estimates were either positive or very close to zero (see Table 45).

Table 45: Other Noteworthy Findings for Control Variable (Consumer Ethnocentrism)

Consumer ethnocentrism	**Dependent Variable: Packaging likability (Standard and Localised)**			
Chocolate (Strong brand)	**Standard packaging**		**Localised packaging**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
M&**M**'s	-.11	.08	-.00	.90
Chocolate (Weak brand)	**Standard packaging**		**Localised packaging**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Wonka	.00	.89	.19	<.01
Nail colour (Strong brand)	**Standard packaging**		**Localised packaging**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
L'Oréal	-.02	.70	.20	<.01
Nail colour (Weak brand)	**Standard packaging**		**Localised packaging**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Sally Hansen	-.06	.32	.14	.03
Tomato sauce (Strong brand)	**Standard packaging**		**Localised packaging**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Maggi	-.08	.23	.02	.68
Tomato sauce (Weak brand)	**Standard packaging**		**Localised packaging**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
McCormick	-.03	.59	.06	.34
Shampoo (Strong brand)	**Standard packaging**		**Localised packaging**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Pantene	.13	.26	.26	.02
Shampoo (Weak brand)	**Standard packaging**		**Localised packaging**	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
Natures	-.01	.81	.05	.35

Table 46 further highlights the covariance among factors of the model, in which both psychological dispositions (fun-seeking and quality consciousness) were negatively correlated with ethnocentrism (which was controlled in the model).

Table 46: Covariance among Factors of Model

Covariance of Factors	S.E	p-value	Estimate	Correlation Estimate
Fun-seeking<>Quality consciousness	0.06	***	0.55	0.72
Fun-seeking<>Ethnocentrism	0.06	0.02	-0.15	-0.13
Ethnocentrism <>Quality consciousness	0.06	0.00	-0.18	-0.18

*** *denotes highly significant and less than 0.01*

To shed more light on brand likability results, the study tested whether the influence of standard packaging and localised packaging on brand likeability for strong brands were statistically different from each other, which followed the procedure by Cumming (2009). First, for each product category, linear regression was performed with brand likeability as the dependent variable, and the ratings for the two packaging types as independent variables. The confidence intervals of the two regression coefficients were estimated via the Bias Corrected and Accelerated (BCa) method using bootstrap. If two confidence intervals overlap by less than 50%, then the two regression coefficients are known to be significantly different ($p < .05$) (Cumming, 2009).

For the hedonic strong brands, the regression coefficients of the standard packaging (β-M&M'S = .51; β-L'Oréal=.53) were significantly different from the localised packaging (β-M&M'S =.10; β-L'Oréal=.15). Therefore, for hedonic products, standard packaging likability related to brand likability more than localised packaging likability did. For hedonic weak brands, confidence intervals overlapped by more than 50%, inferring that the standard packaging (β-Wonka =.30; β-Sally Hansen=.43) and localised packaging (β-Wonka =.53; β-Sally Hansen=.29) weights were not statistically different. For weak brands in the case of hedonic products, standard packaging likability and localised packaging likability did not relate differently to brand likability (see Table 47).

By contrast, for the utilitarian strong brands, confidence intervals overlapped by more than 50%, inferring that the standard packaging (β-Maggi= .44; β-Pantene=.40) and localised packaging (β-Maggi= .17; β-Pantene=.31) weights were not statistically different. Consistently for the weak brands, the overlap was greater than

50%, (β-McCormick = .21; β-Nature's=.42) and localised (β-McCormick =.32; β-Nature's=.29) so the weights were not statistically different. For utilitarian products, standard packaging likability and localised packaging likability did not relate differently to brand likability regardless of the strong or weak brand (see Table 48). The result presented an interesting picture in which strong hedonic brand likability was more influenced by packaging likability.

Table 47: Regression on Packaging Likability and Brand Likability of Hedonic Strong and Weak Brands

Model: Chocolate	**R**	**R Square**	**S.E**	**Brand likability Mean**	**S.D**
M&M's	0.58a	0.33	0.82	4.76	1.07
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	0.08	0.51	0.28	0.71	<.01
Localised pack	0.08	0.10	-0.03	0.40	.23
Model: Chocolate	**R**	**R Square**	**S.E**	**Brand likability Mean**	**S.D**
Wonka	.76a	.57	.65	4.32	1.16
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	.10	.30	.12	.51	<.01
Localised pack	.12	.53	.28	.74	<.01
Model: Nail colour	**R**	**R Square**	**S.E**	**Brand likability Mean**	**S.D**
L'Oréal	0.59a	0.35	0.81	4.82	.98
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	0.06	0.53	0.33	0.72	<.01
Localised pack	0.06	0.15	0.02	0.31	.01
Model: Nail colour	**R**	**R Square**	**S.E**	**Brand likability Mean**	**S.D**
Sally Hansen	.65a	.42	0.76	4.18	1.08
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	.05	.43	.23	.62	<.01
Localised pack	.10	.29	.08	.51	<.01

a. Dependent Variable: Brand Likability

Table 48: Regression on Packaging Likability and Brand Likability of Utilitarian Strong and Weak Brands

Model: Tomato sauce	R	R Square	S.E	Brand likability Mean	S.D
Maggi	.58a	0.34	0.82	4.40	1.01
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	0.09	0.44	0.10	0.67	<.01
Localised pack	0.09	0.17	-0.05	0.54	.06
Model: Tomato sauce	**R**	**R Square**	**S.E**	**Brand likability Mean**	**S.D**
McCormick	.49a	.24	.87	4.63	.93
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	.09	.21	.01	.40	.01
Localised pack	.08	.32	.15	.55	<.01
Model: Shampoo	**R**	**R Square**	**S.E**	**Brand likability Mean**	**S.D**
Pantene	.66a	0.44	0.75	4.81	1.08
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	0.08	0.40	0.14	0.60	<.01
Localised pack	0.08	0.31	0.10	0.60	<.01
Model: Shampoo	**R**	**R Square**	**S.E**	**Brand likability Mean**	**S.D**
Natures	.68a	.47	.73	4.11	1.25
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	.12	.42	.20	.64	<.01
Localised pack	.16	.29	-.01	.63	.08

a. Dependent Variable: Brand Likability

5.5 Discussion

Overall, the findings of Study 3 show that hedonic products do not benefit and may even suffer from localisation. Furthermore, the findings that consumers favour hedonic products with standard packaging are consistent for food and non-food products of strong and weak brands, as well as for attitudinal and behavioural choice measures. Indeed, this outcome is consistent with those in Study 1 and 2.

However, for utilitarian products, there is no clear evidence whether using standard or localised packaging is advantageous. Again, this outcome is similarly reflected in the findings of Study 1 and 2. The only exception is the choice of a utilitarian non-food product (see Table 37 for the DCE results of shampoo), where Chinese

consumers in the main survey chose shampoo in localised packaging more often. A plausible reason for the non-conformance of the hypothesis may be due to the influence of brand familiarity, which is more than 90% for Pantene shampoo and considerably higher than the other surveyed products and brands (see Table 23). It might be that this high familiarity led participants to pick the localised packaging. Interestingly, a similar result was reported by an earlier study for a non-food commodity, which showed that either a native or mixed language approach should be adopted for the promotion of such products (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008).

The results for psychological dispositions further confirm the role of fun-seeking in influencing the likability of hedonic brands. This result concurs with studies showing that affective disposition particularly fun-seeking is important in the evaluation of hedonic products (Fiore et al., 2005). Consumers' fun-seeking disposition is found to be more influential on standard packaging likability than on localised packaging. The choice results are also consistent with the attitudinal results, whereby high fun-seeker consumers preferred standard packaging for chocolate and nail colour products.

For the utilitarian products, the results supported the role of quality consciousness in evaluating the likability of utilitarian products. This concurs with studies that argue for the utilisation of cognitive disposition in utilitarian product evaluation (Drolet, Williams, & Lau-Gesk, 2007; Pham, 1998). No doubt, quality consciousness influences consumers' attitude towards standard packaging more than localised packaging of utilitarian products. However, when it comes to choice behaviour of high quality conscious consumers, it seems that they do not necessarily pick the standard packaging. While consumers' quality consciousness did influence their attitudinal ratings for the packaging likability of the standard package, they did not necessarily pick the standard packaging during the discrete choice procedure. That is, the participants seemed indifferent from what they reported and what they actually chose. For tomato sauce, no influence of quality consciousness is found and consumers remained indifferent between their choice of standard and localised packaging. For shampoo, quality conscious consumers tend to choose localised

packaging more. Therefore, the result for the influence of quality consciousness on choice behaviour is found to be uncertain.

It is also important here to shed light on some other results. Firstly, the results for brand likability for all strong hedonic brands are positive. Secondly, there is a significant influence of standard packaging likeability on brand likability. This is consistent with the finding that foreign cues on product packaging enhance packaging attractiveness, which in turn increases the likability for the brand (Littel & Orth, 2013; Underwood & Klein, 2002). This strengthens the argument regarding the role that packaging plays in enhancing product attractiveness and competitiveness. Furthermore, regardless of strong and weak brands, brand likability is not influenced differently from standard and localised packaging of utilitarian products. Therefore, this further confirms that utilitarian products do not benefit more or less from either packaging strategy.

Interestingly, this study's findings suggest that packaging is the most important choice attribute, followed by price and then brand. This implies that Chinese consumers may be willing to pay more for products in standard than in localised packaging, presumably because of the perceived foreignness. Following from the previous point, even if standard packaging is preferred particularly for hedonic products, can it yield a price premium over localised packaging? Logically, if standard packaging leads to more favourable perceptions of quality and value (Marlow & Jansson-Boyd, 2011), it should follow that standard packaging can support a higher price. This proposition has yet to be investigated. As such, it provided a direction to extend this thesis by conducting Study 4 using an in-store experiment to determine, as close to realistic purchase occasions as possible, how consumers would choose between the two packaging types under different price levels.

A key extension of Study 4 is also to determine whether packaging types matter more for products that are consumed in public or social settings, compared to private settings (Park & Lessig, 1982). Since consumers are more susceptible to social influence, they tend to prefer the products that show lavishness and exclusivity to

others (Kulviwat et al., 2009). Hedonism is one of the important dimensions for conspicuousness (Doğan & Özkara, 2013; Marcoux et al., 1997; Phillips & Back, 2011). Increasing fun-seeking or hedonism is often more desirable under conspicuous situation for gaining social acceptability (Podoshen & Andrzejewski, 2012), more particularly in the context of Chinese consumers, where conspicuous consumption is escalating (Podoshen et al., 2011). Hence, fun-seeking disposition is tested in Study 4, which may help determine what influences the consumption of hedonic products in conspicuous settings more than inconspicuous ones. The next chapter describes Study 4 in detail.

CHAPTER 6: STUDY 4

To summarise this thesis thus far, Study 1 and 2 measured the likability of standard and localised form of packaging in terms of attitudinal rating only. These studies used hedonic and utilitarian product categories to understand whether product categories moderate the likability of one packaging to another. The Study 1 tested for food products, while Study 2 tested for both food and non-food products along with strong and weak brands in terms of brand familiarity. The results of the studies found that packaging standardisation is effective for hedonic products only, whereas for utilitarian products packaging standardisation or localisation does not make any difference to consumer. The results consistently held for both strong and weak brands and for food and non-food products. Study 1 and 2 were carried out in the context of Pakistan.

Progressively, Study 3 was conducted in the context of China whereby standard packaging likability and choice was found evident for both strong and weak brands of hedonic products. Even for psychological disposition, fun-seeking influence was found for hedonic products and high fun-seekers preferred to choose standard packaging more in comparison to low fun-seekers. The results for utilitarian products did not provide a clear picture on how consumers choose a certain packaging type, however likability of standard and localised packaging was consistently found to make no difference to consumers across all three studies. Therefore, to further underpin the conditions for packaging strategy effectiveness, Study 4 was carried out in store for hedonic products only.

As Study 4 is an actual in-store experiment, it is necessary to keep the experiment short in order to enhance response rate and to make the experiment feasible and practical, given the actual supermarket setting. Due to the reason that no clear evidence for preference of a particular packaging strategy derived for utilitarian products, and clear understanding for differences in standard and localised packaging likability for such products, Study 4 was carried out on hedonic brands only. In

addition, Study 2 and 3 consistently showed that strong and weak brands make no difference to packaging likability; hence, Study 4 performed the experiment on strong brands only. The use of hedonic products only is also consistent with research, which suggests that conspicuous consumptions matters more for hedonic than for utilitarian products (Marcoux et al., 1997; Phillips & Back, 2011). Further, for an inconspicuous utilitarian product such as shampoo, fun is often not involved in the purchase of such product (Sachdev, Murphy, & Belassi, 2016) and such products are unsuitable to be studied under conspicuous situation (Lianxi & Wong, 2008)

To conclude, in Study 4 the in-store experiment was carried out only with hedonic products of strong brands to test in store choice behaviour including price manipulations on shelves, along with testing for the influence of consumers' psychological disposition with moderating effects of conspicuous and inconspicuous situation.

6.1 Objective of Study 4

The primary objective of study 4 is to test for modes of consumption (conspicuous versus inconspicuous) as a moderating variable of the effectiveness of standardisation and localisation of packaging for hedonic products. As an experiment conduced in-store experiment to determine consumer choice behaviour under an actual shopping environment, this study enhanced the external validity of this thesis.

Like Study 3 that incorporated and overcame the shorting comings of the first two studies, Study 4 was an extension of Study 3 and progressed to measure attitudinal versus behavioural choice for consumers' evaluation of the packaging at supermarket shelves. First, the study tested consumers' choice and likability of standard and localised packaging on the supermarket shelf at normal market price. Next, it investigated whether an increase in price of standard packaging would yield different results for consumer choice behaviour. That is, the study manipulated the price of standard packaging while keeping localised packaging at the normal market price. The purpose of this test was to ascertain whether standard packaging

commanded a price premium over a localised packaging of the same product. Finally, Study 4 investigated whether consumer choice and evaluation of the packaging differed if they were to buy the products for conspicuous versus inconspicuous situations.

To further this thesis' generalisability, the study used the same food and non-food hedonic brands in Study 3, but this time only strong brands were used due to the conclusive reasons drawn from Study 2 and 3 that strong and weak brands yield same results for packaging evaluation. The need to use fewer products also helped to limit the time that the participants had to spend doing the experiment at the supermarket, thereby encouraging better response rate.

6.2 Conceptual Development

It is well established that when people consume or possess products in social situations (Belk, 1988; Richins, 1994a), the products become noticeable and product distinctiveness becomes an important factor for creating desired impression of their selves on others (Snyder, 1992). The discernment of distinctiveness is emphasised from both psychological and social point of view, mainly because distinct products hold unique appeals (Holt, 1998; Jang et al., 2015; Lynn, 1992; Lynn & Harris, 1997; Tian et al., 2001; Verhallen, 1982). Hence, it is plausible that consumers' desire or preference for the distinct packaging rises when the product is to be consumed under a conspicuous situation. Since uniqueness can be derived from packaging or advertising cues that communicate the distinctivenessexclusiveness, which is particularly pertinent in non-Western markets with cues that symbolise modernity (Amaldoss & Jain, 2005; Huettl & Gierl, 2012). Besides using conspicuously consumed products to gain social appreciation and to communicate their identities, consumers may also use these to make consumers feel happy (Richins, 1987), fulfil their desire to seek fun (Vigneron & Johnson, 2004), and boost their self-esteem (Sivanathan & Pettit, 2010).

However, some studies suggest that the effects of product distinctiveness may also occur under inconspicuous situations (Eastman & Eastman, 2015). Consumer

desirability for distinctive products consumed in conspicuous situations is attributed to signalling characteristics of product to denote affordability to others; under inconspicuous situations, the aim is to fulfil personal gratification (Cummins, 2005; Nelissen & Meijers, 2011; O'Shaughnessy & Jackson O'Shaughnessy, 2002). Similarly, brand managers have explained brand's practise as a shift of societies from conspicuousness to inconspicuousness consumption, whereby distinctiveness is not always important under conspicuous situations only (Eckhardt et al., 2015; Kulviwat et al., 2009). This is because consumers may also prefer product exclusiveness in order to satisfice their own selves, rather than gaining social appraisals (Han et al., 2010).

The above arguments imply the importance of packaging uniqueness may be important under conspicuous as well as under inconspicuous situation. While distinctiveness is more important for conspicuous consumption, it is also important under inconspicuous situations, particularly for Chinese consumers (Lu, 2008). This study first tests the postulations for preference of standard packaging in both conspicuous and inconspicuous situations. It is hypothesised:

> *H11: With hedonic products consumed under conspicuous situation, consumers a) rate the standard packaging higher than the localised packaging and b) prefer to choose the standard packaging more than the localised packaging.*

> *H12: With hedonic products consumed under inconspicuous situation, consumers a) rate the standard packaging higher than the localised packaging and b) prefer to choose the standard packaging more than the localised packaging.*

When distinctive products are consumed under both public and private settings, the effects of social influence however become mitigated or reduced in inconspicuous situations in comparison to conspicuous situations (Gao, Winterich, & Zhang, 2016). For example, the moderating role of public and private consumption is found in purchase of exclusive products when consumed in public setting (Kulviwat et al.,

2009). The authors found greater effect of social influence under conspicuous consumption than under inconspicuous situations. Therefore, product distinctiveness becomes even more important under conspicuous situation than under inconspicuous modes of consumption, especially with Chinese consumers who are more hedonic value driven when the consumption of products can be witnessed by others (Liao & Wang, 2009). Hence, it is hypothesised:

> *H13a: Standard packaging is rated more positively under conspicuous than under inconspicuous situation.*
>
> *H13b: Standard packaging is chosen more positively under conspicuous than under inconspicuous situation.*

Research has confirmed consumers' tendency to purchase relatively expensive products under conspicuous situations (Lewis et al., 2016; Veblen, 1899), where expensive brands communicate a person's affordability in a social context (Griskevicius et al., 2007; Mazzocco et al., 2012; Rucker, Galinsky, & Dubois, 2012). The Literature has related this phenomenon to consumers buying costly products in order to signify generosity or lavishness to others (Lee, Ko, & Megehee, 2015; Saad, 2007). Consumption under conspicuous mode is observable, and hence price premiums satisfy the criteria for signalling theory in which consumers often accrue a costly behaviour to become noticeable and prominent to others (Lee et al., 2015). Therefore, this study tests to see whether relatively expensive standard packaging would lead to any difference in choice behaviour.

When foreignness is used as a brand attribute in overseas markets, it would have a strong effect on purchase intentions of consumers because of high quality perceptions associated with these brands (Steenkamp, 1990). Price premium are often enticed with these brands to signals better quality as this enhances perceived brand foreignness (Atsmon et al., 2010). Because of this, consumers relate them to better products. Hence, consumers under conspicuous situations are more concerned about quality when sharing with others; therefore, they are more willing to spend money for conspicuous products that signal prestige to others (Atsmon et al., 2010),

display affordability (Mason, 1980), desire to be noticed by others (Kulviwat et al., 2009; Shukla, 2008) and to impress others (Loebnitz et al., 2015; Wiedmann et al., 2009). This is primarily due to their behaviour, which is more subjected to social influence (Alden et al., 2006; Chan et al., 2012; Escalas & Bettman, 2003; Han et al., 2010; Park & Lessig, 1977; Thomas et al., 2015; Wooten & Reed, 2004). However, inconspicuous consumption motive is non-distinctive and not prominent to others; the impact of impression creation is generally absent under such consumption (Childers & Rao, 1992). As a result, consumers become less concerned about symbolic value of their consumption (Rahman et al., 2008) and may not be willing to pay premiums for their inconspicuous use when the same product is available in localised packaging at lesser price.

In summary, this thesis argues that standard packaging signals distinctiveness, and hence consumers may favour the packaging more, and be willing to pay a premium for standard-packaging products under conspicuous situations but may not be so willing in inconspicuous situations. This leads to the following hypotheses:

> *H14a: Standard packaging is chosen more often at premium price under conspicuous situation.*
>
> *H14b: Standard packaging is chosen less often at premium price under inconspicuous situation.*

High and low interpersonal influences play a role in determining consumer behaviour towards exclusive products showing status to others (Lertwannawit & Mandhachitara, 2012). Research has argued that social congruity should be taken into consideration for products consumed under social situations (Arnold & Austin, 2016). This is because consumption of exclusive products under conspicuous situations matches with consumers' affective disposition (Arli et al., 2016). Since, fun-seeking has been found to be associated with hedonic products (Fiore et al., 2005), more particularly under conspicuous situation (Tsang, 2015), it is important to understand how high and low fun-seeking consumers behave under conspicuous versus inconspicuous situations.

Fun-seeking is also linked to symbolism that is derived from the possession of distinctive products (Vigneron & Johnson, 2004). Research has defined conspicuousness as a kind of fun-seeking behaviour, especially under social settings (Tsang, 2015). Fun-seeking consumers desire to be socially regarded when they consume a certain product (O'Shaughnessy & Jackson O'Shaughnessy, 2002). Because of the delight received by consuming products in social context that show distinctiveness to others, conspicuous situations boost the tendencies to seek fun (Hirsch, 2005). This may be further explained by the social psychology phenomenon, in which consumers want themselves to be perceived as more cheerful when they are in the presence of their social circle (Jordan et al., 2011) as opposed to achieving personal gratification under inconspicuous situations (Eastman & Eastman, 2015).

As individual susceptibility to social influence would lead to prefer standardisation in the products they consume (Özsomer, 2012), high fun-seeking consumers in non-Western market would prefer to consume products that signify foreignness to seek acknowledgement from them (Özsomer, 2012). Hence, consumption of hedonic products does not only result from a drive to seek fun, but is also related to conspicuous situation in which fun-seeking tendencies could be raised and may result in different purchase patterns opposed to private consumption context. Therefore, this study hypothesises that it is likely that effects of foreign cues may be more salient for fun-seeking consumers in a conspicuous situation as opposed to an inconspicuous setting and high fun-seekers may be less price sensitive than high fun-seekers under inconspicuous situations.

> *H15a: High fun-seeking compared to low fun-seeking consumers rate standard packaging greater under conspicuous consumption situation.*

> *H15a: High fun-seeking compared to low fun-seeking consumers choose standard packaging greater under conspicuous situation at a) market price and b) at premium price.*

H16a: High fun-seeking consumers rate standard packaging greater under conspicuous situation than under inconspicuous situation

H16b: High fun-seeking consumers choose standard packaging more often under conspicuous situation than under inconspicuous situation both at a) market price and b) at premium price

6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Questionnaire Development

The experiment was conducted in-store at a popular supermarket, located in a shopping centre in the main district of Shenzhen city in December 2015. In order to test the variation in likability and choice of the respondents for standard and localised packaging under conspicuous and inconspicuous situations, each respondent was primed to one of two different situations. For the group of respondents who were exposed to inconspicuous situations, they were asked to imagine the given situation: 'Other than you, no one is at home. You go to the supermarket to buy some products to take home for your own consumption' before making choice on the supermarket shelf. Similarly, the other group was exposed to conspicuous situation, whereby they were primed to the given situation: "A group of friends visit your home. You go to the supermarket to buy these products to share with them."

Following priming the respondents, respondents were asked to go to supermarket shelf (labeled as Shelf A) where they could find both hedonic food product (M&M's, chocolate) and hedonic non-food product (L'Oréal, nail colour) in both standard and localised packaging. Since this study was based on real brands, respondents were shown both packaging of these brands at market price. Shelf A had no price difference between standard and localised packaging and later Shelf B was used to test prices differences. The respondents were asked to choose and record their purchase of either of the packaging in the questionnaire to test Hypotheses 11b and

12b for independent choice under conspicuous and inconspicuous situations and 13b to compare the choice results of conspicuous with inconspicuous situations.

After completion of the first choice experiment, respondents were asked to answer attitudinal questions. Respondents were also asked to rate the extent to which they liked the brands and how much they liked the standard and localised packaging of the brand. Respondents were requested to rate the packaging likeability, anchored on dislike and like adapted from marketing studies measuring advertising attitude or brand attitude (Speck & Elliott, 1997). The scale varied from 1 to 7, in which one denotes *strongly disagree* and seven denotes for *strongly agree.* This study uses only one single item, on the same Likert scale as used for packaging likability measurement, which is 'How much do you like the packaging of this brand?' These questions were asked for testing Hypotheses 11a and 12a for independent attitudinal rating under conspicuous and inconspicuous situations and 13a to compare the attitudinal rating under conspicuous and inconspicuous situation.

Subsequently, consumers' psychological disposition scales were measured to test for difference in choice and attitudinal rating. For this purpose, the fun-seeking three items scale was adapted from Carver and White (1994); Völckner (2008). All items were measured on Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 7, where by one denotes *strongly disagree* and seven denotes for *strongly agree*. The brand usage was measured on a 3-point scale ranging from no prior exposure to the brand (never seen before), prior exposure (seen before) to prior purchase (purchased before), was adapted from Zaichkowsky (1988). The study adapted a 4-item instrument for ethnocentrism from Lee and Tae Lee (2013), using a 7-point Likert scale anchored on *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Since possible moderating effects of brand usage and ethnocentrism are discussed and controlled in Study 3 (see page 131), both constructs were also used in this study as control variables in the structural equation modelling, testing the influence of fun-seeking under conspicuous situations.

After completion of the attitudinal and psychological disposition ratings, respondents were asked to go to another shelf (labelled as Shelf B) where they could find both hedonic food product (M&M's, chocolate) and hedonic non-food product (L'Oréal,

nail colour) in both standard and localised packaging. At this shelf, the respondents were presented the standard packaging of both brands at 15% more than market price, but the price of the localised packaging prevailed at market price. The reason for doing this was to understand consumers' possible sensitivity to price premiums under conspicuous and inconspicuous situations to test for Hypotheses 14a and 14b. The researcher expected that consumers would still choose standard packaging and would even pay more for it particularly under conspicuous situations, regardless if they could find localised packaging at a cheaper price (i.e., market price). This outcome may not be true for inconspicuous situations. Therefore, to underpin this study, the price manipulation was performed on the store shelf for standard packaging only. The respondents were requested to choose and record their purchase of either of the packaging in the questionnaire. The choice of standard and localised packaging was compared for high fun seekers versus low fun-seekers at market and premium price (see Hypothesis 15b). Further, high-seeking consumers' choice under a conspicuous situation was compared with high-fun-seeking consumers' choice under an inconspicuous situation at varying price points (see Hypothesis 16b). Further, choice results of fun-seeking consumers were compared with attitudinal rating for standard and localised packaging likability (see Hypotheses 15a and 16a).

Finally, respondents were required to answer the question pertaining to the manipulation check for the priming condition. The purpose of this question was to check whether respondents were actually primed effectively to the given situation, and the selected product categories were actually suitable for the situation to which they were assigned. For the conspicuous situation, the question stated, 'For the product packaging that you previously selected at Shelf 1 and Shelf 2, do you think they are suitable for sharing with your friends at home?' Similarly, for the inconspicuous group, the question stated, "For the product packaging that you previously selected at Shelf A and Shelf B, do you think they are suitable for your own consumption at home?" The respondents were required to state their agreement or disagreement to the question in either a yes or no response.

The final sample contained 130 participants, with 62 males and 68 females. The respondents' age ranged as a categorical variable varied from 20 to 51 years or older.

The participants were divided across the two questionnaires, with each questionnaire having roughly 65 participants. The conspicuous sample comprises of 50% males and 50% females, and inconspicuous group had approximately 46% males and 54% females. Each respondent was provided incentive of Rmb 40 for their participation in the experiment.

6.3.1.1 Data Analysis

In order to test the influence of high fun-seeker compared to low fun seeker on standard packaging under conspicuous versus inconspicuous situation (Hypothesis 14), first, the factor loadings of the items for each of the scales were tested using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in SPSS (See Table 49). The EFA performed on these factors helped to exclude the items having factor loading less than 0.60 cutoff (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) or .63 cutoff (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). As shown in Table 49, the study used four items for fun-seeking, but the fourth item did not load into the factor, despite the reliability of fun-seeking with all four factors was greater than 0.70 cutoff (Peter, 1979) and found to be .76 with four items. The study excluded the fourth item from the analysis. Furthermore, the first item of ethnocentrism construct did not load, having factor loading of .56 that is substantially below the threshold. The Ethnocentrism scale held a reliability of .78 with all four items. The exclusion of the first item did not affect the reliability whereby it was found to sustain at .77 with three items fitting into the factor. Therefore, item one of the ethnocentrism scale was excluded from the analysis.

Table 49: Exploratory Factor Analysis

Scales	Factor Loading	Mean (Std Dev)	KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's test of Sphericity $\chi 2$ (df), p
Funs-seeking (four items)				
1. I often do things for no other reason that they might be fun.	.89	5.35(1.57)	.74	201.12(6),<.01
2. I crave excitement and new sensation.	.83	5.34(1.58)		
3. I am always willing to try something new if I think it will be fun.	.76	5.60(1.51)		
4. I often act on spur of the moment.	.28	3.83(1.83)		
Fun-seeking (three items)				
1. I often do things for no other reason that they might be fun.	.89	5.35(1.57)	.72	*190.92(3)<.01*
2. I crave excitement and new sensation.	.83	5.34(1.58)		
3. I am always willing to try something new if I think it will be fun.	.76	5.60(1.51)		
Consumer ethnocentrism				
1. Only those products that are unavailable in China should be imported.	.56	3.21 (1.73)	.72	*154.96(6)<.01*
2. Chinese products, first, last, and foremost.	.68	3.53(1.90)		
3. Chinese people should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Chinese business and causes unemployment.	.72	3.14(1.83)		
4. Chinese consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Chinese out of work.	.79	2.88(1.74)		
Consumer ethnocentrism				
1. Chinese products, first, last, and foremost.	.62	3.53(1.90)	.68	*107.24(3)<.01*
2. Chinese people should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Chinese business and causes unemployment.	.78	3.14(1.83)		
3. Chinese consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Chinese out of work.	.79	2.88(1.74)		

Progressively, the scale reliabilities were also tested. The Cronbach's alpha value was used as a predictor of reliability for the scales. The value of Cronbach's alpha was .86 for the fun-seeking scale, .77 for the ethnocentrism, which were greater than the minimum threshold value for reliability, which is .70 (Peter, 1979), Therefore, all scales were considered as reliable. Furthermore, the average variance extracted (AVE) for both factors came out to be less than 0.5. Since AVE of each factor was greater than the sum of square of correlations between the factors, both factors were

discriminately valid with Cronbach's alpha showing that factors were also reliable (see Table 50), providing the support for construct validity.

Table 50: Reliability and Validity Tests for Factors

Variables	Cronbach Alpha	AVE	1	2
1. Fun-seeking	.86	.69	1.00	*.12*
2. Consumer Ethnocentrism	.77	.54	.12	1.00

**Square of correlation is reported in italics.*

Besides reliability and validity checks, multi-collinearity was also tested using Harman's one factor analysis in EFA to ascertain for the common method variance (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). First, EFA was performed using maximum likelihood analysis that yielded two factors based on the Eigen values criterion. Then, within EFA, one factor was forced for extraction. The percentage of variance of one factor (41.19%) was less than cumulative variance of each factor in exploratory factor analysis (62.26%). Since a single factor resulted in the low explained variance, it was concluded that the factors were free from the multi-collinearity or common method variance. Furthermore, maximum correlation between any two items of the three constructs was .74, which was well below the collinearity cutoff of .90 (Hair et al., 2006). Therefore, the data were valid and reliable.

Subsequently, as an initial step to analyse the results for choice and likability under conspicuous and inconspicuous situations, it was important to determine whether the consumers were primed to the given situation before attempting the choice experiment. Data analysis revealed that only one respondent did not pay attention to the priming situation, therefore the response was deleted from the analysis (see Table 51).

Table 51: Manipulation Check

Manipulation check	N	Observed prop.	Test prop.	Sig.
Yes	130	.99	.50	<.01
No	1	.01		
	131			

Like previous studies, this study used the same brands that were identified from the pre-test (explained in Study 3) in China. To re-confirm the consumer familiarity with the brand within the main experiment, the analysis was performed on brand usage to make sure selected brands were popular brands in terms of consumer usage. The analysis for brand usage confirmed that majority of the respondents had either seen or purchased the brand before (see Table 52).

Table 52: Brand Usage

Hedonic brands N=130	Category	Never seen before %	Seen before %	Purchased before %
M&**M**'s chocolate	Food	1.5	19.2	79.2
L'Oréal nail colour	Non-Food	8.5	53.1	38.5

6.4 Results

6.4.1 Attitudinal Ratings under Conspicuous and Inconspicuous Situation

First, the analyses were performed for the attitudinal rating as done for the first three studies. The purpose of doing this was to see whether consistency of results for hedonic product packaging holds across the thesis' studies. The analyses used a paired sample t-test for standard and localised packaging likability ratings for hypothesis H11a and H12a for conspicuous and inconspicuous situation.

The results for the primed group under conspicuous situation also showed significant higher likability for standard packaging than for localised packaging (see Table 53). The results held true for the established postulation for greater likability of standard packaging under conspicuous situation for hedonic products, supporting Hypothesis 11a.

Table 53: Paired t-test Statistics for Standard and Localised Packaging Likability for Conspicuous Situation

Hedonic brands N=64	Category	Mean Standard packaging	Mean Localised packaging	Mean difference	t	S.D	S.E	Sig.
M&M's Chocolate	Food	5.87	5.10	.76	3.71	1.64	.20	<.01
L'Oréal Nail colour	Non-food	5.73	4.42	1.31	5.27	1.99	.24	<.01

The results for the primed group under inconspicuous situation also showed significant likability for standard packaging than for localised packaging (see Table 54). The results supported Hypothesis 12a, whereby standard packaging was predicted to be more likable under inconspicuous situation.

Table 54: Paired t-test Statistics for Standard and Localised Packaging Likability for Inconspicuous Situation

Hedonic brands N=66	Category	Mean Standard packaging	Mean Localised packaging	Mean difference	t	S.D	S.E	Sig.
M&M's Chocolate	Food	5.25	4.81	.43	1.93	1.84	.22	.05
L'Oréal Nail colour	Non-food	5.13	4.37	.75	3.06	2.00	.24	<.01

To further test whether standard packaging likability was greater under conspicuous situation than under inconspicuous situation for Hypothesis H13a, a paired sample t-test was performed on standard packaging likability only for the two groups.

Since the results for the differences in standard packaging likability confirmed that respondents significantly rated standard packaging higher under conspicuous than inconspicuous situations (see Table 55), Hypothesis 13a prediction was also supported.

Table 55: Paired t-test Statistics for Standard Packaging Likability for Conspicuous and Inconspicuous Situation

Hedonic brands	Category	Mean Standard packaging Conspic.	Mean Standard packaging Inconspic.	Mean difference	S.E	t	Sig.
M&**M**'s Chocolate	Food	5.87	5.25	.61	.25	2.46	.01
L'Oréal Nail colour	Non-food	5.73	5.13	.59	.26	2.26	.02

6.4.2 Choice under Conspicuous and Inconspicuous Situation

To analyse the choice of standard and localised packaging under conspicuous and inconspicuous situation for the Hypotheses 11b and 12b, a non-parametric binomial choice test was performed in SPSS. The test provided the percentage of respondents who selected standard and localised packaging for their choice.

The choice of packaging under conspicuous situation remained significant for standard packaging (see Table 56). Therefore, Hypothesis 11b's postulation for the choice of standard packaging under conspicuous situation was clearly accepted. The choice of packaging under inconspicuous situation also remained significant for standard packaging (see Table 56). Therefore, Hypothesis 12b postulation for the choice of standard packaging under inconspicuous situation was also accepted.

Table 56 also shows confirmation for Hypothesis 13b that postulates for greater choice of standard packaging under a conspicuous situation than under an inconspicuous situation. The results showed that choice remains significant for standard packaging under a conspicuous situation. Under an inconspicuous situation, the choice for standard packaging remained significant at market price (68% for M&M's and 67% for L'Oréal), though the proportion of choice was still less than conspicuous situation for both food and non-food products (78% for M&M's and 88% for L'Oréal).

Table 56: Choice of Standard and Localised Packaging for Conspicuous Group

Conspicuous situation N=64	Category	Packaging Choice	N	Obs. prop.	Test prop.	Sig.
M&M's chocolate	Food	Standard	50	.78	.50	<.01
		Localised	14	.22		
			64			
L'Oréal nail colour	Non-Food	Standard	56	.88	.50	<.01
		Localised	8	.13		
			64			
Inconspicuous situation N=66	**Category**	**Packaging Choice**	**N**	**Obs. prop.**	**Test prop.**	**Sig.**
M&M's chocolate	Food	Standard	45	.68	.50	<.01
		Localised	21	.32		
			66			
L'Oréal nail colour	Non-Food	Standard	44	.67	.50	<.01
		Localised	22	.33		
			66			

The results also evaluated the effects of price premiums under conspicuous and inconspicuous situations. Even when the price was increased by 15% for standard packaging and local market price prevailed for localised packaging, respondents were still more likely to choose standard packaging under a conspicuous situation (see Table 57). Hence, Hypothesis 14a for the choice of standard packaging even at premium price was clearly accepted.

Under an inconspicuous situation, when the price was increased by 15% for standard packaging and local market price prevailed for localised packaging, respondents switched from standard packaging to localised packaging for food products, but not for non-food cosmetic product. Under inconspicuous situations, respondents were willing to pay premium for non-food cosmetic product, but not for food product. The price premium on standard packaging modified their choice for standard packaging. Hence, they were sensitive to price premiums for food product only. Therefore, Hypothesis 14b for not choosing the standard packaging under an inconspicuous situation was only partially accepted. These results are further elaborated and explained in the discussion section.

Table 57: Choice of Standard and Localised Packaging for Conspicuous Group

Conspicuous situation N=64	Category	Packaging Choice	N	Obs. prop.	Test prop.	Sig.
M&**M**'s chocolate at +15% market price	Food	Standard	41	.64	.50	.03
		Localised	23	.36		
			64			
L'Oréal nail colour at +15% market price	Non-Food	Standard	41	.64	.50	.03
		Localised	23	.36		
			64			
Inconspicuous situation N=66	**Category**	**Packaging Choice**	**N**	**Obs. prop.**	**Test prop.**	**Sig.**
M&**M**'s chocolate at +15% market price	Food	Standard	28	.42	.50	.26
		Localised	38	.58		
			66			
L'Oréal nail colour at +15% market price	Non-Food	Standard	45	.68	.50	<.01
		Localised	21	.32		
			66			

6.4.3 Results for Fun-Seeking Attitudinal Rating and Choice

The study tested the likability ratings and choice of standard and localised packaging for high fun-seeking consumers. This study also tested the postulation for likability of standard packaging and choice to be greater in the case of conspicuous situation than under inconspicuous situation for high fun-seekers (see Hypotheses 15 and 16). For this purpose, first of all factor scores were calculated for fun-seeking based on three items only for the group exposed to a conspicuous situation (See Table 58).

Table 58: Factor Scores for Fun-seeking under Conspicuous Situation

Scale	Factor Loading	KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's test of Sphericity $\chi 2$ (df), p
Funs seeking (three items)			
1. I often do things for no other reason that they might be fun.	.92	.70	106.36 (3)<.01
2. I crave excitement and new sensation.	.71		
3. I am always willing to try something new if I think it will be fun.	.88		

Following this, the median value of this factor was taken as a criterion to split the sample into groups of high and low fun-seekers. The median for the fun-seeking factor under the conspicuous group resulted in .24. Therefore, the factor scores for fun-seeking above .24 were classified as a high fun-seeking group.

Similarly, to test for the influence of high and low fun-seekers on likability and choice of packaging, factor analysis was performed for the inconspicuous situation group (See Table 59).

Table 59: Factor Scores for Fun-seeking under Inconspicuous Situation

Scale	Factor Loading	KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's test of Sphericity $\chi 2$ (df), p
Funs seeking (three items)			
1. I often do things for no other reason that they might be fun.	.84	.69	98.14 (3)<.01
2. I crave excitement and new sensation.	.93		
3. I am always willing to try something new if I think it will be fun.	.69		

Following this, the median value of this factor was taken as a criterion to split the sample into groups of high and low fun-seekers. The median for the fun-seeking factor under the conspicuous group resulted in -.04. Therefore, the factor scores for fun-seeking above -.04 were classified as a high fun-seeking group.

After classifying the high and low fun-seeking groups under conspicuous and inconspicuous situation, the analysis on standard packaging likability was performed using independent sample t-test. The analysis was performed to see how standard packaging likability ratings changes for high and low fun-seekers under conspicuous situation (see Hypothesis 15a). Additionally, the means of likability were compared for high fun seekers under conspicuous versus inconspicuous situation (See Hypothesis 16a).

Subsequently, for Hypothesis 15b, a non-parametric binomial choice was performed to underpin whether consumer choice of standard packaging increases for high fun-seeking consumers versus low fun-seeking consumers under conspicuous situation at both market and premium price (see Hypothesis 15b). The purpose of doing this was to test for high versus low fun-seeking consumers' choice behaviour and their sensitivity to price. Therefore, their choice was tested at varying market price under conspicuous situations. The choice probabilities for the standard packaging high fun-seeking group were compared under conspicuous versus inconspicuous situation at both market price and premium price (see Hypothesis 16b).

The results showed that high fun-seeking respondents under conspicuous situation significantly liked standard packaging better than low fun-seeking respondents (See Table 60). Therefore, the Hypothesis 15a postulation was accepted. Similarly, high fun seekers under inconspicuous situation also liked standard packaging more than low fun-seekers' liking. However, a more positive mean for standard packaging was found for conspicuous than inconspicuous situation for high fun-seekers. The mean rating of standard packaging for M&M's chocolate came out to be 6.53 under conspicuous situation for high fun-seekers, which was greater than 5.90 under inconspicuous situation for high fun-seekers. The mean rating of standard packaging for L'Oréal nail colour equalled 6.35 under conspicuous situation for high fun-seekers, which was greater than 5.81 under inconspicuous situation for high fun-seekers (see Table 60). Therefore, the postulation of Hypothesis 16a for greater likability of standard packaging for high fun-seekers under conspicuous than inconspicuous situation was also accepted.

Table 60: Independent Sample t-test for High Fun-Seekers' Standard Packaging Likability under Conspicuous Versus Inconspicuous Situation.

Hedonic brands	Fun-seeking	N	Mean Standard packaging	Mean difference	t	S.D	S.E	Sig.
Conspicuous								
M&M's Chocolate	High	28	6.53	1.17	4.34	.69	.13	<.01
	Low	36	5.36			1.29	.21	
L'Oréal Nail colour	High	28	6.35	1.10	3.28	1.22	.23	<.01
	Low	36	5.25			1.42	.23	
Inconspicuous								
M&M's Chocolate	High	28	5.90	1.25	3.42	1.35	.23	<.01
	Low	36	4.64			1.61	.27	
L'Oréal Nail colour	High	28	5.81	1.31	3.71	1.37	.24	<.01
	Low	36	4.50			1.48	.25	

For the choice results, high fun seekers under conspicuous situation clearly chose standard packaging over localised at market price and at premium price (see Table 61). Therefore, Hypothesis 15b was accepted.

Under inconspicuous situation, high fun seekers also chose standard package over localised packaging significantly at market price (see Table 62). However, the percentage for standard packaging in case of M&M's chocolate equalled 89% under conspicuous situation that was clearly greater than 78% under inconspicuous situation (see Table 61 and Table 62). Similarly, for L'Oréal nail colour, the choice percentage was 100 for standard packaging under conspicuous situation that was also predominantly greater than 84% under inconspicuous situation at market price. Thus, at market price, high fun-seekers preferred to choose standard packaging under both conspicuous and inconspicuous situation, but the proportion for the choice of standard packaging was greater under conspicuous situation.

For sensitivity to price premiums in the case of high fun-seekers under conspicuous and inconspicuous consumption situations, the choice results indicated that high fun-seeking consumers clearly chose standard packaging despite the prevalence of localised packaging at market price. The result for choice was significant for both food (86% for M&M's) and non-food product (79% for L'Oréal) (see Table 61). Table 62 shows the choice results for high fun-seekers under inconspicuous situation, when a premium was charged on standard packaging, their choice of

standard and localised packaging became indifferent (47% for standard packaging at premium price, 53% for localised at market price). The results indicated that high fun seekers were more willing to pay price premiums under conspicuous than inconspicuous situations. Thus, postulation 16b for high fun seekers choice of standard packaging to be greater at both market and premium price under conspicuous, than inconspicuous situation was accepted.

Clearly, greater choice for standard packaging was found under conspicuous situation for high fun-seekers. The increase in price also did not affect the high fun-seeking group under conspicuous situation and still chose standard packaging at premium price. Low fun-seekers under conspicuous situation also preferred to choose standard packaging more. With the increase in price, they switched from standard to localised packaging. Interestingly, by looking at the results in Table 61 and 62, it was identified low fun-seeking choice behaviour under conspicuous situation was found exactly identical to high fun-seeking group under inconspicuous situation, whereby both chose standard packaging at market price, but an increase in price affected their choice from standard packaging to localised packaging. It seemed that price sensitivity did not play a role when consumers are high fun-seekers under conspicuous situation. Only low fun-seeker under conspicuous situation were sensitive to price changes. However, high fun-seekers under inconspicuous situation were found sensitive to price premiums. The low fun-seeking group under inconspicuous situation did not significantly choose standard packaging at all regardless of the price.

Table 61: Choice of Packaging (High Fun-Seekers) under Conspicuous Situation

Hedonic brands N=64	Packaging Choice	N	Observed prop.	Test prop.	Sig.
High Fun-Seekers					
M&M's chocolate	Standard	25	.89	.50	<.01
	Localised	3	.11		
		28			
L'Oréal nail colour	Standard	28	1.00	.50	<.01
	Localised	0			
		28			
M&M's chocolate at +15% market price	Standard	24	.86	.50	<.01
	Localised	4	.14		
		28			
L'Oréal nail colour at +15% market price	Standard	22	.79	.50	<.01
	Localised	6	.21		
		28			
Low Fun-Seekers					
M&M's chocolate	Standard	25	.69	.50	.02
	Localised	11	.31		
		36			
L'Oréal nail colour	Standard	28	.78	.50	<.01
	Localised	8	.22		
		36			
M&M's chocolate at +15% market price	Standard	17	.47	.50	.86
	Localised	19	.53		
		36			
L'Oréal nail colour at +15% market price	Standard	19	.53	.50	.86
	Localised	17	.47		
		36			

Table 62: Choice of Packaging (High Fun-Seekers) under Inconspicuous Situation

Hedonic brands N=64	Packaging Choice	N	Observed prop.	Test prop.	Sig.
High Fun-seekers					
M&M's chocolate	Standard	25	.78	.50	<.01
	Localised	7	.22		
		32			
L'Oréal nail colour	Standard	27	.84	.50	<.01
	Localised	5	.16		
		32			
M&M's chocolate at +15% market price	Standard	15	.47	.50	.86
	Localised	17	.53		
		32			
L'Oréal nail colour at +15% market price	Standard	15	.47	.50	.86
	Localised	17	.53		
		32			
Low Fun-seekers					
M&M's chocolate	Standard	20	.59	.50	.39
	Localised	14	.41		
		34			
L'Oréal nail colour	Standard	17	.50	.50	1.00
	Localised	17	.50		
		34			
M&M's chocolate at +15% market price	Standard	13	.38	.50	.22
	Localised	21	.62		
		34			
L'Oréal nail colour at +15% market price	Standard	6	.18	.50	<.01
	Localised	28	.82		
		34			

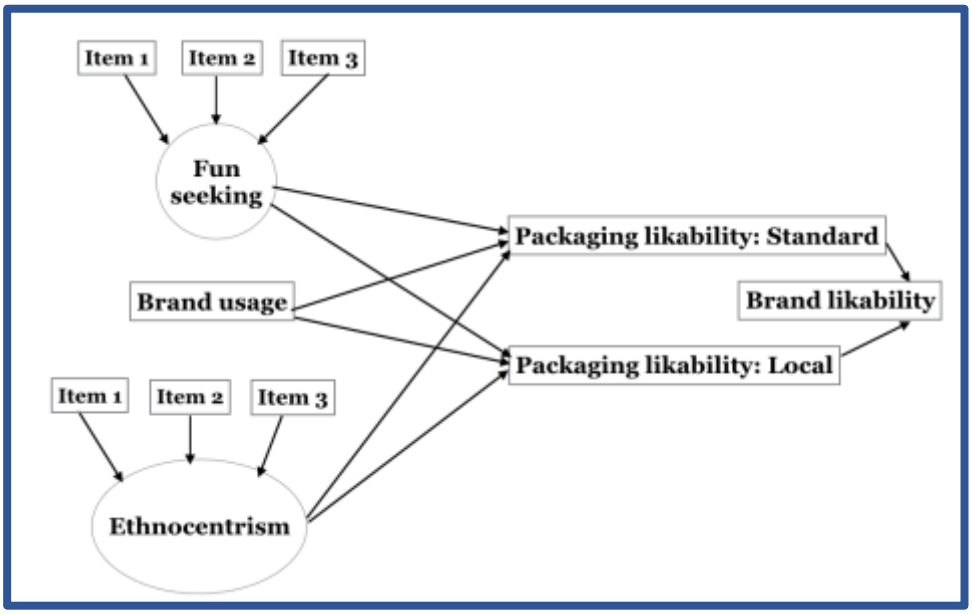
Before discussing other noteworthy results and discussion of the results, Table 63 provides a concise review of the hypothesis and their acceptance and rejection for this study.

Table 63: Hypothesis Confirmation Table for Study 4

Hypothesis statements	Hypothesis confirmation
H11: With hedonic products consumed under conspicuous situation, consumers a) rate the standard packaging higher than the localised packaging and b) prefer to choose the standard packaging more than the localised packaging.	Accepted
H12: With hedonic products consumed under inconspicuous situation, consumers a) rate the standard packaging higher than the localised packaging and b) prefer to choose the standard packaging more than the localised packaging.	Accepted
H13a: Standard packaging is rated more positively under conspicuous than under inconspicuous situation.	Accepted
H13b: Standard packaging is chosen more positively under conspicuous than under inconspicuous situation.	Accepted
H14a: Standard packaging chosen at premium price under conspicuous situation.	
H14b: Standard packaging is not chosen at premium price under inconspicuous situation.	Partially Accepted
H15a: High fun-seeking compared to low fun-seeking consumers rate standard packaging greater under conspicuous situation.	Accepted
H15b: High fun-seeking compared to low fun-seeking consumers choose standard packaging greater under conspicuous situation at a) market price and b) at premium price.	Accepted
H16a: High fun-seeking consumers rate standard packaging greater under conspicuous situation than high fun-seekers rate under inconspicuous situation	Accepted
H16b: High fun-seeking consumers choose standard packaging greater under conspicuous situation than high fun-seekers rate under inconspicuous situation both at market price and premium price.	Accepted

6.4.4 Other Noteworthy Findings

As an additional test for finding any noteworthy patterns, psychological disposition that is fun-seeking was further analysed using structural equation modelling (version 22) to report the influence of fun-seeking on standard and localised packaging likability as an additional test. The purpose of doing this was to shed more light on choice and likability results for high fun-seeking consumers under conspicuous situation. The model tested the influence of fun-seeking controlling for brand usage and ethnocentrism for the group exposed to conspicuous situation only. The analysis was performed on both product categories, nail-colour (L'Oréal) and chocolate (M&M's), independently (see Figure 17).



*Packaging likability and brand likability refers to each brand tested in the model

Figure 17: Structural Models for Testing Influence of Fun-Seeking Hedonic Products (Chocolate and Nail Colour) under Conspicuous Situation

The results found that likability and choice for standard packaging was more effective for high fun-seeking consumers under conspicuous situation. Therefore, to further underpin the strength of the influence of fun-seeking under conspicuous situation, regression was performed within structural equation modelling. The results showed that estimate β for standard packaging was greater than localised packaging (see Table 64). The estimates of standardisation were positive and significant; however, insignificant estimates were found for localised packaging. Therefore, the results provide further support for predictions of fun-seeking under conspicuous situation.

Table 64: Influence of Fun-Seeking on Hedonic (Food and Non-Food) Products under Conspicuous Situation

Fun-seeking	Dependent Variable: Packaging likability (Standard and Localised)			
Chocolate	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
M&M's	.47	.02	-.00	.97
Nail colour	Standard packaging		Localised packaging	
	β	p-value	*β*	p-value
L'Oréal	.36	.01	.14	.36

** β denotes regression estimate*
***Model controls for consumer ethnocentrism and brand usage*

Table 65 shows the summary of model fit, showing the goodness of fit of the model as all the values complying with the threshold values for model acceptance.

Table 65: Model Fit Summary

	χ2	Probability level	CFI	IFI	RMSEA
M&**M**'s Chocolate	1.84	<.01	.90	.91	.11
L'Oréal Nail colour	1.72	<.01	.90	.90	.10

*χ2= CMIN/df
CFI stands for Comparative fit index, IFI stands for Incremental fit index, RMSEA stands for root mean square error of approximation

To further underpin the brand likability results, the study tested whether the influence of standard packaging and localised packaging on brand likeability for strong brands were statistically different from each other. This study followed the same procedure as did Study 3, adopted from Cumming (2009). First, for each product category, linear regression was performed with brand likeability as the dependent variable, and the ratings for the two packaging types as independent variables. The confidence intervals of the two regression coefficients were estimated via the Bias Corrected and Accelerated (BCa) method using bootstrap. If two confidence intervals overlap by less than 50%, then the two regression coefficients are known to be significantly different ($p < .05$) (Cumming, 2009).

For hedonic brands, the regression coefficients of the standard packaging (β-M&M'S = .34; β-L'Oréal=.43) were insignificantly different from the localised packaging (β-M&M'S =.14; β-L'Oréal=.25). However, greater positive and greater influence was found for standard packaging on brand likability in the case of both food and non-food hedonic brands. The results for brand likability also showed positive means for both food and non-food brands (See Table 66).

Table 66: Regression on Packaging Likability and Brand Likability of Hedonic Strong and Weak Brands

Model: Chocolate	R	R Square	S.E	Brand likability Mean	S.D
M&M's	.39	.15	.93	5.36	1.47
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	.10	.34	.12	.54	<.01
Localised pack	.08	.13	-.06	.31	.11
Model: Chocolate	**R**	**R Square**	**S.E**	**Brand likability Mean**	**S.D**
L'Oréal	.49	.24	.88	4.83	1.62
	S.E	**Beta**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**Sig.**
Standard pack	.07	.41	.27	.55	<.01
Localised pack	.09	.23	.06	.39	.01

6.5 Discussion

Study 4 provides useful insights into packaging standardisation and localisation under conspicuous and inconspicuous modes of consumption. The results supported that standard packaging is effective for hedonic products under conspicuous and inconspicuous situation. However, greater likability and choice of hedonic products under standard packaging is found under conspicuous situations, compared to inconspicuous situations. This is consistent with the studies showing modernity and product distinctiveness becomes more important when it is subject to social evaluation (Doğan & Özkara, 2013; Lianxi & Wong, 2008; Piron, 2000).

The findings also revealed that consumers were willing to pay more for standard packaging when they purchase for social consumption. This is consistent with studies that show the effects of cost signalling for products consumed under social situations (Lee et al., 2015; Saad, 2007). For inconspicuous situations, consumers prefer standard packaging, until they can find it at the same price at which localised packaging is found. When price premium is charged on standard packaging, consumers switch to localised packaging in the case of food products. However, they still prefer standard packaging for non-food cosmetic product. This may be due to nail polish being categorised as a fashion product that is less sensitive to price premiums (Chiou & Droge, 2006). The result is not as predicted. This thought provoking result may be due to differences in psychological disposition of

consumers, where higher fun-seeking tendencies might have influenced the consumers to choose standard packaging more often under inconspicuous situation. For cosmetic products, consumers were willing to pay premiums under both conspicuous and inconspicuous situations.

The sub-analysis on fun-seeking revealed a slightly greater preference for standard packaging at a premium price under conspicuous than inconspicuous situations. Furthermore, this study is unlike Study 3, whereby price sensitivity was tested across four levels of prices to understand consumer behaviour. Therefore, these findings may be due to only one level of price point (+15% market price) being tested for consumer choice.

Study 4 finds interesting results for high fun-seeking consumers, where the greater likability and choice for standard packaging is found for conspicuous packaging than for inconspicuous at both market and premium price. The results revealed that high fun-seekers choose standard packaging regardless of price premiums under conspicuous situations, whereby high fun-seekers under inconspicuous situation choose standard packaging but only at market price and not at premium price. More interestingly, a systematic pattern of choice behaviour of fun-seeking consumers is evident from the results. Low fun-seeking consumers' choice pattern under conspicuous situation matches with high-fun-seeking consumers under inconspicuous situation. These patterns are robust and exist across both food and non-food categories. A further sub-analysis shows some noteworthy results, where fun-seeking has been found to influence preference for standard packaging more than localised packaging for conspicuous situation. Hence, it is shown this affective disposition drives consumer behaviour for hedonic products under conspicuous situation more than under inconspicuous situation.

CHAPTER 7: OVERALL DISCUSSION

An ongoing debate in international marketing is whether marketing approaches should be localised as international brands enter foreign markets (Eckhardt, 2005; Fan, 2002; Fastoso & Whitelock, 2012; Jiang & Wei, 2012; Okazaki, 2004). As international marketers seek to find ways to influence consumer behaviour across cultures, the communicative role of packaging is becoming increasingly important. Yet, while many academics and practitioners have focused on international marketing strategies of foreign brands (De Mooij, 2013; Lianxi & Hui, 2003; Lianxi & Wong, 2008; Özsomer, 2012; Samiee, Yip, & Luk, 2004), hardly any empirical research has examined the effects of localising or standardising a brand's packaging. Additionally, while extant research has offered practical evidence to support international marketers strategising their marketing communication activities in culturally and linguistically different countries (Akaka & Alden, 2010; De Mooij, 2010), these studies primarily concern advertising rather than packaging. Yet, packaging plays a key role in influencing consumer choice decisions (Baruk & Iwanicka, 2015; Luis Méndez et al., 2011; Steenkamp, 1990; Underwood & Klein, 2002; Van Tonder & Mulder, 2015; Venter et al., 2011).

In light of these key gaps, this thesis examines whether localising a foreign product's packaging would enhance its effectiveness in influencing consumers' attitude and choice, particularly with non-Western consumers. Over four studies and across two countries, this thesis examines non-Western consumers' attitudinal preference and stated choice of localised versus standard packaging of identical products. Generalisation of the findings are achieved using food and non-food products, as well as hedonic and utilitarian products. This thesis also enhances external validity by using real brands and conducting an experiment instore in a supermarket. The sections below discuss the pertinent findings gleaned from the results across the four studies. To help explain these findings, this thesis also reports the views and

practices, obtained through in depth interviews, of ten brand managers of reputable global brands.

7.1 Addressing the Research Questions

7.1.1 Condition 1: Role of Product Type in Product Packaging Design

Concerning Research Question 1 (RQ1), this thesis questions whether hedonic or utilitarian product type makes any difference to packaging preference in standard and localised form. This condition is tested across all studies of this thesis.

The localisation of packaging in Pakistan is not effective for hedonic products, since consumers like these products more in standard packaging. However, for utilitarian products packaging standardisation or localisation does not make any difference to consumers' likability. This is evident from Study 1 for well-known brands of food products with which consumers are highly familiar.

Progressively, Study 2 in Pakistan also confirms that consumers like the standard packaging of hedonic products over localised packaging, but now, the results hold for both food and non-food products. It does seem that standardisation for hedonic products is effective for packaging strategy. The findings also consistently show no differences in standard versus localised packaging likability for utilitarian brands, across both food and non-food products. A probable explanation is that utilitarian products are consumed more for fulfilling functional needs, and hence localisation should not matter in terms of enhancing packaging likability. The weak effects of packaging cues for utilitarian products is consistent with studies in which the evaluation of utilitarian products is more inclined towards functional attributes, rather than extrinsic attributes such as packaging (Batra & Ahtola, 1991).

Study 3 further confirms that consumers favour hedonic products in standard packaging, whereas there is no difference for utilitarian products, consistently for food and non-food products, as well as for attitudinal and stated choice measures. The only exception is the choice of utilitarian shampoo (see Table 37 for the DCE results of shampoo), where consumers preferred the localised packaging to the

standard packaging. A possible reason for this non-conformance of the hypothesis is the influence of brand familiarity, which is more than 90% for Pantene shampoo and considerably higher than the other surveyed products and brands (see Table 23). This high brand familiarity may be steering participants to choose the localised packaging. Interestingly, a similar result is reported by an earlier study for a non-food commodity, which showed that either a native or mixed language approach should be adopted for the promotion of such products (Krishna & Ahluwalia, 2008). Finally, Study 4 confirms using an in-store experiment that Chinese shoppers liked and chose hedonic products in standard packaging more than they did for the same products in standard packaging.

In summary, with one minor exception, the results across all four studies were highly consistent: Hedonic products were preferred in standard packaging, whereas packaging type makes no difference to utilitarian products. This finding is in stark contrast to the current practices in the two countries, where virtually all Western brands are sold in localised packaging regardless of product type. This implies that brand managers may not be making the most optimal decisions for packaging hedonic products in non-Western markets. Since product type makes a difference for packaging strategies, it also means that academic research into packaging must account for possible moderating effects of product type.

7.1.2 Condition 2: Role of Brand Familiarity in Packaging evaluation

Research Question 2 (RQ2) concerns whether consumer's preference for standard versus localised packaging for brands varies across brand familiarity (i.e., strong versus weak brands).

Study 1 provides rudimentary findings for packaging preferences, based on strong brands only, where strong brands are more likable in standard packaging for hedonic products only. Since no differences in packaging likability for utilitarian products are found, no conclusive strategy is determined for strong brands of utilitarian products. Extending Study 1, Study 2 in Pakistan finds support for preference of hedonic products in standard packaging for both strong and weak brands of food and non-

food products. Similarly, Study 2 finds no difference in packaging preference between standard versus localised packaging for utilitarian products.

Study 3 in China also confirms that consumers favour standard over localised packaging for hedonic products, regardless of brand familiarity. Brand familiarity of utilitarian products also does not matter for packaging type; consumers simply do not care about packaging type when it comes to utilitarian products. Overall, DCE results also reveal that packaging is the most important attribute for consumers, followed by price, and least by brand familiarity. This result is replicated in Study 4, which provides confirmation for preference and choice of standard packaging, specifically for strong hedonic brands.

However, this finding contradicts some studies, which suggest that strong brands enjoy more positive consumer evaluation in comparison to weak brands (Bandyopadhyay & Gupta, 2004; Fader & Schmittlein, 1993), although these studies do not concern packaging specifically. Hence, this thesis contributes to academic research in brand familiarity by showing that the influence of brand familiarity on consumer behaviour varies depending on the research focus.

In summary, brand familiarity does not play a role in determining standardisation or localisation of packaging for hedonic and utilitarian product types, including food and non-food products. These findings are consistent with previous research suggesting that brand familiarity has little role in determining effectiveness of marketing communication (Esch et al., 2006). This outcome finds support from a study arguing for the use of standard messaging for strong brands to stimulate positive consumer evaluations, and for weak brands, the deployment of standard messaging creates association and awareness of the brand (Delgado-Ballester et al., 2012).

These findings imply that regardless of the brand familiarity, foreign marketers should adopt standardisation for their packaging, particularly with hedonic products. However, the actual market practices differ from the outcomes of this thesis. The majority of strong brands in both countries (Pakistan and China) are sold

predominantly in localised packaging, including hedonic products. The brand managers of the respective countries also acknowledge that more than 90% of their products' packaging are localised (see section 7.2 on brand managers' interviews).

In addition to the main findings, this thesis discovered additional noteworthy findings across the studies. Firstly, the results for brand likability for all strong brands are positive. Secondly, there is an influence of packaging likeability on brand likability. These findings are consistent with the finding that foreign cues on product packaging enhance packaging attractiveness, which in turn increases the likability for the brand (Littel & Orth, 2013; Underwood & Klein, 2002). Hence, it further supports the implications that brand managers can enjoy more positive brand evaluation and behaviour outcomes for hedonic products in non-Western markets. This outcome is also supported by other researchers in the field of brand management showing the role of packaging to be the most important criterion for brand likability (Gmuer et al., 2015; Pires & Agante, 2011; Underwood, Klein, & Raymond, 2001; Van Tonder & Mulder, 2015). This strengthens the argument that packaging standardisation plays a key role in enhancing strong hedonic brands' attractiveness, competitiveness and sales.

7.1.3 Condition 3: Role of Consumers' Psychological Disposition in Preference of Packaging

Research Question 3 (RQ3a) concerns how does fun-seeking influence consumers' preference for standard versus localised packaging and Research Question 3 (RQ3b) concerns quality consciousness influence on utilitarian products' preference in standard versus localised packaging. Study 3 in China derives possible implications for the influence of psychological disposition (fun-seeking and quality consciousness) on preference of standard versus localised packaging. The role of fun-seeking in influencing the likability and choice of standard packaging for hedonic brands is confirmed. This result concurs with previous studies showing that affective dispositions, particularly fun-seeking, is important in the evaluation of hedonic products (Fiore et al., 2005). The choice results are also consistent with the

attitudinal results, where high fun-seeking consumers preferred standard packaging for chocolate and nail colour products.

For utilitarian products, the results support the influence of quality consciousness in evaluating the likability of utilitarian products. This concurs with studies that argue for the utilisation of cognitive disposition in utilitarian product evaluations (Drolet et al., 2007; Pham, 1998). While consumers who are quality consciousness rated the packaging likability of the standard packaging higher than the localised packaging, they did not necessarily pick the standard packaging during the discrete choice procedure. For tomato sauce, no influence of quality consciousness is found and consumers remained indifferent between their choice of standard and localised packaging. For shampoo, quality conscious consumers tend to choose localised packaging more. Therefore, the results for the influence of quality consciousness on choice behaviour are inconsistent, and no conclusions can be drawn from them.

To further test the influence of fun-seeking on hedonic product likability and choice, the in-store choice experiment in Study 4 found that fun-seeking stimulates the preference of standard packaging over localised packaging. An evidence based outcome is received since high fun-seekers like and choose and standard packaging for hedonic products in comparison to low fun-seekers. Supporting the argument that hedonic products are often consumed for a variety seeking purposes, extrinsic factors such as displaying the product itself, packaging or the brand name are crucial in seeking desirability and acceptability of the product (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Lianxi & Wong, 2008).

These findings imply that localisation may actually deteriorate or degrade the brand equity of hedonic products in localised packaging for fun-seeking consumers. Hence, brand managers must consider consumers' affective disposition while making packaging decisions for hedonic brands. By contrast, for utilitarian products, the influence of quality consciousness is found on likability, but not on choice. The only exception is shampoo, where quality conscious consumers pick localised packaging. As the results for the quality consciousness on utilitarian products are inconclusive,

future research should further investigate how a quality-consciousness disposition works for such products.

A noteworthy finding also emerges for ethnocentrism (control variable) in Study 3. Consumer ethnocentrism shows a negative impact on the preference for standard packaging. This aligns with the established literature that ethnocentric consumers prefer to buy localised products and de-promote consumption of foreign brands due to their impact on the national economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Similarly, brand foreignness is more beneficial for consumer with low levels of ethnocentrism in developing brand value (Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). Hence, this disposition may be considered in future research as an independent or as a moderating variable to test for effectiveness of localisation on packaging.

7.1.4 Condition 4: Role of Conspicuous Versus Inconspicuous Mode of Consumption

This section pertains to Research Question 4 (RQ4) on whether conspicuous or inconspicuous situation would make any difference to the preference of hedonic product packaging. The findings show that consumers not only like, but also choose standard packaging over the localised packaging under both conspicuous and inconspicuous situations. This is consistent with studies showing the importance of distinctiveness under conspicuousness (Loebnitz et al., 2015; Wiedmann et al., 2009), as well as under inconspicuous consumption situations (Han et al., 2010). In the later situation, consumers may prefer product distinctiveness in order to satisfice themselves, rather than to please others or to gain positive social appraisals.

Interestingly, consumer preference (likability and choice) of standard packaging is greater under conspicuous than under inconspicuous situation. This concurs with prior research showing that status symbols enhance product evaluations, especially when the product is distinct in the market, primarily to enhance social standing (Childs & Jin, 2015). Since foreign brands in China are sold in localised packaging only, standard packaging becomes a source of distinction for consumers. Support is also drawn from another source when communication programs utilise foreign brand

names or advertisement themes; these cues symbolise Westernisation, status and modernity for non-Western consumers, resulting in product preference (Alden et al., 1999; Batra et al., 2014). This happens more often under conspicuous situations, as consumers are more subject to social observance (Eastman et al., 1999; Goldsmith et al., 1999). The findings support that distinctiveness is generally of lesser importance under inconspicuous situation than conspicuous situation (Eckhardt et al., 2015; Kulviwat et al., 2009)

These findings lend support to the assertion that brand managers should standardise packaging for hedonic products, since consumer demands for standard packaging hold under conspicuous as well as inconspicuous situations; it is even more pertinent under conspicuous situation. The current packaging practice completely differs from what this thesis' findings assert. Interestingly, brand managers did acknowledge that consumers might indeed prefer standardisation (see Section 7.2). Another implication of this finding is that future studies in packaging should account for the moderating role of conspicuous versus inconspicuous modes to gain better insight into preference under each situation.

This thesis also shows the effects of price premiums under conspicuous and inconspicuous situations on preference of standard versus localised packaging. Consumers are willing to pay more for standard packaging when they purchase for social consumption. This is due to consumers often buying costly products under social situations to signal their affordability to others (Lee et al., 2015; Saad, 2007). For inconspicuous situations, consumers prefer standard packaging, until they can find it at the same price in localised packaging. When price premium is charged on standard packaging, consumers switch to localised packaging in case of food products. However, they still prefer standard packaging for non-food cosmetic products. The probable explanation for the preference of nail polish at a premium price may be due to its categorisation as a fashion product that is less sensitive to price premiums (Chiou & Droge, 2006). Hence, consumers are willing to pay premiums for cosmetic products even under inconspicuous situations.

Businesses incur a cost to localise packaging. Standardisation of packaging across hedonic brands can result in more cost savings to the brand managers. The findings also suggest that brand managers may charge premiums for standard packaging as consumers are willing to buy the standard package at a premium price. The price premium can be enticing especially in the case of non-food hedonic brands, since consumers are happy to pay a premium, regardless of their mode of consumption.

The findings further show that high-fun seekers under conspicuous preferred to choose standard packaging compared to high fun-seekers under inconspicuous situation. This confirms that fun-seeking tendencies are stronger under social consumption conditions. Low-fun seekers under conspicuous situation also choose standard packaging, but at a lower proportion than high-fun seekers. What is interesting here is the choice behaviour of low fun-seekers under conspicuous situation is identical to the choice behaviour of high-fun seekers under inconspicuous situation. These results provide insight that fun-seeking tendencies are enhanced more under conspicuous situations that induce consumers to choose standard packaging.

These preferences amongst high and low fun-seeking consumers however vary under modes of consumption when a price premium is charged on standard packaging only. When a price premium is charged on standard packaging, high fun-seekers under an inconspicuous situation switch their choice to localised packaging. In contrast, high fun-seekers under conspicuous situations choose standard packaging even at premium price. This shows that high fun-seekers are less sensitive to price premiums under a conspicuous situation. This aligns with past research showing fun-seeking consumers in non-Western markets would prefer to consume products that signify foreignness to seek acknowledgement from others (Özsomer, 2012), therefore more willing to pay a price premium under a conspicuous situation to show lavishness to others (Lee et al., 2015). Noteworthy results also confirm for the greater influence of fun-seeking on standard packaging than on localised packaging under a conspicuous situation. Hence, there is consensus that this affective psychological disposition drives consumer behaviour for hedonic products under conspicuous situations more than under inconspicuous situations.

Overall, the findings reveal that indiscriminately localising the packaging of any products as they enter non-Western markets (particularly in context of China and Pakistan) may not be the most effective strategy for international marketers. The findings of the studies cumulatively suggest that hedonic products do not benefit and may even suffer from localisation in context of these two countries. Consequently, Western brands in standard packaging may even be priced at a premium compared to the localised packaging. For utilitarian products, the type of packaging does not make a difference to Chinese and Pakistani consumers. Moreover, the standardisation of packaging of hedonic products seems to work well with both strong and weak brands. However, variations in consumer psychological dispositions may moderate the preferences. The next section further illuminates the discussion of these findings in the light of brand managers' interviews.

7.2 In-depth Interviews with Brand Managers

To gain further insights into these findings, this discussion utilises the views of ten managers of global Western consumer brands. Five managers are in charge of the management of their respective brands in China, while the other five managers similarly manage their respective brands in Pakistan (their identities are withheld for confidentiality reasons). The managers in China and Pakistan were responsible for various consumer goods including ice cream, confectionary, snacks, carbonated soft drinks and detergent (see Table 67 for their demographics). All 10 managers were interviewed on the telephone. The primary objective of the interviews was to understand the reasons why major Western brands choose to localise their product packaging for China and Pakistan, and to compare their reasons to this thesis's findings from the consumers' perspective.

Table 67: Managers' Demographics

Respective countries	Expertise	Type of product	Years of Experience
China	Consumer Insight Management	FMCG products: Ice-cream, chewing gum and snacks	5 months
China	Managing Director	Various FMCG products	20 years
China	Research Manager	Ice-cream and snacks	14 years
China (2 Interviews)	Research Manager	Carbonated soft drink, potato chips, Sanitary napkin, chocolates, cosmetic products, detergent	Undisclosed
Pakistan	Marketing Management	Beverages: Carbonated soft drinks, energy drink, juice	1 year
Pakistan	Product Management	Carbonated soft drinks	3 years
Pakistan	Brand Management	Shampoo	9 years
Pakistan	Sales Management	Food and beverages: Powdered milk, Juices, cereals, coffee, confectionary	More than 3 years
Pakistan	Sales Management	Butter, soap, toothpaste, tea, ice cream, shampoo, cosmetic creams	4.5 years

Despite the thesis' findings that support the use of standard packaging particularly for hedonic products, localisation seems to be an umbrella strategy adopted by international brands in China and Pakistan. The brand managers consistently and unanimously believed that localisation is an important factor for gaining sales by enhancing their competitiveness in foreign markets, even with the full knowledge that they do not know whether consumers actually favour the localised packaging.

The managers generally highlighted the concept of localisation from standpoint of brand's distinctive asset. They concurred that every brand has its own visual identity that makes the distinctiveness of the brand recognisable. Therefore, they adopted localisation in packaging to make sure consumers understand what is being

communicated to them, especially when their first language is not English. Hence, they concluded that localisation is necessary. Managers specified that not all markets are given priorities for customised packaging using local language as a cue, but China and Pakistan China and Pakistan are large markets for international brands, worthy of investment in localisation. For example, a manager stated the following:

> *Product/category relevance should be matched with brand name. However, owing to differences between different countries and culture, we realized the importance of localised package. The principle of localised package is similar to "localised spokesperson". In general, a global launched product uses different spokespersons in different countries. Similarly, a localised package may attract more local target consumers. A unified package conveys information of professionalization, but a localised package indicates customization.*

The managers further revealed that the majority of brand sales come from localised packaging, as standard packaging is often available only at high end or exclusive supermarkets. According to the Pakistan managers, the proportion of sales of localised to standard packaging was stated to be 80:20 approximately in Pakistan. The China managers did not offer any specific numbers but they believed the vast majority of sales come from localised packaging. The Pakistan managers also stated that the localised packaging is usually manufactured in Middle Eastern countries like Saudi Arabia or Dubai and the supply chain is often shared amongst these channels for cost reduction purposes, since Arabic and Urdu language script is the same. The distribution is usually different due to differences in target market needs and retailers' requirements. Therefore, mass distribution of localised packaging is found in majority of supermarkets, hypermarkets, and grocery stores, whereby distribution of standard packaging is often limited to exclusive shopping centres or high-end shopping malls.

According to the managers in China, other than for regulatory compliance purposes, packaging localisation would ensure that consumers could recall their brands better and hence would like and buy the brands more often. To them, localisation can include using a native-language brand name as well as using symbolic cues such as pictures depicting Chinese New Year. Pakistani managers do not have any legislative obligation to localise the packaging, but they similarly stated that the

main purpose of localisation is to reach the mass audience. More importantly, they felt that customisation in terms of local language on packaging would give consumers a sense of belonging and feeling that their needs are considered by the company. Other than language, other manipulations include advertising of culturally symbolic cues on the packaging that are often for special events or promoted as limited edition. They exemplify this with a national flag on packaging on Independence Day, or religious symbols on festivals such as Eid in Pakistan. For example, one manager remarked that:

> *Package localisation would be a consistent universal package design with a translated name in local language; sometime there might be more changes to adapt local culture or humanity habit. For example, Coca-Cola has the same catchy red package universally which really helps you to find the product no matter where you are on this planet. How much effort does the manufacturer make on the package localisation shows the degree of respect to the local consumers.*

Similarly, another manager outlined another reason pertaining to the importance of the local language:

> *Localisation increases the consumers' acceptance of a product. I came across a study stating that 56.2 percent of consumers say that the ability to obtain information in their own language is more important than price. Here is the reference for the study: Common Sense Advisory, Can't Read, Won't Buy: Why Language Matters on Global Websites, 2006.*

Some managers also cast doubts on whether standardisation would enhance the status of a product for most consumers. Another manager believed that there were possible negative effects of localising the packaging of foreign brands, and stated that:

> *Some manufacturers might think localised a product would downgrade the brand image with an imported background. However, even the premium brands have to lower their pride to get closer to consumers. Especially in Chinese market, consumers with high purchasing power don't have high education level sometimes.*

However, when asked if they *objectively* know that Pakistani and Chinese consumers would prefer localised packaging, none of the managers was able to give a definite answer. The China managers admitted that this issue has not been previously

examined and it is plausible that some products may be perceived better in standard packaging. They were also unsure how using a standard packaging would actually enhance quality perceptions or whether a price differential is possible for standard packaging. Interestingly, the findings of this thesis suggest that packaging is the most important choice attribute, followed by price and then brand. This implies that Chinese consumers are willing to pay more for products in standard than in localised packaging, presumably because of the perceived foreignness and quality. A manager did admit that consumers might associate quality perceptions with standardisation, considering it to be imported while localised packaging may be perceived as local made. In relation to this point, the manager stated that:

> *Localised package can be more connected with and easily memorized by local people, and it can also help buzzing around crowds easier. But Chinese consumer tends to perceive the foreign brand more premium and high quality, hence it is possible that having a global package can help drive the brand premium and quality image.*

Indeed, particularly with recent safety and health concerns with food products in China and Pakistan, products in standard packaging may be preferred due to perceptions that the products are more likely to be imported and hence are of high quality and integrity. The managers agreed that standard packaging could change Pakistani and Chinese consumers' perceptions of the country-of-origin and they might prefer standard packaging due to value and quality perceptions created by the image of their origin country. They also pointed out that with certain hedonic products such as chocolate, ice cream and cosmetic products, consumers might like the original name of the brand rather than localised/translated brand name. It thus appears that while brand managers are cognisant of the *possibility* that standard packaging may enhance brand competitiveness, the strategy has not been examined objectively let alone implemented. Consistent with this view, a manager mentioned, 'Original name might work better for indulgent category, i.e. Haagen Daz. Also, premium skin care products usually keep the original name instead of localised package.'

In summary, it seems that what international marketers currently practise is not fully aligned with this thesis' findings. For example, while the China manager admitted

that Chinese consumers may perceive foreign brands in standard packaging as more premium and high quality, their primary objective is to mass-sell their products in China; standard (Western) packaging may backfire in that it may be viewed as targeting only certain premium segments, thereby leading to lower sales and reduced market share. By contrast, localisation may blur the differences due to country-of-origin and culture, thereby improving the mass appeal of the products to the "average" Chinese consumers. However, the results of Study 1 and 2 clearly indicate consumers' preference for standard packaging especially with hedonic products. The outcomes for utilitarian products were inconclusive, meaning that there is no clear trend on whether consumers would prefer and choose either packaging. Study 4 even conducted an in-store experiment, as close to realistic purchase occasions as possible, and found identical results that consumers preferred and chose hedonic products standard packaging.

Following from the previous point, managers questioned that even if standard packaging is preferred particularly for hedonic products, can it yield a price premium over localised packaging? Logically, if standard packaging leads to more favourable perceptions of quality and value (Marlow & Jansson-Boyd, 2011), it should follow that standard packaging can support a higher price. According to the managers, they promote both standard and localised packaging at same price. However, retailers often charge a higher premium on standard packaging, as such packaging is not often locally made, giving an impression of Westernisation. However, the results of Study 4 clearly show that consumers are willing to pay more for standard packaging, especially under conspicuous consumption conditions.

All brand managers also acknowledged that they were unsure what underpins the influence of packaging on consumer behaviour, as well as whether consumers' dispositional characteristics matter. Again, Study 3 shows that personal dispositions such as fun-seeking and quality consciousness may influence consumers' perceptions and choice of product packaging. Similarly, Study 4 suggests that the preference and choice of packaging also depend on whether a product is to be consumed in a social setting or in private.

7.3 Future Research

As the first study of its kind, this thesis acknowledges several shortcomings that could be researched in the future. First, differences in socio-economic status may affect whether the attitudes and behavioural patterns observed in the studies are generalizable across the whole population (Manrai et al., 2000). Future studies could examine the perception of these societal clusters. Next, the findings could be further generalised by replicating this study in Western markets using imported non-Western products. Further, comparison of foreign versus localised products in standard and localised packaging may also provide a new approach to this area of research. Future studies could also be conducted on luxury versus non-luxury brands.

Studies have examined how cues may have an explicit influence such as through country-of-origin labels (Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2013; Lee & Lou, 2011; Rao et al., 2000) or an intrinsic influence such as through raising perceived self-identity (Bakar, Lee, & Rungie, 2013; Herm, 2011). Hence, another potential direction for future research is to identify whether packaging cues work via implicit and explicit influences. Furthermore, research on personal dispositions such as cosmopolitanism and materialism moderating the influence of different packaging on brand perceptions and choice is also a potential area for further research (Tae Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2014). Future studies could also test choice of standard versus localised packaging for gift giving situations, accounting for recipient influence (Parsons, 2002). Moreover, future studies using fictitious brands may also provide a more controlled experimental setting for manipulation of brands and different cues and test for interaction effects.

In conclusion, this thesis attempts to show that the approach of localising the packaging of all Western brands into non-Western markets may not be the most effective approach. The different nature of products, such as whether consumers buy them for functional or pleasure reasons, as well as heterogeneity in consumer characteristics mean that such an umbrella strategy to packaging practices simply would not work well. In light of this revelation and being the first study into this nascent topic, this thesis should spur more research in order to provide definitive

guidelines to Western brand managers on how best to compete in non-Western market through packaging strategies.

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