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*“Dual quality issue and consumer expectation in the  
European food market: A study in Poland and Italy”*

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### **Statement of Original Authorship**

“I hereby certify that the submitted work is my own work, was completed while registered as a candidate for the degree stated on the Title Page, and I have not obtained a degree elsewhere based on the research presented in this submitted work.”

Negin Fathinejad

## Abstract

This dissertation explores the consumer acceptance level (CAL) of quality differences in global branded food products (GBFP) across the EU Member States in the context of localization strategies. Face-to-face consumer interviews were conducted through a structured questionnaire of 637 consumers in Poland and Italy in summer 2019 to assess the CAL regarding i) the perception and acceptance of differences in product feature and ii) the perceived firms' motivations to offer different varieties of the same GBFP in the different EU Member States. It was tested whether CAL of quality differences varies across countries. The clustering of variables method was used to group the strongly related homogeneous variables and create a meaningful structure.

Analysis of Poland's sample data suggests that some differences in taste, color, and texture of GBFPs can be acceptable to consumers. In contrast, differences in ingredients, composition, and even the product's size are not acceptable. This suggests that if global branded firms adopt localization strategies in the Polish market, they may make changes in taste, color, and texture, but changes to ingredients and product size might increase consumer dissatisfaction.

Breakdown of Italy sample data shows that ingredients and composition are linked to taste, color, and texture, included in the "pleasure feature group" with similar CAL of differences. However, CAL for Ingredients content percentages linked it to labeling under "information group." The result suggests that differences in the pleasure feature group are less critical than those in the information group.

Both countries are similarly indifferent about packaging and price differences, according to the samples. Interestingly, for both countries, rules and regulations are acceptable as a reason to have various qualities of food. Perhaps, consumers think that the rules and regulations protect them even if it causes some product changes.

*Keywords:* dual quality, food market, localization, standardization, consumer acceptance, global brand, variable clustering, classification, consumer expectation, product features, firms reason

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### **List of Abbreviations**

AIM	The European Brands Association
ANEC	The European consumer voice in standardization
BEUC	The European Consumer Organisation
CAL	Customer Acceptance Level
COO	Country of Origin
DC-SIP	Difference in Composition of Seemingly Identical Branded Product
EU	European Union
GBFP	Global Brand Food Product
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
JRC	Joint Research Centre
LBFP	Local Brand Food Product
MNC	Multi-National Corporations
PCAMIX	Principal component analysis of mixed data
QUID	Quantitative Ingredient Declaration
R&D	Research and Development
UCPD	Unfair Commercial Practices Directive

## **Chapter 1 Dual quality issue and consumer expectation in the European food market: A study in Poland and Italy**

The European parliament defines the issue of dual quality as “marketing across the Member States of goods as being identical when, in reality, they have a significantly different composition or characteristics may mislead consumers and cause them to take a transactional decision that they would not have taken otherwise” (European Parliament, 2019). The issue is becoming increasingly crucial for stakeholders and policymakers, especially in the food market. Consumers of the eastern EU countries such as Slovakia, Hungary, and the Czech Republic have been claiming that they are receiving global branded food products (GBFPs) with lower quality in their domestic market compared to other EU countries, and their representatives put political pressure on the European Parliament and the Commission (Vaqué, 2017).

According to Bartková (2019), this issue has been present in Europe for over 30 years; however, people are currently increasingly becoming aware of it. The concern received its greatest attention from stakeholders and scholars when Jean Claude Juncker (at the time President of the European Commission) claimed that it is not acceptable to have “second-hand consumers” in the EU and that consumers in Eastern Europe must receive the same quality as consumers in Western Europe (European Commission, 2017). According to Russo et al. (2020), the dual quality issue includes objective components such as taste, color, and weight that may be measured and examined more easily and subjective components such as consumers’ imperfect information, consumer choice, consumer perception, and purchase motivation. Besides the comprehensive investigation regarding the dual quality objective components done by the European Commission in 2019, this research tries to study subjective components by focusing on consumer behavior and opinion regarding the dual quality issue.

## **Research motivation**

This research was motivated by the importance of consumer protection against any type of unfair trade practices in the EU food market, respecting all Member States' equality, terminating any discrimination, and the European Commission's aim to restore consumer trust and confidence in this single market.

The European Commission, Joint Research Centre (JRC), and several scholars are studying this issue in considerable depth, and the occurrence of dual quality practices has been thoroughly investigated (section 2.2.2. of this dissertation). However, empirical studies concerning consumer opinion about the dual quality are still sparse. This research attempts to close the gap and add to the topic's theoretical understanding and managerial applications.

## **Research objectives and questions**

This research investigates consumer opinion regarding the localization strategy of GBFPs in the EU market. Bellows and Hamm (2001) define food system localization as “the change toward concentrating a food system locally that can be applied in diverse situations” (Bellows & Hamm, 2001). International food firms have different motivations to localize or adapt their products to the local market, such as different cultures and customer tastes in the local market or reducing cost and increasing profit. Some of these motivations may not be acceptable by the customer and cause dissatisfaction. This research concerns the CAL of the firm's motivations and strategies to adapt food products to each country's market; specifically, consumers' subjective approval of the various dimensions of a localization strategy.<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, it identifies

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<sup>1</sup> Measured on a 5-point modified Likert scale from 1 (Absolutely not acceptable) to 5 (Absolutely acceptable).

the attributes of GBFP such as taste, color, ingredients, and package that are considered acceptable localization practices by consumers.

Understanding consumer opinion helps policymakers develop better regulations and policies at the EU level to protect consumers, terminate discrimination, and increase the trust between all Member States. It also helps companies choose the strategies for better developing their business and keeping or increasing their market share. To achieve this purpose, Italy as a western EU country and Poland as an eastern EU country are chosen for the empirical analysis. The specific aims of the thesis are as follows:

- a) From the consumer perspective: to understand the consumer expectation from GBFP purchase, how the firm's motivations to provide consumers with different quality of the same GBFP are ranked according to the CAL, and what attributes or characteristics of products are acceptable to be different in each country.
- b) From the firm's perspective: to suggest a classification for product characteristics that guides international firms to make a hybrid decision regarding localization/standardization strategy in developing their business internationally by studying what changes in GBFPs are not acceptable by consumers. Moreover, the thesis aims to investigate the impact of travel frequency on consumer behavior, as Levitt (1993) and Wei and Yazdanifard (2014) suggested, satisfy consumers.
- c) From the policymaker perspective: to understand the difference of consumer behavior in western and eastern Member States of the EU regarding GBFPs and regulate the dual quality activities to protect consumers from feeling discriminated against.

The comprehensive research objective is to understand consumer expectations, perception, and general behavior regarding purchasing GBFPs and CAL regarding differences in the same product under the same global brand.

According to Italy and Poland's samples, the investigation explores the acceptable attribute changes of GBFPs based on consumers' opinion and the link between travel frequency and CAL regarding the dual quality of GBFPs. The objective leads us to the following core sub-objectives and the following questions:

Subobjective 1: To investigate the acceptable firms' motivations for product adaptation according to the consumer point of view.

Questions:

- What are the firms' motivations for product adaptation (localization)?
- Which motivations are acceptable by consumers?
- Which motivations are not acceptable in the consumer perspective (may lead the companies toward the dual quality issue)?

Subobjective 2: To investigate whether GBFPs' attribute changes may lead to dual quality issues according to the consumer's perspective.

Questions:

- Which of the GBFP's attributes are acceptable by consumers to be varied in different countries.
- What is the consumer opinion about standardizing GBFPs in the world?

Subobjective 3: To investigate the reasons for choosing a GBFP over a local brand food product (LBFP) from the consumer's perspective.

Question:

- What are the consumer reasons for choosing GBFPs over LBFPs?

Subobjective 4: To investigate the impact of international travel habits on consumer expectation of the standardized GBFP in all countries

Question:

- Would increases in international traveling impact the consumer belief about standardizing GBFPs in the world?

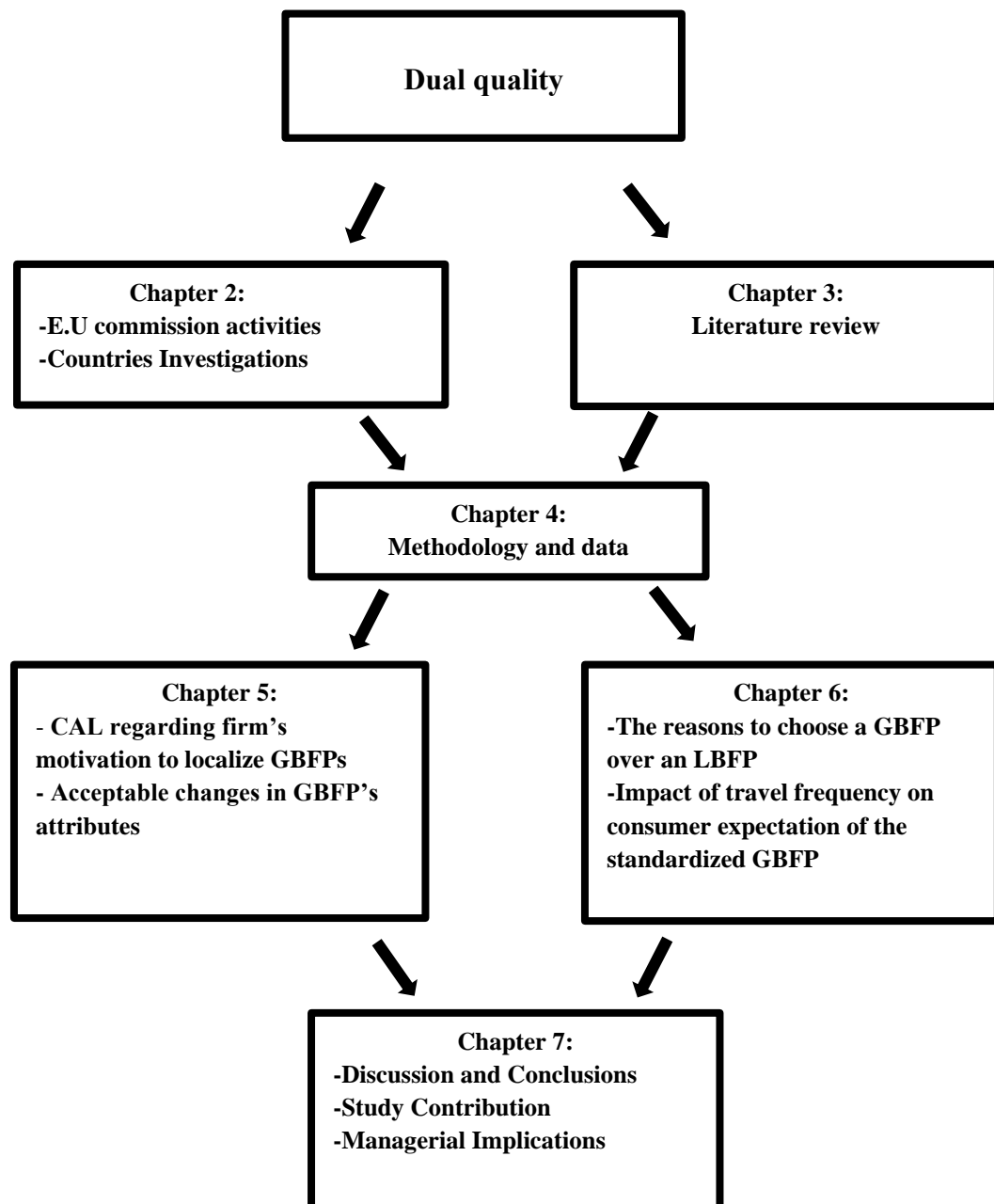


## Research Framework and Structure

Figure 1.1 illustrates the framework and structure of the research. The overall structure of the thesis comprises eight chapters, including this brief introductory chapter. The rest of the thesis is organized as follows:

**Figure 1.1**

*Research Framework and Structure*



Chapter 2 provides an overview of the dual quality issue in the EU and the European Commission actions toward solving the issue. It includes a review of the investigations by some Eastern European countries' governments to confirm if the dual quality practice is occurring in the EU.

Chapter 3 lays out a literature review on consumer perceptions of GBFPs, the globalization and localization strategies, the primary firm's motivations for localization, and the trends in consumer behavior homogeneity in the world are discussed.

Chapter 4 Discusses the empirical approach, including the survey plan, the questionnaire design, and data analysis.

Chapter 5 investigates the CAL of firms' motivations for the different quality of GBFPs in different countries; moreover, it studies the attribute changes acceptable by consumers using a 5-point modified Likert scale. The clustering of variables method was applied to group the variables based on the CAL and provides insightful economic and policy implications for the global brand firms and policymakers.

Chapter 6 inquires into the consumer expectation of GBFPs and traveling frequency impact on consumer behavior toward standardized GBFPs, examines Levitt's opinion (1993) that the world is becoming homogeneous because of increasing traveling and tourist activity, as well as testing the impact of increasing travel frequency on accepting the different quality of GBFPs.

Chapter 7 summarizes the findings and discusses the result of the survey, illustrates this thesis's conclusions, identifies the contributions and limitations of this research, and proposes and discusses future research directions. This section provides essential information about consumer behavior and addresses the subjective component of dual quality.

## Chapter 2 Background

In recent years, claims are increasing that GBFPs have different qualities in the eastern and the western countries of the European Union and that the eastern countries receive the lower quality although prices are not lower there (Petrovic, 2020). The European Commission addresses the issue of dual quality by focusing on DC-SIP (difference in composition of seemingly identical branded products; Russo et al., 2020) and drafted updated legislation based on their investigation (Šajn, 2019). However, the issue of different quality of ingredients or even consumer expectations of GBFPs are not yet fully addressed, and the COVID-19 crisis did not diminish the importance of this issue as NEWEUROPE—an EU affairs newspaper—expressed this concern in September 2020.

The claim is becoming more critical since the complainants label such practices as discriminatory. Although several scholars such as Alimienè and Kuvykaitė (2008), Wei and Yazdanifard (2014), and Son et al. (2018) have the opinion that consumers may prefer local varieties in many cases, consumer claims in Eastern Europe reflect the opinion that when a consumer chooses a specific GBFP, they expect the same product as found in another country under that brand. With increasing claims regarding dual quality issues in the EU's food market, the European Commission started investigating in this regard and developing EU legislation to protect consumers against misleading information based on consumer protection law in March 2017. The European Commission strongly insisted that it is not acceptable to have “second-class consumers” in the EU, which was created with the aim of equality between members (European Commission, 2017). However, the challenge has hidden complexities: on the one hand, multinational companies need to have the freedom to market and sell goods with different composition or characteristics, as long as they comply with EU legislation

regarding the safety of products, labeling, or other horizontal or sectoral legislation (European Commission, 2017); on the other hand, the asymmetric information<sup>2</sup> must be explicitly provided to customers to protect them from being misled.

According to EU law, it is allowed for products under the same brand to have different characteristics, considering the place of manufacture or consumer preferences in the target market, which is categorized as part of horizontal quality differences (Russo et al., 2020). Therefore, since 2017, The European Commission worked on creating a guideline and introducing measures to reduce the chance of producing goods under the same global brand and same labeling with higher and lower quality, which causes dissatisfaction among consumers (European Commission, 2017). Since the commission realized that there are horizontal quality differences in many markets and not differences in vertical quality, later on—in 2019—the European Commission referred to DC-SIP (Russo et al., 2020) to solve the dual quality issue. The guideline and measures contribute to existing laws such as “General Food Law Regulation” concerning food safety, “Food Information to Consumers Regulation” concerning labeling and composition information, and “Unfair Commercial Practices Directive” to protect the consumer from aggressive marketing and misleading information. The EU updated the regulations based on the latest evidence and standard testing methodology regarding products other than food.

### **The European Commission’s Actions Regarding the Dual Quality Issue**

The European Commission mainly focuses on transparency between producers and consumers, although whether transparency alone could be the solution is questionable. Specifically, if a customer is purchasing a GBFP in a local market.

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<sup>2</sup> Asymmetric information is defined as a situation in which one party in a transaction has more information than the other concerning the quality of the merchandise (Frieden & Hawkins, 2010).

Because even if all information regarding the ingredients, compositions, compositions' percentages, and the required trademarks and logos are stamped on the package, still the consumer is not aware of the possible differences in composition, quality, or even the packaging of the same product under the same brand in other countries unless they tried the product somewhere else. The issue appears when the consumer feels one of the products is better than the other although they expected the same products under their favorite global brand. This concern is fundamental to one of the hypotheses in this dissertation, discussed in Chapter 6. The hypothesis is based on the assumption that travel frequency influences consumer beliefs regarding the standardization of GBFPs.

Moreover, the customer reaction is critical if they know that the same product under the same global brand in their country is different from the same in other EU countries. The European Commission is concerned this may cause losing the Member State's consumer trust (European Commission, 2017). The consumer reaction is linked to the customer perception of "global brand products" and their expectations in this regard. We explain these concerns in further chapters.

### ***EU Commission Actions in 2017***

According to the European Commission notice in September 2017, the Commission brought the issue to "a high-level forum for a better functioning food supply chain" involving the industry, consumers, and national authorities in the discussion. Furthermore, it was essential to work on reliable measurements and indicators for testing the quality differences and a guideline for the standard testing in the EU food market to investigate the issue.

In addition, the Commission took a step toward in improving information transparency on the exact content of the products (European Commission, 2017). The Commission reviewed the enforcement of relevant EU legislation plus consumer

protection and food authorities, such as “General Food Law Regulation” (European Parliament and the Council, 2002) and “Food Information to Consumers Regulation” (European Parliament and the Council, 2011). UCPD, which stands for Unfair Commercial Practices Directive (European Parliament and the Council, 2005), is another related EU legislation that was reviewed.

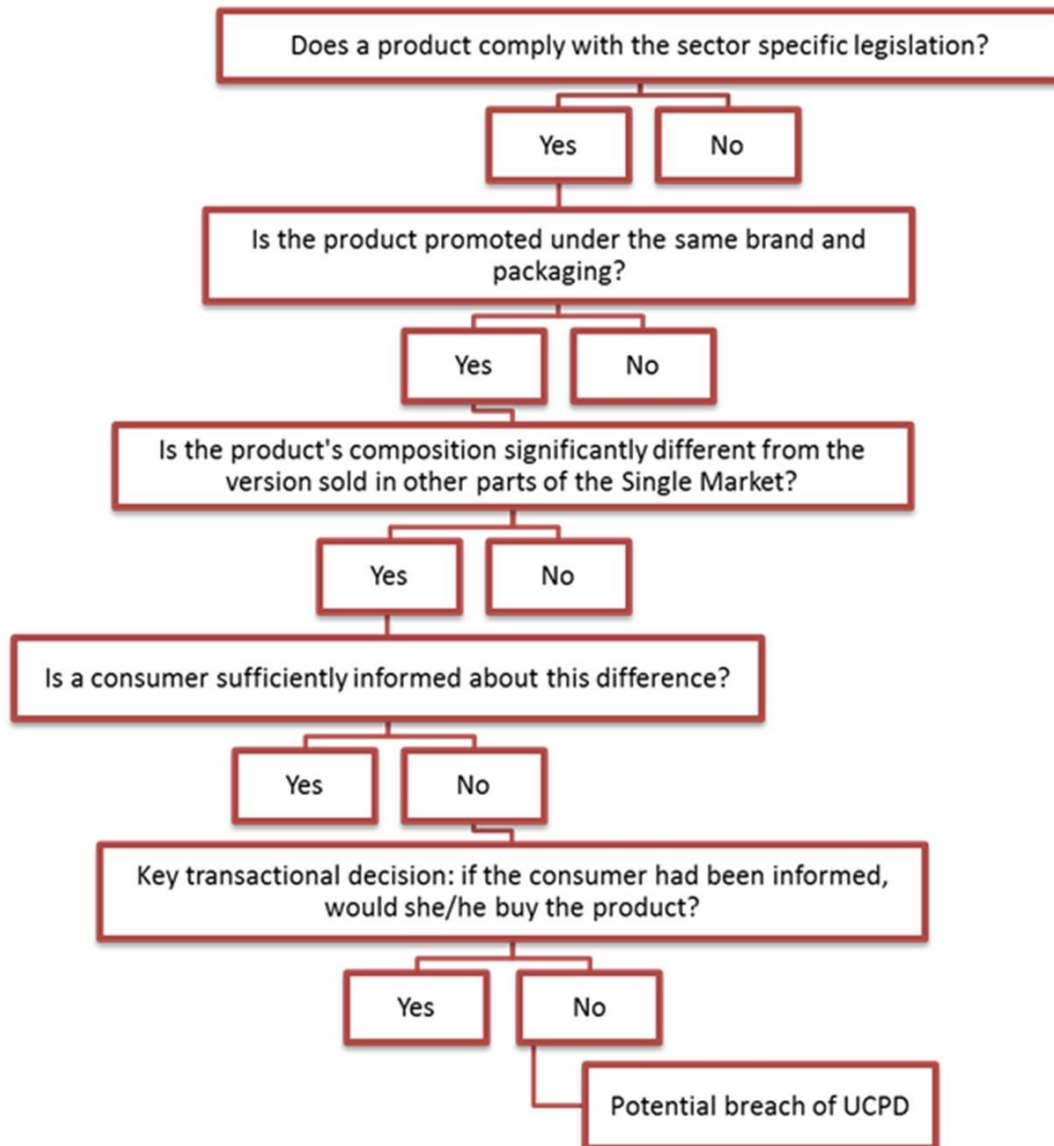
To have a standardized procedure to investigate the dual quality practice, the European Commission provided the flowchart in Figure 2.1 to evaluate potentially unfair business practices<sup>3</sup> in the case of GBFPs (European commission, 2017, P.9), which led to the UCPD (European Parliament and the Council, 2005).

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<sup>3</sup> Unfair business practices here refers to business to customer practices, which differs from business to business unfair trading practices that are regulated in EU Directive 2019/633.

**Figure 2.1**

*Assessment of Potentially Unfair Business Practices in the Case of Branded Food Products*



*Source: European Commission Notice, Brussels, 26.9.2017, C(2017) 6532*

*final, P.9*

As the above figure shows, there is a potential dual quality practice if the product is promoted under the same brand and packaging, the product's composition is significantly different from the version sold in other parts of the EU, and the consumer

is not informed about this difference that may cause a change in their purchasing decision if they were informed.

### **Investigations**

Between 2016 and 2017, six investigations involving more than 200 products were carried out by various authorities and organizations such as the Ministry of Agriculture, State Consumer Rights Protection Authority, and National Food Chain Safety Offices in eight EU countries to understand if the dual quality phenomenon exists in the EU food chain. In other words, the aim was to verify if the same brand food products with different quality are found in eastern and western countries of the EU and if the issue is confirmed, to determine the types of products with dual quality.

Table 2.1 summarizes the investigation projects conducted in 2016 and 2017.

A brief explanation of each project is subsequently provided.

**Table 2.1**

*Summary of the Dual Quality Investigation Projects in 2016 and 2017*

<b>Countries Under Investigation</b>	<b>Year</b>	<b>Sample Number</b>	<b>No Differences</b>	<b>Small Differences</b>	<b>Differences</b>
Slovakia and Austria	2016	22	5	4	13
Hungary, Austria and Italy	2017	96	25	8	63
The Czech Republic and neighboring EU countries	2017	21	3	5	13
The Republic of Lithuania, Belgium, and Germany	2017	33	7	3	23
The Czech Republic, Slovakia, Austria, Germany, and Hungary	2017	21	7	3	11
Croatia and Germany	2017	26	4	8	14



The investigation was conducted in 2016, with 22 samples taken from both countries (Slovakia and Austria). The testing characteristics included the following:

- 1) Sensory testing by 11 assessors, triangle test, and description method (ISO 6658, ISO 8589)
- 2) Labeling control
- 3) Physical and chemical analysis of parameters from nutritional value (such as sugar, amount of meat, salt, net weight)
- 4) Analysis of preservatives, allergens, and procedures

The results show that five items are without differences, four items have small differences (labeling), and 13 items have differences (sensory signs and labeling).

#### Hungry, Austria, and Italy:<sup>4</sup>

These countries are chosen for comparison mainly because of

- 1) Lifelikeness
- 2) Similar cultural environment
- 3) Considering public inputs (blogs, comments)

The investigation was executed in 2017 based on 96 pairs of products. The sample was divided into three categories. The first category included 51 products of the same brand, appearance, and content, 27 of which had organoleptic<sup>5</sup> differences. “Olive oil” is given as an example that demonstrates that extra virgin olive oil is not a mixture in Italy and Austria, but the product in Hungary is a mix of olive oils from the EU. The second category included 25 products of the same brand and appearance with different content, of which 19 had content and organoleptic differences. “Stock cube” is given as

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<sup>4</sup> Results of the investigation on dual quality of foodstuffs, Lajos Bognár DVM, Chief Veterinary Officer, 30th May, 2017.

<sup>5</sup> Organoleptic is defined as “being, affecting, or relating to qualities (such as taste, color, odor, and feel) of a substance (such as a food or drug) that stimulate the sense organs” (Merriam-Webster dictionary).

an example that palm oil is the fourth component in Italy and Austria according to the list of rated components based on decreasing amount, but it is second among Hungarian products. The third category included 20 similar products, 17 of which had content and organoleptic differences. “Toast bread” is an example of additive-free wheat bread in Italy and Austria; the Hungarian version contains eight additives.

The Czech Republic and neighboring EU countries:<sup>6</sup>

The investigation was conducted in 2017 based on 21 products with the same marketing idea. According to the results, 13 products were evaluated as different, five products were evaluated as slightly different, three products were evaluated as identical, and five products were evaluated as same size packaging with different contents.

The Republic of Lithuania, Belgium, and Germany:<sup>7</sup>

The investigation was conducted in 2017 based on 33 products with different brands. According to the results, 23 products had a different composition or other characteristics. For instance, a famous brand of chips contains only sunflower oil in Germany, but it contains sunflower and palm oil in Lithuania. Although the presented examples explain that the differences are not only between Lithuania and the other two countries, there are also differences between products in Belgium and Germany. For example, the chocolate pieces in Choco cookies constitute 40% of the total in Belgium, 35% in Germany, and 32% in Lithuania. There are some other products with similar composition between Belgium and Lithuania but different in Germany, such as Korn flakes and Tonno cans.

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<sup>6</sup> Quality testing of same-brand products sold in the Czech Republic and neighboring EU countries, UCT Prague, Department of Food Preservation.

<sup>7</sup> Dual quality food product practical examples, State Consumer Rights Protection Authority of the Republic of Lithuania 13.11.2017

The Czech Republic, Slovakia, Austria, Germany, and Hungary:<sup>8</sup>

The investigation was implemented in 2017 based on 21 products with the same marketing plan. According to the physicochemical testing and sensory testing methods results, 11 products were evaluated as different, three products were evaluated as slightly different, and seven products were evaluated as identical. An example of a product evaluated differently is pizza with brand *X* with the same look but different content: the mozzarella percentage as an ingredient in the product sold in the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Hungary is 17%, while it is 22 % in Austria. As another example, fish finger brand *Y* has the same look but different content: the product purchased in the Czech Republic was analytically determined to have 50.2% meat content, while the percentage is 63.8% in Germany's product.

Croatia and Germany:<sup>9</sup>

The investigation was conducted in 2017 based on 26 products under the same brand. In 14 products (53.8%), a difference in quality was found, and in nine of those 14, a difference was found in both quality and price. Interestingly, 16 products (56.3%) had a higher price on the Croatian market than on the German market, one product had a higher price on the German market, and nine products had no price difference (deviations of up to 10% were treated as a negligible difference; that is, no difference).

***EU Commission actions in 2018***

The European Commission presented a collection of measures called “New Deal for Consumers” as part of a communication notice in April 2018 to address consumer protection and dual quality issues aiming to have a fair single market for

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<sup>8</sup> Dual quality tests results in the Czech Republic, workshop on dual quality food in Brussels, 13.11.2017, Ministerstvo Zemedelstvi.

<sup>9</sup> jedna unija - jedna kvaliteta istraživanje kvalitete naizgled istih proizvoda na tržištima starih i novih država članica eu - rezultati - biljana borzan, zastupnica u europskom parlamentu zagreb, 1. Rujna 2017.

consumers and firms. This package of measures is built on the existing consumer policy framework, proposing modern rules according to the recent changes and challenges, and one of the main aims is “To ensure equal treatment of consumers in the Single Market and guarantee that national competent authorities are empowered to tackle any problems with ‘dual quality’ of consumer products” (European Commission, 2018, P.4).

The steps taken by the Commission to tackle the dual quality issue are the following:

- *Adopting a set of guidelines on applying EU food and consumer laws:* under this step, the national authorities specify if a firm is breaking EU law by selling an identical brand product with different compositions in different EU countries.
- *Discussions with industry representatives to stop unjustified and misleading product differentiation practices:* some firms have already begun to ensure that the same products are sold across the EU, and advanced changes are in prospect regarding their differentiation and consumer-information strategies.
- *Offering funding to support enforcement and developing a common approach to the comparative testing of food products:* the Commission’s JRC, with the support of some EU countries and stakeholders, plans to develop a methodology and launch a testing campaign in May 2018.

Nevertheless, according to Commission communication,

Products under the same brand may exceptionally have different characteristics. However, a substantially different composition in identically branded goods can be a source of concern when those products are marketed in a way that has the potential to mislead the consumer. (European Commission, 2018, P.10)

The Commission plans to provide national authorities with more transparent rules to ensure that they can control the dual quality issue.

In parallel, on September 13<sup>th</sup>, 2018, Parliament adopted a resolution dedicated to the dual quality of food products in the EU market, arguing that dual quality should be added to unfair practices lists banned in all circumstances. The definition of such banned practice should mention “dual quality of identically branded products when discriminatory and not respecting consumer expectations” (Šajn, 2019).

### ***EU Commission actions in 2019***

In June 2019, the European Commission released the findings of the testing campaign of GBFPs with different compositions in EU countries (European Commission, 2019). According to the results, some identically or similarly branded products have a different composition in European countries.

The study was carried out in November–December 2018, considering 1,380 samples of 128 various products in 19 EU countries, including Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Czechia, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, and The Netherlands (European Commission, 2019). The products were classified according to their similarities in composition and front-of-pack in identical, similar, and different classes:

For composition, the following criteria applied:

- Identical if the nutrition declaration and ingredients are the same
- Similar there are small variations in nutrition declaration and/or ingredient list
- Different if the product contains different ingredients or different quantitative ingredient declaration (QUID)

For front-of-pack, the following criteria applied:

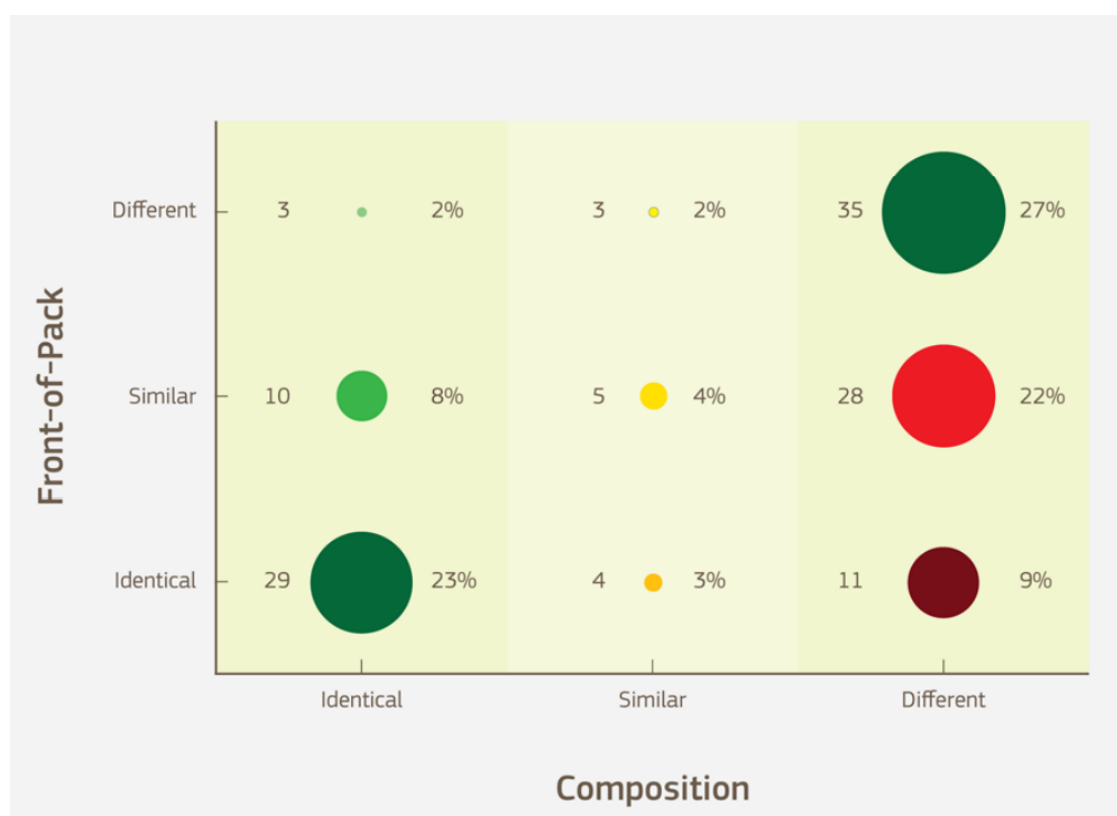
- Identical if the motif, colors, logos, fonts, pictures, layout, shape are the same

- Similar if there is a small variation in characteristics but generally having the same appearance
- Different if there is a different appearance

The results summarized in Figure 2.2 illustrate that 9% of products with identical front-of-pack in the EU countries had a different composition, 22% of products with similar front-of-pack in the EU countries had a different composition, and 27% of products were different in both compositions and front-of-pack in different EU countries (Joint Research Centre, 2019).

**Figure 2.2**

*Classification of Products Included in the EU-Wide Survey According to the Similarity of Variants Offered on Several Markets.*



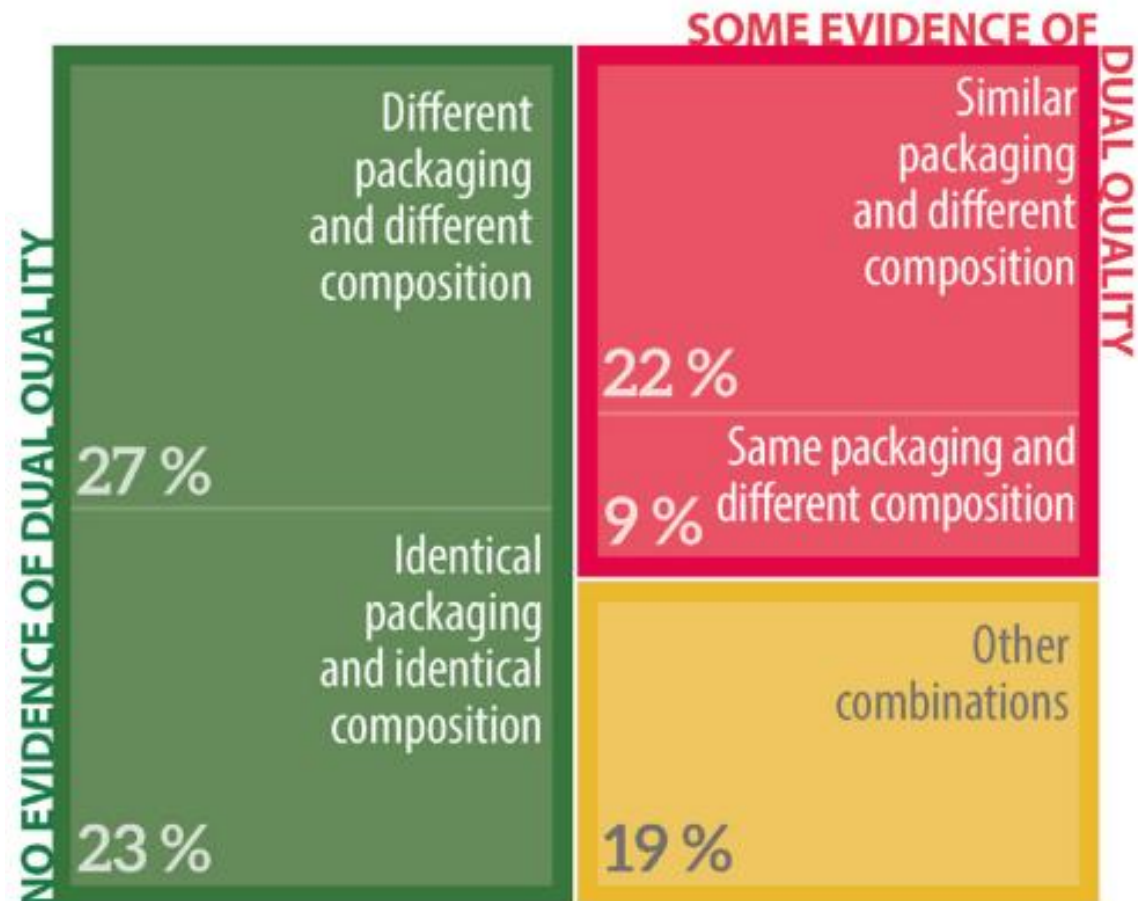
*Note.* The number to the left of a bubble refers to the absolute number and to the right to the relative proportion. Source: Joint Research Centre (JRC) report, 2019.

According to the Commission notice, in the specific case of food, there is a potential dual quality practice if food products have a seemingly identical presentation and are marketed under the same brand, but have significant differences in composition and/or sensory profile (European Commission, 2017). The remained concern is if “seemingly identical presentation” refers to products’ front-of-pack only. As Bauer et al. suggest, brand image is undoubtedly related to quality (Bauer et al., 2007); therefore, the consumer may ignore the packaging (front-of-pack) and purchase the product only because it knows the brand image with a high reputation. The brand name creates some expectations, even if the product does not have a seemingly identical presentation. The graph in Figure 2.2 shows that only 29 products out of 128 had identical compositions and identical front-of-pack that actually may be called “same product” (only 23%); instead, 51% of 128 products contain different compositions that may influence the quality. Among the products with different compositions, 11 products had identical front-of-pack, which may be misleading to consumers.

Figure 2.3 explains some evidence of dual quality in 31% of tested products in the Commission's JRC study. There is no evidence of dual quality in 50% of tested products, and 19% of products have other combinations.

**Figure 2.3**

*Classification of Dual Quality Evidence*



*Note:* Authorities in 19 Member States collected data on 128 products and a total of 1380 samples between November 2018 and January 2019. Source: European Commission, Joint Research Centre, 2019.

According to the above classification, products with different packaging and composition are not included in dual quality practices. Moreover, The JRC explained that composition differences could not be translated into different food quality levels (Šajn, 2019).



The JRC's study results suggest no consistent geographical pattern in the use of the same or similar packaging for products with different compositions, emphasizing that there is no evidence of an East-West divide in the composition of branded food products (European Commission, 2019). Furthermore, the different compositions in the tested products do not necessarily result in a difference in product quality.

The European Commission has so far taken different actions such as clarifying when dual quality is a misleading practice through legislation under the New Deal for Consumers, establishing a standard methodology for the testing of food products, providing guidelines to help national authorities implement the EU food legislation, providing grant funding of over €4.5 million to solve the dual quality issue, and product testing in the EU countries with the same methodology.

The European Commission plans for further research, testing products, and identifying potentially misleading practices for the next step. Věra Jourová, Commissioner for Justice, Consumers and Gender Equality, expressed that this is an end to the dual quality issue with the new laws and penalization of such practices (European Commission, 2019). However, concerning the consumer expectation and perception of GBFPs may require further changes in the laws and regulations; this will be discussed in later chapters.

### **Stakeholder View**

As expected, the stakeholders had a different view regarding “EU-wide testing based on a common methodology” done by JRC. The points of view are summarized as follows (Šajn, 2019). Their views are essential to guide the researchers and policymakers for the next step in solving the dual quality issue.

#### The European Consumer Organisation:

The European Consumer Organisation (BEUC) appreciated the EU-wide testing based on a standard methodology and highlighted that some of the product composition differences were required by national standards that are beneficial for consumers, and BEUC suggested extending them to the whole of the EU, especially in imposing limits on trans fats and reducing fat, sugar, and salt levels in food. BEUC mentioned that advocating restriction on the level of fat, sugars, and salt is “lagging behind in many central, eastern and the south-eastern European Member States” (Šajn, 2019). Moreover, it is recommended that an investigation is required on contractual and noncontractual practices that cause retailers’ ability restriction to source in the country of their choice. BEUC expressed that a more robust solution for solving the dual quality issue is expected.

The European Association for the Coordination of Consumer Representation in Standardisation:

The European Association for the Coordination of Consumer Representation in Standardisation (ANEC) expressed that although providing the product based on consumer taste and choice is essential, it should not cause a product with lower quality against legitimate consumer’s expectations and rights. ANEC requested that the European Commission provides a better definition to classify what practices are a dual quality and how the products should be evaluated; for example, a clear definition to clarify when packaging and marketing can be considered as identical.

The European Brands Association and FoodDrinkEurope:

Both organizations appreciated the JRC’s new harmonized methodology and JRC report on claimed “dual quality” of food in the EU market, also consulting the brand owners in this regard for the first time. The European Brands Association and FoodDrinkEurope highlighted that as the report showed, most of the composition

differences are not the result of food market division into “East” vs. “West” and can mostly be explained logically, although they emphasized that adoption of food and drinks based on the consumer taste in the EU should not be confused with providing products with lower quality. FoodDrinkEurope noted that the organization had not agreed to include the issue of dual quality in Annex I of the UCPD, considering this would cause a restriction in product innovation and consumer choice; moreover, a higher consumer price in some markets and local agricultural supply are negatively affected in these markets.

#### Business Europe:

Business Europe supported the idea that “the EU should not seek product harmonization such as composition and design. In their opinion, this would be disproportionate and extrapolating EU competencies.”

#### **Conclusion**

The chapter provided background regarding the dual quality issue in the EU countries. Some claims were reported during 2016–2018 concerning composition differences in certain food products offered in some EU food markets compared to the same products offered in other EU countries (Joint Research Centre, 2019). Since 2017, the European Commission and the European Parliament have taken various actions to solve this issue. According to the European Commission finding, there is no evidence of an East-West divide in branded food products' composition. Moreover, the different compositions in the tested products do not necessarily develop a difference in product quality (Joint Research Centre, 2019). According to some of the stakeholders' views, there are EU countries with higher national standards for consumer benefits that are suggested to be enforced in other EU countries. Although consumer taste and choices should be respected, it is suggested to reduce the amount of fat, sugar, and salt in the

Eastern European countries for health purposes. It was requested that the European Commission provides a clear definition for dual quality practice and the evaluation of products; also, it is expected that a more robust solution be proposed to terminate the dual quality issue (Šajin, 2019).

In summary, based on BEUC and ANEC, there is some confusion about the definition of dual quality practice and the evaluation methodology. Nevertheless, the European Commission is attempting to solve the dual quality issue, but there are some concerns regarding consumers (especially in Eastern European countries). This research addresses these concerns by evaluating the CAL regarding the potential differences in a GBFP sold in their country compared to the same product sold in other countries and classifying product characteristics according to consumer opinion.

### **Chapter 3 Literature Review**

In this chapter, an extensive review of the literature concerning the dual quality issue of GBFPs in the EU market is conducted. To address the dual quality issue, as the first step, products as a combination of a group of characteristics that create the utility function for consumers is discussed (Lancaster, 1966). Then, the debate of localization and standardization is reviewed. Besides the firm's motivation toward globalization and product differentiation, we discuss consumers' motivation to purchase GBFPs. Concerning dual quality issues in the EU market, the consumer's point of view is missing. This chapter is the basis for our theoretical framework and analyzes the fundamental theories. New data are collected through a survey built on existing knowledge with the aim of closing the literature gap. The results will be discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

#### **Lancaster Model and the Approach to Consumer Theory**

Lancaster's theory of demand, which considers goods characteristics, attempts to address qualitative variations (Sassatelli, 2010). According to Lancaster (1966), quality is a set of product attributes and features; therefore, any changes in the product's features mean that the product has a different quality. The product differentiation theories and models assume that the consumer is perfectly informed about product characteristics. Consumer awareness is the missing part of many global producers' product adaptation strategies that may lead to dual quality issues. Global producers assume that consumers in a certain country prefer product X with some certain attributes and quality without giving them a chance to know that there is a different product with the same brand and some differences in other countries. Hence, the consumers assume that there is a unique product under a specific brand and will buy the only one that is provided. According to a survey on Slovakia's dual quality issue,

88% of respondents are not happy with this practice (Bartková et al., 2018). In the earlier studies, consumer preferences and their decision to purchase a combination of two goods have been demonstrated through indifference curves and feasible bundles with consumer budget line conditions, in which the consumer needs to consider a tradeoff between two goods (Frank, 2008, pp. 65–70). However, Lancaster introduced his approach to consumer theory to expand the idea that consumer preferences are exercised on multiple characteristics of a good and not the good itself; therefore, a good may be displaced from the market by entering new goods or changes price (Lancaster, 1966). By observing the recent food market, various food products and brands are increased, and consumers have a better awareness of food products because of reasons such as globalization, free movement, and media. Therefore, a consumer has a variety of options to purchase a product. Today's consumer considers different product characteristics: sweetness, ingredients, percentages of ingredients, brand, and manufacturing origin. The reason can be explained with this model, considering what optimize the consumer utility function or in another word, "satisfaction."

Lancaster's model is a valuable guideline for product design and differentiation strategies. Since an in-depth discussion of the Lancaster model is further than this research, a very brief review of this model is discussed (Lancaster, 1966).

The model assumptions are:

- 1) An individual or a collection of goods is considered a consumption activity and associates a scalar (the activity level). It is assumed that that the relationship between the level of activity  $y_k$ , and the goods consumed in that activity both are linear and objective, so that, if  $x_j$  is the  $j$ th commodity, we have

$$x_j = \sum a_{jk} y_k, \quad (1)$$

The vector of total goods is given by

$$x=Ay. \quad (2)$$

- 2) Each consumption activity produces a fixed vector of characteristics with a linear relationship, so if  $Z_i$  is the amount of the  $i$ th characteristic

$$z = \sum b_{ik}y_k, \quad (3)$$

or

$$z= By. \quad (4)$$

The coefficients  $b_{ik}$  are objectively determined in principle, at least-for some arbitrary choice of the units of  $Z_i$ .

- 3) The individual retains an ordinal utility function on characteristics  $U(z)$  and will choose a situation that maximizes  $U(z)$ , assumed to retain the ordinary convexity properties of a standard utility function. The main purpose of the linearity assumption is to simplify the problem. A viable model could undoubtedly be produced under the more general set of relationships

$$F_k(z,x) = 0, k = 1 \dots m \quad (5)$$

The standard choice situation facing the consumer in a free market, with a linear budget constraint, in the Lancaster model, becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Maximize } U(z) \\ &\text{subject to } px \leq k \\ &\text{with } z = By \\ &\quad x = Ay \\ &\quad x, y, z \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Simplifying the model by supposing that there is a one-to-one correspondence between goods and activities

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{Maximize } & U(z) \\
 \text{subject to} & px \leq k \\
 \text{with} & z = By \\
 & x, z \geq 0.
 \end{array}$$

The above is still a nonlinear system, but there is a single step between goods and characteristics. The model contains four parts. There is a maximand  $U(z)$  operating on characteristics; that  $U$  is defined on characteristics-space (C-space). The budget constraint  $px \leq k$  is defined on goods-space (G-space). The equation system  $z = By$  represents a transformation between G-space and C-space. Finally, there are nonnegativity constraints  $z, x \geq 0$

The properties are sufficient to imply that utility maximization subject to constraint will determine consumer behavior solutions (Lancaster, 1966).

### **Globalization Versus Localization<sup>10</sup>**

This section draws primarily from international marketing and international business and management literature. This literature discusses whether the growing internationalization of business is an indication of globalization or rather an expression of regionalization. Correspondingly, international firms need to find the right strategy to pursue an optimum balance between standardizing and adapting their marketing strategies across national borders to regional and national peculiarities. Marketing strategies include product, pricing, distribution, and communication strategies. In the context of DC-SIP, the focus is primarily on products—including product branding—and also encompasses considerations regarding communication strategies.

The discussion regarding the marketing mix standardization and adaptation dates back to 1965 (Elinder, 1965). This literature expanded rapidly in the 1980s,

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<sup>10</sup> This section is written by Menapace, L. and Fathinejad, N., 2020, published as Chapter 3 in a JRC report on the “Economic rationale behind differences in the composition of seemingly identical branded food products in the Single Market”



following the publication by Theodore Levitt in 1993. According to Levitt (1993), when a firm is able to reduce costs (and consequently the final price for the consumer) and increase product quality (including reliability and suitability of the product for the consumers etc.), “world-standardized” products will be preferred by consumers (over local products) regardless of consumer nationality and taste preferences (Levitt, 1993). Some authors (e.g., Levitt, 1993; Vignali, 2001) have suggested that firms that have product lines instead of a single product should standardize at least some products. Other authors (e.g., Boddewyn et al., 1986; Whitelock & Pimblett, 1997) disagree with the role of standardization. Overall, two schools of thought can be identified: those who stress the advantages of globalization (i.e., standardization) and those who support the advantages of internationalization (i.e., localization).

According to the first school of thought, firms should “go global” for many reasons. According to several authors (e.g., Buzzell, 1968; Elinder, 1965; Kreutzer, 1988; Levitt, 1993; Peebles et al., 1978; Pires et al., 2006; Ryans, 1969; Theodosiou & Leonidou, 2003), firms should pursue standardization because of the economics of scale and cost reduction. Donada and Dostaler (2005), Voss et al. (2008), and—more recently—Kreiter and Helm (2018) suggest that standardization while helping firms enter a new market by saving financial resources required to later adapt in response to threats from competitors. Similarly, some authors (e.g., Kreiter & Helm, 2018; Navarro et al., 2010; Szymanski et al., 1993) suggest that standardization will increase a firm’s ability to allocate resources appropriately. According to Theodosiou and Leonidou (2003), with standardization, firms are in a better position to harmonize internal production and quality control, a fact that is particularly relevant with shorter product life cycles. Overall, several authors suggest that standardization leads to a competitive

advantage (Cavusgil et al., 1993; Kreutzer, 1988; Levitt, 1993; Ohmae, 1989; Poulis & Poulis, 2011).

Besides the benefits regarding cost reduction and improved resource allocation, Levitt (1993) suggested that (i) consumer demand is becoming increasingly similar across different countries because of cultural convergence and (ii) global markets are becoming increasingly homogeneous due to technology development. This idea is supported by several authors, including Brei et al. (2011), Jain (1989), Hartmann and Apaolaza-Ibáñez (2013), Van Heerden and Barter (2008), Quelch and Hoff (1986), and Schilke et al. (2009). Elinder (1965), Jain (1989), and Levitt (1993) emphasize the role of border crossing and tourist activity. Wei and Yazdanifard (2014) argue that standardization minimizes consumer confusion among travelers. In addition, Meyer (2017) believes that the increasing degree of globalization and large migration waves will lead to an increased role of standardization. According to Kreutzer (1988) and Vignali (2001), standardization increases global reputation.

The second school of thought, which is referred to here as “go international,” argues that cultural convergence and the development toward market homogeneity are very slow while a large degree of differences in consumer taste, needs, and preferences persists (Alimienè & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Czinkota & Ronkainen, 1998; Sun et al., 2017; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al. 2009; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014;). In addition, Griffith et al. (2014) emphasize the role of consumer behavioral differences. These behavioral differences are due to differences in culture, religion, and norms in different parts of the world (Cayla & Arnould, 2008; Douglas & Wind, 1987; Friedman, 1986; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1999; Lannon, 1988; Moro et al., 2018 Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al., 2009). Due to all of these differences, supporters of the “go international” school believe that adaptation to local market conditions is essential for a firm to succeed in new markets

and also improves public relationships with local consumers (Vignali, 2001). In addition, (i) the presence of country-specific laws and customs (Alimiené & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Levitt, 1993; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al., 2009), (ii) heterogeneous economic situations and consumer willingness to pay, (iii) competitors (Kreutzer, 1988; Leonidou et al., 2002; Vignali, 2001), and (iv) ecological differences (e.g., due to climate and geography; Griffith et al., 2014; Kreutzer, 1988; Vronits et al., 2009) require some degree of adaptation.

Schilke et al. (2009) report that standardization reduces differentiation; therefore, it reduces firms' competitive advantage (the opposite is true for adaptation). Concerning the role of economies of scale, Harris (1985), Thackray (1985), and Whitelock and Pimblett (1997) support the idea that the proportion of production cost compared to the total cost is minimal, so the cost-saving generated by standardization is often irrelevant. Overall, this group of scholars believes that sales, profits, and market shares increase with adaptation, and with adaptation, firms are more flexible and competitive (Alimiené & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Rosen, 1990; Samiee & Roth, 1992; Walters, 1986; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014).

### ***Think global, act local***

The third school of thought has emerged more recently, supporting the idea that firms engage in both internationalization and globalization. Ohmae (1989), Taylor (1991), and Vignali (2001) present the idea of "think global, act local." In a similar vein, Sandler and Shani (1992) suggest "Brand globally, advertise locally." Many other scholars suggest the need to combine elements of both standardizing and adapting strategies (e.g., Brei et al., 2011) and that a "middle of the road" approach is more feasible and appropriate (e.g., Colvin et al., 1980; Jain, 1989; Ryans & Donnelly, 1969; Whitelock & Chung, 1989; Whitelock & Pimblett, 1997), overall highlighting the fact

that there are positive relationships between both adaptation and standardization with performance. Similarly, Alden et al. (1999) believe that globalization and adaptation are not mutually exclusive but rather are complementary approaches. Wei and Yazdanifard (2014) conclude that it “is illogical for companies to pursue complete homogenization of the marketing mix, except under distinctly particular sets of the situation and certain product categories.” The authors developed the so-called “AdapStand” approach, which encourages companies to standardize tactics where possible and adapts only where needed (Vrontis et al., 2009; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014).

The discussion about internationalization versus globalization has been phrased in terms of “points of view.” Venaik and Midgley (2019) studied 231 MNCs (multinational corporations) subsidiaries: 23% of their sample pursue standardization, 38% pursue adaptation, and 39% pursue hybrid configurations. Some authors use the parallelism “Is the world flat or curved” (Friedman, 1986; Ghemawat, 2007; Jullens, 2013; Venaik & Midgley, 2019): although it is known that the world is curved, for many purposes, it is appropriate to consider it to be flat. In the context of this review, market conditions (specifically, differences between countries) will determine whether internationalization or globalization is appropriate. For example, the study by Jeong et al. (2019) shows that the level of adaptation depends on internal factors (the degree of internationalization, R&D intensity, and firm size) and external factors (market similarity and market uncertainty).

Some papers debate whether or not the degree of standardization varies in a given industry, such as Tan and Sousa (2013) that reported that the appropriate degree of standardization depends on the industry and is more pronounced for industrial products (Samiee & Roth, 1992; Schilke et al., 2009; Kreiter & Helm, 2018).

Tables 3-1 and 3-2 summarize the reasons for pursuing globalization or standardization.

**Table 3.1**

*Overview of Reasons for Pursuing Globalization or Standardization*

<b>Go Global (Standardization)</b>	<b>Literature</b>
Economics of scale and cost reduction	Buzzell, 1968; Elinder, 1965; Kreutzer, 1988; Levitt, 1993; Peebles et al., 1978; Pires et al., 2006; Quelch & Hoff, 1986; Ryans, 1969; Theodosiou & Leonidou, 2003
Cultural convergence and homogeneous market	Brei et al., 2011; Elinder, 1965; Hartmann & Apaolaza-Ibañez, 2013; Heerden & Barter, 2008; Jain, 1989; Levitt, 1993; Peebles et al., 1978; Quelch & Hoff, 1986; Ryans, 1969; Schilke et al., 2009
Technology development	Jain, 1989; Levitt, 1993
Competitive advantage	Cavusgil et al., 1993; Kreutzer, 1988; Levitt, 1993; Ohmae, 1989; Poulis & Poulis, 2011
Global reputation	Kreutzer, 1988; Vignali, 2001
Border crossing and tourist activity	Elinder, 1965; Jain, 1989; Levitt, 1993
The product life cycle is becoming shorter	Theodosiou & Leonidou, 2003
Better harmonization through internal production and quality control	Theodosiou & Leonidou, 2003
Minimize consumer confusion among travelers	Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014
Saving financial resources (slack resources)	Donada & Dostaler, 2005; Kreiter & Helm, 2018; Voss et al., 2008
Appropriate resource allocation	Kreiter & Helm 2018; Navarro et al., 2010; Szymanski et al., 1993

**Table 3.2***Overview of Reasons for Pursuing Internationalization or Localization*

<b>Go International (Localization)</b>	<b>Literature</b>
Cultural or religious differences	Cayla & Arnould, 2008; Douglas & Wind, 1987; Friedman, 1986; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1999; Lannon, 1988; Moro et al., 2018; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al., 2009
Taste, needs, preferences	Alimienė & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Czinkota & Ronkainen, 1998; Quelch 2003; Sun et al., 2017; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al., 2009; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014
Law and customs	Alimienė & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Levitt, 1993; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al., 2009
Heterogeneous economics situation, consumer willingness to pay, and competitors	Kreutzer, 1988; Leonidov et al., 2002; Vignali, 2001
Public relationship	Vignali, 2001
Ecological differences (resources, climatic condition)	Griffith et al., 2014; Kreutzer, 1988; Vrontis et al., 2009
Increasing sales, profit, and market share (being competitive)	Alimienė & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Harris, 1985; Leonidou et al., 2002; Rosen, 1990; Samiee & Roth, 1992; Walters, 1986; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014
The proportion of production cost compare to the total cost	Braidwood, 1984; Douglas & Wind, 1987; Harris, 1988; Thackray, 1985; Whitelock & Pimblett, 1997
Reduce differentiation (as a competitive advantage)	Schilke et al., 2009
Consumer behavior	Griffith et al., 2014

In accordance with Moro et al. (2018), cultural aspects influence consumer behavior and reaction, although this effect can differ in each country. The authors suggest that the product characteristics sometimes need to be localized, but sometimes communication localization is needed. Effects on consumer behavior “are driven by global and local cultures as well as the outcome of the dual effects” (Cleveland & Bartsch, 2015; Moro et al., 2018). In addition, Sun et al. (2017) studied the case of the retailer Tesco entering Japan. Tesco started business in Japan with the standard retail system that they have in other countries. Subsequently, they collaborated with a local partner but kept the idea of supplying discounted products. The strategy failed, and Tesco withdrew from Japan mostly because they failed to understand the role played by fresh food for local consumers. Sun et al. (2017) concluded that “The success or failure of global retailers depends on their capability and willingness to adapt to local markets.” A similar conclusion can be found in Burt et al. (2003), Dawson and Mukoyama (2014), Dupuis and Prime (1996), Wood et al. (2016), and Yoder et al. (2016).

Jeong et al. (2018) note that most studies “focus on companies based in the United States, thus preventing the generalization of finding.” Duman and Poturak (2014) suggest the need for more studies concerning European firms. Jeong et al. (2018) conclude that the country of origin plays a significant role in the globalization versus internationalization debate. Specifically, products from a country with a good reputation require a lower degree of adaptation.

In summary, the third school of thought supports the idea of a hybrid strategy. In other words, it is about the degree of adaptation, which depends on market conditions, industry, product, culture, and many other situational, internal, and external factors. Jeong et al. (2018) further develop and qualify this concept but advance the

idea of “all marketing mix strategies must be fit” (an idea mentioned by Porter, 1996). For example, this means that if a firm adopts the feature of a product, it should also consistently adapt the other elements of the marketing mix to avoid consumer confusion. This insight seems to be quite relevant for the case of DC-SIP, where a firm adapts its product but fails to adapt the package, advertising, and communication to consumers.

### ***The trends for standardization vs. adaptation debate***

Most recent scholars, such as Jeong et al. (2019), Sun et al. (2017), and Venaik and Midgley (2019), agree with a hybrid strategy for the entire marketing mix. They argue that the degree of standardization/adaptation is essential for successful global trade strategies (the argument is also supported by Brei et al., 2011; Vrontis et al., 2009; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014). Nevertheless, most of the studies are related to the firm’s profit maximization, not consumer behavior, utility, and welfare.

Tan and Sousa (2013) report that the appropriate degree of standardization depends on the industry, which is also supported by Samiee and Roth (1992), Schilke et al. (2009), and Kreiter and Helm (2018). There is evidence that even within the same industry, there are firms with entirely different strategies (Venaik & Midgley, 2019). For instance, concerning the food industry, Venaik and Midgley (2019) note that Nestlé largely standardized Nespresso coffee machines and capsules, while PepsiCo developed country-specific snacks such as a spicy snack called “Kurkure” tailored to the Indian market.

Jeong et al. (2018) found that the country of origin plays a significant role in the adaptation vs. standardization debate. Specifically, products from a country with a good reputation will require a lower degree of adaptation.



### **Global brand vs. local brand**

A global brand is defined as “the worldwide use of a name, term sign, symbol, design or combination thereof intended to identify one seller’s goods or services and differentiate them from those of competitors” (Haefner et al., 2011). Consumers’ perception of brands’ image may be categorized into global brands, foreign brands, multinational brands, local brands, and so on. However, there are always new discussions about what is preferred by consumers. Additionally, the trends in developed countries and developing countries are different. As Alden et al. (1999), Batra et al. (2000), and Zhou et al. (2010) mentioned, “Foreign image appeals are generally associated with glamour especially among consumers in developing countries.” However, many scholars have found that consumers living in developed countries favor domestic over foreign products. According to Okechuku (1994), “the consumers in the United States, Canada, Germany, and the Netherlands evaluated domestically manufactured electronic products most favorably, followed by products made in other developed countries and lastly products from less developed countries.” On the other hand, the role of country of origin (COO) is widely researched in global marketing and consumer behavior literature (Dekhili & Achabou, 2015; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Thøgersen et al., 2017). Consumer preferences for brands with global image over local competitors, even when quality and value are not superior, have been proposed as a fourth reason for companies to move toward global brands (Kapferer, 1997; Shocker et al., 1994; Steenkamp et al., 2003). “The distinctive images created by multinational corporations make foreign brands generally more desirable in developing countries” (Ger & Belk, 1996; Wang et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2010). Although in the 1980s and 1990s retailers tried to internationalize and enter developing countries (Goldman, 2000;

Swoboda et al., 2009), in the 21st century, “foreign retailers cannot rely on the weakness of domestic competitors anymore” (Swoboda et al., 2012).

Table 3-2 on the next page summarizes the consumer’s motivations to choose global brand products instead of local brands and the scholars who supported the motivation.

**Table 3.3**

*Overview of consumer Reasons to persuing global brands instead of local brands.*

<b>Global brand</b>	<b>Supporters</b>
Perceptions of brand superiority, more admired, positive perception	Holt et al., 2004; Kapferer, 1997; Keller et al., 2011; Kochan, 1996; Shocker et al., 1994; Zhou et al., 2010
Higher quality	Kapferer, 1997; Keller, 1998; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Yip, 1995; Zhou et al., 2010
Higher prestige	Batra et al., 2000; Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Kapferer, 1997; McCracken, 1986; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010
Cosmopolitanism	Friedman, 1990; Thompson & Tambyah, 1999
Globalness (global consumer culture)	Alden et al., 1999; Dawar & Parker, 1994; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010
Added value for the consumer	Erdem et al., 2006; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010
Social capital and social responsibility	Özsomer & Altaras, 2008; Zhou et al., 2010

Bearden and Etzel (1982) suggest that “If global brands have higher prestige, it could be because of their relative scarcity and higher price compared with local brands.”

Batra et al. (2000) also support the idea that global brands are scarcer and more expensive (admitting some exceptions, such as Coca-Cola). Considering these opinions, some local companies use foreign appeals strategies to be competitive with global brands, and in this way, they create a higher quality perception and increase social status (Eckhardt, 2005; Ger & Belk, 1996; Zhou & Belk, 2004; Zhou et al., 2010). Choosing foreign appeals strategies by local companies and the global brand firms' localization strategy cause some consumer's "uncertainty or lack of clarity about a brand's foreign culture positioning" (Keller & Moorthi, 2003; Quelch, 1999; Zhang & Schmitt, 2001; Zhou et al., 2010), there are some confusion for consumers in developing countries if the brand is the local or nonlocal origin (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Samiee et al., 2005; Zhou et al., 2010). Since global marketers prefer to mask the origin of their brands (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 1999; Shimp et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 2010), "some consumers may associate foreign images brand with less credible product quality" (Zhou et al., 2010).

## **Chapter 4 Methodology and Data**

The dual quality issue has been intensely studied since 2017; however, the studies and investigations are based on product features such as ingredients, compositions, and packaging. Quality is defined as the “totality of characteristics of a product that bears on its ability to satisfy stated and implied needs” according to the ISO definition (Becker, 1999). The lack of studies on consumer behavior and opinion motivated our survey, including two samples, one from Western Europe (Rome, Italy) and the other is taken in eastern Europe (Warsaw, Poland). A questionnaire is designed based on the literature review, translated to Italian and Polish, and 544 completed samples are collected (excluding tourists and nonpermanent residents) in June and July 2019. The methodology is explained in the following.

### **Designing the Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was designed in seven sections: i) sociodemographics, ii) reason to buy a global brand, iii) perception of firms’ motivations for localization strategy, iv) acceptance of differences in product features, v) information expectation regarding different quality, vi) information demand, and vii) past experiences with dual quality. However, the last three sections are not discussed in this dissertation.

#### ***Sociodemographics***

This section was designed to understand better the sample and participants, including eight multiple-choice questions related to residency, nationality, gender, age, education, travel frequency, living abroad experience, and the consumer definition of a global brand.

#### ***Reason to buy a global brand***

According to the literature, the main reasons consumers may choose GBFPs over LBFPs are their perceptions of the following:

- *Higher quality*, consistent with Anonymous (2001), Steenkamp et al. (2003), Özsomer and Altaras (2008), Yip (1995) and Zhou et al. (2010).
- *Higher prestige*, consistent with Batra et al. (2000), Bearden and Etzel (1982), Kapferer (1997), McCracken (1986), Özsomer and Altaras (2008), Steenkamp et al. (2003) and Zhou et al. (2010).
- *Superiority*, consistent with Holt et al. (2004), Kapferer (1997), Keller (1998), Kochan (1996), Shocker et al. (1994), and Zhou et al. (2010).
- *Cosmopolitanism*, consistent with Friedman (1990) and Thompson and Tambyah (1999).
- *Being a global consumer*, consistent with Alden et al. (1999), Dawar and Parker (1994), Özsomer and Altaras (2008), Steenkamp et al. (2003) and Zhou et al. (2010).

These motivations are studied through our survey and are compared between participants from Italy and Poland. Respondents were asked to select a response on a 5-point modified Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) reflecting the level of agreement for each reason according to consumer belief.

Respondents were asked to write any other reasons not mentioned in the survey, aiming to expand the topic for further research.

### ***Perception of firms' motivations for localization strategy***

According to the previous research and studies, the firms follow the localization (adaptation) strategies for many reasons, discussed in Chapter 3. We summarized the firms' motivations to seven main topics to study how the reasons are acceptable by consumers. The mentioned main topics are the following:

- *Cultural differences*, supported by Amine et al. (1986), Cateora (1993), Cayla and Arnould (2008), Douglas and Wind (1987), Friedman (1986), Lannon (1988), Onkvisit and Shaw (1999), Vignali (2001) and Vrontis et al. (2009).
- *Religious differences*, supported by Amine and Cavusgil (1986), Cateora (1993), Cayla and Arnould (2008), Douglas and Wind (1987), Friedman (1986), Lannon (1988), Onkvisit and Shaw (1987), Vignali (2001) and Vrontis et al. (2009).
- *Taste differences*, supported by Alimienè and Kuvykaitė (2008), Czinkota and Ronnenken (1998), Martenson (1987), Quelch (2003), Vignali (2001) and Vrontis et al. (2009).
- *Country law and regulation differences*, supported by Alimienè and Kuvykaitė (2008), Levitt (1993), Vignali (2001), and Vrontis et al. (2009).
- *Economics situation and consumer willingness to pay*, supported by Katsikeas and Samiee (2002), Kreutzer (1988) and Vignali (2001).
- *Competition and gaining market share*, supported by Alimienè and Kuvykaitė (2008), Harris (1985), Katsikeas and Samiee (2002), Rosen (1990), Samiee and Roth (1992), Walters (1986) and Wei and Yazdanifard (2014).
- *Ecological differences*, supported by Griffith et al. (2014), Kreutzer (1988) and Vrontis et al. (2009).

Participants were asked to select a response on a 5-point modified Likert scale from 1 (Absolutely not acceptable) to 5 (Absolutely acceptable) reflecting the level of agreement for each reason according to consumer belief.

### ***Acceptance of differences in product features***

To understand the consumer opinion about the dual quality of GBFPs, we study CAL regarding differences in the GBFP features. The GBFPs' features influencing the dual quality of products studying in this survey are chosen based on European

Commission and Eastern European countries' authorities' investigation reports on dual quality in 2016 and 2017. These features are the following:

Taste, Color, Texture, Ingredients and Composition, Size of Product, Ingredients Content Percentages, Labeling and Product Information, Packaging Design, and Price.

The respondents were asked to select a response on a 5-point modified Likert scale from 1 (Absolutely not acceptable) to 5 (Absolutely acceptable) reflecting how the reason is acceptable for consumers.

At the end of this section, the participant was asked a Yes/No question of whether, in general, they believe that a food product with the global brand must be the same in their country compared to other countries.

### **Sampling and Data Collection**

The questionnaire was pretested by 20 participants of different ages and backgrounds to ensure that the questions were straightforward and the questionnaire length was appropriate. The questionnaire was designed in the English language and was then translated into both Italian and Polish languages with the help of native language experts. The translated questionnaires were tested by five participants in each country (Italy and Poland). It took between 10–12 minutes to be completed.

The target population was Italian and Polish food consumers. The survey was conducted in public places such as in front of supermarkets, departmental stores, train and bus stations, and parks.

The data were collected in Warsaw and Rome. Rome was divided into 15 districts and Warsaw into 18 districts, and consumers were randomly selected in each district. After all data cleaning and validation, the final sample included 273 responses from Rome and 271 from Warsaw, a total of 544 responses.

The age range of the population was defined as 15 years and above. Data collection was performed during the period from June 24<sup>th</sup> until July 7<sup>th</sup>, 2019.

Detailed sociodemographic characteristics of the national and pooled samples are provided in Table 4-1 on the next page.

**Table 4.1**

*Sociodemographic Characteristics of the Consumer Sample*

	<b>Total sample</b>	<b>Italy sample</b>	<b>Poland sample</b>
	n = 544	n = 273	n = 271
<b>Gender (%)</b>			
Female	54	49	59
Male	46	51	41
Blank			
<b>Age (%)</b>			
15–24	26	22	29
25–34	43	43	44
35–44	18	17	19
Over 45	13	18	8
<b>Education level (%)</b>			
High school or less	30	35	25
Bachelor	36	48	24
Master and above	34	16	51



The method used for the data collection was a face-to-face interview, using a structured questionnaire that included both closed-ended and open-ended questions. The convenience sampling method was used by approaching people sitting in or passing from public places and willing to answer them. It was conducted from individuals aged 15 years and above since the age group below 15 years generally does not buy grocery products. The response rate was different depends on the district and the time of data collection. However, on average, one out of 10 in Rome and one out of eight in Warsaw were willing to participate in the survey. A total of 637 responses were collected, of which 544 were completed responses excluding nationalities other than Italian and Polish (such as tourists, international students, and employees) that are under consideration, which included 273 from Rome and 271 from Warsaw.

### **Data Analysis**

Consumer data were analyzed using RStudio and Excel. The clustering of variables method was performed to group the homogeneous variables that are strongly related and create a meaningful structure. For categorical variables, the association is measured by the  $\chi^2$  test used to cluster the variables. In this approach, the “homogeneity criterion of a cluster is defined as the sum of correlation ratios for qualitative variables,” and a hierarchical clustering algorithm is used (Chavent et al., 2011) based on PCAMIX, a principal component method (Kiers, 1991).

The hypotheses were tested using the chi-squared and Fisher’s exact test.

Descriptions of mean values and standard deviations format will be presented in table format to discuss consumers’ acceptance of different firms’ motivations and feature varieties at the sample level. The contingency table and Pearson residuals are used to illustrate the association between the variables and the CAL.

## **Chapter 5    Dual Quality in the EU Food Market: A Guideline Toward Localization Strategy but Avoiding Dual Quality**

Dual quality: “marketing across the Member States of goods as being identical when, in reality, they have a significantly different composition or characteristics may mislead consumers and cause them to take a transactional decision that they would not have taken otherwise” (European Parliament, 2019, points 51 and 52).

The issue of dual quality is becoming increasingly important in the current debate about European consumer protection. This chapter contributes to the debate by ranking consumer acceptance of product differences and firm motivations for product differentiation and localization strategies.

This ranking and classification may be used as a guideline for multinational companies willing to go through localization strategies but avoiding being blamed for dual quality practices. The dual quality issue includes objective and subjective components (Russo et al., 2020). Objective components such as differences in taste, color, and ingredients may be measured and harmonized; however, subjective components such as consumers’ imperfect information may cause consumer dissatisfaction since the product purchased differs from their perceptions. Therefore, if the firms only do product differentiation based on CAL, then the chance of receiving the claim on dual quality and dissatisfaction will be reduced.

Localization is defined as the “process of adapting a product or service to a particular culture, language, developing a local appeal, and satisfying local needs” (Dumitrescu & Vinerean, 2010), which may also increase the market share and the firms’ profit (Alimienè & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014). Although product localization strategies may increase consumer utility and satisfaction, the lack of limits and regulations gives opportunistic companies a chance to take advantage of

the small difference between localization strategy and dual quality practice. For instance, reducing some ingredients or using low-quality ingredients to reduce costs comes under dual quality practices. According to BEUC, the claims regarding dual quality issues come from Eastern European countries, such as the Czech Republic, Croatia, and Hungary (BEUC, 2018). No claim from Western European countries aligns with the hypothesis that there is a relationship between countries and dual quality acceptance investigated in this research. The product features classification would help multinational companies to plan a better localization strategy to develop their business. Additionally, policymakers may regulate the product features differences concerning the consumer point of view.

### **Literature Review**

The debate of product standardization versus adaptation in international trade was introduced by Elinder (1965) and was developed for over six decades by other scholars such as Boddewyn et al. (1986), Buzzell (1968), Douglas and Wind (1987), Levitt (1993), Lannon (1988), Ryans (1969), Vignali (2001), and Whitelock and Pimblett (1997). Most recent scholars agree with a hybrid strategy for the entire marketing mix, and they argue that the degree of standardization and adaptation is essential for successful internationalization strategies (e.g., Brei et al., 2011; Jeong et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2017; Venaik & Midgley, 2019; Vrontis et al., 2009; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014). Nevertheless, most studies are related to the firm's profit maximization and not consumer behavior, utilities, and welfare. Some scholars have mentioned localization as a consumer interest, and they note that localization is required because of consumer culture, religion, taste, and country law. (e.g., Alimiené & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Czinkota & Ronkainen, 1998; Douglas & Wind, 1987; Sun et al., 2017; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al., 2009; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014). Many scholars

have referred to product differentiation as a competitive advantage for firms (Douglas & Wind, 1987; Schilke et al., 2009).

According to Bagozzi (1986), Chamberlin (1933), and Judd (1987), consumer satisfaction and competitive advantage are the main goals for firms using product differentiation strategies. However, the fact is that there is no exact definition for the “product differentiation” concept (Smyth & Phillips, 2002). Shaked and Sutton (1987) defined both horizontal and vertical differentiation: in the former, there are “distinct” products with different characteristics (the example of Hotelling’s location), and in the latter, there are “distinct” products with different qualities. In vertical differentiation is assumed that a consumer has a higher willingness to pay for the product with higher quality, considering differences in their taste, income or both. According to Lancaster, 1966, quality is a set of product attributes and features; therefore, any changes in the product’s features mean that the product has a different quality. Therefore, in the product differentiation theories and models, it is assumed that the consumer is perfectly informed about product characteristics. This is the missing part of many global producers’ product adaptation strategies, leading to dual quality issues. They supply the products with certain attributes and quality without considering what consumers expect from GBFPs without giving them a chance to know that the product is different in other countries. Consequently, the consumers assume that there is a unique product under a specific brand and will buy the only one that is provided.

According to the total quality model (Grunert, 2005), a brand as an extrinsic quality cue greatly influences consumers’ behavior and purchasing decisions. Consumer perception based on brand advertising influences their satisfaction after using the product (Grunert et al., 2004). Consumer behavior, according to global brands and domestic brands, has been studied for a long time. Global brands are defined as

“brands owned by multinational corporations from developed regions” (He et al., 2009; Holt et al., 2004; Steenkamp et al., 2003) and emerging countries (Guo & Hong, 2018; Kumar & Steenkamp, 2013). However, the trend in developed countries and developing countries are different regarding purchasing global brand products. As Alden et al. (1999), Batra et al. (2000), and Zhou et al. (2010) found, “Foreign image appeals are generally associated with glamour especially among consumers in developing countries.” However, many scholars have found that consumers living in developed countries favor domestic over foreign products. Some other reasons why a consumer chooses a global brand versus a local brand are perceptions of brand superiority (Holt et al., 2004; Kapferer, 1997; Kochan, 1996; Shocker et al., 1994; Zhou et al., 2010), higher quality (Anonymous, 2001; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010), higher prestige (Batra et al., 2000; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010), and cosmopolitanism (Friedman, 1990; Thompson & Tambyah, 1999). Therefore, it is understandable if a consumer is upset because of the lower quality of food products in a certain country since their expectations of the global brand are different.

### **Hypothesis Development and Measurement**

Given the results of the literature review, we run a survey of 637 consumers in Poland and Italy to assess i) the differences in product features and ii) the motivations for product adaptation that are the most acceptable to consumers and test whether consumer perception of dual quality changes across countries (as suggested by BEUC, 2018; Sisto et al., 2019).

#### ***Acceptable motivations for product adaptation according to consumer point of view***

The motivations for product adaptation strategy may be summarized as follows: **cultural differences** and **religious differences** (supported by Amine & Cavusgil, 1986;

Cateora, 1993; Cayla & Arnould, 2008; Douglas & Wind, 1987; Friedman, 1986; Lannon, 1988; Onkvisit & Shaw, 1987; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al. 2009), **taste differences** (supported by Alimienė and Kuvykaitė, 2008; Czinkota & Ronnenken, 1995; Doyle, 1994; Martenson, 1987; Quelch, 2003; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al., 2009), **country law and regulation differences** (supported by Alimienė & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Levitt, 1993; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al., 2009), **economics situation and consumer willingness to pay** (supported by Katsikeas & Samiee, 2002; Kreutzer, 1988; Vignali, 2001), **competition and gaining market share** (supported by Alimienė & Kuvykaitė, 2008; Harris, 1985; Katsikeas & Samiee 2002; Rosen, 1990; Samiee & Roth, 1992; Walters, 1986; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014), and **ecological differences** (supported by Griffith et al., 2014; Kreutzer, 1988; Vrontis et al., 2009).

As mentioned above, the firms and scholars supporting the localization strategies discuss that GBFPs localization may benefit consumers because of culture, religion, or taste preferences. It may also cause an increase in the firm's market share and profit for the firms. Besides consumer favor or firms' benefit, product localization may have to be done because of the local country's regulations or ecological situations. However, the relevant question is which of the mentioned motivations are acceptable by consumers that can be considered leverage to increase the consumer utility and which motivations are not acceptable from the consumer's point of view, leading the companies toward the dual quality issue.

To achieve this objective, the respondents were asked to select a response on a 5-point modified Likert scale from 1 (Absolutely not acceptable) to 5 (Absolutely acceptable) reflecting how much the reason is acceptable for consumers (Appendix 1).

### ***Product features leading to dual quality issues from the consumer's point of view***

Quality is defined as the “totality of characteristics of a product that bear on its ability to satisfy stated and implied needs” according to the ISO definition (Becker, 1999). The quality elements that are considered in this dissertation are chosen based on European Commission investigations and reports. The list included taste, color, texture, ingredients and composition, size of product, ingredient content percentages, labeling and product information, packaging design, and price. The question then arises of which of the mentioned features are acceptable to consumers to be varied in different countries. Grouping the food product features based on the consumer's point of view helps policymakers to regulate the dual quality activities to prevent consumers from feeling discriminated against, as well as helping producers to recognize what is not acceptable to consumers and might drive them to purchase similar products from other brands as a result of reducing their utility and satisfaction.

To achieve this objective, the respondents were asked to select a response on a 5-point modified Likert scale from 1 (Absolutely not acceptable) to 5 (Absolutely acceptable) reflecting how the reason is acceptable for consumers (Appendix 1).

### **Methodology**

Since the methodology is discussed in Chapter 4, we only recall the main points as follows.

#### ***Questionnaire, sampling, and data collection***

The questionnaire was designed in seven sections: i) sociodemographics, ii) reason to buy the global brand, iii) perception of firms' motivations for product differentiation, iv) acceptance of differences in product features, v) information expectation regarding different quality, vi) information demand, and vii) past experiences with dual quality. However, only the firm's motivations and product feature

sections are discussed in this chapter, while the rest of the questionnaire will be discussed in Chapter 6 and future research.

Briefly, the target population was Italian and Polish food consumers. The data were collected in Warsaw and Rome. After all data cleaning and validation, the final sample included 273 responses from Rome and 271 from Warsaw: a total of 544 responses. The age range of the population was defined as 15 years and above. Data collection was performed during the period from June 24th until July 7th, 2019.

Detailed sociodemographic characteristics of the national and pooled samples are provided in Table 4.1 in Chapter 4.

Respondents were asked to select a response on a 5-point interval scale the extent from 1 (Absolutely not acceptable) to 5 (Absolutely acceptable) reflecting the level of consumer acceptance.

Cronbach's alpha for firms' motivation and product features sections are 0.95 and 0.87, respectively, suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency (Gliem & Gliem, 2003).

## **Results and Discussion**

Results and discussion are divided into three main parts: the relation between accepting dual quality and nationality, acceptable firm's motivations, and acceptable features differences according to the consumer point of view. We discuss them in the following.

### ***The relation between accepting dual quality and nationality***

National background and culture influence consumer opinion regarding dual quality. This hypothesis was investigated through the question, "In general, do you believe that a food product with a global brand must be the same in your country compared to other countries?" The concept of "dual quality" is not asked directly to



prevent a psychological negative influence. Only 54% of Italians responded “Yes” to this question compared to 90% of Polish. This result strongly suggests that expecting to have the same product quality in all countries or accepting dual quality is related to nationality. The following hypothesis was examined through the chi-squared test:

H0: The two variables (nationality and accepting dual quality) are independent

H1: The two variables (nationality and accepting dual quality) are not independent

The  $\chi^2$  statistics were 86.55 (with one degree of freedom). The corresponding  $p$ -value is close to zero and smaller than 0.05. The null hypothesis is rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. We conclude that there is a relationship between nationality and acceptance of dual quality practices. Considering this result, we ran other analyses separately by country.

#### ***Acceptable firm's motivations according to the consumer's point of view***

Descriptive analysis (Table 5-1) illustrated small differences between the firm's motivation acceptance by sample consumers in each country. However, “country law and regulations” has a higher acceptance rate in both countries, although it is stronger in Poland compared to Italy, with a mean of 4.01 and 3.89, respectively. In contrast, “economic situation and consumer willingness to pay” and “competition and gaining more market share” have the least acceptable motives according to both countries (and especially in Poland), with means of 2.71 and 2.37, respectively. Table 5-1 on the next page illustrate the CAL of firms' motivations for dual quality.

**Table 5.1**

*Consumer acceptance of a firm's motivation for dual quality. Mean values (on a 5-point Likert Scale) and standard deviations for the sample*

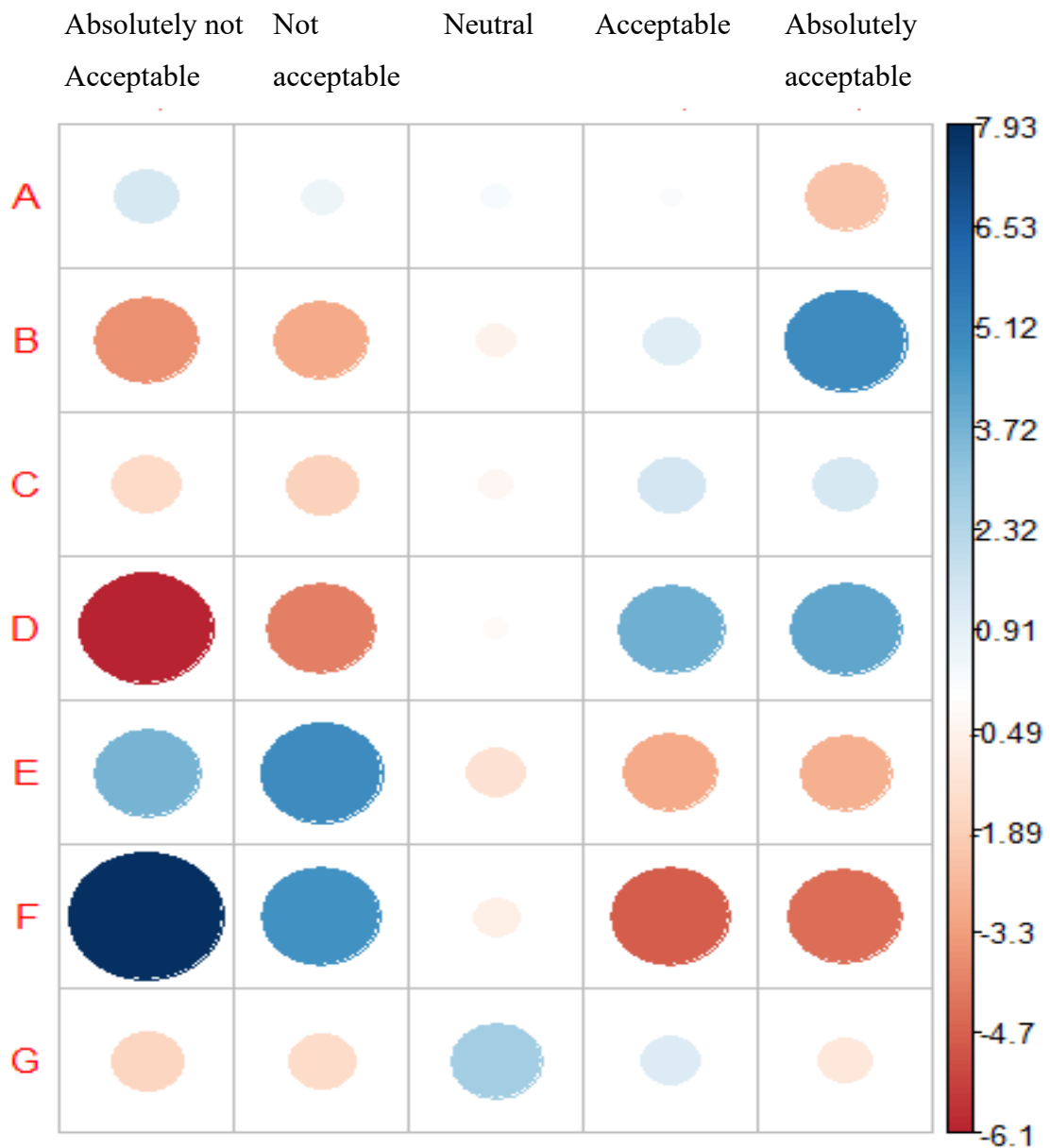
	<b>Italy Sample</b>		<b>Poland Sample</b>		<b>Total Sample</b>	
	<b>n = 272</b>		<b>n = 271</b>		<b>n = 543</b>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
<b>Cultural differences</b>	3.41	1.03	3.07	3.24	1.21	1.21
<b>Religious differences</b>	3.70	0.99	3.82	1.18	3.76	1.09
<b>Consumer taste differences</b>	3.75	0.89	3.51	1.28	3.63	1.11
<b>Country law and regulations</b>	3.89	0.96	4.01	0.87	3.95	0.92
<b>Economic situation and consumer willingness to pay</b>	3.24	1.15	2.71	1.37	2.98	1.29
<b>Competition and gaining more market share</b>	2.81	1.20	2.37	1.32	2.59	1.28
<b>Ecological differences</b>	3.61	1.03	3.38	1.22	3.49	1.14

To better understand the association between the level of consumer acceptance of a firm's motivations to produce food products under the same brand and different quality, the Pearson residuals for both countries can be visualized in Figure 5-1. and Figure 5-2. According to the sample results, there is a stronger positive association between "religion" and "Absolutely acceptable" to have different food quality in Poland

compared to Italy. In parallel, “consumer taste” as a dual quality reason has a stronger positive association with being “Acceptable” by Italian consumers. “Country law and regulations” is strongly associated positively with “Absolutely acceptable” in Italy, while its association is divided between “Acceptable” and “Absolutely acceptable” in Poland. Both “economic situation” and “competition and market share” as reasons for dual quality are critical for both countries, with more weight in Poland. These two motivations have a strong positive association with “Absolutely not acceptable” and “Not acceptable” in Poland. This was also true for Italy, with the difference that in Italy there is a positive association between these two reasons for dual quality and “Neutral” acceptance level, but in Poland this association is negative.

**Figure 5.1**

*Association Between (Pearson Residuals of) Firms' Motivations and Level of Consumer Acceptance in Poland*

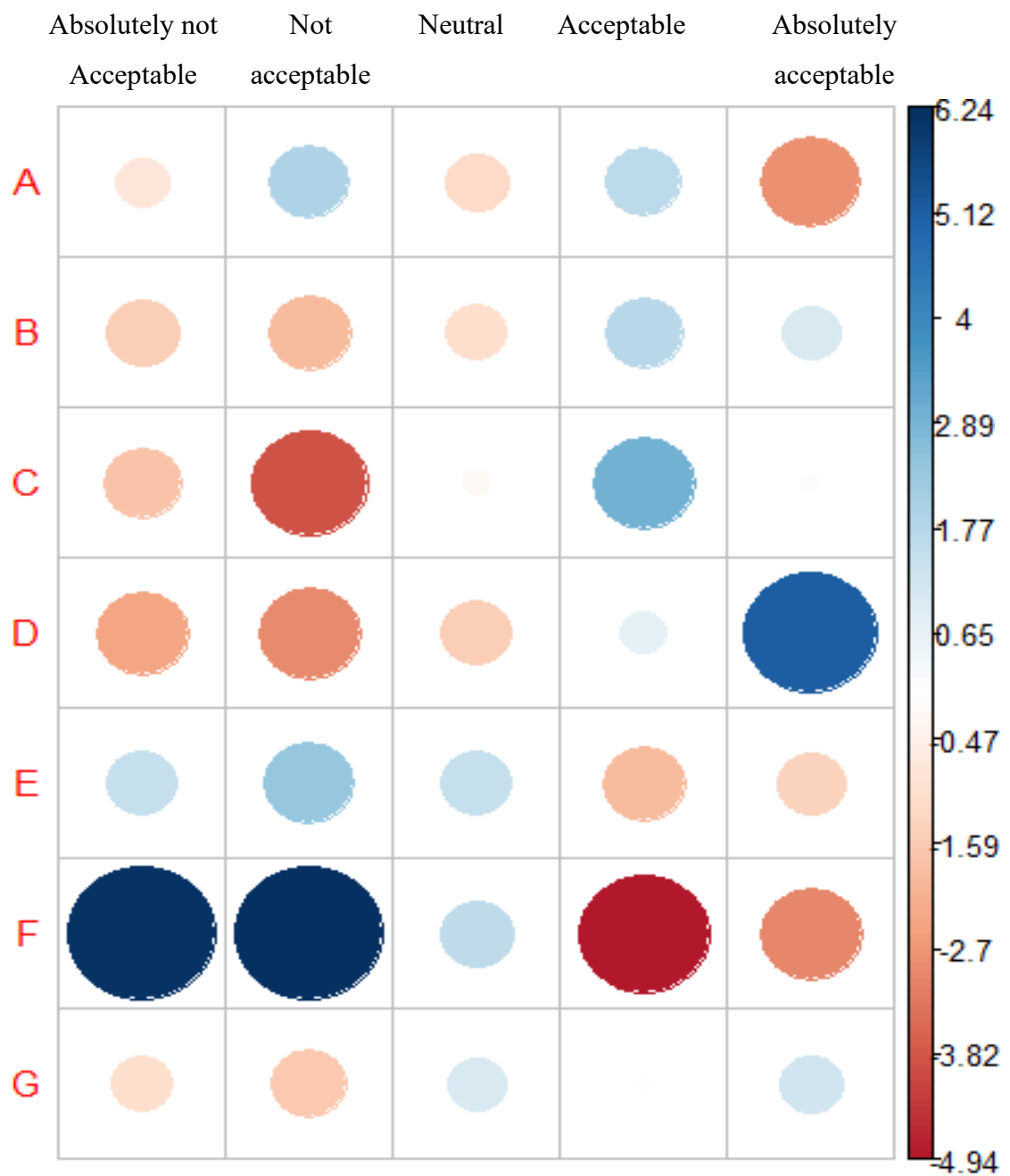


*Note:* For a given cell, the circle's size is proportional to the amount of the cell's contribution to the total chi-squared. The color of the standardized residuals specifies a positive (in blue) or negative (in red) association between the corresponding row and column variables. The rows are firms' motivations for dual quality. A is culture, B is religion, C is consumer taste, D is country rules and regulations, E is economic situation

and consumer willingness to pay, F is competition and market share, and G is ecological differences. The columns are the acceptance level.

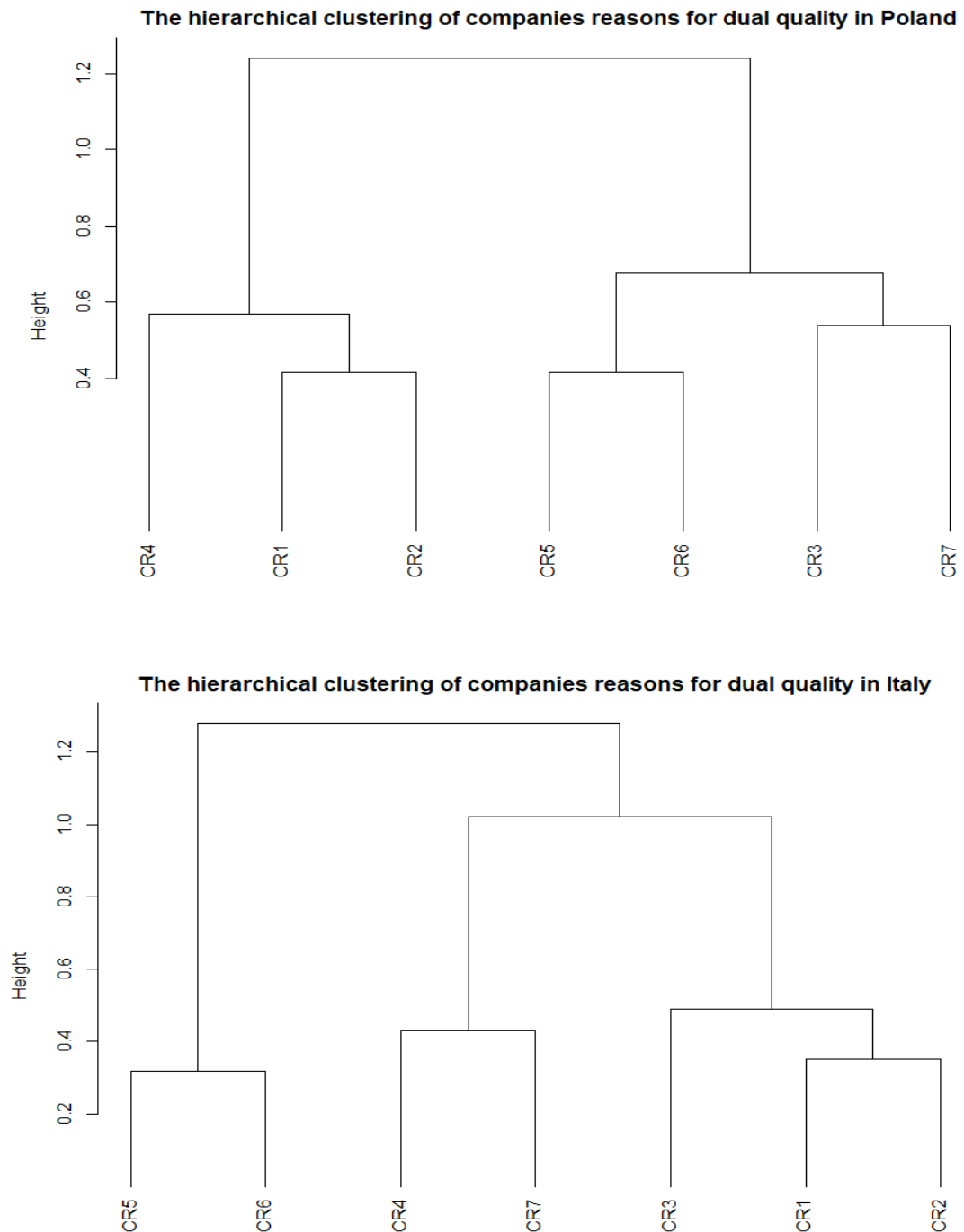
**Figure 5.2**

*Association Between (Pearson Residuals of) Firms' Motivations and Level of Consumer Acceptance in Italy*



*Note:* For a given cell, the circle's size is proportional to the amount of the cell's contribution to the total chi-squared. The color of the standardized residuals specifies a positive (in blue) or negative (in red) association between the corresponding row and column variables. The rows are firms' motivations for dual quality. A is culture, B is religion, C is consumer taste, D is country rules and regulations, E is economic situation and consumer willingness to pay, F is competition and market share, and G is ecological differences. The columns are the acceptance level.

The analysis shows that the CAL is different from a firm's motivation to produce food products with different qualities. To understand the links between these seven qualitative variables, we constructed a hierarchy using the function `hclustvar` in RStudio. In Figure 5-3, we plot the dendrogram for both countries. It shows that the variable "economic situation and consumer willingness to pay" is linked (in terms of correlation ratio) with the variable "competition and market share" in both countries, which we call "economic reasons group."

**Figure 5.3***Dendrograms of firms' motivations based on consumer acceptance level*

*Note:* CR1 stands for culture, CR2 for religion, CR3 for consumer taste, CR4 for country law and regulation, CR5 for economic situation, CR6 for competition and market share, and CR7 for ecological differences.

In Italy, “culture,” “religion,” and “consumer taste” are linked together more closely. However, in Poland, “country law and regulation” are linked to “culture” and “religion”. It can be concluded that culture and religion are tightly linked in both countries. We call the resulting construct the “ideology group.” The ideology group is linked to country law and regulations in Poland and create a “public interest group.” However, The ideology group is linked to consumer taste in Italy and create an “individual interest group.” Country law and ecological differences may create an “external reasons group” in Italy. In contrast, consumer taste differences and ecological differences create a “fruition group” in Poland.

The dendrogram may be cut to the  $K$  cluster if  $1 \leq K \leq K_0$  when  $K_0$  is the number of variables. Considering the level of stability and the percentage of homogeneity helps us choose the cut-off level (Chavent et al., 2011). According to these dendrograms, we chose to cut the dendrograms into  $K = 3$  clusters based on the stability of the partitions graph and the percentage of homogeneity accounted for by the partition obtained with the hierarchical clustering algorithm. Variable clusters for firms’ motivations toward dual quality based on CAL are shown in Table 5-2.



**Table 5.2**

*Variable Clustering for Firms' Motivations Toward Dual Quality Based on Consumer Acceptance Level*

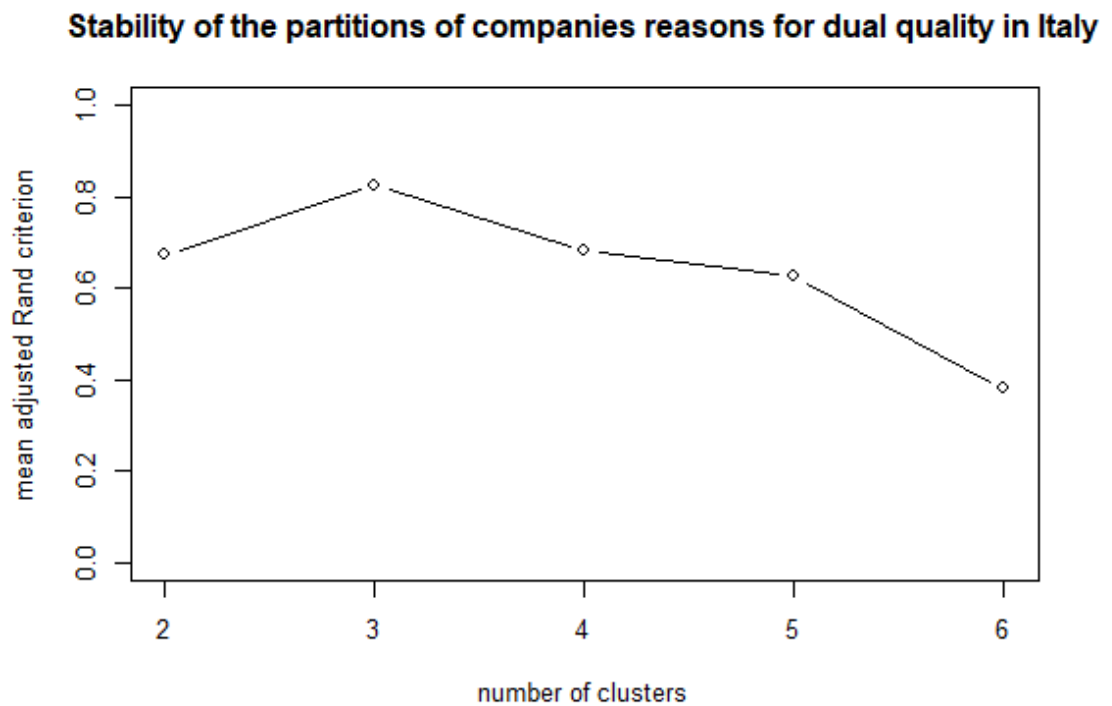
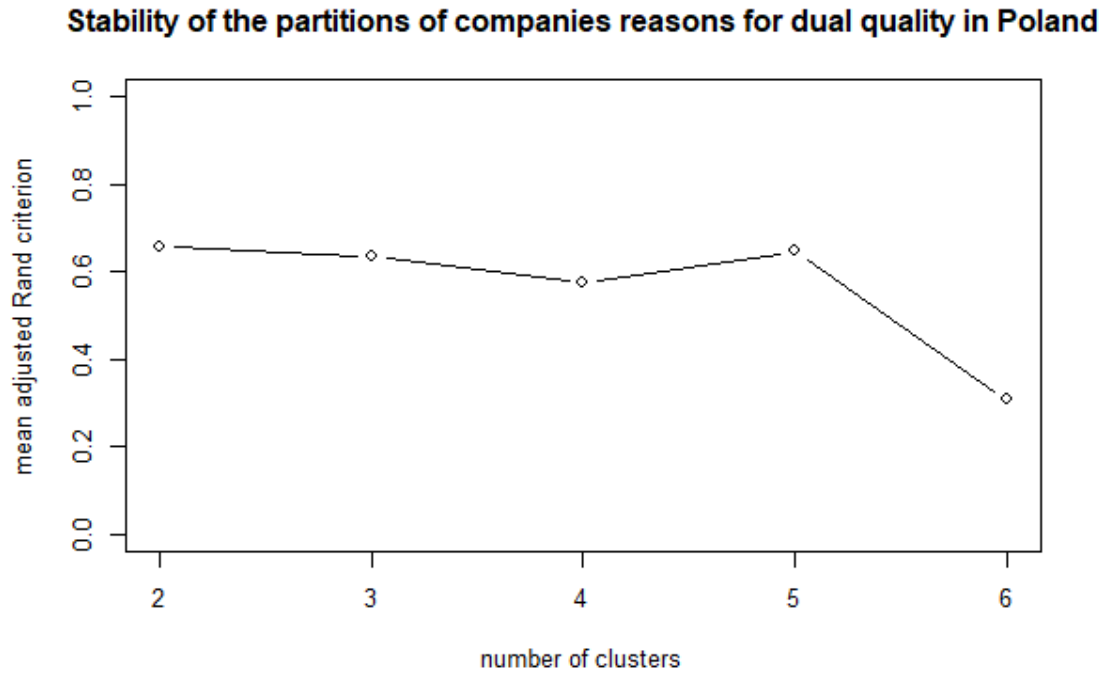
<b>Country</b>	<b>Cluster 1</b>	<b>Cluster 2</b>	<b>Cluster 3</b>	<b>Percentage of Homogeneity</b>
<b>Italy</b>	Culture, religion, consumer taste	Economics situation, competition and market share	Country law and regulation, ecological differences	59.07
<b>Poland</b>	Culture, religion, country law and regulation	Economics situation, competition and market share	Consumer taste, ecological differences	49.66

The percentage of homogeneity accounted by the partition obtained with the hierarchical clustering algorithm is 59.07 for Italy and 49.67 for Poland for our model. The larger percentage of homogeneity represents more homogeneity in each cluster of the model. However, the stability of the model is also essential.

To explain better the reason for choosing  $K = 3$ , the stability of the partitions for Poland and Italy are presented in Figure 5-4. The graphs suggest the number of clusters required to have a more stable model. Considering the model's stability, the percentage of homogeneity, and the variable clustering goal, we decided on the number of clusters.

**Figure 5.4**

*The Stability of the Partitions for the Firms' Motivations in Poland and Italy*



The graph for Poland suggests that the models with two, three, and five clusters have almost similar stabilities, although the graph for Italy suggests that a model with three clusters is more stable. Since we compare both countries' samples and have only seven variables, we chose  $K = 3$  as the number of clusters in our models.

***Acceptable features differences from the consumer's point of view***

Descriptive analysis in Table 5-3 illustrates the differences between the acceptance of food features by sample consumers in each country. However, "packaging design" has a higher acceptance rate in both countries, followed by "price." However, the most significant differences in Italy and Poland are in an acceptable level of differences in "ingredients and composition" and "ingredients content percentages" with means of 1.89 and 1.87, respectively, in Poland and means of 2.43 and 2.57, respectively, in Italy. These results show that people in Poland are compassionate about ingredients and composition differences in the same GBFP.

**Table 5.3**

*Consumer Acceptance of Different Features of the Same Product Under the Same Brand. Mean values (on a 5-point Likert scale) and standard deviations for the sample.*

	<b>Italy Sample</b>		<b>Poland Sample</b>		<b>Total Sample</b>	
	n = 272		n = 271		n = 543	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Taste, flavor, and smell	2.78	1.12	2.21	1.24	2.50	1.22
Color (Ex: light or strong fruity color)	2.86	1.04	2.74	1.27	2.80	1.16
Texture (softness, containing fruit pieces, etc.)	2.89	1.06	2.37	1.26	2.63	1.19
Ingredients and composition	2.43	1.14	1.89	1.19	2.16	1.19
Size of product (weight, quantity, small or big pieces, etc.)	2.93	1.02	2.46	1.34	2.69	1.21
Ingredients content percentages (nuts percentage, fat percentage etc.)	2.57	1.14	1.87	1.09	2.22	1.17
Labeling and product information	2.67	1.30	2.38	1.38	2.52	1.34
Packaging design	3.45	1.00	3.37	1.30	3.41	1.16
Price (more or less expensive)	3.19	1.15	2.83	1.34	3.01	1.26

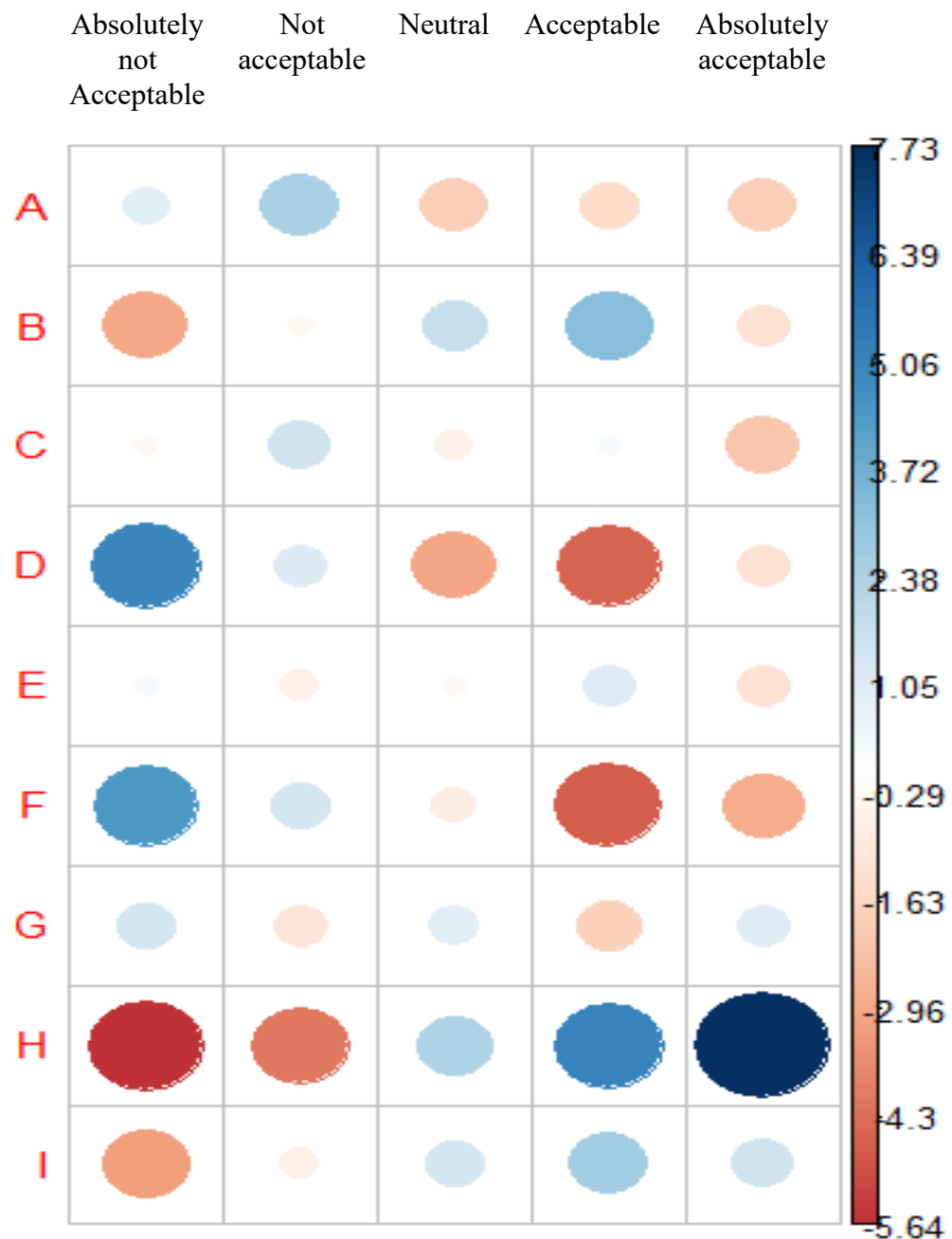
The association between CAL and product features can be visualized in Figure 5-5 for Poland and Figure 5-6 for Italy. According to the sample results, “labeling,” “packaging,” and “price” are the only features with a positive association with “Absolutely acceptable” in both Italy and Poland. Significantly, “labeling” is strongly associated with “Absolutely acceptable,” strongly positively associated with “absolutely not acceptable,” and negatively associated with “not acceptable” in both countries. In contrast, while both “ingredients and compositions” and “ingredients content percentages” have a positive association with “Absolutely not acceptable” and “Not acceptable,” their association is negative with the other CAL.

Association between product features differences and CAL for Poland and Italy are demonstrated in Figure 5-5 and Figure 5-6 on the next pages.

**Figure 5.5**

*Association Between Product Feature Differences and Level of Consumer Acceptance for Poland*

Pearson residuals regarding Acceptance of food features differences in Poland



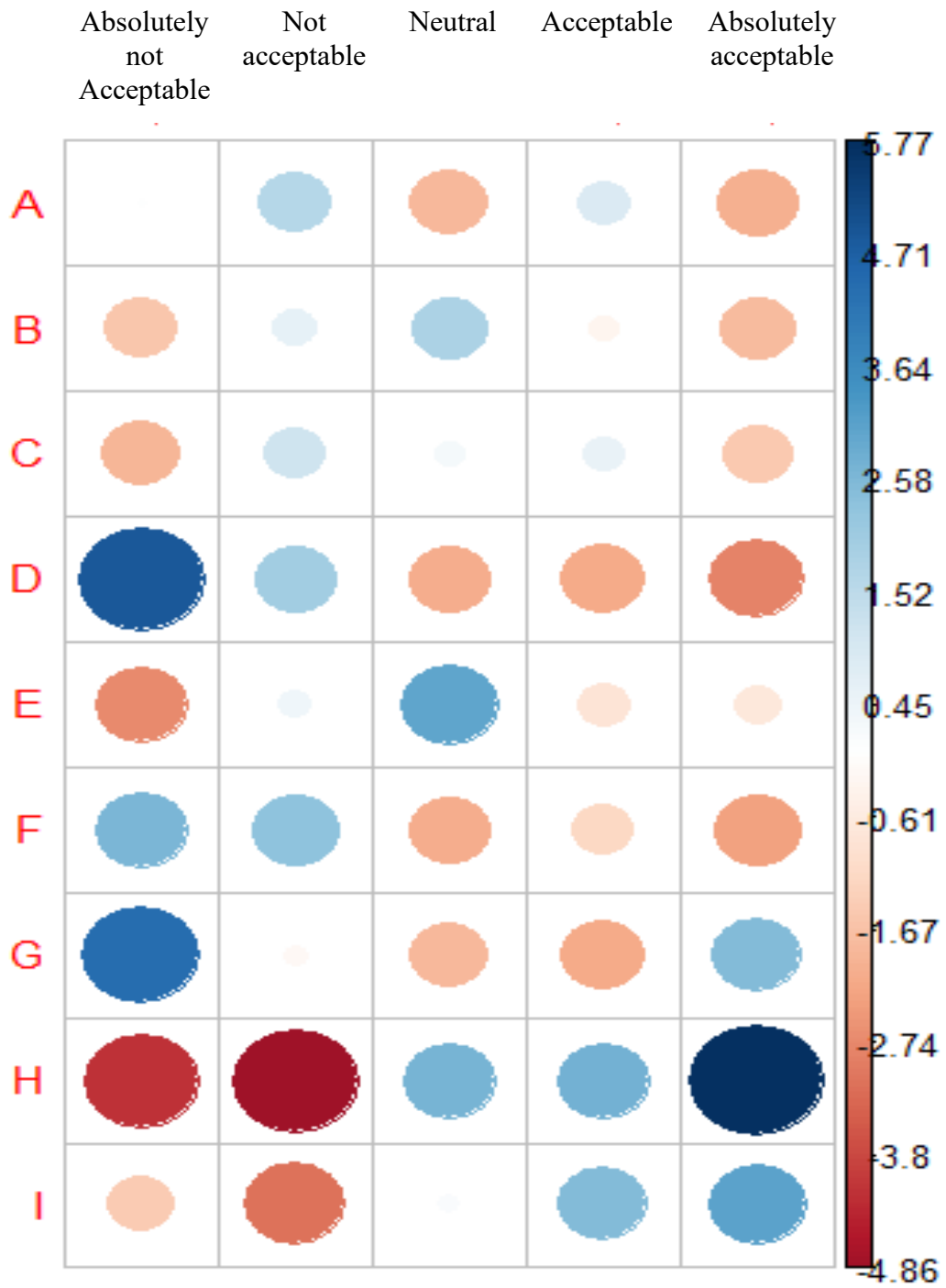
*Note.* For a given cell, the circle's size is proportional to the amount of the cell's contribution to the total chi-squared. The color of the standardized residuals specifies a positive (in blue) or negative (in red) association between the corresponding row and

column variables. The rows are product features. *A* is taste, flavor, and smell; *B* is color; *C* is texture; *D* is ingredients and composition; *E* is the size of the product; *F* is ingredients content percentages; *G* is labeling and product information; *H* is packaging design; and *I* is the price. The columns are the acceptance level.

**Figure 5.6**

*Association Between Product Feature Differences and Level of Consumer Acceptance for Italy*

Pearson residuals regarding Acceptance of food features differences in Italy



*Note:* For a given cell, the circle's size is proportional to the amount of the cell's contribution to the total chi-squared. The color of the standardized residuals specifies a

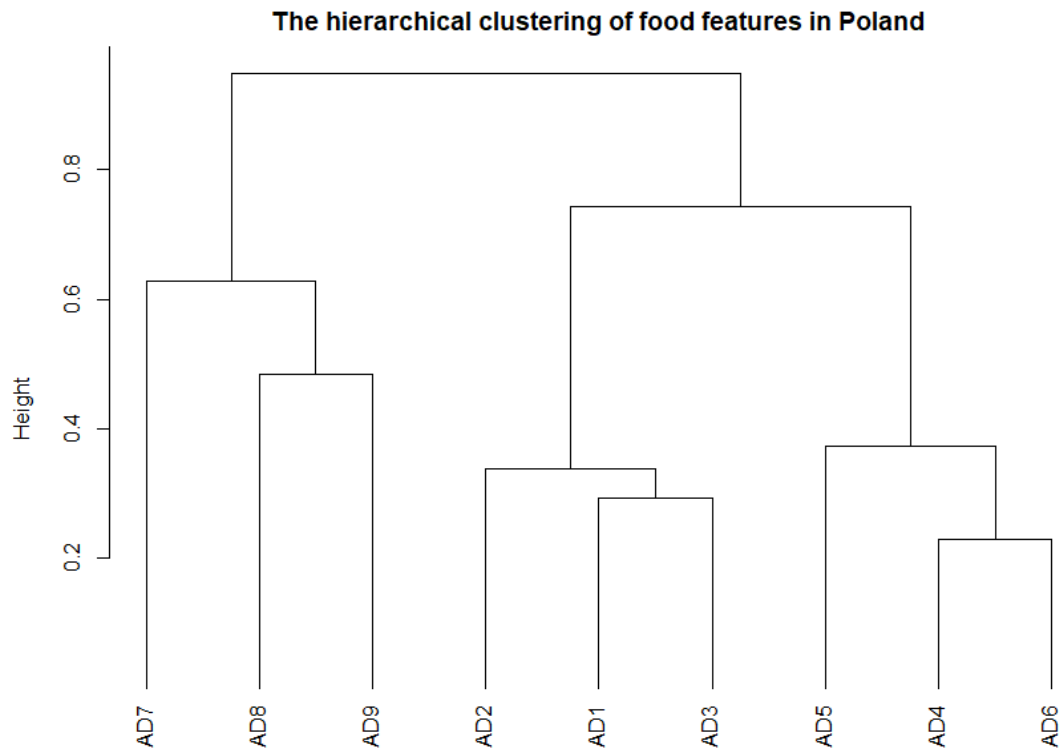


positive (in blue) or negative (in red) association between the corresponding row and column variables. The rows are product features. A is taste, flavor, and smell; B is color; C is texture; D is ingredients and composition; E is the size of the product; F is ingredients content percentages; G is labeling and product information; H is packaging design; and I is the price. The columns are the acceptance level.

Figure 5-7 and Figure 5-8, we plot the dendrogram of food product features for Poland and Italy. Although variable clusters for firms' motivation were similar in both countries, the dendrograms suggest different links and clusters for food product features based on the level of consumer acceptance in Italy and Poland. The variables "ingredients and composition" and "ingredients content percentage" were positively associated together in Poland (in terms of correlation ratio), although there was no link between them in Italy.

**Figure 5.7**

*Dendrograms of Food Product Features Involved in Dual Quality Based on Consumer Acceptance Level for Poland*

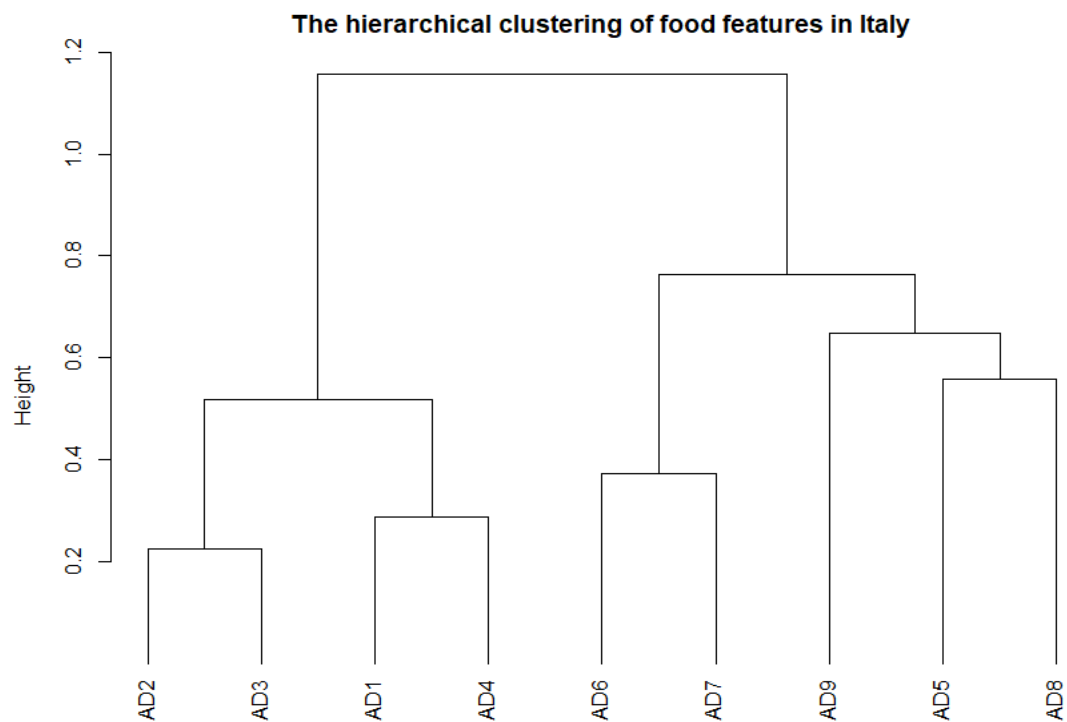


*Note.* AD1 is for taste, flavor, and smell; AD2 is color; AD3 is texture; AD4 is ingredients and composition; AD5 is the size of the product; AD6 is ingredients content percentages; AD7 is labeling and product information; AD8 is packaging design; and AD9 is price.

The acceptance level of differences regarding taste and texture was linked together in Poland, but this link is between taste and ingredients from the Italian consumer's point of view. It can be concluded that ingredients and composition, Size Of product, and ingredient content percentages are linked in Poland, and we this group the "content feature group." Likewise, taste, color, and texture create a "pleasure feature group." Packaging and price may be called the "external feature group," and labeling is linked to them, but it may represent the "information group."

**Figure 5.8**

*Dendrograms of Food Product Features Involved in Dual Quality Based on Consumer Acceptance Level for Italy*



*Note:* AD1 is for taste, flavor, and smell; AD2 is color; AD3 is texture; AD4 is ingredients and composition; AD5 is the size of the product; AD6 is ingredients content percentages; AD7 is labeling and product information; AD8 is packaging design; and AD9 is price.

In Italy, ingredients and composition are linked to taste, color, and texture, included in the “pleasure feature group.” Ingredients content percentages are linked to labeling under “information group.” Size and packaging are linked as the “external features group,” and price is in the same line of CAL with them.

According to these dendrograms, we chose to cut the dendrograms into  $K = 4$  clusters, as shown in Table 5-4. For both countries’ samples, taste, color, and texture are in the same cluster. According to the Italian sample, ingredients and composition

are in the same cluster with taste, color, and texture, but Poland representatives associate them with the size of product and ingredients content percentages. According to the sample of Poland, the packaging and price are in the same cluster. However, the packaging and size of products are in the same cluster based on Italian representatives.

**Table 5.4**

*Variable Clustering for Food Product Features Involved in Dual Quality Based on Consumer Acceptance Level*

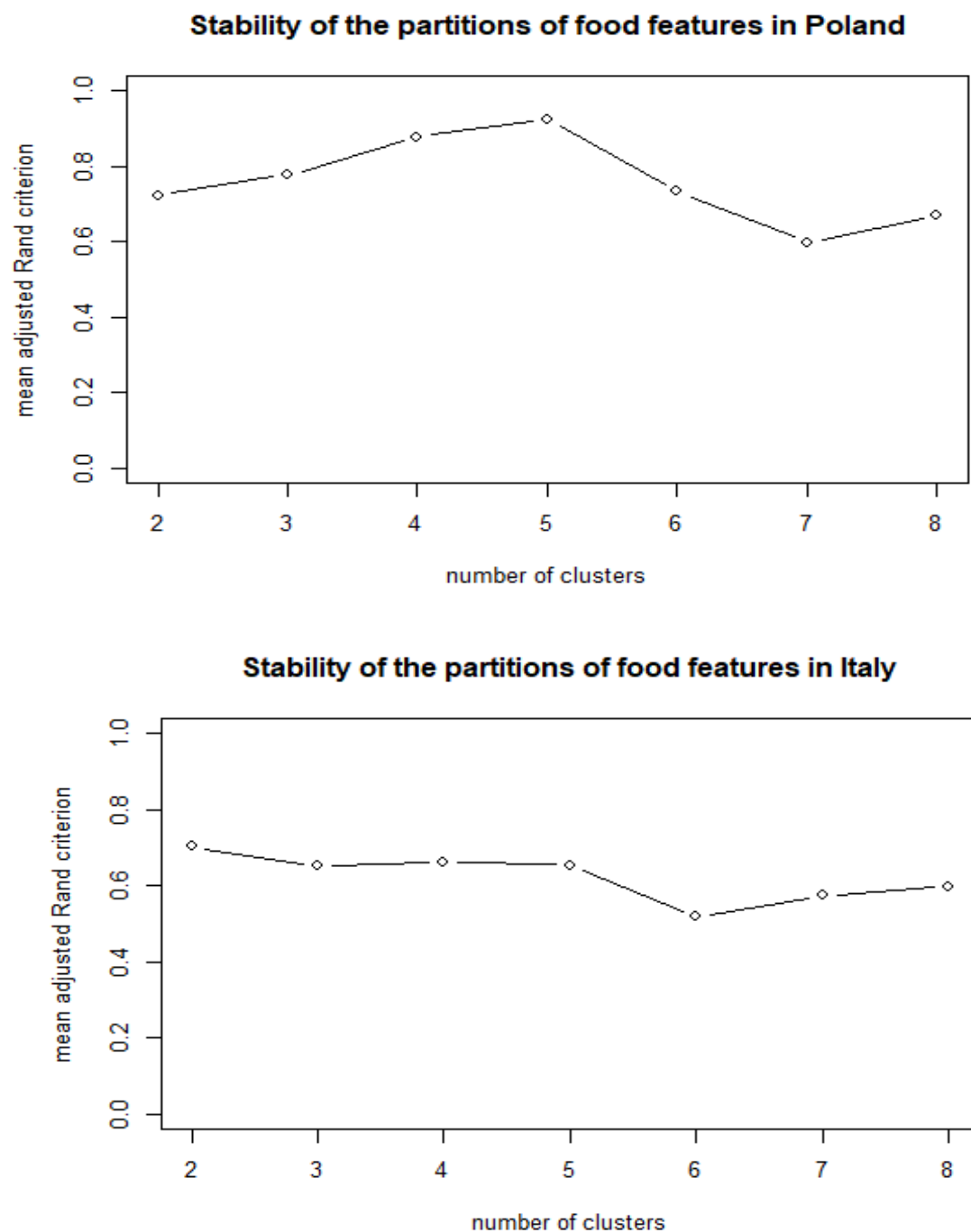
Country	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Percentage of Homogeneity
Italy	Taste, color, texture, ingredients and composition	Size of product, packaging	Labeling, ingredients content percentages	Price	56.7
Poland	Taste, color, texture	Ingredients and composition, size of product, ingredients content percentages	Labeling	Packaging, price	57.46

The percentage of homogeneity accounted for by the partition obtained with the hierarchical clustering algorithm is 56.7 for Italy and 57.46 for Poland. To better explain the reason for choosing  $K = 4$ , the stability partitions graphs are presented in Figure 5-9.

**Figure 5.9**

*The Stability of the Partitions for the Food Product Features Involved in Dual Quality*

*Based on Consumer Acceptance Level*



The graph for Poland suggests that the models with five and four clusters have better stabilities, and the graph for Italy has a similar implication: a model with four, three, or five clusters is more stable. Since we compare both countries' samples, and we have nine variables, we chose  $K = 4$  as the number of clusters in our models. As we saw, the percentage of homogeneity in both countries is very close.

### **Discussion and Conclusions**

This chapter underlines that the CAL regarding the same product's dual quality under the same brand is different based on nationality. Culture, history, and experience influence consumer expectations. It can be inferred from the data in Table 5-1 and Figures 5-1 and Figure 5-2 that with all cultural differences, people still in both countries believe that firm's profitability is not an acceptable reason to produce food of different quality. Interestingly, for both countries, rules and regulations are acceptable as a reason to have different quality of food. It may be that consumers think that the rules and regulations protect them even if they cause some product changes. However, considering that both countries are in the EU, the rules might be expected to be similar.

An analysis of Poland's sample data uses the variable clustering method to link our variables and group them, summarized in Table 5-4 provided the information that some differences in taste, color, and texture of GBFPs can be acceptable to consumers. However, differences in ingredients and composition, size of the product, and ingredients content percentage are not acceptable. Packaging design and price differences are in the same cluster; therefore, it can be inferred at a similar CAL. Figure 5-7 suggests that the acceptance level toward the differences regarding labeling and product information is not linked to other product features, although it is somewhat close to packaging and price acceptancy. This suggests that if global branded firms follow localization strategies, they may make some changes in taste, color, and texture,

but changes in ingredients and the size of the product might increase consumers' dissatisfaction in Poland and potentially in similar countries.

Instead, based on our sample from Italy as a Western European country, displayed in Figure 5-8, the CAL of differences in "ingredients and composition" and "taste" are linked. However, the correlation analysis in Figure 5-6 suggests that "ingredients and composition" differences are strongly associated with "Absolutely not acceptable" and "Not acceptable," even in Italy. Packaging design and product size are linked for our Italian sample; ingredient content percentage and labeling differences are at a similar acceptance level.

## **Chapter 6    Impact of Travel Frequency on Consumer Expectation Regarding Global Brand Food Products: Evidence of Different Trends in Poland and Italy**

Travel frequency impact on consumer behavior in the food market is investigated in this chapter. The topic may be interesting and helpful for firms to identify changes in their target market and customer expectation and increase their competitive advantages. Although the standardization and localization argument, approaches, and cultural impacts on productions in general and in the food market are discussed in the literature review summarized in Chapter 3, mobility and travel frequency impacts on consumer behavior in the food market are a new topic. The research question relates to whether the increase in travel frequency causes any change in consumer expectation to have the same global brand food product in their country compared to other countries. In other words, it investigates whether travel frequency impacts consumer acceptance of dual quality in the food market. The literature widely discusses the increase of homogeneity through technology and globalization summarized in Chapter 3 of this dissertation, but traveling as a factor influencing consumer choice is rarely discussed, although Levitt (1993) is an exception.<sup>11</sup> However, the consumer reaction understanding that the global brand products have different qualities across countries is not covered sufficiently well. International travel may

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<sup>11</sup> “A powerful force drives the world toward a converging commonality, and that force is technology. It has proletarianized communication, transport and travel. It has made isolated places and impoverished peoples eager for modernity’s allurements. Almost everyone everywhere wants all the things they have heard about, seen, or experienced via the new technologies.” (Levitt, 1993, p. 249) and “In the isolated Siberian city of Krasnoyarsk, with no paved streets and censored news, occasional western travelers are stealthily propositioned for cigarettes, digital watches, and even the clothes off their backs” (Levitt, 1993, p. 250).



change consumer perception of global brands and consumer demands in the future. This chapter attempts to address this gap in the literature.

Because of technology and globalization, people can find most types of food products in any other country. Global brand advertising and the first taste of products create an image in the consumer's mind, and consumers' perception will be made based on that image. If the consumer experiences some differences in the same product purchased the second time, they likely ask themselves why the product is different and whether they should purchase it again. Global brand companies currently standardize their product in each specific country to meet their consumer reliability expectations. However, what the consumer reaction is if they purchase the product in other countries and discover that it is different from the one they bought in their home country is unclear. In other words, if the GBFP must be standardized in a country, the question arises of why it should not be standardized in the world, considering people's movement. This chapter contributes to the debate investigating consumer perceptions concerning GBFPs that cause choosing them over similar LBFPs. Moreover, the thesis investigates the impact of traveling on consumers' opinions on the subject of the GBFPs dual quality issue and the impact of travel frequency on consumer opinion in choosing global brand products over similar local brands.

### **Literature Review**

Elinder (1965) expressed that "increasing similarities among European consumers make uniform ads feasible" (Bremser et al., 2018; Elinder, 1965), and Levitt (1993) provides an underlying base for the standardization and localization debate. Levitt supported firms in their globalization strategies and explained that the world is advancing toward cultural convergence and a homogeneous market. Therefore, customers prefer world-standardized products with lower prices, higher quality,

reliability, and concern for the suitability, regardless of nationality and taste preferences (Levitt, 1993). In contrast, Boddewyn et al. (1986) claimed that the argument is weak and far from reality. As discussed in Chapter 3 of this dissertation, the debate developed and reached consensus that a mixed strategy should be adopted, leaving open the question of the degree of standardization and localization in each strategy.

Among the factors under consideration in the literature regarding standardization and localization, Levitt (1993) noted that border crossing and tourism push the market situation toward cultural convergence and a homogeneous market. This opinion is supported by Jain (1989), and later, Wei and Yazdanifard (2014) remarked that the standardization of global brand products minimizes confusion among traveling consumers (Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014). However, tourism and traveling are not discussed in the literature as much as other factors such as the economics of scale and cost leadership (Quelch & Hoff, 1986; Theodosiou & Leonidou, 2003), cultural and religious differences (Cayla & Arnould, 2008; Vignali, 2001; Vrontis et al., 2009) and taste, special needs, and preferences (Alimienè & Kuvykaitè, 2008; Quelch, 2003; Vrontis et al., 2009).

Studies are plentiful on consumer's perceptions based on brands' image in the last decades. Nevertheless, new discussions continuously emerge considering fast technological, educational, social, cultural, and political changes in the world.

In general, brand awareness, defined as “the level that customers can recognize or recall a brand under different conditions” (Percy & Rossiter, 1992), increases the chance of a product being chosen by consumers (Macdonald & Sharp, 2000). Likewise, COO<sup>12</sup> has been influential in consumers' purchase decisions; however, the trend is

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<sup>12</sup> Defined as “where a brand is based (brand origin) or where a product is manufactured (country of manufacture), is an important cue consumers consider when evaluating products” (Johnson et al., 2016).

different in developed and developing countries. Zhou et al. (2010) argue that global brands are generally associated with glamour and charm compared to local brands, especially in developing countries (Alden et al., 1999; Batra et al., 2000; Zhou et al., 2010). Nevertheless, some scholars claim that consumers living in developed countries prefer domestic products over foreign products (Okechuku, 1994). In other words, the role of COO is essential in global marketing and consumer behavior literature (Dekhili & Achabou, 2015; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Thøgersen et al., 2017).

Referring to Zhou et al. (2010), foreign brands are generally more desirable in developing countries because of the distinctive images that the multinational firms create of their brands (Ger & Belk, 1996; Zhou et al., 2010). Consumer preferences for global brands over local brands, even if quality and value are not superior, motivate companies toward globalization (Kapferer, 1997; Shocker et al., 1994; Steenkamp et al., 2003). According to Swoboda et al. (2009), retailers moved toward globalization and entering developing countries in the 1980s and 1990s (Goldman, 2000; Swoboda et al., 2009); however, in the twenty-first century, “foreign retailers cannot rely on the weakness of domestic competitors” (Swoboda et al., 2012).

Bearden and Etzel in 1982 argued that scarcity and higher price of global brand products could be a reason that consumers believe in the higher prestige of global brands over local brands. Likewise, Batra et al. (2000) support the idea that global brands are scarcer and more expensive (some exceptions exist, such as Coca-Cola). Taking these beliefs into account, some local companies use foreign appeal strategies to compete with global brands and create a higher quality perception (Eckhardt, 2005; Ger & Belk, 1996; Zhou et al., 2010). In contrast to the local companies trying to look like global brands, global brands started to localize their product to be competitive in the local market. These two strategies created some uncertainty and confusion about

the “brand’s foreign culture positioning” (Keller & Moorthi, 2003; Quelch, 1999; Zhang & Schmitt, 2001; Zhou et al., 2010) and caused some doubts for consumers in developing countries around whether the brand is of local or nonlocal origin (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Samiee et al., 2005; Zhou et al., 2010). In contrast, when global companies prefer to hide the origin of their brands (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 1999; Shimp et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 2010), “some consumers may associate foreign images brand with less credible product quality” (Zhou et al., 2010).

Bardhi et al. (2010) suggest that although travelers would like to learn about a new culture that traditional food is a part of it, they look for some connections to their home country and what they already are familiar with (Bardhi et al., 2010). Likewise, Cappellini et al. (2019) note that people consume the brands they already know from home during mobility and traveling abroad (Cappellini et al., 2019). Considering the literature together, the question arises of what the consumer reaction is if they buy the global brand that they already purchased and consumed in their home country but the same product from the same global brand purchased on their trip abroad has a different taste or quality. This dissertation’s contribution is plugging this gap in the literature.

In other words, according to the Total Food Quality Model (Grunert et al., 1995), the perceived quality of a product is created based on two stages—before consumption (first stage) and after (second stage)—and the consumer satisfaction level depends on to what degree the quality of first and second stages are related (Brunsø et al., 2002). If the perceived quality of the second stage is equal to or more than the perceived quality of the first stage, the consumer is likely to repeat their purchase. The model may be expanded based on the home country (first stage) and the other countries (second stage) or vice versa. Therefore, it is essential to know how the perceived qualities of the global brand product are relevant in both stages.

## Hypothesis Development and Measurement

As explained in Chapter 4, we ran a survey of 637 consumers in Poland (Warsaw) and Italy (Rome) to assess whether consumer perception of GBFPs is associated with their travel frequency. Moreover, we investigated whether consumers' expectations of having the same GBFP in their country compared to other countries may change with increasing travel frequency (consistent with Jain, 1989; Levitt, 1993; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014).

### *Travel frequency impact on consumer expectation of the same global brand food product in all countries*

According to the literature, globalization and mobility increase homogeneity, but the question remains of whether traveling may influence consumer expectation to obtain the same global brand food product in their country compared to other countries. The respondents were asked to answer a multiple-choice question and a “yes” or “no” question as following to investigate the objective:

- How often do you travel abroad?
  - a) I have never traveled outside of my country
  - b) I have traveled abroad a few times in my life
  - c) I travel abroad between 1–3 times per year
  - d) I travel abroad between 4–6 times per year
  - e) I travel abroad often (more than six times per year)
- In general, do you believe that a food product with a global brand must be the same in your country compared to other countries? Yes/No
- The concept of “dual quality” is not asked directly to prevent a psychological negative influence.

The following hypotheses are tested to achieve our objectives:

*Ha-0: Travel frequency is not associated with the consumer's opinion of having the same GBFP in their country compared to other countries.*

*Ha-1: Travel frequency is associated with the consumer's opinion of having the same GBFP in their country compared to other countries.*

***The reasons to choose a global brand product over a local brand from the consumer's perspective and the impact of travel frequency***

The reasons to choose a global brand product over a local brand based on consumer perception may be summarized as higher quality (consistent with Anonymous, 2001; Özsoyner & Altaras, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Yip, 1995; Zhou et al., 2010), higher prestige (consistent with Batra et al., 2000, Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Kapferer, 1997; McCracken, 1986; Özsoyner & Altaras 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010), superiority (consistent with Holt et al., 2004; Kapferer, 1997; Keller, 1998; Kochan, 1996; Shocker et al., 1994; Zhou et al., 2010;), cosmopolitanism (consistent with Friedman, 1990; Thompson & Tambyah, 1999), and being a global consumer (consistent with Alden et al., 1999; Dawar & Parker, 1994; Özsoyner & Altaras, 2008; Steenkamp et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2010).

Nevertheless, the question remains of whether increases in traveling would change consumer perception about the global brand. The respondents were asked to select a response on a 5-point modified Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) reflecting the level of agreement for each reason according to consumer belief.

They were asked to write any other reasons not mentioned in the survey, aiming to expand the topic for further research.

The following hypotheses were tested to achieve our objectives, while the null hypothesis states that the two variables are independent:

*Hb-1: Travel frequency is associated with the consumer's level of agreement regarding the higher quality of GBFPs.*

*Hc-1: Travel frequency is associated with the consumer's level of agreement choosing GBFPs to be a global consumer.*

*Hd-1: Travel frequency is associated with the consumer's level of agreement regarding the higher prestige of GBFPs.*

*He-1: Travel frequency is associated with the consumer's level of agreement regarding the superiority of GBFPs.*

*Hf-1: Travel frequency is associated with the consumer's level of agreement that they choose GBFPs for cosmopolitanism reasons.*

*Hg-1: Travel frequency is associated with the consumer's level of agreement that they choose GBFPs to be a global consumer.*

### **Questionnaire, Sampling, Data Analysis,**

The questionnaire's design, development, and data collection are explained in Chapter 4; however, the only data analysis for traveling habit impact on consumer opinion and consumer reasons to buy GBFPs are discussed in this chapter.

### **Results and Discussion**

The results and discussion are divided into two main parts: travel habits and consumer expectation of having the same GBFP in all countries and travel habits and consumer reasons to buy GBFPs. We discuss them as follows.

#### ***Travel habit and consumer expectation of having the same GBFP in all countries***

Since the CAL of dual quality depends on nationality (the relationship is statistically significant considering this survey sample data), the following hypothesis was examined using Fisher's exact test for Poland and Italy separately. The results are summarized in Table 6-1, according to travel habits and expectations of the same or different global brand product. The results indicate that only 54% of Italians responded

“yes” to this question (147 respondents), and this ratio reached 90% in Poland (243 respondents).

**Table 6.1**

*Travel Habits and Expectation of Having the Same or not the Same GBFPs*

Travel habit/same product or not	IT			PL			Total Sample
	Yes	No	Total IT	Yes	No	Total PL	
Never	2	1	3	4	2	6	9
Few times in life	48	32	80	67	9	76	156
1–3 per year	83	76	159	132	17	149	308
4–6 per year	13	13	26	27	0	27	53
Often	1	4	5	13	0	13	18
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>147</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>273</b>	<b>243</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>271</b>	<b>544</b>

The result suggests that expecting to have the same global brand product in all countries or accepting dual quality is related to travel frequency, although its association depends on nationality. This finding is more evident in Figure 6-1, which demonstrates each country’s trend based on the percentage of expecting the same global brand product (standardization) according to each travel frequency category.



**Figure 6.1**

*The relationship Between Travel Habit and Responding “Yes” to the Same Global Branded Food Product in all Countries*

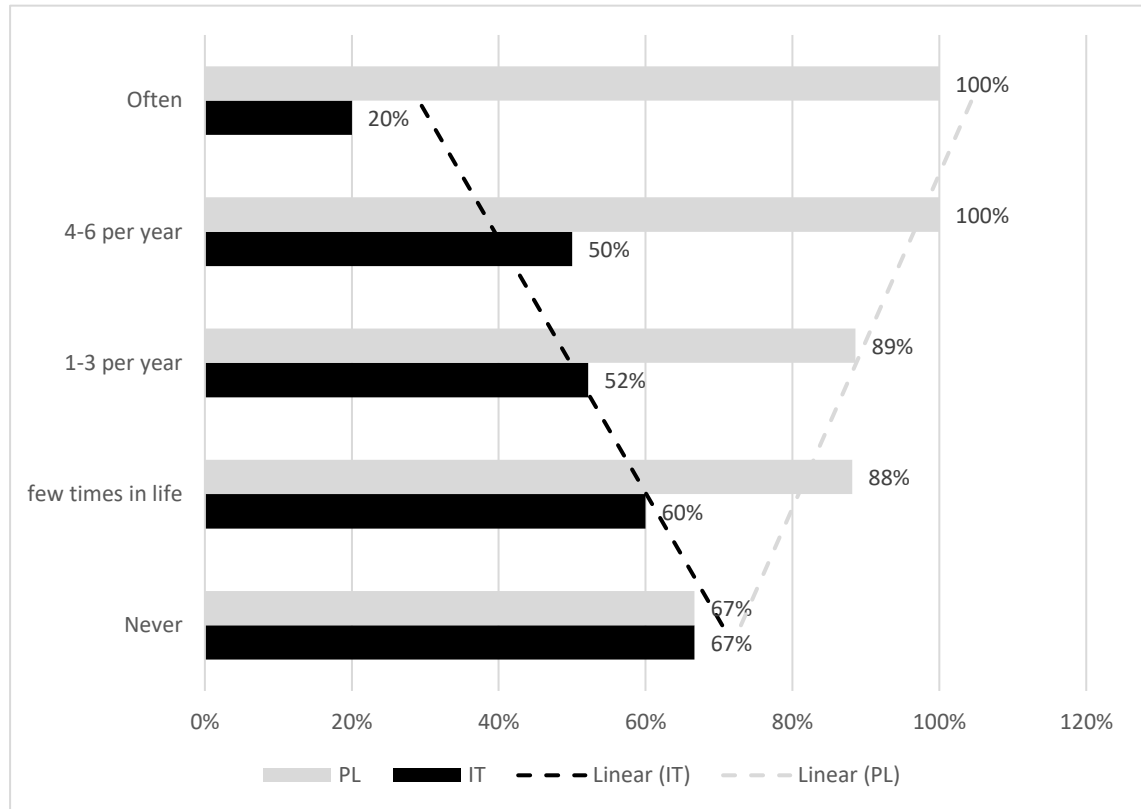


Figure 6-1 suggests that increasing travel frequency in Poland increases consumer expectation to have the same quality of global brand food product in their country and other countries, although it suggests an opposite effect on Italian consumers. The sample suggests that Italian consumers believe that there is no need to have the same global brand food product in their country as other countries as their travel frequency increases. Sixty-seven percent of Italian participants who had never traveled abroad believed that a GBFP must be the same in Italy and other countries. However, this expectation decreased to 20% among Italian respondents who had traveled abroad often.

In contrast, the expectation to have a standard GBFP in Poland and other countries is increased by traveling more often, according to the Polish participants. Sixty-seven percent of Polish participants who had never traveled abroad believed that a GBFP must be the same in Poland and other countries. This expectation increased to 100% among Polish respondents who had traveled abroad often.

According to our finding through the numbers and graphs, the following hypotheses were examined for both countries by using Fisher's exact test:

*Ha-0: The two variables (travel habits and accepting dual quality) are independent.*

*Ha-1: The two variables (travel habits and accepting dual quality) are not independent.*

Since the respondents with never and often travel frequency are few, the first two and the last two categories are merged for testing hypotheses.

The  $p$ -value in the case of Polish consumers is 0.02749; therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected with 95% confidence in favor of the alternative hypothesis. We conclude that there is a relationship between traveling habits and acceptance of dual quality practices in Poland.

The  $p$ -value for the Italian subsample is 0.2944; therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis. We conclude that there is not enough evidence of a relationship between traveling habit and acceptance of Italy's dual quality practices.

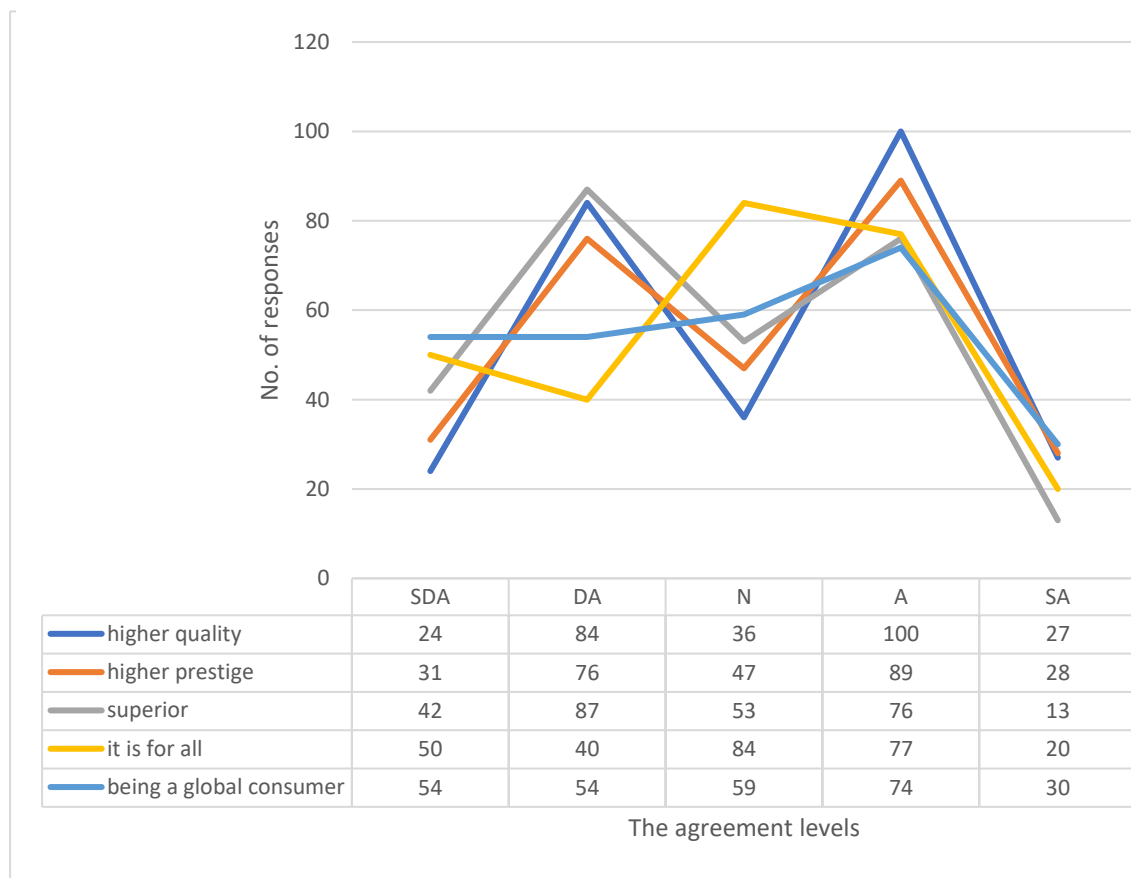
### ***Travel habits impact consumer reasons to buy global branded food products***

Figure 6-2 and Figure 6-3 illustrate the differences between Italian and Polish in respondents' reasons to buy global brand products (considering who believes the global brand food product must be the same in their country and other countries).

In Figure 6-2, according to the Polish sample (271 people), higher quality and higher prestige of global brand products over similar local brand products are the main reasons for the peak on the “Agree” level (100 and 89 respondents agree with the corresponding statements). However, they do not agree with global brands’ superiority over the local brands (87 respondents choose the category level “Disagree,” which is higher than other agreement level categories). Respondents agree that their choice is because they would like to be a global consumer, but cosmopolitanism reasons (“The product is for all”) are not important for them (84 respondents chose “Neither agree nor disagree”), although some did agree with the statement (74 respondents).

**Figure 6.2**

*Respondents’ Reasons to Buy Global Branded Food Products in Poland (Of those who believe that a GBFP must be the same in all countries)*



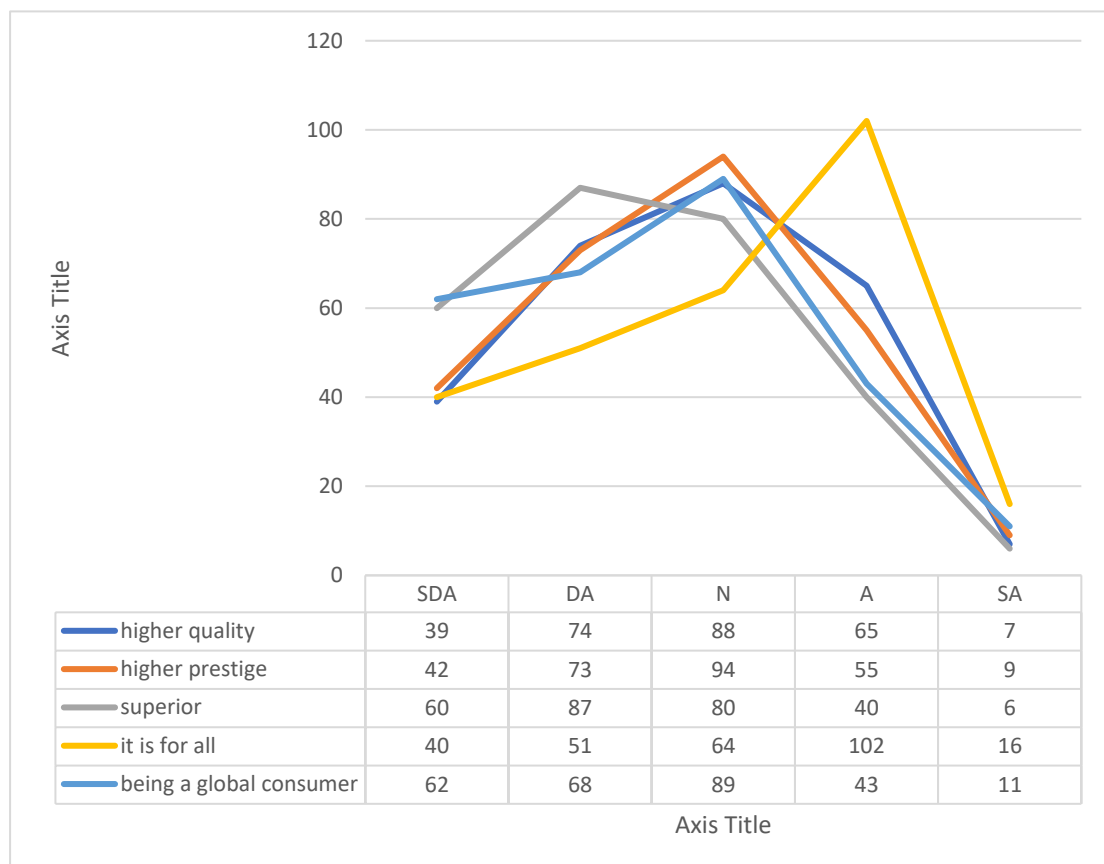
*Note.* SDA is Strongly Disagree, DA is Disagree, N is Neither, A is Agree, and

SA is Strongly Agree.

In Figure 6-3, according to the Italian sample (273 people), cosmopolitanism (the product is for all since all human beings belong to a single community) appears to be the most important reason to choose a global brand product over a local brand by Italians (the level “Agree” was chosen by 102 respondents). Higher prestige, higher quality, and being a global consumer were the reasons for the peak on the “Neither” level (94, 88, and 89 respondents chose “neither agree nor disagree” for the corresponding statements). However, the reason “superiority of global brands over the local brands” saw the highest choice for the “Disagree” level, with 87 respondents and 60 voting for the “Strongly Disagree” level.

**Figure 6.3**

*Respondents' Reasons to Buy Global Branded Food Products in Italy (of Those who Believe that a Global Branded Food Product Must be the Same in all Countries)*



*Note.* SDA is Strongly Disagree, DA is Disagree, N is Neither, A is Agree, and

SA is Strongly Agree.

Exploratory analysis suggests some relationships between travel frequency and the reasons to choose a global brand over the local brand. Table 6-2 reports the mean as summary statistics to simplify the finding dimensions. Although we acknowledge that using the mean as summary statistics for limited discontinuous variables may introduce a bias, it is an accepted practice for a concise presentation of data (Bard & Barry 2000; Poe et al., 1997). Of course, we use the proper tools for categorical data in the analysis.

**Table 6.2**

Travel Habit Impact on Reasons to Choose a Global Branded Food Product over a Local Branded Food Product

Reasons/Travel habit	Poland					
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	Total
Higher quality	4.00	3.29	2.97	2.74	3.46	3.08
Higher prestige	3.50	3.14	2.94	2.78	3.62	3.03
Superiority	3.50	2.87	2.73	2.30	2.77	2.75
Cosmopolitanism	2.83	3.09	2.89	2.48	3.08	2.92
Being a global consumer	2.50	3.24	2.79	2.52	3.15	2.90

Reasons/Travel habit	Italy					
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	Total
Higher quality	4.00	2.83	2.64	3.15	1.80	2.73
Higher prestige	3.50	2.88	2.60	2.77	2.00	2.69
Superiority	3.50	2.63	2.36	2.23	2.00	2.43
Cosmopolitanism	2.83	3.21	2.87	3.38	2.00	3.01
Being a global consumer	2.50	2.80	2.45	2.27	1.80	2.53

*Note.* T1 stands for “Never,” T2 for “few times in life,” T3 for “1–3 times per year,” T4 for “4–6 times per year” and T5 for “Often.”

Table 6-2 illustrates that increasing travel frequency is associated with a decrease in respondents’ agreement level in some variables such as “higher quality,”

“higher prestige,” and “superiority” in Poland; however, people who often travel abroad show different behavior (their average agreement level is higher than average of total respondents in Poland for each reason). Instead, there is no clear relationship between travel habits and the other two variables: “cosmopolitanism” and “being a global consumer.” The numbers related to Italian respondents suggest that increasing travel frequency is associated with all variables mentioned in this table, although people who had traveled 3–6 times in the year showed different behaviors compared to other categories. In contrast to the Polish sample, Italian respondents who had traveled abroad had a lower average agreement level than the average of total respondents in Italy for each reason.

The findings are investigated for both countries under the hypotheses of whether travel habit is associated with why consumers choose GBFPs over LBFPs, including higher quality, higher prestige, superiority, cosmopolitanism, and being a global consumer using Fisher’s exact test.

Hypotheses are tested statistically, and the results are summarized in Table 6-3. According to the results, there is not enough evidence that travel habit (travel frequency) has some contingency with “higher quality” as a reason to choose a global brand product over a local brand for either Poland nor Italy. In other words, increasing mobility and travel frequency does not influence consumer opinion that global brand products have higher or lower quality over their local brand products. In contrast, “superiority” as a reason to choose a global brand product over local brand products is related to increasing international trips and mobility in both countries. Independency between “travel habit” and “higher prestige” is rejected according to the sample of Poland, but there is not enough evidence to reject this independency for the Italian sample.

The relationships between “travel habit” and “cosmopolitanism” and between “travel habit” and “being a global consumer” are rejected for Poland respondents but are significant according to the Italian sample.

**Table 6.3**

*Results for Testing Association with Travel Habits*

<b>H0: The variables are independent</b>	<b>Poland</b>		<b>Italy</b>	
	<i>p</i> -value	Conclusion	<i>p</i> -value	Conclusion
<b>H1: The variables are not independent</b>				
<b>Higher quality</b>	0.109	The test fails to reject the null hypothesis	0.107	There is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis
<b>Higher prestige</b>	0.032	The null hypothesis is rejected at 95% confidence level	0.158	There is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis
<b>Superiority</b>	0.020	The null hypothesis is rejected at 95% confidence level	0.000	The null hypothesis is rejected, and some contingency exists between variables
<b>Cosmopolitanism</b>	0.258	The test fails to reject the null hypothesis	0.002	The null hypothesis is rejected, and some contingency exists between variables
<b>Global customer</b>	0.165	There is not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis	0.024	The null hypothesis is rejected, and some contingency exists between variables



## **Discussion and conclusions**

This research has found that travel habit impacts on consumer behavior to choose a global brand product over a similar local brand. However, these impacts vary in each county. The Polish respondents expect the same GBFP in Poland and other countries, which shows their interest in the standardization strategy for GBFPs. Increasing mobility and their travel frequency increased their persistence in this regard. It can be inferred that in Poland, having the same GBFP is less critical for those who never travel or travel a few times in their lives. This result was expected since this group of people never experienced the different quality of the same global brand product, and they only based their perception of a global brand product on sources such as advertising, media, and friends. In contrast, finding the same GBFP in Poland and other countries is fundamental for those who often travel, probably because of their own experiences beyond advertising and what they hear from others.

Instead, based on Italy's sample, only 54% of the respondents expect to have the same GBFP in Italy and other countries. The finding suggests that Italian respondents have different behavior compared to Polish respondents. Table 6-2 demonstrates that the expectation of having the same GBFP in all countries decreases according to increasing travel frequency; although the hypothesis is not approved scientifically, a larger sample size might change the test result.

According to Polish respondents, the main reasons to choose a GBFP over a similar LBFP are higher quality and higher prestige; cosmopolitanism is not a critical reason for such respondents. The respondent agreement level with the higher prestige and superiority of global brand products decreases according to increasing travel frequency, which is statistically tested and validated.

In Italian respondents' opinion, cosmopolitanism is the main reason to choose a GBFP over a similar LBFP. The association of respondent agreement level regarding the superiority of GBFPs, cosmopolitanism, and being a global consumer with travel frequency are statistically tested and validated.

## **Chapter 7 Discussion, Conclusions, and Managerial Implications**

### **Discussion and Conclusions**

This research investigated consumer opinion regarding the localization strategy GBFPs in the EU market. Samples are taken from Italy as a country in Western Europe and Poland as a country in Eastern Europe. Both motivations for product adaptations and acceptance of attribute differentiation were considered.

The research suggests that accepting the different quality of GBFPs is associated with nationality (Poland versus Italy). Only 54% of Italians responded “Yes” to the question if they believe that a food product with a global brand must be the same in their country compared to other countries. Instead, 90% of Polish responded “Yes” to the same question. This finding supports Moro et al. (2018) in stating that “cultural aspect influences consumer behavior and reaction.” This difference can be explained considering the consumer perceptions in both countries.

The Polish have the perception that the quality of food they receive is lower than in Western European countries, but Italians have the perception that their food quality is higher than in other countries. The results would be different if Italian consumers knew that they obtained lower quality GBFPs.

Polish respondents’ main reasons to choose a GBFP over a similar LBFP are higher quality and higher prestige, while cosmopolitanism is not a critical reason for them. For Italians, cosmopolitanism is the main reason to choose a GBFP over a similar LBFP.

There are different motivations for international food firms to adapt their products to the local market. The research concluded that some of the motivations are not acceptable by the customer and cause dissatisfaction leading to complaining about dual quality.

Based on CALs, the variable clustering analysis of firms' motivations to produce different food qualities concludes that in Italy, “culture,” “religion,” and “consumer taste” are connected more closely. However, in Poland, “country law and regulation” is connected to “culture” and “religion”. The result suggests that culture and religion are strongly linked in both countries. We call this group as “ideology group.” The ideology group creates the “public interest group” in Poland when country law and regulations are added to the group. However, in Italy, the ideology group is linked to consumer taste and creates an “individual interest group.” Ecological differences and country law and regulations may establish an “external reasons group” in Italy. In contrast, consumer taste differences and ecological differences establish a “fruition group” in Poland.

Both Italian and Polish respondents expressed that a firm’s profitability is not an acceptable reason to produce food of different quality. For both countries, rules and regulations are acceptable as a reason to have different food quality.

The variable clustering analysis of food features suggests three categories of GBFP attributes based on the CAL of the product changes within the EU Member States. According to the Polish consumer sample, the result suggests that some differences in taste, color, and texture of GBFPs can be acceptable to consumers. However, changes in ingredients and composition, size of the product, and ingredient content percentage are not acceptable. Packaging design and price differences are in the same category for Polish consumers. The results suggest that Polish consumers (as an example of Eastern European countries) prefer international firms to follow standardization strategies with some exceptions in taste, color, and texture only if it does not cause changes in ingredients and composition.

For Italian respondents, ingredients and composition, and taste are in the same group. However, ingredients and composition changes are associated with “Absolutely

not acceptable” and “Not acceptable,” even in Italy. Packaging design and product size are in the same category; ingredient content percentage and labeling differences are at a similar acceptance level.

These findings support the theory of hybrid strategy for standardization and localization (Cleveland et al., 2015; Jeong et al., 2018; Moro et al., 2018). However, the research suggests that some product attributes must not be localized, such as ingredients and their percentages.

The investigation of travel habits suggests that international traveling impacts consumer behavior and the choice of a global brand product over a similar local brand. However, these impacts vary by country.

The result did not support the hypothesis that travel frequency influences the acceptance of the different quality of GBFPs. However, the findings suggest that based on the Polish sample, the consumer agreement level regarding the higher prestige and superiority of GBFPs decreases while international travel frequency increases. Based on the Italian sample, the results supported that the consumer agreement level regarding the superiority of GBFPs, cosmopolitanism, and being a global consumer are associated with travel frequency.

### **Study Contribution and Managerial Implications**

This research provides suggestions for global brand food firms and policymakers. It provides producers with a guideline to decide on standardization, localization strategies based on consumers’ acceptable differences, and variable clustering. This study’s findings also confirm that nationality influences consumer expectations from a GBFP.

The findings suggest that global brand firms’ management set up their strategies based on consumer expectations from GBFP. Considering the technology improvement

and widespread international traveling habits, consumers are more likely than ever to discover that the products are different in their home country from other countries. According to our samples in both countries, “economic reasons” are not acceptable motivations for firms to follow localization strategies, although “public interests” in Poland and “individual interests” in Italy are acceptable motivations to follow localization strategies.

Regarding the differences in food product features, differences in “content features”—including ingredients and composition, size of product, and ingredients content percentages—are not acceptable for respondents in Poland, but differences in “pleasure features”—including taste, color, and texture—may be acceptable. Differences in “external features,” including packaging and price, are acceptable.

In Italy, differences in taste, color, and texture may be acceptable, but differences in “information group,” including ingredients content percentages and labeling, are not acceptable. Although ingredients and composition are included in the pleasure features group, differences in this feature are not acceptable. As is the case for Poland, differences in packaging and price are acceptable in Italy.

The result suggests that considering the consumer expectations and their level of acceptance, policymakers may regulate the differences in product quality under global brands to protect the consumer’s rights regarding the food quality standards, rules, and regulations, especially regarding compositions, ingredients, and their percentages.

The results demonstrate that frequent Polish travelers are more persistent in having consistent GBFP in their home country than those who never or rarely traveled in their lives. The Polish respondents’ agreement level with choosing global brands over

local brands because of higher prestige and superiority are associated with travel frequency.

The research recommends that firms follow the hybrid strategies to produce the GBFPs and adopt only the necessary product features to prevent customers feel discriminated. Considering that accepting dual quality practice is associated with nationality, the firms may pay more attention to customer expectations and consumer behavior in the target market before setting up their adoption strategies.

## Appendix1 The Questionnaire in English



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UNIVERSITY OF CASSINO AND SOUTHERN LAZIO (UNICAS)

### “Your opinion matters, let your voice be heard”

Dear consumer,

Thank you for taking part in this opinion’s collection project. You are a great help!

We at Technical University of Munich (Germany), together with University of Cassino and Southern Lazio (Italy) are conducting a research related to consumer’s opinion on **global brands food in Western and Eastern European countries**. Our target audience involves everyone who buys food products from supermarkets in Italy and Poland. Hence, our decision to include you in this study!

Your data collected will be used for an academic research which aims to provide a clear image of consumer’s behavior to policy makers in EU level. 10-12 minutes of your time might bring a big change.

Get started and take your chance to bring a positive change in food market.

Residence in:

- Italy
- If not Italy, please specify the name of your residence country.....

Nationality:

- Italian
- Not Italian, please specify your nationality.....

Gender:

- Male
- Female
- Others

Age:

- 15-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- Above 65

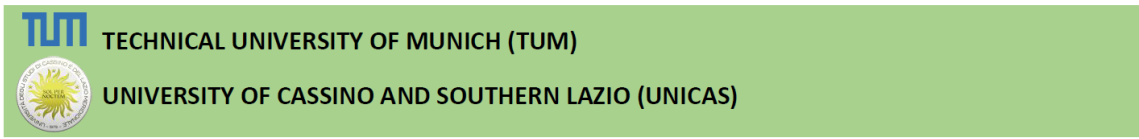
Education (The highest degree that you have obtained):

- less than high school/Secondary school
- High school/Secondary school
- Bachelor
- Master
- PhD

How often do you travel abroad?

- I have never travelled outside of my country
- I have traveled abroad few times in my life
- I travel abroad between 1-3 times per year
- I travel abroad between 4- 6 times per year
- I travel abroad often (more than 6 times per year)



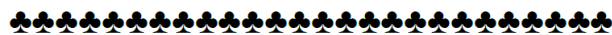


Have you ever lived abroad for any purpose such as study, work, internship or training?

- Yes
- No

What does Global brand means to you? (Choose only one of the following answer)

- A product that is not produced in my country
- A product that can be sold and purchased in the entire world
- A Product that is advertised globally
- Any other definition, please specify:.....



A global brand is defined as “the worldwide use of a name, term sign, symbol, design or combination thereof intended to identify goods or services of one seller and to differentiate them from those of competitors”

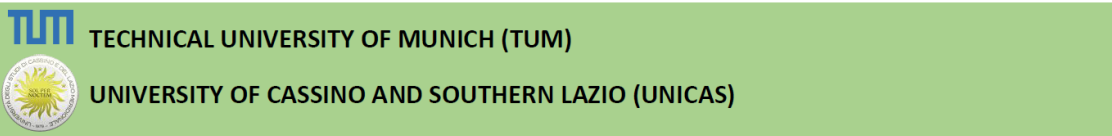
Why do you buy global brands food products? Think about the global brand food products that you usually purchase. Read the following statements carefully, and indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each of the statement. Tick the box that best describes your opinion. 1 means strongly disagree, 2 means disagree, 3 means neither agree nor disagree, 4 means agree and 5 means strongly agree. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers, we would like to know your opinion.

<b>The reason that you choose a global brand product over a local brand in your country is that you believe the global brand product</b>	<b>1</b> Strongly Disagree	<b>2</b> Disagree	<b>3</b> Neither Agree Nor Disagree	<b>4</b> Agree	<b>5</b> Strongly Agree
has a higher quality					
has a higher prestige					
is superior (Overall better)					
is for all, since all human beings belong to a single community. (Cosmopolitanism)					
is for global consumer, and you would like to be a global consumer					

Please write any other reasons why you would purchase global brands food that are not mentioned above:

.....

Nowadays you can find many food products with global brands in supermarkets, such as Nutella, Darbo jam, Iglo finger fish, Coca cola, Bertolli olive oil, Milka chocolate, Cornetto ice cream etc. Recently, the issue of “dual quality” have been raised by consumers in some of European Union countries. EU defines dual quality as: “Goods marketed in the Single Market under the same brand or trademark but with differences in content, composition or quality in individual EU Member States.” On the other hand, the companies have their own reasons for providing same product with different composition or characteristics in different countries and mainly they express that the differences are because of consumer’s wellbeing.



Think about one of the global brand food products that you usually purchase. The producer can make a different quality of that product in other countries because of different reasons. These reasons are mentioned in the following table. How acceptable is each of the reason for you? Tick the box that best describes your opinion. 1 means absolutely not acceptable, 2 means not acceptable, 3 means neutral, 4 means acceptable and 5 means absolutely acceptable. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers, we would like to know your opinion.

<b>The reasons for the global firms to produce food products with dual quality</b>	<b>1</b> Absolutely not acceptable	<b>2</b> Not acceptable	<b>3</b> Neutral	<b>4</b> Acceptable	<b>5</b> Absolutely acceptable
Cultural differences					
Religion differences (Ex: halal and non-alcoholic for Muslims, no beef in India)					
Consumer taste differences (Ex: Less or more sweet, less or more spicy etc.)					
Country law and regulations (Ex: Alcoholic products in Islamic countries is not allowed, even the use of alcohol in sweets and chocolate etc.)					
Economic situation and consumer willingness to pay (Ex: smaller package, cheaper ingredients)					
Competition and gaining more market share (Ex: playing with quality, price, etc.)					
Ecological differences (Ex: different climate, resources etc.)					



This is an example of dual quality (goods marketed in the Single Market under the same brand or trademark but with differences in content, composition or quality in individual EU Member States.) in Hungary and Austria. The investigation was done by ministry of agriculture Hungary:

**Comparing a Global branded ice cream in Austria and Hungary**

**Main fact and findings:**

- Similar product
- Similar appearance
- Presumably same producer

**Differences in composition:**

Beside coconut oil the product contains different fats: sunflower oil in the product from Austria. Palm oil in the Hungarian one.

**Sensory dissimilarities:**

- Colour: In Austria is more yellowish
- Texture: In Austria is more Crispy, In Hungary the ice cream is more foamy
- The mass/volume ratio is 60g/90ml in Austria, 70g/125ml in Hungary
- The product in Hungary contains more air (In ice cream) by 19%



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Considering the example, some global brand food products are different in Eastern and Western European countries because of some of the mentioned reasons. What type of differences are acceptable to you according the following table? Tick the box that best describes your opinion. 1 means absolutely not acceptable, 2 means not acceptable, 3 means neutral, 4 means acceptable and 5 means absolutely acceptable. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers, we would like to know your opinion.

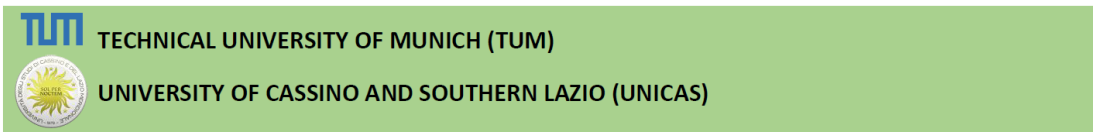
<b>Differences in same product under same brand and trademark, but in different countries</b>	1 (Absolutely Not Acceptable)	2 (Not Acceptable)	3 Neutral	4 (Acceptable)	5 (Absolutely Acceptable)
Taste, flavor and smell					
Colour (Ex: light or strong fruity color)					
Texture (softness, containing fruit pieces, etc.)					
Ingredients and composition					
Size of product (weight, quantity, small or big pieces, etc.)					
Ingredients content percentages (nuts percentage, fat percentage etc.)					
Labeling and product information					
Packaging design					
Price (more or less expensive)					

In general do you believe that a food product with global brand must be same in your country compared to other countries?

- Yes
- No

In case of differences in the product, please specify your opinion regarding the questions in the following table. Tick the box that best describes your opinion. 1 means absolutely no, 2 means no, 3 means maybe, 4 means yes and 5 means absolutely yes. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers, we would like to know your opinion.

<b>If there is a food product under the same brand and trademark, but with different content, composition or quality in European countries,</b>	1 (Absolutely No)	2 No	3 Maybe	4 Yes	5 (Absolutely Yes)
do you expect to be informed?					
if the producer doesn't communicate the differences clearly, will you feel cheated?					
if the producer writes on the package about the ingredients and compositions, is it enough for you to understand there is a dual quality of the product?					
do you inform your friends and relatives about dual quality of a food product (if you recognize it)?					



How do you expect to be informed by the producers (firms) if there is a dual quality of the food product? (Dual quality is defined as: Goods marketed in the Single Market under the same brand or trademark but with differences in content, composition or quality in individual EU Member States)

Tick the box that best describes your opinion. 1 means not helpful at all, 2 means not helpful, 3 means maybe helpful, 4 means helpful, and 5 means very helpful. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers, we would like to know your opinion.

<b>How do you expect to be informed by the producers regarding the products with dual quality?</b>	<b>1</b> (not helpful at all)	<b>2</b> (not helpful)	<b>3</b> (maybe helpful)	<b>4</b> (helpful)	<b>5</b> (very helpful)
Different package design					
Different name					
Specifying the name of country bold and clearly on the package (Ex: For Italian taste/For Polish taste/For German taste)					
Specifying in the ingredients and compositions information					
Specifying about the differences in the global advertising					

Are there any other suggestions that could help provide you the information about dual quality of product in your chosen brand:.....

Have you ever experienced a dual quality issue?

- Yes
- No
- I am not aware if there is different quality of the global brand food products that I purchase

If your answer is yes to the last question, we will be glad to know about it very briefly:

- The product:.....
- The brand name:.....
- The differences:.....
- The countries that you purchased the product:.....

**“Thanks for your precious time and opinion”**

## Appendix2: The Questionnaire in Italian



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### "La tua opinione è importante, fai sentire la tua voce"

Caro consumatore,

Grazie per aver preso parte al progetto di raccolta di questa opinione. Lei è di grande aiuto!

Noi della Technical University of Munich (Germania), insieme all' Università degli Studi di Cassino e del Lazio Meridionale (Italia), stiamo conducendo una ricerca relativa all'opinione del consumatore sui prodotti alimentari a marchio globale nei paesi dell'Europa occidentale e orientale. Il nostro target di riferimento coinvolge tutti quelli che acquistano prodotti alimentari nei supermercati in Italia e in Polonia. Da qui, la nostra decisione di includerla in questo studio!

I suoi dati raccolti saranno utilizzati per una ricerca accademica che mira a fornire un'immagine chiara del comportamento dei consumatori ai responsabili politici a livello europeo. 10-12 minuti del suo tempo potrebbero portare a un grande cambiamento.

Inizi e colga l'occasione per portare un cambiamento positivo nel mercato alimentare.

Residenza in:

- Italia
- Se non in Italia, si prega di specificare il nome del proprio Paese di residenza .....

Nazionalità:

- Italiano/a
- Se non italiano/a, si prega di specificare la nazionalità .....
- 

Genere:

- Maschio
- Femmina
- Altri

età:

- 15-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- Sopra 65

Istruzione (il più alto grado che ha ottenuto):

- Scuola elementare / scuola Media o meno
- Scuola superiore / scuola secondaria
- Laureato
- Master
- Dottorato

Quante volte viaggia all'estero?

- Non ho mai viaggiato fuori dal mio paese
- Ho viaggiato all'estero poche volte nella mia vita
- Viaggio all'estero tra 1-3 volte all'anno
- Viaggio all'estero tra 4-6 volte all'anno
- Vado spesso all'estero (più di 6 volte all'anno)



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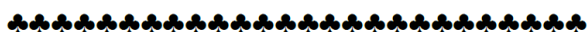
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Ha mai vissuto all'estero per scopi come studio, lavoro, tirocinio o formazione?

- Sì
- No

Che cosa significa per lei il marchio globale? (Scegli una delle seguenti risposte)

- Un prodotto che non è prodotto nel mio paese
- Un prodotto che può essere venduto e acquistato in tutto il mondo
- Un prodotto pubblicizzato a livello globale
- Qualsiasi altra definizione, si prega di specificare: .....



Un marchio globale è definito come "l'uso in tutto il mondo di un nome, di un segno di termine, di un simbolo, di un design o di una combinazione intesi a identificare beni o servizi di un venditore e a differenziarli da quelli dei concorrenti"

Perché compra prodotti alimentari di marchi globali? Pensi ai prodotti alimentari di marca globale che acquisti di solito. Legga attentamente le seguenti dichiarazioni e indichi il suo livello di accordo o di disaccordo con ciascuna dichiarazione. Spunti la casella che meglio descrive la sua opinione. 1 significa fortemente in disaccordo, 2 significa disaccordo, 3 significa né d'accordo né in disaccordo, 4 significa d'accordo e 5 significa fortemente d'accordo. Si prega di notare che non ci sono risposte giuste o sbagliate, vorremmo sapere la sua opinione.

<b>La ragione per cui sceglie un prodotto a marchio globale rispetto a un marchio locale nel suo paese è che lei crede che il prodotto a marchio globale</b>	<b>1</b> Fortemente in disaccordo	<b>2</b> Disaccordo	<b>3</b> Né d'accordo né in disaccordo	<b>4</b> D'accordo	<b>5</b> Fortemente d'accordo
ha una qualità superiore					
ha un prestigio più alto					
è superiore (nel complesso migliore)					
è per tutti, poiché tutti gli esseri umani appartengono a una singola comunità. (Cosmopolitismo)					
è per il consumatore globale e vorrebbe essere un consumatore globale					

Si prega di scrivere altri motivi per cui si acquistano prodotti alimentari di marchi globali che non sono menzionati sopra: .....

Oggi giorno si possono trovare molti prodotti alimentari con marchi globali nei supermercati, come Nutella, marmellata Darbo, bastoncini Iglo, Coca cola, olio d'oliva Bertolli, cioccolato Milka, Cornetto gelato ecc. Recentemente, il problema della "doppia qualità" è stato sollevato dai consumatori in alcuni dei paesi dell'Unione europea. L'UE definisce la doppia qualità come: "Merci commercializzate nel mercato unico con lo stesso marchio o marchio ma con differenze di contenuto, composizione o qualità nei singoli Stati membri dell'UE". D'altra parte, le società hanno le proprie ragioni per fornire lo stesso prodotto con diversa composizione o caratteristiche in diversi paesi e principalmente esse spiegano che le differenze sono dovute al benessere del consumatore.



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Pensi a uno dei prodotti alimentari a marchio globale che acquista di solito. Il produttore può fare una qualità diverse di quell prodotto in altri paesi per molti motivi. Questi motivi sono menzionati nella seguente tabella. Quanto sono accettabili ognuno dei motivi per te?. Spunti la casella che meglio descrive la sua opinione. 1 significa assolutamente non accettabile, 2 significa non accettabile, 3 significa neutro/a, 4 significa accettabile e 5 significa assolutamente accettabile. Si prega di notare che non ci sono risposte giuste o sbagliate, vorremmo sapere la sua opinione.

<b>le ragioni per cui le aziende globali producono prodotti alimentari con doppia qualità</b>	<b>1</b> Assolutamente non accettabile	<b>2</b> Non accettabile	<b>3</b> Neutro	<b>4</b> Accettabile	<b>5</b> Assolutamente accettabile
Differenze culturali					
Differenze di religione (Es: halal e non alcolico per i musulmani, niente carne di bue in India)					
Differenze di gusto dei consumatori (Es: meno o più dolce, meno o più piccante ecc.)					
Leggi e regolamenti nazionali (Es: i prodotti alcolici nei paesi islamici non sono ammessi, nemmeno l'uso di alcolici nei dolci e cioccolato ecc.)					
Situazione economica e disponibilità dei consumatori a pagare (Es: pacchetto più piccolo, ingredienti più economici)					
Concorrenza e guadagnare più quote di mercato (es: giocando con la qualità, il prezzo, ecc.)					
Differenze ecologiche (Es: clima diverso, risorse ecc.)					



Questo è un esempio di doppia qualità (beni commercializzati nel Mercato Unico con lo stesso marca o marchio commerciale ma con differenze di contenuto, composizione o qualità nei singoli Stati membri dell'UE) in Ungheria e Austria. L'inchiesta è stata fatta dal ministero dell'Agricoltura in Ungheria:

**Confronto di un gelato con marchio globale in Austria e Ungheria**

**Fatti e risultati principali:**

- Prodotto simile
- Aspetto simile
- Presumibilmente stesso produttore

**Differenze nella composizione:**

Accanto all'olio di cocco il prodotto contiene diversi grassi: olio di semi di girasole nel prodotto dall'Austria. Olio di palma in quello ungherese.

**Differenze sensoriali:**

- Colore: in Austria è più giallastro
- Struttura: in Austria è più croccante, in Ungheria il gelato è più schiumoso
- Il rapporto massa / volume è 60 g / 90 ml in Austria, 70 g / 125 ml in Ungheria
- Il prodotto in Ungheria contiene più aria (nel gelato) del 19%



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Considerando l'esempio, alcuni prodotti alimentari a marchio globale sono diversi nei paesi dell'Europa orientali e occidentali a causa di alcuni dei motivi citati. Quale tipo di differenze sono accettabili per te secondo la seguente tabella? Spunta la casella che meglio descrive la tua opinione. 1 significa assolutamente non accettabile, 2 significa non accettabile, 3 significa neutra/o, 4 significa accettabile e 5 significa assolutamente accettabile. Si prega di notare che non ci sono risposte giuste o sbagliate, vorremmo sapere la sua opinione.

<b>Differenze nello stesso prodotto con la stessa marca e marchio, ma in paesi diversi</b>	1 (Assolutamente Non Accettabile)	2 (Non accettabile)	3 Neutra/o	4 (Accettabile)	5 (Assolutamente accettabile)
Gusto, sapore e odore					
Colore (Es: colore fruttato leggero o forte)					
Struttura (Es: morbidezza, contenente pezzi di frutta, ecc.)					
Ingredienti e composizione					
Dimensione del prodotto (Es: peso, quantità, pezzi piccoli o grandi, ecc.)					
Percentuali di contenuto degli ingredienti (Es: percentuale di noci, percentuale di grasso ecc.)					
Etichettatura e informazioni sul prodotto					
Design della confezione					
Prezzo (più o meno costoso)					

In generale, credi che un prodotto alimentare con marchio globale debba essere lo stesso nel suo paese rispetto ad altri paesi?

- Sì
- No

In caso di differenze nel prodotto, si prega di specificare la propria opinione riguardo alle domande nella seguente tabella. Spunti la casella che meglio descrive la sua opinione. 1 significa assolutamente no, 2 significa no, 3 significa forse, 4 significa sì e 5 significa assolutamente sì. Si prega di notare che non ci sono risposte giuste o sbagliate, vorremmo sapere la sua opinione.

<b>Se esiste un prodotto alimentare con la stessa marca e marchio, ma con contenuto, composizione o qualità diversi nei paesi europei,</b>	1 (Assolutamente no)	2 No	3 Forse	4 Sì	5 (Assolutamente sì)
si aspetta di essere informato?					
se il produttore non comunica chiaramente le differenze, si sentirà ingannato?					
se il produttore scrive sul pacchetto degli ingredienti e delle composizioni, è sufficiente per lei capire che esiste una doppia qualità del prodotto?					
informa i suoi amici e parenti della doppia qualità di un prodotto alimentare (se lo riconosce)?					





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Come prevede di essere informato dai produttori (aziende) se esiste una doppia qualità del prodotto alimentare? (La doppia qualità è definita come: merci commercializzate nel Mercato Unico con lo stesso marca o marchio ma con differenze di contenuto, composizione o qualità nei singoli Stati membri dell'UE)

Spunti la casella che meglio descrive la sua opinione. 1 significa non utile, 2 significa non utile, 3 significa forse utile, 4 significa utile e 5 significa molto utile. Si prega di notare che non ci sono risposte giuste o sbagliate, vorremmo sapere la sua opinione.

<b>Come si aspetta di essere informato dai produttori riguardo ai prodotti con doppia qualità?</b>	<b>1</b> (non utile niente)	<b>2</b> (Non utile)	<b>3</b> (forse utile)	<b>4</b> (utile)	<b>5</b> (molto utile)
Design del pacchetto diverso					
Nome diverso					
Specificando il nome del paese in grassetto e chiaramente sul pacco (Es: Per il gusto italiano / Per il gusto polacco / Per il gusto tedesco)					
Specificando le informazioni sugli ingredienti e le composizioni					
Specificando le differenze nella pubblicità globale					

Ci sono altri suggerimenti che potrebbero aiutarla a fornire le informazioni sulla doppia qualità del prodotto nella marca scelta:.....

Ha mai avuto un caso di doppia qualità?

- Sì
- No
- Non sono a conoscenza se esiste una qualità diversa dei prodotti alimentari a marchio globale che acquisto

Se la sua risposta è sì all'ultima domanda, saremo lieti di conoscere molto brevemente:

- Il prodotto: .....
- Il nome del marca: .....
- Le differenze: .....
- I paesi in cui ha acquistato il prodotto: .....

**“Grazie per il suo prezioso tempo e la sua opinione”**

### Appendix3: The Questionnaire in Polish



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#### “Twoja opinia się liczy, pozwól, aby Twój głos został usłyszany”

Szanowny Konsumentcie,

Dziękujemy za wzięcie udziału w tym projekcie i wyrażenie swojej opinii. Stanowisz dla nas wielką pomoc! Uniwersytet Techniczny w Monachium (Niemcy) wraz z Uniwersytetem Cassino i Południowego Lacjum (Włochy) prowadzi badanie naukowe dotyczące opinii konsumentów na temat **światowych (międzynarodowych) marek produktów spożywczych w krajach Europy Zachodniej oraz Wschodniej**. Nasza grupa docelowa obejmuje każdego, kto kupuje produkty spożywcze w supermarketach we Włoszech oraz Polsce. Stąd nasza decyzja, aby włączyć Cię do tego badania! Zebrane od Ciebie dane zostaną wykorzystane do badań akademickich, których celem będzie dostarczenie jak najdokładniejszych informacji dotyczących zachowań konsumentów względem decydentów na szczeblu unijnym. Poświęcony przez Ciebie czas (ok. 10-12 minut) może przynieść wielką zmianę. Zacznij wypełniać ankietę i skorzystaj z szansy wywołania pozytywnej zmiany na rynku żywności.

Miejsce zamieszkania:

- Polska
- Inne niż Polska, proszę podać nazwę kraju .....

Narodowość:

- Polska
- Inna, wskaż jaką .....

Płeć:

- Mężczyzna
- Kobieta
- Inna

Wiek:

- 15-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- Powyżej 65

Wykształcenie (proszę wskazać najwyższy uzyskany stopień):

- Wykształcenie poniżej wykształcenia średniego
- Wykształcenie średnie
- Wykształcenie wyższe - licencjackie
- Wykształcenie wyższe - magisterskie
- Wykształcenie wyższe - doktoranckie

Jak często wyjeżdża Pani/Pan za granicę?

- Nigdy nie wyjeżdżałam/ nie wyjeżdżałem za granicę
- Wyjechałam/wyjechałem za granicę jedynie kilka razy w życiu
- Wyjeżdżam za granicę między 1 - 3 razy do rok
- Wyjeżdżam za granicę między 4 - 6 razy do roku
- Wyjeżdżam za granicę często (więcej niż 6 razy do roku)



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Czy kiedykolwiek mieszkała Pani/ mieszkał Pan za granicą na przykład w związku ze studiami, pracą, stażem czy praktykami?

- Tak
- Nie

Co znaczy dla Pani/Pana pojęcie „światowej (międzynarodowej) marki”? (Wybierz jedną z poniższych propozycji)

- Produkt, który nie jest produkowany w moim kraju
- Produkt, który jest sprzedawany i kupowany na całym świecie
- Produkt, który jest globalnie reklamowany
- Inna definicja, proszę wskazać jaka:.....



Światową (międzynarodową) markę definiuje się jako “ogólnoświatowe stosowanie nazwy, znaku, symbolu, wzoru (projektu) lub ich kombinacji w celu identyfikacji towarów lub usług pochodzących od jednego sprzedawcy i odróżnienia ich od tych oferowanych przez innych konkurentów”.

Dlaczego kupujesz produkty spożywcze marek światowych? Pomyśl o produktach spożywczych międzynarodowych marek, które zazwyczaj kupujesz. Przeczytaj uważnie poniższe stwierdzenia i wskaż swój poziom zgodności bądź niezgodności z każdym z tych stwierdzeń. Zaznacz pole, które w najlepszy sposób opisuje twoją opinię. 1 oznacza – zdecydowanie się nie zgadzam, 2 oznacza – raczej się nie zgadzam, 3 oznacza – nie mam zdania, 4 oznacza – raczej się zgadzam, 5 oznacza – zdecydowanie się zgadzam. Zauważ proszę, że nie ma tutaj złych ani dobrych odpowiedzi, chcemy jedynie poznać twoją opinię na ten temat.

<b>Powodem, dla którego wybierasz produkt marki światowej zamiast lokalnej w twoim kraju jest to, że twoim zdaniem produkt marki światowej</b>	<b>1</b> Zdecydowanie się nie zgadzam	<b>2</b> Raczej się nie zgadzam	<b>3</b> Nie mam zdania	<b>4</b> Raczej się zgadzam	<b>5</b> Zdecydowanie się zgadzam
jest wyższej jakości					
jest bardziej prestiżowy					
jest po prostu lepszy (ogólnie)					
jest odpowiedni dla wszystkich, należymy do jednej międzynarodowej społeczności (kosmopolityzm)					
jest dedykowany międzynarodowemu konsumentowi, którym chcesz być					

Proszę napisać o jakichkolwiek innych powodach, dla których zakupiłaby Pani/zakupiłby Pan produkt spożywczy marki światowej, które nie zostały wskazane powyżej:

.....

Obecnie w supermarketach można znaleźć wiele produktów spożywczych światowych marek jak na przykład Nutella, dżem Darbo, paluszki rybne Iglo, napój Coca cola, oliwa z oliwek Bertolli, czekolada Milka, lody rożki Cornetto, Heinz, Danone, Almette, Corona. Ostatnio, kwestia “podwójnej jakości” została podniesiona przez konsumentów z niektórych krajów UE. UE definiuje podwójną jakość jako: “Produkty wprowadzone do obrotu na jednolitym rynku pod tą samą marką czy znakiem towarowym, ale różniące się zawartością, składem czy jakością w poszczególnych Państwach Członkowskich.” Z drugiej strony, przedsiębiorcy mają swoje własne powody, aby dostarczać ten sam produkt o różnym składzie lub charakterystyce do różnych krajów i głównie wskazują na to, że różnice te podyktowane są dobrym samopoczuciem konsumentów.

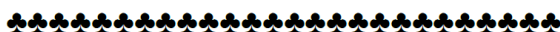


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Pomyśl teraz o jednym z produktów spożywczych marki światowej, którego zakupu ostatnio dokonałaś/dokonałeś. Producent może uzyskać inną jakość tego produktu w innych krajach z różnych powodów. Powody te są wymienione w poniższej tabeli. Jaka jest akceptowalność każdego z tych powodów? Zaznacz pole, które w najlepszy sposób opisuje twoją opinię. 1 oznacza – zdecydowanie nieakceptowalne, 2 oznacza – raczej nieakceptowalne, 3 oznacza – nie mam zdania, 4 oznacza – raczej do zaakceptowania, 5 oznacza – zdecydowanie do zaakceptowania. Zauważ proszę, że nie ma tutaj złych ani dobrych odpowiedzi, chcemy jedynie poznać twoją opinię na ten temat.

Powody, dla których firmy globalne produkują produkty spożywcze o podwójnej jakości	1 Zdecydowanie nieakceptowalne	2 Raczej nieakceptowalne	3 Nie mam zdania	4 raczej do zaakceptowania	5 zdecydowanie do zaakceptowania
Różnice kulturowe					
Różnice religijne (Np.: produkty halal oraz produkty bezalkoholowe dla Muzułmanów, niespożywanie wołowiny w Indiach)					
Różnice w upodobaniach konsumentów co do smaku (Np.: produkty mniej lub bardziej słodkie, mniej albo bardziej pikantne itp.)					
Regulacje i prawo krajowe (Np.: produkty alkoholowe w krajach islamskich są niedozwolone, dotyczy to także alkoholu w słodyczach i czekoladzie itp.)					
Sytuacja gospodarcza i gotowość konsumentów do zapłaty (Np.: mniejsze opakowanie, tańsze składniki)					
Konkurencja i chęć zdobywania większego udziału w rynku (np.: grając jakością, ceną itp.)					
Różnie środowiska (Np.: inny klimat, surowce itp.)					



To jest przykład podwójnej jakości (Produkty wprowadzone do obrotu na jednolitym rynku pod tą samą marką czy znakiem towarowym, ale różniące się zawartością, składem czy jakością w poszczególnych Państwach Członkowskich) na Węgrzech i w Austrii. Dochodzenie zostało przeprowadzone przez Ministerstwo Rolnictwa na Węgrzech:

**Porównanie lodów międzynarodowych marek w Austrii i na Węgrzech**

**Główne fakty i ustalenia:**

- Podobny produkt
- Podobny wygląd
- Prawdopodobnie ten sam producent

**Różnice w składzie:**

Poza olejem kokosowym produkt zawiera różne tłuszcze: olej słonecznikowy w produktach z Austrii. Olej palmowy na Węgrzech

**Rozbieżności zmysłowe (sensoryczne):**

- Kolor: W Austrii jest bardziej żółty
- Tekstura: W Austrii lody są bardziej kruche, na Węgrzech są bardziej puszyste (piankowe)
- Stosunek masy do objętości to 60g/90ml w Austrii, 70g/125ml na Węgrzech
- Produkt na Węgrzech zawiera więcej powietrza (w lodach) o 19%



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Biorąc pod uwagę powyższy przykład, niektóre międzynarodowe marki produktów spożywczych różnią się pomiędzy krajami Europy Wschodniej i krajami Europy Zachodniej ze względu na niektóre z wymienionych przyczyn. Które z różnic wskazanych w poniższej tabeli są dla Ciebie do zaakceptowania? Zaznacz pole, które w najlepszy sposób opisuje twoją opinię. 1 oznacza – zdecydowanie nieakceptowalne, 2 oznacza – raczej nieakceptowalne, 3 oznacza – nie mam zdania, 4 oznacza – raczej do zaakceptowania, 5 oznacza – zdecydowanie do zaakceptowania. Zauważ proszę, że nie ma tutaj złych ani dobrych odpowiedzi, chcemy jedynie poznać twoją opinię na ten temat.

<b>Różnice w tym samym produkcie pod tą samą marką lub znakiem towarowym tej samej marki, ale w różnych krajach</b>	<b>1</b> Zdecydowanie nieakceptowalne	<b>2</b> Raczej nieakceptowalne	<b>3</b> Nie mam zdania	<b>4</b> raczej do zaakceptowania	<b>5</b> zdecydowanie do zaakceptowania
Smak, aromat i zapach					
Kolor (Np.: jasno lub mocno owocowy kolor)					
Tekstura (miękkosć, zawartość kawałków owoców, itp.)					
Składniki i skład					
Rozmiar produktu (waga, ilość, małe lub duże kawałki, etc.)					
Zawartość procentowa składników (zawartość procentowa orzechów, tłuszczu itp.)					
Etykietowanie i informacje o produkcji					
Wygląd opakowania					
Cena (produkt mniej lub bardziej kosztowny)					

Czy ogólnie uważasz, że produkt spożywczy należący do marki światowej powinien być w twoim kraju taki sam jak w innych krajach?

- Tak
- Nie

W przypadku istnienia różnic w produkcie, proszę doprecyzuj swoją opinię w odniesieniu do pytań wskazanych w poniższej tabeli. Zaznacz pole, które w najlepszy sposób opisuje twoją opinię. 1 oznacza – zdecydowanie nie, 2 oznacza – raczej nie, 3 oznacza – być może, 4 oznacza – raczej tak i 5 oznacza – zdecydowanie tak. Zauważ proszę, że nie ma tutaj złych ani dobrych odpowiedzi, chcemy jedynie poznać twoją opinię na ten temat.

<b>Jeżeli istnieje produkt spożywczy pod tą samą marką czy znakiem towarowym, ale o innej zawartości, składzie czy jakości w krajach europejskich to</b>	<b>1</b> Zdecydowanie nie	<b>2</b> Raczej nie	<b>3</b> Być może	<b>4</b> Raczej tak	<b>5</b> Zdecydowanie tak
Czy oczekujesz, że zostaniesz o tym poinformowany?					
Czy w przypadku gdy producent nie zakomunikuje różnic w jasny sposób, poczujesz się oszukany?					
Czy jeżeli producent umieści na opakowaniu informacje o zawartości lub składzie produktu, będzie to dla Ciebie wystarczające, aby zrozumieć, że jest to produkt o podwójnej jakości?					
Czy informujesz swoich przyjaciół i krewnych o podwójnej jakości produktu spożywczego (jeżeli go rozpoznajesz)?					



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W jaki sposób chciałabyś/chciałbyś być poinformowana/poinformowany przez producentów o istnieniu podwójnej jakości produktu spożywczego? (Podwójna jakość jest zdefiniowana jako: "Produkty wprowadzone do obrotu na jednolitym rynku pod tą samą marką czy znakiem towarowym, ale różniące się zawartością, składem czy jakością w poszczególnych Państwach Członkowskich).

Zaznacz pole, które w najlepszy sposób opisuje twoją opinię. 1 oznacza – zupełnie niepomocne, 2 oznacza – raczej niepomocne, 3 oznacza – być może pomocne, 4 oznacza – raczej pomocne i 5 oznacza – zdecydowanie pomocne. Zauważ proszę, że nie ma tutaj złych ani dobrych odpowiedzi, chcemy jedynie poznać twoją opinię na ten temat.

W jaki sposób chciałabyś/chciałbyś zostać poinformowana/poinformowany przez producenta odnośnie do produktów o podwójnej jakości?	1 Zdecydowanie niepomocne	2 Raczej niepomocne	3 Być może pomocne	4 Raczej pomocne	5 Zdecydowanie pomocne
Różne wzory opakowań					
Różna nazwa					
Określenie na opakowaniu w sposób wyraźny i pogrubioną czcionką nazwy kraju przeznaczenia (Np.: smak dla Włoch/smak dla Polski /smak dla Niemiec)					
Określenie informacji o składnikach i składzie					
Określenie różnicy za pośrednictwem reklamy globalnej					

Czy są jakieś inne sugestie, które mogłyby pomóc w uzyskaniu przez Ciebie informacji w zakresie podwójnej jakości produktu wybranej przez Ciebie marki :.....

Czy kiedykolwiek doświadczyłeś problemu podwójnej jakości produktów?

- Tak
- Nie
- Nie wiem czy istnieje różnica w jakości produktów spożywczych marek światowych, które kupuję.

Jeżeli twoja odpowiedź na poprzednie pytanie brzmi "Tak", z chęcią dowiemy się o tym pokrótce:

- Produkt:.....
- Nazwa marki światowej:.....
- Różnice:.....
- Kraje w jakich dokonałeś zakupu produktu:.....

**"Dziękujemy Ci za poświęcenie cennego czasu oraz Twoją opinię"**

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