Disasters, hope and globalization: exploring self-identification with global consumer culture in Japan

Shintaro Okazaki (Business School, King’s College London, London, UK)

Charles R. Taylor (Department of Marketing, School of Business, Villanova University, Villanova, Pennsylvania, USA)

Patrick Vargas (Department of Advertising, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, Illinois, USA)

Jörg Henseler (Faculty of Engineering Technology, University of Twente, Enschede, The Netherlands) (Nova Information Management School, Universidade Nova de Lisboa, Lisbon, Portugal)

This is the author accepted manuscript version of the article published by EMERALD as:


This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License.
Disasters, hope, and globalization: Exploring self-identification with global consumer culture in Japan

Abstract

- Purpose
An unconscious concern regarding one’s inevitable death, known as mortality salience, may affect consumers’ brand choices in the aftermath of disastrous events, such as earthquakes. In this study, we examine the role of self-identification with global consumer culture (IDGCC) in global brand purchase intention in response to disasters that heighten mortality salience. The roles of materialism, consumer ethnocentrism, cosmopolitanism, and hope in this process are also explored.

- Design/methodology/approach
An online experiment was conducted with a large sample of Japanese consumers. Japan was selected because it had recently suffered from a series of devastating earthquakes. Participants’ mortality salience was primed with an earthquake scenario. All measures were adapted from prior research. We used structural equation modeling to test our hypotheses and validate our model.

- Findings
The results reveal that IDGCC is a direct predictor of global brand purchase intention when mortality salience is high. It appears that identifying with global consumer culture and buying global brands enhances self-esteem and reduces anxiety for those with high IDGCC. As predicted, materialism and cosmopolitanism positively influence IDGCC, whereas consumer ethnocentrism does not impede IDGCC. Hope directly and positively affects global brand purchase intention.
• Research limitations/implications
Some consumers who experience traumatic events may resist mortality salience and experience a heightened sense of global citizenship. Meanwhile, those with lower IDGCC may revert to in-group favoritism, whereas those with higher IDGCC tend to purchase global brands. Using a scenario to simulate the mental state evoked by a disaster limits generalizability.

• Practical implications
The findings illuminate how firms should modify their international marketing strategies in the face of traumatic global events when targeting consumers with high vs. low IDGCC in terms of framing messages about global brands. Additionally, using global brands that emphasize an optimistic outlook may help global marketers capture attention from consumers high in IDGCC.

• Originality/value
This study is one of the first to address traumatic events and hope, relating these concepts to IDGCC and global brand purchase intention in an international marketing context.

**Keywords:** Global brand purchase intentions, Global consumer culture, Hope, Japan,
Mortality salience, Terror management theory

**Paper type:** Research paper
Disasters, hope, and globalization: Exploring self-identification with global consumer culture in Japan

1. Introduction

Global brands are available under the same name in multiple countries with generally similar and centrally coordinated marketing strategies (Özsoyer and Altaras 2008). Global consumer culture reflects a group of consumers cutting across international boundaries that tends to consume global brands (Appadurai, 1990). The consumption of global brands helps these consumers identify as cosmopolitan, knowledgeable, and/or modern “citizens of the world.” Such consumers appreciate common sets of “consumption-related symbols” shared around the world, including common consumption activities, product categories, and global brands (Alden et al., 1999). For these consumers, such symbols strengthen self-esteem via the purchase of global brands.

This research explores global consumer culture from the perspective of existential psychology. Specifically, we combine global consumer culture and terror management theory (hereafter, TMT; Solomon, Greenberg, & Pyszczynski, 1991) to investigate how experiencing a traumatic event affects purchase intentions for global brands. TMT suggests that an awareness of the fragility of existence and the inevitability of one’s own death, or mortality salience, is likely to make people defend their culturally based belief systems and live up to their standards, thereby maintaining and enhancing self-esteem (Arndt et al., 2002; Greenberg et al., 1986). We explore the impact of traumatic events on global brand purchase intention because such disasters have devastating impacts and cause survivors in affected countries to cope with the problem of death by defending their own consumption patterns. In the face of a devastating local event, people thinking about the rest of their lives may look either inward or outward. For example, mortality salience stimulates inward-focused ethnocentric behavior.
Friese and Hofmann, 2008; Maheswaran and Agrawal, 2004); on the other hand, mortality salience stimulates outward-focused materialism to act as an anxiety buffer to protect self-esteem (Arndt et al., 2004). Materialistic individuals form strong connections to brands in response to existential insecurity (Rindfleisch, Burroughs, and Wong, 2009). Our study therefore examines the role of mortality salience as a moderator of the relationship between self-identification with global consumer culture (hereafter, IDGCC) and global brand purchase intention.

Along with the aforementioned relationships, we examine the role played by the concept of hope (MacInnis and de Mello, 2005). Hopeful consumers may be inclined toward global brands that invoke dreams, success, and global citizenship (Riefler, 2012; Strizhakova et al., 2008), as hope is a future-oriented emotion (Winterich and Haws, 2014). When consumers experience devastating, traumatic events, hope may act as a buffer and thus attenuate the effects of mortality salience. This relationship between hope and mortality salience has not been examined in the marketing literature, and our study is designed to provide a fuller understanding of the relationship between these constructs.

Our study site is Japan. An empirical exploration of these issues in Japan is timely from both social-psychological and international marketing perspectives for three reasons. First, Japan has suffered a series of devastating natural disasters, including the 2011 Tohoku earthquake and the 2016 Kumamoto earthquake, which provide a realistic setting in which to test our hypotheses. Second, Japan remains the world’s third largest economy (BBC News, 2018) and one in which global brands do considerable business. Third, as an interdependent society (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), Japan provides an appropriate context in which to investigate these relationships given its cultural uniqueness, ethnic homogeneity, and high levels of nationalism and internationalization (Liddicoat, 2007; Yoshino, 2005).
Our theoretical model is shown in Figure 1. In the remainder of this paper, we first establish consumer culture theory as our guiding conceptual framework and then review materialism, cosmopolitanism, and consumer ethnocentrism. Next, we formulate a series of hypotheses related to IDGCC, TMT, and hope and explain the method we use to test them. After describing and discussing our findings, we articulate the key theoretical and managerial implications. Finally, we acknowledge the limitations of this study and suggest directions for future research.

---INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE---

2. Theoretical background and hypotheses

2.1. IDGCC and its antecedents

IDGCC captures individuals’ “self-ascribed membership in or outright identification” with global consumer culture (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007, p. 255). Materialism, cosmopolitanism, and consumer ethnocentrism are linked to IDGCC and, in turn, purchase intentions for global brands (Cleveland, Laroche, and Papadopoulos, 2009). While we do not elaborate hypotheses pertaining to these antecedents of IDGCC, we do measure the impact of each in our empirical study. Materialism refers to “the importance a consumer attaches to worldly possessions and the belief that he/she will derive pleasure and happiness from their ownership” (Alden et al., 2006, p. 231). Materialism has become prevalent in Japan over the past several decades due to economic growth, secularism, and an increasing acceptance of Western societies being viewed as desirable (Ger and Belk, 1996). It is no surprise then that materialism is positively associated with IDGCC (Cleveland et al., 2016).

Cosmopolitanism reflects individuals’ willingness to engage with different cultures and their capacity to accommodate and understand alien cultures (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007). Consumers high in cosmopolitanism should be more likely to buy foreign-made products independent of other factors, such as message appeal, types of ads, or level of
economic development, perhaps for social-status seeking (e.g., see a review by Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2009). In the present study, we assert that both materialism and cosmopolitanism positively predict IDGCC.

While the above variables are hypothesized to be positively correlated with global brand purchases, some consumers associate global brands with the drawbacks of globalization (Riefler, 2012). For these consumers, purchasing foreign products is undesirable because, in their minds, it damages the domestic economy, leads to unemployment, and is unpatriotic (Klein, 2002). Ethnocentrism is one cause of negative attitudes toward global brands. Consumer ethnocentrism was defined by Shimp and Sharma (1987, p. 289) as “… the beliefs held by American consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign made products.” Ethnocentric consumers tend to exhibit more favorable attitudes toward and are more willing to buy products from culturally similar countries than products from culturally dissimilar countries (Watson and Wright, 2000). Moreover, Cleveland et al. (2016) found IDGCC to be negatively associated with consumer ethnocentrism. Thus, we believe that consumer ethnocentrism will be negatively associated with IDGCC.

2.2. IDGCC and global brand purchase

Global brands have worldwide awareness, availability, acceptance, and demand, thus “creating an identity, a sense of achievement and identification for consumers, symbolizing the aspired values of global consumer culture” (Özsoner and Altaras, 2008, p. 1). While not every global brand enhances consumers’ sense of identity and achievement (especially in low involvement product categories), the appreciation of global brands is associated with IDGCC and fosters feelings of global citizenship (Cleveland and Laroche, 2007; Riefler et al., 2012).

Social identity theory argues that people tend to classify themselves and others into various social categories, sometimes leading to in-group favoritism and discrimination against out-group members (Tajfel and Turner, 1985). In this light, consumers identify as global (i.e.,
they have higher IDGCC) when they identify with humanity as a whole, recognizing commonalities, rather than dissimilarities, among people around the world (Tu et al., 2012; Westjohn et al., 2012). Such a global identity should trigger a strong preference for global brands as self-verification in that consumers tend to confirm their identities by seeking consistency in their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Swann, 1983).

Prior research finds that consumers higher on IDGCC are more likely to choose a global brand instead of a local brand (Strizhakova et al., 2008; Westjohn et al., 2012). While a low score on IDGCC does not automatically predict a local brand preference given that a multiplicity of factors influence brand choice, we predict that consumers higher on IDGCC tend to respond favorably to global brands. We therefore offer the following hypothesis:

H1: IDGCC directly and positively affects global brand purchase intention.

2.3. Impact of mortality salience on global brand purchase intention

Over the past decade, numerous natural tragedies have befallen Japan (e.g., the 2011 Tohoku earthquake and the 2016 Kumamoto earthquake). Vivid portraits of these disasters arouse feelings of sadness, anxiety and vulnerability in consumers. Vulnerability is “a function of biophysical risk and social response and how this manifests itself locally, or the hazardousness of place” (Cutter et al., 2012. p. 600). This means that people become vulnerable not only when they are physically exposed to a disaster but also when they feel incapable of coping with the outcomes (Okazaki et al., 2015). In other words, how natural disasters affect people is not entirely dependent on nature but conditional on economic, cultural, and social relations. Among countries, Japan rates one of the highest in uncertainty avoidance or ambiguity intolerance (Hofstede, 1991); thus, Japanese people tend to feel even more vulnerable in the face of the unknown or unfamiliar events, such as earthquakes, compared with people who live in countries low in uncertainty avoidance.
From a social-psychological perspective, catastrophic events put consumers under tremendous stress and increase anxiety, making them aware of their mortality in daily life (Pyszczynski, 2004; Vail III et al., 2012). TMT is useful for understanding how humans respond to mortality salience—the awareness of vulnerability and inevitable death (Arndt et al., 2002; Greenberg et al., 1986). When people are reminded of their inevitable death, they are highly motivated to reduce the anxiety that accompanies death-related thoughts. While a self-preservation instinct is common to all animals, the human psyche triggers unique defense mechanisms or “anxiety buffers” by sustaining faith in two types of beliefs: (1) a belief that one has personal significance and value or self-esteem and (2) beliefs about the orderly and stable nature of the universe or cultural worldview (Arndt et al., 2004). Reminding people of death makes them especially sensitive to anything that harms their self-esteem and affects their cultural worldview; therefore, coping with death-related thoughts can impact consumer behavior. For example, prior research indicates that mortality salience stimulates materialism as an anxiety buffer to protect self-esteem (Arndt et al., 2004; Maheswaran and Agrawal, 2004), which seems related to the way people want to spend the rest of their lives and examine their priorities, including consumption-related priorities.

However, TMT indicates that anxiety buffers do not form while death remains in one’s conscious awareness. According to a dual-process theory of proximal and distal defense (Greenberg et al., 1994), the pursuit of self-esteem and faith in the cultural worldview can only occur under mortality salience driven by the unconscious accessibility of death-related thoughts (i.e., distal defenses) as opposed to those driven by conscious accessibility of death-related thoughts (i.e., proximal defenses). Thus, when distal defenses are activated, consumers are likely to use anxiety buffers to cope with the problem of death by living life to the fullest by, for example, consuming more luxury global brands.
Conversely, TMT also suggests two different motivations that may govern mortality salience effects: defense motivations and impression motivations (Maheswaran and Agrawal, 2004). Defense motivation refers to the desire to stick to material interests and existing beliefs, while impression motivation refers to the desire to comply with social and cultural norms and strive for self-esteem (Maheswaran and Agrawal, 2004). Therefore, defense motivations lead to strong support for and defense of one’s prior attitudes, causing worldview defense effects. In contrast, impression motivations make people more sensitive to others’ opinions, causing biases toward socially desirable goals.

In Japan, a country that has recently experienced natural disasters, TMT implies that at least initially, consumers should be more inwardly focused, reflecting on the immediate impacts of the event on their in-group (Burke et al., 2010). Regarding defensive motivations, TMT suggests that consumers may stay away from foreign brands out of a sense of obligation to defend and support national brands. In light of impression motivations, people may hesitate to buy expensive global brands because they may worry that others may see this behavior as extravagant and/or otherwise socially unacceptable. In Japan, consumers actively sought products from the earthquake-ravaged regions of Tohoku and Kumamoto. Throughout Japan, many consumers experienced sympathy for earthquake victims who suffered the loss of loved ones or had to leave their homes and live in shelters (Fawaz et al., 2018). This type of inward-looking purchase behavior seems especially consistent with collectivist and nationalistic cultures (Hofstede, 1991; Triandis, 1989). In such cultures, connectedness to friends and family is more important and desirable than self-indulgence or material success (Maheswaran and Agrawal, 2004).

The global branding literature also addresses whether looking inward in response to a natural disaster might modify purchase intentions. Prior research on global branding suggests that factors not directly related to objective product quality influence purchase intention. For
example, Ozsomer and Altaras (2008) observed that perceived “globalness” creates perceptions of brand superiority and purchase intent for global brands, even without objective evidence that quality is higher (see also Steenkamp et al., 2003). Dimofte et al. (2008) noted that even though consumers recognize that global brands have wide availability and recognition, they may not always find strong associations between global brands and product quality; ultimately, attitudes toward global brands are driven more by affect than by cognition. Collectively, this literature suggests that there are circumstances where an affective reaction to an event can trigger changes in the desirability of a global brand. Prior research suggests that mortality salience is related to individuals’ general affect (Dechesne et al., 2000; Goldenberg et al., 2001) and, along with a tendency to look inward in the face of disaster, makes consumers feel that global are brands less desirable, making consumers less likely to purchase them. Thus, we make the following prediction:

H2: Mortality salience directly and negatively affects global brand purchase intention.

2.4. Hope

When people are exposed to devastating situations and disasters, the process of recovery and the restoration of hope are important (Ursano et al., 2003). Clinical psychologists generally understand hope as related to positive future expectations (Snyder, 2000). Specifically, appraisal theorists define hope as “a positively valenced emotion evoked in response to an uncertain but possible goal-congruent outcome” (MacInnis and de Mello, 2005, p. 2). Consumers who are more hopeful may be less affected by disastrous situations because they perceive more ways to resist pessimistic views about the future or simply because they are resilient even under the most trying of circumstances. In contrast, less hopeful consumers are likely to have little hope for the future when they encounter such situations. In advertising, hope is conceptualized as one of four basic emotions, along with fear, relief, and disappointment (Rossiter and Percy, 1987).
Consumer culture theory has also focused on better understanding how groups of consumers interactively develop “constitutive and coproducive” mechanisms via interactions with communications from marketers in developing a sense of self (Arnould and Thompson, 2005). Holt et al. (2004) observed that the rise of global consumer culture leads individuals in different nations to participate in a shared conversation or worldview, often in spite of conflicting viewpoints. Improvements in transportation and mobility have increased exposure to artifacts of culture, including global brands (Levitt 1983; Holt, Quelch and Taylor 1994). Indeed, Arnould and Thompson (2005) have gone as far as to suggest that global brands are key cultural symbols that arise out of consumption culture and contribute to globalization.

Hopeful people feel a stronger likelihood of a positive future outcome (Nenkov et al., 2010). Having hope is to believe that a goal one yearns for is uncertain but attainable (de Mello and MacInnis, 2005). In the context of our study, consumers who maintain hope after disasters may continue to see global brands in an optimistic light as they focus on the positive aspects of global consumer culture, such as striving for global unity and making the world a better place for all. People may see global brands as helping to produce positive outcomes for the future, as they are part of global consumer culture while providing superior quality, social prestige, efficiency, and conformity (Alden et al., 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Holton, 2000; Steenkamp et al., 2003), all of which could eventually lead to a better life (Zhou et al., 2008). Hopeful consumers would be more likely to support global brands because global brands provide many benefits: they symbolize cultural ideals, provide the highest quality, lend prestige, promote social responsibility, and help people be their most authentic selves (see Özsomer and Altaras, 2008). Moreover, attitudes toward global products are related to positive motives, such as power, stimulation, and universalism (see Steenkamp and de Jong, 2010). Finally, a global identity is positively related to openness to experience (Westjohn et al., 2012). This leads us to posit that hopeful consumers will be more likely to purchase global
products:

H3: Hope directly and positively affects global brand purchase intention.

2.5. Moderating role of mortality salience

The theoretical argument for hope implies that consumers high in hope may address mortality salience in a more positive way. Dechesne et al. (2000) found that mortality salience increases optimism in that students expected more goals from their favorite football team in the upcoming season under conditions of high mortality salience. Similarly, Arndt et al. (2006) found that for individuals high in optimism, mortality salience might ease the processing of loss-framed messages (e.g., a serious illness). Under conditions of mortality salience, the greater the hope for the future, the more likely consumers are to relate to the ideals of global consumer culture. Under these circumstances, individuals may focus on better life outcomes by purchasing brands with a global image. Thus, mortality salience may actually strengthen, rather than attenuating, the effect of hope on global brand purchase intention by departing from a cultural worldview. More formally, we hypothesize the following:

H4: Mortality salience strengthens the relationship between hope and global brand purchase intention.

As for the link between IDGCC and global brand purchase intention, mortality salience may have different effects on different consumers. For those low in IDGCC, it makes sense that mortality salience would lead to more inward thinking and, in turn, less enthusiasm for purchases of global products. Indeed, research in Japan suggests that mortality salience enhances adherence to a collectivist cultural worldview and the defense of societal norms such as modesty and harmony, attenuating attitudes toward success (Wakimoto, 2006) or reaffirming the importance of in-group duties (Kashima et al., 2004).
Conversely, research on global consumer culture suggests that those with high IDGCC may view mortality salience as reinforcing the advantages of purchasing global brands in terms of recovering and achieving success. Indeed, prior research has found that mortality salience increases materialism in response to existential insecurity (Arndt et al., 2004; Maheswaran and Agrawal, 2004). Furthermore, materialistic consumers are likely to establish strong bonds with their brands (Rindfleisch et al., 2009). Prior research drawing on TMT in Japan suggests that mortality salience leads to a marginally greater preference for high-status products over low-status products (Heine et al., 2002). Taken together, we predict that mortality salience may activate materialism and high-status seeking as an anxiety buffer, especially among those who are high in IDGCC, driving consumers to seek a closer relationship with global brands. Hence, we hypothesize the following:

H5: Mortality salience strengthens the relationship between IDGCC and global brand purchase intention.

3. Method

3.1. Study design

A professional research firm was contracted to conduct an online survey in Japan. The participants were recruited from the firm’s registered panel members, who were compensated in cash for participating. The respondents were distributed throughout the country, while the gender and age distributions approximated those of the Japanese population. As a result, 720 consumers participated in the survey. The participants were randomly assigned to either the experimental or the control group, which were equal in size.

Appendix 1 shows the measures used in this study. With the exception of global brand purchase intention, all measures were drawn from prior research and translated/back-translated to achieve equivalence in meaning and salience of the constructs (Douglas and

---

1 Males/female ratio=1.06; 20-29 years=14.1%, 30-39 years=17.4%, 40-49 years=22.3%, 50-59 years = 21.4%, 60-69 years=16.3%, 70-79 years=8.5%
Nijssen, 2003). The scale for IDGCC consisted of eight items adapted from Cleveland and Laroche (2007). Cosmopolitanism was measured by a scale proposed by Cleveland et al. (2009). Consumer ethnocentrism was measured by the widely used, abbreviated 10-item version of Shimp and Sharma’s (1987) measure. Materialism was adapted from Richins (2004), which was also used by Cleveland et al. (2015a). Finally, hope was measured by a scale proposed by Snyder (2000). All items were measured on a seven-point scale anchored by 1 (completely disagree) and 7 (completely agree), with 4 being the neutral point (I don’t know/cannot answer).

According to a meta-analysis by Burke et al. (2010), there are four dominant ways to prime subjects’ mortality salience: (a) standard death essay questions, (b) subliminal death priming, (c) survey questions, and (d) videos, stories, or slide shows with death themes. After carefully reviewing prior TMT research conducted in Japan (e.g., Kobayashi et al., 2014; Wakimoto, 2011), we combined approaches (c) and (d). First, we asked the respondents in the experimental group to read a detailed earthquake scenario describing the 2016 Kumamoto earthquake, including the number of casualties. For the control condition, we used an adverse event not related to death, dental pain, that has been widely used in prior research to ensure that the results were actually related to mortality salience (Burke et al., 2010).

We tested the validity of our experimental manipulations post hoc on a separate sample of 52 Japanese consumers. These participants were randomly assigned to either the manipulation condition or the control condition, mirroring the design of our actual experiment. We assessed participants’ level of death anxiety, asking them to rate the extent to which reading the scenario made them feel aware of their own mortality. An ANOVA indicated that this manipulation was effective in inducing death anxiety (M_{mortality}=4.41, M_{control}=2.24; F(1, 51)=23.26, p < .01).
Next, the respondents in the experimental group rated themselves on the Japanese version of the Collett-Lester Fear of Death Scale (Lester and Abdel-Khalek, 2003). This is a self-reported measure consisting of four subscales (own death, own dying, others’ deaths, and others dying) and 29 items in total. In essence, we exploited the interactive testing effect of this scale for the purposes of the experiment. Respondents in the control group did not receive data about earthquakes, nor were they asked to complete the Fear of Death Scale.

Previous research suggests that distal defense only occurs when there is a sufficient distraction or delay between the death prime and the dependent measures such that the death-related thoughts can fade from consciousness (Greenberg et al., 1994). To this end, after completing the Collett-Lester Fear of Death Scale, subjects were first asked to read an innocuous story about the biological features of dogs. They were then asked to complete the Japanese version of the Positive and Negative Affective Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988). This schedule examines the subject’s present mood across eight positive affect items (e.g., excited, enthusiastic) and eight negative affect items (e.g., distressed, upset) each measured on a five-point scale. These two tasks were designed to provide a delay.

In terms of purchase intention, a hypothetical scenario was given to the respondents. In the following scenario, the respondents needed to purchase a new vacuum cleaner because their old one was broken:

*Imagine that you need to buy a new vacuum cleaner because the one you currently own is old and has been having problems. You go to a major department store and the salesperson tells you about Brand X. The salesperson indicates that the company that makes Brand X is based overseas but has a very high sales volume and is one of the bestselling vacuum cleaners in all of the markets where it is offered. Brand X positions itself as an award-winning, high-performance brand that is reliable and as an energy-efficient brand that is ideal for any household. Brand X promotes itself through advertising in several different media throughout the world. You are shown a model of Brand X that costs just a little more than you were planning to spend on the vacuum cleaner. The model has airflow levels sufficient to meet your needs and includes attractive features such as being self-propelled and easy to maintain.*

---

2 We used the Collett-Lester Fear of Death Scale that was previously translated, back-translated, and empirically validated in Japan by Tsujimoto and Kubota (2013).
After reading this scenario, the respondents were asked to rate the likelihood that they would purchase this global brand. The scenario specifies that the global brand is foreign owned.

3.2. Analytical approach

Covariance structure analysis (CSA) as implemented in MPlus Version 7.3 (Muthén and Muthén, 2014) served as the main analytical tool for the quantitative analysis. Our empirical analysis consisted of three stages: confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the measurement model, structural equation modeling (SEM) using full information maximum likelihood to estimate the linear effects, and a latent moderated structural (LMS) equations approach to estimate the parameters of the full model.

We specified the measurement model as six correlated latent variables, and we tested whether the common factor model holds for all of them (Lazarsfeld, 1959). Additionally, model fit criteria such as the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) help quantify the model’s level of misfit. Construct reliability was assessed by means of factor reliability (Werts et al., 1978), which provides consistent estimates of construct score reliability, and Cronbach’s alpha, which tends to underestimate the reliability and therefore serves as a lower bound (Sijtsma, 2009). The average variance extracted (AVE) as the average squared standardized loading was used as a criterion of convergent validity. Finally, in addition to the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT, Henseler et al., 2015) was applied to examine discriminant validity. Simulation studies have demonstrated the efficacy of this relatively new statistic (Voorhees et al., 2016). The first stage of the statistical analysis also included a scale purification process. Items that evoked Heywood cases (Krijnen et al., 1998) or that substantially distracted from measurement model quality were discarded. Appendix 1 reports the initial and final lists of indicators, together with their loading estimates.
The second stage of the statistical analysis involved a maximum likelihood estimation of the linear effects model (Model 1). This estimation round provided standardized coefficients and squared multiple correlations (R squared values) of the endogenous constructs. It was used to test hypotheses H1, H2, and H3, all of which refer to the main effects. The theoretical fit index (TFI; see Hair et al., 2017) permitted the quantification of the difference in fit between the measurement model and the structural model.

The third stage of the statistical analysis employed an LMS approach, as suggested by Klein and Moosbrugger (2000). The interaction effects corresponding to hypotheses H4 and H5 were simultaneously included in the model. In order to avoid confounding interaction effects with curvilinear effects, we followed Edwards’ (2009) strong advice to include all quadratic terms of the involved predictors. Concretely, we added the quadratic terms of hope (i.e., hope × hope) and IDGCC (i.e., IDGCC × IDGCC). Since mortality salience is dichotomous, no quadratic term was added for this variable.

4. Results

4.1. Measurement model assessment

The CFA omnibus test yielded a $\chi^2$ value of 2163.452 at 449 degrees of freedom ($p<0.001$). The SRMR was 0.057 and thus clearly below the value of 0.08 recommended by Hu and Bentler (1998, 1999). The root mean square error of approximation was 0.073 (90% confidence interval: [0.070; 0.076]), so the threshold of 0.08 was met (Browne and Cudeck, 1993). A comparative fit index of 0.904 and a Tucker-Lewis Index of 0.894 complemented the other figures. Taking into account the relative complexity of the model, as well as the sample size, the model fit appeared satisfactory and in line with comparable studies (c.f. De Nisco et al., 2017; Garrett et al., 2017; Sharma et al., 2018).

---INSERT TABLE I ABOUT HERE---
Table I reports the reliability and validity of the employed scales. Reliability ranged from 0.800 to 0.952. A similar impression was given by Cronbach’s alpha, which ranged from 0.794 to 0.943. Consequently, the reliability of all measured constructs can be viewed as sound based on common psychometric thresholds (see, for instance, Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

The average variance extracted of all constructs exceeds 0.5, which provides evidence of the constructs’ convergent validity. Moreover, since the largest squared correlation among latent variables was 0.346 (the latent variable correlations are reported in Appendix 2), the Fornell-Larcker criterion was met. The highest HTMT value for the whole model was 0.618 (see Table I), which provides further evidence of the discriminant validity of the measured constructs.

4.2. Structural model assessment and findings

The overall test of fit for the linear model yielded a $\chi^2$ value of 2562.746 at 543 degrees of freedom (p<0.001). Compared to the CFA, the RMSEA slightly improved to 0.072 (90% confidence interval: [0.069; 0.075]), the SRMR increased to 0.067, and the CFI and TLI became 0.888 and 0.878, respectively. The TFI of 0.018 indicated that the structural equation model’s additional variables, parameters and restrictions resulted in only a minor decrease in fit compared to the measurement model (Hair et al., 2017).

The $R^2$ value of the intention to purchase an international brand was 0.368 (adjusted $R^2$: 0.364), and the $R^2$ value of IDGCC was even higher at 0.490 (adjusted $R^2$: 0.486). In light of meta-studies of typical effect sizes of consumer behavior research (see, e.g., Peterson et al., 1985), the explanatory power of the linear effects model appears to be good.

The results for each effect, along with the hypotheses testing results, are reported in Table II. With regard to the endogenous variable, IDGCC, we found that all antecedents have a significant positive effect. Looking at Cohen’s effect sizes, materialism and
cosmopolitanism have strong and moderate-to-strong effects, respectively. In contrast, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism was not substantial. Notably, the sign of this effect was positive. An examination of the latent variable correlations revealed that the correlation between IDGCC and consumer ethnocentrism was positive as well (see Appendix 2), which means that the effect’s sign is not due to multicollinearity.

---INSERT TABLE II ABOUT HERE---

Hypotheses 1 to 3 were tested as part of Model 1 (linear effects only). IDGCC largely determined global brand purchase intention, i.e., H1 was supported. This antecedent had by far the largest standardized path coefficient (0.509, p<0.001). The experimental factor, mortality salience, did not have a significant main effect, i.e., there was no empirical support for H2. The effect of hope on global brand purchase intention was positive and significant (supporting H3) but hardly substantial, as evidenced by a standardized path coefficient of 0.061 (p<0.05).

Model 2 (the full model) revealed that mortality salience played a partial role as a moderator variable. While there was no significant interaction effect of mortality salience and hope (no support for H4), mortality salience did significantly (p<0.05) influence the strength of the effect of IDGCC on global brand purchase intention (path coefficient: 0.120). There was thus support for H5, i.e., a mortality salience threat increased the effect of participants’ global consumerism on their intentions to buy global brands. In this way, the participants who experienced a mortality salience threat were more likely to reaffirm values related to global consumerism and buy global brands.

5. Discussion

5.1. Theoretical implications

From a theoretical perspective, this study is one of the first attempts to examine the interplay between consumer culture theory and TMT. The relationships among materialism,
cosmopolitanism, consumer ethnocentrism, hope, traumatic events, IDGCC, and global brand purchase intention were tested. At a theoretical level, the basic concept behind consumer culture—that there is a group of consumers across markets that shares global consumption values—is strongly supported in this context, suggesting widespread applicability. Importantly, the IDGCC construct is found to have considerable explanatory value and to be central to Japanese consumers’ preference for global brands. While it appears that those low in IDGCC may revert to in-group favoritism in the face of disasters and mortality salience, those high in IDGCC do not tend to revert to these instincts. We also find that, as expected, cosmopolitanism and materialism are antecedents of IDGCC, suggesting that these constructs should be included in future theoretical models applying consumer culture theory.

An interesting but somewhat counterintuitive finding that is not consistent with prior theorizing around global consumer culture was the positive relationship between IDGCC and consumer ethnocentrism. Comparative research for eight countries (Sweden, Hungary, Greece, Mexico, Chile, Canada, Korea, and India) indicates that acquiring behaviors characterizing global consumer culture results in diminishing levels of consumer ethnocentrism (Cleveland et al., 2015a). The interpretation of the present study is that perhaps being a “global consumer” means something different in Japan. This notion is consistent with the findings of Cleveland et al. (2015b) that acculturation to global consumer culture was negatively correlated with consumer ethnocentrism (and positively correlated with materialism) but that, at the same time, Japanese ethnic identification was positively correlated with materialism. Additionally, the findings of Strizhakova et al. (2008) indicate that consumer ethnocentrism positively affects the belief in global citizenship in developed countries because “more ethnocentric consumers in developed markets with a large number of global brands may have a stronger belief in global citizenship because of their belief in the power and strength of their own domestic brands” (p. 62), which may provide some insight
into how Japanese consumers think. Essentially, some Japanese consumers may be ethnocentric but still value global consumer culture.

Riefler et al. (2012) argue that the relationship between cosmopolitanism and global brands is complex, with consumer cosmopolitanism being focused in large part on foreign brands that allow immersion into foreign cultures instead of truly global brands. They identified a “local cosmopolitan” segment that consists of consumers who simultaneously exhibit the highest levels of local orientation and cosmopolitanism. This seems consistent with a view in international marketing that consumers in post-industrialized countries may be confronted with the need for multiple, as opposed to dichotomous, identities that include both local and cosmopolitan aspects (Askegaard et al., 2005). Thus, at a theoretical level, global consumer culture and consumer ethnocentrism may not be mutually exclusive in some contexts—some consumers may want to pursue status appeals while simultaneously caring about national brands or, for cosmopolitan consumers, foreign brands. Although the effect we found was modest, the results of the present study support this interpretation. Furthermore, the latent variable correlations in Appendix 2 show that consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to materialism and cosmopolitanism.

Another theoretical implication of our findings is that IDGCC represents a strong desire to obtain global citizenship in everyday consumption. Based on TMT, this process eventually enhances self-esteem. Thus, when individuals are strongly committed to being members of an elite community, as represented by global consumer culture, mortality salience indirectly activates self-esteem as an anxiety buffer.

The study’s results also support the notion that high levels of hope have a positive impact on global brand purchase intention. Thus, an optimistic view of the future appears somewhat related to a propensity to purchase global brands for quality and status. While not as strong as the direct effect of IDGCC on global brand purchase intention, hope held in the
face of mortality salience may also contribute to global brand purchase intention ($p=0.066$). This finding seems consistent with evidence from prior research on IDGCC (e.g., Cleveland et al., 2009; Cleveland et al., 2015a; Cleveland et al., 2016). In both cases, mortality salience seems to increase the strength of the relationship between individual difference measures and global brand purchase intention, implying that people are reaffirming cultural (or perhaps even personal) worldviews. In other words, following a mortality salience threat, people seem to behave more in line with their beliefs in their own identity and future expectations.

5.2. Managerial implications

Our findings yield two important managerial implications. First, our results confirm a significant and positive interaction effect between mortality salience and IDGCC. This is consistent with our view that self-esteem is the main driver of IDGCC. This finding could be important at a managerial level, as it suggests a category of consumers in Japan who tend to identify with global consumer culture and buy global brands based on a personality characteristic. These consumers—especially individuals defined by strong self-construal—may serve as a solid target market. This segment is potentially large considering the market exemplified by global luxury brands. According to McKinsey & Co, Japanese consumers spend approximately $33 billion each year on luxury goods, which accounts for 30 to 40 percent of some global brands’ profits (BoF, 2017). Although we do not assume that luxury brand purchasers are necessarily high in IDGCC, the large size of the luxury market in Japan suggests a very substantial segment of consumers who value global consumer culture and global brands.

Second, while targeting consumers with certain personality characteristics can be complex, psychographic segmentation is employed by many marketers, and in some instances, it may be possible to identify and match appropriate advertising formats and media outlets to consumers with these characteristics. For example, the results for hope suggest that
advertising featuring an optimistic outlook due to the use of the brand may help global marketers capture attention from those high in IDGCC. This may even be true in the aftermath of a disaster, although a hopeful advertising appeal would, of course, need to be framed in a highly sensitive manner. This advertising strategy may be especially effective for retirement savings and life insurance products.

6. Limitations and future research directions

Three limitations of this study should be recognized. First, the consumer ethnocentrism scale adapted from Shimp and Sharma (1987) did not produce the expected results in this study. This finding may be observed because this scale has not been thoroughly validated in Japan; thus, construct equivalence has not been achieved. While local researchers endeavored to ensure an accurate translation of the scale, we wonder whether equivalence issues may be affecting the results (Douglas and Nijssen, 2003). Likewise, despite prior evidence from terror management research, earthquake-induced mortality salience did not have any direct effect on global brand purchase intention. Second, the study used an explicit death prime that could encourage the respondents’ conscious information processing or proximal defense. In essence, this research was based on a scenario where the results were recorded within a limited period (though we did introduce a delay) rather than under real-world conditions. In the context of death and mortality salience in particular, this type of experimental study is common and consistent with the literature. Nonetheless, the setting could place limits on external validity. Third, we did not control for a few other factors that may influence global brand consumption (e.g., English proficiency and international experience) and mortality salience (e.g., the level of previous exposure to earthquakes and preparedness for such disasters).

In addition to these limitations, future research should address different causes of mortality salience. For example, increasing uncertainty due to terrorism or armed conflicts
could be used in an experimental scenario. The rise of conservatism in world politics may reflect an increasing number of traumatic events, as reactive political ideology can be seen as a defense against threats. Future research should address whether such a reaction toward threats is the outcome of mortality salience driven by unconscious, as opposed to conscious, accessibility of death-related thoughts consistent with a dual-process theory of proximal and distal defense. In addition, variables related to religiosity may influence the effect of mortality salience. To address this question, cross-cultural research in multiple countries with a diverse range of political and religious settings may be needed in the future.

In terms of future research focusing on IDGCC, it would be useful to delve into the distinction between global brands made by foreign-based companies, global brands made by domestic companies, and local brands. This distinction of brand type into both global vs. local and foreign vs. domestic groups would be particularly useful in fleshing out the impact of cosmopolitanism on purchase behavior. In addition, more research focused on the antecedents of IDGCC tested in this study, materialism, consumer ethnocentrism, and cosmopolitanism would be highly worthwhile, as the findings of several studies have been complex. In this regard, more tests of these relationships based on cultural factors, level of economic development, and product category type would be helpful.
References


Note: IDGCC=Self-identification with global consumer culture

Figure 1. Research model
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th># of indicators</th>
<th>Factor reliability</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha (α)</th>
<th>Average variance extracted (AVE)</th>
<th>Max. HTMT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Materialism</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.863</td>
<td>0.860</td>
<td>0.560</td>
<td>0.599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cosmopolitanism</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.952</td>
<td>0.943</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>0.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer ethnocentrism</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.860</td>
<td>0.855</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td>0.292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDGCC</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.943</td>
<td>0.941</td>
<td>0.679</td>
<td>0.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global brand purchase intention</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td>0.573</td>
<td>0.618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hope</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.906</td>
<td>0.905</td>
<td>0.581</td>
<td>0.412</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: IDGCC=Self-identification with global consumer culture

Table I. Measurement model results
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Model 1 (linear effects only)</th>
<th>Model 2 (full model)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>p-value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDGCC</td>
<td>— (Control) Age</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.253</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— (Control) Gender</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.940</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— (Control) Materialism</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— (Control) Consumer ethnocentrism</td>
<td>0.144</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— (Control) Consumer cosmopolitanism</td>
<td>0.364</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global brand purchase intention</td>
<td>— (Control) Age</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.413</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— (Control) Gender</td>
<td>-0.224</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>-0.219</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— (Control) Hope × Hope</td>
<td>-0.018</td>
<td>0.546</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>— (Control) IDGCC × IDGCC</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.250</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1 (+) IDGCC</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.509</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 (−) Mortality salience</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.085</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3 (+) Hope</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4 (+) Hope × Mortality salience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5 (+) IDGCC × Mortality salience</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.120</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: IDGCC=Self-identification with global consumer culture
Model fit: $\chi^2=2562.746$ (df=543, p<0.001), RMSEA=0.072 (90% CI=[0.069; 0.075]), CFI=0.888, TLI=0.878, TFI=0.018.

Table II: Structural model results.
## Appendix 1. Measurement items and loading estimates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct (source)</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Standardized Loading Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-identification with global consumer culture (adapted from Cleveland and Laroche, 2007)</strong></td>
<td>The way I consume products is influenced by the advertising of foreign or global companies.</td>
<td>0.830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advertising by foreign or global brands has a strong influence on my brand choices when I buy products.</td>
<td>0.835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I pay attention to consumption trends among people in my age group that live in other countries.</td>
<td>0.896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I try to pattern my lifestyle, including way of dressing, furnishing my living space, and consuming leisure products, etc., to be a global consumer.</td>
<td>0.844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like reading magazines about the lifestyle, fashion, and general consumption trends in other countries.</td>
<td>0.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I prefer to consume products that I think are popular in many countries around the world.</td>
<td>0.546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I actively seek products that are not only thought of as ‘local.’</td>
<td>0.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I identify with famous international brands.</td>
<td>0.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Materialism (Richins, 2004)</strong></td>
<td>I like a lot of luxury in my life.</td>
<td>0.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Buying things gives me lots of pleasure.</td>
<td>0.719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>My life would be better if I owned certain things I don’t have.</td>
<td>[dropped]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I admire people who own expensive homes, cars, and clothes.</td>
<td>0.851</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I’d be happier if I could afford more things.</td>
<td>[dropped]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It sometimes bothers me quite a bit that I can’t afford to buy all the things that I like.</td>
<td>0.672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like to own things that impress people.</td>
<td>0.652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cosmopolitanism (Cleveland et al., 2009)</strong></td>
<td>I enjoy exchanging ideas with people from other cultures or countries.</td>
<td>0.857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I am interested in learning more about people who live in other countries.</td>
<td>0.916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I enjoy being with people from other countries to learn about their views and approaches.</td>
<td>0.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like to observe people of other countries, to see what I can learn from them.</td>
<td>0.934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like to learn about other ways of life.</td>
<td>0.748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I find people from other cultures stimulating.</td>
<td>0.845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consumer ethnocentrism (abbreviated 10-item version; Shimp and Sharma, 1987)</strong></td>
<td>Japanese products, first, last, and foremost.</td>
<td>[dropped]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Japanese out of jobs.</td>
<td>0.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Japanese.</td>
<td>0.903</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country. A real Japanese should always buy Japanese-made products. Only those products that are unavailable in Japan should be imported. We should purchase products manufactured in Japan instead of letting other countries get rich off us. Japanese should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Japanese business and causes unemployment. It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Japanese products. Japanese consumers who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Japanese out of work.

Hope (Snyder, 2000)

- I can think of many ways to get out of a jam. 0.809
- I energetically pursue my goals. 0.825
- I feel tired most of the time. [dropped]
- There are lots of ways around any problem. 0.748
- I am easily downed in an argument. [dropped]
- I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are important to me. 0.598
- I worry about my health. [dropped]
- Even when others get discouraged, I know I can find a way to solve the problem. 0.806
- My past experiences have prepared me well for my future. 0.753
- I’ve been pretty successful in life. [dropped]
- I usually find myself worrying about something. [dropped]
- I meet the goals that I set for myself. 0.775

Global brand purchase intention (original)

- I want to purchase this vacuum cleaner. 0.733
- I think it will run out if I don’t buy it now. 0.682
- I want to follow the sales person’s advice. 0.847
### Appendix 2. Latent variable correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
<th>6.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Materialism</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Consumer cosmopolitanism</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>0.877</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Consumer ethnocentrism</td>
<td>0.231</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. IDGCC</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>0.510</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td>0.824</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Global brand purchase intention</td>
<td>0.515</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Hope</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.399</td>
<td>0.177</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.762</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: IDGCC=Self-identification with global consumer culture. The italicized numbers are the square roots of the AVE of each construct’s indicators. Except for the correlation between materialism and hope, all estimates are statistically significant (p<0.001). Model fit of the common factor model: χ²=2163.452 (df=449), p < 0.001, SRMR=0.057, RMSEA=0.073 (90% CI=[0.070; 0.076]), CFI=0.904, TLI=0.894.