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Immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home-country brands

By

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract

This thesis advances understanding of consumer-brand relationships by focusing on consumers with multicultural national dispositions. Today's marketplaces are increasingly multicultural as more individuals now navigate hybrid, shifting, and context-dependent cultural identities. In this context, culture is a broad concept consisting of various levels, such as national, ethnic, and racial. Among these, this research focuses specifically on the national culture. Immigrant consumers are a salient example within national cultural groups, as they often maintain ties to their country of origin while integrating into the host context after moving across national borders. Thus, they typically hold multiple cultural affiliations, giving rise to shifting identity salience. For those who remain strongly connected to their home country or national culture, brands from their country of origin may carry emotional, symbolic, or nostalgic meanings, and brand choice may serve as a way to express a salient cultural identity in a new context. Although both consumer-brand relationships and country of origin have received substantial attention in the marketing literature, little is known about whether consumers with multicultural national dispositions, such as immigrant consumers, form relationships with their home brands, and if so, the nature of such relationships. To address this gap, this research aims to explore the potential existence and nature of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands and identify their nomological framework.

The research adopts an exploratory sequential mixed-methods design, with self-signalling theory and consumer acculturation theory serving as the overarching lenses to organise and interpret the findings. The theoretical development involves two scoping reviews on consumer-brand relationships and country of origin, and a narrative literature review on immigrant consumer behaviour in marketing to gain an in-depth understanding of the key areas, identify the research gap, and build a foundation for the conceptual model. Study 1 uses interviews to explore the existence, nature, formation, and outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships and their home-country brands. Insights from the Study 1 and the literature review inform the conceptual model and hypotheses. Studies 2, 3, and 4 use survey data from three immigrant groups in the UK (Chinese, Turkish, and Polish) to test the proposed hypotheses.

The findings of this thesis provide robust evidence for the existence and nature of immigrant consumer-brand relationships and identify their key drivers, moderators, and outcomes. The quantitative analyses identify four key drivers: brand origin salience and ethnocentrism (distal drivers), and self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers). The stage of consumer acculturation acts as a moderator, weakening the effects of distal drivers on proximal drivers. The outcomes include brand purchase intention, willingness to pay a price premium, WOM persuasion, perceived irreplaceability, sense of belonging, and inner self-expressiveness.

This thesis makes contributions to conceptual development, theory, literature, and practice. It establishes the existence of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands and revisits their nature. It extends self-signalling theory to the context of consumers with multicultural national dispositions (e.g., immigrants), and expands this theory by examining how identity affects their relationships with and consumption of home brands. It also extends consumer acculturation theory by illustrating how the acculturation of immigrant consumers affects their home-brand relationships and consumption. It provides an empirical account of their nomological framework, thereby advancing current knowledge in the research field. In practice, the findings offer useful insights for marketing strategists seeking to build and sustain strong relationships with immigrant consumers in increasingly multicultural marketplaces.

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Author's declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, this thesis is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature: 

Print name: Hui Chen

Abbreviations

UK: United Kingdom

WOM: Word-of-mouth

CBRs: Consumer-brand relationships

COO: Country of origin

RQ: Research question

WPP: Willingness to pay a price premium

EFA: Exploratory factor analysis

CFA: Confirmatory factor analysis

AVE: Average variance extracted

CFI: Comparative fit index

TLI: Tucker-Lewis index

CMIN/DF: Chi-square statistic

CR: Construct reliability

KMO: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy

MLE: Maximum likelihood estimation

PClose: P of close fit

RMSEA: Root mean square error of approximation

SEM: Structural equation modelling

SRMR: Standardised root mean square residual

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1.Research focus

Over the last 30 years, academic research has appreciated that consumers form relationships with brands (Beverland et al., 2006; Fournier, 1998; Veloutsou, 2007), and research in this area is still on the rise (Ammann et al., 2025; Oba et al., 2025; Shin & Kim, 2026). As a principle, **consumer-brand relationships** refer to individual brand-centric connections that occur when consumers act as independent entities and relate to brands (Veloutsou & Ruiz-Mafe, 2020). From an early age and throughout their lives, consumers express clear preferences for certain brands and form unique relationships with them (Rodhain & Aurier, 2016). Thus, a strong brand derives its value not only from its reputation but also from its ability to build enduring relationships with its consumers (Kalender & Guzman, 2025). Scholars acknowledge the significance of consumer-brand relationships in enhancing consumers' self-esteem (Le, 2021) and hedonic well-being (Asante et al., 2024), in stimulating word-of-mouth behaviour (Pourazad et al., 2024), fostering purchase and repurchase intentions (Madadi et al., 2024), increasing brand equity (Robertson et al., 2022), and enhancing operating performance (Nguyen & Feng, 2021). As a result, there is growing research interest in understanding how to develop stronger, more intimate, and meaningful consumer-brand relationships (Luan et al., 2023).

Consumers are often motivated to develop relationships with brands in terms of the symbolic and identity-relevant meanings that brands embody (Chen & Demirci, 2025; Mrad et al., 2025). In this regard, **culture** plays an active role in shaping how such meanings are interpreted and understood (Torelli & Rodas, 2024). From this perspective, brands can operate as cultural cues that trigger specific cultural frames and guide identity-related consumption (Beverland et al., 2021). In doing so, they can be seen as consumer cues and vessels of ideology, acting as identity symbols that incorporate **cultural meaning** (Beverland et al., 2021; Pineda et al., 2022). Here, brand culture is important and is represented through "*cultural codes of brands - history, images, myths, art, and theatre - that influence brand meaning and value in the marketplace*" (Schroeder et al., 2016, p.155-156). As these meanings are socially shared, brands can operate as potent symbolic resources that consumers mobilise in managing cultural identity, or one's value orientation toward a particular cultural group (Jensen et al., 2011), into consumer-level identity projects (Beverland et al., 2021).

The **cultural cues** conveyed by brands have become increasingly important **in multicultural** marketplaces (Matin, 2020). Driven by globalisation and increasing cross-border mobility, contemporary marketplaces have become more culturally diverse (Ibarra-Cantu & Cheetham, 2021). In this research, **culture** is understood as shared and historically transmitted patterns of meaning, values, beliefs, norms, symbols, and daily practices that give form and direction to behaviour (Markus & Kitayama, 2010; Zakrzewska et al., 2025). It may consist of multiple levels, such as national, ethnic, and racial ones (Kipnis et al., 2013; Jamal, 2003). This research focuses **specifically on national culture**.

From this perspective, many consumers now navigate **hybrid, shifting, and context-dependent cultural identities** shaped both by their **national culture** and by their interactions with and integration into other cultures (Kipnis et al., 2013; Rodríguez, 2021; Singh, 2026). Although orientations towards national culture are rooted in one's ancestry and heritage, ongoing experiences of multicultural national socialisation can render it less a single, fixed reference point and more a repertoire of cultural frames whose salience varies across contexts (Ewing et al., 2024). Consequently, how consumers interpret brands and derive meaning from them may be affected by multiple cultural reference points rather than a single, stable cultural orientation (Nguyen, 2026).

Immigrant consumers represent a **salient case** within national cultural groups. In this thesis, the term "immigrant consumers" refers to individuals who relocate from their home country to a host country with the intention of establishing long-term residence there, and individuals who are born in the host country to immigrant parents or who relocate there with one or both parents at a young age (Zolfagharian et al., 2019). They typically maintain **multiple cultural affiliations**, including those associated with their home country, host country, and, in some cases, other national contexts, and may hold potentially imbalanced cultural identification with home, host, or other cultures (El Banna et al., 2018). This reflects the nature of relocation, which often involves ongoing negotiation between different cultural systems as immigrants adapt to host values, social norms, and everyday practices while preserving certain ties to the home culture (Ogada et al., 2025). This ongoing negotiation may render identity salience fluid and context-dependent (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015).

Within this process, both **home** and **host brands** may become embedded in immigrants' daily consumption experiences, although they may serve different roles in their cultural adaptation and identity construction. **Host brands** can support immigrants' adaptation to the host society and facilitate identity integration by providing access to local consumption

practices, host cultural meanings, and marketplace conventions (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021). In contrast, **home brands** provide symbolic and emotional connections to immigrants' cultural heritage by maintaining links with their memories, past experiences and cultural identities (Ewing et al., 2024). Thus, immigrant consumers' brand experiences may involve the simultaneous negotiation of meanings associated with both home and host brands, as these brands may fulfil distinct identity-related functions within their multicultural lives.

For **immigrants** who maintain a **salient cultural identity** anchored in their **national roots** and retain meaningful elements of their heritage (Sui, 2026) or hold strong ethnocentrism, **brand choices**, particularly those related to their **country of origin (COO)**, may serve as a meaningful way of expressing aspects of identity or heritage in a new cultural environment (Ewing et al., 2024). Home brands often carry cultural attributes, such as unique narratives and distinctive designs, all of which evoke memories and meaningful events tied to their heritage (Beverland & Cankurtaran, 2024). The cultural meanings embedded in these brands lend authenticity to the values they represent, enhancing the credibility of the associations they imply, and acting as a bridge to the immigrants' cultural roots (Aversa et al., 2023). In this way, immigrant consumers may use these brands to signal salient aspects of their identity, both to themselves and others. In some cases, such brands may also carry moral significance, as consuming brands from one's COO could be associated with loyalty and responsibility towards the homeland (Guzman & Paswan, 2009). As a result, these brands not only serve as a link to the past but also help reinforce the consumer's sense of identity in the present (Campbell & Price, 2021).

Consumers with **multicultural national dispositions**, such as **immigrant consumers**, **may form relationships** with their **home brands**. Existing research indicates that ethnocentrism is positively associated with one's self-congruity with local brands, which in turn enhances their preferences for those brands (Shu & Strombeck, 2017). Extending this reasoning to immigrant consumers, home brands may heighten the salience of home-cultural identity, be perceived as more aligned with their self-concept, and thus be evaluated more favourably. In addition, brands associated with the home country or culture can evoke nostalgic feelings by reminding immigrants of their collective memory (Beverland & Cankurtaran, 2024) and a sense of home (Ogada et al., 2025). Taken together, immigrants with strong ethnocentrism may be especially drawn to home brands for their emotional, symbolic and nostalgic value, perceive them as more aligned with their self-concept, and thus show stronger preferences and consumption intentions. Throughout this process, **immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands may emerge.**

Despite this, the relationship between consumers with multicultural national dispositions and brands from their COO **remains underexplored**. Recent consumer-brand relationship studies are mainly quantitative (e.g., Tran et al., 2024; Yu et al., 2024), whereas a few employ qualitative methods to revisit or reapproach the nature of the consumer-brand relationships (Sansome et al., 2024). Thus, the existing conceptualisations may not fully explain how culturally plural consumers experience, interpret, and develop relationships with their focal brands. Meanwhile, COO literature has mainly focused on consumers' responses to mainstream or global brands (Magnusson et al., 2022; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015), with relatively limited consideration of immigrant consumers and the brands originating from their home countries (El Banna et al., 2018). As such, little is known about whether consumers with multicultural national dispositions, such as immigrants, form relationships with home brands and, if so, how these relationships are formed and what outcomes they generate.

Against this backdrop, these limitations underscore the need to explore the **potential existence and reapproach the nature of consumer-brand relationships through a novel lens** in the contemporary **multicultural marketplace**. Given that this phenomenon remains insufficiently explored, additional research is needed, including a more comprehensive understanding of the concept of consumer-brand relationship, country of origin, and immigrant consumption behaviour. Also, the drivers and outcomes of this phenomenon need to be explored and better understood, so that both scholars and brand managers can better anticipate their marketplace behaviour and design more effective strategies in multicultural settings.

1.2.Research background: The growing importance of immigrant consumers

Recent global trends indicate that hundreds of millions of people are now settling in a country that is different from the one in which they or their parents were born (Duan, 2024). Immigrants are among the most prominent groups within these cross-border population movements, and have become an increasingly important and expanding segment of the global population (Sui, 2026), contributing to cultural diversity and to economic growth in the host markets (Aguilar-Rodríguez & Arias-Bolzmann, 2021). In some countries, immigrants even make up most of the population. According to UN DESA (2025), there were an estimated **304 million international migrants** in 2024 in the world, accounting for approximately **3.7% of the global population** (Appendix 1). This number has increased steadily, reaching 225 million in the 2010s and 150 million in the 1990s.

From a **geographical** perspective, immigrants **moved widely** across countries worldwide, with some countries hosting a larger proportion of immigrants than others. According to MPI (2025), for the international migrant population, in 2024, the top 10 destination countries were the U.S., Germany, Saudi Arabia, the UK, France, Spain, Canada, the United Arab Emirates, Australia, and Russia (Appendix 2). These countries are located in different regions around the world. This widespread distribution has contributed to the development of culturally diverse and multi-ethnic societies globally. As a result, immigration is no longer limited to specific areas but has also become a common phenomenon that (re)shapes the social and demographic structures of many host countries (Guzmán et al., 2017).

From an **economic perspective**, immigrants play a key role in promoting economic growth by expanding the labour force and increasing consumer spending in many host countries (Gelatt, 2024). According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) (2024), there were approximately 167.7 million international migrant workers worldwide in 2022, accounting for 4.7% of the global labour force. This trend is also reflected in selected OECD countries. As shown in Appendix 3, from 2022 to 2023, the UK had the largest number of migrant workers, while the Republic of Korea, Greece, and Australia recorded the fastest growth in labour migration.

Regarding to **immigrants' spending power** on goods and services stimulates local economies, immigrants' consumption habits, shaped by cultural and economic factors, often drive demand for specific brands (e.g., cultural brands often embody some special meanings to people who moved from one country to another), thereby creating opportunism for new businesses, jobs and contributing to the overall economic development (Misuraca & Zimmermann, 2024). Take the US as an example, immigrants contributed roughly $48 billion in personal income in 2023, with that figure projected to rise to $76 billion in 2024 (Mondres, 2024). Real consumer spending increased by 1.2% in 2022 and 2.7% in 2023, with immigrant spending estimated to have contributed 10 to 20 basis points to those growth rates. Real GDP grew by 0.7% in 2022 and 3.1% in 2023 (Mondres, 2024). Looking ahead, higher-than-expected immigration is projected to continue driving job growth and productivity over the next decade.

The data above highlight that **immigrant populations** have become an **integral part** of many host societies and underscore the growing significance of immigrants as a key market segment (Cleveland et al., 2022; Nguyen, 2026). Gaining a more in-depth understanding of

immigrant consumer behaviour is important (Duan, 2024), especially for cultural/heritage brands seeking to connect with diverse audiences.

1.3.Research purpose and objectives

Addressing the gap in the consumer-brand relationship literature, this thesis aims to enhance the conceptual and theoretical understanding of consumer-brand relationships through the novel lens of consumers with hybrid, shifting and context-dependent cultural identities at the national level and brands from their country of origin. It responds to the contemporary demographic and cultural dynamism of the marketplaces (Nguyen, 2026), suggesting that assuming consumers possess monocultural dispositions might be outdated (Rodríguez, 2021). Therefore, the existence of consumer-brand relationships needs to be explored, and the nature of such relationships can be reapproached, forming the first research objective (see Section 2.7.1).

While existing consumer-brand relationship research identifies identity-related drivers such as self-congruity and self-expression (Mrad et al., 2025; Wallace et al., 2021), it offers limited insight into how these drivers operate among consumers with multicultural national dispositions, such as immigrants. Similarly, the COO literature acknowledges that brand origin can activate emotional and identity-based associations (Guzman et al., 2017), yet it has not explained how such cues translate into relationship formation among immigrant consumers. Given that immigrants often experience identity negotiation and varying degrees of acculturation and ethnocentrism (Duan, 2024), the processes through which home brands become personally meaningful may differ from those observed in monocultural settings. There is a limited study exploring the drivers that give rise to immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands, thereby forming the second research objective (see Section 2.7.2).

Further, extant research shows that consumer-brand relationships are associated with outcomes such as purchase intention, loyalty, and willingness to pay a premium (Madadi et al., 2024; Pourazad et al., 2024). Also, some COO studies suggest that immigrants are willing to purchase their home brands (El Banna et al., 2018). However, these two streams have not been integrated, which does not explicitly examine the outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. For immigrant consumers, home brands may function not only as marketplace offerings but also as identity-relevant resources that sustain heritage continuity and self-expression (Guzman et al., 2017). It thus remains

insufficiently understood the specific outcomes of those relationships, which leads to the third research objective (see Section 2.7.3).

Focusing on the potential existence, nature and nomological network of immigrant consumer-brand relationships, the study sets the following three objectives:

(1) To explore the potential existence and nature of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.
(2) To explore the potential drivers of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.
(3) To explore the potential outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.

1.4.Research methodology

The philosophical stance of this thesis is rooted in post-positivism, guiding its methodological approach. Ontologically, this thesis adopts a realist position, recognising that reality exists, but can be known imperfectly (Gregor, 2018). Epistemologically, this thesis views knowledge as being constructed through evidence, and it relies on scientific methods (Wahyuni, 2012). Axiologically, it recognises the influence of researcher values and seeks to reduce bias through transparency, reflexivity, and methodological rigour (Maksimović & Evtimov, 2023).

Consistent with post-positivism, this study employs an **exploratory sequential mixed-methods design** comprising four studies. It begins with a theoretical development stage involving two scoping reviews on consumer-brand relationships and country of origin, and a narrative review on immigrant consumer behaviour literature. It is followed by the **qualitative** phase (**Study 1**), which uses semi-structured interviews to explore the existence and nature of immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands and the potential drivers and outcomes of those relationships. The qualitative data are analysed using thematic analysis. Findings from the scoping review and the qualitative phase, along with key theoretical frameworks, inform the development of a conceptual model and the second research instrument (i.e., survey). The conceptual model is subsequently tested in the **quantitative** stage, which comprises 3 studies, that is, model testing for three immigrant samples (**Studies 2-4**). Consistent with the second and third research aims, Study 2 provides the first empirical test of the model by examining the hypothesised relationships among the

Chinese sample. Studies 3 and 4 replicate this testing with Turkish and Polish samples, thereby enhancing the robustness of the findings. Structural equation modelling is employed as the main analytical technique for the quantitative data.

1.5.Expected contributions

This thesis seeks to make **conceptual, theoretical, literature, and practical** contributions to the consumer-brand relationship scholarship. It firstly advances the conceptualisation of consumer-brand relationships by considering consumers with multicultural national dispositions, such as immigrant consumers. To this end, the research evaluates the literature on consumer-brand relationships, summarises and analyses its existing conceptualisations, and reviews what is known about consumer-brand relationships to enrich the understanding of the phenomenon. Also, this thesis conducts semi-structured interviews with immigrant consumers to explore how they narrate and interpret relationships with their home brands. In doing so, the research offers a novel and more holistic understanding of the consumer-brand relationship concept (MacInnis, 2011).

This thesis seeks to make contributions to self-signalling theory and consumer acculturation theory, which are employed in this study. Self-signalling theory explains how consumers apply consumption behaviours to signal aspects of the internal self (Castagna et al., 2022). While this theory is widely applied in marketing research (Johnson & Chattaraman, 2019), this research extends it to the context of consumers with multicultural national dispositions and their home brands, and expands it by examining how brands from immigrant consumers' COO may serve as symbolic resources through which identity-relevant meanings are affirmed and relationships with, and consumption of, home brands are formed. This thesis also contributes to consumer acculturation theory, which addresses how immigrants adapt to the cultural and marketplace practices of the host society (Ng et al., 2025). While this theory is mainly used to explain immigrant consumers' consumption of host-country brands (Chakraborty & Sadachar, 2021), this thesis extends its relevance to home-brand consumption in the host context and expands it by examining how different stages of acculturation shape immigrant consumers' relationships and consumption towards home brands. Taken together, this thesis aims to explore and build a richer and more comprehensive understanding of consumers with multicultural national dispositions, such as immigrant consumers, their relationships with brands from their COO through the theoretical lenses of self-signalling theory and consumer acculturation theory.

This thesis seeks to contribute to the literature by investigating the nomological framework of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. Analysis of existing literature shows a range of drivers and outcomes of consumer-brand relationships (Koskie et al., 2024; Klabi & Meshari, 2023), yet limited attention has been paid to consumers with multicultural national dispositions. An emerging stream of COO research has also examined immigrant consumers' consumption behaviour (Cleveland & Bartikowski, 2023; Ewing et al., 2024), but most of them have focused on these consumers' responses towards mainstream or global brands. Thus, research still pays limited attention to consumers with multicultural national dispositions, how they form relationships with home brands, and the outcomes that follow.

Practically, managing relationships with consumers with multicultural national dispositions is important for managers to gain competitive advantages, enhance long-term profitability, and minimise the risk of brand underperformance in the current multicultural marketplace (Ewing et al., 2024; Duan, 2024). This study aims to help brand managers and strategists understand the immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home, host and other brands, their existence, nature, formation, and outcomes, highlighting their strategic importance and commercial value. By uncovering the key psychological and cultural mechanisms that underpin such relationships, the thesis aims to provide actionable insights that can guide the development of targeted marketing and branding strategies, enabling companies to attract, retain, and engage with immigrant consumers more effectively, and to strengthen the relevance and resonance of home, host, and other brands in international markets (Sui, 2026).

1.6.Thesis structure

This thesis comprises 9 chapters, including the present chapter. It reviews the thought process, strategy, argumentation, and actions undertaken to achieve the research aims outlined earlier. It also explicates the rigorous, systematic manner in which the various studies are conducted.

Chapter 2 provides two scoping reviews on consumer-brand relationships and country of origin, and one narrative literature review on immigrant consumer behaviour. It outlines the rationale for adopting an interdisciplinary approach, explains how this work can benefit the field, and presents the rigorous review procedures used to map the existing literature. Drawing on these, the chapter synthesises the conceptualisations, drivers, and outcomes of consumer-brand relationships, alongside the main definitions of COO and its influences on global/foreign and domestic brands. It further examines the key factors affecting immigrant

consumption patterns. It concludes by identifying the research gaps and questions and calls for the research that this thesis aims to undertake.

Chapter 3 reviews the rationale for the research design. It starts with a discussion of the philosophical considerations pertinent to this research, addressing the relevant ontological and epistemological positions. In addition, the chapter presents the criteria for participant selection and explains the rationale for the theories utilised in this study.

Chapter 4 describes the steps taken to design and execute the qualitative phase of the exploratory sequential mixed-methods research design. It first presents the development of the interview guide and the participant recruitment process. It then discusses the qualitative analytical approach and the actions taken to ensure rigour throughout this phase.

Chapter 5 outlines the conceptual model developed based on the findings of the qualitative study and the literature review. It also provides the rationale for using self-signalling theory and acculturation theory as the framework for the conceptual model. The chapter details the constructs associated with each theoretical perspective, alongside the selected definitions supported by both the literature and the qualitative findings. It concludes by presenting 16 hypotheses and the rationale underlying the relationships to be tested in the quantitative phase.

Chapter 6 discusses the key steps taken to execute the quantitative study. It presents the quantitative research instrument and the process of questionnaire development, and outlines the measures used to capture the concepts included in the conceptual model. First, the rationale for the adapted or adopted measurement scales is explained. It then presents an assessment of the overall measurement model. This is followed by a description of the questionnaire structure and a discussion of the sampling design and issues related to survey administration. Finally, it addresses the steps undertaken to ensure the suitability of the collected data and outlines the data analysis methodology adopted for hypothesis testing.

Chapter 7 tests the nomological network of immigrant consumer-brand relationships. In line with RQ2 and RQ3, it presents the results of hypothesis testing relating to the effects of specific drivers, moderators, and outcomes of such relationships. It finally reviews the results of the 16 hypothesised relationships.

Chapter 8 provides an in-depth discussion of the findings based on evidence from both the qualitative and quantitative studies. It interprets the findings and links them to the research questions that the various studies seek to answer. Finally, it explicates unexpected findings and their implications.

Chapter 9 discusses the conceptual, theoretical, and literature contributions generated by this research. Such contributions are then translated into practical implications. Finally, it discusses the limitations and proposes fruitful directions for future research.

Chapter 2. Literature review

2.1.Introduction

This chapter reviews existing research on **consumer-brand relationships, country-of-origin,** and **immigrant consumer behaviour** in marketing. By doing so, it reveals key issues within these bodies of literature and delineates the research gaps and questions that the thesis seeks to explore. These insights serve as the foundation for the numerous studies presented in Chapter 3 and are essential steps to guide the design, execution, and interpretation of the qualitative study in Chapter 4. Further, the research gap and questions inform the development of the conceptual model that is presented in Chapter 5, which subsequently underpins the design of the quantitative phase in Chapter 6.

As this research is framed to explore the potential existence of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands and to reapproach the nature of consumer-brand relationships through this lens, scoping reviews and a narrative review of relevant bodies of **literature** in this chapter. First, to gain an in-depth understanding of the key concept (i.e., **consumer-brand relationships**), it delves into the results of the scoping review, including the conceptualisation of consumer-brand relationships and their key nomological networks. It then turns to a more detailed review of two prominent drivers of consumer-brand relationships (i.e., self-congruity and self-expressiveness), and considers their relevance for immigrant consumers. Third, it focuses on the results of the scoping review on **country-of-origin** research, discussing its conceptualisations and examining its role in shaping consumer decisions for both global and local brands. Fourth, it discusses and highlights the role of the COO in consumer-brand relationships. It then turns to a narrative literature review on **immigrant consumer behaviour**, starting by discussing their consumption patterns and the key drivers of such patterns. Finally, it integrates those insights and formulates the research gap and question of the thesis.

2.2.Consumer-brand relationship research

Over the past thirty years, academic research has increasingly recognised that consumers form relationships with brands (Beverland et al., 2006; Fournier, 1998; Veloutsou, 2007), and scholarly interest in this domain continues to grow (Schreuder et al., 2024). Moving beyond transactional perspectives, contemporary research conceptualises consumption as a relational process in which brands serve not only utilitarian purposes but also act as symbolic partners (Alvarez et al., 2023). This shift signals that consumers share a human-like relationship with brands and likewise share their emotions in different forms (Aziz & Rahman, 2022). Such relationships can give rise to various outcomes, such as brand purchase intention (Pourazad et al., 2024), willingness to pay a price premium (Choi et al., 2024b), and brand loyalty (Rodrigues et al., 2024a). In response, brands have increasingly sought innovative strategies to foster strong consumer-brand relationships with their target markets, to maintain long-term engagement, strengthen brand equity, and develop competitive advantage (Fetscherin et al., 2021; Veloutsou, 2023). This evolution has ushered in a new phase of research, enabling researchers to examine consumer-brand interactions through a relationship-based lens.

Given the importance and value of consumer-brand relationship research in marketing, and it is the core concept in this research, **an in-depth and comprehensive understanding** of this concept is necessary. To achieve this aim, a **scoping review** method is employed, as it offers an appropriate and systematic means of mapping the existing evidence within a specific field (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Munn et al., 2018).

The following sections start with a brief introduction to the scoping literature review approach, followed by a detailed justification for employing this method in the present study, a detailed description of the review process, and finally, an analysis of the review findings.

2.2.1. Scoping literature review process

A **scoping review** is a way of "*determining the scope or coverage of a body of literature on a given topic and giving a clear indication of the volume of literature and studies available as well as an overview (broad or detailed) of its focus*" (Munn et al., 2018, p.2). Compared with a systematic literature review, which aims to answer the specific research questions, a scoping review is more exploratory in nature (Peters et al., 2015). It is typically conducted to clarify the key concepts/definitions (Peters et al., 2015), identify gaps in the research

knowledge base (Crilly et al., 2010), and report on the types of evidence that address and inform practice in the field (Decaria et al., 2012; Khalil et al., 2016).

The **selection** of a scoping review approach for examining the consumer-brand relationship in this thesis is **justified by two main reasons**. First, since the consumer-brand relationship is the key concept of this study, a comprehensive understanding of existing literature is necessary. The scoping review is particularly suitable for research with broad aims and for identifying the existing evidence in a given field (Munn et al., 2018). Second, this thesis seeks to uncover the potential gaps in the current consumer-brand relationship research. Beyond summarising prior studies, the scoping review allows for providing an overview of the state of research activity and highlights areas where evidence remains limited (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005).

Following the prior studies (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005), the scoping review process includes 5 main stages: (1) Identifying the research focus; (2) Identifying relevant studies; (3) Study selection; (4) Charting and extracting data; (5) Collating, summarising and reporting the results. The following sections will detail each stage.

- **Stage 1: Research focus**

As a scoping review typically does not start with specific research questions, the articulation of a clear **research focus** is a critical starting point, as it guides the scope of the enquiry (Peters et al., 2015). Building on this approach, the present review is conducted based on the following objectives:

(1) Map the existing literature in the consumer-brand relationship research.
(2) Identify the key conceptualisations of the consumer-brand relationship in the literature.
(3) Identify the key nomological network related to consumer-brand relationships, such as its key drivers and outcomes.
(4) Identify and analyse the knowledge gaps.

- **Stage 2: Identifying relevant studies (Inclusion criteria)**

The whole point of scoping the field is to be as comprehensive in systematically identifying relevant studies suitable for answering the established research aims. To achieve this, a strategy was used that involved searching for research evidence through different criteria:

the **publication time period** of the study, the **language**, the **keywords,** the **database,** and the **journals**, to retrieve data (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005).

From a practical point of view, decisions have to be made at the outset about the coverage of the review in terms of **time span** and **language** (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). The **time period** in which articles were published was chosen to ensure the coverage of the topic and the study's replicability (Snyder, 2019). The search protocol focused on academic publications **between 1998 and 2024**. The year 1998 was chosen as the starting point because it marked the seminal work of Fournier (1998), in which the importance of consumer-brand relationships in the marketing area was highlighted. The year 2024 was chosen as the endpoint to ensure the replicability of the study, as the literature search was conducted in 2025, by which time the literature for 2024 had all been published. This scoping review limited the language to **English** to ensure the validity of the papers under investigation, to avoid the cost and time involved in translating material, and to ensure that the content was understandable by the whole research team (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005).

To identify the most relevant articles, the researcher used a systematic approach to generate a list of potential keywords (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005), comprising the following four steps:

(1) **Step 1: Identification of the core search term (*Initial keyword*).** As the key concept of this review is "consumer-brand relationship", the keyword search was anchored to this domain. Specifically, the researcher searched *TITLE-ABS-KEY (brand relationship*)* in the Scopus database, limiting the publication stage to 'final', document type to 'article', the subject area to '*Business, Management, and Accounting'*, and the publication year up to 2024 to review the keywords applied in the retrieved results.

These decisions were made based on the following **justifications**. The initial keyword was informed by the observation that prior studies often used "brand relationship(s)" and "consumer-brand relationship(s)" interchangeably in their titles, abstracts, and keywords (Kraus et al., 2022). To minimise the risk of omitting potentially relevant studies, *brand relationship** was therefore selected as the initial searching term. Scopus database was chosen for identifying articles as it was the leading multidisciplinary and peer-reviewed literature database in social science research, with comprehensive scientific data and analytical tools (Veloutsou & Ruiz-Mafe, 2020). Limiting the subject area to '*Business, Management, and Accounting*' was

necessary because this thesis was conducted in the marketing area, so limiting the relevant subject can be more precise in finding the keywords.

This search returned **9183 articles**; from them, **160 unique keywords** were identified, accounting for **15106 keyword occurrences** across the retrieved articles. Among these keywords, "brand relationship(s)" appeared 143 times, followed by "consumer-brand relationship(s)" with 96 occurrences. Given that "brand relationship(s)" was the broader term and subsumes "consumer-brand relationship(s)" as a specific form**,** ***brand relationship**** was retained as the key umbrella term for subsequent keyword list expansion (Appendix 4).

(2) Step 2: Expansion of the initial keyword list. Building on the core search term (*brand relationship**), the researcher expanded the keyword set to reflect alternative expressions and conceptually related constructs used to describe the consumer-brand relationships in prior research. First, the literature suggested that the "relationship" is sometimes expressed using **synonyms**, such as "connection" (Veloutsou, 2007). Thus, ***brand connect**** was added to capture studies adopting this alternative expression. Second, consumer-brand relationships were widely discussed in terms of different relationship types, which mainly include **brand love**, **brand like**, **brand hate**, and **brand dislike** (Fetscherin et al., 2019). Given their conceptual relevance to the present review, these terms were incorporated into the search strategy. Third, in consumer-brand relationship literature, its quality and strength were operationalised through relationship quality (Fournier, 1998) and brand relationship strength (Veloutsou, 2007). Rather than treating these as independent search terms, both were treated as dimensions within the broader *brand relationship* domain and therefore covered by the umbrella keyword. As a result, the initial keyword set was expanded to include: ***'brand relationship*', 'brand connect*', 'brand love', 'brand like', 'brand hate', and 'brand dislike'***.

(3) Step 3: Boolean structuring and construction of the search string. When executing searches within the selected journals, an explicit Boolean structure was required to translate the keyword set into a reproducible search string (e.g., using OR and AND) (Kraus et al., 2022). In this study, the keywords identified in Step 2 were combined using the operator **OR**, so that records containing *any* of the alternative terms would be retrieved. This approach maximised sensitivity at the identification

stage and reduced the risk of excluding relevant studies that describe consumer-brand relationships using different terminology.

(4) **Step 4: Expert review and confirmation of the final search string.** The search string was reviewed with the supervisory team to assess its conceptual relevance and adequacy for the review objectives. This process resulted in a confirmed search string for the formal literature search: **"brand relationship*" OR "brand connect*" OR "brand love" OR "brand like" OR "brand hate" OR "brand dislike"**.

This review limited the literature search to **subject areas** of marketing, strategy and management, and international business and management (Kastner et al., 2012). This decision was informed by a search in Scopus using the keyword "*brand relationship**" without subject-area restrictions. An inspection of the top 50 results in order of 'cited (highest)', showed that articles classified under the broad category of 'business, management and accounting' fell within three sub-categories, i.e., 'marketing', 'strategy and management' and 'international business and management'. Thus, the choice of those three sub-categories was made.

To ensure the quality and relevance of selected articles, the literature search relied on the **Scopus CiteScore** and the **Australian Business Deans Council (ABDC)'s quality journal selection standards**. Scopus CiteScore was chosen because it is based on citations to articles, reviews, conference papers, book chapters and data papers published in the last three years and divided by the number of publications in these three years, which better reflects the citation impact of the journal's research-based contributions. The ABDC Journal Ranking List was chosen because it is one of the most widely used ranking tools for selecting the top journals for research. The **Scopus CiteScore 2024 and the ABDC 2022 lists** were chosen because they are the latest.

To unpack the most rigorous and high-quality knowledge, **quality filtering** of the two journal lists is needed. Journals ranked in the 1st quartile (top 25%) in marketing, top 10% in strategy & management, and top 10% in business & international management in Scopus CiteScore 2024, and journals ranked A* and A in the ABDC 2022 list in marketing (research field code 1505) were chosen. The reason for selecting the 'top 25%' in the marketing category in Scopus CiteScore 2024 and only the 'top 10%' in the other two categories was that the core research area of this project was in marketing, while the other two categories were used as a supplement. This decision can be justified, as most articles returned and

retained by journals were from the ‘marketing’ category, with substantially fewer articles from the other two categories (Appendix 5). Additionally, an examination of the overlap in articles returned and retained across the three categories (Marketing, Strategy and Management, and Business and International Management) revealed only minimal journal overlap (Appendix 6), which supported that the latter two categories were applied as supplements. The ABDC Journal Quality List 2022 was used to further refine journal quality. The reason for only choosing the ‘marketing’ category in the ABDC 2022 journal ranking list but not the other two categories was to ensure the equivalence between the disciplines in the two selected journal lists. Of the three categories selected in the Scopus CiteScore 2024, the only one that matched the category selection in the ABDC 2022 list was 'Marketing'.

Based on the above criteria, **95 journals** were returned from the *Marketing* category 2024, **100** from *Strategy and Management*, **97** from *Business and International Management* in CiteScore Scopus and **49** from the ABDC Journal Quality List 2022 in the *Marketing* category (Appendix 5). There were some overlaps; some journals in Scopus CiteScore 2024 were also included in the ABDC 2022 list. As a result, the final journal list included 49 journals in the ABDC 2022 journal ranking list, 53 additional journals in Marketing, 77 additional journals in strategy and management, and 35 additional journals in Business and international management in Scopus CiteScore 2024, resulting in **214 journals** in total.

- **Stage 3: Study selection**

At this stage, the preliminary pool of articles was screened and refined through journal website searches and title-and-abstract review. Specifically, the researcher visited all selected journals’ official websites, searched using the keywords and time period, and reviewed the titles and abstracts of the returned papers to refine the list of articles. Additionally, two papers that were published before 1998 but are relevant to this area are included (Blackston, 1992; Fournier, 1994). After screening the resulting list of papers according to this criterion, a total of **1282 articles from 71 journals** remained for further examination. The full texts of the retained papers were all downloaded from the official publisher’s website (Table 1).

Several **exclusion criteria** were applied to ensure the quality of selected papers (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). Several journals were excluded as there were no articles available on the topic related to the consumer-brand relationship. To secure the relevance of articles, articles that did not focus on the consumer-brand relationship and did not identify the consumer as

the relationship subject were excluded. After implementing the exclusion criteria, the final sample consisted of **395 articles from 59 journals**. Appendices 5, 6 and 7 show all included journals and the number of articles returned and retained in each journal.

Table 1. **Criteria for selecting articles on consumer brand relationships**

Inclusion and Exclusion criteria	
Inclusion criteria #1 Journal selection	ABDC 2022 list (A* and A in marketing); Scopus CiteScore 2024 (Top 25 percent in marketing, Top 10 percent in Strategy and management, Top 10 percent in business and international management): returned 214 journals in total
Inclusion criteria #2 Publication time-period	1998-2024
Inclusion criteria #3 Keywords	'Brand relationship*' OR 'Brand connect*' OR 'Brand love' OR 'Brand like' OR 'Brand hate' OR 'Brand dislike'
Inclusion criteria #4 Language	English
Additional information	Allowed to be included if authors did not publish between 1998 and 2024, but are relevant to the area
Retreated	**1282 articles from 71 journals**
Exclusion criteria #1	Articles on topic other than consumer brand relationships and not considering the consumer as relationship subject were excluded (887 articles)
Surviving sources	**395 articles from 59 journals**

- **Stage 4: Extracting and charting the results**

The extraction of data for a scoping review is referred to as 'charting the results' and should be a logical and descriptive summary of the results that align with the aims of the review (Kastner et al., 2012). The extracted information by the researcher was tabulated, which covers article title, year of publication, author(s), journal title, the research aims, key constructs, definitions, measurements, methodology, key findings, limitations, and future research directions (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005).

- **Stage 5: Discussion**

The subsequent stage entails a comprehensive discussion. Section 2.2.2 analyses the existing conceptualisations of consumer-brand relationship; Sections 2.2.3 and 2.2.4 elaborate on its core nomological networks and theoretical linkages.

2.2.2. Conceptualisation of Consumer-brand relationships

Consumer-brand relationships were conceptualised in various ways. Of the 395 papers from 59 journals for this comprehensive analysis, only 29 papers included original definitions. Two additional definitions published before 1998 (i.e., Blackston, 1992; Fournier, 1994) were also included in the analysis, making the total number of definitions examined in this work **31**. From the 31 original definitions, only 3 were adopted by other researchers. The original conceptual definitions identified from the literature were organised in Table 2. The authors who developed the original definitions and the researchers who subsequently drew on them were summarised in Appendix 8.

For the organisation of the content of the definitions, and following previous practice (Harker, 1999), a **tabulation approach** was applied with the help of content analysis. The content of the 31 identified conceptual definitions was organised and decomposed into discrete meaning units. Once this initial separation of wheat from chaff was completed, the unit of analysis shifted to individual lexical concepts. At this stage, 102 terms were identified and subsequently compared across definitions and iteratively grouped into conceptual clusters based on semantic similarity and conceptual proximity. The preliminary clustering was reviewed and discussed with the supervisory team, resulting in further consolidation and refinement. From the content, 8 main conceptual categories were identified: (1) the entity/ies concerned (consumer and brand); (2) the content of the relationship (emotional, cognitive, behavioural, or unspecified bond); (3) the temporal nature of the relationship; (4) the relationship strength; (5) the relationship valence; (6) the reported interaction; (7) the reported antecedents; (8) the reported outputs. All the word content of all the definitions fit in these headings (see **Table 3**).

In terms of the **entity/ies concerned**, almost half of the consumer-brand relationship definitions report that the relationships involve only consumers, not referring to the brand as an active relationship participant. The other definitions clearly refer to both consumers and brands as active relationship participants referring to “interaction” (Blackston, 1992), “interdependence” (Fournier, 1994), “relate” (Smit et al., 2007), “bond” (Ji, 2008; Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou, 2013), “connect” (Hodge et al., 2015), “exchange” (Ahn & Back, 2018), “tie” between (Hamzah et al., 2021; Pulh et al., 2019), and “contract” (Robertson et al., 2022) and referring to both parties.

Concerning the **content** of the relationship, the majority of definitions emphasise **emotional** content, followed by **cognitive**, while some definitions adopt a more holistic perspective by combining emotional and cognitive components, or integrating emotional, cognitive, and behavioural contents. For example, the predominance of emotional terminology, such as "emotional connection" (Beverland et al., 2006), "psychological bond" (Luan et al., 2023), or "human-like relationship" (Hashim et al., 2020), indicates an affective nature of relationships. Cognitive facets refer to elements such as the voluntary or imposed nature of the relationship (Kumar & Kaushik, 2020; Tran et al., 2023) or of "mutual value exchange" (Ahn & Back, 2018), reflecting a more evaluative or exchange-based nature. Two definitions explicitly combine emotional and cognitive components (Veloutsou & Ruiz-Mafe, 2020; Jiang et al., 2024), and one definition incorporates emotional, cognitive, and behavioural elements concurrently (Martin Strandvik & Heinonen, 2013). This imbalanced distribution of emphasis suggests that the consumer-brand relationships are mainly conceptualised through an **affective lens**, potentially marginalising cognitive evaluations or behavioural manifestations as secondary components.

Some definitions report the **relational temporal attributes** as a characteristic of consumer-brand relationships, making these definitions a category different from the other definitions that do not report the relationship time aspect. For example, these temporal attributes encompass the notions of relationships that can "develop over time" (Hanslin & Rindell, 2014), "expand and deepen over time" (Ahn & Back, 2018), or relationships that are "long-lasting" or "long-term" in nature (Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou, 2013; Pulh et al., 2019). These definitions highlight the **dynamic and evolving nature** of consumer-brand relationships, framing them as processes that unfold and transform over time, possibly through repeated interactions and accumulated experiences. By emphasising development and duration, these conceptualisations position consumer-brand relationships not as a static psychological condition, but as a relational trajectory shaped by continuity and changes.

Some definitions emphasise the **strength** of the consumer-brand relationship. For example, two definitions conceptualised it as the "strength" of the connections that consumers build with the brand (Abdelwahab et al., 2020; Beverland et al., 2006). These definitions implied that the consumer-brand relationships existed along a **continuum of intensity**, ranging from weak to stronger ties. This interpretation aligned with Fetscherin et al. (2019) and Veloutsou (2023), who argued that consumer-brand relationships vary in strength, which is governed by passion. In other words, the level of passion that consumers feel about a brand determines the strength of this relationship. Thus, consumers may form strong or weak relationships

with certain brands, while they can totally ignore other brands to which they are indifferent (Fetscherin et al., 2019).

Regarding the **valence** of the consumer-brand relationship, most definitions assume a **positive** nature of the relationship. Ahn and Back (2018) described the relationships as "adding value" to the consumers, while Pourazad et al. (2019a) referred to connections with "favoured brands", implying the positive nature of the relationships. Some definitions directly employed the term "positive," defining brand relationships as a "positive" connection (Abdelwahab et al., 2020) or as bonds grounded in "positive" experiences (Schreuder et al., 2024). These definitions suggest that the literature tends to approach consumer-brand relationships from the perspective of favourable relational engagement, while paying relatively limited attention to neutral or negative relational forms.

Some definitions show the interactive nature of consumer-brand relationships, emphasising the **reciprocity** between consumers and brands. Ji (2008) stated that the consumer-brand relationship is characterised by a unique history of "interactions" between the child (i.e., consumer) and the brand. Ahn and Back (2018) defined the relationship as an "exchange of mutual value" between consumers and brands. Such definitions indicate that the relationship is not a one-sided state residing solely within the consumer or brand, but rather a relational process shaped by reciprocal exchanges between two parties (consumers and brands).

Some definitions show that the consumer-brand relationship stems from certain **drivers** and results in certain **outputs**. Schreuder et al. (2024) defined the consumer-brand relationship as stemming from consumers who "experience and satisfaction with the brand's quality" and "make consumers better, easier or more enjoyable". Fournier (1994) argued that the relationship was intended to "facilitate socio-emotional or instrumental goals of the participants". Ji (2008) defined brand relationship as "serve consumers' developmental and social-emotional goals". These definitions do not directly describe the essence of the consumer-brand relationship itself; rather, they define it through its antecedents and/or its outcomes, which might be problematic (Podsakoff et al., 2016). Defining a construct in this manner makes it impossible to empirically test the proposed theoretical linkages between the construct and the specific antecedents and/or outcomes mentioned, as these relationships are assumed to be true by definition (MacKenzie, 2003).

Table 2. **Conceptual definitions of consumer-brand relationships**

Authors	Conceptual definition
Blackston (1992)	'The interaction between a consumer's attitude towards the brand, and the brand's attitudes towards the consumer (no page number)'.
Fournier (1994)	'A voluntary or imposed interdependence between a person and a brand characterized by a unique history of interactions and an anticipation of future occurrences, that is intended to facilitate socio-emotional or instrumental goals of the participants, and that involves some type of consolidating bond' (p.108).
Beverland et al. (2006)	'The strength of consumers emotional connections to the brand' (p.983).
Smit et al. (2007)	'Consumers and brands can relate to each other' (p.628).
Ji (2008)	'The child-brand relationship is a voluntary or imposed bond between a child and a brand characterized by a unique history of interactions and is intended to serve developmental and social-emotional goals in the child's life' (p.605)
Tsai (2011b)	'The psychological bonds formed between the consumer and the brand' (p.1194).
Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou (2013)	'The long lasting bond between the brand and the consumer' (p.23).
Martin Strandvik & Heinonen (2013)	'Brand's position in terms of the customers' emotions, cognition, and activities' (p.508).
Hanslin & Rindell (2014)	'Metaphoric, imagined and developing over time' (p.149).
Hodge et al. (2015)	'Consumers and brands can connect with each other' (p.633).
Giovanis (2016)	'The psychological bonds that consumers form with brands' (p.567).
Chiu & Won (2016)	'The bond between a consumer and a brand' (p.244).
Ahn & Back (2018)	'An exchange of mutual value between customer and brand, which expands and deepens over time, thereby adding value to and strengthening the brand' (p.451).
Pourazad et al. (2019a)	'A robust emotional connection between consumers and their favoured brands' (p.251).
Nobre & Simões (2019)	'An intense psychological tie the consumer establishes with the brand' (p.330).
Pulh et al. (2019)	'The long-term ties between consumers and brands' (p.2196).
Veloutsou & Ruiz-Mafe (2020)	'Individual brand-centric relationships which occur when consumers act as independent entities and relate to brands and develop links primarily of emotional or even functional natures with brands' (p.1).
Kumar & Kaushik (2020)	'The connection between an individual and a brand that is voluntary or enforced interdependently' (p.40).
Abdelwahab et al. (2020)	'The strength of positive connection created between the consumer and a preferred brand' (p.382).
Hashim et al. (2020)	'The relationship between a person and a brand, just like a human relationship' (p.182).
Connors et al. (2021)	'The psychological proximity between a brand and the consumer's self-concept' (p.71).
Hamzah et al. (2021)	'Type of ties that develop between customers and the brands' (p.341).
Robertson et al. (2022)	'Psychological contracts between consumers and brands' (p.653).
Amenuvor et al. (2023)	'How customers look for meaningful connections with smartphone brand users to lessen their uncertainty' (p.906).

Authors	Conceptual definition
Bahia & Babay (2023)	'The internal links between the consumer and the brand' (p.7).
Luan et al. (2023)	'Psychological bond consumers build with brands' (p.1301).
Tran et al. (2023)	'The voluntary or independently enforced link between an individual and a brand' (p.459).
Rodrigues et al. (2024b)	'Quality relationships between customers and brands' (p.2).
Bauer (2024)	'Reciprocal exchange between interdependent and active brand-related partners, are purposive and create meaning for the brand-related partners, are multiplex phenomena with multiple dimensions that take many forms and provide a range of benefits for the brand-related partners and transform over a series of interactions in response to changes in the contextual situation' (p.2234).
Jiang et al. (2024)	'A motivational link or emotional bond between the consumer and the brand' (p.48).
Schreuder et al. (2024)	'A bond that a consumer experiences with a brand, based on positive experiences and satisfaction with the brand's quality. It consists of aspects such as reliability, trust, loyalty and consistency and makes the consumer's life better, easier or more enjoyable' (p.52).

Table 3. **Conceptual categories of consumer-brand relationships**

Authors	Entity/ies		Content				Temporal	Strength	Positive	Interaction	Drivers	Outputs
	Consumer	Brand	Unspecified bond	Emotional	Behavioural	Cognitive						
Blackston (1992)	x	x				Interaction between consumer/brand attitude for one another						
Fournier (1994)	x (Person)	x				Voluntary or imposed interdependence	Unique history of interactions and an anticipation of future occurrences					Facilitate socio-emotional or instrumental goals of the participants
Beverland et al. (2006)	x			Emotional connection				Strength				
Smit et al. (2007)	x	x		Relate								
Ji (2008)	x	x				Voluntary or Imposed bond	History of interactions			Interactions		Serve consumers' developmental and social-emotional goals
Tsai (2011b)	x			Psychological bond								
Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou (2013)	x	x	Bond				Long lasting					
Martin Strandvik & Heinonen (2013)	x			Emotions	Activities	Cognitions						
Hanslin & Rindell (2014)	x			Metaphoric, imagined			Developing over time					
Hodge et al. (2015)	x	x	Connect									
Giovanis (2016)	x			Psychological bond								
Chiu & Won (2016)	x		Bond									
Ahn & Back (2018)	x	x				Mutual value exchange	Expand, deepen, over time		x (implied)	Exchange		Adding value, strengthening the brand

Authors	Entity/ies		Content				Temporal	Strength	Positive	Interaction	Drivers	Outputs
	Consumer	Brand	Unspecified bond	Emotional	Behavioural	Cognitive						
Pourazad et al. (2019a)	x			Robust emotional connection					x (favoured brand)			
Nobre & Simões (2019)	x			Intense psychological tie								
Pulh et al. (2019)	x	x	Tie				Long-term					
Veloutsou & Ruiz-Mafe (2020)	x			Emotional link		Functional link						
Kumar & Kaushik (2020)	x					Voluntary, Enforced						
Abdelwahab et al. (2020)	x		Connection					Strength	Positive			
Hashim et al. (2020)	x	x		Human-like relationship								
Connors et al. (2021)	x			Psychological proximity with self-concept								
Hamzah et al. (2021)	x	x	Tie									
Robertson et al. (2022)	x	x		Psychological contract								
Amenuvor et al. (2023)	x	x							x (Meaningful connection)			lessen their uncertainty
Bahia & Babay (2023)	x	x		Internal link								
Luan et al. (2023)	x	x		Psychological bond								
Tran et al. (2023)	x	x				Voluntary, Enforced link						
Rodrigues et al. (2024b)	x	x				Quality relationships						
Bauer (2024)	x	x				Reciprocal exchange						
Jiang et al. (2024)	x	x		Emotional bond		Motivational link						
Schreuder et al. (2024)	x		bond			Reliability, trust, loyalty			Positive		experiences and satisfaction with	Make consumers better, easier or more enjoyable

Authors	Entity/ies		Content				Temporal	Strength	Positive	Interaction	Drivers	Outputs
	Consumer	Brand	Unspecified bond	Emotional	Behavioural	Cognitive						
											the brand's quality	

2.2.3. Antecedents of Consumer-brand relationships

The literature on consumer-brand relationship antecedents is vast with 68 factors. Drawing on the **conceptual definitions** of these constructs and their focal locus, the drivers were first organised into **consumer-related** and **brand-related** domains. Consumer-related drivers are synthesised into 5 categories, including consumer-related assessments, values orientation, reflections of memories and experiences, personality, and emotions. Brand-related drivers were grouped into 5 categories: brand-related perceptions and assessments, attributes, emotions, behaviours, and social responsibility. All constructs were further classified by **valence (**e.g., positive versus negative). These categories, constructs, and their definitions are organised in **Tables 4 and 5.**

The first category concerns **consumer-related assessments**. Assessments refer to consumers' evaluations of how well a brand aligns with their preferences, needs, or perceptions. Constructs such as self-brand congruity (Klabi & Meshari, 2023), self-expressiveness (Saini et al., 2023), and brand identification (Meng et al., 2023) imply that relationships can be strengthened when brands operate as self-concept anchors, helping consumers communicate who they are or aspire to be. Conversely, some negative drivers, such as self-brand incongruity (Woodside et al., 2023) and symbolic incongruity (Kamboj & Sharma, 2023), imply that relationships may weaken when consumers perceive a misalignment between the brand's reputation and their own self-concept.

The second category relates to **consumer values orientation,** which refers to one's "*enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence*" (Rokeach, 1973, p.5; cited by Richins & Dawson, 1992). In this category, factors such as materialism (Roy et al., 2013) and symbolism (Pourazad et al., 2024) are found to be positively associated with consumer-brand relationships. These findings suggest that when a brand functions as a symbolic resource enabling consumers to enact salient values and bolster self-esteem, consumers are more likely to develop stronger relationships with this brand (Pourazad et al., 2024).

The third antecedent category concerns **reflections of past experiences**. This category refers to consumers' recall and reconstruction of previous brand-related episodes that remain salient over time (Kessous et al., 2015). Some authors argue that several factors, like nostalgia (Grappi et al., 2024) and impression in memory (Manthiou et al., 2018), are

positively associated with consumer-brand relationships. This phenomenon shows that consumers may develop stronger mental associations with brands that evoke nostalgia, as such brands prompt recollections of meaningful life events and past experiences (Youn & Dodoo, 2021). These associations create a bridge between brands and consumers' personal past (Grappi et al., 2024). Accordingly, when a brand becomes associated with a valued past and can activate episodic memories, consumers are more likely to form stronger relationships with the brand.

The fourth category concerns **consumer-related emotions**. This category captures consumers' affective states in their interactions with brands. The scoping review indicates that consumer-brand relationships arise from various emotions, such as consumer happiness (Sarker et al., 2023), gratitude, and delight (Choi et al., 2024b). These emotions are typically elicited when a brand's performance exceeds expectations, producing an intensified positive affective reaction (Oliver et al., 1997). Such affective reactions can then be translated into stronger emotional bonds with the brand, thereby facilitating relationship development (Choi et al., 2024b).

The fifth antecedent category concerns **consumers' personality traits**. Personality is defined as one's relatively stable internal states that shape consistent patterns of thought, feeling, and behaviour across situations (McCrae & Costa, 1989). In the branding context, consumers tend to associate themselves with brands through attributes and characteristics that complement their personalities (Su & Lin, 2016). In the consumer-brand relationship literature, there is limited research investigating the role of consumer personality on their brand relationship, where only one study suggests that certain personality traits may relate to consumer-brand relationships, such as agreeableness, neuroticism and extroversion (Seth & Soch, 2024). It indicates that, in the event of brand failure, consumers' personality traits help explain heterogeneity in coping responses: highly agreeable consumers are likely to pursue compromise rather than retaliatory actions; highly neurotic consumers tend to experience stronger negative affect, and highly extraverted consumers may respond with more outward emotional expressiveness (Seth & Soch, 2024). Overall, personality can be viewed as an individual-level predisposition that shapes consumers' propensity to form relationships with brands, although the direction and magnitude of these effects may vary across contexts.

The sixth category relates to **brand-related perceptions and assessments**, which refer to consumers' evaluative judgments towards the brand. shows that consumers are more likely

to form relationships with brands perceived to possess desirable attributes, such as prestige (Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022), credibility (Kumar, 2022), uniqueness (Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022), and authenticity (Ahmad et al., 2022), also, good quality (Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022) or value (Ye et al., 2021). By contrast, negative perceptions, such as brand inauthenticity (Rodrigues et al., 2020), post-purchase service failures, and perceived poor quality (Attiq et al., 2023), can erode brand relationships. Taken together, the evidence indicates that consumer-brand relationships tend to be stronger when brands are perceived as distinctive, credible, worthwhile, and reliable, but can be eroded when a brand is perceived as lacking credibility or as inconsistent with its claimed essence.

The seventh antecedent category relates to **brand attributes**, defined as a relatively stable set of tangible and intangible characteristics that are established through firms' internal branding and strategic practices (Francioni et al., 2021). Prior research indicates that consumers are more likely to develop relationships with brands that display salient attributes, such as brand identity (Omar Zaki et al., 2024), brand anthropomorphism (Chen & Lin, 2021), and brand personality (Roy et al., 2016). Collectively, this suggests that a brand's distinctive name, characteristics, and perceived "personality" can act as key drivers of consumer-brand relationships.

The eighth category concerns **affective** phenomena, which refer to consumers' emotions and feelings towards the brand. Some authors argue that some positive factors are associated with consumer-brand relationships, such as brand attachment (Hamdy et al., 2024), affective brand experiences (Sarkar et al., 2012), and brand affection (Albert & Valette-Florence, 2010). These findings suggest that brand relationships deepen when brands evoke sustained positive affect, rendering the brand psychologically significant and emotionally rewarding for consumers.

The ninth category concerns **behavioural phenomena**. Behavioural constructs reflect one's intended actions that are under consideration. A collection of authors stated that some positive factors are associated with consumer-brand relationships, such as brand involvement (Yu et al., 2024), brand engagement (Gao & Shao, 2024), and continued usage intentions (Kumar et al., 2023). These indicate that consumer-brand relationships are strengthened through behaviour: as consumers become more involved and engaged, they devote greater attention, time, and effort to the brand, thereby reinforcing the relationship via sustained and repeated interactions.

The tenth category relates to **social responsibility**, which captures consumers' perceptions of a brand's social and environmental conduct and the extent to which it contributes positively to stakeholders and society (Kucuk, 2018). Existing literature suggests that positive factors are associated with consumer-brand relationships, such as social support (Long-Tolbert & Gammoh, 2012) and some negative factors, such as lack of corporate social performance (Bryson et al., 2013) or lack of social responsibility (Kucuk, 2018). These findings show that when consumers perceive a brand as socially responsible, or the brand's value system aligns with their own moral values, they are more likely to generate stronger affective responses to the brand (Long-Tolbert & Gammoh, 2012). Conversely, perceived irresponsibility may elicit scepticism and moral disapproval, thereby weakening consumer-brand relationships and potentially provoking opposition toward the brand (Kucuk, 2018).

Table 4. **Consumer-related antecedents of CBRs and indicative definitions**

	Positive antecedents	Negative antecedents
Consumer-related assessment	**Self-brand congruity: "*The extent to which a consumer perceives a brand similar to his or her self-concept*" (Kumar & Kaushik, 2022, p.29).** (Albert et al., 2009; Roy et al. 2013; Campbell et al., 2010; Do et al., 2015; Su et al., 2015; Nyffenegger et al., 2015; Wallace et al., 2017; Bıçakcıoğlu et al., 2018; Scholz & Duffy, 2018; Rahman et al., 2021; Klabi & Meshari, 2023; Rodrigues et al., 2024a; Shimul & Phau, 2023; Madadi et al., 2024)	**Self-brand incongruity: The extent to which a consumer perceives a brand inconsistent to his or her self-concept.** (Woodside et al., 2023)
	Self-expressiveness: "*Consumer's perception of the degree to which the specific brand enhances one's inner or social self*" (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006, p.82). (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Loureiro et al., 2012; Sarkar & Sreejesh, 2014; Karjaluoto et al., 2016; Aro et al., 2018; Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022; Babić-Hodović et al., 2023; Saini et al., 2023)	**Negative stereotypes of users of the brand: Consumers' perception that people who use a particular brand are characterised by negatively stereotyped attributes, and that using the brand may imply similar traits about themselves** (Bryson et al., 2013) (Bryson et al., 2013; Dalli et al., 2006)
	Consumer-brand identification: "*The perception of sameness between the brand (signifying an object with symbolic meanings) and the consumer*" (Tuškej et al. (2013, p.54)." (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Abdelwahab et al., 2020; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Meng et al., 2023; Rodrigues et al., 2024a)	**Symbolic incongruity: "*The discrepancies between the symbolic meanings of a brand and the consumer's concept of self*" (Kamboj & Sharma, 2023, p.250).** (Hegner et al., 2017; Fetscherin et al., 2023; Pinto & Brandão, 2020; Kamboj & Sharma, 2023)
	Value congruence: "*The level of congruence between the personal values of the consumer and the brand*" (Elsharnouby et al., 2024, p.447). (Elsharnouby et al., 2024)	
	-	**Ideology incompatibility: "*Distortions in the ideology of consumers and the brand*" (Kamboj & Sharma, 2023, p.250).** (Demirbag-Kaplan et al., 2015; Hegner et al., 2017; Costa & Azevedo, 2024; Fetscherin et al., 2023; Kamboj & Sharma, 2023)
	Brand coolness: "*Consumer appraisals of a brand on the following ten dimensions, organized hierarchically in this manner: its Desirability (because it is seen as exceptional. exciting, with high aesthetic appeal); the degree to which it symbolizes Positive Autonomy (because it is seen as authentic, and original); it symbolizes Rebelliousness; it signals High Status; it is Popular; it is associated with a liked Subculture; and it is Iconic*" (Bagozzi & Batra, 2025, p.2). (Amenuvor et al., 2023; Koskie et al., 2024)	-
	Self-brand connection: "*The extent to which consumers incorporate specific brands in their self-concepts*" (Bagozzi & Khoshnevis, 2023, p.387) (Tran et al., 2024; Van Der Westhuizen & Kuhn, 2024)	-

	Positive antecedents	Negative antecedents
Consumer values orientation	**Materialism: "*A belief that possessions bring happiness and success in life*" (Roy et al., 2013, p.328).** (Roy et al., 2013)	-
	Symbolism: Consumers' "*associations evoked by physical objects, embodying a process of cognitive explanation of the object experience*" (Lin & Ryu, 2023, p.436). (Lin & Ryu, 2023; Pourazad et al., 2024)	-
	Ethnic identification: "*Part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership*" (Tajfel, 1981, p. 255). (Madadi et al., 2024)	-
Reflections of past experiences	**Nostalgia: "*Memories triggered by previous experiences with, exposure to, or past use of the focal brand*" (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022, p.1007).** (Grappi et al., 2024; Sadeghvaziri & Shafeie, 2024)	-
	Impression in memory: Impression in "*one's ability to consciously recollect past events, behaviours, and experiences*" (Manthiou et al., 2018, p.39) (Manthiou et al., 2018)	
	Brand experience: "*A combination of memorable, subjective esoteric impressions varying in polarity and amplitude, in humans, triggered from brand interactions, which occur at various stages of contact with a brand*" (Chevtchouk et al., 2021, p.1304). (Ramaseshan & Stein, 2014; Xie et al., 2017; Kumar & Kaushik, 2020; Lv & Wu, 2021; Kamboj & Sharma, 2023; Tran et al., 2024; Yadav et al., 2023)	-
Consumer emotions	**Emotional wellbeing: "*A cluster of symptoms reflecting the presence or absence of positive feelings about life*" (Keyes, 2002, p. 208).** (Kim et al., 2024)	**User's inward negative emotions: *"Emotions that represent a feeling of threat to the individual that may affect or damage his/her personality or well-being"* (Barreira et al., 2024, p.746).** (Barreira et al., 2024)
	Consumer happiness: "*The positive psychological state derived from a good, pleasant and satisfying experience*" (Cuesta-Valiño et al., 2022, p.460). (Sarker et al., 2023)	
	Customer gratitude: "*The positive emotion experienced when individuals receive something of value*" (Choi et al., 2024b, p.387). (Choi et al., 2024b)	
	Customer delight: "*An affective state characterized by arousal, joy, excitement and pleasure, often intensified by surprise*" (Choi et al., 2024b, p.387). (Choi et al., 2024b)	
Consumer personality	-	**Extroversion: An "*energetic, confident, and self-assured*" personality attribute (Seth & Soch, 2024, p.635).** (Seth & Soch, 2024)

	Positive antecedents	Negative antecedents
	-	**Neuroticism: "*An individual's propensity to experience unpleasant and disturbing feelings or emotions toward a brand*" (Seth & Soch, 2024, p.636).** (Attiq et al., 2023; Seth & Soch, 2024)
	(-) Agreeableness: "*A personality attribute contingent on how individuals exhibit an adaptable and cooperative mindset while engaging with a brand and managing issues*" (Seth & Soch, 2024, p.636). (Seth & Soch, 2024)	-

***Table 5*. Brand-related antecedents of CBRs and indicative definitions**

	Positive antecedents	Negative antecedents
Perceptions & Assessments	**Brand image: "*The perception formed to the mind of a member of the external audience about the brand after one real or mental encounter with the brand*" (Veloutsou & Delgado-Ballester, 2018, p. 256).** (Ismail & Spinelli, 2012; Ismail, 2015; Islam & Rahman, 2017; Joshi & Garg, 2021; Anbumathi et al., 2023)	**Negative brand image: An individual's negative "*perception of particular brand aspects*" (Kamboj & Sharma, 2023, p.249).** (Kamboj & Sharma, 2023)
	Brand credibility: "*The confidence in the representative's reliability and predictability*" (Seyedghorban et al., 2021, p.1114). (Bairrada et al., 2018; Kumar, 2022; Seyedghorban et al., 2021)	-
	Brand authenticity: "*A brand true to itself whose behaviour is motivated by actual thoughts and feelings*" (Ahmad et al., 2022, p.610). (Aro et al., 2018; Ahmad et al., 2022; Mody & Hanks, 2020; Rodrigues & Borges, 2020; Safeer et al., 2021; Babić-Hodović et al., 2023; Omar Zaki et al., 2024; Rodrigues et al., 2024c; Haq et al., 2024)	**Brand inauthenticity: "*The brand or product violating the norms and expectations of consumers and occurs when consumers detect a "mismatch" between what an entity claims compared to what it really is after further consumer scrutiny*" (Silver et al., 2021, p.71).** (Rodrigues et al., 2020)
	Brand popularity: "*The extent to which a brand has been widely sought after and purchased by the population at large*" (Kim & Chung, 1997, p. 361). (Babić-Hodović et al., 2023)	-
	Brand uniqueness: "*The degree to which customers feel the brand is different from competing brands*" (Netemeyer et al. 2004, p. 211). (Aro et al., 2018; Bairrada et al., 2018; Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022; Rahman et al., 2021; Valta, 2013)	-
	Brand distinctiveness: "*The entity is different from competitors*" (*Carlson et al., 2009, p.372).* (Carlson et al., 2009)	-
	Brand modernity: "*A company's use of cutting-edge methods of communication to market a product or service in line with the most current fashions and lifestyles of its target audience*" (Kim et al., 2023, p.1776). (Kim et al., 2023)	-
	-	**Negative brand reputation: Negative "*evaluation of an entity's desirability made by outsiders*" (Shao et al., 2024, p.596).** (Shao et al., 2024)
	Brand prestige: "*The entity's exclusivity, respect, and status*" (Carlson et al., 2009, p.372). (Bairrada et al., 2018; Carlson et al., 2009; Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022; Pourazad et al., 2024)	-

	Positive antecedents	Negative antecedents
	Propensity to anthropomorphise: Brands tend to be "*perceived by consumers as actual human beings with various emotional states, mind, soul, and conscious behaviours that can act as prominent members of social ties*" (Hegner, Fenko, et al., 2017, p.29) (Hegner, Fenko, et al., 2017; Rauschnabel & Ahuvia, 2014; Sarker et al., 2024)	-
	Product design evaluation: "*The perception of the functional, aesthetic, and symbolic values conveyed by a product*" (Hemonnet-Goujot & Valette-Florence, 2022, p.1465). (Hemonnet-Goujot & Valette-Florence, 2022)	-
	Brand trust: "*The confidence that the consumer places*" in the brand (Punyatoya, 2019, p.82). (Koay et al., 2023; Wong, 2023)	-
	Perceived quality: "*Consumer's subjective judgment about overall excellence or superiority of a brand's products*" (Oh et al., 2023, p.5). (Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022; Wong, 2023)	-
	Perceived brand value: "*consumers' assessment of a brand's utility based on a comparison of what consumers get, whether functional, symbolic, or experiential, against the costs (monetary and non-monetary)*" (Bairrada et al., 2018, p.660) (Bairrada et al., 2018; Rauschnabel & Ahuvia, 2014; Ye et al., 2021; Giovanis, 2016; Huber et al., 2015; Abu Farha et al., 2024)	
	Affordability: The ability of consumers to pay for a minimum level of the branded product. (Hegner et al., 2017)	**Violation of expectations: "*A behaviour that a receiver notices as different from the behavioural display that (s)he expected*" (Brandão et al., 2023, p.1129).** (Zarantonello et al., 2016; Brandão et al., 2023) **Brand betrayal: "*A condition that arises when a brand, with which a customer has previously established a connection, violates a moral duty perceived as essential to the relationship*" (Shao et al., 2024, p.597).** (Shao et al., 2024; Jain & Sharma, 2019)
	Brand attitude: "*Consumers' overall evaluations of a brand*" (Keller, 1993, p. 4). (Tran et al., 2024; Youn et al., 2024)	-
	Brand satisfaction: "*An overall cognitive evaluation of the total brand experience*" (Rahman et al., 2021, p.619). (Loureiro et al., 2012; Sreejesh et al., 2018)	**Brand dissatisfaction: An overall negative "*cognitive evaluation of the total brand experience*" (Rahman et al., 2021, p.619).** (Bryson et al., 2013; Dalli et al., 2006; Fetscherin et al., 2023)
	-	**Post-Purchase Service Failure: "*A firm's poor treatment of client complaints*" (Attiq et al., 2023, p.5).** (Attiq et al., 2023)

	Positive antecedents	Negative antecedents
	Procedural justice: "*The perception of reasonable policies and procedures*" (Blodgett et al., 1997, p. 185). (Filho et al., 2023)	**Perceived injustice: "*The perception of the fairness of the efforts extended to redress the complaint*" (Blodgett et al., 1997, p. 185).** (Ahmad & Guzman, 2023; Filho et al., 2023)
	Positive crisis response evaluation: "*The speed at which a firm responds to a crisis*" (Iveson et al., 2023, p.392). (Iveson et al., 2023)	-
	-	**Perceived price unfairness: "*A variance in the product's price and quality compared with the price and quality of other brands' products*" (p.4).** (Attiq et al., 2023)
Attributes	**Brand identity: "*The symbols and the set of the brand associations that represent the core character of the brand that the team supporting the brand aspire to create or maintain as identifiers of the brand to other people*" (Veloutsou & Delgado-Ballester, 2018, p. 256).** (Meng et al., 2023; Omar Zaki et al., 2024)	-
	Brand anthropomorphism: "*The tendency to imbue the real or imagined behaviour of non-human agents with humanlike characteristics, motivations, intentions, or emotions*" (Epley et al, 2007, p. 864) (Chen & Lin, 2021; Rauschnabel & Ahuvia, 2014; Aro et al., 2018)	-
	Brand personality: "*The set of human characteristics associated with a brand*" (Aaker, 1997, p.347). (Roy et al., 2016)	-
Emotions	**Brand attachment: "*Emotion-laden target specific bond between a person and a specific brand*" (Thomson et al., 2005, p. 78).** (Omar Zaki et al., 2024; Hamdy et al., 2024; Loureiro et al., 2012; Choi et al., 2024)	-
	Affective brand experience: Feelings and emotions "*evoked by brand-related stimuli that are associated with a brand's design, identity, packaging, communications and environments*" (Brakus et al., 2009, p.53). (Sarkar et al., 2012)	-
	Brand affection: "*A consumer's degree of positive brand-related affect in a particular consumer/brand interaction*" (Hollebeek et al., 2014, p. 154). (Albert & Valette-Florence, 2010)	-
	Brand passion: "*A psychological phenomenon constituted of excitation, infatuation, and obsession*" for a brand (S.A. Osuna Ramírez et al., 2024, p.5). (Albert & Valette-Florence, 2010)	-

	Positive antecedents	Negative antecedents
	Brand centrality: "*The brand being in the heart of the consumers, and they perceive the brand as having importance and meaning in their life*" (Japutra et al., 2023, p.42**).** (Japutra et al., 2023)	-
Behaviour	**Brand involvement: "*The degree of customers' personal relevance to and interest in a brand according to their needs, values, and interests*" (Yu et al., 2024, p.1228).** (Yu et al., 2024)	**-**
	Brand engagement: "*The active involvement of the customer with a particular brand*" (Joshi & Garg, 2021, p.262) (Gao & Shao, 2024; Rather et al., 2024; Siu et al., 2023; Tsou & Putra, 2023)	-
	Continued usage intentions : "*Continuous thinking and using a brand*" (Kumar et al., 2023, p.282) (Kumar et al., 2023)	-
	-	**Willingness to punish punish brands: "*A consumer desire to penalize and injure companies for their misconduct*" (Rodrigues et al., 2021, p.1119).** (Ahmad & Guzman, 2023)
	Customer participation: "*The degree to which a customer offers insightful comments and recommendations*" (Hong et al., 2023, p.3). (Hong et al., 2023)	-
Social responsibility	**Social support: "*The extent to which a relational partner (a firm or its employees) undertakes actions to improve customers' general well-being and to show they care or want to help customers*" (Long-Tolbert & Gammoh, 2012, p.393).** (Long-Tolbert & Gammoh, 2012)	**Lack of Corporate social performance: Consumers' perception that a company fails to adequately integrate the principles of social responsibility, the processes of social responsiveness, and the policies developed to address social issues (Wartick & Cochrane, 1985).** (Bryson et al., 2013)
	-	**Lack of Corporate social responsibility: Consumers' perception that a company's business philosophy does not adequately incorporate its stakeholders, broader societal well-being, and the well-being of the natural environment (Kucuk, 2018).** (Kucuk, 2018)
	-	**Corporate wrongdoings: "*Behaviour in or by an organization that a social-control agent judges to transgress a line separating right from wrong; where such a line can separate legal, ethical, and socially responsible behaviour from their antitheses*" (Greve et al., 2010, p. 56).** (Brandão et al., 2023)

2.2.4. Consequences of Consumer-brand relationships

The literature on consumer-brand relationship consequences is vast with 52 distinctive factors. Based on the **conceptual definitions** of these constructs, these outcomes were grouped into 4 categories: **brand-related behaviour, cognition, and emotion,** as well as **consumer-related outcomes**. Each outcome was then labelled as **positive or negative** depending on whether it reflects a relationship-maintenance tendency or an avoidance tendency.

This category captures **brand-related behavioural outcomes** and is the most extensively examined in the literature. The most relevant outcomes pertain to purchase-related behaviours, including brand purchase intention (Pourazad et al., 2024), repurchase intentions (Koskie et al., 2024), brand extension purchase intention (Pourazad et al., 2019a), and cross-buying intention (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019). A second cluster pertains to communication-oriented behaviours, such as word-of-mouth (Van Der Westhuizen et al., 2024) and advocacy **(**Haq et al., 2024), implying that consumer-brand relationships can turn consumers into voluntary promoters who amplify brands within their own social networks. Finally, some outcomes relate to economic sacrifice, such as willingness to pay a price premium (Santos & Schlesinger, 2021), as well as to relational resilience behaviours, such as brand defence and resistance to negative information (Rahman et al., 2021; Wallace et al., 2021). Collectively, these findings suggest that consumer-brand relationships are often seen as assets that help protect the brand in times of threat.

On the **negative side**, behavioural outcomes are framed as **exit and retaliation** mechanisms. Some prominent outcomes include brand switching and non-purchase intention (Barreira et al., 2024; Shao et al., 2024; Yadav, 2024), signalling that withdrawal from the brand is a main manifestation of relationship deterioration. Some outcomes relate to communications, such as complaining and negative WOM (Roy et al., 2022), indicating that damaged relationships can lead to negative consumer voice and social sanction. At the extreme, behaviours such as brand boycott, sabotage, and revenge (Fetscherin et al., 2023; Sameeni et al., 2024; Woodside et al., 2023) function as escalation endpoints, suggesting that negative consumer-brand relationships can lead to collective or punitive actions.

Cognitive outcomes capture how consumer-brand relationships affect consumers' evaluations or assessments of the brand. These evaluations include brand trust, commitment (Amenuvor et al., 2023), and satisfaction (Hong et al., 2023), indicating that consumers who

build brand relationships are more likely to hold favourable and enduring assessments of the brand. Also, some outcomes, such as brand extension evaluation, indicate that relationships between brands and consumers may help reduce consumers' risky perception when purchasing some extension products from the same brand for the first time (Hem et al., 2003). In other words, consumers with a strong relationship to the brand spontaneously view the extension product as part of the parent brand's product family, and are more likely to give a favourable extension evaluation (Jiang et al., 2024).

Emotional outcomes reflect affective phenomena, referring to emotionally charged responses. Prior research suggests that brands can benefit from a range of affect-laden outcomes, including brand attachment (Shimul & Phau, 2023), brand addiction (Rodrigues et al., 2024a), and self-brand affinity (Jiang et al., 2024). These constructs indicate that strong relationships can move beyond positive evaluations to an emotional bond, in which the brand becomes psychologically significant for consumers.

As for **consumer-related outcomes**, these constructs are closely associated with consumers' self-concept and well-being-relevant states. Empirical findings suggest that stronger consumer-brand relationships are associated with higher self-esteem (Le, 2021), particularly when the brand supports identity work by helping consumers cultivate a distinctive and valued sense of self (Alnawas & Altarifi, 2016). In this sense, the brand functions as a symbolic resource that affirms who consumers are or aspire to be, thereby strengthening self-evaluations. In addition, consumer-brand relationships are positively related to consumers' hedonic well-being (Asante et al., 2024), indicating that brand relationships can generate pleasurable affect, comfort, and everyday enjoyment through ongoing interactions with the brand.

Table 6. **Consequences of consumer-brand relationships and indicative definitions**

	Positively outcomes	**Negatively outcomes**
Brand-related behaviour	**Brand purchase intention: "*An individual's intention to buy a product*" (Das, 2015, p.182).** (Fetscherin et al., 2014; Oliver, 2010; Kim & Ko, 2010; Jeon & Baeck, 2016; Hayes et al., 2020; Touni et al., 2022; Wong & Haque, 2022; Madadi et al., 2022; Koay et al., 2023; Macías-Mañas et al., 2024; Madadi et al., 2024; Pourazad et al., 2024; Costa & Azevedo, 2024)	**Brand switching intention: "*Consumers consciously reject a brand or keep away from it*" (Fetscherin et al., 2023, p.439).** (Fullerton, 2005; Romani et al., 2012; Fetscherin, 2019; Roy et al., 2022; Fetscherin et al., 2023; Barreira et al., 2024; Shao et al., 2024)
		Non-purchase intention: "*Unwillingness to make a purchase from the same brand because of some earlier unfavourable encounter faced*" (Kamboj & Sharma, 2023, p.250). (Kamboj & Sharma, 2023; Yadav, 2024)
	Brand repurchase intention: "*A consumer's future plans to purchase a brand*" (Koskie et al., 2024, p.423). (Breivik & Thorbjørnsen, 2008; Chiu & Won, 2016; Giovanis & Athanasopoulou, 2018; Kautish et al., 2023; Kim et al., 2023; Koskie et al., 2024; Lin & Ryu, 2023)	**Brand non-repurchase intention: "*The customers' willingness to avoid another purchase from the same firm, based on their previous negative experiences*" (Curina et al., 2021, p.3).** (Curina et al., 2020)
	Positive WoM: Positive "*informal, person-to-person communication between a perceived non-commercial communicator and a receiver regarding a brand, product, an organization or a service*" (Harrison-Walker 2001, p. 63). (Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022; Kim & Park, 2014; Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019; Nyffenegger et al., 2015; Madadi et al., 2022; Song & Kim, 2022; Torres et al., 2022; Wong & Haque, 2022; Paruthi et al., 2023; Kim et al., 2023; Madadi et al., 2024; Pourazad et al., 2024; Van Der Westhuizen & Kuhn, 2024; Yadav et al., 2023)	**Negative WoM: "*All negatively valenced, informal communication between private parties about goods and services and the evaluation thereof*" (Wetzer et al., 2007, p. 66).** (Johnson et al., 2011; Romani et al., 2012; Alba & Lutz, 2013; Zarantonello et al., 2016; Hegner et al., 2017; Fetscherin, 2019; Pinto & Brandão, 2020; Zhang & Laroche, 2020; Kashif et al., 2021; Curina et al., 2021; Kurtoğlu et al., 2022; Brandão et al., 2023; Costa & Azevedo, 2024; Barreira et al., 2024; Kamboj & Sharma, 2023; Rahimah et al., 2023; Saini et al., 2023; Saijid et al., 2024; Sameeni et al., 2024;)
	Positive eWOM: A positive *"informal communication between consumers about the characteristics and usage of specific products*" using online platforms (Lin & Ryu, 2023, p.436). (Lin & Ryu, 2023)	**Negative eWOM: A negative *"informal communication between consumers about the characteristics and usage of specific products*" using online platforms (Lin & Ryu, 2023, p.436).** (Mazzoli et al., 2024; Odoom et al., 2024)
	-	**Complaining: "*The act of expressing negative feelings and annoyance or communicating dissatisfaction to firms and/or third parties*" (Curina et al., 2021, p.3)** (Brandão et al., 2023; Shao et al., 2024)
	-	**Private complaining: "Talking negatively about a brand to people close to us, such as family or friends" (Curina et al., 2021, p.1296).** (Roy et al., 2022; Fetscherin et al., 2023)

	Positively outcomes	Negatively outcomes
	Brand advocacy: "*Promoting a firm or organization, brand, or product by one consumer to others*" (Haq et al., 2024, p.5). (Fullerton, 2005; Kemp et al., 2014; Burnasheva et al., 2019; Coelho et al., 2019; Choi et al., 2024b; Haq et al., 2024; Shimul & Phau, 2023; Wallace et al., 2014)	**Public complaining: "*Addressing larger audiences that include the company itself, consumer protection groups and government agencies*" (Curina et al., 2021, p.1296).** (Roy et al., 2022; Fetscherin et al., 2023)
	Brand evangelism: "*Customers to get passionate about a brand and express their pleasure with other people around them*" (Safeer & Le, 2023, p.2950) (Abu Farha et al., 2024; Safeer & Le, 2023)	-
	Willingness to pay a price premium: "*The willingness to pay the excess price paid over and above the 'fair' price justified by the 'true' value of the product*" (Casado-Díaz et al., 2020, p.774). (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Bairrada et al., 2018; Hemonnet-Goujot &Valette-Florence, 2022; Park & Kim, 2014; Kim et al., 2023; Nyffenegger et al., 2015; Nikhashemi et al., 2019; Rahman et al., 2021; Santos & Schlesinger, 2021; Wallace et al., 2021; Choi et al., 2024b; Kim et al., 2023)	-
	Cross-buying intention: "*The likelihood that the consumer will purchase other products within the same brand, because creating value by cross-selling additional services or products is also an important aspect of customer relationship management*" (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019, p.171). (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019)	-
	Brand extension purchase intention: Consumers' intention to purchase new launched products from established brand (Pourazad et al., 2019a). (Pourazad et al., 2019a)	-
	Brand engagement: "*The active involvement of the customer with a particular brand*" (Joshi & Garg, 2021, p.262) (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Choi et al., 2022; Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022; Islam & Rahman, 2017; Joshi & Garg, 2021; Choi et al., 2024; Omar Zaki et al., 2024; Paruthi et al., 2023; Sohail, 2023)	**Negative brand engagement: "*The level of an individual customer's motivational, brand-related and context-dependent state of mind characterised by specific levels of cognitive, emotional and behavioural activity in direct interactions with the brand*" (Hollebeek, 2011, p. 790),** (Kamboj & Sharma, 2023)
	Brand forgiveness: *Willingness to give up retaliation, alienation, and other destructive behaviour, and respond in constructive ways after an organizational violation of trust*" (Xie & Peng 2009, p. 578). (Wang et al., 2019; Rahman et al., 2021; Seth & Soch, 2024)	**Brand retaliation: "*Negative feeling of reprisal in any form, resultant of any offense face by the consumer*" (Kamboj & Sharma, 2023, p.250)** (Curina et al., 2021; Fetscherin, 2019; Jabeen et al., 2022; Hegner et al., 2017; Attiq et al., 2023; Costa & Azevedo, 2024; Kamboj & Sharma, 2023; Shao et al., 2024)
	Resistance to negative information: "*The extent to which customers will not allow negative information to influence their overall perception of a brand*" (Haq et al., 2024, p.5). (Aro et al., 2018; Batra et al., 2012; Haq et al., 2024; Merlo et al., 2024)	**Join anti-brand communities: "*Participate in the construction of meanings and values of consumerism and specifically to destroy the hated brand's image when a strong ideological incompatibility phenomenon occurs*" (Brandão & Popoli, 2022, p.623).** (Brandão & Popoli, 2022)

	Positively outcomes	Negatively outcomes
	Acceptance of wrongdoing / Tolerance of failure: "*A customer's heightened sense of leniency shown toward the service provider when faced with a less-than desired service experience*" (Collier et al., 2018, p. 155). (Wallace et al., 2014)/(Choi et al., 2024b)	-
	-	**Brand cancellation: "*The intention to cancel the brand*" (**Costa & Azevedo, 2024, p.293**)** (Costa & Azevedo, 2024)
	Brand defence: "*A state of positive attributions that consumers in close consumer-brand relationships make when faced with negative publicity*" (Roy et al., 2023, p.819). (Dalman et al., 2019; Ali et al., 2020; Haq et al., 2024; Roy et al., 2023)	**Brand protest / Boycott: "*An individual consumer's decision to respond to a collective call for a boycott by refraining from purchasing from a specific company or brand for the explicit purpose of achieving the boycott's objectives.*" (Lasarov et al., 2023, p.1131).** (Zarantonello et al., 2016; Zhang & Laroche, 2020; Mazzoli et al., 2024) / (Curina et al., 2021; Sameeni et al., 2024; Woodside et al., 2023)
	-	**Brand sabotage: "*Deliberate behaviour by customers or non-customers who have the dominant objective of causing harm to a brand via the impairment of the brand-related associations of other consumers*" (Kähr et al., 2016, p. 4).** (Sameeni et al., 2024)
	-	**Brand avoidance: "*The phenomenon by which consumers deliberately stay away from or reject a brand*" (Barreira et al., 2024, p.748).** (Attiq et al., 2023; Costa & Azevedo, 2024; Barreira et al., 2024; Mazzoli et al., 2024; Saijid et al., 2024; Shao et al., 2024)
	-	**Brand revenge: "*A more severe measure that consumers take retaliatory measures, attempting to express their dissatisfaction with the brand through various means*" (Shao et al., 2024, p.596).** (Fetscherin et al., 2023; Shao et al., 2024)
	Brand loyalty: "*A deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brandset purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior*" (Oliver 1999, p. 34). (Albert et al., 2009; Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Batra et al., 2012; Bairrada et al., 2018; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Loureiro et al., 2012; Roy et al., 2013; Fetscherin, 2014; Fetscherin et al., 2014; Roy et al., 2016; Wallace et al., 2017; Bıçakcıoğlu et al., 2018; Coelho et al.,, 2019; Pontinha & Coelho, 2020; Mody & Hanks, 2020; Rahman et al. (2021); Santos & Schlesinger, 2021; Tsai, 2011a; Tsai, 2011b; Francisco-Maffezzolli et al., 2014; Veloutsou, 2015; Giovanis, 2016; Lo, 2020; Thomson et al., 2005; Valta, 2013; Shetty & Fitzsimmons, 2021; Quaye et al., 2022; Tran et al., 2024; Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022; Robertson et al., 2022;	**Patronage reduction/cessation: "*A customer's efforts to reduce the frequency of his or her visits, spend less per visit, and to frequent competitors more intensively*" (Grégoire & Fisher, 2006, p. 36).** (Zhang & Laroche, 2020; Zarantonello et al., 2016; Brandão et al., 2023; Odoom et al., 2024)

	Positively outcomes	Negatively outcomes
	Madadi et al., 2022; Kusumawati et al., 2022; Yee et al., 2021; Torres et al., 2022; Amenuvor et al., 2023; Sohail, 2023; Bae & Kim, 2023; Kim et al., 2023; Madadi et al., 2024; Pourazad et al., 2024; Rodrigues et al., 2024a; Wong, 2023; Yadav et al., 2023)	
Brand-related Cognition	**Perceived brand quality: "*Consumer's subjective judgment about overall excellence or superiority of a brand's products*" (Oh et al., 2023, p.5).** (Tran et al., 2024)	-
	Brand satisfaction: "*An overall cognitive evaluation of the total brand experience*" (Rahman et al., 2021, p.619). (Hong et al., 2023)	-
	Brand trust: "*Willingness to be vulnerable to the trustee that is based primarily on beliefs about the trustee's ability and integrity*" (Dunn et al., 2012, p.3) (Amenuvor et al., 2023)	-
	Brand commitment: "*The degree to which a consumer has a strong desire and willingness to maintain a lasting relationship with a brand*" (Choi et al., 2024, p.3064) (Amenuvor et al., 2023; Choi et al., 2024)	-
	Brand transparency perceptions: "*Consumers' subjective evaluation of the brand's intent to accurately inform external actors about the focal domain*" (Sansome et al., 2024, p.2639). (Sansome et al., 2024)	
	Extension evaluation: "*Consumers' overall perception of brand extension*" (Jiang et al., 2024, p.49). (Jiang et al., 2024)	-
	Interactional justice: "*Perception of the attitudes of the seller in addressing the complaint*" (Blodgett et al., 1997, p. 185). (Filho et al., 2023)	-
	Procedural Justice: "*perception of reasonable policies and procedures*" (Blodgett et al., 1997, p. 185). (Filho et al., 2023)	-
	Distributive Justice: "*Perception of the fairness of the efforts extended to redress the complaint*" (Blodgett et al., 1997, p. 185). (Filho et al., 2023)	-
	Macro country image: "*The impressions that the consumers have of a country's overall economic, social, technological, and political situation*" (Macías-Mañas et al., 2024, p.223). (Macías-Mañas et al., 2024)	-

	Positively outcomes	Negatively outcomes
Brand-related Emotion	**Obsessive passion: "*An intensity of emotion when consumers have a deep experience and commitment to the brand*" (Le, 2023, p.59).** (Le, 2023)	-
	Brand addiction: "*A consumer's psychological state that involves mental and behavioural pre-occupation with a particular brand driven by uncontrollable urges to possess the brand's products, involving positive affectivity and gratification*" (Mrad & Cui, 2017, p. 1). (Le, 2023; Rodrigues et al., 2024a)	-
	Brand jealousy: "*A feeling among consumers that the brand they consume is not exclusive because others in the social circle possess and consume similar brands*" (Kashif et al., 2021, p.626). (Saini et al., 2023)	-
	Brand attachment: "*Emotion-laden target specific bond between a person and a specific brand*" (Thomson et al., 2005, p. 78)". (Shimul & Phau, 2023; Babić-Hodović et al., 2023)	-
	Psychological engagement: "*A positive brand-related state of mind during live-streaming sessions*" (Asante et al., 2024, p.29). (Asante et al., 2024)	-
Consumer-related outcomes	**Self-esteem: "*An individual's evaluation of their identity*"** (Le, 2021, p.157). (Le, 2021)	-
	Hedonic well-being: "*Consumers' enjoyment and innate satisfaction resulting from gratitude for an entity's experiences*" (Asante et al., 2024, p.28). (Asante et al., 2024)	-
	Self-brand affinity: "*The perceived distance between consumers and brands*" (Jiang et al., 2024, p.54). (Jiang et al., 2024)	-

2.3.Consumer-brand relationship and its two prominent antecedents

Among the key antecedents of the consumer-brand relationship, **self-congruity** and **self-expressiveness** are identified as **crucial factors** in **forming consumers' relationships with their brands** (Agyekum et al., 2025; Wallace et al., 2017; Wallace et al., 2021) and play an important role in consumers' decision-making processes (Chen & Demirci, 2025; Chauhan et al., 2021; Mrad et al., 2025). This is because brands are not only acting as tools for expression but also as mechanisms for self-improvement and validation (Safeer & Nazir, 2025). They carry some symbolic meanings to what consumers personally consume, helping individuals form and signal their self-concepts and social status (Cho & Hwang, 2020; Zhu et al., 2024; Zollo, 2024). Through brands, consumers construct themselves, communicate who they are, and convey status, identity and prestige in a socially recognisable and culturally meaningful "language" (Chieng et al., 2022). Such congruence and expressiveness can affect the consumer-brand relationships and lead to favourable behavioural outcomes, including brand addiction (Mrad et al., 2025), brand purchase intention (Navaneethakrishnan & Sathish, 2020), brand loyalty (Toteva et al., 2024), and WOM (Boubker & Naoui, 2022).

However, these mechanisms have overlooked consumers whose identities are shaped by more than one cultural context, such as **immigrant consumers**, who typically navigate hybrid, fluid, and context-dependent cultural identities (Rodríguez, 2021; El Banna et al., 2018). For these consumers, certain brands, particularly those originating from or culturally aligned with their heritage, may carry distinctive and personally meaningful significance. Thus, how immigrant consumers perceive self-congruity and self-expression through brands may differ from those of monocultural consumers (Guzmán et al., 2017). The following sections elaborate on both constructs in greater detail and explain their potential relevance for immigrant consumers.

2.3.1. Self-congruity

Since Sirgy's (1982) seminal work, the concept of self-congruity has become a central theme in marketing literature. Consumers tend to use, purchase, or/and display goods that reflect and reinforce their self-concepts (Jamal & Kuwait, 2007; Joshi & Garg, 2021). Self-congruity is shown to influence a wide range of emotional, cognitive, and behavioural outcomes, such as consumer-brand relationships (Wallace et al., 2017), brand attitudes

(Gonzalez-Jimenez et al., 2019), brand addiction (Mrad et al., 2025), and purchase decisions (Cooke et al., 2022).

Self-congruity is defined in various ways, and the most common definition is the match/fit between a consumer's self-concept and brand image (Chieng et al., 2022; Hu et al., 2012; Li et al., 2022; Rabbanee et al., 2020), which may be problematic. Many prior studies described self-congruity as the match between consumers' **overall/accumulated brand evaluations** and their perceived self-concept (Chieng et al., 2022), where the accumulated brand evaluations align more closely to the concept of **brand reputation** rather than the **brand image**. Brand image is a consumer's perception of the brand through every single interaction with it (Malik et al., 2012). Brand reputation is defined as "*an accumulation of brand images and an aggregate and compressed set of public judgments about the brand*" (Veloutsou & Delgado-Ballester, 2018, p.257). Previous research has at times conflated these constructs. For example, Lee et al. (2014) defined brand image as "the sum of a customer's perceptions about a brand generated by the interaction of the cognitive, affective, and evaluative processes in a customer's mind" (p.8), a definition that more precisely reflects the brand reputation. Since consumers tend to evaluate themselves in relation to the accumulated perceptions of the brand rather than a single encounter, it is more appropriate to define **self-congruity** as **the consistency between a consumer's self-concept and a brand's reputation.**

Self-concept is another key component within this definition, which is defined as "*the sum of an individual's thoughts and feelings about himself or herself*" (Vigolo & Ugolini, 2016, p.419). Although different approaches in terms of its components were proposed (Bennett & Vijaygopal, 2018; Chu & Lowery, 2024), it, in principle, comprises two main dimensions, self-conceptions and self-evaluation expressed through self-esteem (Gecas, 1982). Self-conception refers to the various roles, attributes and identities that an individual perceives as defining their place within their social environment, such as cultural identities (Jensen et al., 2011; McNeill, 2018). **Cultural identity** is defined as an individual's value orientation toward a cultural group (Jensen et al., 2011) and is a culturally grounded component of self-concept. Self-esteem is defined as an individual's overall self-evaluation and can be divided into competence-based (sense of power or efficacy) and morality-based (sense of virtue or moral worth) esteem, and they often influence each other in an experience (Gecas, 1982; Keller et al., 1978). The self-concept extends to the reflection of consumers' self-image and social identity through their products and brand choices (Xue et al., 2022).

When consumers encounter brands that are **congruent** with these dimensions of self-concept, they naturally develop **relationships** with them (Shetty & Fitzsimmons, 2022). In line with the diversification of consumer needs, individuals consider not only utilitarian benefits but also symbolic and experiential values when choosing brands (Bıçakcıoğlu et al., 2018). They consume brands as a means to construct, express, and maintain their self-concept through the brands they own, aspire to own, or intentionally avoid (Han & Choi, 2019). Thus, when a consumer perceives that his/her self-concept consistent with the brand's reputation, they experience greater self-congruence (Choi et al., 2024b; Wallace et al., 2017) and are more likely to develop relationships with those brands (Shimul & Phau, 2023).

Nevertheless, existing literature linking self-congruity and consumer-brand relationships has paid limited attention to increasingly consequential consumers with **hybrid and shifting cultural identities**, such as **immigrant consumers**. An immigrant typically experiences a movement from one country to another, meaning many immigrants retain, however strongly or weakly, ties to both home and host country at the same time (El Banna et al., 2018). Hence, immigrants may experience and negotiate mixed cultural identities, i.e., seeking integration into the host culture while maintaining ties to their heritage (Chakraborty & Chattaraman, 2022; Spiegler et al., 2019). This dual positioning generates both tensions and opportunities in the reconstruction of self-concept, exposing immigrants to competing cultural frameworks, values, and beliefs (Josiassen, 2011; Yankholmes & McKercher, 2019; Garry & Hall, 2015).

Immigrant consumers, who remain strongly affiliated with their home country, are more likely to perceive **greater congruence with home brands**, which **may** in turn lead them to **form relationships with these brands**. For them, home brands often carry cultural attributes, such as unique narratives, distinctive design, and shared heritage, that can evoke memories and meaningful life events tied to the immigrant's heritage (Beverland & Cankurtaran, 2024; Walsh, 2022; Villegas & Marin, 2022). The cultural meanings embedded lend authenticity to the values they represent, enhancing the credibility of the associations they imply, and acting as a "cultural bridge" to the immigrants' cultural roots (Segev et al., 2014). Thus, for immigrants who feel closer to their home country, home brands are more likely to resonate with cultural identity **at the national level**. This may increase perceived alignment with brands from their country of origin and, in turn, lead to relationships with these brands.

2.3.2. Self-expressiveness

Prior research has defined self-expressiveness as the extent to which consumers perceive that a brand reflects their inner self or enhances their social self (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Wallace et al., 2021). Building on this definition, scholars generally distinguish two dimensions of self-expressiveness: the **inner self** and **social self** (Siddique & Rajput, 2022).

Inner self is defined as the private and authentic dimension of identity that is oriented toward personal values or aspirations (Karjaluoto et al., 2016). **Inner self-expressiveness,** therefore, refers to the extent to which a consumer perceives a given brand that reflects his/her inner self (Wallace et al., 2021). Brands that express the inner self function as symbolic mirrors of one's real identity, serving as extensions of personality and deeply held values. In this sense, such brands reinforce self-consistency and authenticity, enabling consumers to affirm who they genuinely perceive themselves to be (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Wallace et al., 2021).

Social self is defined as the public aspect of identity that seeks validation and approval from others (Karjaluoto et al., 2016). **Social self-expressiveness** refers to the extent to which a consumer perceives a given brand that reflects his/her social self (Wallace et al., 2021). Brands that express the social self function as symbolic resources through which consumers construct and communicate their public identity, contributing to impression formation and enhancing how they are perceived within social contexts (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006).

As brands are used to communicate the self to others, the self-expressiveness of a brand is seen as an antecedent of **consumer-brand relationships** (Huber et al., 2015; Karjaluoto et al., 2016). When consumers perceive a brand that can reflect or can be used to communicate with their inner and social selves, they tend to form relationships with such brands (Sarkar & Sreejesh, 2014; Zhu et al., 2024). For example, a former basketball player may repeatedly choose Nike sports shoes because they were the shoes that he wore when his team won the championship, making the brand a reflection of himself (Babić-Hodović et al., 2023). When a brand is highly integrated into one's self-concepts and reflects or enhances his/her self-esteem, this positive association can lead to a strong relationship with that brand (Palusuk et al., 2019; Wallace et al., 2021). Overall, brands which are close to and can reflect consumers' inner and social selves are more lovable.

For consumers with multicultural national dispositions, such as **immigrant consumers**, the link between inner self-expressiveness and the consumer-brand relationship is likely to be more significant. When aspects of one's inner or social selves (e.g., cultural identity) are

difficult to present openly, consumers may rely on certain brands as identity-relevant cues (Zhu et al., 2024). In this regard, brands originating from immigrants' home countries may serve as "symbolic anchors", which hold significance for immigrants and play a crucial role in facilitating **self-expression** (Guzman et al., 2017). This occurs as brand consumption extends beyond utilitarian problem-solving, serving instead as a medium for communicating and expressing their self-concept to themselves or to others (Hu, 2021; Kolańska-Stronka et al., 2023). From this viewpoint, what and how people consume are not incidental choices but actions deeply intertwined with self-concept. It could be understood as a vehicle for self-identification and a key component of broader cultural processes through which immigrant consumers express themselves (Safeer & Nazir, 2025).

Overall, when home brands resonate with immigrants' inner or social selves, they can offer a culturally grounded way to express who they are (Savary & Dhar, 2020). Immigrant consumers may therefore be motivated to develop relationships with these brands to express themselves.

2.4.Country of origin in marketing literature

The **country of origin** of a brand can be understood as a dimension of brand **knowledge** and as one of the descriptors of the brand as a person (Veloutsou & Ballester, 2025). This view aligns with a perspective in the branding literature, which approaches brands as an assembly of their key characteristics (symbol, product and person) and the functions they perform for consumers (Veloutsou, 2023). Within this perspective, the notion of brand as a person suggests that brands can be perceived in human-like characteristics (e.g., nationality). Meanwhile, brand knowledge refers to "*the mental representation of the brand's information and features, expressed through brand functions, characteristics and components, but also brand experience*" (Veloutsou & Ballester, 2025, p.3). The development of brand knowledge and of broader brand meaning occurs through brand images stored in memory, which subsequently shape reputation and enable brand-related associations to be conveyed through signals (Veloutsou & Ballester, 2025). In this sense, COO can be regarded as one of the associations embedded in consumers' mental representations of a brand, acting as an informational cue that informs how the brand is understood and assessed.

A **brand's COO** can influence consumers' **perceptions, feelings, and behaviour** (Rodrigo et al., 2023). When consumers encounter a brand, the signals it conveys are interpreted through the associated **brand knowledge stored in memory** (Veloutsou & Ballester, 2025),

including COO-related associations. Through these signals, brands communicate promised attributes, which are evaluated through consumers' cognitive and affective responses, alongside other available sources of information (Veloutsou, 2023). Such evaluations subsequently affect consumer attitudes, preferences, and behaviour (Blanco-Encomienda et al., 2024; Chowdhury & Ahmed, 2009; Godey et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2020). Overall, COO has received particular attention due to its significant influence on consumer perceptions and decision-making.

The COO literature **traditionally** emphasised that consumers tend to prefer brands associated with **developed countries** (Rashid & Byun, 2018; Zolfagharian & Sun, 2010). This tendency may arise because the COO adds **country-related meanings** to consumers' **brand knowledge**, including perceptions of industrial and technological advancement, views of the country's people, and the desirability of engaging with that country (Zhang et al., 2024). Once embedded in memory, such country-related associations may be activated when consumers encounter and evaluate the brand. This interpretation is consistent with Gestalt psychology and the irradiation perspective, according to which a general impression of one object can be subjectively transferred to another (Weiss-Richard, 2003). Applied to COO, consumers' impressions of a country may spill over into the brand knowledge associated with brands from that country, thereby shaping brand perceptions (Diamantopoulos et al., 2011; Thakor & Lavack, 2003). As a result, the COO sometimes functions as a heuristic cue within consumers' brand knowledge structures, enabling them to reduce uncertainty and perceived risk by associating brands from developed countries with greater trustworthiness and brand excellence (Xu et al., 2020).

However, a growing body of research has **challenged** the assumption that consumers invariably favour brands from developed countries (e.g., El Banna et al., 2018; Zolfagharian et al., 2019), while some consumers are seeking to consume the brands produced in their **home countries** (Mishra et al., 2023). Rather than exerting a uniform effect, COO appears to influence brand evaluation through the particular meanings and associations it activates within consumers' brand knowledge. Studies highlighted that COO effects are more nuanced and contingent upon factors, such as **consumer ethnocentrism** (Nguyena & Nguyen, 2014; Poelmans et al., 2024; Story & Godwin, 2023). For example, consumers may exhibit ethnocentric tendencies, seek consistency of self-identity or affordability over perceived prestige, leading them to prefer and purchase the brands from their local/domestic countries (Shen & Wang, 2017; Yang et al., 2018). Therefore, COO preferences are not universal as earlier literature suggested; instead, their effects depend on how country-related meanings

are incorporated into consumers' brand knowledge and subsequently used in the evaluation process.

In this case, having an in-depth understanding of the role of COO on one's feelings, attitudes, and behaviours towards both foreign brands and domestic brands is necessary. Therefore, based on this objective, a **scoping review** of the COO literature is needed, as it provides an appropriate approach for identifying and mapping the breadth of existing research, the key conceptualisations, and highlighting potential gaps in the field (Munn et al., 2018).

The following sections begin with a brief introduction to the scoping literature review approach, followed by justifications for employing this method in the present study, a detailed description of the review process (including research aims and article selection procedures), and finally, an analysis of the review findings.

2.4.1. Scoping literature review process

The selection of a scoping review for examining the country of origin in this thesis was justified by the following justifications: (1) COO is another key concept in this research, thus, to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the existing body of literature, a scoping literature review is considered appropriate, as it is suitable for mapping and scoping of available evidence in a given field (Munn et al., 2018). (2) Having an understanding of the role of COO and its related construct, consumer ethnocentrism, on consumers' feelings, attitudes, and behaviours toward foreign and local brands is important for this research. The scoping review can help identify the key factors related to the COO construct (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). (3) This thesis seeks to identify the potential gap in the existing COO literature. The scoping review method goes beyond merely summarising existing studies; it synthesises key findings to present an overview of the current research landscape and identify areas where evidence remains scarce (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Peters et al., 2015).

Given that the procedural stages of the scoping review follow the **same** methodological logic outlined in Section **2.2.1**, some steps are not reiterated in full. Instead, this section focuses on the elements that differ in scope and analytical emphasis, specifically the search boundaries and inclusion criteria procedures tailored to the COO domain.

- **Stage 1: Research focus**

The present review is conducted based on the following focuses:

(1) Map the existing literature in the COO research.
(2) Identify key conceptualisations of the COO in the literature.
(3) Identify the consequences related to the COO for foreign/global brands.
(4) Identify the consequences related to consumer ethnocentrism for domestic brands.
(5) Identify and analyse knowledge gaps in the COO literature.

- **Stage 2: Identifying relevant studies (Inclusion criteria)**

The identification of outputs was first based on **pre-determined inclusion criteria** (Munn et al., 2018), designed to retrieve a relevant body of knowledge. Inclusion criteria included the publication period of the study, the **language**, the **keywords**, the **subject area**, the **database**, and the **journals** from which the data were retrieved.

The **time period** in which articles were published was chosen to ensure the coverage of the topic and the study's replicability (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). The search protocol focused on academic publications **between 1985 and 2024**. The year 1985 was chosen as a starting point because it marked the seminal work of Johansson et al. (1985), in which the definition and importance of country of origin in marketing were highlighted. The year 2024 was chosen as the endpoint to ensure the replicability of the study, as the literature search was conducted in 2025, by which time the literature for 2022 had all been published. This scoping review limited the language to **English** (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005).

To identify the **most relevant articles**, the researcher used a systematic approach to generate a list of potential keywords (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005), comprising the following four steps:

(1) Step 1: **Identification of the core search term (*Initial keyword list*).** In line with the focus of the scoping review, keyword development began with the key concept: **country of origin**. An initial Scopus search was conducted using *TITLE-ABS-KEY ("country of origin" OR "country-of-origin")*, restricted to publications at the *final* stage, *articles* only, the subject area *Business, Management and Accounting*, and publication years up to 2024. The purpose of this initial search was to inspect the author keywords used in the retrieved records and to inform subsequent keyword expansion.

These decisions were made based on the following **justifications**. First, prior research indicates that "country of origin" and "country-of-origin" were the major expressions used in their titles, abstracts and keywords, and were treated as interchangeable variants (Johansson et al., 1985; Schill et al., 2011). Including both terms at the outset reduced the risk of missing relevant keywords during the current keyword development stage (Kraus et al., 2022). The justification for using the Scopus database, publication year, and search subject was the same as that discussed in Section 2.2.1 on consumer-brand relationships.

The initial search returned **4023** articles, **154 keywords**, and **5751 keyword occurrences**. The most frequent keywords were **"country of origin"** (504 occurrences) and **"country-of-origin"** (147 occurrences) (Appendix 9). Although "China" appeared frequently (147 occurrences), it was treated as a contextual descriptor rather than a conceptual keyword, thus excluded from the keyword list. Overall, the results supported retaining **"country of origin"** and **"country-of-origin"** as the initial keywords to guide the subsequent stages of keyword development and expansion.

(2) Step 2: Expansion of the initial keyword list. To broaden the search scope while maintaining conceptual relevance and disciplinary alignment, the keyword list was further expanded at this stage through the development of **two complementary keyword sets**. First, it was found that the country of origin has an **abbreviation "COO"** that is used interchangeably in article titles, abstracts, and keywords (Esmaeilpour & Abdolvand, 2016); thus, it was decided to include it. Second, ethnocentrism is an important consumer disposition in COO research and is relevant to this thesis. Prior study shows interchangeable use of related lexical forms (e.g., **ethnocentric**, **ethnocentrism**, and **ethnocentrity**) across article titles, abstracts, and keywords (Balabanis et al., 2001; Balabanis & Siamagka, 2022; Shergill et al., 2010). Thus, the truncated search term **ethnocentri*** was employed to capture these variants within a single umbrella term. Third, to ensure that the retrieved studies were anchored within the **marketing** discipline, the researcher and her supervisor created a set of general marketing-related keywords, including *market*, *brand*, *product*, *consumer*, and *customer,* which were used to signal marketing-oriented research and were included to reduce the likelihood of retrieving studies situated primarily in non-marketing domains.

As a result, two keyword lists were generated at this stage:

Concept-driven list: *country of origin*, *country-of-origin*, *COO*, and *ethnocentri**.

Discipline-filtering list: *market*, *brand*, *product*, *consumer*, and *customer*.

(3) **Step 3: Boolean structuring and construction of the search string.** In order to get the maximum number of search results, the researcher conducted two strings of keyword lists and used '**AND'** to connect the above two lists. While within the list, the researcher used **'OR' to connect all the keywords** that were selected in step 2.

(4) **Step 4: Expert review and confirmation of the final search string.** The search string was reviewed with the supervisory team, and this process resulted in a confirmed search string for the formal literature search: **['country of origin' OR 'country-of-origin' OR 'COO' OR 'ethnocentri*'] AND ['Market*' OR 'Brand*' OR 'Product*' OR 'Consumer*' OR 'Customer*'].**

Decisions regarding the included **subject areas** (marketing, strategy and management, and international business and management), **journal selection standards (**Scopus CiteScore and ABDC**), quality filtering** of the two journal lists, and the **final number of retrieved journals** (214 in total) followed the same criteria outlined in Section 2.2.1. Some supporting evidence of these choices is shown in Appendices 10 and 11.

- **Stage 3: Study selection**

At this stage, the preliminary pool of articles was screened and refined through journal website searches and title-and-abstract review, following a process that used in the scoping review of consumer-brand relationships. In addition, the researcher identified **three articles that were highly relevant to the COO literature**, even though they were not published in the above journal selection criteria. After screening the resulting list of papers according to these criteria, a total of ***4456 articles from 61 journals*** remained for further examination. The full texts of the retained papers were downloaded from the official publishers' websites.

Certain **exclusion criteria** were applied to ensure the quality of the chosen articles. Some journals were excluded as there were no articles available on the topic related to COO. To secure the relevance, articles did not focus on the COO were excluded. After implementing the exclusion criteria, the final sample included **463 articles from 57 journals** (see **Table 7** and **Appendix 12** for more details).

Table 7. **Criteria for selecting articles on the country of origin.**

Inclusion & Exclusion criteria	
Inclusion criteria #1 Journals	ABDC 2022 list (A* and A in marketing); Scopus CiteScore 2024 (Top 25 percent in marketing, Top 10 percent in Strategy and management, Top 10 percent in business and international management): returned 214 journals in total
Inclusion criteria #2 Publication time-period	1985-2024
Inclusion criteria #3 Keywords	(‘country of origin' OR 'country-of-origin' OR 'COO' OR ‘ethnocentri*’ AND ‘'Market*’ OR 'Brand*' OR 'Product*' OR 'Consumer*' OR 'Customer*’’)
Inclusion criteria #4 Language	English
Additional information	Allowed to be included if authors did not publish in above journal selection criteria but had high citation counts
Retreated	**4456 articles from 61 journals**
Exclusion criteria #1	Articles on topic other than country of origin (3983 articles)
Surviving sources	**463 articles from 57 journals**

- **Stage 4: Extracting and charting the results**

The data extraction and charting procedures replicated those described in Section 2.2.1 and were not reiterated in this section.

- **Stage 5: Discussion**

The subsequent stage entails a comprehensive discussion. Section 2.4.2 critically examines the conceptualisations of COO, Section 2.4.3 discusses the role of COO for foreign brands, and Section 2.4.4 discusses the role of COO for domestic brands.

2.4.2. Definitions of country-of-origin

The concept of country-of-origin was widely examined in international marketing literature (Johansson et al, 1985). Various definitions were developed in the literature, which were collected and subsequently categorised into different groups (**Table 8**).

Traditionally, COO was equated with the country of manufacture or “made-in” label, referring to the nation where the final product is manufactured (Ha-Brookshire & Yoon, 2012; Shen & Wang, 2017). With the international fragmentation of value chains, however, researchers had extended COO to include other aspects of origin, such as the country of headquarters (Cakici & Shukla, 2017), the country of assembly (Thakor & Lavack, 2003),

the country of design (Rashid et al., 2016), or the country of parts sourcing (Ha-Brookshire & Yoon, 2012). Another stream of research emphasised perceived COO, which referred to the country consumers mentally associate with the brands, regardless of actual production location/countries (Rodrigo et al., 2019). Further, some authors conceptualised COO as a composite incorporating manufacturing, assembly, and consumer perceptions, underscoring that COO can be shaped by both tangible production attributes and intangible brand associations.

Given this definitional plurality, this research specifies COO as the **brand's manufacturing location**, adopting Ha-Brookshire and Yoon's (2012, p. 446) definition of COO as "*the country where the final product is manufactured*". This definition aligns with the thesis's emphasis on tangible origin cues that are salient to immigrant consumers, thus minimising ambiguity relative to ownership-, design-, or sourcing-based definitions.

Table 8. **Conceptual definitions of country of origin from the literature**

Categories	Authors	Definitions
Country of Manufacture/ "Made-in"	**Zhang (1996)**	'Information pertaining to where a product is made' (p.51).
	Pappu et al. (2006)	'The country in which the product is made' (p.697).
	Chowdhury & Ahmed (2009)	'The country in which the major parts of the product are made' (p.497).
	Zbib et al. (2010)	Country of origin is defined as 'Made in' (p.139).
	Ha-Brookshire & Yoon (2012)	'The country where the final product is manufactured' (p.446).
	Eng et al. (2016)	'The country where the product is 'made-in', which may or may not coincide with the home country of the brand, that is, the brand origin' (p.4).
	Rashid et al. (2016)	'A place where the actual product is manufactured' (p.232).
	Shen & Wang (2017)	'The country of production where an article or product comes from' (p.249).
Country of headquarter	**Johansson et al. (1985)**	'The country in which 'corporate headquarters of the company marketing the ... brand is located' (p.389).
	Thanasuta et al. (2009)	'The location where the corporate headquarters are located' (p.364).
	Fetscherin & Toncar (2010)	'The country that the brand is originally from and where the headquarters is located' (p.167).
	Cakici & Shukla (2017)	'The country in which the corporate headquarters of the company marketing the brand is located' (p.373).
	Yu et al. (2021)	'The country where corporate headquarters of the company establishing overseas subsidiaries is located' (p.317).
	Rashid et al. (2016)	'The location of the brand owner's headquarters, regardless of where the actual product was manufactured, or the country with which consumers associate it with' (p.232).
	Suter et al. (2018)	'The country in which the company headquarters are located' (p.122).
Country of assembly	**Thakor & Lavack (2003)**	'The country where the product's parts are made or where the product is assembled' (p.403).
	Ha-Brookshire & Yoon (2012)	'The country where the product is partially or fully assembled' (p.446).
Country of design	**Ha-Brookshire &Yoon (2012)**	'The country where the final product was initially conceptualized and designed' (p.446).
	Rashid et al. (2016)	'The country where the final product was initially conceptualised, conceived and engineered' (p.232).
Country of parts	**Ha-Brookshire & Yoon (2012)**	'The country where component parts are manufactured' (p.446).
Country of consumers' perception	**Eng et al. (2016)**	'The country which a consumer associates with a certain product or brand as being its source, regardless of where the product is actually produced' (p.5).
	Barbarossa et al. (2018)	'The country which a consumer associates a certain product or brand as being its source' (p.362).
	Rodrigo et al. (2019)	'The country that a consumer associates with a certain product or brand regardless of where the product is actually produced' (p.6).
	Cheah et al. (2020)	'The place, region, or country where the brand is perceived to belong by its target consumers' (p.401).

Categories	Authors	Definitions
Mixed	**Jo et al. (2003)**	'The country where the product is originally designed and manufactured' (p.638).
	Fetscherin & Toncar (2010)	'Where the product is primarily produced and assembled' (p.167).
	Samiee (1994)	'The location of manufacture Manufacture (COM) or assembly of a product' (p.581).
	Agrawal & Kamakura (1999)	'The country where a brand is actually manufactured or assembled' (p.258).
	Ahmed et al. (2002a)	'The country where the product is assembled or manufactured' (p.393).
	Hamzaoui-Essoussi et al. (2011)	'The country (or region) that, according to consumers, produces the branded product' (p.973).
	Rashid et al. (2016)	'The country where the majority of the materials used in the product and/or component parts were made or manufactured' (p.232).

2.4.3. The role of country-of-origin on foreign/global brands

Consumers sometimes rely on stereotypical perceptions of countries and the brands associated with them (Magnusson et al., 2022). These stereotypes can be understood as **country-related knowledge stored** in consumers' memory and linked to the brand, which might be activated when the brand is encountered and assessed (Veloutsou & Ballester, 2025). As cognitive factors, such knowledge shapes brand evaluations, particularly when a country is perceived as superior to others (Rashid & Byun, 2018). For example, consumers sometimes show a stronger preference for brands from developed countries than for those from developing countries because positive knowledge of developed countries and negative stereotypes of developing countries become incorporated into their brand knowledge and affect how brand signals are interpreted (Schooler, 1971). Such COO-based stereotypes are also evident in specific product categories. French perfumes, for example, benefit from associations of France with elegance and romance, while German cars draw on perceptions of Germany as technologically sophisticated and safe. Through such associations, the COO contributes to the brand knowledge and shapes consumers' overall brand evaluations.

Based on the results of the scoping review, it is found that the COO of the brand has become a powerful tool for marketers and strategic communicators in affecting consumer evaluations (Xu et al., 2020) (**Table 9**). Research suggests that consumers rate branded products as higher quality if those products were produced in countries that are more economically developed (Chowdhury & Ahmed, 2009; Magnusson et al., 2022). For example, Agnoli et al. (2014) argue that Chinese wine consumers place greater emphasis on extrinsic cues such as COO, price, and brand reputation, particularly when evaluating brands from well-known regions/countries like Bordeaux, Burgundy, or Australia, rather than on intrinsic features such as grape variety, alcohol content, or wine style. Thus, these findings suggest that the COO represents a country's economic or technological development level and plays an important role in brand quality evaluation (Shen & Wang, 2017), and, in some cases, may even outweigh other extrinsic cues such as price.

In addition, when a brand enters a new market, COO information becomes an even more salient extrinsic cue that forms consumers' knowledge of the brands and subsequently influences their perceptions and evaluations (Karunaratna & Crouch, 2016; Trinh et al., 2019). It also helps build consumer trust and reduce the perceived risk (Yang et al., 2018). In such situations, consumers rely on COO as a heuristic to infer unobservable brand/product attributes, such as quality, reliability or prestige (Yang et al., 2018). This reliance is

particularly relevant for experience goods or credence goods like cosmetics, food, or luxury brands, where intrinsic qualities prove difficult to assess before purchase. For instance, luxury brands bearing the “Made in Italy” designation may immediately capitalise on Italy's globally esteemed reputation for craftsmanship and design. Even where consumers possess limited knowledge of the brand itself, this endorsement bolsters purchasing confidence. Thus, COO can create a “halo effect,” whereby favourable associations with a country transfer to the brand itself, positively affecting consumers’ preferences toward these brands (Xu et al., 2020).

Such evaluation and preferences can often lead to **favourable brand consequences**, such as favourable brand attitudes (Cheah et al., 2020), brand trust (Rashid & Byun, 2018), purchase intention (Nes et al., 2014), willingness to pay a price premium (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Pucci et al., 2017), and brand loyalty (Mohd Yasin et al., 2007) for brands that originate from a more developed country. Specifically, a positive/favourable COO enhances consumers’ intention of choosing a brand over competing alternatives (Lin & Chen, 2006; Nes et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012). Also, consumers often strive to maintain balance in exchange relationships by matching the price they pay (input) to the benefits they expect to receive (output). As a result, they are more willing to pay a premium for products originating from developed or favourable countries than for those from countries perceived less positively (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Pucci et al., 2017). These favourable evaluations can further foster brand loyalty, whereby consumers can repeatedly purchase and maintain a strong attachment to the brand (Mohd Yasin et al., 2007) (Table 9).

Table 9. **Consequences of brands originating from foreign countries**

Categories	Consequences	Citations
Cognition	Brand attitude	Ahmed et al. (2002b); Bhuian (1997); Knight &Calantone (2000); Phau & Siew Leng (2008); Khan et al. (2012); Rashid & Byun (2018); Chen (2009); Karimov & El-Murad (2019); Cheah et al. (2020); Leonidou et al. (1999); Guina & Giraldi (2015); Kim et al. (2015); Yang & Paladino (2015)
	Brand evaluations/assessments	Leonidou et al. (1999); Lin & Sternquist (1994); Okechuku (1994); Manrai et al. (1998); Zhang (1996); Ommen et al. (2010); Srinivasan et al. (2004); Leonidou et al. (2007); Costa et al. (2016); Vukasović (2016); Meshreki et al. (2018); Laroche et al. (2005); Garrett et al. (2017); Chu et al. (2010); Eng et al. (2016); Xu et al. (2020)
	Perceived brand quality	Samu et al. (2024); Quester et al. (2000); Kinra (2006); Aqueveque (2008); Yang et al. (2018); Cheah et al. (2020); Chee et al. (2016); Shen & Wang (2017); Meshreki et al. (2018); Karimov & El-Murad (2019); Kaynak et al. (2000); Ahmed et al. (2002b); Peterson & Jolibert (1995); Chowdhury & Ahmed (2009); Hamzaoui & Merunka (2006)
	Brand association	Yang et al. (2018)
	Brand awareness	Yang et al. (2018)
	Brand image perception	Koubaa (2008)
	Brand trust	Rashid & Byun (2018)
	Brand perceptions	Vukasović (2016); Chee et al. (2016); Karimov & El-Murad (2019)
	Consumer-based brand equity	Pappu et al. (2007); Hamzaoui-Essoussi et al. (2011)
	Consumers' perception of brand equity	Chee et al. (2016)
	Decision making	Khan et al. (2012)
	Monetary price expectation	Qu et al. (2021)
	Perceived product design	Chowdhury & Ahmed (2009)
	Perceived purchase value	Ahmed & d'Astous (1993)
	Perceived brand reputation	Chee et al. (2016)
	Emotional value expectation	Qu et al. (2021)
	Reputation expectation	Qu et al. (2021)
	Service quality expectation	Qu et al. (2021)
	Social value expectation	Qu et al. (2021)
Behaviour	Brand purchase intention	Peterson & Jolibert (1995); Khan et al. (2012); Garrett et al. (2017); Sharma (2011); Guina & Giraldi (2015); Shen & Wang (2017); Parameswaran & Mohan Pisharodi (2002); Berry et al. (2015); Rashid & Byun (2018); Yang & Paladino (2015); Knight (1999)
	Visit intention	Stepchenkova et al. (2018)
	Willingness to pay more	Pucci et al. (2017); Koschate-Fischer et al. (2012)

2.4.4. The role of country-of-origin on local/domestic brands

Beyond the generalised preference for brands originating from developed countries, there is also evidence that, regardless of their COO, and out of loyalty, or perceived superiority of their home countries, some consumers consistently prefer brands from their own countries (Bruwer et al., 2024; Hamin & Elliott, 2006). This tendency is generally referred to as "consumer ethnocentrism" (Shimp & Sharma, 1987).

Consumer ethnocentrism is a **key consumer disposition/construct in the COO research**. It refers to a consumer's belief in favouring his/her own culture, to interpret other social groups from the perspective of their own group (Story & Godwin, 2023), and to blindly accept people who are culturally similar to his/herself (Huaman-Ramirez et al., 2019). Rooted in the broader concept of ethnocentrism, originally introduced in sociology by Sumner (1906) to describe a worldview in which one's own group serves as the central point of reference, the construct was later adapted in consumer behaviour research and developed into what is now known as consumer ethnocentrism (Sharma, 2015).

Based on the scoping review of ethnocentrism, numerous outcomes were identified (Table 10). One central finding is that the COO plays a key role for ethnocentric consumers, often generating a wide range of positive outcomes toward domestic brands. These include effects on consumer beliefs like patriotism and nationalism (Sharma, 2015), consumer-related assessments, such as self-brand connection (Fazli-Salehi et al., 2021), self-congruity (Shu & Strombeck, 2017), evaluations (Prince et al., 2019), and behaviours, such as domestic brand purchase intentions (Canal-Simón et al., 2024), positive WOM (Rosenbaum & Wong, 2009), and willingness to pay a price premium (Knight, 1999).

These outcomes can be explained by the psychological underpinnings of the concept, consumer ethnocentrism. Ethnocentrism stems from individuals' strong ties towards their country of origin (Cleveland & McCutcheon, 2022), coupled with concerns about the economic and cultural damage that foreign goods may bring to their country. For some consumers, purchasing domestic brands is even framed as a moral duty that reflects their responsibilities toward the domestic economy (Cleveland et al., 2015). Thus, ethnocentric consumers, who are deeply embedded in the values and lifestyles of their COO, display consistently positive evaluations and stronger purchase intentions toward domestic brands than foreign alternatives (Bruwer et al., 2024; El Banna et al., 2018).

- **Country of origin, consumer ethnocentrism and self-congruity**

Among the downstream effects associated with ethnocentrism, **self-congruity** is particularly relevant to this thesis as it captures the extent to which a brand is perceived as compatible with consumers' self-concept. Existing research suggests that consumer ethnocentrism positively influences self-congruity with domestic brands (Shu & Strombeck, 2017). When consumers perceive a stronger match between "who I am" and "what this brand represents," they are more likely to evaluate the brand positively and exhibit favourable behavioural tendencies, including preference for local brands (Shu & Strombeck, 2017).

A key mechanism underpinning this association is that ethnocentric consumers tend to treat domestic origin as a diagnostic cue for **symbolic meaning** rather than merely a factual attribute (Shu & Strombeck, 2017). Brands from one's country of origin can be viewed as markers of authenticity, heritage, and cultural continuity (Safeer et al., 2022) and are perceived as locally iconic or emblematic of shared traditions (Safeer & Nazir, 2025). Such symbolic associations matter because they provide consumers with culturally legible material through which to affirm identity and signal belonging. In this way, origin-linked meanings become psychologically valuable when they map onto salient self-concepts, thereby increasing perceived fit between the consumer and the brand (Johar & Sirgy, 1991).

Table 10. **Consumer- and brand-related outcomes of consumer ethnocentrism**

Categories	Consequences	Citations
Consumer-related values	Consumer cosmopolitanism (-)	Cleveland et al. (2009); Siamagka & Balabanis (2015); Sharma (2015); Prince et al. (2016)
	Consumer internationalism (-)	Sharma (2015)
	Consumer nationalism	Sharma (2015)
	Consumer patriotism	Sharma (2015)
	Consumer animosity towards foreign products	Meng-Lewis et al. (2014); Khan et al. (2019); Sharma (2015); Ahmed et al. (2013)
	Economic nationalism	Cheah & Phau (2015)
	National identification	Sharma (2015)
	Consumer xenocentrism (-)	Prince et al. (2016)
	Domestic consumers' personal self-esteem	Narang (2016)
	Identification with global consumer culture (-)	Lysonski and Durvasula (2013)
Consumer-related assessment	Self-brand connection for domestic brands	Fazli-Salehi et al. (2021)
	Self-image congruence with local brand	Shu & Strombeck (2017)
Brand-related behavioural consequences	Purchase intention of domestic brand	Poelmans et al. (2024); Story & Godwin (2023); Mishra et al. (2023); Zebal & Jackson (2019); Hamin & Elliot (2006); Basfirinci & Cilingir Uk (2020); Chakraborty et al. (2022); Eng et al. (2016); Vida & Reardon (2008); Dmitrovic et al. (2009); Strizhakova & Coulter (2015); Cleveland et al. (2009); Dutta et al. (2017); El Banna et al. (2018); Verlegh (2007); Cheah & Phau (2015); Yen (2018); Tomić & Alfnes (2018); Canal-Simón et al. (2024); Jia et al. (2023); Abdul-Latif et al. (2024)
	Purchase intention of foreign brand (-)	Lan & Trung (2024); Bandyopadhyay et al. (2011); Basfirinci & Cilingir Uk (2020); Xu et al. (2020); Cleveland et al. (2009); Dutta et al. (2017); Cheah &Phau (2015)
	Purchase intentions to products manufactured by the country to which they emigrated for immigrants	Watchravesringkan (2011)
	Brand loyalty (local brand)	Rosenbaum and Wong (2009)
	Brand loyalty (foreign brand) (-)	Md Ashaduzzaman et al. (2021)
	Willing to pay a price premium	Knight (1999)
	Willing to purchase products imported from culturally similar countries	Watson & Wright (2000)
	Positive word-of-mouth of local brand	Rosenbaum & Wong (2009)
Brand-related cognitive consequences	Avoidance attitude towards foreign brands	Tsougkou et al. (2024); Khan et al. (2019); Reardon et al. (2005); Kwak et al. (2006); Poon et al. (2010); Brodowsky et al. (2004); Banerji & Mishra (2018); Alden et al. (2013); Guo (2013)
	Attitudes toward domestic brands	Brodowsky et al. (2004); Rambocas & Mahabir (2021); Yildiz et al. (2018)

Categories	Consequences	Citations
	Favourable attitudes toward products imported from culturally similar countries	Watson & Wright (2000)
	Attitudes towards products manufactured by the country to which they emigrated for immigrants	Watchravesringkan (2011)
	Attitudes towards the domestic sponsor	Meng-Lewis et al. (2014)
	Attitudes towards the foreign sponsor (-)	Meng-Lewis et al. (2014)
	Domestic brand preference	Srinivasan et al. (2004); Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004); Siamagka & Balabanis (2015); Al Ganideh & Good (2016); Ding (2017); Shu & Strombeck (2017); Lee et al. (2010); Evanschitzky et al. (2008)
	Foreign brand preference (-)	Jin et al. (2024); Klein (2002); Balabanis & Diamantopoulos (2004); Fischer et al. (2022); Evanschitzky et al. (2008); He & Wang (2015)
	Domestic brand judgement/evaluation	Prince et al. (2019); Al Ganideh & Good (2016); Brodowsky et al. (2004); Srinivasan et al. (2004); Dmitrovic et al. (2009); Meng-Lewis et al. (2014)
	Foreign brand judgment (-)	Klein et al. (1998); Klein (2002); Ahmed et al. (2013); Asseraf & Shoham (2016); Abdul-Latif et al. (2017); Gineikiene et al. (2017); Khan et al. (2019); Cheah & Phau (2015); Funk et al. (2010); Brodowsky et al. (2004)
	Perceived quality of domestic brand	Sainam & Bahadir (2024); Hamin & Elliott (2006); Verlegh (2007); Tong & Li (2013); Bartikowski et al. (2010)
	Perceived quality of foreign brand (-)	Verlegh (2007); Bandyopadhyay et al. (2011)
	Foreign product-country image in both developed and developing countries (-)	Jin et al. (2015)
	Home product-country image in both developing and developed countries	Jin et al. (2015)
	Reluctance to buy foreign products	Nijssen & Douglas (2004); Siamagka & Balabanis (2015)
	Perceived brand betrayal when domestic brands are in violation of fairness	Lee et al. (2021)
	Perceived value of local products	Le et al. (2013)

2.5.The importance of the country of origin on the consumer-brand relationship

Based on the importance of consumer-brand relationship in the marketing literature (Veloutsou, 2023), and the COO acting as an important extrinsic cue in shaping consumer decision making for global/foreign brands (Magnusson et al., 2022) and local/domestic brands (Bruwer et al., 2024), it can be assumed that the country of origin plays a key role in influencing the consumer-brand relationship.

The scoping review on consumer-brand relationships and country of origin revealed that only a few studies have explored their direct linkage. Among them, Bryson et al. (2013) examine the influence of COO on brand hate, and Macías-Mañas et al. (2024) tested the effect of brand love on perceived country image. Bryson et al. (2013) argue that an unfavourable COO perception may trigger a strong, negative consumer-brand relationship in the luxury sector, as consumers might distance themselves from or even reject brands associated with disliked countries. In contrast, Macías-Mañas et al. (2024) propose that brand love can enhance the country image associated with that brand. Drawing on the irradiation perspective and the Halo Effect Theory, they suggested that as consumers' affection for a brand grows, their positive perceptions may extend to the brand's country, generating a prosocial halo that improves its overall reputation (Macías-Mañas et al., 2024).

Although the above two studies do not directly examine how a brand's COO may affect the formation of consumer-brand relationships, this connection remains relevant for both global and local brands. For global brands, previous studies suggested that consumers are likely to form relationships with brands that align with their self-concepts or serve as a means of self-expression (Agyekum et al., 2025; Wallace et al., 2021). Accordingly, it can be argued that when consumers perceive congruence between their self-concepts and the origin of the brand, they are likely to build relationships with these brands and then purchase them to express who they are. For local/domestic brands, COO research indicates that consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism tend to perceive congruence with local/home brands due to shared national origins (Shu & Strombeck, 2017). It can be argued that ethnocentric consumers' perceived congruity with their home brands may lead to the formation of their consumer-brand relationships with home brands.

Since consumer-brand relationships are known to strengthen brand loyalty (Fetscherin et al., 2019), investigating how consumers develop relationships with both home and host brands, as well as brands from other countries, offers valuable insights. Understanding the role of

COO in this process can not only clarify the emotional and identity-based mechanisms underpinning consumer-brand relationships but also inform branding strategies aimed at enhancing consumer loyalty across global contexts.

2.6.Immigrant consumer research

As a comprehensive **systematic review** of the immigrant consumer literature has recently been undertaken by **Duan (2024)**, it is unnecessary for this research to replicate a separate literature review in this area. Instead, this section conducts a narrative literature review, discusses the various immigrant consumption patterns based on the findings from Duan (2024) and relevant articles about immigrant consumers and delineates the specific aspects that are relevant for the theoretical development of the present thesis.

In the current age of globalisation and human mobility, the number of people emigrating from their homeland to a host country is the highest in history (Duan, 2024). In many host countries, immigrants have become one of the most rapidly growing populations, creating substantial opportunities for market growth and wider economic development (Al Ganideh & Awudu, 2021). Compared with native-born consumers, immigrant communities often differ in cultural repertoires, values, lifestyles, and consumption preferences (Kizgin et al., 2020). Importantly, these differences are rarely static: as immigrants settle, they navigate new institutional and marketplace environments, and their consumption practices can evolve. Collectively, such shifts contribute to broader changes in social life, value systems, consumption, and market structures, gradually reshaping the world (Guzmán et al., 2017).

Scholarly attention to immigrant consumption behaviour has also increased markedly in recent years (Duan, 2024). Immigrant consumption behaviour research has progressed through three phases between 1989 and 2023: an initiation phase (1989-2006) that exhibited slow growth, a development phase (2007-2012) marked by relatively stable output, and a consolidation phase (2013-present) featuring a pronounced annual rise in publications. This progression indicates a shift from fragmented early exploration toward a more cumulative and integrated knowledge base. Collectively, immigrants are becoming an important consumer segment in both research and contemporary global consumer market practice, underscoring the need to understand their consumption behaviour and the key factors that shape it.

2.6.1. Acculturation and Ethnocentrism

When immigrants relocate to a new country, their **consumption practices** typically undergo changes and transformation as they adapt to a different cultural and social environment (Duan, 2024). Such changes are heterogeneous rather than linear or uniform. Some immigrants continue to privilege **brands tied to their country of origin**, other immigrant consumers shift toward **host- or global brands**, whereas some **combine both repertoires** in ways that vary by context, product category, and stage of settlement.

Some immigrant consumers maintain a **heritage-oriented** pattern and assist in prioritising home brands in the host market (Shu & Strombeck, 2017). They actively seek familiar brands, services, and consumption spaces connected to their home culture (e.g., ethnic grocery stores, restaurants, and communities) and may display strong loyalty to home brands (Sui, 2026). For these consumers, home brands typically function as symbolic and practical "anchors" that preserve cultural continuity, offer psychological values, emotional reassurance (Safeer & Nazir, 2025), and facilitate cultural maintenance and expression in everyday life (Chakraborty & Chattaraman, 2022; Hamlett et al., 2008).

By contrast, some immigrant consumers may adopt a more **host-oriented** pattern and develop a strong preference for host or global brands and incorporate them into routine consumption (Segev et al., 2014). This orientation may reflect perceived advantages of host-market offerings, such as qualities, perceived values, accessibility, or alignment with desired social meanings, and may involve sustained engagement with mainstream brands as part of everyday adaptation to the host marketplace (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021).

Between these poles, many immigrants exhibit a **mixed pattern**, selectively drawing on both home and host brands as they may maintain affiliations to both countries: the home country where they were born and grew up, and the host country they have resided in and currently live (El Banna et al., 2018). Their brand choices may shift across time and situation. In the early stage of the relocation process, they may experience a sense of excitement and euphoria about the opportunities and possibilities in the host country. This stage is often characterised by curiosity and openness, which can encourage them to explore and consume brands that are new, modern, fashionable, or popular in the host market (Guzmán et al., 2017). As the initial "honeymoon" period ends, experiences of cultural distance, homesickness, or integration strain may increase the appeal of **heritage-linked brands**, products, restaurants, and community spaces as sources of comfort, belonging, and identity continuity (Cui et al.,

2014; Zolfagharian et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014). At the same time, they may continue buying **host-country brands** for functional reasons (e.g., convenience, perceived value for the cost, availability), producing a stable hybrid pattern rather than a complete return to heritage-only consumption.

Duan (2024) highlights two key factors that influence immigrant consumption behaviour: **consumer acculturation** and **ethnocentrism**.

Acculturation refers to the "*process of adjustment, wherein an individual alters their cultural orientations as a result of contact with others from different cultural groups*" (Valenzuela et al., 2020, p.2). This adaptation can be facilitated through direct experiences with another culture, such as engagement with host-country rituals, customs, and traditions (Cleveland et al., 2015; Harrison et al., 2022; Jimenez et al., 2013), and indirect exposure through media and social networks (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021; Shankar et al., 2020). Acculturation is widely recognised as a central concept in understanding immigrant cultural adjustment (Laroche et al., 2020) as it offers a framework for explaining why some immigrants rapidly adopt host-consumption patterns, while others retain heritage-oriented preferences. Notably, immigrants may respond to the host culture in different ways, such as assimilation (i.e., adopting the majority culture while shunning ties with original culture), integration (i.e., selectively adapting to certain aspects of the dominant culture, while maintaining others), separation (i.e., rejecting dominant culture and holding strongly to the original cultural roots) and marginalisation (i.e., connecting neither to the dominant culture nor to the original cultural roots) (Huang, 2025; Ibarra-Cantu & Cheetham, 2021; Kipnis et al., 2014; Mathur, 2012).

Accordingly, immigrant **consumption behaviour** varies across levels of **acculturation** (Ibarra-Cantu & Cheetham, 2021). Highly acculturated consumers tend to adopt host-country customs, norms, and cultural practices to blend into the new environment (Josiassen, 2011; Sui, 2026). This often involves switching to mainstream retailers, embracing host-country brands, and aligning consumption styles with local tastes to reduce social distance and enhance feelings of inclusion (Chakraborty & Sadachar, 2021; Montgomery et al., 2021; Valenzuela et al., 2020). In contrast, consumers with **lower levels of acculturation** are more likely to maintain strong ties to cultural origins, showing a preference for home-country brands to maintain or reinforce ethnic identity and heritage continuity (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021). In practical terms, such consumers may place greater value on home-country sensory

experiences (taste, smell, rituals), engage with home culture-resonant activities, and the cultural authenticity embedded in ethnic retail settings (Pun et al., 2025).

While acculturation captures the stage of host cultural adaptation, immigrants' **ethnocentric tendencies** in a host country are expected to **affect such adaptation** (Carpenter et al., 2013). **Consumer ethnocentrism** is defined as a belief in the superiority of one's own culture, which may affect the association between immigrants' acculturation and their consumption towards both home and host brands (Chakraborty & Sadachar, 2021). Consumers with higher levels of ethnocentrism tend to be overly patriotic and to avoid foreign-made products (Abdelwahab et al., 2023). Consequently, ethnocentrism affects consumers' attitudes toward domestic products (Crespo & Velgan, 2025), as highly ethnocentric consumers tend to view purchasing foreign brands negatively, believing that supporting foreign industries reflects disloyalty to their nation (Cleveland & McCutcheon, 2022; Raman & Aashish, 2021).

In this way, ethnocentrism acts as a barrier to both immigrants' acculturation process and their adoption of host brands and stores (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021). Ethnocentrism may condition the relationship between acculturation and consumption: even when immigrants acquire exposure to the host culture, ethnocentric beliefs may reduce their willingness to "internalise" host-country consumption as part of the self (Crespo & Velgan, 2025). This effect operates mainly through biased information processing. When encountering new brand-related information, immigrants with stronger ethnocentric orientations tend to filter this information through their existing belief in the superiority of home brands (El Banna et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2023). Positive information about host or foreign brands is more likely to be dismissed, while information that supports the superiority of home brands is more readily accepted. This asymmetric processing stabilises preferences for home brands despite increasing market exposure. Thus, although immigrants with stronger levels of acculturation tend to weaken the habits and customs of their COO (Wang et al., 2020), ethnocentric attitudes can sustain the belief that supporting home products is ethically appropriate (Das & Mukherjee, 2020). In contrast, lower ethnocentrism permit greater interpretive flexibility, allowing immigrants to engage with host brands without perceiving such engagement as a threat to heritage identity.

Overall, consumer acculturation and ethnocentrism are important constructs for explaining immigrants' alternating engagement with host-market offerings and continued attachment to home brands, and the enduring emotional and symbolic significance of home-country brands in everyday consumption (Pun et al., 2025).

2.7.Research Gap and Question

2.7.1. Research Gap 1

The first research gap concerns the **potential existence and nature** of **relationships** between **consumers with multicultural national dispositions** (here, immigrants) and **home brands.**

The COO may play a key role in forming consumer-brand relationships. Bryson et al. (2013) proposed that an unfavourable COO can serve as a potential driver of a strong and negative consumer-brand relationship. Although this link was not empirically confirmed in their study, it is reasonable to assume that the opposite effect may hold, where a favourable COO may foster strong and positive consumer-brand relationships. Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999) argued that the COO serves not only as a perceptual cue for brand quality, but also evokes associations with emotion, self-concepts, or memories. In this way, the COO of the brand may serve as a meaning-laden signal that facilitates one's connection with the focal brand.

Such connections might be closely related to an established **relationship-based** mechanism in branding. Existing studies show that consumer-brand relationships can be developed in terms of self-congruity (Shimul & Phau, 2023), motivated by self-consistency (Babić-Hodović et al., 2023; Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022), and for inner self-expression purposes (Wallace et al., 2017). Based on this logic, it could be assumed that, when a brand's reputation (such as perceived COO) is perceived to be consistent with a consumer's self-concept, such congruence might foster his/her sense of personal relevance and relationship to the focal brand. It can then encourage consumers to express their inner selves (Wallace et al., 2017) and loyalty behaviours (Pourazad et al., 2024), as consumers may view the brand as an extension of their self-concepts (Japutra et al., 2019). In this way, the COO of the brand may be viewed as a symbolic cue that activates one's self-congruity and may lead to the formation of consumer-brand relationships.

This mechanism might be salient to **consumers with multicultural national dispositions**, such as **immigrants**, who have moved from one country to another and often adapt to different cultures (Cleveland & McCutcheon, 2022). They may be highly acculturated to the host culture (Abdulhamed & Lonka, 2024) or ethnocentric to their own heritage culture, which tends to have a particular salient identity towards heritage culture (Abdul-Latif et al., 2024).

A salience identity towards home culture might heighten the **salience of home brands** as self-concept-relevant resources in the host societies, and thus contribute to **stronger self-congruity**. When home brands are perceived as compatible with immigrants' self-concept, brand choice can function as a means of maintaining self-continuity and protecting culturally grounded self-concept in the face of contextual change (Guzmán et al., 2017). Accordingly, immigrants' origin-based preferences may be better understood as self-concept-motivated choices, wherein COO cues, ethnocentrism, and self-congruity may jointly form the personal relevance of home brands.

Given the **potential role of COO in forming consumer-brand relationships**, its significance becomes particularly salient among **ethnocentric immigrant consumers**. For them, COO may link to their **self-congruity**, which in turn affects their preferences and behaviour towards home brands. In this process, they are **likely to form brand relationships with home brands**. In other words, immigrant consumers who are ethnocentric are likely to perceive a consistency between their self-concept and brands from their COO, and such congruity may lead to the formation of strong immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands.

Assuming all consumers with a monocultural disposition may be **untenable** (Rodríguez, 2021), since immigrant consumers often negotiate **hybrid cultural identities**, and the salience of such identities may be home-leaning, host-leaning, or relatively balanced. These differences in identity salience can reflect in the marketplace, affecting immigrants' potential relationships with brands. Recent literature has seldom examined consumers with mixed cultural identity (e.g., immigrants) as a focal consumer segment within either consumer-brand relationship or COO literature. Also, existing studies have predominantly focused on consumers' relationships, attitudes, and behaviours with foreign or global brands (Bartsch et al., 2016), with comparatively limited attention to their relationships with brands from their home country. Consequently, it remains unclear whether **immigrant consumers form brand relationships with home brands** in the host environments.

If such relationships exist, the **nature of such relationships** might need to be reapproached. Recent consumer-brand relationship research is mainly quantitative (e.g., Tran et al., 2024; Yu et al., 2024), whereas relatively few studies use a qualitative method to reapproach the nature of this phenomenon (e.g., Sansome et al., 2024). Quantitative designs are valuable for testing hypotheses and building cumulative evidence, but they often rely on established definitions and measures. As the real-world markets, brands, and consumers are evolving,

the nature of consumer-brand relationships may also change or update (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2021). This makes periodic reassessment of the nature of the concept important to keep the concept aligned with contemporary realities (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2021).

This concern is particularly relevant to the present research, given the growing number of consumers with **multicultural national dispositions**, such as **immigrants**, who may develop relationships with brands from their COO. However, this possibility has received limited scholarly attention, and the nature of such relationships remains unclear. It is therefore necessary to explore whether such consumers form relationships with home brands, and, if so, to explore their nature. Overall, the **first research gap can be raised:**

Research Question 1: Do immigrant consumers develop relationships with brands from their country of origin? If such relationships exist, what is the nature of such relationships?

2.7.2. Research Gap 2

While the first research question asks whether immigrant consumers form relationships with home brands and the nature of such relationships, a second research gap concerns the formation of such relationships. Existing consumer-brand relationship research has paid limited attention to how immigrant consumers, who often hold mixed and shifting identities, form relationships with home brands. Thus, studies on consumer-brand relationships and COO were reviewed to inform the potential drivers of such relationships.

Consumer-brand relationship literature suggests that consumers tend to form relationships when brands become personally meaningful and self-relevant, such as when they fit consumers' self-concept (Shimul & Phau, 2023), and help maintain self-consistency (Babić-Hodović et al., 2023; Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022). However, these insights have mainly been built on consumer groups whose identities are assumed to be relatively stable. It is therefore uncertain whether the same drivers operate in similar ways for immigrant consumers, whose sense of self may be negotiated across cultural contexts.

The COO literature suggests that the origin of a brand can carry some special meanings beyond functional evaluation. COO can work as a cue that activates associations linked to emotion, self-concepts, and memories (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). For immigrants, who often experience identity negotiation while adapting to a new host environment (Cleveland & McCutcheon, 2022), these COO-related meanings may be especially relevant when they

engage with home brands. However, despite this theoretical relevance, limited attention has been given to the factors that form immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. Accordingly, this study raises the second research question:

Research Question 2: What are the potential antecedents of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands?

2.7.3. Research Gap 3

The third research gap is related to the **potential consequences** of immigrant consumer-brand relationships. Existing research has established that stronger brand relationships are associated with consequences such as purchase intention and loyalty (Macías-Mañas et al., 2024; Madadi et al., 2024; Pourazad et al., 2024). Meanwhile, the country-of-origin literature suggests that immigrant consumers prefer, consume, and are loyal to brands from their COO (Abdelwahab et al., 2023; El Banna et al., 2018). However, these two research streams were not integrated. In other words, what remains missing is a clear understanding of what outcomes immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands actually produce.

Understanding such outcomes is important because immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands may generate outcomes that extend beyond the conventional behavioural indicators typically emphasised in existing consumer-brand research. For immigrants, home brands can operate not only as products in the marketplace, but also as identity-relevant resources (Beverland et al., 2021). A relationship with a home brand may help maintain a sense of heritage continuity (Sui, 2026), provide a vehicle for self-expression (Guzman et al., 2017), and facilitate navigation of everyday life in the host society (Ewing et al., 2024). In this sense, the outcomes may differ in both scope and significance compared with relationships formed under monocultural assumptions.

Considering the focus of the immigrant consumers and their home brand, the current thesis needs to identify the potential outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships. This leads to the formulation of the third research question:

Research Question 3: What are the potential consequences of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands?

2.8.Chapter summary

Overall, this chapter motivated exploring the potential existence and nature of consumer-brand relationships with immigrant consumers and their home brands. To build a foundation, it first conducted a scoping review of the key concept of this thesis, i.e., consumer-brand relationship, by identifying its conceptualisations and nomological networks. From the literature review, it was found that the consumer-brand relationship is an important concept as it can lead to outcomes like brand purchase and repurchase intentions (Madadi et al., 2024; Koskie et al., 2024), willingness to pay a premium and positive WOM (Kim et al., 2023). Also, it can be formed through self-concept-related drivers, particularly self-congruity (Agyekum et al., 2025) and self-expressiveness (Wallace et al., 2014), as consumers tend to form a relationship with brands that reflect or enhance their sense of self.

The chapter then turned to the scoping review of COO research. Although the COO is widely recognised as a salient extrinsic cue in shaping brand evaluations, its effects are not uniform. Earlier studies highlighted consumer preferences for brands from developed countries (Rashid & Byun, 2018; Zolfagharian & Sun, 2010), whereas more recent work shows that many consumers are drawn to local brands (Zolfagharian et al., 2019), with ethnocentrism and identity-related factors shaping these choices (El Banna et al., 2018).

This complexity is particularly relevant to immigrant consumers, for whom COO plays a dual role: it not only guides brand evaluations but also serves as a means of preserving cultural continuity and managing identity tensions in host societies (Guzmán et al., 2017). Evidence suggests that immigrant consumers would like to purchase their home brands out of identity-related factors and ethnocentrism (El Banna et al., 2018). Within this process, immigrant consumers may form relationships with home brands. However, whether such relationships genuinely exist remains underexplored in the literature.

By bringing these streams together, the chapter identified a critical research gap, that is, the potential existence of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands, their drivers and outcomes. Addressing this gap is crucial for advancing theoretical understanding of consumer-brand relationships and informing brand strategies in multicultural markets.

Further, to understand how immigrant consumers form relationships with their home brands, two theories, self-signalling theory and consumer acculturation theory, are applied in this study (see Section 3.5 for more details). Together, these theories provide a theoretical lens

for explaining both self-concept-related factors and how variations in their current levels of host-culture adaptation may affect the potential relationships and consumption of home brands. Self-signalling theory posits that individuals' behaviours are important as they serve as signals that convey their self-concepts (Bénabou & Tirole, 2006). In this study, it may help to explain how home brands become symbolic resources or signals for immigrant consumers to express and validate their self-concepts. Consumer acculturation theory explains that the extent to which individuals learn, internalise, and adapt to a host culture can shape their marketplace behaviours, including their responses to host brands (Ng et al., 2025). In this research, this theory may help to explain how variations in acculturation level influence their potential relationships with and consumption towards home brands.

Chapter 3. Analytical Approach

3.1.Introduction

This chapter establishes the overall plan for the methodology, thus laying the groundwork for the thesis. It begins by setting out the research paradigm, the underlying philosophical stance that guides data collection and analysis, and explains its alignment with the research objectives formulated in Chapter 2. The chapter then justifies the adoption of an exploratory sequential mixed-method design, comprising one qualitative study (explicated in Chapter 4) followed by three quantitative studies (Chapter 7). It then explains the logic of the participant recruitment strategy across the data collection phases. Finally, it explains the theoretical frameworks (self-signalling theory and consumer acculturation theory) that are used in the research.

3.2.Research paradigm

A research paradigm is an interpretative framework guided by a set of assumptions, concepts, values, and practices that frame the way the researcher approaches the enquiry (McGregor & Murnane, 2010). There are four main research paradigms: positivism, post-positivism, pragmatism, and interpretivism (Wahyuni, 2012), and each research paradigm is grounded in a set of philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality and existence **(ontology),** the role of scientific inquiry in understanding this reality **(epistemology**), and the role of value **(axiology)** (Aguzzoli et al., 2024; Healy & Perry, 2000; McGregor, 2018).

This research adheres to the **post-positivistic** research paradigm. Post-positivism emerged as a critique and evolution of positivism, addressing its limitations while retaining its focus on scientific rigour and empirical inquiry (McGregor, 2018). It acknowledges the existence of an objective reality but recognises that researchers can only imperfectly apprehend this reality due to theoretical, contextual, and methodological limitations. Consequently, knowledge claims are treated as provisional and subject to critical scrutiny rather than absolute verification (Wahyuni, 2012). Ontologically, the study aligns with critical realism, asserting that immigrant consumer-brand relationships exist as structured social and psychological phenomena independent of observation (McGregor, 2018). Epistemologically, post-positivism considers knowledge to be constructed through evidence and is inherently uncertain, and it relies on scientific methods but also considers the limitations of observation and measurement (Wahyuni, 2012). Axiologically, post-positivism recognises that values

and biases influence research but seeks to minimise their impact through transparency, critical reflection, and methodological rigour (Maksimović & Evtimov, 2023).

This philosophical positioning **aligns with the nature of this thesis**. First, the post-positivist paradigm considers one reality, but several perceptions of that reality must be combined to obtain a clearer picture of it (Healy & Perry, 2000). This aligns with the first research aim, which explores the potential existence and nature of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. Accordingly, an exploratory qualitative phase is appropriate, as interviews allow diverse accounts to be assembled into a richer depiction of the phenomenon (McGregor, 2018). Second, post-positivism builds knowledge through accretion, by seeking generalisation and plausible causal linkages (McGregor, 2018). This is relevant to the second and third research objectives, which aim to identify the drivers and outcomes of immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands. Addressing these objectives requires a quantitative phase to evaluate hypothesised relationships between constructs, consistent with established marketing literature.

Alternative research paradigms were considered but deemed less appropriate for this study. A purely **positivist** stance assumes that reality can be objectively measured and researchers can remain fully detached from the phenomenon under investigation (Healy & Perry, 2000). However, the inclusion of an exploratory qualitative phase acknowledges that meanings are socially situated and that the researcher's interpretation inevitably influences data analysis. Thus, a positivist stance would inadequately capture the interpretive nature of the study. Conversely, **interpretivism** prioritises subjective meaning construction and often rejects generalisation and causal explanation (Saunders et al., 2019). Given that the second and third research objectives aim to identify cause-and-effect relationships and test structural models quantitatively, a purely interpretivist stance cannot support the explanatory and generalisable ambitions of the study. **Pragmatism** emphasises the practical application of knowledge, focusing on what works to address specific problems (Wahyuni, 2012). It is solution-oriented and values the integration of both quantitative and qualitative methods, depending on the specific research context. This study seeks not only practical utility but also a philosophically coherent account of underlying mechanisms and theoretically grounded causal explanation. Thus, pragmatism was not adopted as the primary paradigm.

3.3.Research design

The present study follows a **sequential exploratory research design**, offering the flexibility to integrate both qualitative (open-ended) and quantitative (closed-ended) methods to address the PhD objectives (Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Harrison & Reilly, 2011). This design serves a developmental purpose, where the **qualitative** study is used to explore the focal phenomenon and inform hypothesis development (Taheri & Okumus, 2023), which is further examined in a **subsequent quantitative** study that is carried out to find out whether the relationships relevant in a comparable small number of cases describe and explain social phenomena in a greater domain accordingly (Kelle, 2006).

This type of research design helps address two main limitations of single-method studies (Kelle, 2006). First, it mitigates the limited transferability typically associated with small-N qualitative work. Second, purely quantitative research (particularly in fields characterised by significant sociocultural differences and highly heterogeneous contexts) frequently encounters a critical risk: researchers lacking 'indigenous knowledge' of the local sociocultural background tend to rely on common-sense intuition (Kelle, 2006). This leads them to directly apply concepts and scales originally suited to other contexts to new settings, ultimately failing to capture the most significant phenomena within that field. Starting the research process with a qualitative phase gives researchers access to local knowledge, which supports the development of context-appropriate concepts and hypotheses. It also provides a sound basis for building standardised instruments in subsequent quantitative studies, ensuring that survey items are meaningful and that the measures adequately cover what matters in the research setting.

In sum, 4 studies were conducted, with one qualitative study (Study 1) and three quantitative studies (Study 2, 3, 4) to answer the formulated research questions (**Table 11**).

Table 11. **Studies overview**

Study 1-4	Study nature	Objective	Research objective alignment
Study 1: Interviews	Qualitative	Explore the potential existence, nature, formation and outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands; Explore the potential existence of consumer acculturation and its effects on such relationships. To inform the conceptual model in the quantitative stage.	**1, 2, 3**
Study 2: Model testing (Chinese sample)	Quantitative	Test the causal relationships in the conceptual model	**2, 3**
Study 3: Model testing (Turkish sample)	Quantitative	Validate the findings in study 2, enhance the robustness of the results	
Study 4: Model testing (Polish sample)	Quantitative	Validate the findings in study 2, enhance the robustness of the results	

3.3.1. Qualitative research design

The qualitative stage served as an exploratory phase and was conducted through semi-structured interviews **(Study 1)**. It was designed to address the following **objectives**:

(1) To explore the potential existence and nature of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.
(2) To explore the potential formation of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.
(3) To explore the potential outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.
(4) To explore the existence of consumer acculturation, and its potential influences on the existence, formation and outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships.
(5) To inform the conceptual model in the quantitative stage.

The exploratory **interviews** were conducted in response to the research gap identified in Chapter 2, as existing studies paid limited attention to immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. Thus, an exploratory qualitative phase was needed using in-depth interviews to explore how this phenomenon manifests in immigrants' marketplace experiences. The interview approach was flexible, which not only included a list of themes

and questions but also allowed additional or follow-up questions depending on the flow of the conversation (Saunders et al., 2019). In this phase, the researcher aimed to collect information on immigrant consumers' stories and experiences towards their home brands.

A semi-structured interview was chosen for its balance of structure and flexibility (Kallio et al., 2016). It falls between two ends of the spectrum, i.e., structured and unstructured (Muller & Segal, 2014). **Structured** interviews are highly organised, consisting of a fixed set of pre-defined questions to ensure uniformity across interviews, making data analysis more straightforward (Brinkmann, 2014). However, their rigidity can limit participants' ability to elaborate on their responses, potentially missing valuable insights. **Unstructured** interviews include broad questions, making them suitable for an exploratory study to uncover in-depth insights or unexpected information (Muller & Segal, 2014). However, the diversity in responses can complicate data comparison and analysis. Therefore, a **semi-structured** interview was deemed appropriate for this thesis, as it provided opportunities for participants to better explain their experiences and stories toward the home brands (Bell et al., 2022).

3.3.2. Quantitative research design

The **quantitative stage** comprised three studies **(Studies 2-4),** aiming to empirically test the hypothesised relationships specified in the conceptual model, thereby extending the sequential exploratory mixed-method design (Saunders et al., 2019). This phase was conducted to address **three main objectives**:

(1) To test the hypothesised causal relationships between the key drivers specified in the conceptual model and immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands.
(2) To test the hypothesised causal relationships between immigrant consumer-brand relationships and outcomes identified in the conceptual model.
(3) To test the causal relationships of the moderators identified in the conceptual model.

Drawing on the conceptual model developed from the qualitative findings and the supporting literature, a structured questionnaire was designed for the main survey. The final questionnaire was first administered to the **Chinese** immigrant sample (**Study 2**) to test the hypothesised relationships. **Studies 3** and **4** replicated the same model tests in **Turkish** and **Polish** immigrant samples. The justification for including three immigrant groups is

specified in section 3.4, and the rationale for conducting 3 studies is detailed in chapter 7 (Quantitative methodology).

The survey strategy using a **questionnaire** was selected for 4 reasons. First, questionnaires enable the efficient collection of standardised responses from a large sample at relatively low cost, which supports systematic comparison across respondents (Saunders et al., 2019). Second, they are practical to administer, typically less resource-intensive, and can enhance accessibility to dispersed participants while offering efficiency, anonymity, and broad coverage of relevant topics (Dalati & Marx Gómez, 2018). Third, the structured nature of questionnaire data lends itself to quantitative analysis, allowing the use of both descriptive and inferential statistical techniques (Saunders et al., 2019). Fourth, questionnaire data can be used to examine patterns of association among variables, generate plausible explanations for observed relationships, and develop empirical models that represent these relationships (Saunders et al., 2019).

3.4.Participant selection across qualitative and quantitative phases

This thesis focuses on first- and second-generation Chinese, Turkish, and Polish immigrant consumers residing in the UK who are at least 18 years old and have lived in the UK for more than 5 years. The same eligibility criteria were employed in both the qualitative and quantitative phases to maintain sample consistency and support an integrated interpretation of findings. In the quantitative phase, the Chinese sample served as the primary model-testing group, and the Turkish and Polish samples were employed as validation groups to improve the robustness of findings. The justification for each criterion is presented below.

The first criterion - **immigrants residing in the UK** was justified by the UK's long-standing history of immigration and its multicultural milieu, as well as noteworthy fiscal contributions by immigrants (Dustmann & Frattini, 2014; Howley et al., 2020; Nevěděl & Novotná, 2015; Somerville & Cooper, 2009). Since the 1970s, the UK has experienced a persistent rise in immigration, exceeding 200,000 individuals annually (Hatton, 2005; Appendix 14: Figure 14-1). This trend has continued, leading to a growth in the immigrant population, which accounted for about 14.4% of the UK population (ONS, 2022). This demographic shift resulted in a rich tapestry of ethnic diversity, enriching the UK's overall cultural landscape (Vertovec, 2007). Also, immigrants notably influenced the UK's labour market, with the proportion of foreign-born workers expanding from 9% in 2004 to 19% by 2022 (ONS, 2024; Appendix 14: Figure 14-2). In the financial year 2018/19 (most recent available data), EEA

and Swiss immigrants made a net fiscal contribution of £22.4 billion, while non-EEA citizens paid £20 billion more in taxes than they received in benefits (Vargas-Silva et al., 2024; Appendix 14: Figures 14-3, 14-4), highlighting the immigrants' economic integration and significance.

The second criterion concerned the selection of immigrant groups, particularly those of **Chinese, Polish, and Turkish** origin, which was based on the rationale of their prevalence in the UK (ONS, 2022) and regional diversity (White, 2016). Prevalence in the UK was crucial as it indicates the representativeness of the chosen population (White, 2016). The rationale for considering regional diversity was that people from various regional backgrounds tend to produce a broad spectrum of responses, thereby enriching the research outcomes (Itani, 2021).

For their **prevalence in the UK**: Recent data from the ONS (2022) indicate that China, Poland, and Turkey are among the leading countries of origin of immigrants in the UK, indicating a prominent presence within the UK's immigrant population (White, 2016). Specifically, they have accounted for 7.1% (682,000), 2.5% (237,500), and 1.3% (127,644) of total immigrants in the UK (ONS, 2022). These statistics not only highlight the significance of these nationalities in the UK's immigrant population but also the crucial role that these populations play in the cultural and social fabric of the UK (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021; White, 2016) (Appendix 16).

For **regional diversity**: China, Poland, and Turkey are situated in different parts of the world and represent distinct geopolitical regions: East Asia (China), Central Europe (Poland), and a transcontinental setting spanning Western Asia and Southeast Europe (Turkey). Each region possesses its own unique set of factors that affect migration and thus enriches the responses from people with various backgrounds and cultures. For example, Chinese immigrants might respond to the UK's socio-economic environment differently due to the contrasting socio-economic conditions and cultural expectations from their home country (Tu & Nehring, 2020). Polish immigrants, with their history of European integration and mobility within the EU, may find different aspects of the UK's social and policy environment more relatable or challenging (White, 2016). Turkish immigrants, navigating the complexities of a cultural identity that spans two continents, are likely to approach integration with a distinct set of priorities and expectations. By analysing these different experiences, researchers can gain a more nuanced understanding of the multifaceted nature of migration.

The third criterion - the inclusion of **first-** and **second-generation immigrants** was intended to explore the potential **variation in acculturation** levels (Jiménez et al., 2013). First-generation immigrants are people who were born and raised in one country and then moved to another, with a substantial period of residence in both (Yamada & Singelis, 1999; Zolfagharian et al., 2017). They may show a lower assimilation level, and their consumption behaviour is anticipated to retain more authentic and traditional patterns (Khan et al., 2012; Zolfagharian et al., 2014), potentially reflecting a **lower level of acculturation**. Second-generation immigrants are those who were either born in the host country or resided there at a very young age with their parents (Josiassen, 2011). They might be more familiar with the host culture, potentially showing a **higher level of acculturation**.

To clarify the terms **'first- generation'** and **'second-generation of immigrants'**, this thesis adopts the definition of first-generation immigrants as individuals born in their home country who later moved to the host country (Zolfagharian et al., 2019). Second-generation immigrants are those who were either born in the host country (Crul & Mollenkopf, 2012) or relocated to the host country with one or both of their parents at a young age (Josiassen, 2011; Schneider, 2016). To clarify the ambiguous concept of "young age", this research specifies the second-generation immigrants as individuals who were either born in the UK or moved to the UK with their parents before 18 years old (as the legal age of majority in the UK) (GOV.UK, 2024).

The fourth criterion - requiring first- and second-generation immigrants to have resided in the UK for **over 5 years** was justified on two grounds: cultural acclimatisation and social network formation. First, a 5-year period allows immigrants sufficient time to familiarise themselves with local cultural practices, social norms, and legal systems, enabling a deeper understanding of their integration and assimilation experiences. Second, within this timeframe, immigrants are more likely to form social networks that provide support and resources, enhancing their social capital and offering valuable insights into the dynamics of immigrant communities.

3.5.Theoretical Frameworks

This thesis explores the relationships that immigrant consumers form with their home brands through the theoretical lens of self-signalling theory and consumer acculturation theory, and the justifications are detailed below.

3.5.1. Self-signalling theory

Self-signalling theory is adopted in this study as one of the key theoretical frameworks, and it is appropriate because: 1) It is used by many previous marketing studies, thus providing a history of fruitful results; 2) The findings in Chapter 2 support the relevance of self-signalling theory for this study; 3) It aligns with key research questions that this thesis aims to address. It helps explain how consumers may use brands and other consumption choices to affirm and express aspects of the self. This is relevant in this research, which examines whether consumers with multicultural national dispositions, such as immigrant consumers, may form relationships with or consume home brands to reflect inner selves. In doing so, the study aims to broaden the current understanding of self-signalling theory by examining whether the theory remains applicable when consumers' identities are hybrid, shifting, and context-dependent, and by exploring how self-signalling may help explain immigrant consumers' relationships and consumption with their home brands.

Self-signalling theory posits that individuals' behaviours are important as they serve as signals that convey their self-concepts (Bénabou & Tirole, 2006; Weele & Siemens, 2020). Self-concept is "*the sum of an individual's thoughts and feelings about herself or himself*" (Vigolo & Ugolini, 2016, p.419), encompassing personal traits, beliefs, and values. Signalling, in this context, is "*the act of conveying information about oneself in an implicit fashion, by engaging in behaviours that reveal one's traits and preferences to observers*" (Bennett & Chakravarti, 2008, p.1). As **self-concept is internal**, not directly observable, individuals often make **explicit, observable actions** to signal/convey information about their own traits, values/beliefs to others, without overtly stating that information (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2012; Johnson & Chattaraman, 2019; Savary & Goldsmith, 2020).

Recent **marketing studies** have increasingly used self-signalling theory to examine consumer behaviour in various contexts. For example, a study has examined how consumers' moral self-signalling affects their intentions of donation (Kliamenakis & Bodur, 2024); how self-identity signalling influence his/her revisit intention towards the restaurant (Huang et al., 2021), word-of-mouth in slow fashion consumption (Castagna et al., 2022), and green consumption (Dixon & Mikolon, 2021). These studies demonstrate the growing relevance of self-signalling theory in understanding the correlations between one's self-concepts and behaviour (Gneezy et al., 2012; Gallus et al., 2023).

The findings presented in Chapter 2 demonstrate the importance of self-concept-related mechanisms in the formation of consumer-brand relationships (Agyekum et al., 2025) and in leading to consumption behaviour (Chen & Demirci, 2025; Mrad et al., 2025), thereby supporting the relevance of self-signalling theory to this research. Specifically, the review shows that brands can embody symbolic meanings that help consumers maintain congruence between their brand choices and self-perceptions (Shetty & Fitzsimmons, 2022), while also enabling them to express meaningful aspects of their self-concepts (Wallace et al., 2021). These insights are consistent with the central premise of self-signalling theory, which regards observable consumption behaviours as meaningful actions through which individuals affirm, express, and communicate aspects of the self (Weele & Siemens, 2020).

Further, self-signalling theory provides an appropriate theoretical foundation for addressing the two research questions **(RQ2 and RQ3)** in this thesis. RQ2 examines how immigrant consumer-brand relationships may form, while RQ3 explores their outcomes. From a self-signalling perspective, immigrant consumption may be understood as a "self-diagnostic" act: individuals derive inferences about who they are and what they value, which lead to their own marketplace choices (such as the choices associated with home brands), thus, these **external** choices serve to express and communicate their **inner** self-relevant meanings or values (Owusu et al., 2025). In other words, self-signalling theory may help explain the full pathway explored in this thesis: how immigrant consumers' inner values, or identity-relevant motives, translate to relationships with their home brands, then result in downstream outcomes, such as observable consumption patterns.

3.5.2. Consumer acculturation theory

Consumer acculturation theory is adopted as a complementary framework in this study, and it is appropriate because: 1) It is widely applied in immigrant consumer research and consistently generates empirically useful insights into how cultural adaptation affects consumption-related processes; 2) The findings in Chapter 2 support the relevance of consumer acculturation theory for this study; 3) It aligns with the key research questions this dissertation aims to answer. In prior immigrant consumer research, it has been mainly used to understand how cultural adaptation influences consumption-related processes. It is also relevant to the present thesis, which aims to explore how immigrants' adaptation to the host culture may affect their evaluations of, and behavioural responses to, brands from their COO. In this way, the study aims to broaden current understanding of acculturation theory by

investigating whether it is also applicable to immigrant consumers' responses to home brands in the host context.

Acculturation theory explains how individuals from one cultural background learn and adapt to aspects of another culture (Cheung-Blunden & Juang, 2008; Ng et al., 2025; Luedicke, 2011). Individuals often experience cultural changes in different ways: some fully embrace the host culture (assimilation), some balance both original and host cultures (integration), some maintain only their home culture (separation), or become disconnected from both (marginalisation) (Segev et al., 2014). Such adaptations, in turn, affect their attitudes (one's thought), behaviours (one's practice) (Berry, 2017; Chakraborty & Sadachar, 2021; Laroche et al., 2020), social engagement (Szabó et al., 2020), and psychological well-being (one's overall mental state, often associated with self-esteem and belongingness) (Abdulhamed & Lonka, 2024; Schwartz et al., 2010; Ward & Geeraert, 2016).

This theory is mainly used in **immigrant** consumer behaviour studies. Specifically, it is employed to explore how immigrant consumers' various level of adaptation to host culture (i.e., consumer acculturation) influences their attitudes and purchase intentions toward host-country brands (Chakraborty & Sadachar, 2021), loyalty to both ethnic and mainstream brands (Segev et al., 2014), complaining behaviour (Souiden & Ladhari, 2011), shopping behaviour in Western apparel stores (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021), also, it is found that consumers' level of acculturation can affect their psychological well-being, such as sense of belonging and self-esteem (Abdulhamed & Lonka, 2024). Thus, acculturation becomes a key facet when analysing immigrant consumers who have relocated to new countries and experience cultural adaptations (Miocevic & Zdravkovic, 2020).

The findings presented in Chapter 2 demonstrate the importance of immigrant consumers' adaptation to the host culture in understanding their responses to both home and host brands (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021), thereby supporting the relevance of consumer acculturation theory to this study. Specifically, the review indicates that acculturation involves an ongoing and dynamic adjustment or negotiation of cultural values, identities and knowledge (Laroche et al., 2020; Valenzuela et al., 2020). Such adjustments may reshape the cultural meanings that immigrants associate with brands, the extent to which they draw on home- or host-cultural frames when evaluating them, and, consequently, their preferences and consumption choices across home and host brands (Pun et al., 2025). These insights align with the central premise of consumer acculturation theory, which provides an appropriate framework for

explaining how immigrants' varying degrees of adaptation to the host culture may influence their potential relationships with and responses to home brands.

This theory also **aligns with the second research question** of the qualitative phase, which aims to explore the potential role of consumer acculturation in the existence, formation, and outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. Specifically, acculturation theory provides a basis for explaining that immigrant consumers with a lower level of acculturation, that is, individuals who remain more closely connected to their home country or culture, may show stronger passion, more favourable evaluations and behavioural intentions toward brands from their COO (Miocevic & Zdravkovic, 2020). Conversely, immigrants with a higher level of acculturation may coincide with greater openness to host-market norms and offerings, potentially weakening the salience of home brand meanings. Overall, adapting the acculturation theory in this research can provide a theoretical lens for examining the proposed factor (i.e., acculturation) in the potential existence and formation of immigrant consumer-brand relationships, and how the outcomes of these relationships may vary across immigrants with different levels of cultural adaptation.

3.6.Chapter summary

The chapter explains the research philosophy and the study's overall research design. Justified by the nature of the study, this research adopts a post-positivist paradigm. An exploratory sequential mixed-methods design, which combines the use of qualitative and quantitative data, is chosen for the collection and analysis of the empirical information. Different studies are conducted, aiming to answer the research objectives. The qualitative study intends to explore the existence, nature, formation, and consequences of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. A quantitative phase is conducted to test the hypotheses developed in the conceptual model. Two theories, the self-signalling theory and the acculturation theory, are applied as two key theoretical frameworks to explain how the variables are causally related to each other in the conceptual model. The following chapters explain in detail each of the studies presented in this chapter.

Chapter 4. Research Methodology for the Qualitative Phase

4.1.Introduction

The **initial phase** of this study involves a **qualitative, exploratory study**. Thus, this chapter outlines the methods employed in the qualitative phase. It describes the process followed in the planning and execution of data collection and analysis. The procedure of recruiting and the participant characteristics are also explained. Finally, strategies to ensure the trustworthiness of this research and the ethical considerations to conduct the interviews are presented.

4.2.Semi-structured interviews

Qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews. This approach involved the **use of an interview guide** comprising key themes and questions to structure and direct the data collection process (Naz et al., 2022). The guide was also used to ensure that the questions were comprehensive, neutrally phrased, and free from leading or biased language.

4.2.1. Interview Guide Development

The interview guide was developed over 2 months. Following guidance that semi-structured interview protocols should be anchored in research objectives, while remaining flexible to capture unanticipated stories, the development process followed three steps (Kallio et al., 2016; Naz et al., 2022). **Step 1** involved generating the major themes and an initial pool of questions based on the qualitative aims and relevant literature on consumer-brand relationships, country of origin, and immigrant consumption behaviour. **Step 2** focused on structuring these questions into a coherent interview sequence, starting with general questions and then moving to more specific questions. **Step 3** consisted of expert review and refinement: the draft guide was shared with the supervisory team for feedback, consistent with suggestions to seek review through consultation during protocol development.

Throughout the development process, two supervisors provided ongoing feedback on the drafts, and **11 meetings** were held to refine the questions and ensure a logical and coherent flow for the interviews. Revisions mainly concerned with: (1) content coverage, ensuring the interview guide adequately reflected all qualitative aims; (2) question sequencing and flow, improving the progression from warm-up questions to more reflective topics; (3)

neutrality and non-leading language, reducing the risk of socially desirable responding and enabling both positive and negative narratives to emerge; (4) comprehensibility, simplifying terminology and using simple wording suitable for diverse cultural backgrounds (Naz et al., 2022). After **12 revisions**, the interview guide was finalised (Appendix 13).

4.2.2. Interview Guide Structure

The **key themes and questions** in the interview guide were developed in line with the objectives of the qualitative phase and the relevant literature review. It mainly consists of three parts. The **first part** comprised warm-up questions and was designed to collect demographic information. Respondents were asked to provide details about the countries they have lived in, both past and present, and the duration of their stay in each country. This section also served as a screening step to ensure that all participants met the recruitment criteria.

The **second part** corresponded to the **first, second, and third objectives** of the qualitative study, which aim to explore the potential existence, formation, and outcomes of immigrant consumers' relationships with their home-country brands. In this study, home-country brand is approached as the country of manufacturing (Ha-Brookshire & Yoon, 2012; see Section 2.4.2). In this part of the interview, participants were invited to reflect on brands they have strong feelings about, and to indicate how many of these brands originate from their home country. If participants did not mention any home brands, the researcher prompted them to discuss one or more familiar brands from their home country. For each identified home brand, participants were encouraged to share their experiences, feelings, and thoughts with the brands. These questions were repeated for each home brand.

The **third part** related to the **fourth objective** of the qualitative study, which sought to examine the existence of acculturation among immigrant consumers. In this section, participants were asked questions related to the language they used the most in daily and personal life, in their thought process, and in their dreams. Also, questions related to the main holidays they celebrate, their favourite cuisine and their closest friends.

4.2.3. Data Collection Procedure for Interviews

The recruitment of participants for the qualitative study followed purposive and snowballing approaches. The purposive approach is a non-probability technique in which participants are

intentionally selected because they meet predefined criteria and are capable and willing to provide the information based on their knowledge or experience (Naderifar et al., 2017). In practice, potential participants were approached through the researcher's personal networks and communities, but inclusion was determined purposively via an eligibility screening.

Participant selection was guided by the predefined inclusion criteria detailed in Section 3.4, which were also aligned with the definition of "immigrant consumers" in this thesis (see Section 1.1). Specifically, participants were required to be first- or second-generation Chinese, Turkish, and Polish immigrants and to have lived in the UK for at least 5 years. These criteria ensured that participants had sufficient experience of both their home cultural background and the host marketplace, enabling them to reflect on their consumption experiences with home brands. Also, these three cultural groups are among the top ten immigrant communities in the UK while also differing in their historical migration patterns. This variation enabled the study to capture both shared and culturally specific aspects of the immigrant consumer-brand relationship phenomenon.

The **sequence** of qualitative data collection started with the **Chinese group,** followed by the **Turkish group,** and finally the **Polish group.** For the Chinese group, the researcher initially contacted individuals within her existing network and then used a snowball approach to reach out to more participants. For the Turkish group, recruitment again began with the researcher's network; however, given limited access, additional potential participants were approached in local Turkish stores, such as barbers and restaurants. For the Polish group, a similar way was adopted: initial contacts were made through the researcher's existing network, supplemented by outreach to Polish restaurants, cafés, pubs, and grocery stores in major UK cities.

Across all groups, individuals who expressed interest were **screened** to confirm eligibility by collecting brief demographic and immigration-related information (e.g., age, home country, and length of residence in the UK). Screening questions were asked in a respectful manner to minimise discomfort. Eligible participants were then invited to take part in the interview. After each interview, participants were asked whether they could suggest other individuals who might also meet the study criteria (i.e., snowball recruitment). Snowballing is a convenience-based approach whereby existing participants assist recruitment by referring individuals from their social networks (Parker et al., 2019; Naderifar et al., 2017). However, as referrals tend to mirror the social circles of initial participants, snowballing can

introduce selection bias and reduce sample diversity, potentially limiting the transferability of findings (Ahmed, 2024). To mitigate this risk, referrals were restricted to 1-2 individuals per participant (Parker et al., 2019).

Interviews were conducted either **face-to-face** in a major UK city or **online via Microsoft Teams video conferencing**, with the mode determined by participants' location, availability, and stated preferences. Providing both options increased accessibility and enabled recruitment across a wider geographical area, which was important given the dispersed settlement patterns of immigrant communities in the UK. Where practicable, in-person interviews were prioritised to facilitate rapport building and allow greater sensitivity to contextual and non-verbal cues. Online interviews were used when travel or scheduling constraints made in-person meetings impractical, offering a flexible alternative that reduced participant burden while maintaining a consistent semi-structured format.

It is worth noting that, during the interview, despite the list of questions being predefined in the guide, the interviews occasionally **deviated from the planned process** (Kallio et al., 2016). To accommodate these deviations, certain adjustments were made during the process, some questions were reordered, omitted, or added based on the flow of the conversation, allowing for a deeper exploration of specific topics (Naz et al., 2022). Throughout the interviews, the researcher encouraged participants to engage in natural narratives and discussions and avoided unnecessary interruptions (Muller & Segal, 2014). This approach helped participants feel more comfortable, build rapport, and provide richer insights as the conversation deepened.

In this research, the final data collection point was determined by **data saturation**, similar to approaches used in other qualitative studies (Veloutsou & Ballester, 2025), which was reached for **each cultural group** when **at least 2** participants from each group did not introduce any new code (Fusch & Ness, 2015). The data collection resulted in an abundant amount of material for analysis, comprising **31 interviews** across **three cultural groups**. The summary of the data is shown in Table 12.

Table 12. **Summary of Interview Data**

	Three cultural groups			Summary
	Chinese	**Turkish**	**Polish**	
Length of Time for Overall Data Collections	**8 months**			
# of interviews	14	9	8	**31**
Average Duration	38 minutes	40 minutes	41 minutes	**39 minutes**
Total Duration	8.9 hours	5.8 hours	5.5 hours	**20.2 hours**
Average # of words	3,603	3,711	3,799	**3,685**
Total # of words	50,442	33,405	30,393	**114,240**

4.2.4. Characteristics of Participants in the Qualitative Study

The demographic details of participants in the qualitative study are presented in Table 16. This stage of the study involved **31 semi-structured interviews**. Participants included **14 Chinese, 8 Polish, and 9 Turkish individuals**. The **characteristics** of **each cultural group** (Chinese, Polish, and Turkish) are described in detail below. Also, the **brands** reported by participants are discussed after the characteristics of the participants.

First, to ensure confidentiality, each participant was assigned a unique classification **code** in the format **(C/P/T#-F/M#-age).** The code begins with a letter **(C/T/P)** indicating cultural group identifier: **'C' for Chinese, 'T' for Turkish, and 'P' for Polish**, accompanied by a number (#) indicating the sequence of interviews within that cultural group. This was followed by a letter **(F/M)** denoting the participant's gender**: 'F' for female and 'M' for male**, accompanied by a number (#) indicating the sequence of interviews across the entire qualitative data collection. Finally, the participant's **age** is included. For example, the identifier (C01-M1-30) refers to a 30-year-old Chinese male participant, who was the first interviewee in the Chinese group and the first male participant overall, and was 30 years old.

The **Chinese** group consisted of 14 participants, including 5 males and 9 females. The average age of participants was 28 years, 25 for males and 30 for females. Participants ranged across various age groups, with the youngest falling within the 18-25 range and the oldest in the 36-45 range. Based on the definitions of first- and second-generation immigrants (see section 3.4), the Chinese group included 9 first-generation immigrants and 5 second-generation immigrants. On average, participants had spent 18 years in their home country and 9 years in the UK. For the **brands**, participants shared insights about 24 favoured home brands, 9 in food, 10 in electronics, 4 in fashion, and 1 in automobiles. They

also shared insights on 8 disliked/hated home brands, 6 in electronics, 1 in automobiles, and 1 in fashion. Some brands were mentioned and discussed multiple times. [*Want Want*] was mentioned by 2 participants, [*Xiaomi*] was discussed by 3 participants, [*DJI*] was mentioned by 3 participants, [*Li-Ning*] was mentioned by 2 participants, and [*Huawei*] was discussed by 5 participants (see Table 13).

The **Turkish** group comprised 9 participants, including 6 males and 3 females. Their average age was 34, 32 for females and 36 for males. Participants ranged in age from 26-35 (youngest) to 36-45 (oldest). In terms of immigration, 7 participants were first-generation immigrants, and 2 were second-generation immigrants. On average, they spent 23 years in their home country and 10 years in the UK. Three participants in the Turkish group had lived in additional countries beyond their home and host countries. Specifically, T04-F15-23 lived in her home country for 9 years, the UK for 5 years, Pakistan for 5 years, and Uganda for 4 years. T07-F17-41 spent 31 years in Turkey, 5 years in the UK, 3 years in Italy, and 2 years in the US. T09-M13-41 spent 16 years in Turkey, 1 year in Switzerland, and 24 years in the UK. As for the **brands**, participants shared insights about 14 liked/loved home brands, 8 in food, 1 in electronics, 3 in fashion, and 2 in automobiles. Participants also shared insights on 4 disliked/hated brands: 2 in food, 1 in automobiles and 1 in fashion. Repeated mentions were observed among the favoured brands, with [*ETI*] and [*Ülker*] each being discussed by 2 participants (Table 13).

The **Polish** group consisted of 8 participants, including 2 males and 6 females. Their average age was 35, 33 for females and 37 for males. Participants ranged in age from 18-25 (youngest) to 46-55 (oldest). In terms of immigration, 6 participants were first-generation immigrants, and 2 were second-generation immigrants. On average, they spent 19 years in their home country and 15 years in the UK. For the **brands**, participants shared insights into 15 liked/loved home brands, 10 in food and 5 in fashion. They also shared insights on 4 disliked/hated brands, with 3 in food and 1 in fashion (including repeated brands). Among the favoured brands, [*4F*] was mentioned twice by participants (Table 13).

Table 13. **Characteristics of Participants**

Cultural group	Participant code [Country-Gender-Age]	Generation of immigration	Years		Ways of contact	Home-country brands mentioned in interviews		Word Count (transcripts)	Interview duration (minutes)
			In home country	In host country		Liked/loved brand(s)	Disliked/Hatred brand(s)		
Chinese (C0-C14)	**C01-M1-30**	Second	14 years	16 years	Face-to-face	DJI	/	2895	32
	C02-F1-30	First	22 years	8 years	Face-to-face	Holiland; Want Want	/	3725	41
	C03-F4-37	First	25 years	12 years	TEAMS	YOUYOU; Want Want	/	4016	45
	C04-M2-30	First	22 years	9 years	Face-to-face	DJI; XIAOMI; YESHU	Huawei	3847	37
	C05-F5-31	First	23 years	8 years	Face-to-face	Huawei; Li Ning	/	3205	33
	C06-F6-33	Second	17 years	16 years	Face-to-face	XIAOMI; Shuang Hui	/	3289	34
	C07-F8-30	First	24 years	6 years	Face-to-face	Lee Kum Kee	Huawei	4364	46
	C08-F9-30	First	21 years	9 years	Face-to-face	Acer	TCL	3568	36
	C09-M4-23	Second	15 years	8 years	Face-to-face	DJI; Xtep	Huawei	4618	49
	C10-F10-33	First	23 years	10 years	Face-to-face	TEMU; BYD	/	3225	33
	C11-F11-18	Second	11 years	7 years	TEAMS	XIAOMI	Huawei	3376	34
	C12-M6-18	Second	11 years	7 years	TEAMS	Heytea	Huawei	2162	31
	C13-M7-23	First	17 years	6 years	Face-to-face	Fang Zhong Shan; Anta; Li-Ning	/	4096	42
	C14-F12-24	First	19 years	5 years	Face-to-face	XIAOMI	BYD; Perfect diary	4056	42
Polish (P01-P08)	**P01-F2-41**	First	23 years	18 years	Face-to-face	Bielenda; LORENZ	/	3160	36
	P02-F3-21	Second	0 years	21 years	Face-to-face	/	/	4092	48
	P03-F7-32	First	27 years	5 years	Face-to-face	LOWICZ; Prince Polo	/	4771	49
	P04-F13-50	First	22 years	30 years	Face-to-face	HORTEX; HERBAPOL	/	3299	36
	P05-F14-28	Second	10 years	18 years	TEAMS	Ziaja; Balagan; 4F	Reserved	4241	46
	P06-M10-26	First	18 years	8 years	Face-to-face	Reserved; Tymbark	Warka	4777	41
	P07-M11-55	First	39 years	16 years	Face-to-face	Pudliszki	Vodka Wyborowa	3013	34
	P08-F18-25	First	20 years	5 years	Face-to-face	4F; HERBAPOL; Kielecki	Winiary	3040	37
Turkish (T01-T09)	**T01-M3-44**	First	22 years	22 years	Face-to-face	VESTEL	/	3301	33
	T02-M5-26	First	21 years	5 years	Face-to-face	/	KOTON	2079	28
	T03-M8-30	First	24 years	6 years	Face-to-face	Mermet Efendi	/	4330	46
	T04-F15-23	Second	9 years	5 years	Face-to-face	Ülker; ETI	/	4815	41
	T05-M9-42	First	32 years	10 years	Face-to-face	Koton; Mavi	/	3467	36
	T06-F16-29	First	24 years	5 years	Face-to-face	Flormar; Yumos	Bim	4020	48
	T07-F17-41	First	31 years	5 years	TEAMS	ETI; Ülker	Melis	3740	42
	T08-M12-34	First	29 years	5 years	Face-to-face	Togg; Casper	Tofas	3328	37
	T09-M13-41	Second	16 years	24 years	Face-to-face	Kiğılı; Ottoman	/	4325	48

4.3.Approach to Qualitative Data Analysis

Two types of analysis were utilised to explore the data, which aligned with the objectives of the qualitative phase. **Thematic analysis** was employed to explore the potential existence, nature, formation, and outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands, the existence of acculturation among immigrant consumers, and its potential effects on such relationships. Also, self-signalling theory and consumer acculturation theory were adopted to provide a coherent explanatory lens for the relationships among the constructs and propositions examined in this thesis.

Aligned with a post-positivist viewpoint (Boyatzis, 1998) and leveraging its key advantage (i.e., flexibility), **thematic analysis** was deemed a suitable method for analysing Study 1. Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting themes within the data (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun & Clarke, 2023). It categorises data into meaningful themes that emerge from the transcripts, allowing researchers to explore the experiences, meanings and perceived reality of participants (Braun & Clark, 2006). Its flexible and iterative logic further allows researchers to move recursively between the data and relevant literature, refining codes and themes to support a rigorous and thorough analysis (Clark & Braun, 2017). In line with the post-positivist stance, the analysis recognises the researcher's active and potentially influential role in interpreting the data. Accordingly, the relevance of a theme was determined by the researcher's judgment and its ability to provide valuable insights to the research questions, rather than by its occurrence frequency (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). Overall, thematic analysis is appropriate for analysing the qualitative data in this research.

Thematic analysis follows an **iterative procedure** (Braun & Clarke, 2006), commencing with inductive coding and continuing with a deductive approach (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). After repeated readings of the transcripts, the researcher generated an initial set of codes and analytic notes to capture interesting and relevant ideas in the data. Codes are then organised into meaningful groups, while retaining the surrounding text to preserve the contextual meaning of extracts. Themes and sub-themes are developed by examining patterns across coded material and were refined against criteria of internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity, i.e., data within a theme were meaningfully coherent, and themes were clearly distinguishable from one another (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A document including the definitions of the codes was created to ensure that themes and subthemes are relevant and

different. Throughout the analysis, theme development occurred through repeated cycles of revisiting the data and engaging with the literature. When necessary, codes are revised or refined to ensure that the themes are clear, consistent, and logically structured (Vaismoradi et al., 2013). This back-and-forth process continues until each theme is well supported by the data and provides a strong and coherent explanation of the findings. The themes are then carefully reviewed to confirm that they accurately reflected participants' accounts.

With respect to analytic orientation, this thesis adopts abduction as its main mode of reasoning. **Abductive** analysis iteratively moves between empirical data and existing theory to identify themes and develop theoretically plausible interpretations of observed patterns (Khurshid et al., 2026), consistent with a post-positivist stance and well suited to the study's aims. Specifically, themes relating to the existence and nature of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands were developed primarily inductively, given the limited prior research examining this phenomenon (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Themes concerning drivers and outcomes combined inductive and deductive logics: some constructs were informed by established consumer-brand relationship literature, while other constructs emerged from the data. The themes related to acculturation were initially identified inductively from participants' narratives. Consistent with the view that qualitative analysis is unavoidably interpretive, the study acknowledges that the researcher's prior knowledge may shape what is noticed and foregrounded (Joffe & Yardley, 2004). An abduction strategy was deemed suitable for producing a systematic and theoretically meaningful analysis.

As the study involved three cultural groups, the analysis was first conducted separately for each group, following the data collection sequence. Analysing each group on its own ensured that the analysis of one group did not influence the others. For each group, the coding process started afresh, meaning that existing codes from the previous groups were not applied to the current group. This approach allowed the researcher to capture the unique characteristics and patterns of each cultural group without creating bias or assumptions derived from earlier analyses.

After completing **three separate analyses**, the results were integrated into a coherent overall framework. It involved a three-step process:1) **Identifying and merging overlapping codes** across the three groups. Related excerpts were consolidated to avoid redundancy while preserving the breadth of data; 2) **Grouping codes into themes within each cultural group**, then integrating the three sets of themes into one unified thematic structure that reflected

both convergence and divergence across cultures; and 3) **Ensuring cultural distinctiveness** by retaining insights unique to each cultural group. Special attention was paid to preserving the unique cultural nuances and insights specific to each cultural group, ensuring the distinct perspectives of each cultural group were accurately represented in the integrated framework. This strategy allowed the analysis to remain both coherent across cultural groups and sensitive to cultural diversity, producing a robust and culturally informed set of qualitative findings.

After the data were organised into themes, they were further organised through the lenses of **self-signalling theory and consumer acculturation theory**, both of which were justified as appropriate frameworks in Chapter 3. Self-signalling theory was used to explain how immigrant consumers may express aspects of their internal self-concept through external consumption or actions towards home brands. Acculturation theory was used to explain how differences in immigrants' adaptation to the host culture shape their subsequent passions, attitudes, and behaviours toward these brands (Miocevic & Zdravkovic, 2020). The specific application of these two theories is explained in Chapter 5.

4.4.Trustworthiness of the Qualitative Research

To ensure the rigour and trustworthiness of the qualitative component, some methodological strategies were incorporated throughout the data collection and analysis process (Gioia et al., 2013). They were employed to improve and strengthen the rigour and trustworthiness of the research findings in line with a post-positivist research stance, which emphasises systematic inquiry, transparency, and cautious interpretation of qualitative evidence (McGregor, 2018).

Self-reflection was embedded throughout the research process to minimise researcher bias and enhance methodological integrity (Hadi & Closs, 2016). This strategy referred to the researcher's ongoing critical self-examination of how their personal values and past training may affect the decisions and interpretations of data (Long & Johnson, 2000). Reflexive practices were applied across key stages of the project. During interview development, the interview guide was revised in response to supervisory feedback; after 12 revisions, potentially leading or unambiguous items were removed or reworded to minimise unintentional effect on participants' responses, ensuring the integrity of the data collection process (Gioia et al., 2013). During data collection and analysis phases, the researcher kept

a reflexive journal to document and reflect on personal assumptions and potential biases, thereby increasing the transparency and credibility of the analysis.

Credibility was further supported within the data collection phase through participant recruiting strategy and ethically grounded interview practices. A purposive technique was employed to recruit participants who were well-positioned to address the research questions, specifically, immigrants living in the UK with certain knowledge and experience related to the topic (Naderifar et al., 2017). During interviews, participants were encouraged to speak freely and were explicitly reminded that there were no right or wrong answers. They were also assured that they could withdraw from the study at any stage without explanation (Shenton, 2004). These procedures fostered an open and comfortable environment, reducing the likelihood of socially desirable responses and ensuring the data reflected participants' genuine views.

Peer debriefing was employed to strengthen the credibility and trustworthiness of data analysis (Nguyen, 2008). This method involves ongoing critical dialogue with peers who are not directly involved in the study, to scrutinise methodological choices, analytic procedures, and emerging interpretations (Hadi & Closs, 2016). During the data collection and analysis phases, the researcher engaged in regular supervision meetings, approximately 4 to 5 times per month, in which procedures for participant recruitment, coding and theme development were presented and critically examined. Supervisors offered detailed feedback, questioned interpretations, and assessed methodological transparency, serving as an external check on the truthfulness and coherence of the evolving analysis (Hadi & Closs, 2016).

4.5.Ethical Considerations for the Qualitative Research

Ethics approval for interviews was sought from the College of Social Science Research Committee, University of Glasgow, and the ethics approval number is 400230152. The project adopted an ethical position that assumes the researchers observe and protect the rights of would-be participants and systematically act to permit participants to exercise those rights. To this end, the interviews began by reminding the interviewees of the general purpose of the study, along with the core themes of the interview. To reduce bias, the principal objective of the research was not shared with the participants. A Participant Information Sheet was provided to help them understand the content of the interview. When participants (over 18

years old) agreed to take part in the study, a Consent Form was signed upon the interviewee's agreement.

Participants were advised that confidentiality would be granted according to the regulations of the University of Glasgow Ethics Committee. It was also explained that the interview should not be longer than 1 hour, and they would be free to opt out at any time without redress. In addition, informants could request additional clarification about the process of the study if needed. Interview data were stored in the researcher's computer, which is password-protected. The researcher will permanently delete the collected electronic data upon receiving the PhD degree and completing the related publication in 10 years.

4.6.Chapter summary

The chapter details the steps followed in the planning and execution of the qualitative study. This study recruited 31 participants using purposive and snowball techniques. Interviewees are adult immigrants from China, Turkey and Poland, who have resided in the UK for more than five years, and who admitted having loved/hated home brands, were willing to share their past stories, experiences, thoughts and emotions towards them.

Thematic analysis is used to systematically identify, analyse and interpret patterns of ideas and meaning (common points or 'themes') of existence, nature, formation and outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands, and the potential existence of acculturation among immigrants. Actions to guarantee credibility and confirmability of the qualitative study (Hadi & Closs, 2016) are implemented in data collection and analysis stages, in line with the post-positivist paradigm. Finally, ethical considerations for conducting interviews are discussed, and the ethics approval number is provided.

The appropriate design of the qualitative phase is valuable for the current study to gain rich insight into the immigrant consumer-brand relationship phenomenon (existence, formation and outcomes), and the potential existence of acculturation among immigrant consumers, and its potential effects on immigrant consumer-brand relationships.

Chapter 5. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

5.1.Introduction

This chapter presents the conceptual model by integrating insights from the qualitative stage (detailed in **Appendix 15**) and the scoping review of consumer-brand relationship research (Chapter 2). The model specifies the nomological network of immigrant consumer-brand relationships, including its antecedents, moderators, and consequences. These hypothesised relationships are then tested using quantitative data, with the results reported in Chapters 7 and 8.

5.2.Justification of conceptual model development

Construct selection for Study 2-4 (model testing) followed a structured process. Factors identified in the scoping review of consumer-brand relationship and those emerging from the qualitative phase were organised. Conceptual definitions and supporting references of these constructs were provided in Section 2.2 (Tables 4, 5, and 6), alongside the qualitative findings and construct definitions (Appendix 15). Model development was further guided by self-signalling theory and acculturation theory.

Each construct was evaluated against pre-specified **inclusion and exclusion criteria**, applied to both drivers and outcomes. The **first inclusion criterion** was that the construct is supported by both the literature review and the qualitative findings. The **second inclusion criterion** was that the construct emerged from the qualitative phase as a potentially novel construct, even if insufficiently explored in prior studies. The **third inclusion criterion** was that the construct is aligned with the theoretical frameworks employed in this study. Retained constructs were then screened further against the exclusion criteria. The **first exclusion criterion** was whether the construct was conceptually tautological with other constructs in the conceptual model, and the **second exclusion criterion** was whether the construct lacked salience for consumers with mixed and shifting identities (here, immigrant consumers).

The **first two inclusion criteria** were established to ensure the model is anchored in established research, while incorporating potentially novel insights that emerged from the exploratory qualitative phase (Earp & Ennett, 1991; Ulaga et al., 2021). The **third inclusion criterion** was established to ensure that the included constructs align with the self-signalling

theory and acculturation theory. These two theories were used to elucidate the underlying mechanisms of immigrant consumer-brand relationships and to guide the specification of relationships among constructs (Imenda, 2014). The **two exclusion criteria** were intended to strengthen the model's conciseness and construct distinctiveness (Ulaga et al., 2021) and to ensure the model focuses on factors that are substantively meaningful within the focal research context (Earp & Ennett, 1991).

5.2.1. Selection of antecedents in the conceptual model

Construct selection proceeded in two key stages: screening in constructs that meet the inclusion criteria, followed by screening out those that are conceptually tautological or not salient to immigrant-specific mechanisms. First, constructs supported by both the literature review and the qualitative findings were retained, including consumer-related assessment (self-congruity), memory/experience-based drivers (nostalgia and sensory experience), and brand assessment-related drivers (affordable price and good design, perceived good quality, perceived value for cost, discrepancy of advertising of brand promise, and overuse of patriotism-based advertising). Second, additional constructs that emerged from the qualitative phase are included, comprising consumer-belief drivers (consumer ethnocentrism and tradition) and one COO driver (brand origin salience) (Table 14).

Further, self-signalling theory serves as one of the key theories underpinning this study (see Section 3.5.1), which suggests that individuals use brand choices as channels through which to express aspects of themselves (Kolanska-Stronka et al., 2023). In this thesis, the theory helps explain the **overarching logic** of the research model (Sandberg & Alvesson, 2021), thereby supporting the inclusion of certain drivers such as brand origin salience, consumer ethnocentrism, self-congruity, and nostalgia. Collectively, these constructs capture identity-relevant cues and internal meanings associated with immigrant consumers' self-concepts (Chieng et al., 2022), personal beliefs, and homeland-related memories (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022), whereas their choices to consume home brands constitute external behaviours through which these meanings may be affirmed and expressed. Accordingly, these constructs were considered consistent with the self-signalling theory and were retained for further assessment (Table 15).

Some constructs were excluded based on the **exclusion criteria**. Tradition was excluded because it referred to a personal cultural orientation representing one's respect for traditional

values and customs (Sharma, 2010), which was judged to be conceptually overlapping with ethnocentrism, as both reflect one's belief toward the home culture. Sensory experience, affordable price and good design, perceived quality, and perceived value for cost were excluded because they represented broadly applicable constructs rather than immigrant-specific mechanisms, and therefore were considered less salient in explaining the formation of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. Discrepancy between advertising and brand promise, and overuse of patriotism-based marketing, were excluded because they mainly capture consumers' perceptions of brands' communications. These effects might be situational and short-lived; thus, they did not adequately reflect the more enduring cognitive processes through which immigrants develop relationships with brands (Table 15).

These inclusion and exclusion criteria result in 4 drivers: **Consumer ethnocentrism** (consumer beliefs), **brand origin salience** (COO-related knowledge), **nostalgia** (reflections of memories and experience), and **self-congruity** (consumer-related assessment).

Based on the drivers retained, the researcher distinguishes between **distal** and **proximal** drivers, consistent with terminology used in prior consumer-brand relationship research (Rahman et al., 2021). **Distal drivers** are underlying, root-cause factors (e.g., one's beliefs, personalities, or knowledge) that cannot be influenced by brand management efforts directly. **Proximal drivers** are more malleable, such as brand-related assessments and reflections that can be affected by brand management efforts more directly (Liu & Chen, 2024).

Ethnocentrism and **brand origin salience** can be considered as **distal drivers**, assumed to influence consumer-brand relationships indirectly. Ethnocentrism refers to consumers' beliefs in favouring their own culture, reflecting personal characteristics. Brand origin salience is "*the extent to which consumers recognise the brand origin*" (Shi et al., 2024, p.2), which is typically determined by consumers' knowledge about the brand or the country. Such consumer **beliefs and knowledge** are relatively stable during one's lifetime and are not shaped by brand activities directly (Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015); thus, they can be classified as distal drivers.

By contrast, **self-congruity** and **nostalgia** can be considered as **proximal drivers**, assumed to affect consumer-brand relationships directly. Self-congruity is the extent of alignment between consumers' self-concept and their perception of the brand's reputation. Nostalgia is

defined as consumers' memories triggered by past experiences with the focal brand (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022). Both represent consumers' **assessments** of the brand (Sirgy, 2018) and a **reflection** of brand-related memories (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022). Forming such assessments or reflections often requires consumers to benchmark their own characteristics with the brand, or to draw on brand knowledge (Veloutsou, 2024). And such appraisals may subsequently facilitate brand relationships and inspire further actions (Veloutsou, 2024). Thus, self-congruity and nostalgia can be positioned as **proximal drivers** that are affected by distal drivers, in turn, affect immigrant consumer-brand relationships.

Overall, the formation process in the conceptual model is structured into two sequential phases. It starts from **consumer ethnocentrism and brand origin salience (distal drivers)**, and proceeds to **self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers).**

Table 14. **Presence of antecedents based on the literature review and qualitative findings**

	Literature review		Qualitative findings	
	Positive antecedents	**Negative antecedents**	**Positive antecedents**	**Negative antecedents**
Consumer-related assessment	**Self-brand congruity**	**Self-brand incongruity**	**Self-alignment with home brands**	-
	Self-expressiveness	**Negative stereotypes of users of the brand**	-	-
	Consumer-brand identification	**Symbolic incongruity**	-	-
	Value congruence		-	-
	-	**Ideology incompatibility**	-	-
	Brand coolness	-	-	-
	Self-brand connection	-	-	-
Consumer values orientation	**Materialism**	-	-	-
	Symbolism	-	-	-
	Ethnic identification	-	-	-
Consumer beliefs	-	-	**Ethnocentrism**	-
	-	-	**Tradition**	-
Reflections of past experiences	**Nostalgia**	-	**Nostalgia**	-
	Impression in memory	-	-	-
	Brand experience	-	**Positive sensory experience**	**Negative sensory experience**
Consumer personality	-	**Extroversion**	-	-
	-	**Neuroticism**	-	-
	(-) Agreeableness	-	-	-
Consumer emotions	**Emotional wellbeing**	**User's inward negative emotions**	-	-
	Consumer happiness		-	-
	Customer gratitude		-	-
	Customer delight		-	-
Brand attributes	**Brand identity**	-	-	-
	Brand anthropomorphism	-	-	-
	Brand personality	-	-	-
Brand-related motions	**Brand attachment**	-	-	-
	Affective brand experience	-	-	-
	Brand affection	-	-	-
	Brand passion	-	-	-
	Brand centrality	-	-	-

	Literature review		Qualitative findings	
	Positive antecedents	Negative antecedents	Positive antecedents	Negative antecedents
COO-related	-	-	Brand origin salience	-
Brand-related behaviour	Brand involvement	-	-	-
	Brand engagement	-	-	-
	Continued usage intentions	-	-	-
	-	Willingness to punish brands	-	-
	Customer participation	-	-	-
Brand-related Perceptions & Assessments	Brand image	Negative brand image	-	-
	Brand credibility	-	-	-
	Brand authenticity	Brand inauthenticity	-	-
	Brand popularity	-	-	-
	Brand uniqueness	-	-	-
	Brand distinctiveness	-	-	-
	Brand modernity	-	-	-
	-	Negative brand reputation	-	-
	Brand prestige	-	-	-
	Propensity to anthropomorphise	-	-	-
	Product design evaluation	-	Affordable price and good design	-
	Brand trust	-	-	-
	Perceived quality	-	Perceived good quality	Perceived poor quality
	Perceived brand value	-	Perceived value for the cost	-
	Affordability	Violation of expectations/ Brand betrayal	-	Discrepancy of advertising of brand promise; Overuse of patriotism-based mkt
	Brand attitude	-	-	-
	Brand satisfaction	Brand dissatisfaction	-	-
	-	Post-Purchase Service Failure	-	-
	Procedural justice	Perceived injustice	-	-
	Positive crisis response evaluation	-	-	-
	-	Perceived price unfairness	-	-
Brand social responsibility	Social support	Lack of Corporate social performance	-	-
	Sustainable marketing	Lack of Corporate social responsibility	-	-
	-	Corporate wrongdoings	-	-

Table 15. **Inclusion and exclusion of antecedents based on the criteria**

Antecedents (Both positive & negative)	Inclusion Criteria			Exclusion criteria		Include?
	Supported by Literature & Qualitative Data	Emergent ONLY from Qualitative Phase	Aligned with the theoretical lenses	Conceptually Tautological	Low Salience for Immigrant Consumers	
Ethnocentrism		√	√			√
Tradition		√	√	x		x
Brand origin recognition		√	√			√
Affordable price and good design	√				x	x
Perceived quality	√				x	x
Perceived value for the cost	√				x	x
Discrepancy of advertising of brand promise	√				x	x
Overuse of patriotism-based advertisement	√				x	x
Self-alignment with home brands	√		√			√
Nostalgia	√		√			√
Sensory experience	√				x	x

5.2.2. Inclusion of a moderator in the conceptual model

Both the **qualitative findings** (see Appendix 15 for detailed analysis) and the **consumer acculturation theory** suggested the inclusion of "stage of consumer acculturation" as a moderator in the conceptual model. The qualitative analysis indicated that participants who have a higher current acculturation level to the host culture tend to show weaker connections with, and lower engagement in, home brands. In contrast, those at a lower current stage of acculturation more frequently draw on home brands as symbolic resources to maintain self-continuity.

This decision was also theoretically grounded in consumer acculturation theory (Berry, 2008), which is one of the key theories adopted in this research (see Section 3.5.2). This theory explains how individuals from one cultural background gradually adapt to and internalise aspects of another culture, with such acculturative processes shaping their cultural orientations, perceptions, and behaviours (Ibarra-Cantu & Cheetham, 2021). Consistent with this perspective, prior research suggests that as immigrants become more acculturated, their consumption orientations and responses to heritage-related marketplace cues may change, as they increasingly incorporate elements of the host culture into their identities and consumption practices (Kizgin et al., 2018). Consequently, heritage-based cues or home culture-related beliefs may become less central or less influential in influencing **self-concept-related** evaluations (e.g., self-congruity) and memories (e.g., **nostalgia**) in relation to the home country among highly acculturated immigrants. Accordingly, stage of acculturation was included as a moderator in the conceptual model and was expected to negatively moderate the effects of ethnocentrism and brand origin salience (distal drivers) on self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers) in the conceptual model.

5.2.3. Selection of consequences in the conceptual model

The procedure for selecting consequence constructs was similar to the approach used in Section 6.2.1. First, constructs identified from both the **literature review** and the **qualitative phase** are included. These included 5 brand-related behavioural outcomes (brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion, WPP, non-repurchase intention, voluntary sharing behaviour), and two outcomes related to consumer perceived value (sense of belonging and inner self-expressiveness). Second, an additional outcome that emerged from the qualitative analysis

was considered for inclusion: perceived irreplaceability, which also reflects consumers' perceived value.

Further, **self-signalling theory** supports the inclusion of these consequence constructs because consumption-related behaviours and psychological outcomes can represent key mechanisms through which immigrants express, validate and reinforce their self-concepts. Self-signalling theory suggests that individuals use their choices and behaviours as signals to express and communicate aspects of who they are (Weele & Siemens, 2020). For immigrant consumers, engagement with home brands may function as a symbolic action through which individuals maintain connections with their heritage culture, express their cultural identities, and reinforce a sense of continuity between their memories. Thus, behavioural outcomes such as brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion, and willingness to pay a price premium reflect consumers' willingness to engage with brands that carry identity-related meanings. Similarly, perceived value outcomes (e.g., sense of belonging, inner self-expressiveness, and perceived irreplaceability) capture the extent to which home brands provide symbolic and emotional value by supporting immigrant consumers' expression of self-concept and psychological attachment. Based on this criterion, these outcomes were considered consistent with self-signalling theory and were retained for further assessment.

Finally, within the retained set of consequence constructs, non-repurchase intention and voluntary sharing behaviour were excluded because they were considered tautological with purchase intention and WOM persuasion, respectively (Tables 16 and 17).

Table 16. **Presence of outcomes based on the literature review and qualitative findings**

	Literature review		Qualitative findings	
	Positive outcomes	**Negative outcomes**	**Positive outcomes**	**Negative outcomes**
Brand-related behaviour	**Brand purchase intention**	**Brand switching intention**	**Brand purchase intention**	-
		Non-purchase intention	-	
	Brand repurchase intention	**Brand non-repurchase intention**	-	**Non-repurchase intention**
	-	-	**Extension purchase intention**	-
	Positive Word-of-Mouth	**Negative Word-of-Mouth**	**Positive persuasion intention**	**Negative persuasion intention**
	Positive electronic Word-of-Mouth	**Negative electronic Word-of-Mouth**	-	-
	-	**Complaining**	-	-
	-	**Private complaining**	**Voluntary sharing behaviour**	-
	Brand advocacy	**Public complaining**	-	-
	Brand evangelism	-		-
	Willingness to pay a price premium	-	**Willingness to pay a price premium**	-
	Cross-buying intention	-	-	-
	Brand extension purchase intention	-	-	-
	Brand engagement	**Negative brand engagement**	-	-
	Brand forgiveness	**Brand retaliation**	-	-
	Acceptance of wrongdoing/ Brand forgiveness	**(-) Willingness to forgive the brand**	-	-
	Resistance to negative information	**Join anti-brand communities/ Anti-brand action**	-	-
	-	**Brand cancellation**	-	-
	Brand defence	**Brand protest/Boycott**	-	-
	-	**Brand sabotage**	-	-
	-	**Brand avoidance**	-	-
	-	**Brand revenge**	-	-
	Brand loyalty	**Patronage reduction/cessation**	-	-
	Brand patronage	-	-	-
	Intention to co-create value	-	-	-
	Intention to contribute	-	-	-
	Intention to create brand-related contents	-	-	-
	Intention to use	-	-	-
	-	-	-	-
	(-) Propensity to leave	-	-	-
	Brand addiction	-	-	-
	Museum visit intention	-	-	-
	Social media engagement	-	-	-

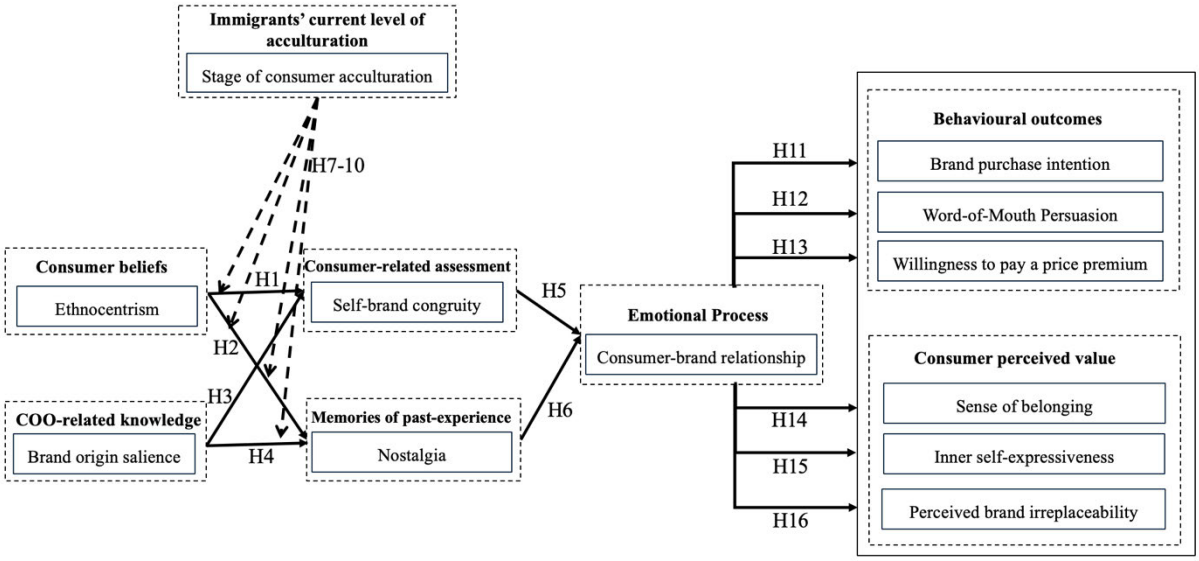
	Literature review		Qualitative findings	
	Positive outcomes	Negative outcomes	Positive outcomes	Negative outcomes
Consumer perceived value	Hedonic well-being	-	-	-
	Self-esteem	-	Inner self-expressiveness	-
	Sense of connectedness	-	Sense of belonging	-
	-	-	Perceived irreplaceability	-
Brand-related Cognition	Perceived brand quality	-	-	-
	Brand satisfaction	-	-	-
	Brand trust	-	-	-
	Brand commitment	-	-	-
	Brand transparency perceptions	-	-	-
	Extension evaluation	-	-	-
	Interactional justice	-	-	-
	Procedural Justice	-	-	-
	Distributive Justice	-	-	-
	Macro country image	-	-	-
Brand-related Emotion	Obsessive passion	-	-	-
	Brand addiction	-	-	-
	Brand jealousy	-	-	-
	Brand attachment	-	-	-
	Psychological engagement	-		

Table 17. **Inclusion and exclusion of consequences based on the criteria**

Consequences (Both positive & negative)	Inclusion Criteria			Exclusion criteria		Include?
	Supported by Literature & Qualitative Data	Emergent ONLY from Qualitative Phase	Aligned with the theoretical lenses	Conceptually Tautological	Low Salience for Immigrant Consumers	
Brand purchase intention	√		√			√
Non-repurchase intention	√		√	x		x
Extension purchase intention	√		√	x		x
Persuasion intention	√		√			√
Voluntary sharing behaviour	√		√	x		x
Willingness to pay a price premium	√		√			√
Inner self-expressiveness	√		√			√
Sense of belonging	√		√			√
Perceived irreplaceability		√	√			√

After the selection of antecedents, moderator, and consequences of immigrant consumer-brand relationships based on the literature review and the qualitative study, the conceptual model was developed, which comprised 16 hypotheses and 12 constructs (see **Figure 1**).

Figure 1. Conceptual model



5.3.Research hypotheses: Antecedents of immigrant consumer-brand relationships

This section develops a coherent set of hypotheses explaining how immigrant consumers form relationships with home brands. The model distinguishes between **distal** and **proximal** drivers. Consumer ethnocentrism and brand origin salience (distal drivers) represent consumer values and knowledge that influence how home brands are noticed and interpreted. As such, they are assumed to affect the two proximal drivers (**H1-H4**). Self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers) capture consumers' assessments and reflections, which are assumed to influence the immigrant consumer-brand relationships directly (**H5-H6**).

5.3.1. Ethnocentrism and Self-congruity

Conceptually, definitions of **ethnocentrism** can be categorised into three key themes: (1) one's morality and beliefs towards purchasing their home brands (De Ruyter et al., 1998; Ferguson et al., 2008; Klein, 2002; Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013; Witek-Hajduk & Grudecka, 2022; Shimp, 1984; Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Yang & Paladino, 2015); (2) one's perception of their own group as the central of the universe (Carvalho et al., 2019; Cleveland &

Balakrishnan, 2018; Cleveland & McCutcheon; 2022); and (3) one's feelings of national pride (Kinra, 2006; Le et al., 2013).

The three conceptual categories above emphasise home-brand purchasing behaviour (category 1), a broad worldview asserting the superiority or centrality of one's home country (category 2), or one's expressions of national pride (category 3). These perspectives are not suitable for the context of this research, nor do they align with the theoretical lens of self-signalling theory, which is applied to explain how individuals signal their **self-concepts**, rooted in their **internal beliefs**, through observable, external consumption behaviours (Toteva et al., 2024; Kolanska-Stronka et al., 2023). Thus, in line with self-signalling theory, this thesis defines ethnocentrism as *consumers' beliefs in favouring their own culture*.

Self-congruity is another key concept in the marketing literature, and its conceptual definitions vary considerably across the literature. Despite this diversity, the core ideas generally fall into four key conceptualisations: (1) An alignment between one's self-concept and brand image or personality (Chieng et al., 2022; Eastman et al., 2021; Japutra et al., 2019; Kumar & Kaushik, 2022; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2020; Rabbanee et al., 2020; Sirgy et al., 2000; Sirgy, 1982, 1985). (2) A consistency between a consumer's self-concept and perceived image of the typical brand user (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004; Kumagai & Nagasawa, 2017; Sirgy, 1986; Sirgy et al., 1997); (3) A consistency between different dimensions of consumer's self-concept (e.g., actual, ideal, social, ideal social self) and brand's personality or image (Sirgy & Jorhar, 1999; Sirgy et al., 2008; Kressmann et al., 2006); (4) In tourism domain, it is defined as the correspondence between one's self-image and the image of a destination (Sirgy et al., 1997; Chen et al., 2021; Pratt & Sparks, 2014; Sirgy & Su, 2000). As this thesis did not investigate tourism contexts, the fourth category is excluded.

Across the above perspectives, most definitions centre on the congruence between one's self-concept and a brand's image. Notably, the commonly cited definition of brand image as "*the sum of a customer's perceptions about a brand generated by the interaction of the cognitive, affective, and evaluative processes in a customer's mind*" (Lee et al., 2014, p.8), more closely reflects the broader construct of brand reputation. Evidence from the qualitative findings also supports this interpretation. For instance, C03-F4-37 expresses: "*I like* [Want Want]*, because it's about what it represents, like a part of your identity, right? It's tied to all the memories and feelings you have from your youth and align with who you are.*" The

reference to "**all** the memories and feelings" indicated that her assessments towards her home brand are grounded in **accumulated** emotional and experiential perceptions of this brand, which extend beyond brand image and **reflect brand reputation**.

Based on the existing literature and qualitative data, this research defines **self-congruity** as the *consistency between a consumer's self-concept and the brand's reputation*. Definitions of self-concept and brand reputation are provided in Section 2.3.1.

Existing studies establish the relationship between ethnocentrism and self-congruity, which argues that consumers with strong ethnocentric orientations tend to perceive domestic/local brands as more congruent with their self-concept (Shu & Strombeck, 2017; Shu et al., 2013). Local brands are perceived as more traditional because they link to home culture and symbols (Schuiling & Kapferer, 2004). When consumers' ethnocentric tendencies are more salient, they tend to interpret brand symbolism through the lens of self-congruity: local brands that express domestic authenticity are perceived as congruent with the consumer's self-concept (Shu et al., 2013). Ethnocentric individuals thus experience a heightened sense of self-congruity with local brands, as these brands embody the cultural or traditional narratives that construct their self-concept (Shu & Strombeck, 2017). In sum, the stronger the consumer's ethnocentric tendencies, the more likely they are to perceive domestic brands as highly aligned with their self-concept (Shu & Strombeck, 2017).

The relationship between ethnocentrism and self-congruity may further apply to immigrant consumers. From qualitative findings, participants mention that they perceive it as congruent with their home brand, as they emphasised their own culture (C07-F8-30: "*I felt* [Lee Kum Kee] *fit who I am, as it connects Chinese culture, culinary culture, habits and my heritage*"). Based on both the literature and the qualitative findings, it can be assumed:

H_1: Consumer ethnocentrism is positively associated with self-congruity.

5.3.2. Ethnocentrism and Nostalgia

Nostalgia is understood as a reflection of memories, emotions, and thoughts (Ford et al., 2018) that are linked to, or triggered by, a specific brand (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022). Most existing definitions adopt a neutral stance regarding nostalgia, such as "*memories triggered by previous experiences with, exposure to, or past use of the focal brand*" (Banerjee &

Shaikh, 2022, p.1007), or as "*a reflection of the past comprised of memories, emotions and thoughts related to the consumer's lived or idealized experiences with the brand*" (Ford et al., 2018, p.20). Other conceptualisations capture the positive valence of nostalgia (Grappi et al., 2024), defining it as "*positive remnants of the past that people enjoy revisiting*" (p.6).

This study does not seek to distinguish between positive and negative nostalgic valence. Instead, the focus is on whether home-brand-related memories are activated and the extent to which they are recalled. This approach is also supported by the qualitative findings, where participants describe nostalgia mainly through memories (C02-F1-30: "*Whenever I see* [HOLILAND]*, I'm reminded of the good times, it has memories of me and my good friends*," T06-F16-29: *"*[Yumos] *reminds me* [of] *home and they take me back to my childhood and happy moments*"). Based on both the literature and qualitative findings, **nostalgia** is defined as *consumers' memories triggered by past experiences with the focal brand* (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022).

As ethnocentrism refers to consumers' beliefs in favouring their own culture, ethnocentric people are likely to favour their own culture and to value products, symbols, and practices associated with it (Crespo & Velgan, 2025). For immigrants, a stronger preference for their home culture may increase the emotional significance of home brands, as these brands embody familiar cultural meanings and connections to the homeland (Liu & Zhang, 2026). Thus, home brands may become powerful reminders of the past and evoke stronger nostalgic responses.

Qualitative findings reveal that immigrant consumers who value their home culture, or hold **ethnocentric** tendencies, are more likely to have **nostalgic** feelings towards home brands. In other words, immigrants who actively preserve their own culture/values tend to associate their home brands with meaningful memories in the past. For example, P01-F2-41 shares, *"I feel a connection to my Polish culture and carry a piece of it with me",* then mentions, *"when I see* [LORENZ], *when I eat it, I will always think of my past."* Similarly, C10-F10-33 shares that her home culture remained an integral part of her inner self: *"my home culture is always with me",* then mentions her home brand: "[BYD] *is linked to a sense of nostalgia, because I've actually been in the UK for a particularly long time, and I still miss China quite a bit."* In sum, it can be assumed that:

H_2: Consumer ethnocentrism is positively associated with nostalgia.

5.3.3. Brand origin salience and Self-congruity

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the conceptual definition of "brand origin salience" is limited in the existing research. To date, Shi et al. (2024, p.2) provide one of the few explicit definitions, describing it as "*the extent to which consumers recognise the brand origin*". A similar construct is "brand origin recognition accuracy", which Samiee et al. (2005) defined it as "*consumers' ability to recognise brand origin*" (p.382); or "Brand origin recall accuracy", defined as "*consumers' ability to recall the origin of the brands they are aware of*" (Abdellah-Kilani & Zorai, 2019, p. 469). Building on this distinction, this study adopted Shi et al.'s (2024, p.2) definition of brand origin salience, as it clearly captures the prominence of brand origin in the consumer's mind, also, it is broader than recognition accuracy (Abdellah-Kilani & Zorai, 2019; Samiee et al., 2024), allowing for a more nuanced exploration of consumer awareness rather than mere correctness. Within this definition, "brand origin" is defined as "*the country where the final product is manufactured*" (Ha-Brookshire & Yoon, 2012, p.446; see Section 2.4.2).

Self-congruity refers to the extent of consistency between a consumer's self-concept and the brand's reputation. Consumers compare their self-concept with the brand reputation and use these brands to demonstrate their self-concept to themselves and significant others (Goi et al., 2023). It therefore plays an important role in influencing brand preferences and purchases (Aktan & Anjam, 2022).

Prior research indicates that some brands are used by consumers to satisfy their individual needs, such as actively creating and reinforcing one's self-concept, while also distinguishing themselves from others and expressing individuality (Zhao et al., 2014). For immigrants, home brands typically embody strong cultural symbols, such as shared traditions and heritage that help sustain a connection to the home culture (Walsh, 2022). The symbolic meanings embedded in these cultural brands might be consistent with immigrants' self-concepts; thus, such brands can operate as identity-relevant signals and cultural "bridges," supporting the reconstruction and expression of the self in the host-market context (Ewing et al., 2024). Building on this logic, the more strongly a brand communicates cues of its origin, that is, the more salient and recognisable its COO to immigrants, the greater the congruence immigrants are likely to perceive towards their home brands.

Qualitative findings further support this assumption, for example, P05-F14-28 shares, "*When I saw* [4F], *I immediately recognised it as Polish. 4F caps are usually red, the logo is white, and the Polish flag is red and white. This gave me a very strong impression of the brand as being, well, very 'Polish'... It fits where I come from."* C13-M7-23 expresses, "*It is easy to identify that* [Li-Ning] *is a Chinese brand because it is incorporating all these Chinese designs into their products, and it's not just about looking good, it's about feeling that connection with where you come from, my identity."* T09-M13-41 shares, "[Ottoman] *is easy to identify as Turkish, because its meaning is like the king of Turkey, the one of the make the biggest empires. That's the spirit the brand captures, that's why* [I] *feel* [it is] *meaningful and fits to me."* Based on both the literature and the qualitative findings, it can be hypothesised that:

H_3: Brand origin salience is positively associated with self-congruity.

5.3.4. Brand origin salience and Nostalgia

For many consumers, brands can serve as symbolic carriers of identity and memory, linking the present to meaningful past experiences (Zhao et al., 2014). Consistent with this symbolic role, brands that are characterised by heritage can stimulate nostalgia (Chen, 2022). Consistent with this symbolic role, brands characterised by heritage and tradition can stimulate nostalgia (Chen, 2022). This form of nostalgia is self-oriented and grounded in one's personal past, functioning as a means of extracting meaning and emotion from earlier experiences to build or strengthen an ideal self (Zhao et al., 2014). For immigrants, encountering their home brands in the host country may activate memories traced back to their past experiences with their families, old friends, or classmates. Nostalgia is an emotional reflection on past contexts or experiences, while national nostalgia is a group-level nostalgic emotion tied to memories of one's home country (Smeekes, 2019; Smeekes & Jetten, 2019). For immigrants, when a brand's origin is highly "recognisable" as their country of origin, the brand becomes a bridge that connects past experiences in the present context, thereby more readily triggering nostalgia.

The qualitative findings support that when a **brand's origin** is distinctly recognisable to its consumers, it might become a symbolic conduit that connects them to their home countries and culture. Such recognisability may **evoke nostalgia** through contextual cues, such as linguistic or cultural elements embedded in brand names or external packages. For example,

T05-M9-42 shares, "[Koton] *is a Turkish brand, it is popular and doing well. It's also easy to recognise",* then mentioned, *"whenever I see* [Koton]*, I always feel a bit of nostalgia there since I've been going there since I was young*". P03-F7-32 expresses, *"when I see the* [Prince Polo's] *packaging, I am reminded of the times I spent with my family when I was a kid, and also the times when I sometimes got together with my grandparents, and we all ate these together".* C10-F10-33 shares: "*whenever I see a Chinese brand like BYD, I feel it is connected to my roots. I always choose them because they remind me of home".* Based on both the literature and the qualitative findings, it can be hypothesised that:

H_4: Brand origin salience is positively associated with nostalgia.

5.3.5. Self-congruity and Consumer-brand relationship

Existing research indicates that self-congruity plays a key role in fostering consumer-brand relationships (Do et al., 2015; Japutra et al., 2023; Klabi & Meshari, 2023; Rodrigues et al., 2024a). People are often drawn to others who resemble themselves, and similarly, consumers tend to be attracted to brands that align with their self-concept (Bargoni et al., 2024; Rahman et al., 2021). When consumers perceive the brand as consistent with their self-concept, they experience a sense of self-validation (Shimul & Phau, 2023). Such perception leads consumers to develop relationships with these brands (Wallace et al., 2017).

Such a connection may also apply to immigrant consumers, as observed from the qualitative data, some participants shared that the perceived reputation of their home brand is aligned with their self-concepts, and this perception contributed to their relationships with home brands. For example, C03-F4-37 shares that she perceived alignment with her home brands because the brand's origin fit her perceived self-concept, "*I like the brand* [Want Want]*, because it's about what it represents, like a part of your identity, right? It's tied to all the memories and feelings you have from your youth and aligns with who you are."* C05-F5-31 expresses that she loved her home brands as she felt the brand fit who she was, "[Li Ning] *incorporates all these Chinese designs into its products. It's like it has taken what we've seen around us since we were kids, taken it out of our homes, and sewn it into every product they produce. That's why I love this brand, because I think. How to say, it fits who I am, I guess".* While P05-F14-28 shares that she loved her home brands because she felt the brand story aligned with herself, *"I like the story of [Balagan], as these things are aligned for me. Okay, so I pretty much love this brand".* Thus, it can be assumed that:

H_5: Self-congruity is positively associated with consumer-brand relationships.

5.3.6. Nostalgia and Consumer-brand relationship

Existing studies establish the connection between nostalgia and consumer-brand relationship (Grappi et al., 2024; Sadeghvaziri & Shafeie, 2024). Nostalgia can represent an affective state elicited by brands that connect consumers with meaningful experiences from their past (Shields & Johnson, 2016b). When brands employ nostalgic cues, such as retro designs, storytelling, or historical symbolism, they stimulate autobiographical memory, linking consumers' past with the brand's symbolic significance (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022; Chatzipanagiotou et al., 2016). Through this process, consumers perceive the brand not as a mere commercial entity but as a meaningful part of their life stories (e.g., their families, childhood, old friends, or lovers), and feel more relevance with the brand (Chatzipanagiotou et al., 2019; Shields & Johnson, 2016a). Consequently, nostalgia transforms transactional exchanges between consumers and brands into deep emotional connections; that is to say, when a brand brings memories to the minds of consumers, it is likely for them to develop brand relationships with it (Veloutsou et al., 2020).

Such a connection **might be applicable to immigrant consumers**, whose home brands often encapsulate significant nostalgic memories, positioning nostalgia as a potential key antecedent in the formation of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. As observed from the qualitative data, C08-F9-30 expresses "like" to her home brands by highlighting their nostalgic significance: "*I like* [Acer] *because it has become part of our childhood memories".* Other participants also connected their home brands with nostalgic feelings linked to friendship (C02-F1-30: [HOLILAND] *reminds me of the good times, some memories of me and my good friends.*), childhood and shared family moments (T04-F15-23: *I feel like nostalgic. Pretty much. I've been using* [Ülker] *since my childhood*), or different stages of life (P07-M11-55: [Pudliszki] *has been around for so long that it's hard to pinpoint just one memory. It's like it's always been part of my life in one way or another, especially through different stages*). Following this line of reasoning, it can be assumed that:

H_6: Nostalgia is positively associated with consumer-brand relationships.

5.4.Research hypotheses: Moderator of Stage of consumer acculturation

This section explains how the stage of consumer acculturation was included as a moderator in the conceptual model, such that a higher level of acculturation is assumed to weaken the effects of consumer ethnocentrism and brand origin salience (distal antecedents) on the self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal antecedents) (**H7-H10**).

Research in marketing has defined **acculturation** in various ways: (1) Acculturation as an ongoing process of cultural adaptation that unfolds as individuals are exposed to and engage with a different cultural environment (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021; Bulut & Gayman, 2020; Harrison et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2016; Valenzuela et al., 2020). (2) More narrowly as assimilation into the dominant culture, sometimes implying that adaptation occurs at the expense of the individual's original cultural identity (Josiassen, 2011; Laroche et al., 2021). (3) Acculturation as changes in specific behaviours (e.g., communication practices), emphasising observable behavioural shifts rather than a holistic cultural adjustment (Barry, 2001).

The present research adopts a different analytic focus. Rather than examine acculturation as a dynamic trajectory (i.e., how adaptation develops over time), this research aims to evaluate immigrants' **current stage or level** of adaptation to the host culture at a given point in time**.** Accordingly, this research defines the **stage of consumer acculturation** as a consumer's current stage of adaptation to the host culture.

The stage of consumer acculturation is likely to affect the strength of the relationships between immigrant consumer **ethnocentrism** and (1) **self-congruity** with home brands and (2) **nostalgia** toward those brands. The literature suggests that consumers with a higher level of acculturation tend to exhibit greater openness to host-country consumption norms and demonstrate stronger preferences for host brands (Chakraborty & Sadachar, 2021). As a result, highly acculturated immigrants may hold less ethnocentric tendencies toward their home culture and gradually integrate elements of the host culture into their self-concept (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021). This diminishes the central role of home brands as anchors for self-concept, potentially weakening the perceived congruency between the self and home brands (Sirgy, 1982). Moreover, nostalgic responses toward home brands are often rooted in emotional attachment to one's homeland and memories of past cultural experiences (Tartakovsky, 2007). However, as immigrants become more acculturated, homesickness and

homeland-oriented longing tend to diminish over time (Zou & Petkanopoulou, 2023). Consequently, home brands are less likely to trigger nostalgic affect among highly acculturated consumers. The stage of acculturation thus acts as a barrier to both immigrants' ethnocentrism and their assessment and reflections on the brands from their home country. This discussion indicates that a higher level of acculturation might negatively moderate the effects of ethnocentrism on self-congruity and nostalgia associated with home brands.

The stage of consumer acculturation may also affect the strength of the relationships between **brand origin salience** and (1) **self-congruity** and (2) **nostalgia** toward home brands. Brand origin salience is the extent to which a brand's national origin is prominent in consumers' minds (Shi et al., 2024). When brand origin is highly salient, it may activate identity-related associations connected with immigrants' homeland (Ewing et al., 2024) and evoke memories associated with prior experiences in the home country (Chen, 2022), thereby strengthening perceived self-congruity and nostalgic feelings toward home brands (as discussed in Sections 5.3.3 and 5.3.4). However, as consumer acculturation level increases, immigrants' identity reference frames become more host-culture oriented and less reliant on heritage-origin cues in the marketplace (Ogada et al., 2025). Under such conditions, immigrants may perceive a diminished level of congruity with home brands. Similarly, when host-culture integration strengthens, brand origin cues are less likely to activate nostalgic affect. In sum, the stage of consumer acculturation is expected to negatively moderate the effect of brand origin salience on self-congruity and nostalgia associated with home brands.

The qualitative data also suggest that immigrant consumers' nostalgia and self-congruity are weakened when they are highly acculturated to the host culture. A representative example from the qualitative data features a first-generation Turkish immigrant (T05-M9-42), who shows a **relatively low level of acculturation**, as the participant refuses to incorporate elements of the host culture and retains significant aspects of his home culture. When asked about her home brands, he expresses that *"for me,* [Koton] *is just a part of my life,* [it is the feeling of] *home, and some good memories".* Such a description shows how the participant with a low level of acculturation is more nostalgic towards his home country.

A second example is from a first-generation Chinese immigrant, C10-F10-33, who shows a **relatively moderate acculturation level**, as the participant selectively incorporated elements of the host culture and retained certain aspects of her heritage. Then, when asked about her feelings towards her home brand, she shares, *"Whenever I see a Chinese brand*

like BYD, I feel it is connected to my roots. I always choose them because they remind me of home", as well as *"*[Temu is] *in line with who I am about myself".* For this participant, home brands evoke her memories of her home country and a certain extent of congruence with her self-concept.

A third example, from a second-generation Polish immigrant P02-F3-21, demonstrates a **relatively higher level of acculturation**, as the participant has largely adopted elements of the host culture, suggesting an assimilation-oriented approach to cultural adaptation. From the interview, all her favoured brands are from her host country (i.e., the UK). This reflects that people with a higher acculturation level may exhibit limited knowledge, assessment, or memories of their home brands.

Based on both the literature and the qualitative findings, it can be hypothesised that:

H_7: Stage of consumer acculturation will negatively moderate the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and self-congruity with home brands.

H_8: Stage of consumer acculturation will negatively moderate the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and nostalgia associated with home brands.

H_9: Stage of consumer acculturation will negatively moderate the relationship between brand origin salience and self-congruity with home brands.

H_{10}: Stage of consumer acculturation will negatively moderate the relationship between brand origin salience and nostalgia associated with home brands.

5.5.Research hypotheses: Consequences of the consumer-brand relationship

This section develops a set of hypotheses that specify the outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. The outcomes are divided into two categories: the first category is behavioural outcomes that capture consumers' actions in considerations, including brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion intention and willingness to pay a price premium (**H_{11}-H_{13}**); the second category is consumer-perceived value, reflecting the perceived benefits that consumers derive from the brand relationships, including sense of belonging, inner self-expressiveness, and perceived irreplaceability (**H_{14}-H_{16}**).

5.5.1. Consumer-brand relationship and Brand purchase intention

Most existing definitions of brand purchase intention are grounded in consumers' intention or the possibility of purchasing the brand's products or services. For example, Das (2015) defines it as "*an individual's intention to buy a product or service*" (p.182). Gomes et al. (2022) define it as "consumers' personal intention to purchase a brand product" (p.189). Wang et al. (2018) use the term "possibility" instead of "intention", defined as the possibility that consumers choose to purchase a product. Lee et al. (2017) use the terms "intention" and "possibility", and define it as "*an intention to buy or a possibility of buying the products/services*" (p.1016).

Among the various definitions of brand purchase intention, the definition by Gomes et al. (2022) is **adapted**. In this thesis, **brand purchase intention** is defined as a consumer's personal intention to purchase a brand if able (Gomes et al., 2022). This definition is selected for two reasons. First, it emphasises that "personal intention" captures this construct at the individual level, consistent with the research's aim to understand how consumers' self-related perceptions and passion toward brands affect their behavioural intentions. Second, the phrase "*if able*" is incorporated to account for contextual and capability-related constraints, such as financial limitations, product availability, or situational barriers that may inhibit the realisation of one's purchase intention. This phrase enhances conceptual precision by recognising that intention represents a motivational disposition rather than an inevitable behavioural outcome.

Existing studies establish the link between consumer-brand relationship and brand purchase intention (Madadi et al., 2022; Wong & Haque, 2022; Touni et al., 2022; Tran et al., 2022). As Suetrong et al. (2018) state, emotional bonds that consumers develop with brands show a direct influence on their purchase intention. Sarkar et al. (2012) suggest that brand love, as one of the strong, positive forms of consumer-brand relationships, can affect purchase intentions among consumers. That is to say, consumers who develop strong emotional bonds with brands are more likely to form intentions to purchase them (Pourazad et al., 2024).

Such a connection is evidenced in immigrant consumer-brand relationships and their purchase intention towards their home brands from the qualitative findings. Participants show that those who have strong relationships with their home brands are more inclined to purchase those brands in the future. For example, C05-F5-31 expresses a clear intention to

purchase a home brand when circumstances allow, *"If I back to China, I mean, if I have the opportunity, I will buy* [Li-Ning]", and T01-M3-44 shows a similar intention, *"Yes,* [VESTEL] *is expensive... but if I have money, I will buy it in the future."* Based on both literature and qualitative findings, it can be assumed that:

H_{11}: Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with purchase intention.

5.5.2. Consumer-brand relationship and WOM Persuasion intention

In this research, **WOM persuasion intention** is defined as the interpersonal communication process through which an individual influences others' purchase decisions regarding a brand (Berger, 2014). As a key function of WOM, persuasion goes beyond purely recommending a brand or sharing brand-related information, as it involves a purposeful effort to affect how others evaluate, interpret, and respond to a brand (Lei et al., 2025; Liao et al., 2024). Existing studies indicate that consumers are more likely to recommend (Van Der Westhuizen et al., 2024) or advocate for the brand (Haq et al., 2024) when they have relationships with these brands. These findings suggest that consumer-brand relationships are associated with positive WOM, but limited studies investigate whether such relationships also foster a distinct intention to persuade others to consume the brand.

From the qualitative data, it is observed that participants often attempt to affect others' purchase decisions regarding home brands with which they hold strong relationships. This indicates that WOM persuasion may be considered as a potential consequence of immigrant consumer-brand relationships. For example, C07-F8-30 states, "*I have convinced many* [of] *my local friends to buy* [products from Lee Kum Kee]*"*. Similarly, P06-M10-26 describes that he tried to convince their parents or friends to try and buy the home brand: "*I was often recommended my partners and my friends to buy it"*. P08-F18-25 even attempts to persuade the researcher during the interview: "*I really recommend you try it. I can give you one."* Thus, it can be hypothesised that:

H_{12}: Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with WOM persuasion intention.

5.5.3. Consumer-brand relationship and Willingness to pay a price premium

Conceptually, definitions of **willingness to pay a price premium** (WPP) can be organised into two main categories: (1) WPP as the amount consumers are willing to pay for a preferred brand compared with alternative brands (Can et al., 2023; Netemeyer et al., 2004); (2) WPP as the maximum or excess amount paid beyond what is considered a fair price (Casado-Díaz et al., 2020; Dwivedi et al., 2018). The **first category** emphasises **comparison**: the extent to which consumers are willing to spend more on their favoured brands relative to **substitutes**. For example, Can et al. (2023) define it as "*consumers' willingness to pay more for a brand than its alternatives*" (p.2), Netemeyer et al. (2004) define it as "*the amount a customer is willing to pay for his/her preferred brand over comparable/lesser brands of the same package size or quantity*" (p.211), underlining the preference for a specific brand despite the higher costs. The **second category** emphasises the **"maximum"** or **"excess amount"** that consumers are willing to pay, beyond the fair price. For instance, Dwivedi et al. (2018) define it as "*the maximum amount a consumer is willing to spend for a product or service*" (p.101), Casado-Díaz et al. (2020) define it as one's "*willingness to pay the excess price paid over and above the 'fair' price justified by the 'true' value of the product*" (p.774), capturing the extent to which consumers voluntarily pay more than the product's perceived fair value.

From the qualitative data, it is observed that for participants, the price premium is more like "excess price over the 'fair' price" of the brand, justified by the 'true' value of the brand, rather than the "maximum amount", or any comparison with the prices of any alternatives. For example, C12-M6-18 shares that, *"In the UK,* [HeyTea] *is really expensive, double the price of any normal milk tea, but I'm willing to pay the higher price".* This shows that consumers are not necessarily evaluating any alternatives, but instead assessing whether the additional cost aligns with the value they personally attribute to the brand. In other words, willingness to pay a price premium emerges from perceived worth and passion about the brand, rather than from a rational comparison across substitutes.

Based on the definitions from the literature and qualitative findings, the current study adapts the definition from Casado-Díaz et al. (2020), defines the willingness to pay a price premium as a *consumer's willingness to pay the excess price over the 'fair' price justified by the 'true' value of the brand*.

The existing literature on consumer-brand relationships shows that consumers who have strong relationships with the brand are willing to pay a premium price for that brand (Rahman et al., 2021; Santos & Schlesinger, 2021). Paying a price premium is often seen as a key indicator of loyalty, reflecting the consumer's valuation of the brand (Nyffenegger et al., 2015). A consumer who has strong and positive relationships with a brand is not only more likely to continue purchasing it but also willing to pay higher prices (Hemonnet-Goujot & Valette-Florence, 2022).

The qualitative data also reveal that immigrant consumers who maintain strong relationships with their home brands are willing to pay a premium for these brands while living in the host country. This willingness arises from the fact that home brands typically cost more abroad than in their country of origin; however, these consumers perceive the higher price as justified due to the emotional and cultural value they associate with the brand. For example, participants express willingness to pay a price premium for their home brands, even though the prices are higher in the host country, surpassing what they consider "fair" prices compared to those in their home country: (T04-F15-23: "*I still buy* [Ülker], *even more expensive…I think it is worth buying it"*). Thus, it can be hypothesised that:

H_{13}: Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with willingness to pay a price premium.

5.5.4. Consumer-brand relationship and Inner self-expressiveness

Conceptually, the definitions of inner self-expressiveness can be categorised into two consumer perceptions: (1) the degree to which a brand enhances one's inner self (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Mishra et al., 2022; Japutra et al., 2018); (2) the degree to which a brand aligns with one's self-concept (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019; Sharma et al., 2022). First, some definitions describe inner self-expressiveness as a means for a consumer to improve his/her inner self. For example, Mishra et al. (2021) define it as "*behaviour that suggests individuals want to act so that the action improves their inner self*" (p.4). Similarly, Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) define it as "*the degree to which the specific brand enhances one's inner self*" (p.82), while Japutra et al. (2018) define it as "*the means of communicating and reinforcing consumers' identities*" (p.192). The second perspective focuses on perceived alignment; here, inner self-expressiveness is defined as the degree to which a brand corresponds with consumers' internalised sense of who they are. Sharma et al. (2022), for example, define it

as "*the match between consumers' self-concept and the user's image of a given product, brand, store, etc*." (p.351). Similarly, Papista and Dimitriadis (2019) define it as "*the need for consistency between a brand's personality and consumer's belief system and for the respective behaviour expressing aspects of consumer's personality and portraying self-concept*" (p.82).

As observed from the qualitative data, most participants see their home brands as an expression of their inner selves. For example, C13-M7-23 shares, *"*[Li-Ning] *really helps me express who I am on the inside, like yeah, I'm Chinese."* P01-F2-41 expresses, "*It's a small but meaningful way to express my identity, like showing I am Polish".* These narratives suggest that participants see home brands not as tools for enhancing selves (Mishra et al., 2021; Japutra et al., 2018) but as reflections of their internal self-concept. Accordingly, this thesis defines **inner self-expressiveness** as *the extent to which consumers perceive a given brand to reflect and represent their inner self (*Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006).

While recent studies predominantly identify self-expressiveness as an antecedent of consumer-brand relationships (e.g., Aro et al., 2018; Babić-Hodović et al., 2023; Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019), limited studies have examined inner self-expressiveness as a potential outcome of such relationships. This perspective emphasises the symbolic function of brands in projecting an individual's identity outward, enabling them to express their values, identities, or personality through their brand choices (Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022; Sarkar & Sreejesh, 2014; Saini et al., 2023). Prior research has consistently demonstrated that when consumers perceive a brand as representative of who they are or aspire to be, they are more likely to form relationships with that brand (Aro et al., 2018; Batra et al., 2012).

From the qualitative data, it is observed that inner self-expressiveness may act as an outcome of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. For example, some participants (C13-M7-23, P01-F2-41) share that their home brands helped them express their self-identity, as shown above. Also, T04-F15-23 describes her home brand, *"*[ETI] *shows the* [Turkish] *culture, shows my identity".* C14-F12-24 shares how the values embodied by her home brand reflected her inner world, *"My deepest impression is... I remembered that Lei Jun personally stood on the stage, and news like Lei Jun personally opening the door for millet owners, which feels quite humane. This reflects [Xiaomi's] kind of grounded, pro-people corporate culture, and it's also a feeling I really like within myself. Knowing that Xiaomi was founded by such a person will make me more expressive in my choice. It's not*

just a brand, it's a reflection of my inner world." Thus, it can be presumed that inner self-expressiveness is an outcome of consumer-brand relationships:

H_{14}: Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with inner self-expressiveness.

5.5.5. Consumer-brand relationship and Sense of belonging

Conceptually, most definitions of sense of belonging are grounded in one single aspect, that is, one's feeling of affiliation or inclusion within a specific social group (Chu et al., 2019; Cao et al., 2023; Cheng & Kuo, 2015; Hang & Zhong, 2023; Miranda et al., 2023). For example, Chu et al. (2019) defined it as "*the experiences of user involvement so that the user identifies himself/herself as part of the social circles or groups*" (p.32). Similarly, Cao et al. (2023) define it as "*the experiences that a person is involved in a system or environment, wherein individuals consider themselves as an indispensable component of that system or environment*" (p.6). Cheng and Kuo (2015) define it as "*a sense of affiliation with or feeling a sense of membership with an environment*" (p.32), while Hang and Zhong (2023) define it as "*a feeling of acceptance and inclusion by a certain group*" (p.88).

Consistent with this conceptual focus, the qualitative findings also reflect this perspective. For example, C03-F4-37 shares, "[Want Want] *gives me a sense of home and allows me to feel a touch of unchanging warmth even in a foreign land".* Also, C10-F10-33 expresses, "[BYD's] *presence certainly gives me a greater sense of belonging. It's as if it's telling me that even though I was in a foreign country. My home culture is always with me, an intangible connection that is more real than anything else.*" These showed ones' feelings of inclusion and affiliation with their home country/culture relate to their home brand. Thus, this study defines **sense of belonging** as *consumers' feelings of inclusion and affiliation with a particular group or culture in relation to the brand* (Cheng & Kuo, 2015; Hang & Zhong, 2023).

Qualitative data show that for immigrant consumers, their relationships with home brands often brought them a sense of belonging to their home country or culture. As discussed above, C03-F4-37 and C10-F10-33 express that their home brands often gave them a sense of home as they had been living in the host country for a long time. P07-M11-55 expresses,

"[Pudliszki] *makes me feel a bit closer to home".* T05-M9-42 states that, *"*[Koton gives me] a *feeling of being back home, of familiarity."* Thus, it can be assumed that:

H_{15}: Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with sense of belonging.

5.5.6. Consumer-brand relationship and Perceived brand irreplaceability

Conceptually, definition of perceived brand irreplaceability can be grouped into two categories: (1) Consumers' perception of a brand's unique value (Liu & Chen, 2024; Zhang et al., 2017); and (2) The perception that the brand cannot be substituted with a similar alternative (Can & Erdil, 2018; Liu & Chen, 2024; Zhang et al., 2017). Specifically, Zhang et al. (2017) define perceived brand irreplaceability as "*consumers' perception of how the brand or product is unique and irreplaceable*" (p.99). Can and Erdil (2018) describe it as "*consumers' perception that a product cannot be replaced even with a similar product*" (p.20). Extending this notion to media contexts, Liu and Chen (2024) define it as "*the perception that media technologies all have unique values and cannot be replaced by other tools*" (p.3). Although Schifferstein and Zwartkruis-Pelgrim (2008) do not provide a conceptual definition, they emphasise that irreplaceability may stem from symbolic meaning attributed by the owner, meaning that cannot be replicated by other products, even when those products are physically identical.

A similar perspective can be observed from qualitative data, where participants share that they perceived the irreplaceability of a brand when they cannot find an equal or acceptable substitute. For example, T04-F15-23 shares, "*I can't find it equal here. That's why I need to buy the original; nothing can replace* [Ülker]". T06-F16-29 states, "*I have tried other fabric softeners than* [Flormar]*, but honestly, they don't even come close to that quality and smell".* Based on the existing definitions and qualitative findings, this thesis adapts the definition from Can and Erdil (2018), defining **perceived brand irreplaceability** as the *consumer's perception that a brand cannot be replaced even with an alike brand.*

Limited research has examined the relationship between consumer-brand relationships and perceived brand irreplaceability, especially for immigrants. However, insights from the qualitative data showed their potential significance. Participants who perceive their home brands as irreplaceable (T04-F15-23) or feel other similar brands in the same category were not even close to their home brand (T06-F16-29). This implies that perceived irreplaceability

might be considered as a potential outcome of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. Based on this, the following assumption is proposed:

H_{16}: Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with perceived irreplaceability.

Table 18. **Hypotheses**

Distal antecedents to proximal antecedents	
H_1	**Consumer ethnocentrism is positively associated with self-congruity.**
H_2	**Consumer ethnocentrism is positively associated with nostalgia.**
H_3	**Brand origin salience is positively associated with self-congruity.**
H_4	**Brand origin salience is positively associated with nostalgia.**
Proximal antecedents of consumer-brand relationships	
H_5	**Self-congruity is positively associated with consumer-brand relationships.**
H_6	**Nostalgia is positively associated with consumer-brand relationships.**
Moderators	
H_7	**Acculturation will weaken the relationship between ethnocentrism and self-congruity.**
H_8	**Acculturation will weaken the relationship between ethnocentrism and nostalgia.**
H_9	**Acculturation will weaken the relationship between brand origin salience and self-congruity.**
H_{10}	**Acculturation will weaken the relationship between brand origin salience and nostalgia.**
Outcomes of consumer-brand relationships	
H_{11}	**Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with brand purchase intention.**
H_{12}	**Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with WOM persuasion.**
H_{13}	**Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with willingness to pay a price premium.**
H_{14}	**Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with inner self-expressiveness.**
H_{15}	**Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with sense of belonging.**
H_{16}	**Consumer-brand relationship is positively associated with perceived brand irreplaceability.**

5.6.Chapter summary

This chapter introduces the conceptual model and the hypotheses developed based on the literature and qualitative findings. The chapter begins by addressing the relationships between ethnocentrism and brand origin salience (drivers), and self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers) of immigrant consumer-brand relationships. A moderator (Stage of acculturation) is established between the distal driver and proximal drivers. Followed by the links between immigrant consumer-brand relationship and its outcomes (brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion, willingness to pay a price premium, sense of belonging, inner self-expressiveness, and perceived brand irreplaceability). A total of 16 hypotheses are proposed. These hypotheses are empirically tested with quantitative data, and the processes are discussed in Chapters 6 and 7, and the final results are presented in Chapter 8.

Chapter 6. Research methodology for the Quantitative phase

6.1.Introduction

This chapter focuses on the procedures involved in questionnaire development, administration, sampling strategies, data assessment, data analysis methods, and ethical considerations. These procedures collectively ensure the methodological rigour of the quantitative findings presented in Chapters 8 and 9. The chapter starts with a description of the draft questionnaire development. It then details the data collection procedures, the multi-stage sampling approach employed for quantitative data, and the demographic profiles of the three cultural samples. Subsequently, it explains the processes of data cleaning and normality assessment, followed by an overview of the quantitative data analysis procedures. It concludes with a discussion of the ethical considerations relevant to the quantitative study.

6.2.Development of the draft questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to measure the constructs specified in the conceptual model (DeVellis, 2017). Its development involved three key stages: (1) defining the constructs within the conceptual model (see Section 5.3, 5.4, and 5.5), and identifying measurement scales from existing literature for each construct in the conceptual model; (2) adopting/adapting suitable measurement scales to reflect the conceptual definitions of each construct; (3) designing the overall structure and content of the questionnaire; (4) conducting a pre-test and pilot test of the drafted questionnaire to evaluate its clarity and suitability.

Throughout the questionnaire development process, **8 meetings** were held over six weeks with the supervisory team, each lasting approximately **2 hours**. In the first 5 meetings, the experts reviewed whether the constructs were appropriately conceptualised and assisted the adaptation or adoption of scales consistent with the conceptualisation of each construct. The remaining 3 meetings focused on refining the questionnaire introduction and overall flow, and reviewing comments from the pre-test and pilot test. Following these meetings, the final conceptualisation and operationalisation decisions were confirmed based on their fit with the research context and explanatory power, and the questionnaire was finalised for distribution.

6.2.1. Conceptualisation and operationalisation

Initially, constructs in the conceptual model were conceptualised considering different views in the existing literature, while insights from the qualitative study were also considered (see Sections 6.3, 6.4, and 6.5). The researcher conducted an extensive literature review to identify existing conceptual definitions of the selected constructs. Within this process, 124 definitions were identified, where 31 pertained to the core construct (i.e., consumer-brand relationship) (Table 3), and 93 related to the other constructs (Appendix 17, 18, and 19)

When final definitions were chosen (see Chapter 6), the next step was to operationalise the constructs by transforming them into measurable variables. This process involved searching for, reviewing, and evaluating the relevant measurement scales available in the literature. Three key criteria guided the selection of the most appropriate scale for each construct (Blaikie & Priest, 2019). First, the scale items need to be aligned with the chosen conceptual definitions and their dimensions; when necessary, they can be adapted to fit the specific context of this study (Tähtinen & Havila, 2019). Second, multi-item measures are preferred as the specificity of the items can be averaged out, enhancing distinctions among respondents, enhancing reliability and reducing measurement error (Diamantopoulos et al., 2012). To achieve higher levels of construct validity, each variable is measured by at least 2-3 items (El-Den et al., 2020). Third, scale statistics need to reflect acceptable psychometric properties, with Cronbach's alpha (α) and Composite Reliability (CR) values above 0.7, and an Average Variance Extracted (AVE) greater than 0.5 (Hair et al., 2014).

Against the above criteria, articles from high-quality journals in marketing and management which have provided valid and reliable scales of constructs were reviewed. A total of **139 existing scales** were collected and evaluated, including 43 scales for ethnocentrism and brand origin salience, self-congruity and nostalgia (antecedents), 34 for consumer-brand relationships (core construct), 12 scales for acculturation (moderator), and 60 for brand purchase intention, word-of-mouth persuasion, willingness to pay a price premium, sense of belonging, inner self-expressiveness, and perceived irreplaceability (outcomes) (Table 19).

Table 19. **Scales collected and reviewed for the constructs in the conceptual model**

Constructs	NO. of scales	Authors and Number of items
Brand origin salience	**8**	Morra et al., 2017 (6 items); Anselmsson et al., 2014 (3 items); Shi et al., 2024; Herrewijn & Poels, 2015; Magnusson et al., 2022; Samiee et al., 2005; Abdellah-Kilani & Zorai, 2019; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008 (Brand origin identification)
Ethnocentrism	**16**	Arli et al., 2021 (7 items); Mishra et al., 2023 (6 items); Rosenbaum & Wong, 2009 (5 items); Fazli-Salehi et al., 2023 (4 items); Casado-Aranda et al., 2020 (3 items); Han & Nam, 2020 (6 items); Das & Jebarajakirthy, 2020 (4 items); Shimp & Sharma, 1987 (17 items); Sharma, 2015 (18 items); Josiassen, 2011 (5 items); Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015 (17 items); Teng, 2020 (2 items); Yen, 2018 (3 items); Abdul-Latif et al., 2017 (6 items); Zolfagharian et al., 2017 (11 items); Mandler et al., 2017 (4 items)
Self-congruity	**11**	Sirgy & Su, 2020 (4 items); Büyükdag & Kitapci, 2021 (4 items); Usakli et al., 2022 (12 items); Mazodier & Merunka, 2012 (3 items); Govers & Schoormans, 2005 (3 items); Kressmann et al., 2006; Sharma et al., 2022 (3 items); Taylor et al., 2012 (4 items); Kumar & Kaushal, 2023 (3 items); Helm et al., 2016 (10 items)
Nostalgia	**8**	Veloutsou et al., 2020 (2 items); Shields & Johnson, 2016a (4 items); Ford et al., 2018 (4 items); Gappi et al., 2024 (6 items); Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022 (3 items); Chen et al. 2021 (4 items); Fritz et al., 2017 (4 items)
Consumer-brand relationships	**34**	Fournier, 1994 (34 items); Chatzipanagiotou, Veloutsou & George (2016) (9 items); Smit et al., 2007 (16 items); Aaker, 2004 (18 items); Veloutsou, 2007 (11 items); Hess & Story, 2005 (6 items); Leung et al., 2014 (22 items); Gregoire et al., 2009 (11 items); Francisco-Maffezzolli et al., 2013 (17 items); Ozdemir et al., 2020 (25 items); Cheng & Jiang, 2021 (16 items); Do et al., 2015 (22 items); Schnebelen & Bruhn, 2018 (3 items); Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006 (9 items); Nobre & Simoes, 2019 (16 items); Albert & Merunka, 2013 (33 items); Zarantonello, Formisano, & Grappi, 2016 (13 items); Batra et al., 2012 (26 items); Hegner et al., 2017 (22 items); Long-Tolbert & Gammoh, 2012 (11 items); Lee & Hyun, 2016 (12 items); Romani et al., 2012 (18 items); Zhang & Laroche, 2020 (9 items); Jahn et al., 2012 (14 items); Thomson et al., 2005 (10 items); Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou, 2013 (10 items); Safeer et al., 2021 (6 items)
Consumer acculturation	**12**	Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021 (7 items); Chen et al., 2021 (22 items); Kizgin et al., 2018 (7 items); Kizgin et al., 2019 (10 items); Gupta, 2012 (10 items); Chakraborty & Sadachar, 2021 (8 items); Laroche et al., 2020 (11 items); Fang et al., 2017 (20 items); Kim et al., 2004 (11 items); Josiassen, 2011 (3 items); Chai & Dibb, 2014 (7 items); Cruz et al., 2008 (12 items); Guntzviller & Wang (2018)
Brand purchase intention	**20**	Hung et al., 2011 (3 items); Han et al. 2023 (3 items); Lyer & Griffin, 2021 (4 items); Fetscherin, 2014 (2 items); Taylor & Baker, 1994 (3 items); Teng & Laroche, 2007 (4 items); Yu et al., 2021 (3 items); Putrevu & Lord, 1994 (3 items); Filieri et al., 2023 (3 items); Kim et al., 2017 (5 items); Wang et al., 2018 (3 items); Dabholkar et al., 2009 (3 items); Zolfagharian et al., 2020 (4 items); Spears & Singh, 2004 (5 items); Foroudi et al., 2018 (4 items); Lee et al, 2017 (3 items); Hwang & Zhang, 2018 (4 items); Teng, 2020 (2 items); Bagozzi & Khoshnevis, 2023 (4 items); Ho et al., 2024 (3 items)
WOM Persuasion	**17**	Ismail & Spinelli, 2012 (4 items); Amaro et al., 2020 (3 items); Harrison-Walker, 2001 (6 items); Mishra et al., 2022 (3 items); Popp & Woratschek, 2017 (3 items); Mazzarol et al., 2019 (1 item); Maxham, 2001 (4 items); Chung & Shin, 2010 (3 items); Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019 (3 items); Paruthi et al., 2023 (5 items); Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006 (4 items); Maisam & Mahsa, 2016 (5 items); Barreda et al., 2015 (4 items); Bagozzi & Khoshnevis, 2023 (4 items)
Willingness to pay a price premium	**15**	Boisvert et al., 2023 (4 items); Lee et al., 2010 (3 items); Bıçakcıoglu et al., 2017 (2 items); Zhang et al., 2020 (3 items); Sarkar et al., 2021 (3 items); Netemeyer et al., 2004 (4 items); Wallace et al., 2022 (2 items); Wiedmann et al., 2011 (2 items); Ioana-Daniela et al., 2018 (3 items); Suwelack et al., 2011 (2 items); Kumar & Kaushal, 2023 (4 items); Fatma & Khan, 2024 (3 items); Ho et al., 2023 (3 items); Torres et al., 2018 (2 items); Cheng et al., 2024 (4 items)
Brand irreplaceability	**5**	Can & Erdil, 2018 (4 items); Shen et al., 2023 (3 items); Pedeliento et al., 2016 (4 items); Cao et al., 2023 (3 items); Zhang et al., 2017 (3 items)
Inner self-expressiveness	**5**	Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006 (4 items); Japutra et al., 2018 (2 items); Mishra et al., 2024 (3 items); Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019 (5 items); Sharma et al., 2022 (3 items)
Sense of belonging	**8**	Jansen et al., 2014 (16 items); Malone et al., 2012 (12 items); Lin, 2008 (4 items); Chu et al., 2019 (3 items); Checa & Oberst, 2022 (12 items); Dini et al., 2023 (4 items); Miranda et al., 2023 (5 items); Hang & Zhong, 2022 (2 items)

6.2.2. Choice of adapted/adopted measures in the Questionnaire

This section presents the measures and items used to capture the constructs in the conceptual model. It describes how existing measurement scales were adopted or adapted, and justifies each decision. This step supports the objectives of both the qualitative and quantitative phases and is the precondition of testing the hypotheses in Chapter 7. All selected measurement scales are shown in Table 20.

Brand origin salience referred to "*the extent to which consumers recognise the brand origin*" (Shi et al., 2024, p.2). Anselmsson et al.'s (2014) 3-item scale (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.85-0.97) was adapted. In the adapted version, terms "Swedish" and "Sweden" were replaced by "Chinese/Turkish/Polish" or "China/Turkey/Poland" to reflect the respective cultural contexts relevant to the respondents' national backgrounds. Also, in the first item in the original scale, the term "parts" was added to the original "ingredients" to form "ingredients/parts"; this modification acknowledged that while ingredients may be shared across international brands, specific parts may better reflect the brand's origin.

Consumer ethnocentrism was defined as consumers' beliefs in favouring their own culture. Arli et al.'s (2021) 7-item scale (Cronbach Alpha: 0.96) was adopted, as the items reflect the construct's definition.

The stage of consumer acculturation was defined as the consumer's current stage of adaptation to the host culture. It was operationalised based on four aspects, which are language usage, festival celebrations, socialisation, and food preference. Kizgin et al.'s (2019) 10-item scale (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.528; AVE: 0.938; Reliability: 0.917) was adapted to measure acculturation for this study. All references to "*Dutch*" in the original scale are replaced with "British," "English," or "UK" to reflect the cultural context of the present study. The item "*I spend most of my social time with Dutch people*" was modified to "I spend most of my social time with people who live in the UK and are not Chinese/Turkish/Polish" to align with the national backgrounds of the targeted respondents. The original item "I frequently eat with Dutch friends/colleagues" was revised to "I frequently eat British food" to better capture the food preference aspect. Additionally, the item "*I often speak Dutch with my parents and other family members*" was removed, as it assumes that respondents' families reside in the UK, which may not apply to all participants.

Self-congruity refers to the extent of alignment between a consumer's self-concept and his/her perception of the brand's reputation. This construct was operationalised based on two dimensions, i.e., an individual dimension and a social dimension. The individual dimension was measured using the scale from Govers and Schoormans (2005) (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.91), while the social dimension was measured using the scale from Taylor et al. (2012) (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.92; Reliability: 0.92; AVE: 0.73).

Nostalgia was defined as memories triggered by past experiences with the focal brand (Grappi et al., 2024; Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022). Grappi et al.'s (2024) 6-item scale (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.97) was adopted, as the items reflected the conceptualisation of the construct in this study.

Consumer-brand relationship was defined as an individual brand-centric connection that occurs when consumers act as independent entities and is characterised by passion (Veloutsou & Ruiz-Mafe, 2020). Osuna Ramírez et al.'s (2024) 8-item brand passion scale (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.95; AVE = 0.66; CR=0.94) was adopted in this study, as it accurately reflected the conceptualisation of consumer-brand relationships.

Brand purchase intention was defined as a consumer's personal intention to purchase a brand if able (Gomes et al., 2022). Yu et al.'s (2021) 3-item scale (AVE: 0.89; Reliability: 0.92) was adapted. For the items in the original scale, the brand "*Blue Bell Ice Cream*" is replaced by the brand that the respondents will choose in this study; for the third item, "*My willingness to buy the [Blue Bell Ice Cream] products is high*" was adapted to "My willingness to buy XXX products when I shop in this product category is high", to maintain contextual relevance across different product categories and ensure the item reflects consumers' real-world decision-making scenarios more accurately.

Word-of-mouth persuasion was defined as interpersonal communication to influence others' purchase decisions (Berger, 2014; Maisam & Mahsa, 2016). Ismail and Spinelli's (2012) 4-item scale (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.90) was adopted, as the items reflect the construct's definition.

Willingness to pay a price premium referred to consumers' willingness to pay a price over the 'fair' price of the brand (Casado-Díaz et al., 2020). Boisvert et al.'s (2023) 4-item scale (AVE: 0.876; Reliability: 0.936; Cronbach's Alpha: 0.94) was adopted, as the items mirrored the definition of the construct and were proved to be valid and reliable.

Inner self-expressiveness referred to a consumer's perception of the degree to which the specific brand reflects one's inner self. Carroll and Ahuvia's (2006) 4-item scale was adopted, as the items align with the construct's definition.

Perceived irreplaceability was defined as a consumer's perception that a brand cannot be replaced even with an alike brand (Can & Erdil, 2018). Can and Erdil's (2018) 4-item scale (AVE: 0.67; Reliability: 0.89; Cronbach's Alpha: 0.89) was adapted. For the first item in the original scale, the term "my smartphone" was replaced by "X in this product category"; for the second item, "phone" and "my smartphone I am using" were deleted; for the third item, "other smartphone brands equal to the smartphone brand I use" was replaced by "another brands equal to the X"; for the fourth item, "the smartphone brand I use" was replaced by "X" (X: the brand that respondents choose).

Sense of belonging referred to a consumer's feeling of inclusion and affiliation with a particular group in relation to the brand. Jansen et al.'s (2014) 4-item scale (AVE: 0.71; Reliability: 0.91; Cronbach's Alpha > 0.93) was adapted. In the original items, "This group" was replaced by "Even thinking about this brand…" for the first 3 items; "to the Chinese/Turkish/Polish group" was appended to the first item, and "part of the Chinese/Turkish/Polish culture" was added to the second and third items. The final item, "*This group treats me as an insider,*" was adapted to "Using this brand makes me feel as an insider within Chinese/Turkish/Polish community," to better contextualise the feeling of belonging within a brand-consumption framework and to reflect the cultural identity associated with the respondent's chosen group.

The questionnaire comprised **64** measurement items in total. Given the relatively large number of items, **attention-check** questions were incorporated to help maintain the engagement and attentiveness of respondents throughout the survey (Muszyński, 2023; Pei et al., 2020). These took the form of instructional checks (e.g., "*Please read the following carefully and select 'Somewhat agree'*") (Pei et al., 2020). The questionnaire was organised into 6 blocks, with 1 block relating to brand selection and not containing measurement items. Thus, attention-check questions were included only in the blocks containing measurement items (see Section 7.2.3), with 2 attention-check questions embedded in each of three long blocks and 1 attention-check question embedded in each of two short blocks. In total, 8 attention-check items were incorporated across the survey to enhance response quality.

Table 20. **Operationalisation of study constructs (existing scales)**

Construct	Items	Source
Brand origin salience	Products of this brand are made of X ingredients/parts (BOS1)	Adapted from Anselmsson et al. (2014)
	Products of this brand are manufactured in X (BOS2)	
	This is definitely a X brand (BOS3)	
Consumer ethnocentrism	My culture is generally right about things (CE1)	Adopted from Arli et al. (2021)
	I don't respect values and customs of other cultures (CE2)	
	Other cultures should model themselves after my culture (CE3)	
	Other cultures should try to be like my culture (CE4)	
	People who are different make me anxious (CE5)	
	I do not feel the need to respect other cultures (CE6)	
	I would prefer to avoid interaction with other cultures (CE7)	
Nostalgia	(Brand) makes me think about people, places or things from my youth (NO1)	Adopted from Grappi et al. (2024)
	(Brand) makes me feel good about a previous time—a time in my life (NO2)	
	(Brand) makes me reminisce about a time in my life (NO3)	
	I have warm feelings when reminiscing about this time from my youth (NO4)	
	(Brand) evokes good feelings about a time in my life (NO5)	
	(Brand) is a pleasant reminder of a time from my youth (NO6)	
Self-congruity	**Individual dimension**	Adopted from Govers & Schoormans (2005)
	This product is not like me/is like me (ISC1)	
	I do not identify/I identify myself with my description of the product (ISC2)	
	This product does not match me/matches me (ISC3)	
	If you consider your own personality and compare it to the description you just provided, to what extend are they dissimilar/similar? (ISC4)	
	Social dimension	Adopted from Taylor et al. (2012)
	People who use this brand are like me (SSC1)	
	I am very much like the typical person who uses this brand (SSC2)	
	The image of this brand's users is consistent with how I see myself (SSC3)	
	I can identify with people who use this brand (SSC4)	

Construct	Items	Source
Consumer acculturation	I spend most of my social time with people who live in the UK and are not XXX (CA1)	Adapted from Kizgin et al. (2019)
	I often ask for help/advice from students/colleagues who live in UK and are not XXX (CA2)	
	I frequently eat British food (CA3)	
	I often participate in UK public celebrations. (Festival celebrations) (CA4)	
	I often attend British cultural performances (theatres and concerts) (CA5)	
	My preference is to speak English most of the time (CA6)	
	I often speak English with XXX friends. (Language) (CA7)	
	I often watch English-language movies (CA8)	
	I often listen to English music (CA9)	
Consumer-brand relationship	I have extreme emotions for this brand (CBR1)	Adopted from Ramírez et al. (2024)
	This brand arouses intense feelings (CBR2)	
	I have strong feelings for this brand (CBR3)	
	When I learn of this brand's misfortune, I have strong feelings (CBR4)	
	When I learn of this brand's achievement, I have strong feelings (CBR5)	
	When I learn of this brand's misfortune, I have intense emotions (CBR6)	
	When I learn of this brand's misfortune, I have intense sentiments (CBR7)	
	When I learn of this brand's achievement, I have intense emotions (CBR8)	
Word-of-mouth persuasion	I encourage friends and family to buy this brand (WOM-P1)	Adopted from Ismail & Spinelli (2012)
	I recommend this brand whenever anyone seeks my advice (WOM-P2)	
	If the brand been mentioned in a conversation, I would recommend this brand (WOM-P3)	
	I have actually recommended this brand to my friends and/or family (WOM-P4)	
Willingness to pay a price premium	I am willing to pay a higher price for the brand I selected (WPP1)	Adopted from Boisvert et al. (2023)
	I keep buying at a premium price for the brand I selected instead of other brands (WPP2)	
	For the advantages I get from the brand I selected, I am willing to pay a higher price (WPP3)	
	I am committed to pay a lot more for the brand I selected (WPP4)	
Inner self-expressiveness	This brand symbolizes the kind of person I really am inside (ISE1)	Adopted from Carroll & Ahuvia (2006)
	This brand reflects my personality (ISE2)	
	This brand is an extension of my inner self (ISE3)	
	This brand mirrors the real me (ISE4)	

Construct	Items	Source
Brand purchase intention	It is very likely that I will buy XXX when I will shop in the future (BPI1)	Adapted from Yu et al. (2021)
	I will purchase the XXX next time I want to buy a product in this product category (BPI2)	
	My willingness to buy XXX products when I shop in this product category is high (BPI3)	
Perceived irreplaceability	I cannot find a brand to use instead of X in this product category (PI1)	Adapted from Can & Erdil (2018)
	I do not believe another brand will provide the value that X gives me (PI2)	
	I do not see another brands equal to the X (PI3)	
	X is unique for me when compared with other brands I know (PI4)	
Sense of belonging	Even thinking about this brand gives me the feeling that I belong to XX (SOB1)	Adapted from Jansen et al. (2014)
	Even thinking about this brand gives me the feeling that I am part of the XX culture (SOB2)	
	Even thinking about this brand gives me the feeling that I fit in the XX culture (SOB3)	
	Using this brand makes me feel as an insider within XX community (SOB4)	

6.2.3. Structure and Content of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire began with an **introductory statement** outlining the purpose of the research, explaining its academic nature, and the approximate time required for completion. This section included the contact links of the researcher and her two supervisors, which aimed to inform participants that they can reach out for clarification or additional information regarding the study at any time. This was followed by a link to the "Participant Information", allowing respondents to access detailed information about the study's aims, procedures, and how the information collected would be stored, also emphasising that their participation was voluntary, responses would be confidential, and all data would be anonymised for research purposes only. Finally, a consent section was presented. Participants were required to read the consent statement carefully and confirm their agreement before proceeding to the main part of the questionnaire. Only those who provided consent were able to continue to the subsequent sections of the survey.

Before the main section of the survey, some **screening questions** were included to ensure the **eligibility of respondents**. First, at least one of the respondent's parents had to be born in either China, Turkey, or Poland. Second, respondents were required to currently reside in the UK or have spent most of their recent time there. Third, they needed to have lived in the UK for more than five years. Participants who did not meet these criteria were automatically screened out of the study.

If respondents answered the screening question affirmatively, they were asked questions based on **6 topics**: (1) personal views; (2) brand choices; (3) feelings toward the chosen brand; (4) knowledge of the brand; (5) perceptions of the brands; and (6) future behavioural intentions. The structure of the questionnaire follows established guidelines, progressing from general to specific, and from simple to more complex questions (Dillman, 2007). Specifically, the survey started with some general questions about participants themselves, which served as warm-up questions to encourage engagement. These included questions about the length of residence in their home and host countries, language used in daily life, ethnicity, and self-identified nationality. The next part focused on the respondents' personal values, followed by questions about brand choice and related consumption habits. This was succeeded by items addressing brand-related feelings, thoughts, and behaviours. Finally, the questionnaire concluded with demographic questions, including gender, age, level of

education, and current employment status. A total of 8 attention check questions were dispersed throughout the questionnaire to check respondent data quality (see Section 7.2.2 for explanation of attention check questions), which helped to minimise inattentive responses and offer simple, direct and relatively objective means to analyse response quality (Abbey & Meloy, 2017).

The response strategy incorporated the use of closed-end questions, which were considered highly appropriate in self-administered surveys (Blair et al., 2013), as these types of questions allowed for response format homogeneity. Excluding the screening questions and questions related to the respondents' demographic information, the variables were operationalised using Likert-type questions. Likert scales were considered ordinal scales, and their use was widespread in the marketing field, especially in online self-administered questionnaires (Hair et al., 2017). They were also commonly applied in interval-based techniques, such as Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modelling (DeVellis, 2017). This method was suitable for the data analysis plan later.

A 7-point Likert scale (anchoring with 1 = "strongly disagree" and 7 = "strongly agree") was employed as it provides an optimal balance between response precision and respondent usability. Compared with shorter scales such as 4- or 5-point Likert scales, the 7-point Likert scale demonstrated higher factor loadings and composite reliability, along with lower interactor correlations, indicating stronger associations between items and their underlying constructs, as well as clearer distinctions between different constructs (Xu & Leung, 2018). Moreover, it reduced the likelihood of central tendency bias by allowing respondents a wider range of options to express moderate or extreme opinions (Joshi et al., 2015). Thus, the 7-point Likert scale was deemed most suitable for capturing subtle variations in consumers' feelings, attitudes and perceptions in this study.

Choice of Product Category and Brands in the Questionnaire

In the questionnaire, a **focal product category** was predetermined, and **three country-specific brand lists** (China, Turkey, and Poland) were developed. Respondents selected one recognised brand from their respective list and completed the questionnaire with reference to that brand.

The **food category** was selected following an **initial assessment of brand availability** across four product categories: fashion, food, electronics, and automobiles from China, Turkey, and Poland that are **accessible in the UK market**. The justifications of these choices were based on: (1) These four categories were first chosen in terms of their varying degrees of relevance to everyday life. (2) These countries correspond to the national backgrounds of the three target immigrant groups in this study. (3) Only brands that were accessible in the UK are included in this study; respondents can be either first- or second-generation immigrants, with different levels of memories, knowledge and recognition of their home brands. To ensure the reliability and relevance of data, only brands that can be found and sold in the UK are considered.

As observed from the results, there was a **limited presence** of Chinese, Turkish, and Polish brands in categories such as **electronics** (3 Chinese, 3 Turkish, and 1 Polish brand), **automobiles** (2 Chinese, 1 Turkish, and 3 Polish brands), and **fashion** (4 brands per country). In contrast, the **food category** showed a higher level of market penetration, with thousands of products from **hundreds of Chinese, Turkish, and Polish food brands** widely available in UK markets. This abundance not only reflects the cultural significance and demand for ethnic foods but also increases the likelihood that respondents, regardless of generation, have had personal interactions with these brands. Thus, the **food category** was **selected** as the focus of this study (see Appendix 20: Table 20-1).

As the food category was confirmed, the next step was to **choose brands** from this category for the three cultural groups. As this research aimed to **collect brands from multiple online grocery stores** for three national groups and **brands from informants during the interview stage**, and excluded brands not manufactured in either China, Turkey or Poland, the inclusion and exclusion criteria were organised in Table 21.

Table 21. **Inclusion and Exclusion criteria for choosing the brands in the survey**

NO.	**Inclusion criteria for brands**
1	The brands occurred over twice on the Chinese/Turkish/Polish online grocery store.
2	The brands were mentioned by the Chinese/Turkish/Polish interviewees.
NO.	**Exclusion criteria for brands**
1	The brands are not manufactured in China/Turkey/Poland (In this research, COO is defined as "*the country where the final product is manufactured*" (Ha-Brookshire & Yoon, 2012, p. 446; see Section 2.4.2).

Based on the criteria, this study used five steps to generate the three brand lists. First, for each cultural group, 5 online supermarkets were selected (15 websites in total), and brands listed in the "best sellers" sections were recorded. From each website, 20 food brands were collected, resulting in an initial pool of 100 brands per group (Appendix 20: Tables 20-2, 20-3, and 20-4). Second, only brands appearing at least twice across websites were retained, leaving 19 Chinese, 23 Turkish, and 17 Polish brands (Appendix 20: Tables 20-5, 20-6, and 20-7). Third, brands mentioned in the qualitative stage were added and duplicates removed, resulting in 22 Chinese, 23 Turkish, and 22 Polish brands (Appendix 20: Tables 20-8, 20-9, and 20-10). Fourth, COO was defined as the final manufacturing location (Section 2.3) and verified through official websites; non-eligible brands were excluded, yielding 22 brands for each country (Appendix 20: Tables 20-11, 20-12, and 20-13). Finally, official websites were documented, and brand descriptions were added. The **final lists** contained **22 brands for each country** (Table 22).

Table 22. **Final chosen brands for the three groups**

Chinese	Turkish	Polish
Lee Kum Kee	Oncu	Alpen Gold
Want Want	Koska	Goplana
Hao Huan Luo	Duru	Jutrzenka
Hai Di Lao	Caykur	Jeżyki
Ma La Wang Zi	Ulker	Lubella
Lao Gan Ma	Mehmet Efendi	Mieszko
Shuang Hui	Turnib	Pierniki Kopernik
Oishi	Uludag	Rolnik
Cha Cha	Bodrum	Skawa
Honor	Anthap	Solidarność
Unif	ETI	Tago
Ye Shu	Basak	Tymbark
Nin Jiom	Tadim	Wawel
Kung Fu	Dogadan	Wedel
Baijia	Melis	Winiary
Master Kong	Falim	ZOZOLE
Wu Fu Yuan	Tadelle	HERBAPOL
Wang Zhi He	Sevidoglu	HORTEX
Li Zi Qi	Pinar	LOWICZ
You You	Muratbey	Prince Polo
Heytea	Piyale	LORENZ
Fang Zhong Shan	Sofra	Pudliszki

6.2.4. Common method bias and choice of marker variable

As all data in this study are self-reported and collected using a cross-sectional research design, **common method variance (CMV)** is a potential concern. CMV refers to the shared variance that arises when multiple constructs are measured using the same method (e.g., data is collected from the same source, at the same time) (Spector et al., 2019). It can create bias by inflating or deflating the relationships between constructs, thereby threatening the validity of conclusions (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). Thus, both procedural and statistical remedies are needed to minimise its impact (Chang et al., 2010; MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012).

Regarding procedural remedies, some steps were taken to minimise common method bias: (1) the researcher and her supervisors have sought to reduce item ambiguity by avoiding unusual and ambiguous words in the survey, and a pre-test and pilot-test were conducted to assess the ease of use and comprehension (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff et al., 2003); (2) respondents were assured of anonymity, and informed that there was no right or wrong answer to the questions (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012); (3) this study incorporates a matching game through "surveytainment" approach, to increase respondent engagement and completion rates (Kostyk et al., 2019).

Regarding statistical remedies, the marker variable technique was applied to control for common method bias (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). A marker variable that is "*theoretically unrelated to the constructs of interest is included in the study, and the structural parameters are examined both with and without this measure to determine its potential effects on the observed relationships*" (Podsakoff et al., 2012, p.890). In addition, given the cross-cultural context of this study, it was important to ensure that the marker variable items were free from potential cultural biases and were applicable across the three target groups. Thus, the scale developed by Mainvil et al. (2010), which measures individuals' health incentives to consume more fruits and vegetables, was adapted as the marker variable. This scale was selected because existing evidence suggested that Chinese, Turkish, and Polish individuals generally hold similar and positive attitudes towards the health benefits of fruit and vegetable consumption (Dong et al., 2024; Küçük et al., 2023; Nieuwsbericht, 2020). The scale was considered appropriate for the three cultural groups examined in this study (see Appendix 22 for details).

After confirming the marker variable, it was incorporated into the **CFA model** as a latent method factor (Simmering et al., 2015). Specifically, the marker factor was allowed to load onto all observed items measuring the substantive constructs, while its own items were used to define the marker construct. The CFA model including the marker variable was then compared with the original measurement model without the marker factor. If the inclusion of the marker factor did not result in a significant improvement in model fit, CMB was considered unlikely to represent a substantial threat to the findings (Miller & Simmering, 2023). Therefore, this procedure provided statistical evidence that the observed relationships among constructs were unlikely to be substantially influenced by common method bias.

6.2.5. Pre-test

After the questionnaire draft was drafted, a **pre-test** was conducted to identify any potential difficulties respondents may encounter when answering the survey (Bowden et al., 2002). Pre-test commonly involves **experts/researchers** with theoretical questionnaire knowledge and/or practical experience (Ikart, 2019). They are invited to review the draft questionnaire and provide a critique of the questions as a technique of spotting questionnaire problems or a breakdown in the question-answering process. Such expert input offers a "fresh set of eyes", helping to surface issues because the developer routinely gets too close to the subject matter to be able to see all the problems (Grealish, 2004).

Accordingly, a pre-test was conducted with a group of **25 researchers** to assess the clarity of the instrument, the appropriateness of the scale items, and the overall flow. It was launched in May 2025 and carried out for a month. They represented a range of academic roles and had 2-15 years of research experience since starting their PhD. Such variety allowed for a comprehensive assessment of the survey instrument (Table 23).

Table 23. **Respondents' demographics: A pre-test study (N=25)**

Country	
Canada	1
China	4
France	1
Turkey	1
United Kingdom	18
Recent position in academia	
PhD student	12
PhD graduate	4
Lecturer/Assistant professor	7
Senior lecturer/Associate professor	2
The year they have been worked in research since the start of PhD	
2 years	3
3 years	4
4 years	5
5 years	7
9 years	3
10 years	1
12 years	1
15 years	1

After the pre-test, 35 comments were obtained (excluding overlaps), 20 related to the instruction and 15 to the scale items. The researcher reviewed these comments with her supervisors. After the meeting, **a total of 16 changes** were made, where 14 were related to instruction, and 2 were related to the scale items (see Appendix 23 for more details).

As for the **instruction**, 14 changes were implemented. These changes were grounded in several key aspects. First, design adjustments were made, including adding estimated completion time (e.g., this survey will take around 15 minutes to complete), increasing font size, and reducing visual clutter by splitting long pages. Second, motivation (e.g., "you are halfway through the survey"), and comprehension were improved through progress messages and clearer section transitions (e.g., "Now let's move to…" were positioned to a single and separate page). Third, some confusing instructions/headings were revised, for example, a question "Which country do you currently live in (where you spend most of your time)" may lead to two answers, so it was rephrased to "where you spend most of your time [in the last 5 years]". Fourth, it was suggested that participants could briefly describe the chosen brand to ensure it was recognisable. Thus, a blank box was added for participants to provide a brief description, such as key products or features of the brand. Sixth, some suggestions, such as adding detail to the "Other" option, were acknowledged but not implemented due to irrelevance to the analysis. Additionally, to avoid providing any hint for

respondents, the disqualification information was unified to “We are sorry, but you are not qualified to answer this survey. Thank you for your interest anyway!” The instruction on the front page, “This survey explores yourself and your attitudes, feelings and behaviours towards your home country brands”, was changed to “… towards [brand from countries you are affiliated with]”.

As for the **scale items**, 2 changes were made to improve clarity and grammatical errors. First, in the “Eating fruits and vegetables” scale, the word “fruit” was changed to “fruits” where appropriate, following feedback about subject-verb agreement. Second, in the “Acculturation” scale, the item “I often attend British cultural performances (theatres and concerts)” was revised to “I often attend British cultural performances (e.g., theatres and concerts)” to acknowledge that other types of performances exist.

In conclusion, necessary changes were implemented, and after review, the modifications were deemed appropriate. The questionnaire was finalised for the pilot test.

6.2.6. Pilot test

Pilot testing refers to a **small-scale** preliminary study conducted before the main data collection, with the main aim of evaluating the clarity and reliability of the research instrument (Wadood et al., 2021). In this process, the questionnaire is administered to groups of respondents who are the **target populations** of the present study, followed by statistical analysis to assess the performance of the scale items (Aithal & Aithal, 2020). A pilot test is helpful when planning large-scale surveys, as it helps to detect potential issues in the questionnaire, such as items that do not accurately capture the intended constructs (Mutz & Müller, 2016; van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002). By analysing data collected from a smaller sample, researchers can assess the reliability of the measurement scales (e.g., using Cronbach’s alpha as a single-administration reliability coefficient) to improve the instrument (Aithal & Aithal, 2020). Ultimately, this process ensures that the final version of the questionnaire is both understandable to the targeted participants and methodologically sound, thereby improving the quality of the main study (Dźwigoł, 2020).

To recruit participants for the pilot study, the researcher adopted a two-phase approach. In the first phase, the researcher contacted people through her personal networks and people who had participated in the interviews previously (i.e., Chinese, Turkish, and Polish

immigrants in the UK) and asked them to forward the questionnaire to other potential participants. The survey link was distributed via WhatsApp, WeChat, and email. For interviewees with whom the researcher did not have direct contact, she visited the original interview locations in person to invite their participation. A total of 18 Chinese, 17 Turkish, and 13 Polish people were approached, and all agreed to complete the survey. The researcher also invited these participants to share the survey with their staff, classmates, family members, and friends who met the eligibility criteria.

In the second phase, the researcher tried to visit Chinese, Turkish, and Polish restaurants, cafés, churches, grocers and barbershops in the major city in the UK to approach more potential participants. The researcher explained the overarching aim of the study, the voluntary nature of participation, the approximate time of finishing the survey, and assured respondents of their anonymity. Once they agreed to participate, the survey link was sent to them via email, message, WhatsApp, or WeChat for completion.

In total, the researcher reached 48 personal acquaintances and visited 23 offline stores catering to Chinese, Turkish, and Polish communities. Approximately 85 invitations were distributed, resulting in 64 returned surveys. Of these, 11 were excluded due to failing quality and attention checks. Also, to ensure data reliability, the survey included a verification question after respondents chose the brand from their home country, which asked respondents to briefly describe the brand they selected. Upon review, all descriptions matched accurately with the chosen brand. This resulted in **53** usable responses, comprising **20** Chinese, **18** Turkish, and **15** Polish immigrants moving to the UK, which were used for the initial data analysis. This sample size was appropriate for a pilot study, as a minimum of 30-50 responses was recommended (Aithal & Aithal, 2020). The detailed demographic characteristics were summarised (Table 24).

To evaluate the reliability of the measurement scales employed in the pilot study, reliability tests were conducted for each construct across the three immigrant groups (Amirrudin et al., 2021). Cronbach's alpha (α) was used as a single-administration reliability coefficient. The results showed acceptable to excellent reliability across the whole sample, with α values exceeding 0.70 for most scales (Ursachi et al., 2015) (Appendix 24). These findings suggested that the measurement scales were suitable for use in the main data collection. Following revisions informed by the pilot test, the final questionnaire was prepared for launch (Appendix 25).

Table 24. **Participants' demographics: A Pilot study (N=53)**

Demographics	Chinese group N=20	Turkish group N=18	Polish group N=15	Whole sample N=53
Gender				
Male	8 (40%)	7 (39%)	6 (40%)	21 (40%)
Female	12 (60%)	11 (61%)	9 (60%)	32 (60%)
Age				
18-24	6 (30%)	2 (11%)	2 (13%)	10 (19%)
25-34	9 (45%)	9 (50%)	6 (40%)	24 (45%)
35-44	3 (15%)	3 (17%)	3 (20%)	9 (17%)
45-54	2 (15%)	3 (17%)	4 (27%)	9 (17%)
Over 55	0	1 (5%)	0	1 (2%)
Education				
High school graduate	5 (25%)	1 (5%)	2 (13%)	8 (15%)
Bachelor's degree	8 (40%)	12 (67%)	8 (54%)	28 (53%)
Master's degree	6 (30%)	2 (11%)	2 (13%)	10 (19%)
PhD	1 (5%)	3 (17%)	1 (6%)	5 (9%)
Employment status				
Student	5 (25%)	3 (17%)	2 (13%)	10 (19%)
Self-employed	5 (25%)	3 (17%)	4 (27%)	12 (23%)
Employed full time	4 (20%)	6 (33%)	4 (27%)	14 (26%)
Employed part time	3 (15%)	1 (5%)	1 (6%)	5 (9%)
Unemployed looking for work	3 (15%)	4 (22%)	1 (6%)	8 (15%)
Unemployed not looking for work	0	0	1 (6%)	1 (2%)
Years in the Country of birth (Home)				
0-5 years	1 (5%)	1 (5%)	2 (13%)	4 (7%)
6-10 years	5 (25%)	2 (11%)	3 (20%)	10 (19%)
11-15 years	6 (30%)	4 (22%)	2 (13%)	12 (23%)
16-20 years	4 (20%)	3 (17%)	3 (20%)	10 (19%)
More than 20 years	4 (20%)	8 (44%)	5 (33%)	17 (32%)
Years in the Host country (UK)				
6-10 years	10 (50%)	9 (50%)	6 (40%)	25 (47%)
11-15 years	4 (20%)	4 (22%)	3 (20%)	11 (21%)
16-20 years	3 (15%)	2 (11%)	4 (27%)	9 (17%)
More than 20 years	3 (15%)	1 (5%)	2 (13%)	6 (11%)
Religion				
Buddhism	5 (25%)	/	/	5 (9%)
Taoism/Daoism	7 (35%)	/	/	7 (13%)
Islam	/	7 (39%)	/	7 (13%)
Catholicism	/	/	9 (60%)	9 (17%)
Non-religious	6 (30%)	7 (39%)	3 (20%)	16 (30%)
Prefer not to answer	2 (10%)	2 (11%)	2 (13%)	6 (11%)

6.3.Questionnaire administration

Data were collected using a **self-administered online survey** hosted on the Qualtrics platform. Qualtrics was selected for its versatile capabilities in survey design (e.g., customisable scale formats, display and skip logic, filter questions), flexible distribution options (e.g., anonymous link, personalised link), as well as data analysis capabilities. Upon accessing the survey link, participants were presented with detailed information about the study, and they can click the link directly to the participant information sheet, and were required to provide informed consent, in line with the ethical standards set by the University of Glasgow.

The participants were approached through both online and offline channels, while the survey itself was distributed via **various online platforms**. Initially, the researcher contacted potential participants through WeChat, WhatsApp, email, the University community and Facebook. Also, the researcher tried to reach out to potential participants through various offline channels, including immigrant communities, airports, grocery stores, restaurants, cafés, language schools, events/activities, and charities, across the major UK cities. The researcher began by politely introducing the project and explaining the purpose of the survey. Once individuals agreed to participate, the survey link was shared via online channels such as WeChat, email, WhatsApp, or through QR codes. Data collection was conducted in a flexible manner, enabling respondents to complete the questionnaire at their convenience.

The choice of an online self-administered questionnaire was based on five key considerations. First, a questionnaire was a widely accepted and suitable method for hypothesis testing, particularly when exploring relationships between variables in social research (Saunders et al., 2019; Rose et al., 2023). Second, an online questionnaire was effective and efficient in reaching a geographically dispersed sample, which was especially relevant for studies involving diverse immigrant groups (Rose et al., 2023). Third, online questionnaire distribution significantly reduced time and financial costs while improving the speed of data collection (Nayak & Narayan, 2019). Fourth, an online questionnaire offered respondents flexibility and convenience, enabling them to respond at their own pace, factors known to improve response rates and data quality (Rose et al., 2023). Fifth, it reduced researcher effects. In self-completed questionnaires, the role of the researcher in the data collection process was minimised**,** thus reducing the effects on the responses generated (Rose

et al., 2023). Although a self-administered questionnaire might have reduced the researcher's control over the process and might have raised concerns regarding response accuracy, it offered greater privacy and autonomy to participants. This increased the sense of confidentiality, which might, in turn, have encouraged more honest and candid responses (Wright, 2005).

Despite their advantages, **online questionnaires** showed some **challenges**, such as low response rates, partial completion, varying levels of respondent literacy, and the risk of common method bias (Rose et al., 2023). Appropriate strategies were implemented to mitigate these issues. First, a significant issue with an online questionnaire was the lower response rates compared to offline methods (Andrade, 2020). To address this, reminder messages were sent to participants to 5 days after the initial invitation to encourage completion. Second, partial completion, where participants either skip questions or fail to provide full responses, was another concern (Nayak & Narayan, 2019). To reduce this risk, the questionnaire utilised a "forced response" setting for all scale and demographic items, ensuring that participants could not proceed without completing each question. Third, respondent literacy levels, especially among populations with limited reading comprehension, were another concern (Rose et al., 2023). To address this, participation was restricted to individuals aged 18 and above, and efforts were made to simplify language throughout the questionnaire to enhance accessibility and comprehension. Fourth, the issue of CMV arose when the same questionnaire was used to measure both independent and dependent variables, which could contribute to common method bias, which might distort the resulting statistical tests. To minimise this bias, some methods were employed, such as adding a marker variable in the questionnaire (Podsakoff et al., 2012). These methodological concerns were further discussed in the sampling section below.

6.4.Quantitative sampling

This study adopted a **multi-stage non-probability sampling** strategy to recruit participants (Ramanujan et al., 2022). The target population for the survey was the same as that applied in the qualitative phase, namely Chinese, Turkish, and Polish immigrant consumers aged 18 and above, living in the UK, and having resided there for more than five years.

The non-probability sampling method was deemed appropriate for this thesis, as the target population lacked a complete and identifiable sampling frame (Saunders et al., 2019). More

specifically, it was difficult to determine the actual size and reach of the population of interest, namely Chinese, Turkish, and Polish immigrants in the UK who met the study criteria. Accordingly, participants were recruited through multiple non-random channels, including immigrant chat groups on WeChat and WhatsApp, the researcher's personal contacts and their networks, and relevant Facebook groups. Although some online groups displayed member numbers, these figures did not indicate how many members were active or would actually see the survey post. Determining a sampling frame seemed not feasible given the characteristics of the study's target population. Therefore, the non-probability sampling strategy was deemed appropriate for this research.

A **multi-stage approach** was deemed appropriate for this thesis, as it enables broader access to eligible participants while saving time, cost and effort for recruitment (Ramanujan et al., 2022). This was particularly relevant given that participants were recruited through multiple online and offline channels that differed in accessibility and geographic reach, with potential respondents dispersed across the UK (Sudaryanto et al., 2021). Accordingly, recruitment proceeded in stages, with potential channels identified in advance and approached sequentially, beginning with the most readily accessible channels and subsequently extending to additional, comparatively less accessible sources. This staged approach enabled the researcher to reach participants across a wider range of contexts while enhancing the efficiency and feasibility of the recruitment process.

Specifically, sampling was conducted through a multi-stage process designed to progressively reach and diversify the participant pool:

(1) **Stage 1:** The researcher first **divided the target population into two sampling frames** based on recruitment channels: **Online channels**, including personal contacts, WeChat and WhatsApp groups, Facebook community groups, University researchers and relevant departments, university community platform; **Offline channels**, including immigrant communities, charities, companies, language schools, restaurants, cafés, barbers, grocers, airports, and various community events or activities.
(2) **Stage 2:** The **accessibility and feasibility** of these recruitment channels were assessed to guide the implementation process. For online recruitment, the researcher began with personal contacts, followed by WeChat and WhatsApp groups, the University online platforms, Facebook community groups, and University

researchers. Distinct survey links were sent through WeChat, WhatsApp, Facebook, the University community platform, or email. For offline recruitment, three major UK cities, Glasgow, Edinburgh, and London, were chosen as key sampling cities. Within these cities, surveys were distributed across the pre-identified offline channels using unique QR codes for each channel, facilitating efficient data collection and source identification.

(3) **Stage 3:** To **extend the reach of the study**, snowball sampling was used, whereby existing participants and community administrators were invited to share the survey link or QR code within their networks, thus broadening the sample coverage and enhancing representativeness across different social groups (Ahmed, 2024).

As for the online channels, first, participants were recruited through the researcher's **personal network**. These individuals were previously contacted during the interview and pilot testing stages via WeChat, email, and WhatsApp, and were eligible to participate in the main survey. Then, the snowball method was adopted, as the researcher asked them to share the link to their own connections (e.g., classmates, friends, families).

Second, **online immigrant chat groups** on WeChat and WhatsApp were another channel to recruit participants. Through personal connections, the researcher joined Chinese and Turkish immigrant chat groups on WhatsApp. The researcher first shared brief explanations of the research. While a standard message was provided as a guideline, the sharers were encouraged to tailor the content to best suit their group's communication style.

Third, the **University of Glasgow community** served as a channel to recruit respondents, who were composed of students and staff in the University, and many of them came from different countries. Thus, the researcher posted the survey link on the community platform, with a short introduction of the study topic, and specifying "Chinese, Turkish and Polish immigrants in the UK". Community members who reviewed the post can decide whether to finish the survey; also, someone responded to share the link with their personal contacts.

Fourth, Chinese, Turkish, and Polish **university staff, PhD researchers in the UK**, and some relevant **departments** were approached via email. The researcher began by searching staff and PhD student directories of several UK universities and reviewing their profiles on LinkedIn to identify potential participants. After compiling a contact list, around 800 emails are sent to them, introducing the project, providing links to the respective cultural group

surveys, and politely inviting them to participate at their convenience. Also, departments associated with specific cultural groups, such as Confucius Institutes (related to Chinese culture) and Islamic Studies departments (related to Turkish culture), were contacted to explore potential channels for reaching more qualified participants. After 5 working days, gentle reminder emails were sent to those who had not responded.

Fifth, **Chinese, Turkish and Polish immigrant groups on Facebook** also served as a key recruitment channel. The researchers initially found and joined 12 Chinese immigrant groups, 11 Turkish immigrant groups, and 17 Polish immigrant groups on Facebook and contacted the admins of these groups to explain the researchers' background, the research topic, the purpose of the communication, and to obtain their permission to share the survey link in their groups. The survey link was first shared privately with the group administrators, who were responsible for posting it in their respective groups with a brief description of the research. While suggested templates were provided, administrators were encouraged to tailor the information in a way that best suited the tone and preferences of their community.

As for the **offline channels**, first, the researcher visited the offline immigrant communities, charities, language schools, organisations, restaurants, cafes, grocers, events and airports to recruit the participants. Through personal connections, the researcher gained access to Chinese, Turkish and Polish immigrant communities, language schools, charities, and some events in the major UK cities. By participating in such activities, the researcher was allowed to explain her study and distribute the survey directly to members. Some of the members finished the survey on the spot via the provided link by scanning the QR code, some of them chose to leave their contact details, and the survey link was later shared with them via those channels, or the researcher left the printed QR code with them, so they can finish the surveys later at their convenience. The researcher also tried to visit Chinese, Turkish, and Polish restaurants, grocers, cafés, and barbers to recruit further participants. Similarly, individuals were able to finish the survey via the QR code at their convenience.

Survey links were created, and questionnaires were distributed to the identified groups by using **different links**. Once the participant clicked the survey link, they were redirected to the survey and were assumed to answer it. After all these stages, a total of **1427 responses** were collected over a period of four months, including **446 Chinese, 542 Turkish and 439 Polish.** The specific channel and number of responses from each channel are detailed in Table 25 below.

Table 25. **Channels of data collection and number of respondents (N=1427)**

Channels	Clusters	Way of approaching and distribution	Number of attempts			Total
			Chinese	Turkish	Polish	
Online	**Personal contacts** (e.g., family members, friends, neighbours, prior interviewees, and their friends, family members, and colleagues)	Online via WeChat, WhatsApp, and Email	146	140	110	**396**
	Immigrant-focused online chat groups	Online via personal contacts	85	102	-	**187**
	University of Glasgow online community	Online, share the ads directly on the platform	36	58	38	**132**
	Staff & PhDs in the UK University, and related departments (e.g., Department of Confucius and Department of Islamic Studies)	Online via email by purposive search (Approx. 800 invitations, and 700 reminders)	47	31	56	**134**
	Facebook immigrant communities	Online, post the ad, and approved by the moderator	3	-	37	**40**
Offline	**Immigrant communities and charities**	Offline, through QR code	39	88	38	**165**
	Organisations/companies	Offline, through QR code	50	-	-	**50**
	Language schools	Offline, through QR code	31	46	28	**105**
	International airport	Offline, through QR code	9	-	-	**9**
	Restaurants, cafes, barbers, grocers	Offline, through QR code	-	77	118	**195**
	Event/activity	Offline, through QR code	-	-	14	**14**
Total			**446**	**542**	**439**	**1427**

6.5.Assessment of data for analysis

Prior to conducting the main statistical analyses, the dataset was systematically screened and cleaned to ensure that the final analytical sample comprised eligible and high-quality responses suitable for subsequent quantitative analysis. Three sequential procedures were undertaken: (1) removing responses that failed to meet the pre-specified eligibility requirements, (2) excluding cases with excessive missingness arising from survey break-off, and (3) applying an attention-based quality index to identify and remove low-quality responses.

First, an **eligibility** screen was implemented to ensure that only respondents who met the pre-specified qualification criteria could proceed to the main questionnaire. Specifically, participants were required to report (i) a country of origin of China, Turkey, or Poland, (ii) current residence in the UK, and (iii) a minimum UK residence duration of more than five years. Responses that failed to satisfy these requirements were removed, resulting in the **deletion of 229 responses**, including **55 Chinese, 87 Turkish and 87 Polish** responses.

Second, **missing data** were reviewed to check the incomplete responses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Missing data refer to observations in a dataset for which one or more variable values are not recorded (Little, 2024). They can be missing completely at random, missing at random, or not missing at random (Byrne, 2016; Little et al., 2014). Given that the questionnaire applied "**forced-response**", item-level missingness primarily reflected survey break-off rather than selective item skipping. Specifically, missing values were concentrated toward the end of the questionnaire, indicating that respondents completed the earlier sections and then discontinued participation. This pattern was aligned with not missing completely at random, suggesting that discontinuation may be related to survey burden (e.g., questionnaire length) or the potentially sensitive nature of the final demographic questions, which were positioned at the end of the questionnaire (Galesic & Bosnjak, 2009). A cut-off percentage of allowed missing data per case was set at **10 per cent** (Hair et al., 2019). Demographic questions were excluded for establishing the cut-off percentage, as they were not included in hypothesis testing in this project. Following data screening, **209 responses** (41 Chinese, 99 Turkish, and 69 Polish) were identified as exceeding the 10% missing-data threshold and were therefore excluded from the dataset.

The remaining results were computed using the Expectation Maximisation method via IBM SPSS MVA (Missing Value Analysis function) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). It was considered an appropriate method based on the following justifications. First, it permits the specification of some distributions other than normal, which may be potentially problematic with some constructs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Second, it is the method that produces less bias in not missing completely at random data. Third, it performs better than methods like series mean or regression imputation, which tend to reduce the variance of the data (Byrne, 2016). Finally, some of the sensitive data that could not be imputed due to their nominal nature (e.g., Gender, Age, Education) are marked as N/A.

Third, this study chose to construct a **quality index** to further improve the data cleaning, and respondents who failed to pass this index were then removed. In alignment with best practices, various attention checks were included as metrics of respondent data quality (Kees et al., 2017). There were **8 attention check questions** throughout the survey. While each question aimed at gauging attention was worth 1 point, a total of 8 points was awarded. This research employed a cut-off percentage of 25% (2 points). Thus, respondents who reached 3 or more points were removed from the study and were not compensated. This resulted in a deletion of 105 responses in total, including 15 Chinese, 55 Turkish and 35 Polish.

Finally, the qualifying criteria, paired with the data cleaning process, allowed for a final sample of **884 responses**, including 335 Chinese, 301 Turkish, and 248 Polish responses. The completion rates and data cleaning process were summarised in Table 26.

Table 26. **Assessment of Participants**

	Sample 1 CHN335	**Sample 2 TUR301**	**Sample 3 POL248**	**Total**
NO. of surveys attempted	**446**	**542**	**439**	**1427**
NO. of surveys failed the **eligibility check** (e.g., COO, current residence, and years in the UK)	55	87	87	229
NO. of surveys retained	**391**	**455**	**352**	**1198**
NO. of surveys with more than **10% missing values**	41	99	69	209
NO. of surveys retained	**351**	**356**	**283**	**990**
NO. of surveys failed more than **2 attention checks**	15	55	35	105
NO. of surveys retained	**335**	**301**	**248**	**884**
Completion rate	**75.11%**	**55.54%**	**56.49%**	**61.95%**

According to Hu and Bentler (1999), when the sample size is relatively small (≤ 250), applying combined absolute and incremental fit-index decision rules may lead to overly conservative conclusions by rejecting otherwise acceptable models. Accordingly, **a sample size above 250** is generally preferable for SEM-based model estimation and fit assessment. In this study, the Chinese (CHN335) and Turkish (TUR301) samples exceed this recommended benchmark and are therefore deemed sufficiently powered for evaluating model fit. Although the Polish sample is closer to the baseline, reflecting limited access to the Polish immigrant community through the available recruitment channels, it is retained for further analysis, but its results are interpreted with greater caution due to potentially reduced estimate stability and precision.

The total sample consists of **884 respondents**: 335 Chinese (Sample 1), 301 Turkish (Sample 2), and 248 Polish participants (Sample 3). The sample is predominantly female, largely aged between 25 and 34 years, and holds a bachelor's degree and full-time employment. Most participants had resided in their home country for over 20 years and had lived in the UK for 6-10 years. Across these samples, demographic patterns are broadly comparable, although some differences emerged in religious affiliation and length of residence in the UK. For example, religious identification reflects expected cultural variation across the Chinese, Turkish, and Polish groups. Demographic information is presented in Table 27.

Table 27. **Demographics of Respondents**

	Sample 1 CHN335	Sample 2 TUR301	Sample 3 POL248	Total (N=884)
Gender				
Male	133 (39.52%)	121 (40.20%)	89 (36.33%)	343 (38.89%)
Female	199 (59.58%)	170 (56.48%)	153 (62.45%)	522 (59.18%)
Non-binary	1 (0.30%)	9 (2.99%)	2 (0.82%)	11 (1.25%)
Prefer not to say	2 (0.60%)	1 (0.33%)	0	3 (0.34%)
N/A	0	0	2 (0.81%)	2 (0.23%)
Age				
18-24	62 (18.56%)	21 (6.98%)	30 (12.24%)	113 (12.81%)
25-34	169(50.30%)	140 (46.51%)	92 (38.37%)	401 (45.46%)
35-44	75 (22.46%)	91 (30.23%)	89 (35.51%)	255 (28.93%)
45-54	20 (5.99%)	37 (12.29%)	30 (12.24%)	87 (9.86%)
55-64	9 (2.69%)	9 (2.99%)	3 (1.22%)	21 (2.38%)
65-75	0	3 (1.00%)	0	3 (0.34%)
N/A	0	0	2 (0.82%)	2 (0.23%)
Education				
Secondary school or equivalent	3 (0.90%)	7 (2.18%)	1 (0.41%)	11 (1.25%)
High school or equivalent	41 (12.28%)	35 (11.63%)	23 (9.39%)	75 (8.50%)
Some college or equivalent	33 (9.88%)	57 (18.94%)	32 (13.06%)	122 (13.83%)
Bachelor's degree	97 (28.74%)	141 (46.84%)	108 (44.08%)	346 (39.23%)
Master's degree	84 (25.15%)	52 (17.28%)	59 (23.27%)	195 (22.11%)
PhD	77 (23.05%)	9 (2.99%)	23 (9.39%)	109 (12.36%)
N/A	0	0	2 (0.82%)	2 (0.23%)
Employment				
Employed Full-time	153 (45.81%)	109 (36.21%)	149 (60.57%)	411 (46.60%)
Employed Part-time	38 (11.38%)	59 (19.60%)	31 (12.65%)	128 (14.51%)
Self-employed	39 (11.68%)	53 (17.61%)	27 (11.02%)	119 (13.49%)
Out of work but looking for a job	13 (3.89%)	19 (6.31%)	14 (5.71%)	46 (5.22%)
Out of work and not looking for a job	6 (1.80%)	14 (4.65%)	3 (1.22%)	23 (2.61%)
Student	81 (23.95%)	43 (14.29%)	18 (6.94%)	142 (16.10%)
Retired	3 (0.90%)	4 (1.33%)	0	7 (0.79%)
Other	2 (0.60%)	0	2 (0.82%)	4 (0.45%)
N/A	0	0	2 (0.82%)	2 (0.23%)
Ethnicity				
Buddhism	81 (24.25%)	0	2 (0.89%)	83 (9.41%)
Catholicism	9 (2.69%)	0	92 (40.63%)	101 (11.34%)
Christianity	30 (8.98%)	10 (3.13%)	41 (17.86%)	57 (6.46%)
Islam	1 (0.30%)	125 (41.53%)	0	126 (14.29%)
Taoism/Daoism	45 (13.47%)	0	0	45 (5.10%)
Non-religious/Atheist	149 (44.31%)	121 (42.19%)	98 (42.86%)	368 (41.61%)
Spiritual	1 (0.30%)	0	2 (1.14%)	3 (0.34%)
Satanism	0	0	1(0.45%)	1 (0.11%)
Mixed beliefs	0	0	1 (0.4%)	1 (0.11%)
Prefer not to say	17 (5.09%)	45 (14.95%)	11 (4.91%)	73 (8.28%)
Years in the home country				
0-5 years	23 (6.59%)	5 (1.56%)	23 (9.43%)	33 (3.74%)
6-10 years	42 (12.57%)	87 (28.9%)	22 (9.02%)	151 (17.12%)
11-15 years	54 (16.17%)	28 (9.30%)	21 (8.61%)	103 (11.68%)
16-20 years	84 (25.15%)	59 (19.60%)	58 (23.77%)	142 (16.10%)
More than 20 years	132 (39.52%)	122 (40.53%)	124 (49.18%)	376 (42.65%)
Years in the host country (UK)				
6-10 years	179 (53.59%)	151 (50.17%)	71 (28.69%)	401 (45.36%)
11-15 years	59 (17.66%)	66 (21.93%)	55 (22.13%)	180 (20.36%)
16-20 years	53 (15.87%)	46 (15.28%)	84 (34.02%)	183 (20.70%)
More than 20 years	44 (12.87%)	38 (12.62%)	37 (15.16%)	159 (17.99%)

6.6.Data manipulation and normality tests

Next, the data's normal distribution was tested. Skewness and kurtosis are two measures that are used to gauge normality. Skewness showcases the data's symmetry, while kurtosis reflects the data's peak level (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The generally accepted values of skewness and kurtosis coefficients are in the -1,1 interval (Groeneveld & Meeden, 1984), which suggests no issues with normality. Also, the Histogram's shape of the distribution was analysed to assess normality (Das & Imon, 2016).

After the test, it can be observed that, for both samples, the values of the skewness coefficient for all the variables were in the (-1,1) interval, while the values of the kurtosis coefficient for some variables were slightly outside of the (-1,1) interval (Appendix 26, 27, and 28). However, the histograms showed an acceptable normal distribution for all the variables. Also, Hair et al. (2006) argued that normality issues may be ignored if the sample size exceeds 200, which was the case for the Chinese, Turkish and Polish samples of this project. Given that the analysis of the skewness and kurtosis coefficients and the histograms did not indicate strong violations of normality, the researcher decided to proceed to the analysis without transformations.

6.7.Data Analysis Method

Following the normality assessment, the data were assessed regarding their applicability for factor analysis. The researcher used some approaches to ensure the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis, including conducting Bartlett's test of sphericity, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) on IBM SPSS Statistics and checking the correlation coefficients.

Following these procedures, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed in IBM SPSS Statistics to identify the commonalities within items of the measured variables (Moretti et al., 2019). EFA was deemed appropriate as it helped to identify the factor structure for a set of variables, testing measurement integrity and guiding further theory refinement (Norris & Lecavalier, 2010). Factor extraction was conducted to identify the dimensionality or structure of the variables (Moretti et al., 2019). The extraction method used was Maximum likelihood, looking for eigenvalues greater than one (Finch, 2019). The factor rotation was executed using the Promax approach; it was chosen as the set of loadings with this method

allows factors to correlate, which was appropriate since the constructs in this study were theoretically related (Finch, 2019). In addition, following Howard's (2016) ".40–.30–.20" guideline, items were retained if they (a) loaded ≥ .40 on their intended (primary) factor, (b) loaded ≤ .30 on any alternative factor, and (c) showed a ≥ .20 difference between the primary loading and the highest cross-loading.

Next, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed using AMOS to examine if the measured items accurately reflect the desired construct (Hox, 2021). From a CFA perspective, the hypothesised model should be analysed using a statistically appropriate tool or software package capable of performing the necessary analysis (Lamm et al., 2020). As such, it is a method that aimed to test the goodness of fit of a model and ensure the unidimensionality of each hypothesised factor (Martynova et al., 2018). Goodness-of-fit (GOF) for the structural model were completed. GOF is related to a diverse set of measures that compare the estimated and observed covariance matrices, thus comparing theory with reality (Marcoulides & Yuan, 2017). It contains three categories of measures, including absolute, incremental, and parsimony fit measures, where at least one measure from each category is needed to assess fit, alongside a badness-of-fit measure (Hair et al., 2017). This research evaluated GOF utilising the chi-square (CMIN), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) indices, and the p of Close Fit (PClose) indices.

Each goodness-of-fit (GOF) measure reflects a different aspect of model measurement and has a numerical boundary that indicates a level of satisfaction (Gaskin & Lim, 2016). The chi-square (CMIN) is an absolute measure that determines how well the theoretical model fits the empirical model (Huber-Carol et al., 2012). CMIN/DF considers the complexity of the model by adjusting the chi-square to the degrees of freedom (df). CMIN/DF values of 3.1-5 are acceptable, 1-3 are ideal (Kline, 2023). CFI was an incremental measure of fit that compares the proposed model with an independence or null model, its values of 0.90 represent marginal fit, with values below 0.90 indicating poor fit and values 0.95 representing good fit; SRMR is an absolute measure indicative of badness-of-fit, in which values at or lower than 0.08 are ideal; RMSEA represents how well a model fits a population by estimating the discrepancy per df, where values less than 0.08 represent acceptable model fit and less than 0.06 representing good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Lamm et al., 2020). Finally, PClose tests the null hypothesis that the RMSEA equals 0.05 and the alternative hypothesis that the RMSEA is greater than 0.05. In order for the model to be a good fit, an acceptable

PClose value is 0.01-0.049, values at or above 0.05 are excellent (Browne & Cudeck, 1992). The various model fit indices with their thresholds are summarised (Table 28).

Table 28. **Model Fit Threshold**

Measure	Type of Fit	Acceptable	Excellent
CMIN/DF	Absolute	Between 2 and 5	Between 1 and 3
AGFI	Parsimony	N/A	Higher than 0.90
CFI	Incremental	Between 0.90 and 0.95	Higher than 0.95
RMSEA	Absolute	Between 0.06 and 0.08	Lower than 0.06
SRMR	Absolute	Between 0.08 and 0.10	Lower than 0.08
PCLOSE	N/A	Between 0.01 and 0.05	Higher than 0.05

Source: Gaskin, J., & Lim, J. (2016). Model fit measures. *Gaskination's StatWiki*, *37*(3), 814-822.

Further measures were utilised to determine reliability and validity. In addition to the EFA and CFA results, the composite reliability (CR) and the **Average variance extracted** (AVE) for each construct in the model were evaluated (Hair et al., 2017) to ensure the reliability and validity of the measurement and structural model.

Then, this study employed Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS to test the hypotheses (direct relationships) in the model. SEM is an efficient estimation technique for testing the plausibility of a model by simultaneously examining interdependent multiple regression equations (Hair et al., 2006). It can represent interrelated, latent concepts and account for measurement error in the estimation process, allowing the estimation of multiple and interrelated dependence relationships (Schreiber et al., 2006). Some assumptions related to sufficient sample size, missing data, outliers, estimation method, and multivariate normality must be met when using SEM (Chai & Dibb, 2014). These assumptions were satisfied using several accepted approaches. Three samples were used to obtain accurate parameter estimates; a frequency test was performed to check for missing data and outliers, and maximum likelihood estimation was used to meet the assumption of multivariate normality, preventing problems arising from biased standard error estimates and erroneous chi-square values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The moderation effects were tested using Hayes' **PROCESS Macro** in IBM SPSS Statistics. Moderation effects can be tested using several methods, such as SEM or the PROCESS Macro. SEM has the advantage of incorporating latent variables and explicitly accounting

for measurement error, thereby providing more accurate estimates of relationships among theoretical constructs (Kline, 2023). However, testing moderation through SEM requires the specification of latent interaction terms, which can substantially increase model complexity and require additional estimation procedures. In contrast, PROCESS Macro adopts a regression-based approach that directly estimates interaction effects and enables the examination of moderation through conditional effects and simple slope analyses (Hayes & Little, 2022). Compared with SEM, it reduces the complexity involved in specifying and estimating interaction terms, while providing a more straightforward and practical method for testing and interpreting moderation effects (Hayes, 2018). It was also widely adopted in prior marketing studies (e.g., Teng, 2020; Khan & Fatma, 2024). Thus, the PROCESS Macro was deemed appropriate for testing the moderating role of stage of consumer acculturation in this study.

6.8.Ethics considerations

Ethics approval was sought from the College of Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, University of Glasgow, and the ethics approval number is 400230324. The project adopted an ethical position that assumes the researcher observed and protected the rights of participants and systematically acts to permit participants to exercise those rights. To this end, the researcher endeavoured to minimise participants' inconvenience by using online surveys which they can reply to from places they consider convenient, ensure that they were properly informed, free to volunteer without inappropriate inducement, free to opt out at any time without redress, remain anonymous, and be fully protected regarding safety to the limits of best practice.

Participants were informed about the purpose of the research and the time they were required to complete the questionnaire. They were advised that their anonymity would be preserved, so they would not be identified in any publications related to this research. The researcher did not meet or know the identity of the participants, as the questionnaires were collected from online platforms by using anonymous links. Due to the nature of the study, which dealt with non-intrusive issues, this was not expected to be a problem. Data is stored in the researcher's computer, which is password-protected. The researcher will delete the collected electronic data upon receiving the PhD degree and completing related publications in 2036.

6.9.Chapter summary

The chapter discussed the development of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed based on the conceptual model, which is, in turn, advanced based on the literature review and qualitative findings. The questionnaire was structured in 5 sections, and it was pre-tested and pilot-tested to conduct the preliminary assessment of the psychometric characteristics of the measures. Then, the researcher recruited participants through various sources, and this phase was hosted on Qualtrics. A total of 1427 responses were collected, and 884 were selected and used in the data analysis. Once the data were collected, they were used to test the formulated hypotheses. The characteristics of each sample were described. Treatments for missing data, non-response bias and CMV were used, and normality was assessed in preparation for analysis. Lastly, the chapter presented the methodology used for the quantitative analysis by using EFA, CFA, and SEM.

Chapter 7. Hypothesis testing

7.1.Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the hypothesis testing process of the relationships included in the conceptual model presented in Chapter 5. Following the full measurement model's assessment of model fit, reliability and validity of the study constructs using EFA and CFA, two models are evaluated in the chapter. The structural model is developed from the review of the literature and the qualitative data analysis. Results of hypothesis testing are related to the thesis's aims to identify the formation and outcomes of immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands. The chapter closes with a summary of the results.

7.2.EFA and CFA on the full measurement model

Before estimating the structural model, the measurement model was assessed to evaluate the links between the latent constructs and their indicators through EFA and CFA (Westland, 2019). A total of three samples (Sample 1-CHN335; Sample 2-TUR301; Sample 3-POL248) were used for model testing.

7.2.1. EFA on the full measurement model

The measurement model was **initially evaluated** through **EFA**. The suitability of the sample size was checked through Bartlett's test of sphericity and the KMO. As shown in Table 29, Bartlett's test of sphericity is significant, and KMO values **exceeded 0.9** across three samples, indicating excellent sampling adequacy.

***Table 29*. Results of KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity for the measurement model**

Sample	**Sample 1 CHN335**	**Sample 2 TUR301**	**Sample 3 POL248**
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	0.957	0.914	0.941
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.000

Based on the initial results of the conducted factor extraction and factor rotation, *sense of belonging* loaded on the same factor as *inner self-expressiveness* in **sample 1 (CHN335)** and **sample 3 (POL248)** (Appendix 29 and 31). In **sample 2 (TUR301)**, items of *nostalgia*

loaded on a factor that included *social self-congruity*, *sense of belonging*, and *inner self-expressiveness* (Appendix 30).

To further clarify the potential discriminant validity between the above constructs, this study conducted a focused examination using only the items from the focal constructs for all three samples (Fabrigar et al., 1999). In Samples 1 and 3, the items loaded clearly on two distinct factors, thereby supporting the discriminant validity of *sense of belonging* and *inner self-expressiveness* (Appendices 32 and 34). In contrast, an EFA for sample 2 that included *social self-congruity, nostalgia, sense of belonging, and inner self-expressiveness* showed a different pattern: the five nostalgia items loaded on the same factor as social self-congruity, whereas sense of belonging and inner self-expressiveness again formed a separate factor (Appendix 33). This pattern was interpreted as a localised instance of weak discriminant validity between nostalgia and social self-congruity in sample 2 (Watkins, 2021). Based on the methodological guidance that factor-analytic decisions should prioritise cross-sample replicability, overall interpretability, and theoretical coherence of constructs, nostalgia and social self-congruity were therefore retained in the final measurement model for all three samples (Watkins, 2021).

To check for common method bias, a marker variable consisting of a 7-item scale measuring "eating more vegetables and fruits" was included in the data collection. Compared with the original measurement model, the inclusion of the marker variable did not lead to substantial changes in model fit indices (ΔRMSEA = 0.003, ΔSRMR = 0.0152, ΔCFI = 0.008 for Sample 1; ΔRMSEA = 0.001, ΔSRMR = 0.021, ΔCFI = 0.0022 for Sample 2; ΔRMSEA = 0.004, ΔSRMR = 0.024, ΔCFI = 0.007 for Sample 3). These minimal differences indicated that common method variance was not a serious concern (Chang et al., 2010).

Appendices 29-31 show the results of the EFA's final pattern matrix for [sample 1-CHN335], [sample 2-TUR301], and [sample 3-POL248]. It can be observed that all **Cronbach's alphas** (α) of the included scales were above the advocated cut-off point of **0.7** (Santos, 1999), thus indicating good reliability.

7.2.2. CFA full measurement model fit

The model fit indices of the full measurement model were assessed using **CFA**. The indices initially showed a relatively poor model fit. Thus, items with high modification indices were

disregarded, including those that had high error and a **loading of < 0.50** (Akrout & Mrad, 2023). For all three samples, out of the initial 64 items, 4 of them were deleted (ISC2, SSC1, SOB4, CA7), thus, **60 items** were left for testing the structural model for the three groups.

Following this process, the new CFA demonstrated satisfactory goodness-of-fit values despite the significance in chi-square/df for the three samples (see Table 30). All the factor loadings across the three samples were significant, exceeding the 0.5 cut-off point (Akrout & Mrad, 2023) (Table 31). In addition, the composite reliability (CR) for each dimension across each sample was greater than the recommended cut-off level of 0.70, signalling the model's composite reliability of the constructs (Hair et al., 2017). The average variance extracted (AVE) of all the constructs included in the measurement model in both samples was greater than the recommended threshold value of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2017), thus affirming convergent validity. Further, the square root of the AVE for all constructs was higher than the correlation between them, evidencing the scale's discriminant validity (Tables 32, 33, and 34).

***Table 30*. CFA full measurement model-model fit indices**

Measure	Acceptable	Excellent	Model Fit #'s					
			Sample 1 CHN335	Verdict	Sample 2 TUR301	Verdict	Sample 3 POL248	Verdict
CMIN	-	-	**3167.8130**	-	**2946.2522**	-	**2724.3259**	-
DF	-	-	**1630**	-	**1688**	-	**1632**	-
CMIN/DF	Between 3 and 5	Between 1 and 3	**1.9434**	Excellent	**1.7454**	Excellent	**1.6693**	Excellent
CFI	Between 0.90 and 0.95	Higher than 0.95	**0.9267**	Acceptable	**0.9019**	Acceptable	**0.9284**	Acceptable
RMSEA	Between 0.06 and 0.08	Lower than 0.06	**0.0531**	Excellent	**0.0498**	Excellent	**0.0523**	Excellent
SRMR	Between 0.06 and 0.08	Lower than 0.06	**0.0527**	Excellent	**0.0628**	Acceptable	**0.0592**	Excellent
PCLOSE	Between 0.01 and 0.05	Higher than 0.05	**0.0307**	Acceptable	**0.0503**	Excellent	**0.1387**	Excellent

Source: Gaskin, J., & Lim, J. (2016). Model fit measures. *Gaskination's StatWiki*, *37*(3), 814-822.

Table 31. Standardised regression weights (full measurement model)

ITEMS	Estimate (Sample)		
	1 CHN335	2 TUR301	3 POL248
Brand origin salience			
Products of this brand are made of X ingredients/parts (BOS1)	0.8528	0.7241	0.8704
Products of this brand are manufactured in X (BOS2)	0.8358	0.7290	0.9051
This is definitely a X brand (BOS3)	0.6800	0.6622	0.6845
Consumer acculturation			
I spend most of my social time with people who live in the UK and are not X (CA1)	0.5923	0.6811	0.7632
I often ask for help/advice from students/colleagues who live in UK and are not X (CA2)	0.5338	0.6982	0.8381
I frequently eat British food (CA3)	0.6570	0.7842	0.7242
I often participate in UK public celebrations (CA4)	0.7772	0.8012	0.7319
I often attend British cultural performances (e.g., theatres and concerts) (CA5)	0.8351	0.7676	0.8066
My preference is to speak English most of the time (CA6)	0.7962	0.7378	0.7898
I often speak English with XXX friends (CA7)	-	-	-
I often watch English-language movies (CA8)	0.7761	0.7438	0.8534
I often listen to English music (CA9)	0.7186	0.6483	0.8070
Consumer ethnocentrism			
My culture is generally right about things (CE1)	0.6370	0.6366	0.7032
I don't respect values and customs of other cultures (CE2)	0.9338	0.6594	0.9169
Other cultures should model themselves after my culture (CE3)	0.9190	0.6908	0.8394
Other cultures should try to be like my culture (CE4)	0.8897	0.6376	0.7661
People who are different make me anxious (CE5)	0.8401	0.7031	0.7772
I do not feel the need to respect other cultures (CE6)	0.8553	0.8351	0.8169
I would prefer to avoid interaction with other cultures (CE7)	0.8133	0.7740	0.8735
Self-congruity			
Individual dimension			
This product is not like me/is like me (ISC1)	0.9057	0.7593	0.9281
I do not identify/I identify myself with my description of the product (ISC2)	-	-	-
This product does not match me/matches me (ISC3)	0.8716	0.7442	0.9142
If you consider your own personality and compare it to the description you just provided, to what extend are they dissimilar/similar? (ISC4)	0.8951	0.7286	0.8790
Social dimension			
People who use this brand are like me (SSC1)	-	-	-
I am very much like the typical person who uses this brand (SSC2)	0.8985	0.7670	0.8349
The image of this brand's users is consistent with how I see myself (SSC3)	0.9157	0.7131	0.9324
I can identify with people who use this brand (SSC4)	0.8376	0.7029	0.8450
Nostalgia			
XX makes me think about people, places or things from my youth (NO1)	0.7878	0.7868	0.6795
XX makes me feel good about a previous time—a time in my life (NO2)	0.8034	0.6714	0.7836
XX makes me reminisce about a time in my life (NO3)	0.9092	0.6949	0.8665
I have warm feelings when reminiscing about this time from my youth (NO4)	0.8936	0.7078	0.8476
XX evokes good feelings about a time in my life (NO5)	0.8938	0.7353	0.8591
XX is a pleasant reminder of a time from my youth (NO6)	0.8307	0.7385	0.7942
Consumer-brand relationship			
I have extreme emotions for this brand (CBR1)	0.8290	0.6548	0.7596
This brand arouses intense feelings (CBR2)	0.8547	0.6513	0.7907
I have strong feelings for this brand (CBR3)	0.8677	0.6564	0.7975
When I learn of this brand's misfortune, I have strong feelings (CBR4)	0.8757	0.6809	0.9061
When I learn of this brand's achievement, I have strong feelings (CBR5)	0.8964	0.6674	0.9227
When I learn of this brand's misfortune, I have intense emotions (CBR6)	0.8206	0.7906	0.9414
When I learn of this brand's misfortune, I have intense sentiments (CBR7)	0.8798	0.7898	0.9364
When I learn of this brand's achievement, I have intense emotions (CBR8)	0.9031	0.8183	0.9441
Brand purchase intention			
It is very likely that I will buy X when I will shop in the future (BPI1)	0.8940	0.7859	0.7730
I will purchase the X next time I want to buy a product in this product category (BPI2)	0.9060	0.7498	0.8304
My willingness to buy X products when I shop in this product category is high (BPI3)	0.8844	0.7859	0.9104
Word-of-mouth persuasion			
I encourage friends and family to buy X (WOM-P1)	0.8547	0.7220	0.8896
I recommend X whenever anyone seeks my advice (WOM-P2)	0.9087	0.7227	0.9478
If the brand been mentioned in a conversation, I would recommend X (WOM-P3)	0.8467	0.7532	0.7493
I have actually recommended X to my friends and/or family (WOM-P4)	0.8544	0.7297	0.8302
Willingness to pay a price premium			
I am willing to pay a higher price for X I selected (WPP1)	0.8705	0.7610	0.8869
I keep buying at a premium price for X I selected instead of other brands (WPP2)	0.8955	0.7680	0.9019
For the advantages I get from X I selected, I am willing to pay a higher price (WPP3)	0.9043	0.7696	0.9119
I am committed to pay a lot more for the brand I selected (WPP4)	0.8880	0.7053	0.9087
Inner self-expressiveness			
This brand symbolizes the kind of person I really am inside (ISE1)	0.8639	0.6811	0.8667

ITEMS	Estimate (Sample)		
	1 CHN335	2 TUR301	3 POL248
This brand reflects my personality (ISE2)	0.9156	0.7442	0.9381
This brand is an extension of my inner self (ISE3)	0.9198	0.7423	0.9265
This brand mirrors the real me (ISE4)	0.8749	0.6839	0.8690
Perceived irreplaceability			
I cannot find a brand to use instead of X in this product category (PI1)	0.8018	0.7181	0.8621
I do not believe another brand will provide the value that X gives me (PI2)	0.9055	0.7844	0.9451
I do not see another brands equal to the X (PI3)	0.9214	0.6972	0.8690
X is unique for me when compared with other brands I know (PI4)	0.8417	0.6909	0.7705
Sense of belonging			
Even thinking about this brand gives me the feeling that I belong to X (SOB1)	0.8441	0.7158	0.8099
Even thinking about this brand gives me the feeling that I am part of the X culture (SOB2)	0.9170	0.7337	0.7988
Even thinking about this brand gives me the feeling that I fit in the X culture (SOB3)	0.9039	0.6704	0.8565
Using this brand makes me feel as an insider within X community (SOB4)	-	-	-

Table 32. **CFA full measurement model-assessment of validity (Sample 1: CHN335)**

	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Brand origin salience	**0.835**	**0.629**	**1**											
Ethnocentrism	**0.897**	**0.627**	**0.468**	**1**										
Consumer acculturation	**0.869**	**0.515**	**-0.457**	**-0.461**	**1**									
Self-congruity	**0.869**	**0.591**	**0.586**	**0.655**	**-0.396**	**1**								
Nostalgia	**0.85**	**0.548**	**0.528**	**0.484**	**-0.250**	**0.770**	**1**							
Consumer-brand relationships	**0.941**	**0.751**	**0.472**	**0.589**	**-0.270**	**0.823**	**0.709**	**1**						
Brand purchase intention	**0.923**	**0.801**	**0.431**	**0.208**	**-0.140**	**0.463**	**0.441**	**0.377**	**1**					
Word-of-mouth persuasion	**0.943**	**0.758**	**0.399**	**0.469**	**-0.166**	**0.687**	**0.614**	**0.685**	**0.619**	**1**				
Willingness to pay a price premium	**0.938**	**0.792**	**0.444**	**0.604**	**-0.284**	**0.777**	**0.671**	**0.753**	**0.524**	**0.784**	**1**			
Inner self-expressiveness	**0.941**	**0.799**	**0.507**	**0.619**	**-0.287**	**0.818**	**0.723**	**0.760**	**0.383**	**0.629**	**0.720**	**1**		
Sense of belonging	**0.813**	**0.593**	**0.476**	**0.420**	**-0.226**	**0.716**	**0.707**	**0.685**	**0.428**	**0.606**	**0.558**	**0.806**	**1**	
Perceived irreplaceability	**0.925**	**0.755**	**0.441**	**0.513**	**-0.264**	**0.694**	**0.535**	**0.664**	**0.499**	**0.617**	**0.681**	**0.585**	**0.472**	**1**
The square root of the AVE			**0.793**	**0.792**	**0.718**	**0.769**	**0.740**	**0.867**	**0.895**	**0.871**	**0.890**	**0.894**	**0.770**	**0.869**

Table 33. **CFA full measurement model-assessment of validity (Sample 2: TUR301)**

	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Brand origin salience	**0.748**	**0.5**	**1**											
Ethnocentrism	**0.87**	**0.502**	**0.117**	**1**										
Consumer acculturation	**0.903**	**0.539**	**-0.057**	**-0.820**	**1**									
Self-congruity	**0.876**	**0.542**	**0.122**	**0.437**	**-0.224**	**1**								
Nostalgia	**0.868**	**0.523**	**0.098**	**0.487**	**-0.251**	**0.352**	**1**							
Consumer-brand relationships	**0.89**	**0.514**	**0.112**	**0.648**	**-0.323**	**0.351**	**0.377**	**1**						
Brand purchase intention	**0.818**	**0.599**	**0.083**	**0.203**	**-0.030**	**0.270**	**0.305**	**0.231**	**1**					
Word-of-mouth persuasion	**0.822**	**0.536**	**0.100**	**0.411**	**-0.100**	**0.338**	**0.382**	**0.384**	**0.324**	**1**				
Willingness to pay a price premium	**0.838**	**0.565**	**0.129**	**0.534**	**-0.217**	**0.343**	**0.432**	**0.457**	**0.383**	**0.454**	**1**			
Inner self-expressiveness	**0.805**	**0.509**	**0.095**	**0.521**	**-0.261**	**0.315**	**0.401**	**0.428**	**0.290**	**0.390**	**0.438**	**1**		
Sense of belonging	**0.75**	**0.5**	**0.107**	**0.459**	**-0.179**	**0.412**	**0.472**	**0.406**	**0.394**	**0.495**	**0.481**	**0.461**	**1**	
Perceived irreplaceability	**0.814**	**0.524**	**0.048**	**0.293**	**-0.126**	**0.218**	**0.248**	**0.285**	**0.183**	**0.248**	**0.277**	**0.264**	**0.293**	**1**
The square root of the AVE			**0.707**	**0.709**	**0.734**	**0.736**	**0.723**	**0.717**	**0.774**	**0.732**	**0.752**	**0.713**	**0.707**	**0.724**

Table 34. **CFA full measurement model-assessment of validity (Sample 3: POL248)**

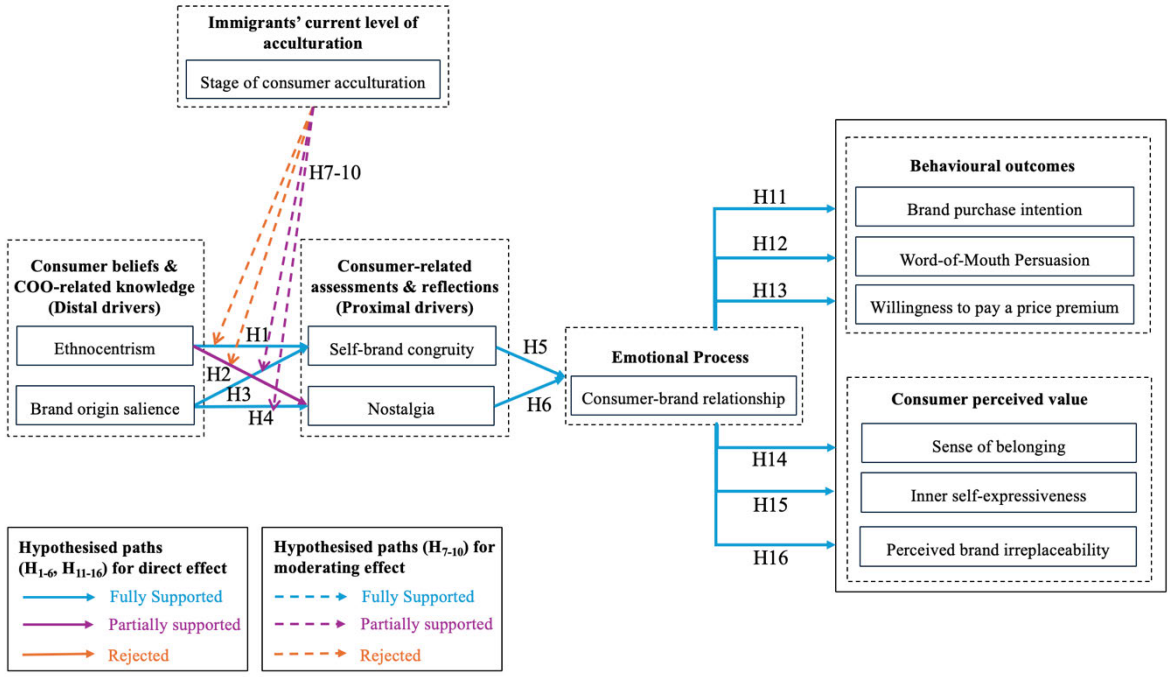
	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Brand origin salience	0.864	0.682	1											
Ethnocentrism	0.933	0.666	0.232	1										
Consumer acculturation	0.93	0.625	-0.305	-0.771	1									
Self-congruity	0.958	0.792	0.305	0.613	-0.489	1								
Nostalgia	0.918	0.652	0.379	0.134	-0.068	0.463	1							
Consumer-brand relationships	0.968	0.771	0.300	0.502	-0.382	0.749	0.459	1						
Brand purchase intention	0.877	0.705	0.365	0.802	0.043	0.398	0.398	0.277	1					
Word-of-mouth persuasion	0.917	0.735	0.453	0.441	-0.357	0.457	0.457	0.639	0.522	1				
Willingness to pay a price premium	0.946	0.814	0.400	0.515	-0.410	0.390	0.390	0.651	0.422	0.740	1			
Inner self-expressiveness	0.945	0.811	0.333	0.472	-0.429	0.392	0.392	0.663	0.283	0.630	0.636	1		
Sense of belonging	0.862	0.676	0.353	0.238	-0.244	0.770	0.770	0.567	0.463	0.642	0.540	0.695	1	
Perceived irreplaceability	0.951	0.746	0.288	0.314	-0.386	0.378	0.378	0.528	0.401	0.513	0.513	0.535	0.485	1
The square root of the AVE			0.826	0.816	0.791	0.890	0.807	0.878	0.840	0.857	0.902	0.901	0.822	0.864

7.3.Structural Model Estimation

The hypotheses were tested using structural equation modelling (SEM). This study examined three sets of hypotheses. The first set focused on the link between ethnocentrism and brand origin salience (distal drivers) and self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers). The second set concerned the role of self-congruity and nostalgia in consumer-brand relationships. A subset of these hypotheses explored the moderator, acculturation in the connections between ethnocentrism and brand origin salience (distal drivers) and self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers). The third set concerned the link between consumer-brand relationship and its behavioural outcomes (brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion, and willingness to pay a price premium), and consumer perceived values (sense of belonging, inner self-expressiveness, and perceived irreplaceability). This set of hypotheses aims to address **RQ2 and RQ3** of this research (i.e., formation and outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands).

The model included 12 constructs, across 16 hypotheses, showcasing a good to excellent model fit. Given that SEM allows simultaneous testing of dependence relationships at multiple levels (Klem, 2000), the focal construct of consumer-brand relationship sits in the middle of the model, being preceded by ethnocentrism and brand origin salience (distal drivers), self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers), stage of consumer acculturation (moderator), to the core construct, consumer-brand relationship, and its main outcomes (brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion, willingness to pay a price premium, as well as sense of belonging, inner self-expressiveness, and perceived irreplaceability (Figure 2).

Figure 2. **Structural model**



- Fully supported = significant ($p < .05$) in all three samples.
- Partially supported = significant ($p < .05$) in 1 or 2 of the three samples.
- Rejected = non-significant ($p \geq .05$) in all three samples.

Once the model was drawn and the hypothesised relationships were included in the model, it was estimated using a dataset of three samples. The structural model was estimated using the Maximum Likelihood method. The goodness of model fit was assessed using CMIN/DF, CFI, RMSEA, SRMR, and PCLOSE. As shown in Table 35, values of the model fit indices for the initial structural model were acceptable to excellent.

***Table 35*. SEM full measurement model-model fit indices**

Measure	Acceptable	Excellent	Model Fit #'s					
			Sample 1 CHN335	Verdict	Sample 2 TUR301	Verdict	Sample 3 POL248	Verdict
CMIN	-	-	2898.192	-	2350.829	-	2694.872	-
DF	-	-	1246	-	1247	-	1396	-
CMIN/DF	Between 3 and 5	Between 1 and 3	2.326	**Excellent**	1.885	**Excellent**	1.930	**Excellent**
CFI	Between 0.90 and 0.95	Higher than 0.95	0.913	**Acceptable**	0.910	**Acceptable**	0.909	**Acceptable**
RMSEA	Between 0.06 and 0.08	Lower than 0.06	0.063	**Acceptable**	0.054	**Excellent**	0.062	**Acceptable**
SRMR	Between 0.06 and 0.08	Lower than 0.06	0.0798	**Acceptable**	0.0673	**Acceptable**	0.0796	**Acceptable**
PCLOSE	Between 0.01 and 0.05	Higher than 0.05	0.01	**Acceptable**	0.018	**Acceptable**	0.01	**Acceptable**

Source: Gaskin, J., & Lim, J. (2016). Model fit measures. *Gaskination's StatWiki*, *37*(3), 814-822.

To examine the direct relationships specified in the model, structural equation modelling (SEM) was conducted using AMOS. For the relationships between ethnocentrism and brand origin salience (Distal drivers) and self-congruity and nostalgia (Proximal drivers), three hypotheses were fully supported, and one was partially supported. Specifically, the results of model estimation fully supported H_1, H_3, and H_4, while samples 1 and 2 supported H_2. Thus, the findings reveal that ethnocentrism is a strong predictor of self-congruity across three samples; however, it affected nostalgia only in samples 1 and 2, whereas brand origin salience had a positive effect on self-congruity and nostalgia in all three samples. As for the effects of nostalgia and self-congruity on the consumer-brand relationship, H_5 and H_6 were fully supported across three samples. Thus, self-congruity and nostalgia are direct drivers of consumer-brand relationships. As for the outcomes of consumer-brand relationships, all hypotheses are supported across three samples. Specifically, results from samples 1, 2, and 3 support the link between consumer-brand relationships and brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion, willingness to pay a price premium, inner self-expressiveness, sense of belonging, and perceived irreplaceability (Table 36).

To examine the moderating role of stage of consumer acculturation, additional moderation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS macro in SPSS (the justification for adopting this moderation analysis approach was provided in Chapter 6). Four interaction effects were tested, including the moderating effects of acculturation on (1) ethnocentrism and self-congruity, controlling for brand origin salience; (2) ethnocentrism and nostalgia, controlling for brand origin salience; (3) brand origin salience and self-congruity, controlling for ethnocentrism; and (4) brand origin salience and nostalgia, controlling for ethnocentrism. The results provide partial support for the moderating role of stage of acculturation. Specifically, the moderating effects of acculturation on the relationships between brand origin salience and self-congruity (H_9) and between brand origin salience and nostalgia (H_{10}) were supported among the Turkish sample. However, these moderation effects were not significant among the Chinese or Polish samples. In contrast, the moderating effects of acculturation on the relationships between ethnocentrism and self-congruity (H_7) and between ethnocentrism and nostalgia (H_8) were not supported across any of the three samples. Thus, H_7 and H_8 were rejected, whereas H_9 and H_{10} were partially supported (Table 36). The significant moderation effects were further visualised with interaction plots (see Appendix 35).

Table 36. **Structural model - Hypotheses Results**

Hypotheses		Sample 1: Chinese N335				Sample 2: Turkish N301				Sample 3: Polish N248				Result
		Estimate	S.E. (β)	C.R. (t-value)	P (Significance)	Estimate	S.E. (β)	C.R. (t-value)	P (Significance)	Estimate	S.E. (β)	C.R. (t-value)	P (Significance)	
Distal antecedents → Proximal antecedents														
H_1	Ethnocentrism → Self-congruity	0.275	0.031	8.970	***	0.586	0.040	7.747	***	0.531	0.041	8.118	***	**Fully Supported**
H_2	Ethnocentrism → Nostalgia	0.202	0.036	5.765	***	0.633	0.041	7.750	***	0.071	0.038	1.076	0.282	**Supported sample 1 & 2**
H_3	Brand origin salience → Self-congruity	0.446	0.065	6.869	***	0.341	0.098	4.741	***	0.329	0.065	5.478	***	**Fully Supported**
H_4	Brand origin salience → Nostalgia	0.581	0.085	6.866	***	0.200	0.085	3.065	0.002	0.370	0.072	5.134	***	**Fully Supported**
Proximal antecedents → Consumer-brand relationships														
H_5	Self-congruity → CBR	0.797	0.066	12.023	***	0.491	0.081	6.501	***	0.770	0.079	11.972	***	**Fully Supported**
H_6	Nostalgia → CBR	0.283	0.037	7.608	***	0.585	0.094	7.029	***	0.202	0.061	4.456	***	**Fully Supported**
Moderations														
Stage of consumer acculturation moderates:														
H_7	Ethnocentrism → Self-congruity	-0.012	0.023	-0.524	0.601	0.013	0.022	0.615	0.539	0.034	0.030	1.133	0.258	**Rejected**
H_8	Ethnocentrism → Nostalgia	-0.036	0.024	-1.486	0.138	-0.033	0.023	-1.412	0.157	0.016	0.028	0.560	0.576	**Rejected**
H_9	Brand origin salience → Self-congruity	-0.013	0.051	-0.254	0.799	-0.248	0.039	-6.417	***	-0.025	0.032	-0.789	0.431	**Supported sample 2**
H_{10}	Brand origin salience → Nostalgia	-0.096	0.051	-1.904	0.058	-0.166	0.043	-3.860	***	0.049	0.049	0.994	0.322	**Supported sample 2**
Consumer-brand relationships → Brand-related consequences														
H_{11}	CBR → Brand purchase intention	0.406	0.049	8.308	***	0.600	0.078	8.082	***	0.342	0.053	4.817	***	**Fully Supported**
H_{12}	CBR → Word-of-mouth persuasion	0.667	0.053	12.704	***	0.778	0.079	8.327	***	0.720	0.053	10.504	***	**Fully Supported**
H_{13}	CBR → WPP	0.821	0.066	15.125	***	0.842	0.087	8.717	***	0.722	0.060	12.870	***	**Fully Supported**
Consumer-brand relationships → Consumer-related consequences														
H_{14}	CBR → Inner self-expressiveness	0.820	0.066	15.438	***	0.898	0.100	10.468	***	0.739	0.061	13.552	***	**Fully Supported**
H_{15}	CBR → Sense of belonging	0.723	0.054	13.321	***	0.874	0.076	8.086	***	0.604	0.058	9.053	***	**Fully Supported**
H_{16}	CBR → Perceived irreplaceability	0.824	0.062	13.185	***	0.803	0.086	9.494	***	0.582	0.064	9.358	***	**Fully Supported**

7.4.Chapter summary

This chapter reviews the various suitability tests performed on the measurement model for three samples. The KMO and Bartlett's sphericity test showcased the suitability of the sample. The exploratory factor analysis shows that each construct was unique and different from the others in the measurement model, which is supported by the confirmatory factor analysis. Together, these tests and analyses demonstrate the high quality and appropriateness of the sample data.

This chapter also reviews two models utilised in this study. The two distal antecedents are ethnocentrism and brand origin salience, and the two proximal antecedents are self-brand congruity and nostalgia. The moderator between distal and proximal drivers is the stage of consumer acculturation. The consequences can be divided into behavioural category, including brand purchase intention, willingness to pay a price premium, WOM persuasion, and category of consumer perceived values, including inner self-expressiveness, sense of belonging, and perceived irreplaceability. The initial model shows acceptable to excellent model fit indices and supports many proposed hypotheses. Given these results, the next chapter delves into the implications for the constructs and the consumer-brand relationship literature.

Chapter 8. Discussion

8.1.Introduction

This chapter assesses how the findings from the various studies have addressed the research questions set out at the beginning of the thesis. It interprets the results regarding the **existence, nature, drivers and outcomes** of immigrant consumers' relationships with their home brands. These outcomes are then used to frame the conceptual, theoretical and practical implications, which are further explored in Chapter 9.

8.2.RQ1: Do immigrant consumers form relationships with home brands? If so, what is the nature of these relationships?

The main focus of this thesis is to explore whether immigrant consumers form relationships with their home brands and, if so, the **nature** of such relationships. As reviewed in Chapter 2, consumer-brand relationship research has paid limited attention to brand relationship formation among consumers with multicultural backgrounds. Immigrants are a salient example. Prior work also suggests that, for immigrant consumers, brands (particularly those originating from the home country) are especially meaningful resources for constructing and expressing the self (Guzman et al., 2017). Yet, despite these insights, research has paid limited attention to consumers with hybrid and shifting identities, whether they develop relationships with home brands, and what characterises the nature of these relationships. This gap highlights the need for investigation, forming the basis of **RQ1** of this thesis.

To address this research question, two complementary approaches are used: a **scoping review** examining the prior studies on consumer-brand relationships, country-of-origin, a narrative review of immigrant consumer behaviour literature, and a **qualitative phase** consisting of 31 semi-structured interviews.

The **three streams of research** suggest the potential existence of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home-country brands. Consumer-brand relationship research suggests that a consumer is more likely to build relationships with a brand when the brand fits his/her self-concept (Rodrigues et al., 2024b) and allows them to express or communicate who they are (Babić-Hodović et al., 2023; Saini et al., 2023). COO research indicates that origin cues of the brand recently carry symbolic value beyond quality inference, particularly for consumers

who hold ethnocentric orientations would prefer local brands when they perceive congruence with these brands (Shu & Strombeck, 2017). Immigrant consumption behaviour research shows that immigrants navigate shifting cultural repertoires when they adapt to the host society, and that marketplace choices often serve as socially legible markers of belonging, continuity, and self-verification (Guzmán et al., 2017). As such, home brands may operate as culturally meaningful resources that help immigrant consumers maintain identity continuity while managing change.

Building on this reasoning, it can be assumed that immigrant consumers who hold ethnocentric tendencies are more likely to perceive congruence with and prefer the brands from their country of origin, and consume these brands. Within this process, they may develop relationships with their home brands. However, prior research has seldom examined this relationship, nor has it clarified how COO-based meanings intersect with relationship formation among immigrants.

Qualitative phase supports the existence of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands and offers insights into the nature of such relationships. Specifically, participants show **varying intensities of passion** toward their home brands. Some show strong passion, such as love, hate, a sense of personal significance and specialness, while others report more moderate or ambivalent passion, including liking, disliking, or even no particular passion. Personally, passion is a "*state of intense longing for union with another*" (Hatfield & Walster, 1978, p.9), making people invest in and set expectations for the relationship (Tolunay & Veloutsou, 2025). Applying passion in a consumption context, brand passion is "*a psychological phenomenon constituted of excitation, infatuation, and obsession for a brand*" (Osuna-Ramírez et al., 2024, p.5). It is typically driven by infatuation for an object (Albert et al., 2013; Pourazad et al., 2019b), and, in the context of this research, such infatuation may be triggered when a home brand functions as an identity and cultural anchor in the host country, encouraging immigrant consumers to idealise the brand as a symbolic bridge to "home" and to invest affectively in the relationship.

Overall, this dissertation makes an important headway in building on the qualitative insight to reconceptualise consumer-brand relationships through a revised lens that centres consumers with multicultural national dispositions. It defines the consumer-brand relationship as "*an individual brand-centric connection which occurs when consumers act as independent entities and is characterised by passion*" (Veloutsou & Ruiz-Mafe, 2020).

Accordingly, the quantitative phase operationalises immigrant consumer-brand relationships using the brand passion scale developed by Osuna-Ramírez et al. (2024), as it aligns with the conceptualisation of the construct. In its original development process, this scale shows strong performance (e.g., reliability and validity), supporting its suitability for testing the proposed nomological model in the quantitative phase of this research (Osuna-Ramírez et al., 2024). In the present study, the scale items are adopted and contextualised to home brands, pre-tested to ensure clarity and pilot-tested to ensure cultural appropriateness for immigrant consumers.

8.3.RQ2: What are the antecedents of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands?

As such relationships exist, the next step is to explore the formation of immigrant consumers and their relationships with home brands. Prior literature has identified some antecedents of consumer-brand relationships, which this study classifies into two main categories: **brand-related** and **consumer-related** categories (Chapter 2). Brand-related factors pertain to brand attributes, perceptions and assessments, brand-related emotions and behaviours, and consumer-related factors, including personal value orientations, reflections of memories and experience, and self-related assessments.

The qualitative findings show tentative evidence concerning the antecedents of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. The **conceptual model** in Chapter 5 suggested that **4 drivers** (2 distal drivers and 2 proximal drivers) give rise to the consumer-brand relationships based on the scoping review of consumer-brand relationships and the qualitative findings. The distal drivers included 2 categories: the first category (COO related) included brand origin salience, and the second category (consumer beliefs) included ethnocentrism. The proximal drivers include 2 categories: the first category (reflections of memories and experience) includes nostalgia, and the second category (consumer-related assessment) includes self-congruity. These tentative relationships were further formalised into an empirical model and tested using quantitative data (Chapter 7) (Table 37).

Table 37. **Results of hypothesis testing: Antecedents of consumer-brand relationships**

Antecedents of consumer-brand relationships		Results		
		Sample 1 CHN335	Sample 2 TUR301	Sample 3 POL248
H_1	Consumer ethnocentrism and Self-congruity	Supported	Supported	Supported
H_2	Consumer ethnocentrism and Nostalgia	Supported	Supported	Rejected
H_3	Brand origin salience and Self-congruity	Supported	Supported	Supported
H_4	Brand origin salience and Nostalgia	Supported	Supported	Supported
H_5	Self-congruity and Consumer-brand relationships	Supported	Supported	Supported
H_6	Nostalgia and Consumer-brand relationships	Supported	Supported	Supported

8.3.1. Consumer ethnocentrism and Self-congruity (H1)

The qualitative study suggests ethnocentrism, or one's beliefs of favouring his/her own culture, is positively related to self-congruity, which refers to the extent to which the brand reputation matches one's self-concept. Consumers who hold strong ethnocentric tendencies are likely to perceive a higher level of congruence with brands originating from their home country, as such brands are consistent with their cultural values. The quantitative results further substantiate this relationship, confirming that consumer ethnocentrism serves as a significant predictor of self-congruity. This evidence aligns with the argument from Shu and Strombeck (2017), who similarly reported a positive effect of consumer ethnocentrism on self-congruity with local brands. Importantly, however, their work examines consumers with a single cultural identity, whereas the present study extends the relationship to immigrant consumers, where consumers may negotiate multiple cultural national identities, and where "localness" is anchored in their home country rather than the host market.

This result can be partly explained by the research design of the qualitative study. Since the respondents are asked to reflect on brands from their home country, it is natural for those with strong ethnocentric tendencies to perceive congruence with those associated brands. For immigrant consumers, who move from one country to another, often navigating between their home and host cultures, stronger orientations to their home culture often lead them to perceive home brands as more reflective of their heritage. This perception fosters a sense of congruency between the brand and his/her self-concept, thereby fostering the connection between consumer ethnocentrism and self-congruity.

Future research can further examine the relationship between ethnocentrism and self-congruity across different contexts. For example, it might vary across **different product**

categories other than food, or to test the differences between more symbolic versus more functional categories. Also, future studies can replicate the test among immigrant groups from **other home countries** beyond China, Turkey, and Poland, and within **different host countries** other than the UK, where social norms, diaspora density, and the salience of home identity differ.

8.3.2. Consumer ethnocentrism and Nostalgia (H2)

This research defines nostalgia as memories triggered by past experiences with the focal brand, representing an emotional state associated with specific brands from consumers' earlier life stages (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022; Shields & Johnson, 2016a). Continued engagement with brands frequently used in the past can evoke memories of a bygone era (Shin & Parker, 2017), then form emotional responses and sustain brand proximity (Shields & Johnson, 2016b).

Both the qualitative findings and hypothesis-testing results show that consumer ethnocentrism is positively linked to nostalgia toward home brands. In the qualitative phase, participants who prioritise their home culture and express strong ethnocentric beliefs, such as a clear preference for home values, are more likely to describe vivid nostalgic reactions when encountering brands from their country of origin. These nostalgic feelings are often articulated as past memory recollections, including shared moments with old friends or family, with the focal brand serving as concrete cues that reactivated those memories. The quantitative phase subsequently corroborates this finding, confirming that ethnocentrism is an important driver of nostalgia among immigrant consumers.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this study is the first to provide empirical evidence of the effects of consumer ethnocentrism on immigrant consumers' nostalgia associated with their home brands. Future research can differentiate nostalgia types, such as **personal nostalgia** rooted in lived autobiographical episodes versus **collective nostalgia** associated with shared group narratives (Dimitriadou et al., 2019), and examine whether ethnocentrism preferentially activates one pathway, with distinct implications for brand meaning and behavioural outcomes.

8.3.3. Brand origin salience and Self-congruity (H3)

Brand origin salience is defined as "*the extent to which consumers recognise the brand origin*" (Shi et al., 2024, p.2). It mainly reflects consumers' cognitive ability to identify and evaluate the country-of-origin of the brands (Abdellah-Kilani & Zorai, 2019). When a brand's origin is salient, consumers are more likely to recall the country/region from which the brand originates (Samiee et al., 2024), leading to differentiated brand evaluations and assessments based on the perceived reputation of that origin (Oduro et al., 2024).

Consistent with this logic, both the qualitative evidence and hypothesis testing in this thesis indicate that brand origin salience is positively associated with self-congruity. The qualitative phase suggests that immigrant consumers tend to perceive stronger congruence with their home brands when the brands' origin could be easily identified and was subjectively "obvious" to them through culturally recognisable symbols and experiences anchored in the home context. The quantitative phase further confirms this relationship. The result indicates that brand origin salience not only signals "where is the brand from", it also helps immigrant consumers connect the brand to a familiar cultural "world", thereby increasing the likelihood that the brand's perceived reputation aligns with their self-concept.

To the best of the author's knowledge, this study is among the first to offer empirical evidence that brand origin salience influences immigrant consumers' self-congruity with home brands. Future research can examine **which specific origin elements** (e.g., language, symbols, heritage narratives, sensory signatures, etc.) most strongly drive immigrant consumers' self-congruity. Another possible direction is to examine the role of **contested or hybrid origins**, with mixed production countries, to determine when brand origin salience enhances self-congruity versus generating ambiguity and weakening perceived congruence. Finally, future work can adopt a **dynamic perspective** by tracing how the link between brand origin salience and self-congruity evolves as immigrant consumers' self-concepts become more hybridised, thereby clarifying whether brand origin cues function primarily as early-stage anchors of continuity or remain central throughout the acculturation trajectory.

8.3.4. Brand origin salience and Nostalgia (H4)

The qualitative data reveal that immigrant consumers' nostalgic memories related to the brand might be frequently triggered by its recognisable country-of-origin cues. This was

further tested and confirmed by the analysis of the quantitative survey results, which showed that brand origin salience seems to be a strong and significant antecedent of the nostalgia phenomenon.

The prominence of this driver may be attributed to the specific characteristics of the research context. This study focuses on food brands, which are often among the most familiar categories to consumers due to their essential role in daily life. Food consumption is a basic and recurrent activity, and brands within this category tend to accompany individuals across different life stages and cultural environments. Moreover, the study targets immigrant consumers, for whom recognising a brand as originating from their home countries could evoke stronger sentimental memories and a sense of longing for past experiences. Such familiarity and personal resonance often elicit nostalgia, rendering the brand more emotionally salient and personally meaningful.

Future research could proceed along several avenues. First, scholars could unpack the "origin cue bundle" by identifying which specific signal, such as language or packaging, most elicits nostalgic responses among immigrant consumers. Second, future research could distinguish between personal nostalgia and collective nostalgia, and assess whether brand origin salience is more likely to activate one form over the other, with corresponding differences in subsequent outcomes.

8.3.5. Self-congruity and Consumer-brand relationship (H5)

In consumer-brand relationship literature, self-congruity is one of the most prominent drivers of consumers' relationships with their brands (e.g., Japutra et al., 2023; Klabi & Meshari, 2023; Rodrigues et al., 2024b). Consumers are often drawn to brands that are congruent with their self-concepts (Bargoni et al., 2024; Rahman et al., 2021). That is to say, when a consumer perceives that a brand matches with his/her self-concept, they would experience a sense of self-validation (Shimul & Phau, 2023), and such perception leads to their relationships towards these brands (Wallace et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, there is limited attention paid to the role of self-congruity on immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. Qualitative findings suggest a positive relationship between self-congruity and immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. Such a hypothesis is further tested and confirmed in the quantitative phase. Findings

therefore indicate that for immigrant consumers, when the reputation of their home brands is perceived to be congruent with their self-concepts, they are more likely to develop relationships with these brands.

Future study can build on these findings by examining the boundary conditions and underlying mechanisms through which self-congruity translates into stronger immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. For example, scholars could investigate whether the effect is contingent on immigrants' bicultural identity integration, or identity salience (e.g., home versus host). In addition, future studies could compare symbolic and utilitarian product categories to examine whether self-congruity shows a stronger effect for symbolic (e.g., culturally salient offerings) than for utilitarian categories (e.g., decisions are more likely to hinge on functional attributes like price and availability).

8.3.6. Nostalgia and Consumer-brand relationship (H6)

Both the qualitative study and hypothesis testing confirm that nostalgia is positively related to the consumer-brand relationship. Qualitative findings show that immigrant consumers tend to associate their liked/loved home brands with their past memories with either friends, family, or classmates. In other words, when immigrant consumers experience nostalgic feelings with their home-country brands, they tend to develop stronger emotional bonds with those brands that evoke meaningful memories from the past.

Although previous studies have identified nostalgia as a key driver of strong, positive consumer-brand relationships among consumers (Grappi et al., 2024; Sadeghvaziri & Shafeie, 2024), to the best of the author's knowledge, this thesis is the first to provide empirical evidence of the influence of nostalgia on immigrant consumers' relationships with home-country brands. Future research could extend these findings by examining other immigrant consumer groups from different home or host countries or exploring various product categories.

8.3.7. Moderating role of Stage of consumer acculturation (H7-H10)

In addition, a moderating variable is raised based on the qualitative findings, i.e., stage of consumer acculturation, pertaining to the various levels of immigrant consumers' cultural adaptation to host countries. In line with acculturation theory, it was hypothesised to weaken

the relationship between brand origin salience and nostalgia, brand origin salience and self-congruity, as well as ethnocentrism and nostalgia, ethnocentrism and self-congruity. The results of hypothesis testing related to this moderation are presented in Table 38.

***Table 38*. Results of hypothesis testing: Moderator of consumer-brand relationships**

Antecedents of consumer-brand relationships		Results		
		Sample 1 CHN335	Sample 2 TUR301	Sample 3 POL248
H_7	Consumer ethnocentrism and Self-congruity	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected
H_8	Consumer ethnocentrism and Nostalgia	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected
H_9	Brand origin salience and Self-congruity	Rejected	Supported	Rejected
H_{10}	Brand origin salience and Nostalgia	Rejected	Supported	Rejected

Hypothesis testing results in the quantitative study are inconclusive regarding the moderating role of consumer acculturation in weakening the relationships between brand origin salience and ethnocentrism (distal drivers) and self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers). Although moderation was supported in one of the three samples, the effect was not confirmed across all three samples at the same time.

The quantitative findings appear to contradict the qualitative evidence. The interview data suggest that higher levels of acculturation tend to weaken consumers' nostalgic feelings and self-congruity toward home-country brands. Thus, it is surprising to find only significant support for moderation in the relationships between brand origin salience and nostalgia (H_{10}), and between brand origin salience and self-congruity (H_9) in sample 2 [TUR301], with no significant moderation detected in other relationships or samples.

H9 is supported in the Turkish sample [TUR301], indicating that consumer acculturation negatively moderates the relationship between brand origin salience and self-congruity. As shown in Appendix 35, self-congruity remains relatively stable as brand origin salience increases among Turkish immigrants with lower levels of acculturation, whereas it decreases more noticeably among those with higher levels of acculturation. This pattern indicates that more highly acculturated immigrants may incorporate more host-cultural meanings into their self-concepts; then, highly salient home-origin cues may become less compatible with their evolving identities, resulting in lower perceived self-brand congruity.

H10 is supported in the Turkish sample [TUR301], indicating that consumer acculturation negatively moderates the relationship between brand origin salience and nostalgia. As shown

in Appendix 35, nostalgia remains relatively stable as brand origin salience increases among Turkish immigrants with lower levels of acculturation, whereas it decreases more noticeably among those with higher levels of acculturation. This pattern indicates that the more highly acculturated immigrants may rely less on home-origin cues as emotionally meaningful resources as they increasingly adopt host-cultural frames. Consequently, a stronger emphasis on a brand's home-country origin may become less consistent with their evolving cultural orientations and may therefore be associated with lower nostalgic resonance.

One possible explanation for these mixed results may lie in the context-specific nature of consumer acculturation. Acculturation may not operate uniformly across immigrant groups, as its influence can depend on how individuals negotiate their home- and host-cultural identities, the extent to which they maintain social and emotional ties to their homeland, and their continued exposure to home-cultural meanings in the host environment. Behavioural adaptation to the host culture does not necessarily involve an equivalent degree of psychological detachment from the home culture. Some immigrants may adopt host-market practices while continuing to regard home-origin cues as important sources of self-verification and autobiographical memory, whereas others may become less reliant on these cues as their host-cultural orientations develop. Accordingly, the significant moderating effects observed only in the Turkish sample may reflect group-specific patterns of identity negotiation and marketplace experience rather than a uniform effect of acculturation across all three immigrant groups. The mixed findings therefore suggest that the moderating role of consumer acculturation may depend on additional contextual and individual conditions that were not explicitly captured in the present model.

8.4.RQ3: What are the consequences of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands?

Three stages were used to answer RQ3, including the scoping review on consumer-brand relationships, a qualitative approach (semi-structured interviews), and a quantitative approach (hypothesis testing). Although existing research identified the outcomes of consumer-brand relationships, research paid limited attention to immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands.

Prior literature identified several outcomes of consumer-brand relationships (Chapter 2), grouped into two categories in this study, including outcomes for brands and consumers.

Outcomes for brands were related to the brand/firm that consumers engage with, and outcomes for consumers referred to consumers' perceived benefits/values and the object. Qualitative findings showed possible outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. These outcome variables were further analysed in relation to the literature on consumer-brand relationships and discussed with two brand management experts. Finally, three brand-related behavioural outcomes: brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion, and willingness to pay a price premium, and three consumer perceived values-related outcomes: inner self-expressiveness, sense of belonging, and perceived irreplaceability, were tested in the empirical model discussed in Chapter 7. All relationships concerning outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands were supported (Table 39).

***Table 39*. Results of hypothesis testing: Consequences of consumer-brand relationships**

Consequences of consumer-brand relationships		Results		
		Sample 1 CHN335	Sample 2 TUR301	Sample 3 POL248
H_{11}	CBR and Brand purchase intention	Supported	Supported	Supported
H_{12}	CBR and WOM persuasion	Supported	Supported	Supported
H_{13}	CBR and Willingness to pay a price premium	Supported	Supported	Supported
H_{14}	CBR and Inner self-expressiveness	Supported	Supported	Supported
H_{15}	CBR and Sense of belonging	Supported	Supported	Supported
H_{16}	CBR and Perceived irreplaceability	Supported	Supported	Supported

8.4.1. Consumer-brand relationships and Brand purchase intention (H11)

Brand purchase intention is defined as a consumer's personal intention to purchase a brand if able (Gomes et al., 2022). Previous research indicates that consumers who establish strong relationships with a brand are more likely to engage in future purchase behaviours toward that brand (Batra et al., 2012; Madadi et al., 2022; Wong & Haque, 2022; Touni et al., 2022). These findings suggest that the strength of the consumer-brand relationship can serve as an important predictor of purchase intentions. However, existing research has not yet examined whether this relationship holds for immigrant consumers and their home-country brands.

This research provides dual support for the strong influences of immigrant consumer-brand relationships on home brand purchase intentions, as demonstrated by both the qualitative and the quantitative findings. In the interview stage, participants who show a stronger passion for their home brands express a clearer intention to seek out and purchase these brands in the future. Quantitative findings further confirm this result, demonstrating a strong

association between relationship strength and purchase intention. Overall, the findings indicate that immigrants who hold stronger relationships with home brands are more likely to intend to purchase these brands in the future, particularly when situational constraints are removed.

Future studies could broaden the scope of these findings in two main ways. First, researchers could test the relationship in different product categories beyond food, comparing categories that are more symbolic with those that are primarily utilitarian. Such comparisons would clarify whether consumer-brand relationship strength predicts purchase intentions more strongly when brands carry cultural meaning or emotional resonance, versus when decisions are driven mainly by functional performance and convenience. Second, future work could examine immigrant consumers from a wider range of home and host countries to assess how contextual factors condition the relationship. Variations in cultural distance between home and host cultures, and the market availability and accessibility of home-country brands (e.g., distribution reach, online access, pricing, and regulation) may all influence how easily relationships with home brands can be maintained and translated into purchase intentions. Cross-country comparative designs would therefore help specify when strong immigrant consumer-brand relationships are most likely to convert into actual behavioural intentions and, ultimately, purchase behaviour.

8.4.2. Consumer-brand relationships and WOM persuasion (H12)

WOM persuasion is defined as the interpersonal communication process through which individuals influence others' purchase decisions regarding a brand (Berger, 2014). Recent studies on consumer-brand relationships mostly investigate the sharing nature of WOM, that is, consumers who have a relationship with a brand are more likely to tell other people about their positive experiences with that brand (Madadi et al., 2022; Wong & Haque, 2022). However, the persuasion aspect receives limited attention. Also, prior studies did not examine whether the immigrant consumer-brand relationship can lead to their persuasion intention to others on their home brands.

The qualitative findings provide support that immigrant consumers who hold a strong passion towards their home brands are more likely to persuade others to consume them. The quantitative phase further confirmed a strong relationship between immigrant consumer-brand relationships and WOM persuasion intentions toward home brands across three

samples. The findings suggest that immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands can motivate them to act as informal advocates who encourage trial among relevant others.

Future research can move beyond WOM persuasion to focus on voluntary sharing, examining whether immigrants with stronger home-brand relationships are more inclined to engage in brand-related conversations as a means of exchanging practical information and consumption knowledge.

8.4.3. Consumer-brand relationships and Willingness to pay a price premium (H13)

Willingness to pay a price premium is defined as a consumer's willingness to pay the excess price over the 'fair' price justified by the 'true' value of the brand (Casado-Díaz et al., 2020). Prior research has established a positive relationship between consumer-brand relationships and their willingness to pay a premium price (Hemonnet-Goujot & Valette-Florence, 2022; Rahman et al., 2021; Santos & Schlesinger, 2021). Such relationships can affect consumers' price perceptions through both functional brand attributes, such as quality and performance (Homburg et al., 2005), and symbolic or emotional associations that justify higher spending (Santos & Schlesinger, 2021). However, existing research has primarily focused on general consumers, leaving a limited understanding of whether immigrant consumers' relationships with their home brands similarly enhance their willingness to pay a price premium.

Findings from the qualitative phase show that immigrant consumers are more willing to pay a higher price for home brands with which they have developed strong relationships. The quantitative results further validate this relationship across all three samples. The findings suggest that immigrant consumers who form strong relationships with their home brands are often more inclined to pay a price premium for their products or services. This tendency may arise because the perceived value of these brands extends beyond the functional attributes to encompass emotional and identity-related meanings. The stronger the relationship, the more justified consumers feel in paying a higher price, reflecting the brand's personal and symbolic significance to them.

8.4.4. Consumer-brand relationships and Inner self-expressiveness (H14)

Inner self-expressiveness is defined as the extent to which consumers perceive a given brand to reflect and represent their inner self. Existing literature suggests that inner self-

expressiveness is an antecedent of consumer-brand relationship (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Wallace et al., 2014). Consumers who perceive a brand as a reflection of who they are inside are more likely to develop stronger emotional bonds with it (Wallace et al., 2021).

Nevertheless, findings from the qualitative phase reveal a reversed relationship, that is, inner self-expressiveness appeared to emerge as an outcome rather than a driver of immigrant consumers' relationships with their home brands. Specifically, immigrant consumers who form strong relationships with their home brands are more likely to perceive these brands as reflective of their self-concepts. The quantitative results corroborated this account across all three samples, showing a consistent positive association between immigrant consumer-brand relationships and perceived inner self-expressiveness.

Future research could extend the analysis beyond food to symbolic and utilitarian categories, which would help clarify whether this reversed pattern is specific to immigrant identity negotiation and home-brand meanings or reflects a more general relationship development process.

8.4.5. Consumer-brand relationships and Sense of belonging (H15)

Sense of belonging refers to a consumer's feeling of inclusion and affiliation with a particular group or culture in relation to the brand. Recent literature has investigated the sense of belonging of immigrants (Hang & Zhong, 2023), indicating that international migrants may spend more money on material purchases to cope with their lack of a sense of belonging in the host country. However, to the researcher's best knowledge, there is a limited study that has examined the role of immigrant consumer-brand relationships in their sense of belonging related to their home brands.

Qualitative and quantitative findings have shown that immigrant consumer-brand relationships can lead to their sense of belonging associated with their home brands. Specifically, strong consumer-brand relationships can foster a sense of inclusion and affiliation, especially when the brand represents shared values, identity, or culture. For immigrant consumers, engaging with their home brand is not just a transactional act but a social one, linking them to a broader community of individuals with similar cultural backgrounds or origins.

Future research can explore this connection within different product categories and among general (non-immigrant) consumers. For instance, studies could compare whether belonging effects are stronger for culturally symbolic categories than for utilitarian categories, where the scope for identity enactment and community signalling may be more limited. Researchers can also test whether similar mechanisms operate for mainstream consumers to investigate if these relationships work for consumers with a monolithic identity.

8.4.6. Consumer-brand relationships and Perceived irreplaceability (H16)

In this study, perceived irreplaceability refers to as consumer' perception of a brand cannot be replaced even with an alike brand. When a brand is perceived as irreplaceable, individuals are reluctant to replace it, tend to retain it for as long as possible, and often postpone any potential substitution (Pedeliento et al., 2016). Prior research has established the link between brand attachment and perceived irreplaceability (Mugge et al., 2005; Pedeliento et al., 2016). They argued that consumers often place significant emotions to a brand that embody special values or meanings, such strong emotional bonds, consists of the psychological appropriation of a product that becomes unique through the person–product interaction (Kleine & Baker, 2004), becomes irreplaceable (Schifferstein & Zwartkruis-Pelgrim, 2008) and assumes a meaning for the possessor that differentiates the product from every other product, including a replica. However, to the best of the author's knowledge, limited research has examined whether immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands similarly lead to perceived irreplaceability.

Findings from the qualitative phase indicate that immigrant consumer-brand relationships are strongly related to perceived irreplaceability toward home brands. Quantitative results further confirmed this relationship, revealing that for immigrant consumers, strong relationships with home-country brands imbue these brands with unique and enduring value, rendering them non-substitutable. As a result, such consumers are often reluctant to replace these brands, even with functionally equivalent alternatives.

8.5.Chapter summary

This chapter discusses findings considering the three research questions stated at the beginning of this research. The discussion covers the results of both qualitative and

quantitative studies, as they relate to the existing literature. The correspondence and deviations from the existing research are explained.

In line with RQ1, this thesis confirms the existence of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. Findings from the qualitative phase indicate that immigrant consumers relate to home brands with various intensities of passion. While some participants articulated strong forms of passion, ranging from love and perceived significance to hate, others described more muted or ambivalent orientations, such as simple liking or disliking, mixed feelings, or indifference. Taken together, these suggest that immigrant consumers do form consumer-brand relationships with brands from their country of origin, albeit in diverse strengths.

Regarding RQ2, six drivers of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands are identified in the conceptual model. In the hypothesis testing, all 4 drivers remain, and 1 moderator has a negative effect on the phenomenon. As such, the findings suggest that the immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands are driven by brand origin salience and ethnocentrism (distal drivers), and self-congruity and nostalgia (proximal drivers). One moderator (acculturation) is found to weaken the link between brand origin salience and nostalgia, and brand origin salience and self-congruity in the Turkish sample.

Concerning RQ3, the consumer-brand relationship is positively related to six outcomes: brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion, willingness to pay a price premium, sense of belonging, inner self-expressiveness and perceived irreplaceability. The literature review and qualitative study suggest these outcome variables, and the quantitative studies confirm these relationships.

Chapter 9. Contribution and Direction for Future Research

9.1.Introduction

This chapter synthesises the key achievements of this dissertation by outlining its conceptual, theoretical, and practical contributions. The conceptual contribution lies in reapproaching the nature of consumer-brand relationships through a revised lens that centres on consumers with multicultural national dispositions (here, immigrant consumers) and brands from their country of origin. The theoretical contributions of this thesis lie in extending self-signalling theory to the immigrant consumption context, and shifting the focus of consumer acculturation theory from host brand consumption to home brand consumption. The research also contributes to the literature by specifying a nomological framework for immigrant consumer-brand relationships. These conceptual, theoretical and literature contributions inform managerial implications.

The chapter also discusses the study's limitations and identifies directions for future research. Limitations concern the cross-sectional design and data-collection approach, limited cultural heterogeneity, a single product category, limited comparison across cultural and generational groups, unidimensional conceptualisations of the constructs, and a focus exclusively on home brands. Future research opportunities include the adoption of longitudinal designs, using more stratified or quota-based sampling methods, examining a wider range of cultural backgrounds and host contexts, extending to other product categories, using multi-group analyses to test cultural and generational differences, incorporating multi-dimensional conceptualisations of the constructs, and including host and global brands as study objects.

9.2.Conceptual contributions

This research makes conceptual contributions by exploring the existence of, and reapproaching the nature of, consumer-brand relationships from a novel perspective (MacInnis, 2011) that foregrounds consumers with mixed, shifting, and context-dependent cultural identities, such as immigrant consumers. To build this, two scoping review of consumer-brand relationships and country of origin, as well as one narrative review of immigrant consumer behaviour literature is conducted (Chapter 2). Moreover, interviews are conducted with immigrant consumers, and the findings from the qualitative phase suggest the existence of immigrant consumer-brand relationships and shed light on how the nature

of such relationships may be revised or advanced when consumers navigate multiple cultural identities (Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007; see Appendix 15).

With globalisation and the expansion of modern transportation, cross-border mobility becomes more accessible, enabling people to move and live across countries and to sustain transnational lives across multiple places (Duan, 2024). Many consumers, thus, navigate hybrid and shifting cultural identities at the national level (Rodríguez, 2021); immigrant consumers are a salient case. As the marketplace becomes more culturally diverse, existing conceptualisations of consumer-brand relationships may not sufficiently expose the complex nature of this phenomenon. Thus, this thesis explores whether consumers with multicultural national dispositions form relationships with their brands and the nature of such relationships.

The literature review in Chapter 2 suggests the potential for immigrants to form relationships with home brands, and qualitative findings in Appendix 15 show that immigrants expressed varying intensity of passion toward home brands. Such passion reflects the **existence** of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands (Fetscherin et al., 2019). Based on this phenomenon, this thesis **adapts the definition from Veloutsou and Ruiz-Mafe (2020),** and defines a consumer-brand relationship as an individual brand-centric connection that occurs when consumers act as independent entities and is characterised by passion. Across both the literature review and the interviews, passion stands out as the key feature of the relationship, as participants often describe their relationships with the focal brands as intense (either strong or weak) emotional connections. By putting passion at the centre, this **novel view** explains clearly how consumer-brand relationships are lived and formed by consumers with more than one active cultural identity.

The conceptual development pertaining to the construct, consumer-brand relationship, is critical to academic and practitioner audiences (MacInnis, 2011). First, people interpret things through the concepts, as these concepts shape what is noticed and how it is understood. Thus, a clear construct definition supports shared understanding, clearer communication, and consistent interpretation across studies and applied contexts. Second, constructs are building blocks of progress: without refining conceptualisations from a novel or revised perspective or proposing new ones, research would repeatedly study the same ideas while missing emerging marketplace realities, such as consumers with multiple and shifting cultural identities (MacInnis, 2011). Finally, strong conceptualisation underpins

measurement and theory testing: clear definitions guide scale development and enable more valid empirical testing.

9.3.Theoretical contributions

This thesis contributes to self-signalling theory and consumer acculturation theory by offering new insights into how identity-related and various levels of acculturation influence immigrant consumers' relationships with, and consumption of, brands from their COO in the host context (Sandberg & Alvesson, 2021).

This thesis contributes to self-signalling theory by showing that self-signalling also operate when consumers' cultural identities are hybrid, fluid, and context-dependent at the national level, such as immigrant consumers (Calder et al., 1981), and in relation to brands associated with their COO. Existing studies mainly used self-signalling theory to explain how consumers affirm relatively stable identities through brand choices (Dixon & Mikolon, 2021; Castagna et al., 2022). This thesis expands self-signalling theory by showing that immigrant consumers are likely to form relationships with and consume their home brands because these brands serve as symbolic resources that help them affirm meanings linked to their cultural background, maintain self-continuity, and express important aspects of the self within the host society. In this way, this research shows that self-signalling theory also helps explain how immigrant consumers form relationships with, and consume, their home brands.

This thesis also contributes to consumer acculturation theory by showing how different levels of acculturation influence immigrant consumers' relationships with, and consumption of, their home brands. Prior research has mainly applied acculturation theory to explain how immigrants learn and respond to the host society's marketplace practices (Ng et al., 2025; Chakraborty & Sadachar, 2021). This thesis extends this theory to the context of home-brand consumption in the host environment. More specifically, this research expands acculturation theory by showing that immigrants with lower levels of acculturation tend to keep stronger ties to their home culture, which makes them more likely to form favourable evaluations of and stronger relationships with home brands, leading to their consumption of these brands. In sum, this research shows that acculturation is not only limited to immigrants' adaptation to host-market norms and host-brand consumption, but also encompasses how they relate to and consume home brands in the host environment.

9.4.Literature contributions

This thesis contributes to the literature by examining the nomological network of consumers with mixed and dynamic identities (here, immigrant consumers) and their relationships with home brands (Nicholson et al., 2018). The qualitative phase provides certain novel insights for their potential drivers, moderators, and outcomes. The quantitative phase adopts a robust measurement scale from Osuna Ramírez, Veloutsou, and Morgan-Thomas (2024) for measuring the consumer-brand relationships and testing the key connections behind this phenomenon.

The **first** contribution to the literature relates to the **antecedents** of immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands. Previous studies identified some drivers of consumer-brand relationships, such as self-congruity (Rodrigues et al., 2024b; Shimul & Phau, 2023) and nostalgia (Grappi et al., 2024; Sadeghvaziri & Shafeie, 2024). However, existing literature has not examined the effects of these factors on immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. This study confirms four key factors that drive this phenomenon, which can be grouped into 4 categories: COO-related (brand origin salience), consumer value-related (ethnocentrism), consumer-related assessment (self-congruity), and reflection of memories (nostalgia). To the best of the author's knowledge, the current study is the first to offer empirical support concerning the influences of these four factors on immigrant consumer-brand relationships.

The quantitative study results further show that all consumer-related drivers (ethnocentrism, self-congruity, nostalgia) show stronger effects on the formation of immigrant consumer-brand relationships. It suggests that characteristics rooted in consumers themselves play a more substantial role in shaping these relationships than brand-related factors such as brand origin salience. By highlighting the primacy of consumer-centred influences, the results extend prior research that has predominantly interpreted the phenomenon through a brand-focused lens (Bairrada et al., 2018).

The **second** contribution to the literature relates to the **moderator, stage of acculturation**, in the relationships between brand origin salience and ethnocentrism (distal drivers) and nostalgia and self-congruity (proximal drivers). Findings support that stage of acculturation negatively moderated the relationships between brand origin salience and self-congruity and between brand origin salience and nostalgia in the Turkish sample. No significant

moderation was found for the ethnocentrism-related paths or for the Chinese and Polish samples. While it is not possible to say that this relationship was conclusive as a whole, this is the first research to explore the role of consumer acculturation in the consumer-brand relationship literature.

The **third** contribution to the literature relates to **the consequences** of immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands. The outcomes are grouped into two categories. The first includes brand-related behaviours, including home brand purchase intention, willingness to pay a price premium, and WOM persuasion. Although these constructs were identified in prior studies as consequences of consumer-brand relationships (Pourazad et al., 2024; Van Der Westhuizen & Kuhn, 2024), limited studies has examined the effects of these factors on consumers with mixed identities and their relationships with their brands. Thus, this study offers novel insights about how immigrants' relationships with home brands lead to purchase intention, willingness to pay a premium, and WOM persuasion.

The second category of outcomes pertains to consumer perceived values, including inner self-expressiveness, sense of belonging, and perceived irreplaceability. Among these factors, inner self-expressiveness is the strongest outcome of the immigrant consumer-brand relationship. This represents a novel insight, as prior studies largely positioned inner self-expressiveness as an antecedent rather than an outcome of consumer-brand relationships (Babić-Hodović et al., 2023; Dias & Cavalheiro, 2022; Wallace et al., 2017; Saini et al., 2023). The findings for sense of belonging and perceived irreplaceability also extend existing knowledge, given the limited study linking the immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their sense of belonging and perceived irreplaceability associated with their home brands.

9.5.Managerial contributions

This research contributes to practice for brand managers. The complexity of immigrants' affiliations with the home and the host culture, and the various perceptions of brands from their country of origin, highlight the need for marketers to avoid looking at multicultural consumer markets as a homogeneous group (Al Ganideh & Awudu, 2021). The identities associate with multiple cultures cultivated by immigrants enable the individual to link to a group and, at the same time, stand apart from in-group members (Ewing et al., 2024). Since this thesis find that immigrants prefer to relate to, use and purchase home brands as symbolic

cues to construct and reflect their unique set of identities, marketing strategies need to develop and communicate the symbolic essence of their brands carefully (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021; Kizgin et al., 2018).

As the findings reveal that immigrant consumers would like to build relationships and purchase their **home brands** in terms of self-congruity and nostalgia meaning, these brands also serve as tools for self-expression in the host context. Brands from immigrants' home countries should therefore be aware that immigrants' engagement is not driven only by product attributes or price, but also by identity-related motives and symbolic value. Thus, the brand can function as an "identity anchor" that helps immigrant consumers connect their past and present selves, and as a "cultural signal" that communicates belonging and personal values to others in the host market (Chakraborty & Chattaraman, 2022). Specifically, managers may (1) Position the brand around identity continuity and self-consistency. Brand communication can highlight stable, core brand meanings while allowing consumers to connect these meanings to their current lives abroad (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021). (2) Managers can design touchpoints that evoke memories, such as limited editions inspired by familiar scents or symbols, while updating them for the host context (e.g., packaging or collaborations). (3) Given that immigrant consumers who have strong relationships with home brands are more likely to buy or even pay a premium price for their home brands, managers can thus leverage premium cultural branding that emphasises authenticity and heritage, thus sustaining brand equity beyond the price competition. (4) Given that WOM persuasion is another important outcome, retailers may engage satisfied immigrant consumers as "brand ambassadors" or opinion leaders to encourage peer persuasions and drive purchase intentions among other immigrants (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021).

The findings of this thesis also provide practical implications for both **host brands** and **brands from a third country**. Although this research focuses on immigrants' home brands solely, the findings still provide certain insights for brands originating from consumers' host country or other countries. Manager may consider: (1) Developing some product lines or limited editions that align with the target consumers' home values, traditions, and everyday cultural practices, which can help position the brand as compatible with (and supportive of) these consumers' cultural identity and lived experience in the host society (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021). (2) Avoiding superficial cultural borrowing and recognising that credibility would be stronger when cultural elements are co-developed with community input and enacted in ways that feel respectful, accurate and non-stereotypical.

In addition, an implication particularly for **host brands**: as the findings indicate that higher levels of acculturation reduce immigrants' perceived congruity and nostalgia for home brands, managers may need to better understand the heterogeneous responses within the immigrant consumer segment. When acculturation shifts the identity cues that consumers draw on in the marketplace, it also changes how they interpret the meaning of home brands. Brand managers can use acculturation as a practical segmentation lens and develop differentiated strategies that better match these changing interpretations (Al Ganideh & Awudu, 2021). More acculturated consumers may respond better to messaging that integrates heritage cues with host-market lifestyles and usage contexts, whereas less acculturated consumers may prefer communications that more emphasise heritage and tradition. By tailoring brand meaning, communication, and channel choice to different acculturation profiles, brands can remain relevant across stages of cultural adaptation, strengthen positioning in multicultural markets and gain more sustainable growth (Duan, 2024; Ewing et al., 2024).

9.6.Limitations and future research directions

This study acknowledges several limitations and outlines directions for future research. These limitations stemmed from both methodological and contextual aspects, including the reliance on a cross-sectional design, sample demographic composition, restricted cultural and product scope, limited examination of cultural and generational variations, unidimensional conceptualisations of the constructs, and relationships with only home brands. Recognising these constraints, this section proposes several avenues to further develop and extend research within this emerging field.

The **first** limitation relates to the employment of a **cross-sectional**, survey-based research design, which allows for the identification of associations between variables, not cause-and-effect relationships between variables (Hair et al., 2012). As the data were collected at a single point in time, respondents' reflections could relate to consumption experiences from any prior period. Such a design also overlooked the dynamic nature of consumer-brand relationships, which may evolve (e.g., love becomes hate) (Tolunay & Veloutsou, 2025), and the direction of causality may therefore be obscured. As causal links between these constructs often develop gradually, the temporal gap between the reported consumption episode and data collection remains uncertain. To address this limitation, future research could instigate a longitudinal design to capture the potential changes in immigrant consumer-

brand relationships over time and better identify the causal pathways among the key constructs.

The **second** limitation occurred in the **qualitative and quantitative data collection**. The qualitative study used a snowball recruitment method, which began with a small group of initial participants who met the criteria, who were then asked to refer others in their social networks who may also qualify. While snowball recruitment is effective for reaching specific populations and leveraging trust between participants and their referrals, it has limitations, like the potential for selection bias (Ahmed, 2024). This bias occurred because participants were often drawn from similar social circles, which may limit the generalisability of the research. Despite efforts being made to minimise this, such as restricting referrals to 1-2 individuals per participant, some limitations may still exist. For instance, the age distribution across the three cultural groups centred on the 18-45 age range, with only 2 participants falling into the 46-55 age group (both from the Polish group). Additionally, gender representation was imbalanced across three cultural groups.

A similar issue also emerged in the quantitative phase. During the survey collection stage, the proportion of Chinese participants holding a PhD degree reached 23.05%, which is relatively higher than the proportions observed in the other two samples. Such an imbalance indicates that the Chinese sample is disproportionately composed of highly educated respondents, which is not appropriate for achieving a balanced comparison across groups. Consequently, this discrepancy restricts the overall representativeness of the sample and may introduce bias into subsequent analyses. Future work could adopt more stratified or quota-based sampling methods to ensure demographic balance across groups, thereby improving data representativeness and the robustness of cross-cultural comparisons.

The **third** limitation is related to the cultural background of participants. This thesis focused on Chinese, Turkish, and Polish immigrants residing in the UK. Although these three groups offer valuable insights into the immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands, the findings may not fully represent the diversity of experiences found in other cultural groups. Future studies can explore immigrant consumers from **other cultural backgrounds** or explore **immigrants in other host countries** (Al Ganideh & Awudu, 2021). Broadening the scope in this way can improve the generalisability of the findings, enabling researchers and practitioners to better understand how cultural variations shape the formation and outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.

The **fourth** limitation concerns the product category. Although the qualitative stage involves various product categories like food, fashion, automobiles, and electronics, the present study focuses solely on food brands in the quantitative stage. Future research can extend the work to **other markets and industries** to enhance the generalisability of the findings. For example, examining immigrant consumers' relationships with fashion or technology brands could reveal whether emotional bonds play similar roles in product categories that are more **symbolic or functionally** oriented. Such comparisons may help determine whether the observed mechanisms are universal or category-specific.

The **fifth** limitation relates to the investigation of the differences between the cultural groups. This study examines three cultural groups: Chinese, Turkish, and Polish immigrants. A more in-depth investigation into how **cultural differences** among these groups influence the strength and nature of immigrant consumer-brand relationships may yield richer theoretical insights. Future research could therefore employ multi-group analysis to compare these cultural groups and assess potential variations in the proposed relationships. Such comparisons could help determine whether the observed patterns are culturally specific or represent broader cross-cultural tendencies.

The **sixth** limitation concerns the examination of the generation status. This research collected data from both first and second-generation immigrants; however, it did not compare the differences between generations in the relationships. Future research could examine the role of **generation status** on the existence, antecedents and outcome of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands. It is interesting to see the differences in the findings for the proposed model between first-, second-, or third-generation immigrants (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021). Such a study might provide useful insights to cultural or ethnic brands that can develop marketing strategies specially tailored to the different generations of immigrants.

The **seventh** limitation concerns the conceptualisation of the constructs, as most are treated as unidimensional, which may have oversimplified their conceptual complexity (VanderWeele & Johnson, 2025). Although this study maintains consistency between the conceptualisation and operationalisation of the constructs included in the model, most of these constructs are conceptualised as unidimensional. While this approach offers simplicity and efficiency by focusing on a single core metric, it may not adequately capture important facets of a construct (Edwards, 2001). Future studies could adopt **multidimensional**

conceptualisations to gain a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of these constructs, minimise the estimation error, and provide more precise measurements (Ul Hassan & Miller, 2022). Such an approach would better reflect their inherent complexity and allow researchers to investigate whether different dimensions exert distinct effects on key outcome variables (Polites et al., 2012).

Finally, future research can also explore whether immigrant consumers form relationships with **host-country or global brands**. Understanding whether and how immigrant consumers form relationships with these brands may offer valuable implications for both host and global brand positioning and for developing tailored marketing strategies. Investigating such relationships would also allow researchers to examine how home and foreign brand relationships coexist, complement, or conflict with one another in shaping consumer behaviour.

9.7.Chapter summary

This chapter reviews the theoretical contributions of this thesis. By conducting a literature review of consumer-brand relationships, country of origin and immigrant consumer behaviour studies, this study investigates the existence, nature, formation and outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.

Through the qualitative research phase, the study firstly identified the existence of immigrant consumer-brand relationship with their home brands, then identified its key formation and consequences. Subsequently, the dissertation tested the nomological network of the construct, linking consumer-brand relationships to 4 marketing antecedents, 6 marketing outcomes, and 1 moderating variable, achieving excellent to acceptable model fit. Lastly, this thesis made a valuable contribution to the advancement of research in consumer-brand relationships, country-of-origin, and immigrant consumers.

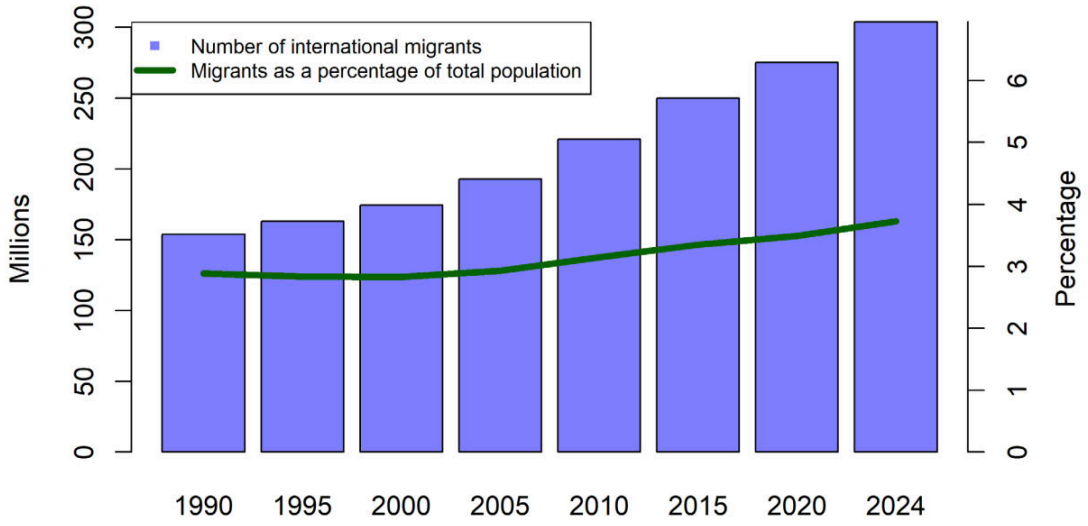
The collection of theoretical contributions led to management implications for managers operating in multicultural markets and for immigrant consumers. It identifies key factors, like brand origin salience, consumer ethnocentrism, nostalgia and self-congruity, that lead to immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. Managers can use these insights to design targeted communication strategies that lead to the desirable consumer behaviours. The study also clarifies how moderators like acculturation weaken such drivers.

Moreover, outcome variables such as brand purchase intention, WOM persuasion, and WPP were identified and confirmed as behavioural outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships. Variables like inner self-expressiveness, sense of belonging and perceived irreplaceability were confirmed as consumer perceived values of immigrant consumer-brand relationships. Ultimately, the findings offer brand managers a framework to allocate resources efficiently, optimise relationship-building efforts, increase the likelihood of success, and improve efficiency with resources.

As with any study, there are some limitations and future avenues of research for the academic community to pursue. Specifically, they relate to the cross-sectional nature of the research design, potential sampling bias in both qualitative and quantitative data collection phases (e.g., imbalances in participant age, gender, and educational background). In addition, the study's focus on three cultural groups, Chinese, Turkish, and Polish immigrants in the UK, and on food brands in the quantitative stage, may constrain the generalisability of the findings. Furthermore, the study did not examine generational differences or explore the consumer-brand relationships with host or global brands. Building on these limitations, future research can employ a longitudinal research design, refine the sampling method, explore additional cultural contexts, including extend the investigation to other cultural groups or host countries and in different industries to enhance the generalisability of the findings, explore the cultural and generational differences, and investigation of the consumer-brand relationships with immigrant consumers and their host or global brands.

Appendices

Appendix 1. International migrant population in numbers and as a share of the world's population 1990-2024



Source: United Nations (2025) International Migrant Stock 2024 Key facts and figures. Retrieved 29th September 2025 from: https://www.un.org/development/desa/pd/sites/www.un.org.development.desa.pd/files/undesa_pd_2025_intlmigstock_2024_key_facts_and_figures_advance-unedited.pdf#:~:text=1.%20In%202024%20the%20number%20of%20international,modestly%20from%202.9%20per%20cent%20in%201990.)

Appendix 2. International migrant population in these top 10 destinations (in millions)

Country	US	Germany	Saudi Arabia	UK	France	Spain	Canada	UAE	Australia	Russian
Number	52.375	16.75	13.684	11.845	9.187	8.871	8.806	8.157	8.111	7.606

Source: Migration Policy Institute (MPI) (2025) Top 25 Destinations of International Migrants. Retrieved 29th September 2025 from: https://www.migrationpolicy.org/programs/data-hub/charts/top-25-destinations-international-migrants)

Appendix 3. Migrant workers' status (from 2022 to 2023)

Migrant workers in the OECD countries					
	UK	**Canada**	**Germany**	**Japan**	**US**
Migrant workers	283,000	145,000	93,000	90,000	82,000
Increased percentage	+48%	+7%	+4%	+14%	-43%
The countries with the most significant increases in labour migration					
	Republic of Korea	**Greece**	**Australia**	**Austria**	**UK**
Increased percentage	+129%	+110%	+68%	+50%	+48%

Source: OECD (2024) International Migration Outlook 2024. Retrieved 4th August 4, 2025 from https://www.oecd.org/en/publications/international-migration-outlook-2024_50b0353e-en/full-report.html)

Appendix 4. CBR: The relevant keywords and their frequency of occurrence

Keywords	Frequency of occurrence
Brand relationship(s)	**143**
Consumer-brand relationship(s)	**96**
Customer relationship	84

Appendix 5. CBR: Journals and papers selected from each journal list

	Top 25% in marketing in CiteScore 2024	Top 10 % in Strategy and management in CiteScore 2024	Top 10% in Business & international management in CiteScore 2024	ABDC 2022 journal list in Marketing
NO. of Journals returned	95	100	97	49
NO. of Journals that returning papers	50	9	19	33
NO. of returned papers	939	135	268	857
NO. of Journal that retained papers	45	9	17	29
NO. of retained papers	**249**	**34**	**62**	**271**

(Note: 'M' means 'CiteScore 2024 in Marketing'; 'S&M' means 'CiteScore 2024 in Strategy and management'; 'B&IM' means 'CiteScore 2024 in Business and International management'; 'ABDC-M' means 'ABDC 2022 journal ranking list in Marketing'.)

Appendix 6. CBR: Journals and papers selected from a combination of each two lists

	Top 10 % in S&M	**Top 10% in B&IM**	**ABDC-M**
Top 25% in marketing in CiteScore 2024	**M+S&M**	**M+B&IM**	**M+ABDC-M**
NO. of Journals returned	195	192	144
NO. of Journals overlapped	**10**	**10**	**29**
NO. of Journals retained	**185**	**182**	**115**
NO. of Journals returned papers	57	**55**	57
NO. of Journal retained papers	**52**	**50**	**51**
NO. of overlapped journals returned papers	3	3	29
NO. of overlapped journals retained papers	**3**	**2**	**27**
	Top 10% in S&M	**Top 10% in B&IM**	**ABDC-M**
Top 10 % in S&M in CiteScore 2024		**S&M+B&IM**	**S&M+ABDC-M**
NO. of Journals returned		197	149
NO. of Journals overlapped		**35**	0
NO. of Journals retained		**162**	**149**
NO. of Journals returning papers		19	42
NO. of Journal retained papers		**17**	**38**
NO. of overlapped journals returned papers		3	0
NO. of overlapped journals retained papers		**3**	**0**
	Top 10% in S&M	**Top 10% in B&IM**	**ABDC-M**
Top 10% in B&IM in CiteScore 2024			**B&IM+ABDC-M**
NO. of Journals returned			146
NO. of Journals overlapped			7
NO. of Journals retained			**139**
NO. of Journals returning papers			39
NO. of Journal retained papers			**35**
NO. of overlapped journals returned papers			7
NO. of overlapped journals retained papers			**6**

Appendix 7. CBR: Quartile of journals, returned & retained articles from each journal

Journal name	CiteScore 2024 Marketing	CiteScore 2024 S&M	CiteScore 2024 - B&IM	ABDC 2021- Marketing	NO. of returned papers	NO. of retained papers
Advances in Consumer Research						1
Marketing science institute						1
Journal of the market research society (Blackston, 1992)						1
A dissertation (Fournier, 1994)						1
Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics	83%			A	26	10
Australasian Marketing Journal	97%			A	8	1
Electronic Commerce Research and Applications	88%				7	2
European Business Review			91%		6	2
European Journal of Management & Business Economics	86%				3	1
European Journal of Marketing				A*	43	17
Industrial Management and Data Systems		94%	94%		4	1
Industrial Marketing Management	94%				27	
Innovative Marketing	80%			A*	14	2
International Business Review	97%	92%	97%		14	1
International Journal of Advertising	99%			A	15	4
International Journal of Bank Marketing	84%			A	11	3
International Journal of Consumer Studies	97%			A	13	7
International Journal of Hospitality Management		98%	98%		25	10
International Journal of Market Research	82%			A	12	2
International Journal of Research in Marketing	86%				12	3
International Journal of Retail &Distribution Management	85%			A	11	4
International Marketing Review	85%			A	13	2
Journal of Advertising	97%		97%	A	6	
Journal of Advertising Research	83%			A	10	1
Journal of Asia Business Studies		92%	92%		21	2
Journal of Brand Management	83%			A	73	34
Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing	77%			A	18	
Journal of Business Ethics			99%		3	1
Journal of Business Research	97%			A	121	34
Journal of Consumer Marketing				A	38	18
Journal of Consumer Psychology	85%			A*	25	7
Journal of Consumer Research	99%		99%	A*	16	7
Journal of Destination Marketing and Management	98%	98%	98%		34	2
Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management	81%				10	7
Journal of Financial Services Marketing	80%				3	
Journal of Global Fashion Marketing	99%	99%	99%		13	8
Journal of Global Marketing	78%				5	2
Journal of Global Scholars of Marketing Science					9	2
Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management	98%			A	10	3
Journal of Interactive Advertising	92%				10	4
Journal of Interactive Marketing	98%		98%	A	12	1
Journal of International Consumer Marketing	82%				10	3

Journal name	CiteScore 2024 Marketing	CiteScore 2024 S&M	CiteScore 2024 - B&IM	ABDC 2021- Marketing	NO. of returned papers	NO. of retained papers
Journal of Marketing	99%		99%	A*	18	10
Journal of Marketing Analytics	85%				9	4
Journal of Marketing Communications	82%				16	2
Journal of Marketing Education	87%				8	1
Journal of Marketing for Higher Education	93%				8	3
Journal of Marketing Management	80%			A	13	6
Journal of Marketing Research	92%		92%	A*	11	
Journal of Political Marketing	81%				4	1
Journal of Product & Brand Management				A	148	63
Journal of Public Policy and Marketing	92%		92%	A	38	2
Journal of Relationship Marketing	83%				23	4
Journal of Research in Interactive Marketing	95%				14	3
Journal of Retailing	92%			A*	9	1
Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	97%			A	57	19
Journal of Service Management		99%	99%		9	5
Journal of Service Research				A*	3	2
Journal of Service Theory and Practice				A	4	0
Journal of Services Marketing				A	9	2
Journal of Strategic Marketing	85%			A	18	6
Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	99%		99%	A*	16	3
Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing	89%				14	8
Marketing Intelligence and Planning	75%			A	30	7
Marketing Letters	81%			A	14	3
Marketing Theory				A	8	1
Psychology and Marketing	93%				43	11
Service Industries Journal		98%	98%		6	3
Spanish Journal of Marketing - ESIC	81%				14	9
Technological Forecasting and Social Change			99%		7	2
Tourism Management		99%	99%		9	2
Summary					1282	395

Appendix 8. Consumer-brand relationship Definitions and Followers

Authors	References (followed-up papers)
Blackston (1992)	Do et al. (2015); Hudson et al. (2015)
Fournier (1994)	Xie & Huang (2012)
Beverland et al. (2006)	/
Smit et al. (2007)	/
Ji (2008)	Rodhain &Aurier (2016)
Tsai (2011a)	/
Morgan-Thomas & Veloutsou (2013)	/
Martin Strandvik & Heinonen (2013)	/
Hanslin & Rindell (2014)	/
Hodge et al. (2015)	/
Giovanis (2016)	/
Chiu & Won (2016)	/
Ahn &Back (2018)	/
Pourazad et al. (2019a)	/
Nobre & Simões (2019)	/
Pulh et al. (2019)	/
Veloutsou & Ruiz Mafe (2020)	/
Kumar & Kaushik (2020)	/
Abdelwahab et al. (2020)	/
Hashim et al. (2020)	/
Connors et al. (2021)	/
Hamzah et al. (2021)	/
Robertson et al. (2022)	/
Amenuvor et al. (2023)	/
Bahia & Babay (2023)	/
Luan et al. (2023)	/
Tran et al. (2023)	/

Rodrigues et al. (2024b)	/
Bauer (2024)	/
Jiang et al. (2024)	/
Schreuder et al. (2024)	/
No clear followed/stated definition	Robinot et al. (2021); Fernandes & Moreira (2019); Fetscherin et al. (2019); Leung et al. (2014) ; Park & Kim (2014); Hwang & Kandampully (2012); Fournier & Alvarez (2012); Hess & Story (2005); Veloutsou (2007); Veloutsou (2009); Veloutsou & Moutinho (2009); Veloutsou (2015); Hayes et al. (2006); Pawle & Cooper (2006); Breivik & Thorbjørnsen (2008); Commuri (2009); Huber et al. (2010); Magnoni & Roux (2012); Aggarwal & McGill (2012); Reimann et al. (2012); Francisco-Maffezzolli et al. (2014); Kim et al. (2014); Ramaseshan & Stein (2014); Nyffenegger et al. (2015); Hudson et al. (2016); Consiglio et al. (2018); Hayes et al. (2018); Giovanis & Athanasopoulou (2018); Ramadan et al. (2018); Adhikari & Panda (2019); Pulh et al. (2019); Ahn & Back (2020); Hayes et al. (2020); Mandler et al. (2021); Chen & Lin (2021); Hamzah et al. (2021); Aaker et al. (2004); Nysveen et al. (2005); Ashley & Leonard (2009); Kim & Ko (2010); Tsai (2011b); Zhou et al. (2012); Peng et al. (2014); Su et al. (2015); Confos & Davis (2016); Jeon & Baeck (2016); Xie et al. (2017); Scholz & Duffy (2018); Papista & Dimitriadis (2019); Boukis (2019); Veloutsou & Delgado-Ballester (2018); Lo (2020); Lyu & Kim (2020); Ozdemir et al. (2020); Panigyrakis et al. (2020); Jung et al. (2020); Roggeveen et al. (2021); Diallo et al. (2021); Fetscherin et al. (2021); Shin (2022); Hamzah & Pontes (2022); Albert et al. (2009); Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen (2010); Ismail & Spinelli (2012); Loureiro et al. (2012); Roy et al. (2013); Castaño & Eugenia Perez (2014); Wallace et al. (2014); Sarkar & Sreejesh (2014); Liapati et al. (2015); Huber et al. (2015); Drennan et al. (2015); Ismail (2015); Islam & Rahman (2017); Baena (2016); Karjaluoto et al. (2016); Roy et al. (2016); Wallace et al. (2017); Liu et al. (2018); Bıçakcıoğlu et al. (2018); Manthiou et al. (2018); Coelho et al. (2019); Dalman et al. (2019); Machado et al. (2019); Khamitov et al. (2019); Palusuk et al. (2019); Rodrigues & Rodrigues (2019); Mody & Hanks (2020); Amaro et al. (2020); Safeer et al. (2021); Sreen et al. (2021); Ali et al. (2021); Kumar et al. (2021); Kashif et al. (2021); Joshi & Garg (2021); Santos & Schlesinger (2021); Le (2021); Hafez (2021); Tran et al. (2022); Wallace et al. (2021); Amegbe et al. (2021); Carroll & Ahuvia (2006); Fetscherin et al. (2014); Vernuccio et al. (2015); Kaufmann et al. (2016); Lee & Hyun (2016); Bairrada et al. (2018a); Bairrada et al. (2018b); Junaid et al. (2020); Burnasheva et al. (2019); Nikhashemi et al. (2019); Huang (2019); Rodrigues & Pinto Borges (2020); Zhou et al. (2020); Ahuvia et al. (2020); Velicia Martin et al. (2020); Kennedy & Guzmán (2021); Nguyen & Feng (2021); Shen et al. (2021); Madadi et al. (2021); Rauschnabel & Ahuvia (2014); Bagozzi et al. (2017); Daniels et al. (2020); White et al. (2020); Sajtos et al. (2021); Ahuvia et al. (2022); Rahman et al. (2021); Park et al. (2010); Malär et al. (2011); Oh et al. (2019); Park et al. (2013); Jahn et al. (2012); Belaid & Temessek Behi (2011); Aggarwal (2004); Foo et al. (2008); Fournier (1998); Simon (2017); Martin (2018); Kim & Sung (2021); Trudeau H. & Shobeiri (2016); Demirbag-Kaplan et al. (2015); Zarantonello et al. (2018); Pinto & Brandão (2020); Bayarassou et al. (2020); Curina et al. (2020); Curina et al. (2021); Pantano (2021); Khatoon & Rehman (2021); Jain & Sharma (2019); Albert et al. (2008); Batra et al. (2012); Long-Tolbert & Gammoh (2012); Albert & Merunka (2013); Fetscherin (2014); Aro et al. (2018); Wang et al. (2019); Zhang et al. (2020); Pontinha & Coelho (2020); Lv & Wu (2021); Batra et al. (2012); Grégoire et al. (2009); Johnson et al. (2011); Alba & Lutz (2013); Zarantonello et al. (2016); Kucuk (2018); Kucuk (2019); Fetscherin (2019); Itani (2020); Zhang & Laroche (2020); Romani et al. (2012); Hegner et al. (2017);

	Thomson et al. (2005); Fetscherin et al. (2019); Brandão & Popoli (2022); Sarkar et al. (2020); Abu Farha et al. (2024); Ahmad & Guzmán, 2023; Akrout & Mrad, 2023; Almazyad et al., 2023; Alvarez et al., 2023; Amenuvor et al., 2023; Anbumathi et al., 2023; Aro et al., 2023; Asante et al., 2024; Attiq et al., 2023; Babić-Hodović et al., 2023; Bae & Kim, 2023; Bandyopadhyay et al., 2024; Barnes & White, 2024; Batista Ferraz & Dallabrida, 2024; Bennett et al., 2013; Brandão et al., 2023; Brandão & Popoli, 2023; Chan et al., 2023; Choi et al., 2024; Chu et al., 2023; Costa & Azevedo, 2024; Couder & Valette-Florence, 2024; Crespo et al., 2023; Elsharnouby et al., 2024; Farhan & Omar, 2023; Farhat & and Chaney, 2024; Fetscherin et al., 2023; Filho et al., 2023; Gao & Shao, 2024; Garcia-Collart, 2024; Garcia-Davalos & Garcia-Duque, 2023; Grappi et al., 2024; Gruber & Deschênes, 2024; Hamdy et al., 2024; Haq et al., 2024; Hemsley-Brown, 2023; Hong et al., 2023; Iranzo Barreira et al., 2024; Iveson et al., 2023; Jain et al., 2023; Jang & Arens, 2023; Japutra et al., 2023; Kabadayi et al., 2023; Kamboj & Sharma, 2023; Kautish et al., 2023; Khan & Fatma, 2024; Kim et al., 2023; Kim et al., 2024; Kim et al., 2023; S. Kim et al., 2023; Klabi & Meshari, 2023; Koay et al., 2023; Koskie et al., 2024; Kumar et al., 2023; Kushwaha, 2024; Le, 2023; Liao et al., 2023; Lin & Ryu, 2023; Macías-Mañas et al., 2024; Madadi et al., 2024; Marticotte & Arcand, 2017; Mazzoli et al., 2024; Meng et al., 2023; Merlo et al., 2024; Monahan et al., 2023; Moorlock et al., 2023; Mosley et al., 2024; Mostafa & Sobhy Temerak, 2024; Nandy et al., 2023, 2024; Odoom et al., 2024; Omar Zaki et al., 2024; Osorio et al., 2023; Osuna Ramírez et al. (2024); Paruthi et al., 2023; Petrescu et al., 2024; Pourazad et al. (2024); Rahimah et al., 2023; Rather et al., 2024; Rauschnabel et al., 2024; Rodrigues, Junaid, et al., 2024; Rodrigues, Sousa, et al., 2024; Rodríguez-Torrico et al., 2024; Rosendo-Rios & Shukla, 2023; Rotchanakitumnuai & Speece, 2023; Roy et al., 2023; S, 2024; Safeer & Le, 2023; Saini et al., 2023; Sajid et al., 2024; Sameeni et al., 2024; Sansome et al., 2024; Sarkar et al., 2024; Sarkar et al., 2023; Sashittal et al., 2023; Seth & Soch, 2024; Shankar et al., 2024; Shao et al., 2024; Shimul & Phau, 2023; Siu et al., 2023; Sohail, 2023; Tan et al., 2024; Tran et al., 2024; Tsou & Putra, 2023; Van Der Westhuizen & Kuhn, 2024; Veloutsou, 2023; Vernuccio et al., 2023; Wong, 2023; Woodside et al., 2023; Xie et al., 2023; Yadav, 2024; Yadav et al., 2023; Yao et al., 2023; Youn et al., 2024; Yu et al. (2024)

Appendix 9. COO: The relevant keywords and their frequency of occurrence

Keywords	Frequency of occurrence
Country of origin	**504**
Country-of-origin	**147**
China	147
Consumer Behaviour	146
International Trade	93

Appendix 10. COO: Journals selected from each list

	Top 25% in Marketing in CiteScore 2024	Top 10 % in S&M in CiteScore 2024	Top 10% in B&IM in CiteScore 2024	ABDC 2022 journal list in Marketing
NO. of Journals returned	95	100	97	49
NO. of Journals that returning papers	39	11	15	32
NO. of returned papers	**2564**	**464**	**291**	**3874**
NO. of Journal that retained papers	37	9	15	30
NO. of retained papers	**330**	**56**	**65**	**357**

(Note: 'M' means 'CiteScore 2024 in Marketing'; 'S&M' means 'CiteScore 2024 in Strategy and management'; 'B&IM' means 'CiteScore 2024 in Business and International management'; 'ABDC-M' means 'ABDC 2021 journal ranking list in Marketing'.)

Appendix 11. COO: Journals and papers selected from a combination of each two lists

	Top 10 % in S&M	**Top 10% in B&IM**	**ABDC-M**
Top 25% in Marketing in CiteScore 2024	**M+S&M**	**M+B&IM**	**M+ABDC-M**
NO. of Journals returned	195	192	144
NO. of Journals overlapped	10	10	29
NO. of Journals retained	**185**	**182**	**115**
NO. of Journals returned papers	49	48	47
NO. of Journal retained papers	**45**	**46**	**44**
NO. of overlapped journals returned papers	2	8	22
NO. of overlapped journals retained papers	**2**	**8**	**21**
	Top 10 % in S&M	**Top 10% in B&IM**	**ABDC-M**
Top 10 % in S&M in CiteScore 2024		**S&M+B&IM**	**S&M+ABDC-M**
NO. of Journals returned		197	149
NO. of Journals overlapped		35	0
NO. of Journals retained		**162**	**149**
NO. of Journals returning papers		21	39
NO. of Journal retained papers		**19**	**35**
NO. of overlapped journals returned papers		5	0
NO. of overlapped journals retained papers		**5**	**0**
	Top 10 % in S&M	**Top 10% in B&IM**	**ABDC-M**
Top 10% in B&IM in CiteScore 2024			**B&IM+ABDC-M**
NO. of Journals returned			146
NO. of Journals overlapped			7
NO. of Journals retained			**139**
NO. of Journals returning papers			39
NO. of Journal retained papers			**37**
NO. of overlapped journals returned papers			4
NO. of overlapped journals retained papers			**4**

Appendix 12. COO: Quartile of journals, returned & retained articles from each journal

Journal title	CiteScore 2024 Marketing	CiteScore 2024 S&M	CiteScore 2024 - B&IM	ABDC 2022- Marketing	NO. of returned papers	NO. of retained papers
Acta sociologica					1	1
Journal of Economic Psychology					1	1
Annals of tourism Research	99%		99%		10	1
Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics	84%			A	56	42
Asian Business and Management	94%	94%	94%		160	2
Australasian Marketing Journal	95%			A	1	1
Business History			97%		2	1
Consumption Markets and Culture	95%				14	1
Entrepreneurial Business and Economics Review		96%	96%		2	1
European Business Review			93%		4	2
European Journal of marketing	75%			A*	654	27
Human Relations		99%			2	0
Industrial Marketing Management	90%			A*	3	2
Innovative Marketing	85%				10	3
International Business Review	95%	95%	95%		20	19
International Journal of Advertising	99%			A	7	2
International Journal of Bank Marketing	87%			A	3	0
International Journal of Consumer Studies	99%			A	13	5
International Journal of Hospitality Management	98%	98%			15	1
International Journal of Human Resource Management	95%	96%			55	0
International Journal of Research in Marketing	88%			A*	21	7
International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management	85%				461	9
International Marketing Review	84%			A	1047	76
Journal of Brand Management	85%			A	388	6
Journal of Business and Industrial Marketing	79%				6	4
Journal of Business Ethics			99%		4	2
Journal of business research	98%			A	143	42
Journal of cleaner production		98%			3	1
Journal of Consumer Behaviour				A	5	1
Journal of Consumer Culture	94%		94%		33	2
Journal of consumer marketing				A	569	26
Journal of Consumer Psychology	91%			A*	3	1
Journal of Consumer Research	99%		99%	A*	2	2
Journal of Destination Marketing and Management	97%	97%	97%		8	2
Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management	82%				10	9
Journal of Global Fashion Marketing	99%				23	11
Journal of Global Marketing	79%				2	2
Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management	98%			A	4	1
Journal of International Business Studies	98%	99%	99%		26	17
Journal of International Consumer Marketing	77%				12	12

Journal title	CiteScore 2024 Marketing	CiteScore 2024 S&M	CiteScore 2024 - B&IM	ABDC 2022- Marketing	NO. of returned papers	NO. of retained papers
Journal of international Marketing	87%			A	38	31
Journal of marketing	99%		99%	A*	8	2
Journal of Marketing Analytics	88%				1	1
Journal of Marketing Communications	83%				4	4
Journal of Marketing for Higher Education	94%				4	2
Journal of Marketing Management	75%			A	8	4
Journal of Marketing Research	93%		93%	A*	3	3
Journal of Product & Brand Management				A	333	16
Journal of Retailing	93%			A*	11	2
Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	97%			A	39	19
Journal of Service Management		99%			150	1
Journal of Services Marketing				A	11	3
Journal of Strategic Marketing	86%			A	1	1
Journal of the academy of marketing science	99%		99%	A*	6	5
Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing	90%				3	2
Marketing Intelligenceand Planning	78%				11	10
Marketing Letters	79%			A	7	5
Marketing Theory				A	7	0
Psychology and Marketing	96%				5	3
Technological Forecasting and Social Change			99%		3	3
Annals of tourism Research	99%		99%		10	1
Summary					4456	463

Appendix 13. Interview guide

Objective 1: To explore the potential existence, nature and formation of relationships that immigrant consumers establish with their home country brands.

Objective 2: To explore whether the potential existence, nature and formation of immigrant consumers' relationships with home country brands might be affected by their possible presence of acculturation.

Warm-up conversation to gather essential information.

1. Could you share where were you born, and the country or countries where you might have lived in the past and currently live in?
2. How long have you been lived in each of these countries respectively? (If it is the same country: Can you tell me about your family's journey to this country?)

Broad theme 1: Explore the potential existence, nature and formation of relationship between immigrant consumers and their home country brand.

3. Could you share ten brands from the food, electronics, fashion, or automobile sectors, specifying five you really like, and five that you dislike?
4. Among these brands, how many originate from your home country?
5. If interviewees do not offer any from the home or/and host countries, the researcher will ask them to give some brands from these countries – at least 2 per category.
6. For home country brand(s):
   6.1 Among your home/host country brands, which ones stand out as your favourite?
   6.2 Which ones elicit the most negative feelings for you?
   6.3 Favourite or/and least favourite brand exploration (questions below might be asked either once or twice, depend on interviewees' answers):
   (1) Are you buying/using this brand? How, when, with whom?
   (2) What are the first five thoughts come to your mind when thinking about this brand? What do these mean to you?
   (3) When was the first time you saw or used this brand? Could you share that particular moment or experience?
   (4) When was the most recent time you saw or used this brand? Could you share this particular moment or experience?
   (5) Overall, what do this brand mean to you?
   (6) Why do you rank this brand as favourite/unfavourite? Are there any particular things associated with this brand that made you classify it as favourite/unfavourite?

(These questions will be repeated for each home and host country brand selected)

Broad theme 2: To explore whether the potential existence, nature and formation of the relationships that immigrant consumers build with their home brands might be affected by their possible presence of acculturation.

7. What is the language you use the most in you daily life?

8. What is the language you use the most in your personal life?
9. Reflecting on your thought process, what language do you primarily think in?
10. What is the language you remember you primarily dream?
11. What are the main holidays you celebrate? And for each one “why?”?
12. What cuisines do you prefer to eat or cook in your daily life?
13. Where do your closest friends come from? Where do they live?

Personal information:

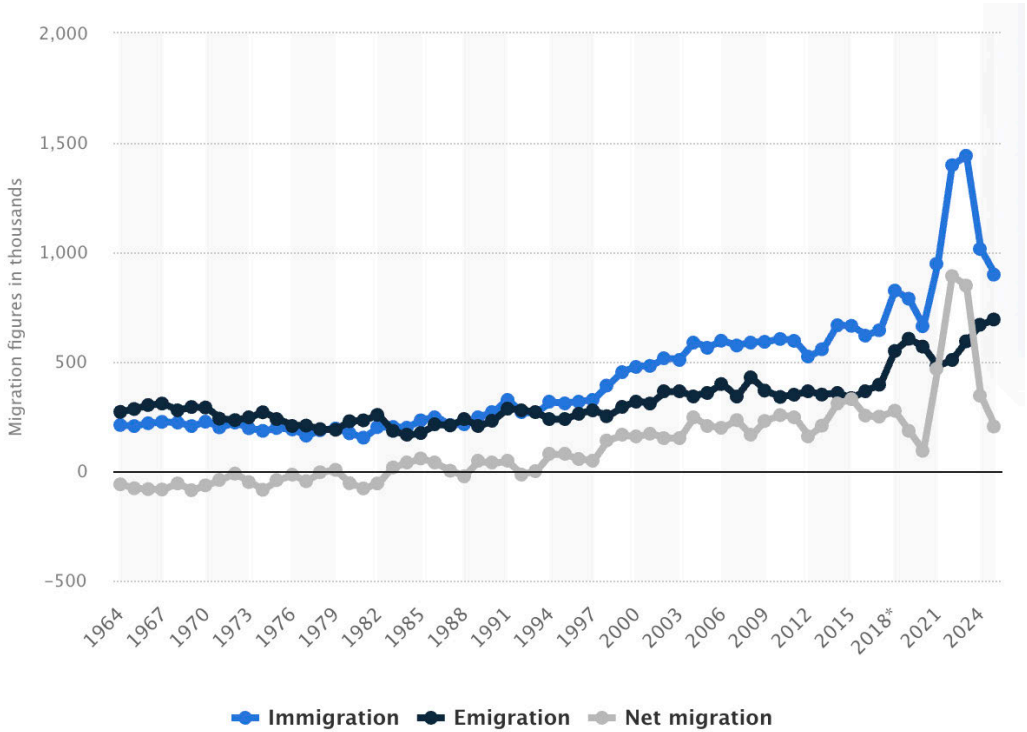
[1] First name

[2] Age

[3] Gender

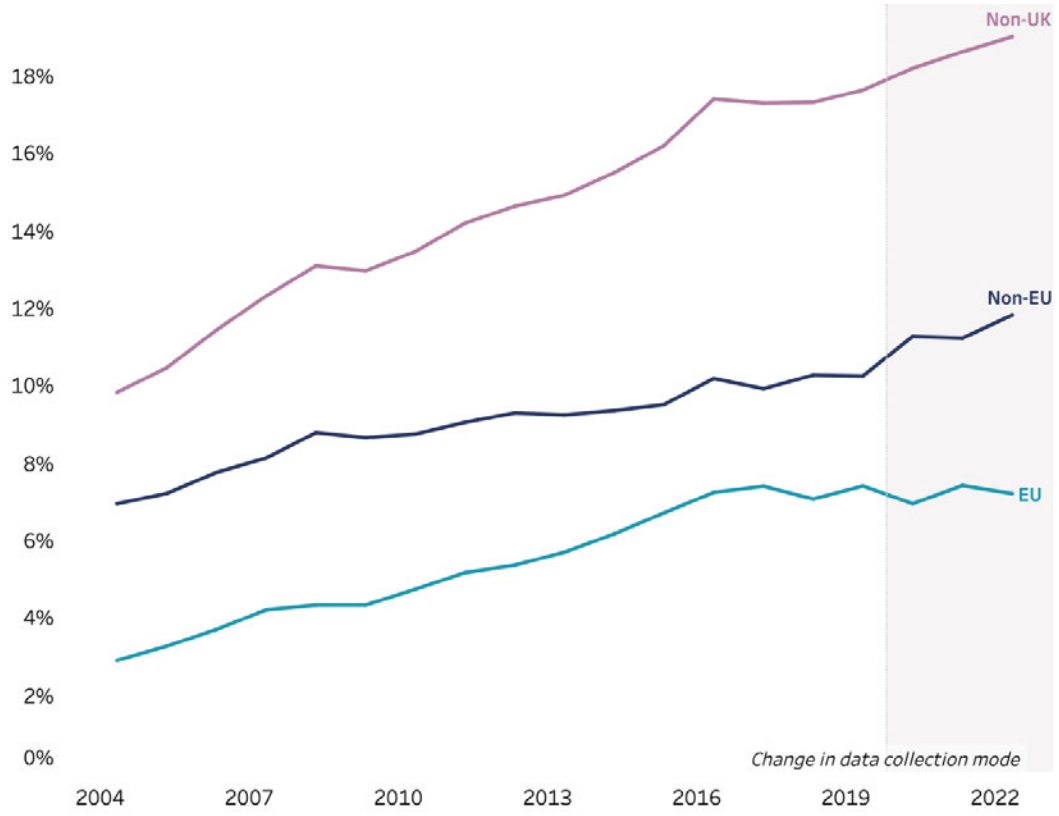
Appendix 14. Figures about the UK immigration statistics

Figure 14-1. Long-term migration figures in the United Kingdom from 1964 to 2025.



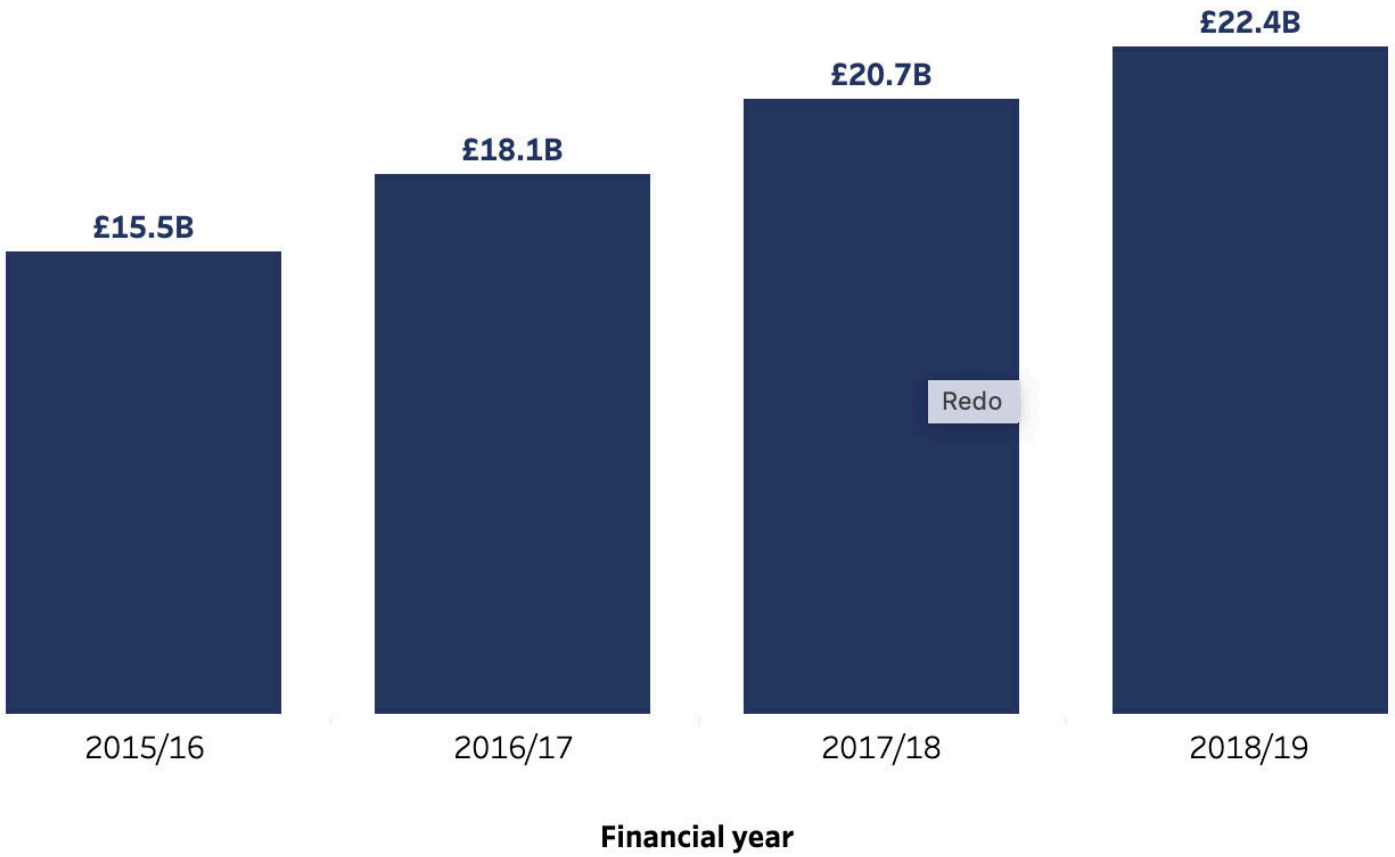
Source: Statista (2025a). Long-term migration figures in the United Kingdom from 1964 to 2025 (in 1,000s). Retrieved13th March 2026 from https://www.statista.com/statistics/283287/net-migration-figures-of-the-united-kingdom-y-on-y/?srsltid=AfmBOordvOJBsLzFhAY1DvQnLvkwJX8g8zvVt-3c3G-sxwcS3jjw7ax-

Figure 14-2. Non-UK born workers in employment, 2004 to 2022.



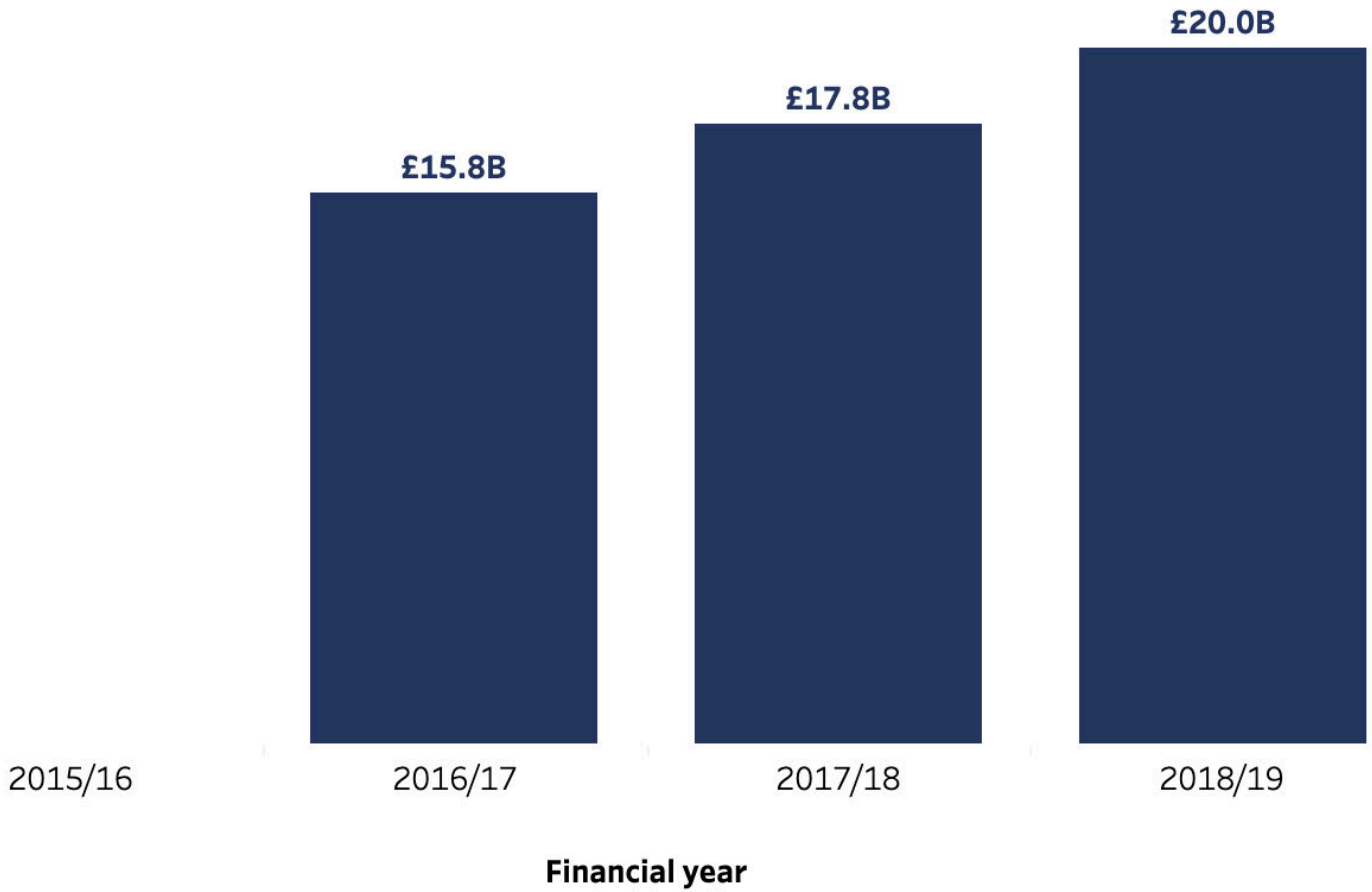
Source: The Migration Observatory (2024). Migrants in the UK Labour Market: an overview. Retrieved 7/2/2024 from https://migrationobservatory.ox.ac.uk/resources/briefings/migrants-in-the-uk-labour-market-an-overview/#:~:text=The%20share%20of%20workers%20employed,million)%20(Figure%201).

Figure 14-3. Migrants' net contributions to the tax and benefits system, by citizenship, 2015/16 to 2018/19 (EEA + Swiss)



Source: Vargas-Silva, C., Sumption, M, and Brindle, B. (2024). The fiscal impact of immigration to the UK. The Migration Observatory.

Figure 14-4. Migrants' net contributions to the tax and benefits system, by citizenship, 2015/16 to 2018/19 (non-EEA)



Source: Vargas-Silva, C., Sumption, M, and Brindle, B. (2024). The fiscal impact of immigration to the UK. The Migration Observatory.

Appendix 15. Findings - Qualitative analysis

Given the limited exploration of consumer-brand relationships among consumers with hybrid and dynamic cultural identities (e.g., immigrants) and brands from their home country (Chapter 2), it is necessary to adopt an exploratory qualitative method to reveal this phenomenon. This chapter aims to present the qualitative findings related to the **existence, nature, formation and outcomes** of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. It also discusses the existence of acculturation among immigrant consumers and its influences on the immigrant consumer-brand relationships. The qualitative findings are relevant for building the conceptual model in Chapter 5.

- **Existence and nature of immigrant consumer-brand relationships**

Exploring the potential **existence** and **nature** of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands is essential for addressing **RQ1** of the qualitative study. Before exploring how these relationships are formed or what outcomes they may lead to, it is important to first explore **whether such relationships exist with immigrant consumers** and their **home brands**.

Theme 1: Existence and nature of immigrant consumer-brand relationships

The interview data support the existence of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home-country brands. In participants' narratives, **passion** stood out as the most salient feature of these relationships. **Passion** refers to "*a psychological phenomenon constituted of excitation, infatuation, and obsession*" towards a brand **(**Osuna Ramírez et al., 2024, p.5). It encompasses intense emotions and can vary in strength (i.e., strong versus weak) (Fetscherin et al., 2019). Accordingly, the following two sub-sections distinguish between strong and weak immigrant consumer-brand relationships, reflecting differences in the intensity of passion and the strength of the relationships.

Strong immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands

Strong passion reflects a higher-intensity emotional response and a stronger emotional bond with the brand, and therefore indicates stronger immigrant consumer-brand relationships.

For example, some participants express “love” towards their home brands, demonstrating strong passion:

C03-F4-37: *I love* [Want Want], *it is a special brand* [for me].

T04-F15-23: *Yeah, I love* [Ülker] *so much, like, I don't know. It's in my genes.*

P06-M10-26: *I can't even remember the colour anymore, but I remember how much I loved* [Reserved]*!*

Some participants describe their home brands as “special”, “significant”, or “in my heart”, reflecting the **strong passion** that they hold toward these brands:

C02-F1-30: *I think in a way* [HOLILAND] *gives some significance for me, it is very special for me, so I would put it in my favourite position.*

T06-F16-29: *I don’t think I’m that emotional about* [Flormar] *or anything, but it definitely has a special place for me.*

P08-F18-25: *It just [makes me] feel good. I don’t know,* [HERBAPOL] *is always in my heart”.*

Some participants describe their home brands as their “favourite”, reflecting their **strong level of passion** towards their home brands:

T07-F17-41: [ETI] *was my favourite chocolate when I was there.*

T09-M13-41: [Kiğılı] *is my favourite.*

P07-M11-55: [Pudliszki] *is definitely my favourite...I just like it, simple as that... It’s one of those home country brands that I feel a real connection to.*

Participants also express attachment to their home brands, demonstrating **strong passion**:

T06-F16-29: *This brand,* [Yumos] *is a bit special for me… I think it is kind of attachment.*

P04-F13-50: *This question of a favourite brand is a difficult one, I would call* [HORTEX] *as* [my] *favourite in terms of emotional attachment.*

P01-F2-41 expresses that she "really" likes the brand, demonstrating **strong passion**:

P01-F2-41: *I really like* [Bielenda]*. It is a brand that comes from Poland, and like my sisters, my mother, they all used this brand, kind of like our habits.*

Some participants (C09-M4-23, T02-M5-26, P07-M11-55) express "hate," "really don't like", and "particular dislike" towards their home brands, showing **strong but negative passion** with these brands:

C09-M4-23: *I really, really, don't like* [HUAWEI]. *I was hopeful and a little excited about Huawei because it's from my hometown; however, after trying it out, I found it to be a huge disappointment.*

T02-M5-26: *... I particularly don't like* [KOTON].

P07-M11-55: [Vodka Wyborowa]*, so this is next, the brand I don't like. It is terrible... I hate it... feeling sick every time I drank this vodka.*

Weak immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands

Weak passion indicates a lower-intensity emotional response and a weaker emotional bond with the brand, reflecting weak immigrant consumer-brand relationships. For example, some participants (T03-M8-30 and P03-F7-32) share that they "like" their home brands. "Liking" signals a favourable yet lower-intensity emotional connection, indicating weaker passion:

T03-M8-30: *I grew older, I started to use* [Mermet Efendi] *and even started to like it.*

P03-F7-32: *Feelings? It wasn't anything extraordinary. It just... I like* [Prince Polo].

P05-F14-28 shows that she dislikes her home brands, reflecting a **weaker level of passion**:

P05-F14-28: *And these days, it is, as I said,* [Reserved] *has expanded a lot. They are now much more of a fast-fashion type of business model, which I don't appreciate anymore. I don't like it.*

C12-M6-18 expresses indifference toward his home brands, demonstrating a **limited level of passion:**

C12-M6-18: *I've seen my classmates talk about* [Huawei] *and then watched TikTok swipe through it. Didn't really care and just crossed it out.*

From these descriptions, it can be concluded that immigrant consumers exhibited **strong or weak passion** toward their home brands. On the one hand, participants express love toward their home brands, describe them as "favourite", "special" or of "significance", or conveyed strong negative emotions toward their home brands, reflecting a **stronger level of passion**. On the other hand, some participants express "like", "dislike", or indifferent feelings towards their home brands, reflecting **weaker passion**.

This pattern aligns with prior work indicating that consumer-brand relationships are mainly governed by passion (Fetscherin et al., 2019). The intensity of passion that consumers hold determines the **strength of relationships**. In other words, while consumers may form strong or weak relationships with some brands, they may entirely disregard others to which they feel indifferent. Taken together, the interviews and the literature support that immigrant consumers do form relationships with home brands, and the **nature** of such relationships is mainly characterised by passion, from strong to weak.

- **Formation of immigrant consumer-brand relationship (Positive factors)**

Since the existence of immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands is established, this section aims to explore the formation of such relationships, in line with **RQ2** of the qualitative phase. The qualitative analysis shows **8 positive factors** associate with these relationships, and they can be organised into 4 groups: brand-related assessments, consumer-related assessments, reflections of memories and experiences, and consumer values.

Theme 2: Brand-related assessment

Qualitative data reveal 3 factors that are related to brand assessments, which might positively affect the immigrant consumer-brand relationship, including perceived good quality, perceived value for the cost, and good design and affordable price. Exploratory data findings for each of the formative factors of this category are explained below.

Perceived good quality

Perceived quality is defined as consumers' assessment of the overall excellence of the brand (Oh et al., 2023). Some participants highlight their perception of the quality of home brands, indicating that perceived good quality may contribute to immigrant consumers' relationships with their home brands:

C04-M2-30: *I would think of quality, and* [DJI's] *quality is pretty good.*

C09-M4-23: [DJI's] *Pocket 3 is good in quality.*

C07-F8-30: [Lee Kum Kee's] *oyster sauce is of very good quality!*

T04-F15-23*: The quality* [of Ülker] *is great.*

T05-M9-42: [Koton's] *quality is pretty solid.*

T06-F16-29: *I would like to say the* [Flormar's] *product quality is also good.*

P01-F2-41: ... [Bielenda is] *with very good quality.*

P05-F14-28: [Balagan] *has very high quality.*

P06-M10-26: [Reserved] *has really good quality.*

P07-M11-55: *The quality of* [Pudliszki] *is definitely there.*

P08-F18-25: *I am thinking about the quality of* [4F]. *The quality is good, because they also use this for the Olympics and stuff like this.*

Interview data expose the link between consumers' perceptions of a brand's level of quality and the development of simultaneous passion towards it. Thus, perceived good quality appears to be one of the positive factors in forming immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands.

Perceived value for the cost

Perceived value for the cost is defined as a consumer's assessment of what they receive and what they give in relation to a brand (Netemeyer et al., 2004). From the interviews, participants indicate that the combination of affordable pricing and high-quality features made their home brands appealing, and this factor can be considered as a positive factor that leads to immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands:

> C05-F5-31: *The price* [of Li-Ning] *is affordable, or at least it's worth the price.*

> C14-F12-24: [Xiaomi's] *mobile phone is really value for money... Another very attractive point is its cost-effective strategy. Xiaomi's mobile phones, you see that price, compared to the features, it is simply a conscience price. Although I did not use it at that time, but see others use quite cool, the price is really great.*

> T06-F16-29: [Flormar] *is a price and performance brand. It has a really reasonable price and a very good performance*.

> P01-F2-41: *There's this feeling that you're getting your money's worth* [from Bielenda].

Other participants also emphasise the importance of reasonable pricing:

> T04-F15-23: [Ülker has] *a very reasonable price.*

> T05-M9-42*:* [Koton's] *price is reasonable; the prices are pretty fair.*

Participants highlight the balance between the price paid and the quality or benefits received of their home country brands. Thus, the findings suggest that perceived value for the cost might be a driver of immigrant consumers' relationship with their home brands.

Good design and affordable price

Good design refers to a branded product's visual aspects meeting consumer expectations well, particularly in terms of style, aesthetics, and practicality (Bloch, 1995). Affordable price refers to the price of a product that is perceived as reasonable and fair. Some participants express that they are passionate towards their home brand in terms of both good design and affordable price of the brand:

> T06-F16-29: *I can think about one brand that I really like, it is* [Yumos]. *I think that's because of the design of the brand, and it was affordable.*

> C05-F5-31: *The price of* [Li Ning] *is affordable. And I think in recent years the aesthetics of this brand* [Li Ning] *has become better, I think it is really good-looking, the design is very stylish, and it is very unique.*

Some participants highlight the good design of the brands, and this may contribute to their relationships with home brands:

> C09-M4-23: [Xtep's] *designs are getting more and more stylish. Their shoes and sports gear are modern in colour and style, keeping up with youth trends.*

> C14-F12-24: *The design of the brand* [Xiaomi] *is both good-looking and practical.*

> T05-M9-42: [KOTON] *has a very good design.*

> T09-M13-41: *I like the style of the* [Kiğılı].

> P06-M10-26: *I think* [Reserved's] *design is good*.

The above insights show that good design and affordable price of the brand might contribute to the formation of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.

Theme 3: Consumer-related assessment

Consumer-related assessment indicates the evaluation of how well a brand or product aligns with consumers' preferences, needs, or perceptions. Qualitative data reveal one factor

belonging to this theme: Self-alignment with the home brands. The exploratory data findings for each of these formative factors in this category are discussed.

Self-alignment with the home brands

This research defines consumers' self-alignment with home country brands as the degree to which they perceive the brand reputation to align with their own self-concepts. Self-concept refers to "*the sum of an individual's thoughts and feelings about herself or himself*" (Vigolo & Ugolini, 2016, p.419). C05-F5-31 expresses passion towards her home brand, attributing this to the alignment between the brand and her self-concept. Similarly, participants express passion towards their home brands because they perceive their home brands as aligned with their self-concept:

> C03-F4-37: *I like* [Want Want]*, because it's about what it represents, like a part of your identity, right? It's tied to all the memories and feelings you have from your youth and aligns with who you are.*

> C05-F5-31: [Li Ning] *incorporates all these Chinese designs into its products. It's like it has taken what we've seen around us since we were kids, taken it out of our homes, and sewn it into every product they produce. That's why I love this brand, because I think. How to say, it fits who I am, I guess.*

> T09-M13-41: *I like* [Ottoman], *it is a Turkish brand, and I am Turkish.*

P05-F14-28 feels her home brand "closer" to her heart because she perceives the origin of the brand and stories of the brand to be aligned with her nationality:

> P05-F14-28: *I think* [it] *is very important here, because the owners of* [4F] *are Polish. And, yeah, I guess definitely, this brand is closer to my heart because of it's Polish and I'm from Poland.*

> P05-F14-28: *I like the story of [Balagan], as these things are aligned for me. Okay, so I pretty much love this brand.*

Based on those insights, the qualitative data suggest immigrant consumers' self-alignment with home country brands might be a key and positive factor in forming their relationships with their home brands.

Theme 3: Reflections of memories and experience

Qualitative findings reveal two factors related to consumers' reflections of past experiences, including nostalgia and positive sensory experience. Exploratory data findings for each of the factors of this category are explained below.

Nostalgia

In this research, nostalgia is defined as memories triggered by past experiences with the focal brand (Grappi et al., 2024). Nostalgia is more than a simple longing for the past; it involves a deep emotional connection to past life moments, often tied to linked to happy periods, people, or places from one's past (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022). The qualitative data show that some participants' home brands often evoke their past memories of good friends, their family or childhood, and such nostalgia contributes to their relationships with such brands.

Some participants express passion towards their home brand because the brands evoke their **memories with friends, classmates, and childhood** in the past:

> C03-F4-37: *To me, that means I think* [Want Want] *should represent my hometown. The packaging and flavour of* [Want Want] *is so classic that I can tell the brand quickly even without the packaging! Because I'm so familiar with the flavour. I love this brand because what it means to me is that whenever I eat Want Want candies and chips, I feel like I'm instantly back home, wherever I am, and I think of my friends and classmates. It makes me nostalgic and takes me back to my childhood.*

> C08-F9-30: *I like* [Acer] *because it has become part of our childhood memories and a testament to our friendship.*

Some participants express that their home brands can evoke their memories with **friends and childhood**, and they feel nostalgia for those brands. This may motivate them to form relationships with their home brands:

C02-F1-30: *Whenever I see* [HOLILAND]*, I'm reminded of the good times, it has memories of me and my good friends.*

P03-F7-32: *When I see* [Prince Polo's] *packaging, I am reminded of the times I spent with my family when I was a kid, and also the times when I sometimes got together with my grandparents, and we all ate these together.*

T04-F15-23: *I do feel nostalgic. Pretty much. I've been using* [Ülker] *since my childhood.*

T06-F16-29: [Yumos] *reminds me of home, and they take me back to my childhood and happy moments.*

T08-M12-34: *It felt like a nostalgic moment for me, seeing that old machine again...* [Casper] *reminds me of my childhood.*

P04-F13-50: *In Poland at the time, while freezers were common, they were quite small. Nobody really had the capacity in their freezers to store a block of ice cream that large. Thus, we would slice it into pieces right away, and I, along with my cousins, would eagerly devour it. This shared experience, slicing and eating the ice cream together, remains one of my cherished childhood memories* [HORTEX].

P07-M11-55 mentions that his home brand has grown up with him, and for him, it represents a lot of memories, and this might contribute to his relationships with home brands:

P07-M11-55: [Pudliszki] *has been around for so long that it's hard to pinpoint just one memory. It's like it's always been part of my life in one way or another, especially through different stages.*

Some participants also share that their home brands embody some good memories, and this might lead to their relationships with home brands:

C10-F10-33: [BYD] *is linked to a sense of nostalgia, because I've actually been in the UK for a particularly long time, and I still miss China quite a bit.*

T05-M9-42: *...whenever I see* [Koton]*, I always feel a bit of nostalgia there since I've been going there since I was young. So yeah, for me, it is just a part of my life,* [it is the feeling of] *home, and some good memories.*

P01-F2-41: … *when I see* [LORENZ], *when I eat it, I will always think of my past.*

These interviewees describe how home-country brands evoked memories, underscoring the emotional importance these brands hold for them. Therefore, it is suggested that nostalgia may motivate immigrant consumers to form relationships with their home brands.

Positive sensory experience

Sensory experience is defined as "*memorable, subjective stimuli perception received by the body, triggered from brand interactions, occurring at various stages of exposure to the brand, varying in strength and valence*" (Chevtchouk, 2022, p.205). Positive sensory experience means engaging with stimuli that elicit positive emotions through these senses (Elvekrok & Gulbrandsoy, 2022). Qualitative data show that immigrant consumers have a passion towards some branded products because of the pleasant **smell** and **taste** of the branded products.

Some participant express that the brand's good **smell** contributes to their relationships with their home brands:

T06-F16-29: *Brilliant, smell brilliant.* [Flormar] *is like a floral smell.*

P05-F14-28: *I just really love* [Ziaja's] *smell as well. It smells incredible.*

Some participants highlight the **taste** of the brands' products, and this might be the reason that they form relationships with their home brands:

C12-M6-18: [Heytea] *was sweet, creamy and very tasty.*

C13-M7-23: *I remembered that time I ate Hu La Tang* [a product of Fang Zhong Shan]*, it was delicious.*

T03-M8-30: *The taste* [of Mermet Efendi] *is a perfect balance of bitterness with a slight sweetness.*

T07-F17-41: [ETI] *is good in terms of taste, this is what I am used to.*

T09-M13-41: *Good taste.* [Ottoman] *is very tasty*.

P01-F2-41: [LORENZ has] *good taste.*

P03-F7-32: *...the taste* [of LOWICZ] *is incredible.*

P06-M10-26: *I can remember the taste* [of Tymbark]*, it is really good!*

P07-M11-55: [Pudliszki] *tasted great and didn't feel like just any processed food*.

C07-F8-30 expresses how the **flavour** matches her personal preferences, and this became the reason that she formed the relationships with this home brand:

C07-F8-30: *I think* [Lee Kum Kee] *suits my taste more. I use it a lot in my cooking, and for dumplings, you can also try it; it's really good!*

P08-F18-25 mentions **both smell and taste**:

P08-F18-25: *I like the taste...* [and HERBAPOL is] *just smells really good*.

As both taste and smell are included in the sensory experience, it can be argued that consumers' positive sensory experience plays a key role in forming their relationships with home brands.

Theme 4: Consumer beliefs

Consumer beliefs refer to individuals' subjective convictions or acceptance that something is true or exists, typically without concrete evidence (Pierre, 2001). It is an individual's subjective certainty in an idea, concept, or value, often influencing their thoughts, perceptions, and actions, and forming an integral part of their worldview. Qualitative findings reveal that **two factors** belong to this theme: ethnocentrism and tradition.

Ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism is defined as consumers' beliefs in favouring their own culture. The qualitative data reveal that some participants feel a connection to their home culture, and this belief might motivate them to form relationships with their home country:

> C07-F8-30: [Lee Kum Kee] *connects Chinese culture, culinary culture, habits, and my pride in my heritage.*
>
> C10-F10-33: *My home culture is always with me, an intangible connection that is more real than anything else.*
>
> P01-F2-41*: I feel a connection to my Polish culture and carry a piece of it with me.*

Based on the insights above, consumer ethnocentrism can be considered as one of the drivers of immigrant relationships with their home brands.

Tradition

Tradition is defined as a personal cultural orientation representing respect for one's traditional values and customs (Sharma, 2010). Qualitative data indicate that immigrants' traditions that are connected to their home brands can motivate them to form relationships with these brands:

> *T04-F15-23: It's kind of become a tradition to share it* [Ülker] *with my family when we're together.*
>
> P03-F7-32*: My mother and I often shop together in the local supermarket. In preparation for the holidays, I will buy* [LOWICZ]. *You know this is our country's brand, it is a kind of tradition, every time we celebrate the holidays, it is customary to buy.*
>
> P04-F13-50: *Associate tradition, the fact that* [HORTEX] *is a Polish brand, the fact that it's traditional.*

P05-F14-28: *It's part of our tradition, maybe it's we, as a family, who enjoy the products* [of Ziaja].

From the descriptions, it can be observed that ones' traditions are often deeply rooted in cultural practices passed down through generations, thus may act as a key factor in forming immigrant consumers' relationships with their home country brands.

- **Formation of immigrant consumer-brand relationship (Negative factors)**

This section focuses on the **negative factors** in forming immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands. Four factors were identified from the qualitative data and are grouped into one theme, i.e., brand-related assessment.

Theme 5: Brand-related assessment

Four negative factors are identified to be associated with the formation of immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands, which are perceived poor quality, negative sensory experience, discrepancy of advertising of brand promise, and overuse of patriotism-based marketing.

Perceived poor quality

Perceived quality is defined as consumers' assessment of the overall excellence of the brand (Oh et al., 2023). Perceived poor quality refers to consumers' negative assessments of a product's ability to meet expected standards or fulfil its intended purpose (Netemeyer et al., 2004). Some participants express their perception of the poor quality of their home brands, and this may be the negative factor that motivates immigrants to form relationships with their home brands:

C04-M2-30: *The* [HUAWEI's] *phone is running very slowly.*

C07-F8-30: *I think maybe when you first start using* [Huawei], *its system is very smooth and easy to use, but after some time, it gets very stuck.*

C08-F9-30: [TCL] *is cheaper, but its quality, that is, the picture quality and the durability of use, is not very good.*

T02-M5-26: *Over time,* [KOTON's] *quality became worse, and it doesn't match the quality and functionality I expect from a home country brand.*

T06-F16-29: *The quality* [of Bim] *just wasn't there, and I started to question if saving a bit of money was worth it if I wasn't getting decent food in return*.

T08-M12-34: *But I remember it not being of good quality... I remember that there was so much noise inside, and it wasn't comfortable* [Tofas].

P05-F14-28: [Reserved] *is pushing for lower prices, but then lower quality as well.*

Interview data expose the potential connection between immigrant consumers' perception of poor quality of the brand and the formation of immigrant consumers' relationships with these brands. Therefore, perceived poor quality can be considered a negative factor that drives the development of immigrant consumer-brand relationships.

Negative sensory experience

Sensory experience is defined as "*memorable, subjective stimuli perception received by the body, triggered from brand interactions, occurring at various stages of exposure to the brand, varying in strength and valence*" (Chevtchouk et al., 2021, p.15). Negative sensory experience refers to engaging with stimuli that evoke unpleasant or negative emotions through these senses. Some participants mention that their unfavourable sensory interactions with their home brands mainly reflect in tastes, and this may lead to the formation of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands:

T07-F17-41: *The taste* [of Melis] *is really bad as I described.*

P06-M10-26: *The taste* [of Warka] *was super weird, not in a good way like some beers are.*

P07-M11-55: *I clearly remember the taste, and it wasn't pleasant at all* [for Vodka Wyborowa].

Overall, the interview data suggest that negative sensory experience is behind the immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands.

Discrepancy of advertising of brand promise

Brand promise is defined as the commitment a brand makes to its customers about what they can consistently expect from its products (Keller, 2009). Discrepancy of advertising of brand promise refers to a misalignment between what a brand communicates to its customers and what it delivers through its products or services. Some interviewees show that they perceive such discrepancies, and this factor may contribute to their relationships with their home brand:

> C04-M2-30: [HUAWEI's] *performance advertises doesn't match the actual product.*

> C09-M4-23: [HUAWEI] *is advertised all over the place and bragged about it, but when I get my hands on it, it's not what it says it is.*

These insights suggest that the discrepancy of advertising of brand promise might be one of the drivers of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands.

Overuse of patriotism-based marketing

Patriotism is defined as one's "*strong feelings of attachment and loyalty to one's own country without the corresponding hostility towards other nations*" (Balabanis et al., 2001, p.160). Overuse of patriotism-based marketing indicates a perceived instrumentalisation of national sentiment, whereby patriotic symbols and narratives are deployed repetitively and prominently to promote the brand. Such overreliance on patriotic appeals might be interpreted as a strategic substitution for substantive value creation, in the sense that brands are seen to prioritise emotive national messaging while neglecting functional development. The qualitative data reveal that some home brands overuse patriotism in their marketing strategies, and such a phenomenon might affect consumers' relationships with those brands:

> C04-M2-30: *Don't kidnap Chinese people's patriotic mentality, as if not buying is unpatriotic. I think this is very bad,* [so] *I don't like* [HUAWEI].

C07-F8-30: *Put it seriously, it's like kidnapping patriots to buy its products while ignoring the actual performance issues of the product itself, which I think* [HUAWEI] *is not good*.

C09-M4-23: [Huawei] *always uses patriotism as a marketing tactic, so I don't really like this approach.*

These insights suggest that overuse of patriotism-based marketing might be one of the drivers of immigrant consumers' relationships with their home brands.

- **Outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationship (Positive factors)**

As the existence and formation of immigrant consumers' relationships are uncovered, this section focuses on the positive outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands. These 9 factors are organised into 2 groups, which are brand-related behaviour and consumer perceived value.

Theme 6: Brand-related behaviour

Qualitative data reveal 4 potential positive outcomes of immigrant consumers' relationships with their home brands: brand purchase intention, voluntary sharing behaviour, positive WOM persuasion intention, and willingness to pay a price premium, which fall under the brand-related behaviour category. The exploratory findings for each outcome are discussed in the following sections.

Brand purchase intention

Brand purchase intention in this study refers to a consumer's personal intention to purchase a brand if able (Gomes et al., 2022). The qualitative data show that consumers who show passion towards their home country brands might be more inclined to buy those brands in the future. For example, C05-F5-31 expresses an intention to purchase a home brand when circumstances permit, while T01-M3-44 shows a similar intention. Thus, this factor might be an outcome of their relationships with their home brand:

C05-F5-31: *If I* [go] *back to China, I mean, if I have the opportunity, I will buy* [Li Ning].

T01-M3-44: [VESTEL] *is expensive... but if I have money, I will buy it in the future.*

This example illustrate that even in situations where current conditions may not allow for an immediate purchase, participants express a clear desire to purchase the brand in the future. Thus, brand purchase intention can be considered as an outcome of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with home brands.

Positive WOM persuasion intention

WOM persuasion intention is defined as an interpersonal communication to influence others' purchase decisions (Berger, 2014). Positive persuasion refers to the deliberate attempt by a customer to **encourage** potential buyers from trying or purchasing by sharing favourable experiences or positive opinions about a product or brand (Maisam & Mahsa, 2016). Interview data suggest that immigrant consumers who have a strong passion towards their home brands are more likely to engage in persuasive behaviour, encouraging others to choose those brands:

C07-F8-30: *I have convinced many* [of] *my local friends to buy* [products from Lee Kum Kee].

C08-F9-30: *Every time my friend asks me what brand of computer is good for me, I will convince them to choose* [Acer] *because I had a good experience.*

P06-M10-26: *I was often recommended my partners and my friends to buy* [products from Reserved].

P08-F18-25: *I really recommend you try* [HERBAPOL].

Participants express a desire to convince friends to purchase their home brands based on their positive experiences in the past. Therefore, positive persuasion intention emerged as a potential outcome of immigrant consumers' relationships with their home-country brands.

Voluntary sharing behaviour

In this study, voluntary sharing behaviour is defined as consumers information sharing-oriented communication with others (Berger, 2014). Some participants who form relationships with home brands show more proactive intention to share information or experiences regarding their home brands with others:

> C10-F10-33: *I often mention* [Temu's] *products to my friends and neighbours. Because it does work very well, it's cheap... and the quality is well, and it represents Chinese quality... Honestly, it makes me feel good to share the positive experience of these brands because it's a brand from our China.*

> C12-M6-18: *Like when I wore* [Li-Ning's] *basketball shoes in Stirling, people would always come to me and ask me what brand of sneakers they were, and then I'd recommend them to go to the brand's website, and I'd give them some recommendations on models that are good for playing basketball.*

> P07-M11-55: *I would say I buy* [Pudliszki] *very often, especially for some important moments or whenever I want to introduce a friend to Polish food.*

These examples illustrate how voluntary sharing behaviour, where consumers actively share their personal experiences and information about home brands with others, can be considered as a positive outcome of immigrant consumer-brand relationships.

Willingness to pay a price premium

Willingness to pay a price premium is defined as consumers' willingness to pay the price over the 'fair' price of the brand (Casado-Díaz et al., 2020). Interview data suggest that immigrant consumers who have built relationships with their home brands are more willing to pay a premium price for these brands:

> C12-M6-18: *In the UK,* [HeyTea] *is really expensive, double the price of any normal milk tea, but I'm willing to pay the higher price. Because it's worth it yeah.*

> T04-F15-23: *I still buy* [Ülker], *even more expensive…I think it is worth buying it.*

These examples illustrate that willingness to pay a price premium might be considered as an outcome of immigrant consumers' relationship with their home brands.

Theme 7: Consumer perceived value

Value is seen as the outcome of an evaluative judgement from consumers (Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). Consumer perceived value is defined as the subjective evaluation of the benefits or value they perceived from the brand (this cannot be objectively established by the brand), which is based on how well the brand fulfils their needs and desires across various dimensions (e.g., hedonic, social and utilitarian value) (Currás-Pérez et al., 2018; Mogilner & Norton, 2015; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007).

The qualitative data reveal 3 factors concerned with **consumer perceived value**, and can be considered as the outcomes of immigrant consumers' relationships with their home brands, including inner self-expressiveness, perceived irreplaceability, and sense of belonging.

Inner self-expressiveness

Inner self-expressiveness refers to consumers' perception of the degree to which the specific brand reflects one's inner self (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). This concept highlights how brands resonate with consumers on a deeper, personal level, allowing them to express their self-concept via brand choices. From the interview data, C13-M7-23, P01-F2-41, and T04-F15-23 express that their loved home brands help them convey their self-concept, making these brands become part of their inner self-expressions:

> C13-M7-23*: This brand* [Li-Ning] *really helps me express who I am on the inside, like yeah, I'm Chinese.*

> P01-F2-41: *It's a small but meaningful way to express my identity, like showing I am Polish.*

> T04-F15-23: [ETI] *shows the* [Turkish] *culture, shows my identity.*

In addition, C14-F12-24 shares how the values embodied by her loved home brand align with her personal beliefs and reflect her inner world:

C14-F12-24: *My deepest impression is... I remembered that Lei Jun personally stood on the stage, and news like Lei Jun personally opening the door for millet owners, which feels quite humane. This reflects [Xiaomi's] kind of grounded, pro-people corporate culture, and it's also a feeling I really like within myself. Knowing that Xiaomi was founded by such a person will make me more expressive in my choice. It's not just a brand, it's a reflection of my inner world.*

Participants highlight that their relationships with home-country brands provided a means of inner self-expression. Therefore, inner self-expressiveness might be a positive consequence of immigrant consumers' relationship with their home country brands.

Perceived irreplaceability

Brand irreplaceability refers to the consumer's perception that a brand cannot be replaced even with an alike product (Can & Erdil, 2018). The qualitative data reveal that some immigrant consumers see their home brands as irreplaceable, and this might become an outcome of their relationships with their home brands:

T04-F15-23: *I can't find it equal here. That's why I need to buy the original; nothing can replace* [Ülker].

T06-F16-29: *I have tried other fabric softeners, but honestly, they don't even come close to that quality and smell* [of Flormar].

These insights suggest that brand irreplaceability might be an outcome of immigrant consumers' relationships with home brands.

Sense of belonging

In this study, sense of belonging is defined as a consumer's feeling of inclusion and affiliation with a particular group or culture in relation to the brand (Cheng & Kuo, 2015; Hang & Zhong, 2023). Qualitative data show that immigrant consumers who form relationships with their home brands tend to exhibit a sense of belonging associated with those brands:

C03-F4-37: [Want Want] *gives me a sense of home and allows me to feel a touch of unchanging warmth even in a foreign land.*

C04-M2-30: *It should be more of a sense of belonging, I feel* [from DJI].

C10-F10-33: [BYD]*'s presence certainly gives me a greater sense of belonging. It's as if it's telling me that even though I was in a foreign country.*

T03-M8-30: *It's a habit by now, but* [Mermet Efendi] *makes me feel connected to home.*

T04-F15-23: *It's a simple way of feeling connected to my family and my home, even when I'm far away* [for brand: Ülker].

T05-M9-42: [Koton gives me] *feeling of being back home, of familiarity.*

T06-F16-29: [Flormar gives me] *kind of comforting to have something familiar with me now that I'm living abroad...connects me to home*.

P07-M11-55: [Pudliszki] *makes me feel a bit closer to home.*

These insights indicate that sense of belonging may be considered as an outcome of immigrant consumers' relationship with their home country brands.

- **Outcomes of immigrant consumer-brand relationship (Negative factors)**

Theme 8: Consumer behaviour

The qualitative analysis reveal two negative outcomes of immigrant consumers' relationships with their home brands, i.e., non-repurchase intention and negative WOM persuasion intention. Both outcomes fall under the brand-related behaviour category.

Non-repurchase intention

Non-repurchase intention is defined as "*customers' willingness to avoid another purchase from the same firm, based on their previous negative experiences*" (Curina et al., 2020, p.3).

Interviewees who expressed negative passion toward certain home country brands claimed that they would actively avoid purchasing those brands in the future:

C03-F4-37: *I think it means I won't go back to* [Huawei] *products.*

C07-F8-30: *Since the first time I used my friend's* [Huawei]*, my experience wasn't very good, so I never chose Huawei again.*

C09-M4-23: *I definitely wouldn't consider buying* [Huawei's] *stuff.*

C11-F11-18: *Overall, I don't like this brand, and I will not use this brand, even it launched any new products, very good advertisement, I will not buy and use* [Huawei] *anymore.*

T02-M5-26: *I was using* [Koton], *and then I saw this decline. I experienced it firsthand. So, I stopped visiting or buying from these brands.*

T06-F16-29: *For me,* [Bim] *is just not a place I'd choose to go back to.*

P06-M10-26: *I'm definitely never buying* [Warka] *again.*

P07-M11-55: *I honestly can't see myself buying* [Vodka Wyborowa] *again.*

P05-F14-28: *They are now much more of as our fast fashion type of mod business model, which I don't appreciate anymore. I don't like it. I don't really buy from them. I didn't really buy anything from them for many years.*

Thus, the qualitative findings suggest that consumers' unwillingness to repurchase these home brands might be a negative outcome of immigrant consumer-brand relationships with their home brands

Negative WOM persuasion intention

Persuasion intention is defined as interpersonal communication to influence others' purchase decisions (Berger, 2014). Negative persuasion intention refers to a customer's deliberate

attempt to dissuade potential buyers from purchasing by sharing unfavourable experiences or negative opinions about a product or brand. Interview data suggested that an immigrant who had a negative passion towards her home brand was more likely to discourage others from purchasing a brand she perceives as low quality:

> C08-F9-30: *Yes. I remembered that, at that time, I strongly discouraged my grandmother from buying* [TCL], *but she bought it anyway because it was cheaper. So, I was desperate, and then when I got home, it was the same, because nowadays, if you look at it, the price of this TV is no longer proportional to its performance, so the picture quality is distorted, and the overall feeling is not very good.*

Participant expresses a desire to dissuade others from buying a home brand due to perceived poor quality. This demonstrates that persuasion intention can manifest both in advising against less favourable ones. Thus, negative persuasion intention emerges as a potential negative outcome of immigrant consumers' relationships with their home country brands.

- **Existence of consumer acculturation within immigrant consumers**

In line with the fourth objective of the qualitative study (RQ4), this section aims to explore the potential existence of acculturation. While prior studies have recognised the presence of acculturation among immigrant consumers (Aguilar-Rodriguez & Arias-Bolzmann, 2021), it is necessary to explore the potential existence in the current data.

Theme 9: Variation in the current stage of acculturation

Consumer acculturation reflects one's dynamic process of adaptation to the mainstream culture (Bulut & Gayman, 2020; Harrison et al., 2022). However, because this research adopts a cross-sectional design, it cannot capture acculturation as an unfolding process; instead, it assesses participants' current stage of adaptation to the mainstream culture.

Key interview questions related to acculturation in this study focus on **language use, holiday celebrations, food preferences, and social networks** to explore participants' current levels of acculturation (Josiassen, 2011). Using such indicators, the qualitative data reveal that acculturation exists among immigrant consumers and occurs at varying levels. Since all participants were questioned about the acculturation, this section organises the main findings

and provides a detailed discussion of the most representative cases illustrating the observed variations in the current stage of acculturation (Table 15).

A representative example from the qualitative data from a first-generation Turkish immigrant, T05-M9-42, exhibits a **relatively low acculturation level**. For example, when asking about the language used in his personal and daily context, thought process and dreaming, he says, *"I always use Turkish"*. Regarding the holiday celebration, he responds, *"I celebrate in my culture, some traditional holidays like Turkish New Year, the first day of spring, which is the 21st of March. Most of the people in Turkey will celebrate that day, it is a big day for us."* When asked about his preferred cuisine, he says, *"Turkish food, definitely, without doubt, Turkish food the best in the world"*. When asked about the origin of his closest friends and their current residence, he answered, *"All Turkish"*. These all indicate a lower level of acculturation, as he maintained a strong alignment with Turkish heritage across daily practices, social relationships, and cultural preferences, showing almost separation with the host culture.

A second example from a first-generation Chinese immigrant (C10-F10-33), who exhibits a **moderate level of acculturation**. To illustrate, she expressed using *"English in daily life, and mostly* [uses] *Chinese in personal life and thinking process",* and is uncertain about the language used in dreams. For holiday celebrations, she responds, "*I would celebrate festivals like the Spring Festival and Lantern Festival. I also celebrate festivals like Christmas. Because I have Western friends, including their families, sometimes they would invite us over, and we would celebrate together. The main reason is that it's not only a chance to celebrate the festivals among friends, but it's also an important time for social interactions"*. While she expresses a preference for Chinese cuisine, she also adapts her diet based on context, stating, "*Chinese food accounts for 70%, and Western food 30%"*. Her social circle, too, reflects a mixed influences: "*I feel like half of my circle of good friends have many, just like you, people we've known since school are Chinese, and then my circle of colleagues would mainly be locals. They live within the UK, mainly concentrated in London and Glasgow"*. These answers reflect a moderate level of acculturation, as the participant selectively incorporated elements of the host culture while retaining some aspects of her Chinese heritage, indicating an integrative approach to cultural adaptation.

A third example from a second-generation Polish immigrant, P02-F3-21, shows a **higher level of acculturation**. This participant reports that she uses English only across all areas of

her life: *"I use English in my daily life. English in personal life. And in my thinking process, in English. In my dream, English".* When asking about the holiday celebration, she says, *"I celebrate Christmas in the UK."* As for the cuisines, she responds, *"I prefer, like middle Eastern foods, like Vietnamese and Thai food as well. I like it, like Jerusalem, kind of an Iranian stuff."* In terms of social networks, she describes her closest friends as a culturally diverse group, *"for my closest friend, they were mixed from Poland, Ukraine, Sweden, Iran. All of them are now living in Glasgow".* These responses collectively indicate a higher level of acculturation, as the participant has largely adopted elements of the host culture, suggesting an assimilation-oriented approach to cultural adaptation.

From the literature, the level of acculturation, as immigrant consumers relocate to a new cultural environment, involves adopting elements of the host culture while retaining aspects of their heritage (Laroche et al., 2020). The degree to which immigrants engage in this adaptation can vary widely, resulting in different acculturation levels, including pathways such as strong assimilation, selective integration, separation, or even marginalisation (Li et al., 2023). Integrating the insights from both the literature and qualitative data, the presence of consumer acculturation among immigrant participants is evidenced. Some participants display a high level of acculturation, exhibiting an assimilated orientation to the host culture, indicative of an assimilation approach. Some show a moderate level of acculturation, selectively integrating aspects of both host and home cultures, reflecting an integrative approach. Finally, some participants show a lower level of acculturation, primarily retaining their home culture with minimal adaptation to the host culture, thus reflecting a separation strategy.

- **Potential effects of Acculturation**

As the previous section determines the existence of consumer acculturation within immigrant context based on the analysis of three representative cases, this section aims to explore from those three participants with relatively higher (P02-F3-21), moderate (C10-F10-33) and lower level of acculturation (T05-M9-42), to explore the potential influences of acculturation on their relationships with their home country brands, in line with research objective 4 of the qualitative phase (RQ4). Although the qualitative dataset comprises only 31 participants, which limits the extent to which definitive conclusions can be drawn, several consistent patterns nonetheless emerge. These patterns offer valuable initial insights into

how various levels of acculturation may affect immigrants' relationships with their home brands, and the subsequent quantitative phase is employed to further test the assumptions.

Theme 10: The role of acculturation on immigrant consumer-brand relationships

The interview data reveal certain effects regarding immigrant consumers' various current levels of acculturation on their perceptions and relationships with home brands. Participants with low (T05-M9-42) to moderate (C10-F10-33) levels of acculturation express stronger emotional resonance, cultural attachment and a sense of pride toward their home brands. In contrast, P02-F3-21 shows a higher level of acculturation, which reflects a limited connection with home brands and instead, prefers her host brands. These narratives suggest a potential gradient in brand relationships that reflects immigrants' various degrees of cultural orientation.

T05-M9-42 exhibits a lower level of acculturation and expressed a pronounced attachment to his home culture, country, and passion towards brands originating from there. His narrative revealed how home brands serve as emotional and cultural anchors. For example, he expressed that: "*for me,* [Koton] *feels like home. It's one of those brands that I instantly connect with Turkey, as it embodies a lot of memories. So, when you asked me* [about] *some brands from my home country, I will think about Koton. It's more than just clothes, it's that feeling of being back home, of familiarity*," and *"there's also a bit of nostalgia there since I've been going there since I was young. And it's nice to see a Turkish brand that's popular and doing well. So yeah, for me, [Koton] is just a part of my life, a bit of home, some good memories."* These quotes show individuals with lower acculturation levels view home brands as providing continuity, evoke memories in the past, and reinforce a sense of belonging to their country of origin.

C10-F10-33, who demonstrates a moderate level of acculturation, articulates a clear sense of cultural rootedness linked to her home brands. As she expresses, *"whenever I see a Chinese brand like [BYD], I feel it is connected to my roots. I always choose them because they remind me of home, and it makes me proud of something that supports my culture", and "Actually, I've been in the UK for a long time and still miss China. I prefer BYD, when I see a Chinese brand car in the UK, I get more emotional and feel at home".* Her reflections suggest that, even while engaging with aspects of the host culture, home brands continue to function as salient symbols of cultural continuity and pride. For this participant, such brands

evoke familiarity and emotional resonance, also, reinforce her cultural identity, thereby sustaining passion towards home brands.

P02-F3-21 shows a relatively high level of acculturation, as the participant was born in the UK and returns to her home country only during summer holidays. Throughout the interview, she exclusively identifies brands from the host country as her preferred choices. When asking whether there are any brands from her home country that she likes, she responds: *"I have no idea about Polish brands, I am not that familiar with things in Poland."* This response indicates that individuals with higher levels of acculturation often maintain very limited familiarity with, and consequently weaker connections to, brands originating from their country of origin.

In conclusion, although the qualitative dataset is not sufficient to draw definitive causal claims, the findings indicate that immigrants' varying levels of acculturation may be associated with different connections with home-country brands. Those with lower acculturation levels tend to regard home brands as symbolic anchors that provide cultural continuity, evoke memories, and reinforce a sense of belonging to their heritage culture. Moderately acculturated participants similarly draw on home brands as markers of cultural pride, sustaining meaningful emotional bonds alongside their adaptation to the host country. Highly acculturated individuals appear less familiar with, and consequently less attached to, brands from their country of origin, instead aligning their preferences with the brand landscape of the host culture. These patterns offer preliminary insight into how various levels of acculturation may affect the immigrant consumer-brand relationships.

- **Country-of-origin-related factors**

The qualitative data reveal certain insights that, while not directly addressing the research objectives of the qualitative phase, may still be relevant to the broader research topic, particularly in relation to **country-of-origin**. Some participants mention some aspects of their home brands, such as brand symbols, founders, celebrities and reputation, which are recognition factors associated with these brands. Although these findings may not directly pertain to the existence, nature, formation, or outcomes of the participants' relationships with their home brands, the focus on immigrant consumer behaviour suggests that COO-related factors might be significant. The following section discusses these insights in detail.

Theme 11: Brand origin salience

Brand origin salience refers to "*the extent to which consumers recognise the brand origin*" (Shi et al., 2024, p.2). The qualitative data reveal that participants can recognise their home brands based on distinct "markers," including brand symbols, notable founders, history, and celebrities. For some participants, they can easily and quickly recognise the brands' origin based on their familiarity with these brands. Some participants highlight that several distinct cues enable them to identify their home brands, particularly through the brand symbols such as logos and culturally specific designs:

> C02-F1-30: [Holiland] *has very classic Chinese elements, so when I see it, I can instantly think of it as a Chinese brand.*

> C13-M7-23: *It is easy to identify that* [Li-Ning] *is a Chinese brand because it incorporates all these Chinese designs into its products.*

> P05-F14-28: *When I saw* [4F], *I immediately recognised it as Polish. 4F caps are usually red, the logo is white, and the Polish flag is red and white. This gave me a very strong impression of the brand as being, well, very 'Polish'. Whenever I use it, this feeling makes me feel connected to my roots and deeply emotional.*

> T01-M3-44: *I like this brand. The logo* [of VESTEL] *is very special, so I can always recognise that it is a Turkish brand.*

Some participants attribute their recognition of home brands to the brand's **strong reputation** within their home country:

> C04-M2-30: [DJI] *is a popular brand with a high reputation in China, sorry, who doesn't know it?*

> C06-F6-33: *Of course, I know* [Xiaomi] *is a Chinese brand; it is a leading brand in China!*

Some participants express that they can quickly recognise their home brands based on **long-term use** and **cultural associations** developed over many years:

C03-F4-37: *Every time I'm in Edinburgh, shopping in a Chinese supermarket, I'm quick to see* [Want Want] ... *It is our Chinese brand! It is very popular in China and for many people, eating chicken feet is also a leisure and social activity. For example, we eat it when we play mahjong.*

P01-F2-41: *I'm familiar with* [LORENZ]. *I can always recognise LORENZ because I have been using it for many years. When I was very young... many, many years. I have been buying their products for years, not only I but my family has been buying this brand, and as I said, we buy LORENZ every weekend to take home for dinner. Even at Christmas or New Year, we'd buy the odd thing for family, friends and my granny, presents and stuff.*

T04-F15-23: *I've pretty much been familiar with* [Ülker] *my whole life. I can't remember the exact first time I had it, probably because I was really young...maybe even a baby.*

C14-F12-24 and P08-F18-25 state that they can recognise home brands by their **founders,** or associated **celebrities**:

C14-F12-24: *When I think of* [Xiaomi], *the first thing that comes to mind is its founder, what a legend. It's super famous, you must have heard of it.*

P08-F18-25: *The first thought that came to my mind, alright, Robert Lewandowski. For us, because he's a famous football player in my country, and he is a sponsor for this brand. So, when you mention* [4F], *I will think about him...he is super famous in our country.*

These examples show how various factors, such as symbols, reputation, cultural associations, and associated celebrities, may contribute to recognition of a brand's origin among immigrant consumers.

Appendix 16. Information regarding the leading countries of origin in the UK

Country	**Poland**	**China**	**Turkey**	India	Romania	Germany	Ireland	Nigeria	Italy	Pakistan	South Africa
Region	**European**	**Western Pacific**	**South-eastern Asia**	South-East Asia	European	European	European	African	European	Eastern Mediterranean	African
Percentage of total immigrants in the UK (Source: ONS, 2022)	**7.1%**	**2.5%**	**1.3%**	9.3%	3.4%	3.6%	4.3%	3.2%	2.9%	4.7%	3.1%
Total number of immigrants in the UK (Source: ONS, 2022)	**682000**	**237500**	**127,644**	883500	323000	342000	408500	304000	275500	456000	294500

Source: The Migration Observatory (ONS) (2022). Migrants in the UK: An overview. Retrieved 09/07/2023 from: https://migrationobservatory.ox.ac.uk/resources/briefings/migrants-in-the-uk-an-overview/

Appendix 17. All collected definitions of antecedents in the model

Constructs	Conceptual definitions
Brand origin salience	'The extent to which consumers recognize the brand origin' (Shi et al., 2024, p.2).
	"Consumers' ability to recognize brand origins" (Samiee et al., 2005, p.382) - Brand origin recognition accuracy
	"Consumers' ability to recall the origin of the brands they are aware of" (Abdellah-Kilani & Zorai, 2018, p.469). - Brand origin recall accuracy
Consumer ethnocentrism	'The view of things in which one's own group is the centre of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it' (Sumner, 1906, p.13).
	'Normative-based beliefs that buying domestic products is somehow good for the country, whereas purchasing nondomestic products is deleterious to the economy, the country and fellow citizens' (Shimp, 1984, p. 285).
	'The beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products' (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280).
	'The beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness of making use of services provided by foreign companies' (De Ruyter et al., 1998, p.187).
	'The belief that it is inappropriate, or even immoral, to purchase foreign products because to do so is damaging to the domestic economy, costs domestic jobs, and is unpatriotic' (Klein, 2002, p.346).
	'Deeply-held beliefs that homemade products should be purchased over foreign-made products' (Ferguson et al., 2008, p.430).
	A psychological construct representing 'how consumers view products made in their own country markets as objects of pride and identity versus those from other country markets' (Kinra, 2006, p.18).
	'The importance placed on maintaining culturally centred consumption patterns. Strong preference for domestically manufactured products to foreign-made ones is an indication that a culture has a high degree of national identity' (Le et al., 2013, p.767).
	'Appropriateness and indeed morality of purchasing foreign products' (Lysonski & Durvasula, 2013, p.497).
	'Consumers' tendency to favor domestic over foreign products, that is, as a form of prosocial behaviour that can be reflexive or learned and is associated with feelings of insecurity and distorted cognition. ' (Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015, p.71).
	'The perceived appropriateness and morality to purchase domestic products' (Yang & Paladino, 2015, p.343).
	'An overall attitude towards domestic and foreign products and services consisting of affective reaction, cognitive bias and behavioural preference' (Sharma, 2015, p.383).
	'The perception that the group to which one belongs is the most important, and that other cultures and groups are lesser than, or must be evaluated by, the standards of the ingroup' (Cleveland & Balakrishnan, 2018, p.417).
	'People viewing their own group as superseding all other groups and is often the catalyst for protective actions against perceived threats from culturally dissimilar groups' (Carvalho et al., 2019, p.312)
	'The conviction about the appropriateness and morality of acquiring products labelled domestic brands, loyalty to them and attributing them the desired features and rejection of products manufactured abroad' (Witek-Hajduk & Grudecka, 2022, p.858).
	'The inclination for people to view their own group as the centre of the universe, to interpret other groups from their own perspective, and to reject persons who are culturally dissimilar' (Cleveland & McCutcheon, 2022, p.174).
Self-congruity	'A comparison between a product-image perception and a self-image belief' (Sirgy, 1982, p.289).
	'A match between a product image and a person's actual self-image' (Sirgy, 1985, p.196).
	'A comparison of self-image with a brand's user-imagery' (Sirgy, 1986).
	'A product-user image interacts with the consumer's self-concept generating a subjective experience' (Sirgy et al., 1997, p. 229).
	'A process that individuals who are schematic versus aschematic on a particular personality dimension should have a greater preference for brands that are highly descriptive on that personality dimension' (Aaker, 1999, p. 47).

	'The match/mismatch between the brand user image and the consumer actual self-image, ideal self-image, social self-image, and/or ideal social self-image' (Sirgy & Jorhar, 1999).
	'The match between the store patron image and the consumer's self-concept' (Sirgy et al., 2000, p. 127).
	'The match between the destination visitor image and the tourist's self-concept' (Sirgy & Su, 2000, p. 340).
	'How much a consumer′s self-concept matches the personality of a typical user of a brand' (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004, p. 206).
	'The match between consumers' self-concept (actual self, ideal self, etc.) and the user image (or 'personality') of the given product, brand, store, etc.' (Kressmann et al., 2006, p. 955).
	'The match between consumers' self-concept (actual self, ideal self, etc.) and the user image of a given product, store, sponsorship event, etc.' (Sirgy et al., 2008, p. 1091).
	'The likeliness of comparing oneself with other objects and stimuli' (Liu et al., 2012, p. 923).
	'Perceived difference between an actual brand image and a consumer-desired image' (Hu et al., 2012, p. 27).
	'The match between the tourism visitor's image of the destination and the tourist's self-image' (Pratt & Sparks, 2014, p. 447).
	'The extent of congruity (i.e. psychological closeness) between self-concept and brand user imagery' (Kumagai & Nagasawa, 2017, p. 269).
	'A psychological process and outcome in which consumers compare their perception of a brand image (more specifically, brand personality or brand-user image) with their own self-concept (e.g. actual self, ideal self, social self)' (Sirgy, 2018, p. 198).
	'How physical products contribute to a consumer's psychological definition of self-concept' (Bajac et al., 2018, p. 499).
	'The fit between the self-concept (actual or ideal) and the brands' personality or image' (Japutra et al., 2019, p. 456).
	'The match between a consumer's self-concept and his or her image of a consumer of a given product, brand or store' (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2020, p. 235).
	'The consistency between the self-concept of a tourist and a destination brand image and is derived from the construct of self-concept' (Chen et al., 2020, p. 3).
	'The match of a brand's image/personality to one's self-concept' (Rabbanee et al., 2020, p. 1412).
	'The match between the retail brand identity and the consumers' identity' (Roggeveen et al., 2021, p. 82).
	'The fit between the brand's image or personality and the consumer' (Eastman, 2021, p. 1886).
	'A match between the customer's attitudes and image and the perceived product user image' (Haverila et al., 2022, p. 236).
	'The fit between a person's self-concept and a brand's personality' (Chieng et al., 2022, p. 872).
	'The extent to which a consumer perceives a brand similar to his or her self-concept' (Kumar & Kaushik, 2022, p. 29).
	'The cognitive match between the images of a consumer's self-concept (e.g. actual self vs ideal self) and a brand' (Li et al., 2022b, p. 799).
Nostalgia	'Reflection of the past comprised of memories, emotions and thoughts related to the consumer's lived or idealized experiences with the brand' (Ford et al., 2018, p. 20).
	'Positive remnants of the past that people enjoy revisiting' (Grappi et al., 2024, p. 6).
	'Memories triggered by previous experiences with, exposure to, or past use of the focal brand' (Banerjee & Shaikh, 2022, p. 1007).
	"Nostalgia felt in reaction to a stimulus" (Pecot et al., 2019, p. 1633).
	"Consumer's perception of the nostalgic brand staging" (Fritz et al., 2017, p. 331).

Appendix 18. All the collected definitions of the moderator in the model

Constructs	Conceptual definitions
Consumer acculturation	'The general process of movement and adaptation to the consumer cultural environment in one country by persons from another country' (Penaloza, 1994, p. 33).
	'Interaction and communication response styles (... ease/ comfort in communicating) that individuals adopt when interacting with individuals and groups from another culture' (Barry, 2001, p. 19).
	'Varying degrees of identification with and attachment to the dominant culture' (Josiassen, 2011, p. 127).
	'The process of cultural socialisation and negotiation that occurs in the context of cross-cultural contact between individuals from different cultures' (Kim et al., 2016, p. 115).
	'A unidirectional process where immigrants follow a "progressive" path and adopt mainstream culture through learning a host society's language, values, and behaviours' (Bulut & Gayman, 2020, p. 14).
	'Cultural, behavioural, and psychological changes in a person over time after coming in contact with a new culture' (Ashaduzzaman et al., 2021, p.490).
	'Engaging into the host society but gradually losing the identity of the original culture' (Laroche et al., 2021, p. 1080).
	'All the changes that arise following contact between groups and individuals of different cultural backgrounds and is the adoption, or the process of this adoption, by a person or group of the culture of another social group' (Harrison et al., 2022, p. 331).
	'The process of adjustment, wherein an individual alters their cultural orientations as a result of contact with others from different cultural groups' (Valenzuela et al., 2020, p. 2).

Appendix 19. All collected definitions of consequences in the model

Constructs	Conceptual definitions
Brand purchase intention	'An individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand' (Spears & Singh, 2004).
	'An individual's intention to buy a product or service' (Das, 2015, p. 182).
	'The extent of the awareness that there is an intention to buy or a possibility of buying the products/services' (Lee et al., 2017, p. 1016).
	'Consumers' intentions to purchase a product or a service based on their subjective judgment with their general evaluation' (Hwang & Zhang, 2018, p.159).
	'The possibility that consumers choose to purchase a product' (Wang et al., 2018).
	'The consumer's personal intention to purchase a brand product' (Gomes et al., 2022, p. 189).
Willingness to pay a price premium	'The amount a customer is willing to pay for his/her preferred brand over comparable/lesser brands of the same package size/quantity' (Netemeyer et al., 2004, p. 211).
	'The maximum amount a consumer is willing to spend for their preferred brands' (Dwivedi et al., 2018, p. 101).
	'The sum that a potential consumer is willing to pay to purchase a luxury product with different options, which can be either positive or negative' (Ioana-Daniela et al., 2018, p. 329).
	'Consumers' willingness to pay more for a brand than its alternatives' (Can et al., 2023, p. 2).
	'The willingness to pay the excess price paid over and above the 'fair' price justified by the 'true' value of the product' (Casado-Díaz et al., 2020, p. 774).
WOM Persuasion	'Informal communication between private parties concerning evaluations of goods and services' (Anderson, 1998, p. 6).
	'The degree to which the consumer praises the brand to others' (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006, p. 82).
	'People using interpersonal communication to affect others' purchase decisions' (Berger, 2014, p. 58).
	'Service and product information can spread from one customer to another' (Barreda et al., 2015, p. 22).
	'Talking about products and services between people apart from companies' advertisement for products or services' (Maisam & Mahsa, 2016, p. 20).
	'The likelihood of a customer making positive references to the seller to another potential customer' (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019, p. 171).
	'The extent to which customers would inform others (friends, followers, relatives, colleagues, etc.) about transaction-consumption related experiences' (Oraedu, 2020, p. 255).
	'The degree to which consumers recommend brands to others' (Paruthi et al., 2023, p. 6).
Sense of belonging	'The experience of personal involvement in a system or environment so that persons feel themselves to be an integral part of that system or environment' (Zhao et al., 2012).
	'The experiences of user involvement so that the user identifies himself/herself as part of the social circles or groups' (Chu et al., 2019, p. 32).
	'The experiences that a person is involved in a system or environment, wherein individuals consider themselves as an indispensable component of that system or environment' (Cao et al., 2023, p. 6).
	'A sense of affiliation with or feeling a sense of membership with an environment' (Cheng & Kuo, 2015, p. 32).
	'The experience of personal involvement concerning a system or environment, making the individual feel an integral part of it" (Miranda et al., 2023, p. 3).
	"A feeling of acceptance and inclusion by a certain group" (Hang & Zhong, 2023, p. 88).
Perceived happiness	'A consumer's greatest emotional fulfilment, a moment-based experience of pleasant high and low arousal emotions, induced at different brand contact points (e.g., via purchase, consumption, advertisements)' (Schnebelen & Bruhn, 2018, p. 102).
	'The positive psychological state derived from a good, pleasant and satisfying experience' (Cuesta-Valiño et al., 2022, p. 460).
	'The state of well-being related to a specific consumption activity' (Mogilner et al., 2012).
	'A positive psychological state that results from a pleasurable consumption experience and contributes to the quality of life' (Yoshida et al., 2021, p. 486).
	"A judgement made by consumers regarding the extent to which the focal brand/company makes a significant contribution to his or her quality of life" (Merunka & Sirgy, 2011, p. 21).
	"An overall sense that life is good" (Zhan & Zhou, 2018, p. 785).

Inner self-expressiveness	'Consumer's perception of the degree to which the specific brand enhances one's inner self' (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006, p. 82).
	'Behaviour that suggests individuals want to act so that the action improves their inner self' (Mishra et al., 2021, p. 4).
	'The means of communicating and reinforcing consumers' identities, whether actual or desired identities' (Japutra et al., 2018, p. 192).
	'The need for consistency between brand's personality and consumer's belief system and for the respective behaviour expressing aspects of consumer's personality and portraying self-concept' (Papista & Dimitriadis, 2019, p. 82).
	'The match between consumers' self-concept and the user's image of a given product, brand, store, etc.' (Sharma et al., 2022, p. 351).
Perceived irreplaceability	Consumers' perception of a "product cannot be replaced even with an alike product" (Can & Erdil, 2018, p. 20).
	Consumers' perception of how the brand or product is unique and irreplaceable (Zhang et al., 2017, p. 99).
	The perception that media technologies all have unique values and cannot be replaced by other tools (Liu & Chen, 2024, p. 3).

Appendix 20. Choice of brands in the Questionnaire

Figure 20-1. Brands in Electronic, Food, Fashion and automobile category from China, Turkey, Poland

Chinese group	Turkish group	Polish group
Food category		
http://matthewsfoodsonline.co.uk/ 1662 products from hundreds of Chinese brands	https://bestgrocery.co.uk 3000+ products from hundreds of popular Turkish brands	https://polishshoponline.co.uk/ 200+ products from Polish brands
https://hiyou.co/ 2406 products from hundreds of Chinese brands	https://turkishporter.com/ 1000+ products from hundreds of Turkish brands	https://uk.foodplus.eu/ No specified number of products or brands
https://starrymart.co.uk/ No specified number of products or brands	https://bakkalim.co.uk/ 4000+ products from Turkish brands	https://smakolyk.co.uk/ 3533 products from hundreds of Polish brands
https://asienmarkt.online/ 1304 products from 102 Chinese brands	https://myjam.co.uk/ No specified number of products or brands	https://londongrocery.net/ 315 products from Polish brands
https://en.ukcnshop.com/ 8000+ products from over 100 Chinese brands	https://bonvila.com/ No specified number of products or brands	https://www.foodplus.eu/ No specified number of products or brands
Electronic category		
Huawei	Arçelik	Lena lighting
Hisense	Vestel	
TCL	Beko	
Automobile category		
BYD	TOGG	Izera
MG Motor		Fogo
		Assel
Fashion category		
Shein	Abaci	Reserved
Bosideng	Dorateymur	MISBHV
Huishan Zhang	Manu Atelier	Bizuu
PH5	Bora Aksu	Paola collection

Table 20-2. 100 brands from 5 online supermarkets for Chinese group (including repetitive brands)

Chinese					
Website	**Website 1: http://matthewsfoodsonline.co.uk/**	**Website 2: https://hiyou.co/**	**Website 3: https://starrymart.co.uk/**	**Website 4: https://asienmarkt.online/**	**Website 5: https://en.ukcnshop.com/**
Brands	Lee Kum Kee	Hao Huan Luo	Kung Fu	Lee Kum Kee	Hai Di Lao
	Want Want	Xian Feng	Lao Gan Ma	Heng Shun	Hao Huan Luo
	Ma La Wang Zi	Wu Fu Yuan	Baijia	Jian Cheng	Lee Kun Kee
	Jinzai	Wang Zhi He	Lee Kum Kee	Dong Yang	Master Kong
	Jimmy's	Chacheer	Honor	Mr. Kang	Ma La Wang Zi
	Kanar	Oishi	Oishi	Wang Shou Yi	Shuang Hui
	Ho MAMA	Master Kong	Wu Fu Yuan	Ye Shu	Luo Ba Wang
	Xiang Piao Piao	Unif	Wang Zhi He	Zhang Xiao Bao	Baijia
	Garden	Wu Fu Yuan	Jian Shu	Yu Quan	Lan Fong Yuen
	Li Zi Qi	Shuang Hui	Unif	Mi Po Po	Honor
	Furn You	GooSun	Xi Zhi Lang	Dong Yang	Hai Tian
	Master Kong	Baijia	Calbee	Lao Gan Ma	Wei Long
	Wu Xian Zhai	Lee Kum Kee	Nin Jiom	Hai Tian	Qian Fen Xi Shi
	Nin Jiom	Fu Sen Yuan	Tsui Tak	Kung Fu	Bai Xiang
	Lao Gan Ma	Qian Fen Xi Shi	Fuxing	Hao Ba Shi	Li Zi Qi
	Cha Cha	Mao Tai	Silk Road	Nin Jiom	Oishi
	Ji Xiang Ju	Want Want	Hbs	Baijia	Mr.Kong
	Hua Lian Food	Ma La Wang Zi	Want Want	Cha Cha	Unif
	Oishi	Coco	Hengshun	Wang Zhi He	Ye Shu
	Ching Kee	Master Kong	Zheng Dian	Hai Di Lao	Want Want

Table 20-3. 100 brands from 5 online supermarkets for Turkish group (including repetitive brands)

Turkish					
Website	**Website 1: https://bestgrocery.co.uk/**	**Website 2: https://turkishporter.com/**	**Website 3: https://bakkalim.co.uk/**	**Website 4: https://myjam.co.uk/**	**Website 5: https://bonvila.com/**
Brands	Domates Salcasi	Ankara	Maun	Melis	Oncu
	Dr.Oetker	Anthap	Beypazari	Yayla	Pinar
	Oncu	Bagci	Efepasa	Aynoor	Duru
	Sarikiz	Balparmak	Kurukahveci	Sofra	Muratbey Tel
	Sofra	Basak	Pinar	Bodrum	Piyale
	Mamarabirlik	Bodrum	Dr. Oetker	Muratbey	Koska
	Duru	Barcu	Oncu	Haribo	Yucca
	Caykur	Cizmeci	Muratbey	ETI	Sarelle
	Ulker	ETI	Koska	Ulker	Ulker
	Mehmet Efendi	Falim	Suntat	Zaad	ETI
	Turnib	Hanutaa	Mevlana	Aytac	Tadelle
	Uludag	Tofita	Caykur	Gazi	Falim
	Bodrum	Koska	Piyale	Elif	Anthap
	Anthap	Tadelle	Marmarabirlik	Ipek	Uludag
	Koska	Ulker	Eti	Mehmet Efendi	Sarikiz
	ETI	Mehmet Efendi	Duru	Duru	Mehmet Efendi
	Basak	Seyidoglu	Ulker	Rani	Caykur
	Tadim	Duru	Uludag	Melis	Dogadan
	Dogadan	Sofra	Melis	Tadim	Seyidoglu
	Melis	Argeta	Turnib	Podravka	Tanay

Table 20-4. 100 brands from 5 online supermarkets for Polish group (including repetitive brands)

Polish					
Website	**Website 1: https://polishshoponline.co.uk/**	**Website 2: https://uk.foodplus.eu/**	**Website 3: https://smakolyk.co.uk/**	**Website 4: https://londongrocery.net/**	**Website 5: https://www.foodplus.eu/**
Brands	Milanowska	Pierniki Kopernik	Milka	Melvit	Winiary
	Solidarność	Dega	Wawel	Lowicz	Wedel
	Wawel	Grzeski	Solidarnosc	Kamis	Virtu
	Kopernik	Lubella	Pierniki Kopernik	Kucharek	Rolnik
	Mieszko	Jeżyki	Mieszko	Ogorek Kwaszony	Alka
	Złota Wiśnia	Reeva	ZOZOLE	Rolnik	Garso
	ZOZOLE	Wedel	Tago	Lubella	Tymbark
	Tago	Lowicz	Michalki	Winiary	Roshen
	Wedel	7 Days	Wedel	Rusiecki	Atifco
	Storck	Alpen Gold	Ptasie Mleczko	Aksm	Boromir
	Bahlsen	Agi	Alpen Gold	Jutrzenka	Tago
	Jeżyki (Jutrzenka)	Agrico	Skawa	Paluszki	Graal
	Skawa	Moreso	Jutrzenka	Alpen Gold	Lorenz
	Goplana	Alpen gold	Goplana	Prazynki	Prymat
	Alpen Gold	Amino	Tymbark	Kapusta	Kwidzyn
	Lubella	Bajeczny	Lubella	Edmal	Ciasto
	Inka	Herbapol	Winiary	Dawtona	Frugo
	Ekoland	Ziola Mnicha	Colian Hellena	Profi	Ziola
	Jocobs	Big-Active	Muszynianka	Karkus	Krakus
	Solidarnosc	Ekland	Mlekpol	Kaszanka Wiejska	Piatnica

Table 20-5. Repetitive brands from websites (Chinese)

NO.	Chinese Brands	Website 1	Website 2	Website 3	Website 4	Website 5	Frequencies
1	Lee Kum Kee	x	x	x	x	x	5
2	Want Want	x	x	x		x	5
3	Hao Huan Luo		x			x	2
4	Hai Di Lao	x			x	x	3
5	Ma La Wang Zi	x	x			x	3
6	Lao Gan Ma	x		x			2
7	Shuang Hui		x			x	2
8	Oishi	x	x	x		x	4
9	Cha Cha	x			x		2
10	Honor			x		x	2
11	Unif		x	x		x	3
12	Ye Shu				x	x	2
13	Kung Fu			x	x		2
14	Nin Jiom			x	x		2
15	Baijia		x	x	x	x	4
16	Master Kong	x	x			x	3
17	Wu Fu Yuan		x	x			2
18	Wang Zhi He			x	x		2
19	Li Zi Qi	x				x	2

Table 20-6. Repetitive brands from websites (Turkish)

NO.	Turkish						Frequencies
	Brands	Website 1	Website 2	Website 3	Website 4	Website 5	
1	Oncu	x		x		x	3
2	Koska	x	x	x		x	4
3	Duru	x	x	x	x	x	5
4	Caykur	x		x	x	x	4
5	Ulker	x	x	x	x	x	5
6	Mehmet Efendi	x	x		x	x	4
7	Turnib	x		x			2
8	Uludag	x				x	2
9	Bodrum	x	x		x		3
10	Anthap	x	x				2
11	ETI	x	x				3
12	Basak	x	x				2
13	Tadim	x			x		2
14	Dogadan	x				x	2
15	Melis	x		x			2
16	Falim		x			x	2
17	Tadelle		x			x	2
18	Sevidoglu		x			x	2
19	Pinar			x		x	2
20	Muratbey			x	x		2
21	Piyale			x		x	2
22	Sofra	x	x		x		3
23	Dr. Oetker	x		x			2

Table 20-7. Repetitive brands from websites (Polish)

NO.	Turkish Brands	Website 1	Website 2	Website 3	Website 4	Website 5	Frequencies
1	Alpen Gold	x	x	x			3
2	Goplana	x	x	x			3
3	Jutrzenka	x		x			2
4	Jeżyki	x		x			2
5	Lubella	x	x	x	x		4
6	Mieszko	x		x			2
7	Pierniki Kopernik	x	x				2
8	Rolnik				x	x	2
9	Skawa	x		x			2
10	Solidarność	x		x			2
11	Tago	x		x		x	3
12	Tymbark			x		x	2
13	Wawel	x		x			3
14	Wedel	x	x	x		x	4
15	Winiary			x	x	x	3
16	ZOZOLE	x		x			2
17	LOWICZ		x		x		2

Table 20-8. Brands from both interviewees and websites (Chinese)

NO.	Brands	Brands from the websites	Brands mentioned by informants from interviews
1	Lee Kum Kee	x	C07-F8-30
2	Want Want	x	C02-F1-30 and C03-F4-37
3	Hao Huan Luo	x	/
4	Hai Di Lao	x	/
5	Ma La Wang Zi	x	/
6	Lao Gan Ma	x	/
7	Shuang Hui	x	C06-F6-33
8	Oishi	x	/
9	Cha Cha	x	/
10	Honor	x	/
11	Unif	x	/
12	Ye Shu	x	C04-M2-30
13	Kung Fu	x	/
14	Nin Jiom	x	/
15	Baijia	x	/
16	Master Kong	x	/
17	Wu Fu Yuan	x	/
18	Wang Zhi He	x	/
19	Li Zi Qi	x	/
20	You You		C03-F4-37
21	Heytea		C12-M6-18
22	Fang Zhong Shan		C13-M7-23

Table 20-9. Brands from both interviewees and websites (Turkish)

NO.	Brands	Brands from the websites	Brands mentioned by informants from interviews
1	Oncu	x	/
2	Koska	x	/
3	Duru	x	/
4	Caykur	x	/
5	Ulker	x	T04-F15-23 and T07-F17-41
6	Mehmet Efendi	x	T03-M8-30
7	Turnib	x	/
8	Uludag	x	/
9	Bodrum	x	/
10	Anthap	x	/
11	ETI	x	T04-F15-23 and T07-F17-41
12	Basak	x	/
13	Tadim	x	/
14	Dogadan	x	/
15	Melis	x	T07-F16-29
16	Falim	x	/
17	Tadelle	x	/
18	Sevidoglu	x	/
19	Pinar	x	/
20	Muratbey	x	/
21	Piyale	x	/
22	Sofra	x	/
23	Dr. Oetker	x	/

Table 20-10. Brands from both interviewees and websites (Polish)

NO.	Brands	Brands from the websites	Brands mentioned by informants from interviews
1	Alpen Gold	x	/
2	Goplana	x	/
3	Jutrzenka	x	/
4	Jeżyki	x	/
5	Lubella	x	/
6	Mieszko	x	/
7	Pierniki Kopernik	x	/
8	Rolnik	x	/
9	Skawa	x	/
10	Solidarność	x	/
11	Tago	x	/
12	Tymbark	x	P06-M10-26
13	Wawel	x	/
14	Wedel	x	/
15	Winiary	x	P08-F18-25
16	ZOZOLE	x	/
17	LOWICZ	x	P08-F18-25 and P04-F13-50
18	HERBAPOL		P03-F7-32
19	HORTEX		P04-F13-50
20	Prince Polo		P03-F7-32
21	LORENZ		P01-F2-41
22	Pudliszki		P07-M11-55
23	Kielecki		P08-F18-25
24	Warka		P06-M10-26
25	Vodka Wyborowa		P07-M11-55

Table 20-11. Description of brands from Chinese group

NO.	Chinese			
	Brands	**History**	**Brand Focus**	**Main products**
1	**Lee Kum Kee**	Founded in 1888, Hong Kong, China	Sauces.	Soy sauce, oyster sauce
2	**Want Want**	Founded in 1962, Taiwan, China	Snacks.	Rice crackers, flavoured milk drink.
3	**Hao Huan Luo**	Founded in 1992, Guangxi, China	Instant rice noodles.	Spicy snail rice noodle (e.g., Luo Si Fen)
4	**Hai Di Lao**	Founded in 1994, Sichuan, China	Hotpot bases.	Hotpot soup bases.
5	**Ma La Wang Zi**	Founded in 1998, Hunan, China	Snacks.	Spicy flavoured snacks (e.g., La Tiao)
6	**Lao Gan Ma**	Founded in 1997, Guizhou, China	Sauces.	Chili oil with fermented soybeans
7	**Shuang Hui**	Founded in 1958, Henan, China	Processed meat products.	Sausages.
8	**Oishi**	Founded in 1946, Philippines, then move to manufacture in China in 1993	Snacks.	Chips, puffed snacks, and sweet treats.
9	**Cha Cha**	Founded in 2001, Anhui, China	Snacks.	Roasted seeds and nuts.
10	**Honor**	Founded in 2011, Sichuan, China	Snacks.	Zhu Rou Song.
11	**Unif**	Founded in 1992, Taiwan, China	Beverages.	Fruit juices, herbal juices.
12	**Ye Shu**	Founded in 2006, Hainan, China	Beverages.	Coconut milk.
13	**Nin Jiom**	Founded in 1946, Hong Kong, China	Herbal-based products.	Pei Pa Koa.
14	**Kung Fu**	Founded in 2011, Taiwan, China	Instant products.	Instant rice and soup-based noodles.
15	**Baijia**	Founded in 2001, Sichuan, China	Instant products.	Instant noodles and ready-to-eat meals
16	**Master Kong**	Founded in 1991, Tianjin, China	Instant products.	Instant noodles, Bing Hong Cha.
17	**Wu Fu Yuan**	Founded in 2001, China	Tapioca pearls.	Tapioca pearls used in bubble tea
18	**Wang Zhi He**	Founded in 1669, Beijing, China	Sauces.	Fermented tofu products
19	**Li Zi Qi**	Founded in 2017, Sichuan, China	Snacks.	Packaged traditional meals and snacks
20	**You You**	Founded in 2001, Hunan, China	Snacks.	Snacks (e.g., Chicken feet)
21	**Heytea**	Founded in 2012, Guangdong, China	Drinks.	Cheese-topped teas and fruit teas.
22	**Fang Zhong Shan**	Founded in 1991, Hebei, China	Instant products.	Lanzhou-style hand-pulled noodles

[Source: All information is gathered either official website of the brand or Wikipedia; links can be found in Appendix 21]

Table 20-12. Description of brands from Turkish group

NO.	Turkish			
	Brands	**History**	**Brand Focus**	**Main products**
1	**Oncu**	Founded in 1970, Gaziantep, Turkey	Sauce.	Tomato paste, pepper paste
2	**Koska**	Founded in 1907, Istanbul, Turkey	Snacks.	Halva, Turkish delight
3	**Duru**	Founded in 1935, Karaman, Turkey	Pulses and grains.	Bulgur, red lentils
4	**Caykur**	Founded in 1983, Rize, Turkey	Tea.	Black tea, green tea
5	**Ulker**	Founded in 1944, Istanbul, Turkey	Snacks	Biscuits (e.g., Biskrem), chocolate bars.
6	**Mehmet Efendi**	Founded in 1871, Istanbul, Turkey	Coffee.	Ground Turkish coffee
7	**Turnib**	Founded in 2010, Turkey	Beverages.	Fermented turnip juice (şalgam)
8	**Uludag**	Founded in 1912, Bursa, Turkey	Beverages.	Gazoz (Turkish soda), mineral water
9	**Bodrum**	Founded in 1987, Turkey	Mediterranean food products.	Pickled vegetables, stuffed vine leaves
10	**Anthap**	Founded in 2000, Gaziantep, Turkey	Snacks.	Pistachios, dried fruits
11	**ETI**	Founded in 1962, Eskişehir, Turkey	Snacks	Biscuits (e.g., Tutku, Cin), cakes.
12	**Basak**	Founded in 1975, Turkey	Seasonings.	Pudding, rice flour
13	**Tadim**	Founded in 1971, Istanbul, Turkey	Snacks.	Nuts, dried fruits.
14	**Dogadan**	Founded in 1975, Ankara, Turkey	Herbal and fruit teas.	Herbal teas, fruit teas
15	**Melis**	Founded in 1956, Izmir, Turkey	Pickled vegetables.	Pickles (e.g., gherkins), olives
16	**Falim**	Founded in 1960, Istanbul, Turkey	Snacks.	Sugar-free chewing gum
17	**Tadelle**	Founded in 1991, Turkey	Snacks.	Chocolate-coated hazelnut bars
18	**Sevidoglu**	Founded in 1980, Turkey	Snacks.	Baklava, Turkish delight
19	**Pinar**	Founded in 1973, Izmir, Turkey	Dairy products.	White cheese (beyaz peynir)
20	**Muratbey**	Founded in 1965, Istanbul, Turkey	Turkish cheeses.	Helix cheese, sliced cheddar-style cheese
21	**Piyale**	Founded in 1922, Izmir, Turkey	Pasta products.	Pasta, flour
22	**Sofra**	Founded in 1995, Turkey	Mediterranean food products.	Hummus, ready-to-eat Mediterranean meals
23	**Dr. Oetker**	**Excluded as it comes from German**		

[Source: All information is gathered from either official website of the brand or Wikipedia; links can be found in Appendix 21]

Table 20-13. Description of brands from Polish group

NO.	Turkish			
	Brands	**History**	**Brand Focus**	**Main products**
1	**Alpen Gold**	Founded in 1995, Poland	Snacks.	Chocolate wafer bar
2	**Goplana**	Founded in 1912, Poznań, Poland	Snacks.	Grześki (Chocolate-coated wafer bar)
3	**Jutrzenka**	Founded in 1951, Bydgoszcz, Poland	Snacks.	Familijne biscuits (Classic tea biscuits)
4	**Jeżyki**	Founded in 1990, Bydgoszcz, Poland	Snacks.	Crunchy chocolate-coated biscuits
5	**Lubella**	Founded in 1881, Lublin, Poland	Pasta and cereals.	Wheat-based pasta
6	**Pierniki Kopernik**	Founded in 1763, Toruń, Poland	Snacks.	Filled gingerbread
7	**Mieszko**	Founded in 1993, Racibórz, Poland	Snacks.	Amoretta pralines (Cream-filled pralines)
8	**Rolnik**	Founded in 1991, Mikołów, Poland	Pickled vegetables.	Pickled cucumbers, Sauerkraut salad
9	**Skawa**	Founded in 1921, Wadowice, Poland	Snacks.	Fruit gummies
10	**Solidarność**	Founded in 1952, Lublin, Poland	Snacks.	Truffle pralines
11	**Tago**	Founded in 1966, Ciemne, Poland	Snacks.	Rolada sponge cake
12	**Tymbark**	Founded in 1936, Tymbark, Poland	Beverages.	Multi-fruit drink
13	**Wawel**	Founded in 1898, Kraków, Poland	Snacks.	Kasztanki, Sweets
14	**Wedel**	Founded in 1851, Warsaw, Poland	Snacks.	Ptasie Mleczko (chocolate)
15	**Winiary**	Founded in 1941, Kalisz, Poland	Sauces.	Pomidorowa (tomato soup), Fix Lasagne
16	**ZOZOLE**	Founded in 2001, Poland	Snacks.	Popping Candy
17	**HERBAPOL**	Founded in 1949, Lublin, Poland	Herbal tea.	Herbal tea with raspberry
18	**HORTEX**	Founded in 1958, Warsaw, Poland	Beverages.	Orange juice, Hortex frozen peas
19	**LOWICZ**	Founded in 1965, Łowicz, Poland	Sauces.	Truskawkowa konfitura (strawberry jam)
20	**Prince Polo**	Founded in 1955, Cieszyn, Poland	Snacks.	Chocolate-covered layered wafer bar
21	**LORENZ**	Founded in 1993, Poznań, Poland	Snacks.	Crunchips (Potato chips)
22	**Pudliszki**	Founded in 1920, Pudliszki, Poland	Sauces and canned foods.	Ketchup łagodny (tomato sauce)

[Source: All information is gathered from either official website of the brand or Wikipedia; links can be found in Appendix 21]

Appendix 21. Official websites of all chosen brands

1. Chinese brands:

- **Lee Kum Kee**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lee_Kum_Kee
- **Want Want**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Want_Want
- **Hai Di Lao**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Haidilao
- **Lao Gan Ma**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lao_Gan_Ma
- **Shuanghui**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shuanghui
- **Oishi**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Oishi_
- **Unif**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Uni-President_Enterprises_Corporation
- **Nin Jiom**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nin_Jiom
- **Master Kong**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Master_Kong
- **Wang Zhihe**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wang_Zhihe
- **Li Ziqi**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Li_Ziqi
- **Heytea**: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heytea
- Honor: https://www.zing-asia.co.uk/brand/108-honor
- Kung Fu: https://kungfufoods.co.uk/
- **Hao Huan Luo:** http://www.haohuanluo.com/index.php/26020120/
- **Ma La Wang Zi:** https://www.malawangzi.com/
- **Cha Cha:** https://www.qiaqiafood.com/
- **Ye Shu:** https://zh.wikipedia.org/zh-cn/
- **Baijia:** https://scakuan.com/
- **Wu Fu Yuan:** https://longdan.co.uk/zh-hant/
- **Fang Zhong Shan:** http://www.fangzhongshan.cn/intro/1.html

2. Turkish brands:

- Dr. Oetker: https://www.oetker.com/about-us/our-history
- Oncu: https://oncusalca.com.tr/en/corporate/default.aspx
- Koska: https://www.koska.com/en
- Duru: https://durubulgur.com/en
- Çaykur: https://www.caykur.com.tr
- Ülker: https://www.ulker.com.tr/en
- Kurukahveci Mehmet Efendi: https://www.mehmetefendi.com
- Uludağ: https://www.uludag.com.tr
- Eti: https://www.etiinternational.com
- Tadım: https://www.tadim.com.tr
- Doğadan: https://www.dogadan.com.tr
- Melis: https://www.melis.com.tr
- Falim: https://www.falim.com.tr
- Tadelle: https://www.tadelle.com.tr
- Pınar: https://www.pinar.com.tr
- Muratbey: https://www.muratbey.com.tr
- **Turnib:** https://www.basakgida.com.tr/en/
- B**odrum:** https://bodrumfoods.co.uk
- **Anthap:** https://www.anthap.co.uk/
- **Başak:** https://www.basakgida.com.tr/en/
- **Şevidoglu:** https://www.seyidoglugida.com.tr/
- **Piyale:** Karamullaoglu, N. and Sandikci, O. (2019) A sociohistorical analysis of packaging design: a case study of the Turkish pasta brand Piyale. Journal of Historical Research in Marketing, 11(3), pp. 317-338. (doi:10.1108/JHRM-04-2018-0016)
- **Sofra:** https://www.halalsofra.com/en/company

3. Polish brands:

- **Alpen Gold:** https://www.mondelezinternational.com/our-brands/alpen-gold/
- **Goplana:** https://colian.com/en/our-brands/goplana/
- **Jeżyki:** https://colian.com/en/our-brands/jezyki/
- **Lubella**: https://www.lubella.pl
- **Pierniki Kopernik**: https://www.kopernik.com.pl
- **Mieszko**: https://mieszko.pl
- **Rolnik:** https://www.rolnik.pl
- **Skawa:** http://www.skawa.com.pl
- **Solidarność:** https://colian.com/en/our-brands/solidarnosc/
- **Tago:** https://tago.com.pl
- **Tymbark**: https://www.tymbark.com
- **Wawel**: https://www.wawel.com.pl
- **Wedel**: https://www.wedel.pl
- **Winiary**: https://www.winiary.pl
- **ZOZOLE**: https://zozole.pl/en/
- **Herbapol**: https://www.herbapol.com.pl
- **Hortex**: https://www.hortex.pl
- **Łowicz**: https://www.lowicz.com.pl
- **Prince Polo**: https://www.olza.com.pl
- **Lorenz**: https://www.lorenz-snackworld.com
- **Pudliszki**: https://www.pudliszki.pl
- Jutrzenka: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jutrzenka

[Online supermarket links]

(1) Chinese brands:

- **Website 1: http://matthewsfoodsonline.co.uk/**
- **Website 2: https://hiyou.co/**
- **Website 3: https://starrymart.co.uk/**
- **Website 4: https://asienmarkt.online/**
- **Website 5: https://en.ukcnshop.com/**

(2) Turkish brands:

- **Website 1: https://bestgrocery.co.uk/**
- **Website 2: https://turkishporter.com/**
- **Website 3: https://bakkalim.co.uk/**
- **Website 4: https://myjam.co.uk/**
- **Website 5: https://bonvila.com/**

(3) Polish brands:

- **Website 1: https://polishshoponline.co.uk/**
- **Website 2: https://uk.foodplus.eu/**
- **Website 3: https://smakolyk.co.uk/**
- **Website 4: https://londongrocery.net/**
- **Website 5: https://www.foodplus.eu/**

Appendix 22. Process for choosing the marker variable

To select an appropriate marker variable for this research, it is necessary to identify a scale composed of items that are **culturally similar across the three national groups** (i.e., Chinese, Turkish, and Polish). The process involved the following two steps to identify the cultural similarities and appropriate measurement scales:

Step 1: Find similarities among the three cultural groups, with supporting data.

In this process, the researcher tried to search Chinese/Turkish/Polish attitudes about eating healthy, the benefits of eating vegetables and fruits, meat consumption, pure alcohol consumption, exercise frequency, as well as safe driving. Some relevant data were found for these habits. The analysis revealed two culturally shared attitudes supported by data:

1. **General attitudes toward healthy eating**
2. **Perceptions of the benefits of fruit and vegetable consumption**

Regarding **attitudes toward healthy eating**:

- **For the Chinese group:** 61% of Chinese respondents report actively trying to eat healthy (Statista, 2024a).
- **For the Turkish group:** 58% of Turkish respondents report the same behaviour (Statista, 2024b).
- **For the Polish group:** 53% of Polish respondents indicate efforts to eat healthily (Statista, 2024c).

Regarding the **benefits of fruit and vegetable consumption**:

- **For the Chinese group: most Chinese hold positive attitudes towards healthy diet, and when asked** to describe what constitutes a healthy diet, all participants referred terms such as **fruits and vegetables (**Dong et al., 2024).
- **For the Turkish group:** Among Turkish adults, vegetable consumption averages once per day for younger adults and 1.6 times per day for older adults. Fruit consumption is slightly higher, increasing from 1.4 times per day in young adults to 2 times per day in older individuals (Küçük et al., 2023). These data suggest a relatively high intake of fruits and vegetables, reflecting a **positive attitude about their health benefits**.

- **For Polish group: 98% of Polish adults recognise the health benefits of vegetables and fruits** and believe they are worth including in the diet (Nieuwsbericht, 2020).

These findings suggest a shared cultural value among Chinese, Turkish, and Polish populations regarding the importance of healthy eating and the benefits of fruit and vegetable consumption.

Step 2: As the similarity is found, find the corresponding scales.

After identifying the cross-cultural similarities, the researcher started to search for the scales to measure attitudes toward healthy eating and one's perceived benefits of eating more fruits and vegetables. Two scales were identified: (1) The first scale measures one's **health incentives to eat more fruits and vegetables**, from Mainvil et al. (2010) (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.87), include 7 items. (2) The second scale measures **healthy and balanced diet**, from Żakowska-Biemans et al. (2019) (Cronbach's Alpha: 0.88), contains 10 items. After consideration, the **first scale is more suitable, as it can better reflect the similar attitudes across three national groups, and it is shorter, thus was adapted** in this study as the marker variable.

Figure 22-1. Attitudes towards Food (Chinese)

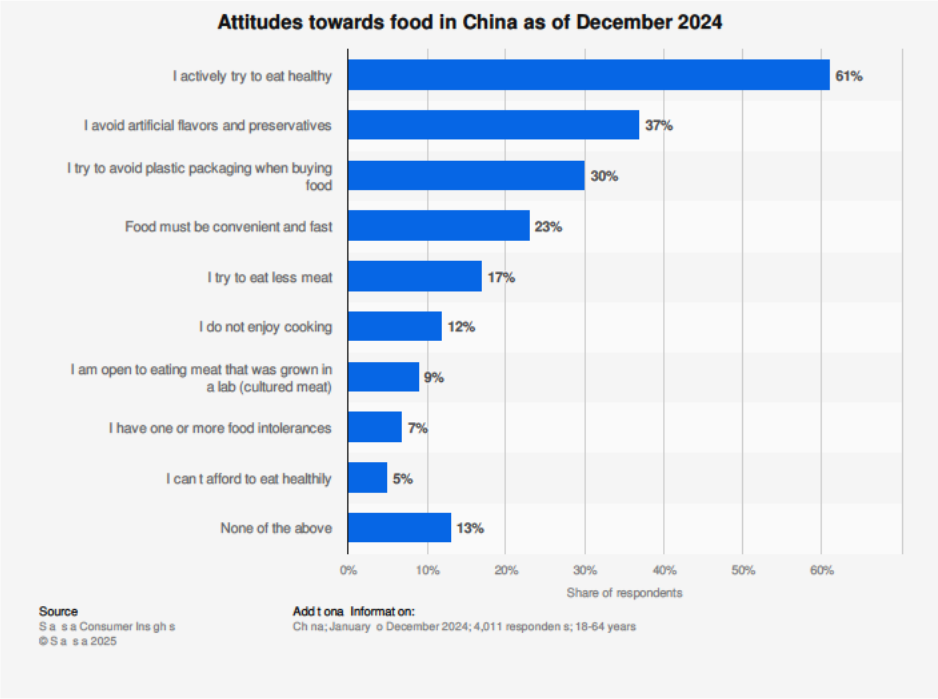


Figure 22-2. Attitudes towards Food (Turkish)

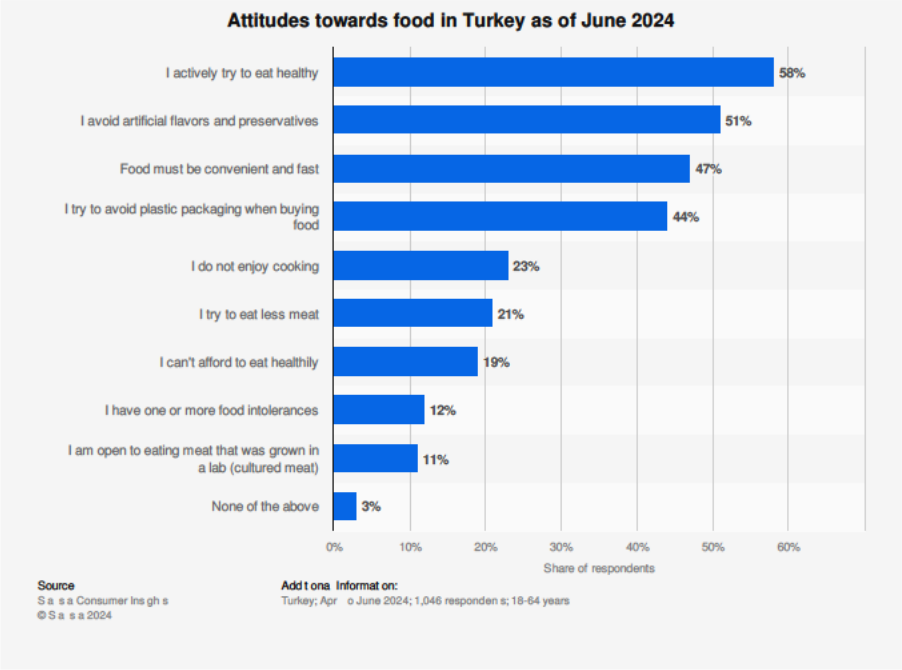
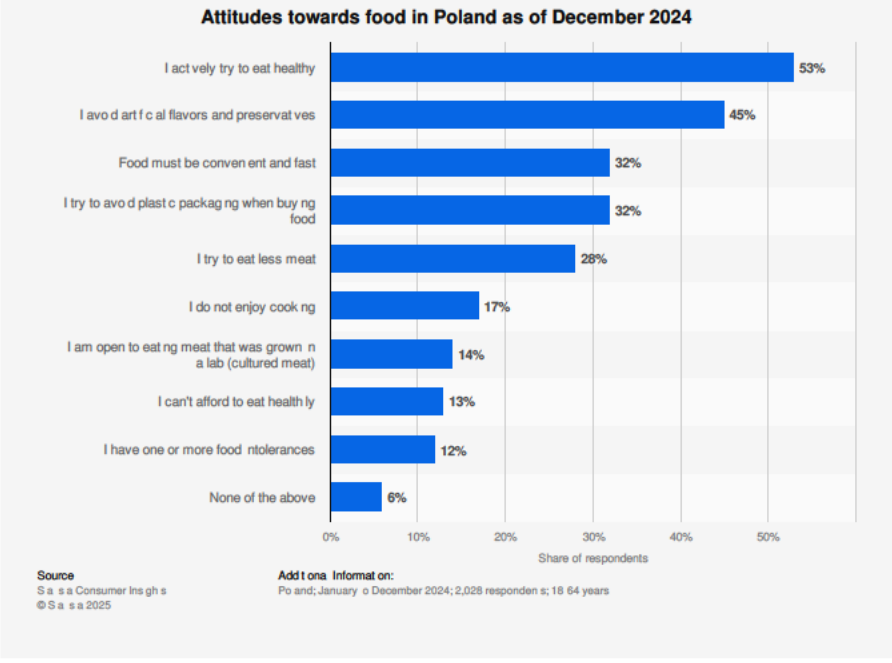


Figure 22-3. Attitudes towards Food (Polish)



Appendix 23. Pre-test survey: Comments from respondents

NO.	Comments	Frequency	Agreed/ Disagreed
1	Add sentence in the beginning, for how long this survey might take. → Add "This survey will take around 15-20 minutes to complete"	**3**	√
2	Add some encouraging sentences. → Add "You are doing great", "You are halfway through the survey".	**1**	√
3	Which country do you currently living in (where you spend most of your time) can lead to two answers, it might be better to be rephrased. → Rephrased to "Where you spend most of your time [in the last 5 years]"	**5**	√
4	"This survey explore yourself and your attitudes, feelings and behaviours towards your home country brands" can be rephrased. → Rephased to [brands from countries you are affiliated with].	**1**	√
5	Suggest adding description of the brand. → A blank box was added for participants to provide a brief description, such as key products or features of the brand	**1**	√
6	When you ask the respondents to choose brands that they have most recently seen, used and purchased, please name other criteria that matter. As for instance I have seen used and purchased all the Turkish brands you mentioned. So how am I going to choose among the options? → Rephrased to "Please select one brand in the list that you [have most recently] seen, used and purchased."	**1**	√
7	Does 'the language I dream in' mean what language I spoke when I was dreaming or what? Sometimes I think in different languages and a multi-choice might be more precise. → Rephrased to "Which language tends to dominate in your dreams".	**2**	√
8	Rephrase the disqualification message. → Disqualification information was unified to "We are sorry, but you are not qualified to answer this survey, thank you for your interest anyway!"	**1**	√
9	At the top of each page there are instruction like now we are moving on to you and the brand in the future, but these kinds of mental shifts should be their own page, otherwise the eye just glances over it and moves on to the questions.	**1**	√

	→ Accepted and altered.		
10	The font is too small. → Accepted and altered.	**1**	√
11	There's no follow-up for "Other", but it is fine if your analysis doesn't require specifying additional countries.	**3**	√
12	Questions following "when I see products in the product category of Ülker ....", as the heading you have strongly agree to strongly disagree and then the options are different. This is confusing for the respondent. → Revised to "Please answer the following questions based on your experience with [the chosen brand]. Select the option that best represents your view."	**3**	√
13	Personally, I find that there are too many question items on the same page. → Some items were separated onto multiple pages.	**7**	√
14	Maybe divide the questions about culture and eating fruit and vegetable in different pages could be easier for people to follow. → Accepted and changes were made.	**2**	√
15	"In which country were your parents born?" - Do you care about biological family or people who raised you, that would change this question.	**1**	×
16	Suggest adding "any product from this brand" in question "When was the first time that you saw this brand?"	**1**	×
17	Suggest adding mother language of the brand	**1**	×
18	The years scale typically starts low and then goes high, it gets confusing when you're looking at the years.	**1**	×
19	It is a bit confused that "When I see products in the product category of xxx..."	**1**	×
20	Demographic information: missing college degree as an option, missing professional degree	**1**	×
	Comments regarding to Scale items		
1	[Scale: Eating vegetable and fruits, adapted] Eating more fruit and vegetables would be good for health. = fruit should be plural (this should go for all the fruit/veggie items). → Accepted and changes were made.	**1**	√
2	[Scale: Eating vegetable and fruits, adapted] - People would feel better if they eat more fruit and vegetables. = eat should be ate also plural for fruit. → Accepted and changes were made.	**1**	√
3	[Scale: Acculturation, adapted] - I often attend British cultural performances (theatres and concerts). = In brackets this should be e.g., theatre and concerts, as there are other cultural performances, but you can't list them all. → Accepted and changes were made.	**1**	√

4	[Scale: Consumer-brand relationship, adopted] – It is hard to differentiate "When I learn of x's misfortune, I have intense emotions" and "When I learn of x's misfortune, I have intense sentiments" – "emotion" and "sentiment".	**2**	×
5	[Scale: Brand irreplaceability, adapted] – I do not see other brands equal to [brand]. I'm not sure whether "other brand" refers to brands within the same product category or to any brand.	**1**	×
6	[Scale: Nostalgia, adopted] – Wedel makes me feel good about a previous time—a time in my life = makes me feel about a previous time in my life	**1**	×
7	[Scale: Nostalgia, adopted] – I have issues with all the my youth items – I can be nostalgic for things that were 5 years ago but that was in no way my youth	**1**	×
8	The order for some of these items is too close together – they are similar so they should be moved to other parts of the order as opposed to being next to each other.	**1**	×
9	"How will you describe your feelings about xxx?" – add more description about the choices, like what do you mean "warm"?	**1**	×
10	Several questions that seemed repetitive or closely worded, such as whether I care about, value, or consider the brand important. While these may measure subtly different constructs, that distinction wasn't clear. Providing brief explanations or examples alongside such items would have helped clarify their purpose.	**1**	×
11	[Scale: Willingness to pay a price premium, adopted] – I am willing to pay a higher price for Wedel I selected. = doesn't make sense, all of the I selected items don't make sense.	**1**	×
12	[Scale: WOM Persuasion, adopted] – I have actually recommended Wedel to my friends and/or family. = question the use of "actually" seems not needed	**1**	×
13	[Scale: Sense of belonging, adapted] – "Even thinking about Wedel gives me the feeling that I belong to Polish group" = this is a two-dimensional item it has cognitive and affective components don't know how reviewers would respond to this. This occurs in several items.	**1**	×
14	[Scale: Sense of belonging, adapted] – "Using Wedel makes me feel as an insider within Polish community" = makes me feel like an inside within the same issue with ordering	**1**	×
15	[Scale: Nostalgia, adopted] – "Wedel makes me think about people, places or things from my youth" = while its not an "AND" there are still 3 different ideas here consider if you should expand it out or remove	**1**	×

Appendix 24. Reliability test for the Scales: A Pilot study

Construct	Item	Whole sample N=53
		α
Ethnocentrism (CE)	**7**	0.876
Acculturation (CA)	**9**	0.884
Eating Fruit and Vegetable (EFV)	**7**	0.872
Consumer-brand relationships (CBR)	**8**	0.940
Brand origin salience (BOS)	**3**	0.910
Perceived irreplaceability (PI)	**4**	0.945
Self-congruity (SC)	**8**	0.965
Nostalgia (NO)	**6**	0.946
Sense of belonging (SOB)	**4**	0.868
Inner self-expressiveness (IS)	**4**	0.917
Brand purchase intention (BP)	**3**	0.913
Willingness to pay a price premium (WPP)	**4**	0.914
WOM-persuasion (WOM-P)	**4**	0.912

Appendix 25. Questionnaire



Welcome

You are invited to participate in a survey conducted by the University of Glasgow (UK). This survey explore yourself and your attitudes, feelings and behaviours towards brands from countries you are affiliated with. This survey will take around 15-20 minutes to finish. For this research:

There is no right or wrong answer: we are looking for your own personal views.
All your responses will remain confidential and will comply with the University's ethics code.
You can get more details on the survey conducted by **Hui Chen**, **Prof. Cleopatra Veloutsou**, and **Dr. Alena Kostyk**, also through the Participant Information.

Below, you will read the consent information and decide whether to participate in the survey.

Consent
I have read the Participant Information, I have understood the nature of the study, I am **18 years old or above**, and I am **an immigrant in the UK**. By choosing "Yes, I consent" below and proceeding with the survey, I am agreeing to participate. I retain the right to withdraw myself from the study at any point before submitting my responses.

- Yes, I consent to participate in this study
- Yes, I consent to collect personal data as listed above
- Yes, I consent to the storage of my anonymised data for research purposes
- Yes, I consent that my data will be anonymised and used for further research

Now, let's start with some questions about yourself.

1. In which country were your parents born?

Father's country of birth	Mother's country of birth
o China	o China
o Germany	o Germany
o India	o India
o Ireland	o Ireland
o Italy	o Italy
o Nigeria	o Nigeria
o Pakistan	o Pakistan
o Poland	o Poland
o Romania	o Romania
o South Africa	o South Africa
o Turkey	o Turkey
o UK	o UK
o Other: Please specify	o Other: Please specify

Disqualification

We are sorry, but you are not qualified to answer this survey. Thank you for your interest anyway.

(Since this research targets first- and second-generation immigrants in the UK, this means one of their parents must be born in either China/Poland/Turkey)

Question 2 is not displayed to all respondents (please see the reason after the question).

2. Considering your parents' countries of birth, which country do you more identify with?

- o **Carry forward:** father's country of birth (China/Polish/Turkish)
- o **Carry forward:** mother's country of birth (China/Polish/Turkish)

3. How many years did your parent(s) live in their country of birth?

Father	Mother
o All their lives	o All their lives
o More than 20 years but left at some point	o More than 20 years but left at some point
o 16-20 years	o 16-20 years
o 11-15 years	o 11-15 years
o 6-10 years	o 6-10 years
o 0-5 years	o 0-5 years

4. In which country were you born?

- o China
- o German

- India
- Ireland
- Italy
- Nigeria
- Pakistan
- Poland
- Romania
- South Africa
- Turkey
- UK
- Other: Please specify

5. How many years have you lived in the country where you were born?

- 0-5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years
- More than 20 years

6. Which country are you currently living in (where you spend most of your time in the last five years**)?**

- China
- German
- India
- Ireland
- Italy
- Nigeria
- Pakistan
- Poland
- Romania
- South Africa
- Turkey
- UK
- Other: Please specify

Disqualification

We are sorry, but you are not qualified to answer this survey. Thank you for your interest anyway.

7. How many years have you lived in the UK?

- 0-5 years
- 5-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years
- More than 20 years

Disqualification

We are sorry, but you are not qualified to answer this survey. Thank you for your interest anyway.

8. Questions regarding to language use:

Questions	**Chinese**	**Turkish**	**Polish**	**English**	**Other (please specify)**
What language do you usually think in?					
Which language tends to dominate in your dreams?					
What language do you use when counting (e.g., 1, 2, 3, 4…)?					

9. Which of the following best describes your religion?

- o Buddhism
- o Catholicism
- o Christianity
- o Islam
- o Judaism
- o Protestantism
- o Taoism/Daoism
- o Non-religious/Atheist
- o Other (please specify)
- o Prefer not to say

10. When you think about yourself, you feel that you primarily are…

***You can give one or more than one answers, select from:**

- o Chinese
- o German
- o Indian
- o Irish
- o Italian
- o Nigerian
- o Pakistani
- o Polish
- o Romanian
- o South African
- o Turkish
- o British
- o Other: Please specify

General questions about your personal views

Now, let's move to the questions about your **personal views. Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.**

7pt Likert Scale, Strongly Agree-Strongly Disagree
My culture is generally right about things.
I don't respect values and customs of other cultures
Other cultures should model themselves after my culture
Other cultures should try to be like my culture
People who are different make me anxious
I do not feel the need to respect other cultures
I would prefer to avoid interaction with other cultures
Please read the following carefully: Select "Neither agree nor disagree"
I spend most of my social time with people who live in the UK and are not Chinese/Turkish/Polish.
I often ask for help/advice from students/colleagues who live in UK and are not Chinese/Turkish/Polish.
I frequently eat British food.
Please read the following carefully: Select "Somewhat agree"
I often participate in UK public celebrations.
I often attend British cultural performances (e.g., theatres and concerts).
My preference is to speak English most of the time.
I often speak English with Chinese/Turkish/Polish friends.
I often watch English-language movies.
I often listen to English music.

Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

Eating more fruits and vegetables would be good for health.
People would feel good about looking after their health by eating more vegetables.
Eating fruits and vegetables would decrease the risk of cancer.
Fruits and vegetables would give vitamins.
Eating fruits and vegetables every day would help keep regular (avoid constipation).
Eating fruits and vegetables, reduce the consumption of unhealthy food.
People would feel better if they ate more fruits and vegetables.

***Thank you for your answers, now let's move on to the next portion of the survey, about brand-related questions.**

On the next page, you **will need to select a brand from the provided list,** then answer a series of **questions about the chosen brand.**

***Please select one brand in the list that you have most recently seen, used and purchased.**

List (1)	**List (2)**	**List (3)**
Chinese brands	**Turkish brands**	**Polish brands**
Lee Kum Kee	Oncu	Alpen Gold
Want Want	Koska	Goplana
Hao Huan Luo	Duru	Jutrzenka
Hai Di Lao	Caykur	Jeżyki
Ma La Wang Zi	Ulker	Lubella
Lao Gan Ma	Mehmet Efendi	Mieszko
Shuang Hui	Turnib	Pierniki Kopernik
Oishi	Uludag	Rolnik
Cha Cha	Bodrum	Skawa
Honor	Anthap	Solidarność
Unif	ETI	Tago
Ye Shu	Basak	Tymbark
Nin Jiom	Tadim	Wawel
Kung Fu	Dogadan	Wedel
Baijia	Melis	Winiary
Master Kong	Falim	ZOZOLE
Wu Fu Yuan	Tadelle	HERBAPOL
Wang Zhi He	Sevidoglu	HORTEX
Li Zi Qi	Pinar	LOWICZ
You You	Muratbey	Prince Polo
Heytea	Piyale	LORENZ
Fang Zhong Shan	Sofra	Pudliszki

Could you write a short description about [brand], such as its key products, or notable features?

Please answer the following questions based on your experience with [the chosen brand]. Select the option that best represents your view.

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	Always this brand	Most of the time this brand	About half the time this brand	Sometimes this brand	Never this brand
When I **see products in the product category of this brand…:**					
When I **use products in the product category of this brand…:**					
When I **buy products in the product category of this brand…:**					

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	Less than 6 months ago	Between 6 and 12 months ago	Between 1 year and 5 years ago	Between 6 years and 10 years ago	More than 10 years ago
When was the **first time** that you **saw this brand?**					
When was the **first time** that you **purchased this brand?**					
When was the **first time** that you **used this brand?**					

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	Less than a week ago	Between 1 and 4 weeks ago	Between 1 and 3 months ago	Between 3 and 6 months ago	More than 6 months ago
When was the **most recent time** that you **saw this brand?**					
When was the **most recent time** that you **purchased this brand?**					
When was the **most recent time** that you **used this brand?**					

Overall feelings towards the brand

Please keep this brand in mind. The following questions explore **your feelings** towards this brand. **Please indicate on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to what extent you agree with the following statements.**

How would you **describe your feelings about this brand?**

7pt Likert Scale, Strongly Agree-Strongly Disagree
I have extreme emotions for this brand
This brand arouses intense feelings
I have strong feelings for this brand
Please read the following carefully: Select "Somewhat agree"
When I learn of this brand's misfortune, I have strong feelings
When I learn of this brand's achievement, I have strong feelings
When I learn of this brand's misfortune, I have intense emotions
When I learn of this brand's misfortune, I have intense sentiments
When I learn of this brand's achievement, I have intense emotions

Option: It's time for a break with a game! This game is voluntary. Once you feel ready to continue the survey, please click on → beneath the game.

Click on cards to turn it over and try to find all matching pairs.

Click on → beneath the game when you are ready to continue the survey.

Search: CodePen by Steve Gardner (Stacking games)

You are doing great!

Knowledge and assessments towards the brand

We are now moving on to the next portion of the survey, where you will be asked about **your knowledge and assessments** relate to chosen brand.

Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

7pt Likert Scale, Strongly Agree-Strongly Disagree
Products of this brand are made of Chinese/Turkish/Polish ingredients/parts.
Products of this brand are manufactured in China/Turkey/Poland.
This is definitely a Chinese/Turkish/Polish brand.
Please read the following carefully: Select "Strongly agree"
I cannot find a brand to use instead of this brand in this product category.
I do not believe another brand will provide the value that this brand gives me.
I do not see other brands equal to this brand.
This brand is unique for me when compared with other brands I know.

You are halfway through the survey!

Questions about you and the brand

We are now moving on to the next portion of the survey, where you will be asked **about you and the brand. Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.**

7pt Likert Scale, Strongly Agree-Strongly Disagree
The brand's product is like me
I identify myself with my description of this brand's product.
This brand's product matches me.
If you consider your own personality and compare it to the description you just provided, to what extend are they similar?
People who use this brand are like me.
I am very much like the typical person who uses this brand.
The image of this brand's users is consistent with how I see myself.
I can identify with people who use this brand.
This brand makes me think about people, places or things from my youth
This brand makes me feel good about a previous time—a time in my life
Please read the following carefully: Select "Strongly disagree"
This brand makes me reminisce about a time in my life
I have warm feelings when reminiscing about this time from my youth
This brand evokes good feelings about a time in my life
This brand is a pleasant reminder of a time from my youth
I am pleased when thinking or consuming this brand.
Thinking or consuming this brand is gratifying to me
Thinking or consuming this brand contributes to my overall joy in life
Thinking or consuming this brand really improves the fulfilment of my life
Even thinking about this brand gives me the feeling that I belong to Chinese/Turkish/Polish group
Even thinking about this brand gives me the feeling that I am part of the Chinese/Turkish/Polish culture.
Please read the following carefully: Select "Strongly agree"
Even thinking about this brand gives me the feeling that I fit in the Chinese/Turkish/Polish culture.
Using this brand makes me feel as an insider within Chinese/Turkish/Polish community.
This brand symbolizes the kind of person I really am inside.
This brand reflects my personality.
This brand is an extension of my inner self.
This brand mirrors the real me.

Your behaviours toward the brand

Keep the same brand in mind. The following questions are about **your current/future behaviours** toward this brand. **Please indicate on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.**

7pt Likert Scale, Strongly Agree-Strongly Disagree
It is very likely that I will buy this brand when I shop in the future.
I will purchase this brand next time I want to buy a product in this product category.
My willingness to buy this brand's products when I shop in this product category is high.
Please read the following carefully: Select "Somewhat agree"
I am willing to pay a higher price for this brand I selected.
I keep buying at a premium price for this brand I selected instead of other brands.
For the advantages I get from this brand I selected, I am willing to pay a higher price.
Please read the following carefully: Select "Strongly agree"
I am committed to pay a lot more for this brand I selected.
I love talking about my brand experience.
I will discuss the benefits that I get from this brand with others.
I will be a part of this brand and mention it in my conversations.
I encourage friends and family to buy this brand.

Almost there! Just a few more questions to go!

Demographic information

Before we conclude, we would like to ask a few demographic questions.

Question: What is your gender?

Male
Female
Non-binary
Other
Prefer not to say

Question: What is your age?

18-24
25-34
35-44
45-54
55-64
65-75
Over 75

Question: What is your highest level of education?

Secondary school or equivalent
High school or equivalent
Some college or equivalent
Bachelor's degree
Master's degree
PhD
Other

Question: What is your current employment status?

Employed Full-time
Employed Part-time
Self-employed
Out of work but looking for a job
Out of work and not looking for a job
Student
Retired
Other (please specify)

***We thank you for your time spent taking this survey. Your responses were recorded.**

Appendix 26. Normality Assessment (Sample 1: CHN335)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Consumer Ethnocentrism 1	5.63	1.314	-1.079	1.066
Consumer Ethnocentrism 2	4.12	2.369	-.203	-1.656
Consumer Ethnocentrism 3	4.33	2.151	-.293	-1.400
Consumer Ethnocentrism 4	4.25	2.113	-.318	-1.361
Consumer Ethnocentrism 5	4.28	2.127	-.299	-1.372
Consumer Ethnocentrism 6	3.68	2.226	.070	-1.517
Consumer Ethnocentrism 7	3.86	2.090	-.007	-1.417
Consumer acculturation 1	3.74	1.981	.115	-1.325
Consumer acculturation 2	3.72	1.947	.171	-1.262
Consumer acculturation 3	3.53	1.914	.248	-1.246
Consumer acculturation 4	3.81	1.710	.041	-1.129
Consumer acculturation 5	3.86	1.892	-.107	-1.289
Consumer acculturation 6	3.70	1.897	.026	-1.340
Consumer acculturation 7	2.79	1.775	.771	-.617
Consumer acculturation 8	4.25	1.975	-.314	-1.292
Consumer acculturation 9	4.33	1.973	-.388	-1.226
Brand origin salience 1	6.08	1.048	-1.497	2.975
Brand origin salience 2	5.89	1.302	-1.380	1.646
Brand origin salience 3	6.19	.993	-1.475	2.607
Consumer brand relationship 1	4.82	1.624	-.602	-.373
Consumer brand relationship 2	4.79	1.596	-.571	-.332
Consumer brand relationship 3	4.81	1.542	-.633	-.222
Consumer brand relationship 4	4.73	1.478	-.576	-.207
Consumer brand relationship 5	4.74	1.440	-.591	.032
Consumer brand relationship 6	4.56	1.483	-.486	-.202
Consumer brand relationship 7	4.68	1.446	-.570	-.143
Consumer brand relationship 8	4.71	1.407	-.598	.099
Perceived irreplaceability 1	4.79	1.497	-.866	.061
Perceived irreplaceability 2	4.74	1.468	-.765	-.002
Perceived irreplaceability 3	4.72	1.433	-.671	.022
Perceived irreplaceability 4	4.83	1.355	-.821	.537
Individual Self-congruity 1	5.03	1.564	-.725	-.250
Individual Self-congruity 2	4.99	1.598	-.711	-.221
Individual Self-congruity 3	5.16	1.448	-.803	.133
Individual Self-congruity 4	5.01	1.524	-.673	-.223
Social Self-congruity 1	4.96	1.433	-.619	.086
Social Self-congruity 2	4.96	1.443	-.612	.102
Social Self-congruity 3	4.89	1.432	-.617	.236
Social Self-congruity 4	5.02	1.419	-.644	.310
Nostalgia 1	5.07	1.475	-.947	.538
Nostalgia 2	5.04	1.458	-.923	.594
Nostalgia 3	4.92	1.421	-.958	.474
Nostalgia 4	5.07	1.409	-1.026	.994
Nostalgia 5	5.00	1.359	-.963	.909
Nostalgia 6	5.04	1.454	-.937	.625
Brand purchase intention 1	6.00	1.028	-1.619	4.800

Brand purchase intention 2	5.83	1.126	-1.333	2.851
Brand purchase intention 3	5.73	1.106	-1.104	2.309
Willingness to pay a price premium 1	4.90	1.525	-.658	-.162
Willingness to pay a price premium 2	4.93	1.486	-.643	-.172
Willingness to pay a price premium 3	4.84	1.560	-.586	-.262
Willingness to pay a price premium 4	4.71	1.714	-.531	-.643
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 1	5.15	1.407	-.986	1.045
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 2	5.17	1.411	-.915	.919
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 3	5.22	1.237	-.870	1.322
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 4	5.25	1.385	-.994	1.038
Inner self-expressiveness 1	4.93	1.408	-.869	.512
Inner self-expressiveness 2	4.75	1.513	-.689	-.056
Inner self-expressiveness 3	4.69	1.555	-.621	-.228
Inner self-expressiveness 4	4.63	1.614	-.576	-.435
Sense of belongingness 1	5.03	1.344	-.910	.851
Sense of belongingness 2	4.99	1.343	-.990	1.033
Sense of belongingness 3	5.09	1.263	-1.169	1.738
Sense of belongingness 4	5.11	1.294	-1.125	1.562

Appendix 27. Normality Assessment (Sample 2: TUR301)

Scale items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Consumer Ethnocentrism 1	5.66	1.107	-1.28	1.752
Consumer Ethnocentrism 2	5.26	1.416	-1.463	2.125
Consumer Ethnocentrism 3	5.09	1.41	-1.047	0.568
Consumer Ethnocentrism 4	4.85	1.839	-0.525	-0.923
Consumer Ethnocentrism 5	4.85	1.865	-0.568	-0.781
Consumer Ethnocentrism 6	5.09	1.747	-0.882	0.067
Consumer Ethnocentrism 7	4.98	1.584	-0.896	0.458
Consumer acculturation 1	3.67	1.966	0.252	-1.327
Consumer acculturation 2	3.34	1.932	0.502	-1.11
Consumer acculturation 3	3.1	1.704	0.761	-0.593
Consumer acculturation 4	3.27	1.622	0.718	-0.272
Consumer acculturation 5	2.9	1.647	0.991	0.17
Consumer acculturation 6	2.65	1.428	1.101	0.988
Consumer acculturation 7	2.46	1.319	0.996	0.631
Consumer acculturation 8	2.87	1.593	0.987	0.247
Consumer acculturation 9	2.77	1.522	1.165	0.928
Brand origin salience 1	6.38	0.702	-0.782	-0.286
Brand origin salience 2	6.36	0.838	-1.093	0.495
Brand origin salience 3	6.38	0.758	-0.881	-0.26
Consumer brand relationship 1	5.39	1.279	-0.722	0.638
Consumer brand relationship 2	5.25	1.293	-0.509	0.474
Consumer brand relationship 3	5.16	1.192	-0.575	0.986
Consumer brand relationship 4	5.09	1.125	-0.608	0.889
Consumer brand relationship 5	5.1	1.041	-0.107	-0.316
Consumer brand relationship 6	5.1	1.175	-0.228	-0.002
Consumer brand relationship 7	5.13	1.212	-0.23	-0.068
Consumer brand relationship 8	5.18	1.177	-0.046	-0.282
Perceived irreplaceability 1	5.32	0.848	-0.71	0.254
Perceived irreplaceability 2	5.07	0.855	-0.401	0.637
Perceived irreplaceability 3	5.28	1.065	-0.408	-0.213
Perceived irreplaceability 4	5.25	1.108	-0.033	-0.641
Individual Self-congruity 1	6	0.991	-1.646	2.022
Individual Self-congruity 2	5.92	1.063	-1.551	3.925
Individual Self-congruity 3	5.78	1.074	-1.232	3.108
Individual Self-congruity 4	5.46	1.016	-0.939	2.788
Social Self-congruity 1	5.51	0.904	-0.833	2.922
Social Self-congruity 2	5.56	0.953	-0.514	0.765
Social Self-congruity 3	5.53	1.101	-0.515	0.155
Social Self-congruity 4	5.61	1.061	-0.614	0.643
Nostalgia 1	5.38	1.037	-0.866	2.106
Nostalgia 2	5.24	1.134	-1.03	1.848
Nostalgia 3	5.3	1.078	-1	2.567
Nostalgia 4	5.23	1.087	-0.434	0.97
Nostalgia 5	5.28	1.087	-0.503	0.625
Nostalgia 6	5.27	1.099	-0.622	0.937

Brand purchase intention 1	5.9	0.936	-0.524	0.187
Brand purchase intention 2	5.73	1.09	-0.467	-0.737
Brand purchase intention 3	5.76	1.016	-0.377	-0.621
Willingness to pay a price premium 1	5.38	1.095	-0.3	-0.431
Willingness to pay a price premium 2	5.39	1.126	-0.353	-0.541
Willingness to pay a price premium 3	5.32	1.095	-0.031	-0.543
Willingness to pay a price premium 4	5.43	1.206	-0.48	-0.36
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 1	5.42	1.112	-0.25	-0.594
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 2	5.44	1.07	-0.044	-0.905
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 3	5.43	1.001	-0.182	-0.308
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 4	5.42	1.028	-0.026	-0.637
Inner self-expressiveness 1	5.38	1.138	-0.392	-0.287
Inner self-expressiveness 2	5.4	1.097	-0.228	-0.457
Inner self-expressiveness 3	5.27	1.158	-0.29	-0.226
Inner self-expressiveness 4	5.3	1.113	-0.347	0.163
Sense of belongingness 1	5.34	1.173	-0.384	0.067
Sense of belongingness 2	5.23	1.053	-0.047	-0.093
Sense of belongingness 3	5.23	0.857	-0.462	0.457
Sense of belongingness 4	5.23	0.957	-0.258	0.18

Appendix 28. Normality Assessment (Sample 3: POL248)

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Consumer Ethnocentrism 1	4.83	1.593	-0.475	-0.658
Consumer Ethnocentrism 2	3.07	2.055	0.651	-1.137
Consumer Ethnocentrism 3	3.46	1.881	0.316	-1.185
Consumer Ethnocentrism 4	3.25	1.772	0.418	-0.972
Consumer Ethnocentrism 5	2.9	1.757	0.788	-0.473
Consumer Ethnocentrism 6	2.78	1.873	0.868	-0.541
Consumer Ethnocentrism 7	3	2.025	0.788	-0.794
Consumer acculturation 1	4.68	2.046	-0.52	-1.138
Consumer acculturation 2	4.34	2.039	-0.421	-1.232
Consumer acculturation 3	4.31	2.11	-0.341	-1.422
Consumer acculturation 4	4.04	1.862	-0.194	-1.232
Consumer acculturation 5	4.09	2.095	-0.165	-1.493
Consumer acculturation 6	4.21	2.112	-0.314	-1.319
Consumer acculturation 7	2.79	1.804	0.855	-0.434
Consumer acculturation 8	5.33	2.117	-0.989	-0.562
Consumer acculturation 9	5.26	2.089	-1.025	-0.422
Brand origin salience 1	5.97	1.041	-1.117	1.154
Brand origin salience 2	6.13	0.877	-0.968	0.672
Brand origin salience 3	6.33	0.893	-1.847	4.527
Consumer brand relationship 1	3.89	1.558	-0.273	-0.583
Consumer brand relationship 2	3.94	1.64	0.03	-0.569
Consumer brand relationship 3	3.97	1.524	-0.136	-0.47
Consumer brand relationship 4	3.99	1.471	-0.367	-0.257
Consumer brand relationship 5	4.04	1.435	-0.417	-0.062
Consumer brand relationship 6	3.87	1.43	-0.473	-0.186
Consumer brand relationship 7	3.89	1.376	-0.464	-0.023
Consumer brand relationship 8	3.93	1.436	-0.251	0.223
Perceived irreplaceability 1	4.37	1.726	-0.399	-0.876
Perceived irreplaceability 2	4.39	1.559	-0.431	-0.365
Perceived irreplaceability 3	4.34	1.601	-0.331	-0.509
Perceived irreplaceability 4	4.75	1.449	-0.778	0.513
Individual Self-congruity 1	4.75	1.542	-0.596	-0.245
Individual Self-congruity 2	4.54	1.588	-0.456	-0.479
Individual Self-congruity 3	4.82	1.577	-0.739	-0.21
Individual Self-congruity 4	4.6	1.508	-0.506	-0.069
Social Self-congruity 1	4.84	1.337	-0.659	0.476
Social Self-congruity 2	4.93	1.394	-0.88	0.84
Social Self-congruity 3	4.76	1.406	-0.83	0.578
Social Self-congruity 4	4.96	1.373	-0.713	0.475
Nostalgia 1	4.84	1.369	-0.675	0.426
Nostalgia 2	4.83	1.367	-0.683	0.642
Nostalgia 3	4.79	1.31	-0.726	0.487
Nostalgia 4	5.35	1.338	-1.23	1.942
Nostalgia 5	5.35	1.396	-1.373	2.4

Nostalgia 6	5.2	1.286	-1.11	1.868
Brand purchase intention 1	5.24	1.203	-1.194	2.798
Brand purchase intention 2	5.28	1.293	-1.14	1.776
Brand purchase intention 3	5.37	1.339	-1.118	1.602
Willingness to pay a price premium 1	6.14	0.9	-1.691	1.8
Willingness to pay a price premium 2	5.75	1.143	-1.179	2.077
Willingness to pay a price premium 3	5.7	1.128	-0.729	0.492
Willingness to pay a price premium 4	4.56	1.418	-0.368	-0.401
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 1	4.69	1.526	-0.392	-0.581
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 2	4.6	1.463	-0.377	-0.417
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 3	4.35	1.567	-0.183	-0.842
Word-of-Mouth Persuasion 4	4.72	1.626	-0.741	-0.098
Inner self-expressiveness 1	4.9	1.607	-0.8	0.159
Inner self-expressiveness 2	5.24	1.285	-1.113	2.009
Inner self-expressiveness 3	5.04	1.58	-0.832	0.305
Inner self-expressiveness 4	5.42	1.118	-1.112	2.784
Sense of belongingness 1	5.19	1.286	-1.093	2.098
Sense of belongingness 2	5.05	1.307	-1.015	1.547
Sense of belongingness 3	4.74	1.438	-0.713	0.542
Sense of belongingness 4	5	1.511	-0.915	0.525

Appendix 29. EFA measurement model-Final Pattern Matrix (Sample 1: CHN335)

Scale item	Factor												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Consumer ethnocentrism (Cronbach's α = 0.944)													
CE1	-.014	.229	**.419**	-.044	-.020	-.164	.011	.050	.274	-.074	-.059	-.014	.203
CE2	-.062	.023	**.929**	.023	-.024	-.039	.052	.023	-.004	-.027	.003	-.025	.022
CE3	.061	-.049	**.989**	-.042	.156	-.026	.081	.039	.037	-.102	.000	-.183	.015
CE4	.107	-.060	**.957**	-.058	.133	-.010	.086	-.020	.000	-.056	-.001	-.143	.015
CE5	-.002	.087	**.776**	.070	.013	.031	-.053	-.036	-.071	.068	.030	-.046	-.039
CE6	-.111	-.074	**.923**	.092	-.072	.049	-.009	-.072	-.001	.034	.092	.104	-.135
CE7	-.117	-.092	**.808**	.107	-.116	-.004	.001	-.024	.003	.076	-.013	.155	.030
Brand origin salience (Cronbach's α = 0.823)													
BOS1	-.009	.043	.058	.006	-.006	.054	-.029	.043	**.916**	-.090	.084	.081	-.136
BOS2	.049	-.031	.116	.069	-.005	.070	-.075	.017	**.719**	.026	-.027	.041	-.035
BOS3	-.007	-.108	-.198	.038	-.086	-.042	.105	-.011	**.601**	.021	.000	-.111	.212
Consumer acculturation (Cronbach's α = 0.902)													
CA1	.078	-.049	-.054	.001	**.736**	-.062	.051	-.004	.057	-.096	.072	.224	.037
CA2	-.031	.033	-.050	.033	**.759**	-.141	.022	.063	-.009	-.061	.040	.106	.006
CA3	-.134	-.082	.029	-.094	**.446**	.163	.124	-.125	.032	.032	-.051	.085	-.009
CA4	-.018	.116	.086	-.054	**.774**	.006	.019	.098	-.006	-.178	-.053	.145	.094
CA5	-.080	.057	-.033	.012	**.751**	.061	.022	.062	-.158	-.158	.041	.110	.116
CA6	.011	-.023	.052	.058	**.790**	.014	.049	.035	.037	-.031	-.116	.064	-.014
CA7	.059	.075	.253	-.070	**.713**	.027	-.135	.016	-.059	.147	-.029	-.013	-.086
CA8	.020	-.141	-.204	.141	**.766**	-.015	-.044	-.071	-.054	.107	.065	-.105	-.068
CA9	.026	-.043	-.314	.014	**.771**	-.120	-.011	-.093	.174	.246	.047	-.085	-.059
Consumer-brand relationship (Cronbach's α = 0.960)													

CBR1	.151	**.632**	.190	-.142	.050	.013	-.026	-.083	.076	.092	-.026	.009	.020
CBR2	.011	**.775**	.079	-.003	.040	.048	-.071	-.064	.076	.113	-.027	.001	-.038
CBR3	.038	**.796**	.027	-.049	.039	-.010	-.051	-.006	.088	.076	-.049	.020	.070
CBR4	-.084	**.766**	-.072	.088	.023	-.021	.021	.004	.000	.098	.019	-.044	.100
CBR5	-.031	**.870**	-.181	.113	-.046	.004	.079	-.009	-.041	-.036	.065	.009	.031
CBR6	-.080	**.894**	.060	.074	-.036	-.058	.018	.030	-.049	-.055	.079	-.017	-.069
CBR7	.067	**.949**	.002	.036	.027	.011	.012	.045	-.102	-.087	-.010	-.027	-.050
CBR8	.102	**.927**	-.122	.016	.001	.083	.082	-.011	-.022	-.035	-.030	.022	-.083
Individual Self-congruity (Cronbach's α = 0.949)													
ISC1	.017	-.072	.076	.031	.022	.028	-.031	.046	-.009	.031	-.007	.004	**.905**
ISC2	.045	.076	-.060	.034	-.007	.047	-.040	-.037	-.038	-.004	-.056	.008	**.943**
ISC3	.010	.085	-.040	.034	-.021	-.004	.067	-.042	.026	-.017	.039	.033	**.766**
ISC4	.075	.079	.035	-.015	.003	.028	.009	.000	-.012	.052	.301	-.007	**.448**
Social self-congruity (Cronbach's α = 0.924)													
SSC5	.080	.025	.116	.019	-.035	.027	-.033	.019	.022	-.030	**.700**	.020	.041
SSC6	.102	.050	.028	-.045	-.044	.018	.028	-.009	.033	.081	**.858**	.055	-.114
SSC7	.149	.067	-.026	.028	-.035	.018	-.052	-.049	.038	.072	**.616**	.035	.092
SSC8	.237	.043	.091	-.025	.103	-.032	-.106	.048	-.064	.013	**.522**	-.016	.229
Nostalgia (Cronbach's α = 0.944)													
NO1	.236	-.016	.136	**.522**	.008	.022	-.064	.058	-.053	.140	.078	.053	-.099
NO2	.091	-.024	.112	**.655**	-.023	.014	.001	-.019	-.083	.041	-.003	.065	.109
NO3	.070	.010	.035	**.823**	.003	-.024	.012	.012	-.029	.012	-.023	-.038	.041
NO4	-.015	.135	.074	**.844**	.048	-.043	-.060	-.004	.059	-.017	.030	-.004	-.043
NO5	.043	.036	-.016	**.854**	.036	.040	.031	-.026	.054	-.026	-.047	-.012	.021
NO6	.038	.044	-.030	**.759**	-.054	.004	.050	-.017	.091	.015	-.056	.004	.011
Brand purchase intention (Cronbach's α = 0.922)													
BPI1	.025	-.047	.022	.009	.052	.019	-.018	**.934**	-.003	-.004	-.029	.050	.003
BPI2	-.009	.050	-.043	-.035	.005	-.012	-.036	**.895**	.038	.060	-.017	-.032	.027
BPI3	.008	-.037	-.080	.001	-.009	.044	.067	**.790**	.027	.123	.033	.016	-.069

Willingness to pay a price premium (Cronbach's α = 0.937)													
WPP1	-.031	.076	.025	.043	-.015	.005	.063	.086	.003	**.705**	.029	-.026	-.038
WPP2	-.095	.075	-.042	.020	.012	.047	.102	.067	-.021	**.802**	.011	-.024	-.013
WPP3	-.098	.042	-.013	.034	.045	-.022	.152	.006	-.045	**.829**	.066	-.040	-.008
WPP4	-.063	-.016	.080	-.006	-.005	-.033	.165	.018	.011	**.709**	.017	-.087	.091
Word-of-mouth persuasion (Cronbach's α = 0.923)													
WOM P1	.151	.099	.073	-.097	-.019	-.046	**.685**	-.019	-.050	.156	.057	.022	-.057
WOM P2	-.007	.074	.059	-.057	-.045	.002	**.679**	.024	-.004	.220	-.006	.055	.052
WOM P3	.060	-.033	.021	.070	-.025	.074	**.709**	.093	.007	.009	.023	.052	-.043
WOM P4	.082	.034	.059	.067	.030	.016	**.767**	-.059	.015	.085	-.101	.012	.006
Sense of belonging (Cronbach's α = 0.933)													
SOB1	**.792**	-.018	-.064	.109	.016	.037	.092	-.006	-.011	-.142	-.003	-.084	.060
SOB2	**.816**	-.075	-.094	.109	-.016	.024	.116	-.007	.025	-.171	.081	-.021	.005
SOB3	**.912**	.073	-.029	.011	.023	-.039	.085	.050	-.005	-.191	.100	-.050	-.101
SOB4	**1.004**	.008	-.057	.010	.009	-.077	.154	.013	.013	-.199	.003	-.058	-.066
Inner self-expressiveness (Cronbach's α = 0.938)													
ISE1	**.854**	.034	.007	-.041	.009	.022	-.090	-.030	.065	.107	-.020	.076	-.014
ISE2	**.792**	-.006	.012	.006	-.064	.067	-.112	-.018	-.022	.215	-.085	.102	.023
ISE3	**.710**	.032	.069	-.045	-.065	-.026	-.074	-.014	-.039	.298	-.045	.114	.010
ISE4	**.556**	.095	.083	.015	-.025	.037	-.033	.004	-.025	.230	-.141	.013	.115
Perceived irreplaceability (Cronbach's α = 0.922)													
PI1	.049	.156	.081	-.004	-.023	**.658**	-.018	-.016	-.011	-.080	.020	-.004	.037
PI2	.038	.032	-.018	-.077	.035	**.856**	.050	-.042	.068	-.024	.061	-.117	.003
PI3	-.096	-.017	.022	-.006	.049	**.893**	.020	.038	.017	.027	.021	-.062	.040
PI4	.031	-.005	-.072	.087	-.029	**.794**	-.017	.065	.006	.031	-.047	-.003	.002
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. **Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.**													
a. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.													

Appendix 30. EFA measurement model-Final Pattern Matrix (Sample 2: TUR301)

Scale item	Factor												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Consumer ethnocentrism (Cronbach's α = 0.878)													
CE1	-.021	-.067	**.678**	-.252	.003	.158	.155	-.053	.082	.099	.028	-.141	.107
CE2	.053	.052	**.711**	-.150	.130	.100	-.078	-.005	.020	.049	.023	.021	-.081
CE3	-.006	-.132	**.734**	.045	.037	-.087	-.061	-.013	.009	.031	-.083	.014	.094
CE4	-.019	-.019	**.686**	.047	-.003	-.113	-.029	-.011	.035	-.197	-.125	.356	.118
CE5	.141	.039	**.587**	.021	.008	-.059	.000	-.005	-.047	-.195	.000	.398	-.020
CE6	.080	-.002	**.567**	.318	-.089	-.003	.018	-.001	-.074	-.012	.042	.061	-.209
CE7	.007	-.018	**.464**	.177	-.011	.237	-.071	-.003	-.033	.022	.145	-.027	-.087
Brand origin salience (Cronbach's α = 0.743)													
BOS1	-.168	.071	.156	-.178	.028	.128	-.014	.011	**.706**	.054	.284	-.050	.019
BOS2	.171	-.017	.014	.050	-.020	-.078	-.087	-.055	**.794**	.008	-.117	-.015	-.063
BOS3	-.017	-.033	-.116	.111	-.015	-.004	.046	.075	**.665**	-.058	-.074	.011	-.018
Consumer acculturation (Cronbach's α = 0.910)													
CA1	.016	**.735**	.076	.012	.004	-.164	-.106	.013	.004	.350	.012	.016	-.016
CA2	.072	**.813**	-.018	.082	.006	-.068	-.004	-.034	-.035	.340	-.086	.085	-.016
CA3	-.039	**.673**	.094	.047	-.003	.064	.019	.021	.007	.369	-.022	-.090	.113
CA4	.226	**.797**	.063	.005	-.049	-.030	-.015	.012	-.086	.105	-.057	-.298	.042
CA5	.129	**.962**	.017	.064	.036	-.095	-.005	-.021	-.078	-.122	-.024	-.173	.002
CA6	-.029	**.793**	-.073	.055	-.026	.000	.101	-.004	-.005	-.023	.008	.039	-.038
CA7	-.341	**.614**	.085	-.048	.099	.306	-.017	.023	.047	.140	.162	.216	-.085
CA8	-.073	**.616**	-.210	-.119	-.021	.013	.068	-.006	.058	.087	.120	.219	.029
CA9	-.101	**.544**	-.188	-.111	-.014	.008	-.038	-.003	.045	-.012	.070	.055	.179
Consumer-brand relationship (Cronbach's α = 0.885)													
CBR1	.260	.012	-.005	**.465**	.090	.117	-.164	-.036	.010	-.088	.028	.068	.096

CBR2	.087	-.013	.038	**.769**	-.040	.052	.047	-.028	-.094	-.079	.024	.016	-.021
CBR3	-.037	.067	.069	**.771**	.027	.066	-.033	.060	-.079	-.070	.012	.078	.087
CBR4	.109	-.072	.003	**.589**	-.050	.119	.011	.004	-.106	.017	.095	.038	.104
CBR5	.116	.074	-.029	**.665**	.047	-.045	-.050	-.008	-.054	-.073	.074	.005	.160
CBR6	.101	-.027	.013	**.816**	-.033	-.084	-.073	-.032	.071	.106	-.048	.059	-.010
CBR7	-.130	.007	.028	**.846**	.008	.197	.009	.067	.071	-.009	-.212	-.027	-.106
CBR8	.080	.012	-.109	**.759**	.019	.073	.081	-.024	.063	.049	-.079	-.106	-.061
Individual Self-congruity (Cronbach's α = 0.819)													
ISC1	-.112	.029	.121	.097	**.896**	-.071	.057	-.068	.019	.015	.145	-.082	-.026
ISC2	.100	-.002	.019	-.060	**.682**	.200	.015	.066	-.018	.019	-.140	.072	-.011
ISC3	.201	-.006	.000	-.042	**.566**	-.073	-.008	.058	.095	-.037	.026	-.080	.002
ISC4	.213	-.112	-.077	-.027	**.556**	.021	-.075	.079	-.112	.043	.000	-.044	.031
Social self-congruity (Cronbach's α = 0.739)													
SSC5	**.555**	-.031	-.022	-.031	.161	-.088	.059	.015	-.092	.007	.005	-.091	.008
SSC6	**.500**	.017	.084	-.044	.111	-.005	.057	-.041	.000	.038	-.020	.065	-.019
SSC7	**.474**	-.036	-.031	-.073	.030	.173	.102	-.066	-.008	.014	.099	-.017	-.230
SSC8	**.570**	-.051	-.022	.049	.123	.087	.014	.073	.073	-.002	.080	.029	-.226
Nostalgia (Cronbach's α = 0.781)													
NO1	**.514**	-.041	.077	-.054	.039	-.068	.064	.038	-.097	.040	.200	.004	-.094
NO2	**.750**	.049	.018	-.053	-.064	-.097	-.123	-.018	-.030	-.065	.135	.097	-.028
NO3	**.464**	-.157	.046	.064	.090	-.012	.001	-.109	-.075	.135	.043	.163	.081
NO4	**.577**	-.069	-.029	.023	.069	-.157	.036	.005	-.001	.031	.101	.168	.016
NO5	**.564**	-.094	.040	.017	-.089	-.012	.045	.013	-.057	.049	.026	.084	.043
NO6	**.542**	.032	.097	-.041	-.124	.046	.076	.048	.118	.066	-.070	.031	.116
Brand purchase intention (Cronbach's α = 0.819)													
BPI1	.030	.028	-.020	-.052	.078	.044	**.854**	-.006	-.008	-.143	-.069	-.051	-.047
BPI2	.198	.004	-.042	-.025	-.039	-.027	**.696**	-.035	-.008	.078	-.094	.109	-.092
BPI3	.248	.096	-.030	.076	.021	-.132	**.626**	.027	.014	-.027	-.049	.102	.025
Willingness to pay a price premium (Cronbach's α = 0.753)													

WPP1	.017	.051	.064	.132	-.025	.082	.199	.014	.074	-.046	.090	**.507**	.021
WPP2	.238	-.026	-.089	.010	-.072	.062	.199	.049	.009	.023	.078	**.592**	-.028
WPP3	.423	-.040	-.033	.001	-.069	.137	.047	.056	.004	.096	.130	**.679**	-.043
WPP4	.111	-.003	.052	-.030	-.018	.211	.049	.105	.061	-.014	.074	**.496**	-.024
Word-of-mouth persuasion (Cronbach's α = 0.799)													
WOM P1	.200	.069	.080	.093	-.048	.023	-.078	.003	**.418**	-.042	.151	-.009	-.111
WOM P2	.131	.042	.061	-.027	-.039	-.031	-.023	.020	**.425**	.073	.051	.016	-.067
WOM P3	.106	-.029	.031	.048	.004	-.131	.008	-.016	**.824**	.003	-.028	.020	.039
WOM P4	.095	-.053	-.029	.026	.078	-.069	-.005	.024	**.742**	-.064	.027	-.023	.024
Sense of belonging (Cronbach's α = 0.750)													
SOB1	**.722**	.092	.100	-.050	.009	-.074	.024	.014	.071	-.004	-.083	-.024	.022
SOB2	**.726**	.065	-.031	.056	-.078	-.160	.009	.059	.002	-.077	.241	-.077	.022
SOB3	**.414**	-.105	-.102	.137	.031	-.026	.050	-.101	.102	-.016	.069	-.118	.189
SOB4	**.564**	.026	-.038	-.048	.024	.162	-.065	.026	.056	-.006	-.117	-.041	.343
Inner self-expressiveness (Cronbach's α = 0.798)													
ISE1	**.603**	.083	.017	.052	.005	.189	-.073	-.015	.049	-.029	-.204	-.029	.440
ISE2	**.563**	-.010	.020	.052	-.047	.107	.005	.031	-.045	-.001	.071	.075	.243
ISE3	**.530**	-.045	.102	.042	-.007	.143	.121	.039	-.018	.009	.108	.024	.196
ISE4	**.600**	-.087	.128	.067	-.125	.211	.013	.012	.048	.009	.165	.045	.070
Perceived irreplaceability (Cronbach's α = 0.700)													
PI1	.125	.009	.039	-.155	.017	-.023	-.090	-.032	.003	.031	**.615**	.128	-.170
PI2	.027	.129	-.095	.028	.043	.153	-.081	-.073	.021	-.134	**.489**	.036	-.026
PI3	.118	.014	-.201	.246	.075	.065	-.068	-.126	.057	.011	**.418**	.129	.016
PI4	.253	.017	-.018	.013	.093	-.023	.147	-.044	-.060	.064	**.513**	.214	.072

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 13 iterations.

Appendix 31. EFA measurement model-Final Pattern Matrix (Sample 3: POL248)

Scale item	Factor												
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Consumer ethnocentrism (Cronbach's α = 0.939)													
CE1	-.038	.065	.193	**.653**	.103	-.142	-.072	.066	.229	-.075	.059	-.007	-.028
CE2	.021	-.053	.214	**.687**	-.059	.154	-.020	-.040	-.060	.044	-.028	.081	-.034
CE3	.023	.049	-.098	**.950**	-.027	-.066	-.002	.012	.001	.068	.072	-.080	.076
CE4	.016	.057	-.073	**.964**	-.024	-.164	.037	.019	.027	.053	.017	-.097	.039
CE5	.050	.070	.000	**.864**	-.118	.037	.027	.081	.022	-.048	-.076	-.036	-.108
CE6	-.017	-.001	.006	**.779**	-.002	.059	.030	-.024	-.080	.032	-.059	.015	-.006
CE7	-.004	-.032	.119	**.724**	.052	.079	-.073	-.067	-.021	.012	-.005	.118	-.046
Brand origin salience (Cronbach's α = 0.865)													
BOS1	.059	.059	-.009	.092	-.007	.101	-.021	-.055	-.052	.008	**.792**	.079	-.017
BOS2	-.046	.013	.009	.002	.055	-.001	.009	-.055	-.058	.105	**.930**	-.034	-.029
BOS3	.072	-.054	.127	-.156	.083	.019	-.022	.025	.113	-.003	**.608**	-.004	-.039
Consumer acculturation (Cronbach's α = 0.928)													
CA1	-.057	-.015	**-.633**	-.168	-.175	.011	.014	.052	.102	.047	-.044	.131	.005
CA2	.012	.104	**-.675**	-.125	-.110	.077	-.110	.037	.072	-.019	-.105	.016	-.031
CA3	.099	-.030	**-.756**	.070	-.002	-.034	.024	-.035	.083	-.074	.041	.125	-.148
CA4	.053	-.056	**-.848**	-.010	.166	.087	.013	-.059	.029	.021	-.023	-.069	.044
CA5	-.017	.059	**-.804**	-.087	-.056	.005	.048	.033	-.030	.131	-.011	-.093	.011
CA6	-.001	-.074	**-.876**	.043	.099	-.067	.021	.019	-.061	.036	.028	.037	-.044
CA7	-.058	-.131	**-.804**	.306	.263	.091	-.042	-.172	-.084	-.051	-.068	.077	.099
CA8	.046	.100	**-.635**	-.214	-.037	-.072	-.034	.066	-.041	-.051	.042	-.093	-.082
CA9	-.010	.167	**-.554**	-.262	-.040	-.120	-.054	.037	.001	.050	.038	-.116	-.097
Consumer-brand relationship (Cronbach's α = 0.963)													
BP1	.050	**.597**	.041	-.009	.117	.059	.018	-.050	-.041	.068	-.048	.011	.268

BP2	.015	**.629**	.117	-.036	.075	-.078	-.012	.053	-.014	.080	-.033	.014	.302
BP3	.029	**.623**	.023	-.006	.120	-.023	-.024	.002	.050	.001	-.008	-.054	.397
BP4	-.003	**.721**	.024	-.041	.052	.087	.015	.046	-.025	-.043	-.016	.020	.175
BP5	-.019	**.875**	-.003	.029	-.065	.027	-.012	.050	-.025	.041	.026	-.041	.090
BP6	.068	**.868**	-.004	.105	-.022	.012	.006	-.016	.027	-.078	-.015	.083	.012
BP7	.012	**.928**	-.001	.000	.042	.002	.015	-.055	-.022	-.021	.029	.013	.030
BP8	-.056	**.933**	-.026	.068	-.016	.042	.031	-.015	.010	.003	.014	-.022	.022
Individual Self-congruity (Cronbach's α = 0.953)													
ISC1	.056	.065	-.048	.072	.169	-.033	.026	.015	.043	.003	.010	**.758**	-.026
ISC2	.048	.026	-.031	.027	.175	.039	-.026	-.022	.006	.040	-.008	**.791**	-.024
ISC3	.059	-.028	.048	-.148	.070	-.026	-.012	.226	.011	.127	.027	**.677**	.018
ISC4	.039	.060	-.018	.002	.190	-.036	.011	.268	-.050	.013	.023	**.458**	.059
Social self-congruity (Cronbach's α = 0.927)													
SSC5	.051	-.027	-.052	.016	.029	.024	.050	**.726**	-.088	.086	-.023	.075	.012
SSC6	-.024	.046	.065	-.003	.028	-.045	-.051	**.961**	.058	-.011	-.051	-.100	.048
SSC7	.013	.002	.037	.043	.121	.090	-.061	**.625**	-.001	.025	-.050	.192	-.057
SSC8	.023	.019	-.003	.104	.221	.122	.033	**.605**	-.027	-.024	.045	-.046	-.097
Nostalgia (Cronbach's α = 0.916)													
NO1	**.716**	.097	-.067	.065	-.111	-.126	.014	-.045	-.059	.106	-.024	.203	-.088
NO2	**.744**	.044	.004	.047	-.047	-.190	.003	.097	.122	-.011	.032	.065	.016
NO3	**.935**	-.038	-.024	.067	-.104	.062	.008	.082	-.084	-.082	-.049	.001	.051
NO4	**.939**	-.004	.054	-.012	-.143	.074	.059	-.031	-.002	-.109	-.027	.110	-.101
NO5	**.889**	-.074	-.063	-.034	-.067	.057	.032	-.008	.003	-.110	.084	-.052	.236
NO6	**.852**	-.041	-.091	.049	-.099	.043	-.048	.009	-.003	-.111	.117	-.009	.130
Brand purchase intention (Cronbach's α = 0.879)													
BPI1	.040	.024	-.003	.024	-.009	-.036	-.041	-.035	**.845**	-.015	-.023	.041	-.032
BPI2	-.064	-.019	-.003	.040	.024	.053	.058	.046	**.804**	.032	-.008	-.036	-.019
BPI3	.011	-.044	-.048	-.009	-.013	.100	.026	-.029	**.824**	.049	-.004	.043	.058
Willingness to pay a price premium (Cronbach's α = 0.944)													

WPP1	-.011	.042	-.036	.023	.007	**.855**	-.026	-.079	.073	.024	.037	.041	-.010
WPP2	.051	.004	-.002	.010	.024	**.830**	-.018	.039	.045	.079	-.023	-.062	-.023
WPP3	-.014	.047	.017	-.107	-.084	**1.015**	.016	.054	-.017	-.056	.073	-.027	-.021
WPP4	-.031	.099	-.032	.060	.063	**.744**	.023	.041	.000	.033	-.028	.009	.009
Word-of-mouth persuasion (Cronbach's α = 0.923)													
WOM P1	.058	.047	.040	.026	-.102	.007	-.052	-.008	-.073	**.856**	-.051	.067	.133
WOM P2	-.044	.026	.009	.046	-.117	.001	.015	.015	.059	**.873**	-.004	.057	.095
WOM P3	-.037	-.036	-.071	-.011	-.014	-.041	.013	.010	.055	**.791**	.122	.043	-.001
WOM P4	-.098	-.045	-.062	.060	-.039	.112	.043	.071	.033	**.823**	.057	-.017	-.084
Sense of belonging (Cronbach's α = 0.899)													
SOB1	.183	.024	.097	-.170	**.683**	.048	.004	-.026	-.054	.181	-.059	.008	-.119
SOB2	.004	.104	.086	-.154	**.504**	.001	-.055	-.192	.144	.147	-.067	-.028	-.033
SOB3	.237	-.043	.043	.109	**.641**	-.045	.016	.097	.004	.151	-.035	-.217	-.090
SOB4	.364	-.005	.032	-.010	**.580**	.037	-.072	-.064	-.029	.171	-.049	-.202	-.084
Inner self-expressiveness (Cronbach's α = 0.948)													
ISE1	-.051	.050	-.039	.028	**.876**	-.043	.045	.129	-.014	-.119	.079	-.019	-.006
ISE2	-.067	.009	-.066	.000	**.973**	-.095	-.013	.034	.032	-.110	.067	.111	.080
ISE3	-.107	.011	-.038	-.074	**.884**	.050	.022	.027	.004	-.082	-.007	.074	.153
ISE4	-.097	.010	-.054	-.031	**.792**	.045	.048	-.019	-.017	-.032	-.019	.208	.046
Perceived irreplaceability (Cronbach's α = 0.918)													
PI1	-.061	.068	.086	-.015	.111	-.059	**.835**	-.111	-.032	.047	-.046	.105	-.093
PI2	.021	.006	.018	-.033	.045	.041	**.949**	-.024	.038	-.080	-.025	.019	-.045
PI3	.007	.062	.021	.046	-.016	-.011	**.854**	.019	-.042	.023	.019	-.067	-.011
PI4	.097	-.100	-.109	.005	-.070	.017	**.717**	.082	.085	.052	.036	-.090	.204
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.. **Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.**													
a. Rotation converged in 9 iterations.													

Appendix 32. EFA measurement between ISE and SOB (Sample 1: CHN335)

	Factor	
	1	**2**
ISE1	.285	**.548**
ISE2	.059	**.888**
ISE3	-.059	**.985**
ISE4	.085	**.800**
SOB1	**.769**	.110
SOB2	**.831**	.035
SOB3	**.918**	-.004
SOB4	**.866**	.041
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

Appendix 33. EFA measurement between SSC, NOS, ISE and SOB (Sample 2: TUR301)

	Factor			
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**
SSC1	**.451**	.009	.097	.013
SSC2	**.586**	-.052	.067	.033
SSC3	**.789**	-.030	-.129	-.033
SSC4	**.674**	-.043	-.033	.058
NO1	**.598**	-.105	.047	.033
NO2	**.587**	.038	-.011	-.056
NO3	-.034	.013	-.054	**1.035**
NO4	**643**	-.022	.110	.319
NO5	**.503**	.096	.047	.148
NO6	**.534**	.321	-.057	-.031
SOB1	.238	**.554**	-.024	-.058
SOB2	.116	**.546**	.145	-.091
SOB3	.297	**.538**	.041	-.049
SOB4	.190	**.553**	-.100	.018
ISE1	-.197	.027	**.996**	.014
ISE2	.086	.287	**.656**	.123
ISE3	-.075	-.039	**1.092**	-.065
ISE4	.277	-.009	**.626**	.044
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.				
a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.				

Appendix 34. EFA measurement between ISE and SOB (Sample 3: POL248)

	Factor	
	1	2
ISE1	**.747**	.172
ISE2	**.923**	.027
ISE3	**.970**	-.056
ISE4	**.910**	-.026
SOB1	.057	**.763**
SOB2	-.067	**.844**
SOB3	.061	**.858**
SOB4	.027	**.810**
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.		
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

Appendix 35. Moderation effects

Figure 1. The moderating effect of consumer acculturation on the relationship between brand origin salience and self-congruity

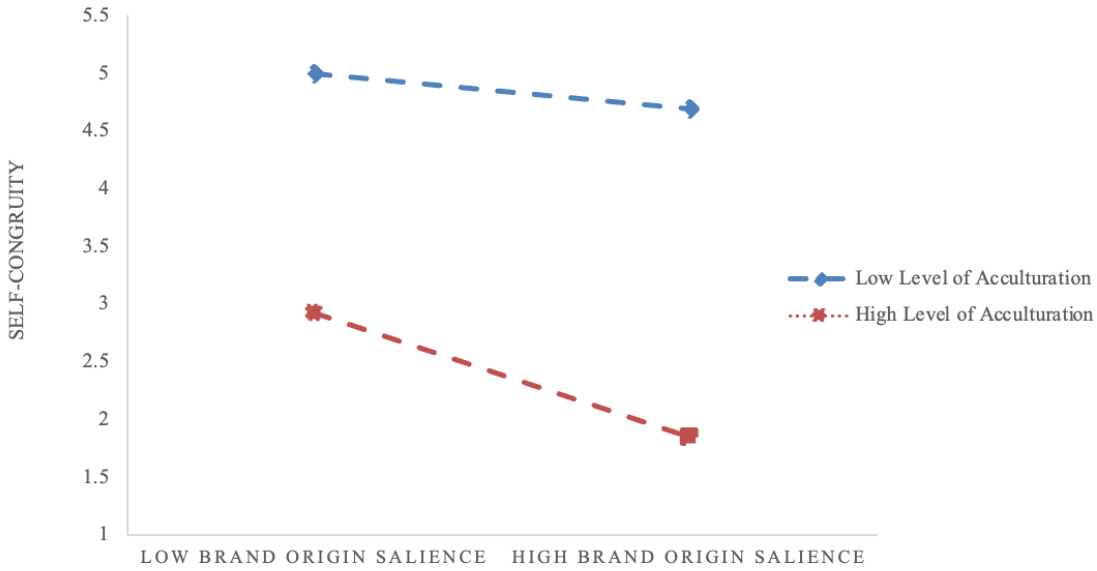
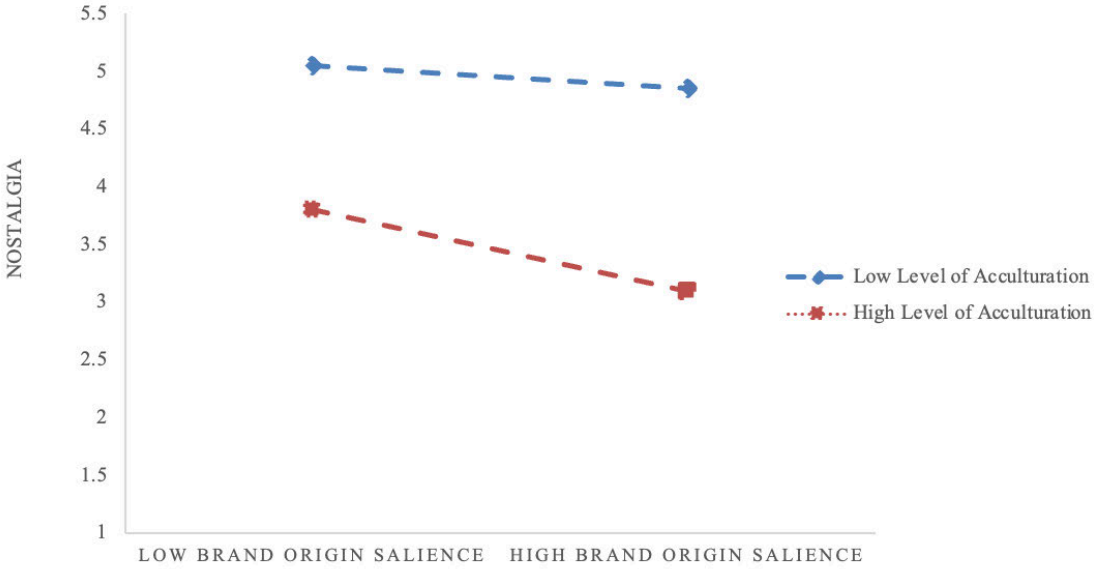


Figure 2. The moderating effect of consumer acculturation on the relationship between brand origin salience and nostalgia



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