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Facultat d'Economia i Empresa UAB

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TITLE: CONSUMER RESPONSIBILITY FOR SUSTAINABLE CONSUMPTION AND THE PREFERENCE FOR LOCAL BRANDS.

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Abstract

Purpose – This paper aims to determine the impact of consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption of young people on local brand purchase likelihood considering the experience, the image, and the quality of local brands as mediators and the role of ethnocentrism as antecedent of the quality and local brand purchase likelihood.

Design/methodology/approach – A quantitative design is implemented collecting data through a survey from inhabitants of the province of Barcelona from 18 to 25 years old. Data is approached using multivariate analyses among which are logistic regression, partial least squares path modeling, and multigroup analysis.

Findings – Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption has a positive influence on local brand purchase likelihood both directly and indirectly through the experience and image of local brands. The impact of the quality of local brands is mediated through image and there is no evidence about the role of ethnocentrism.

Originality/value – This paper enriches the local brand literature and broadens the understanding of consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption as a contributing construct in the survival of local brands in front of the global brands' threat.

Keywords – Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption, Ethnocentrism, Local brand experience, Local brand image, Local brand quality, Local brand purchase likelihood

Paper type – Research paper

Abbreviations

CRSC	Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption
ETN	Ethnocentrism
LBE	Local brand experience
LBI	Local brand image
LBPL	Local brand purchase likelihood
LBQ	Local brand quality

1. Introduction

There is an emerging concern of increasing significance about the role of consumption within international debates about sustainability development (Jackson, 2014). This concern is also reflected in Chapter 4 of Agenda 21, whose objectives include the inducement of more sustainable consumption patterns to reduce environmental stress and satisfy basic human needs (United Nations, 1992).

Some product groups contribute significantly to environmental pressures, food and drink being the ones that take the lead, causing up to 37% of global Greenhouse Gas (GHG)

emissions (European Environment Agency, 2017). Therefore, sustainable food consumption should be promoted, consumers should be encouraged to choose sustainable food, and all actors in the food chain should perceive this situation as their responsibility and opportunity (European Commission, 2020). So, consumers, with their actions, can help alleviate current environmental problems but also affect the future of brands.

Higher consumer preferences and willingness to pay are ascribed to food with greater geographical and social proximity (Hasanzade et al., 2022). Therefore, many consumers have decided to readjust the focus of their preferences to local food brands, that is, according to Feldmann and Hamm (2015), consumers prefer "food that has traveled only short distances" or "food that is marketed directly by the producer" (Holloway et al., 2007; Watts et al., 2005). In Europe, the demand for traditional foods and the expressed interest of consumers in the quality attributed to local food led to the reintroduction of the farmers' markets (Feldmann & Hamm, 2015; Vecchio, 2009). In parallel, some supermarket chains in the USA and Europe have begun to market local food brands to meet consumer demands. In this sense, Pícha and Skořepa (2018) point out that consumers who prefer regional/local food brands tend to select food from environmental-friendly and socially responsible producers. Furthermore, consumer propensity to consider the price is negatively associated with the preference for regional food brands.

Literature about brands is extensive. We can find articles related to, among others, brand awareness (Huang & Sarigöllü, 2012), brand identity (Ghodeswar, 2008), brand image (Giesler, 2012), brand loyalty (Lin, 2010), brand management (Kotler et al., 2006), brand personality (Geuens et al., 2009), private label brands (Rubio et al., 2019), fashion and luxury brands (Park et al., 2020) or green brands (Pimonenko et al., 2020). However, we have not found in the literature research articles incorporating the idea of sustainable consumption, understood as a social practice, in the analysis of the preferences for global or local brands. We have found previous research focused on sustainable luxury brands (Wang et al., 2021), on the idea of co-creating sustainable corporate brands (Lahtinen & Närvänen, 2020), or co-creating sustainability through brands (Palakshappa & Dodds, 2020); but our literature review has allowed us to identify only one paper where the concept of local brands and sustainable consumption were analyzed together (Liu, 2020).

Global brands are those that are recognized, available, accepted, and attractive at a global level, and often adopt the same name with consistent positioning, image, personality, and appearance in the different markets in which they are present (Dimofte et al., 2008; Özsomer & Altaras, 2008). Instead, local brands are only available in a limited geographical region and are developed and adapted to the specific needs of local markets. Their strengths are related to the perception of uniqueness and originality, and their contribution to define the character of the local community (Dimofte et al., 2008; Özsomer, 2012).

Given the increasing globalization of the markets, consumers often deal with the choice between local and global brands (Özsomer, 2012). Indeed, competition from global brands constantly confronts and threatens local brands in their home and foreign markets (Ger, 1999).

Thus, it is important to understand the influences of consumer purchase behavior concerning local brands to design more effective marketing strategies for brand positioning of local brands, thereby contributing to their survival.

With the aim of filling the gap in the research of local brands and sustainable consumption, the current paper focuses on determining the impact of consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption of young people on the local brand purchase likelihood. The experience with local brands, the image of local brands, and the quality of local brands are considered mediators constructs in the relation analyzed. Likewise, ethnocentrism will be considered as an antecedent of the perception of quality of local brands as well as of the local brand purchase likelihood. In addition, gender and age are assessed as possible moderators.

A quantitative design is implemented. We collect the information through a web survey addressed to inhabitants of the province of Barcelona from 18 to 25 years old. A final sample of 214 observations allows us to work with a sampling error ±6.7% (confidence level 95% and $p = q = 0.5$). Multivariate analyses are used. The data is first approached with logistic regression. After considering the mediator effects and validating the different measurement scales, hypotheses are contrasted with partial least squares path modeling. Finally, the study of the possible moderator effects uses multigroup analysis.

Findings support that there is a positive effect of the consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption of young people on the local brand purchase likelihood: the higher the consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption, the higher the local brand purchase likelihood. Likewise, we can confirm the mediator effect of local brand experience and local brand image on the relationship between consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption and the local brand purchase likelihood; but we cannot confirm the mediator effect of the local brand quality on the mentioned relation, although a higher consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption implies a higher perception of the quality of the local brands. Furthermore, gender is not identified as a moderator, but age is. Indeed, for consumers older than 21 consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption does not directly influence local brand purchase likelihood nor local brand image.

Overall, consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption of young people has a direct as well as an indirect impact on the local brand purchase likelihood. The indirect effect is produced through the experience and the image of local brands. Likewise, the role of ethnocentrism on the local brand purchase likelihood cannot be confirmed. Said consumer behavior is moderated by its age, since for consumers older than 21 it is only evinced the indirect influence of the responsibility for sustainable consumption on local brand purchase likelihood through the experience of local brands as a mediator.

From a more conceptual or theoretical point of view, the results obtained from this project allow us to improve the understanding of the impact of the macro-trend toward sustainability on the survival of local brands. This impact has undoubtedly consequences for managerial decisions. The consideration of consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption should guide marketing decisions, because omitting them will question the survival of companies in our economic environment, mainly small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).

2. Literature review

2.1 Local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL)

Literature approached the behavior of the consumer toward a specific brand or product through different concepts. For instance, purchase intentions refer to "an individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand" (Spears & Singh, 2004, p. 56). Instead, attitude toward a brand denotes the internal evaluation of an individual concerning a brand (Mitchell & Olson, 1981).

The construct of purchase intentions is used in abundant papers such as Morrison (1979) along with Putrevu and Lord (1994), whereas consumer attitude toward a brand is approached in other studies including Batra et al. (2000) and Khan and Fatma (2017).

Consumer behavior with regard to a brand is also analyzed, among others, through its willingness to buy (Dodds et al., 1991; Zeugner-Roth et al., 2015), preference for local brands (Liu et al., 2014; Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015), brand loyalty (Huang, 2017; Khan & Fatma, 2017) and purchases of local (relative to global) brands (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015).

Literature posited theories and studies assessing the relationship among said endogenous variables. Regarding attitudes, the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) reveals the attitude-behavior relation (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), which is consistent with the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Numerous papers provide enough evidence to support the positive effect of brand attitude on brand purchase intentions (Ajzen & Fisbbein, 1974; Berger & Mitchell, 1989; López et al., 2019; MacKenzie & Spreng, 1992).

Concerning brand preferences, Bass and Talarzyk (1972) identified that attitude acts as a predictor, which is consistent with subsequent studies (Grimm, 2005). Furthermore, brand preferences are evinced to have a significant positive influence on purchase intention (Boubker & Douayri, 2020; Moradi & Zarei, 2011), and to mediate the relationship between brand attitude and purchase intentions (Boubker & Douayri, 2020; Gómez et al., 2016).

In the present paper, in line with Llonch et al. (2013), the dependent variable used corresponds to "Local brand purchase likelihood" given the purpose of determining which of the proposed constructs exerts a significant influence on consumer behavior concerning local brands.

2.2 Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC)

Sustainable consumption is defined as

> the use of goods and services that respond to basic needs and bring a better quality of life, while minimising the use of natural resources, toxic materials and emissions of waste and pollutants over the life cycle, so as not to jeopardise the needs of future generations. (Norwegian Ministry of the Environment, 1994)

In line with sustainability's triple bottom line (Elkington, 1997), the dimensions of said concept correspond to environmental, social, and economic aspects.

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) revealed that attitudes toward the behavior relate positively with behavioral intentions, which, in turn, correlated significantly with behavior, thus mediating the attitude–behavior relation (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Inconsistently, there is conclusive evidence about a widely recognized sustainable consumption attitude–behavior gap, which refers to the "gap between articulated positive attitudes toward sustainability and people's actual (mostly unsustainable) consumption behavior" (Prothero et al., 2011, p. 32).

Intending to relate the consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC) to said gap, Luchs et al. (2015) conducted a study using the scale of consumers' felt responsibility for sustainability (CFRS) from Luchs and Miller (2015). Consistent with Schwartz's (1977) concept of activated personal norms, CFRS is defined as the "consumer's sense of responsibility, or felt obligation, to consume in ways that simultaneously promote their self-oriented values, and their pro-social and/or pro-environmental values" (Luchs & Miller, 2015, p. 256).

The results from Luchs et al. (2015) suggested that the consumer's sense of responsibility for promoting sustainability in its consumption behaviors is a potentially superior predictor of sustainable consumption behavior, rather than attitudes toward sustainability-related behaviors. Moreover, it demonstrated a positive interactive effect of both predictors on behavior and identified felt responsibility as a construct not necessarily consequent of positive attitudes.

As suggested by Žagar (2020), mindful consumption and consumer awareness prompt responsible consumption. Mindful consumption "is premised on a consumer mindset of caring for self, for community, and for nature, that translates behaviorally into tempering the self-defeating excesses associated with acquisitive, repetitive and aspirational consumption" (Sheth et al., 2011, p. 21). It is suggested to enhance consumer awareness and foster the conscious election of the responses instead of a behavior based on heedless or compulsive reactions (Bahl et al., 2016). Concerning consumer awareness, it involves "acting responsibly toward a wider society and environment, understanding local and global impact of one's behavior, and reflecting critically on consequences of one's choice as a consumer" (Žagar, 2020, p. 640), whose influence on responsible consumer behavior was empirically assessed by Hansen and Schrader (1997).

Given the evidence of consumer responsibility as a driver of sustainable consumption behavior, in the context of brand preference is posited the following hypothesis:

H_1: Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC) has a positive impact on local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL).

2.3 Local brand experience (LBE)

Research has evidenced that modern consumers are rational and emotional humans whose focus when buying products and services does not only fall on the functional

features and benefits (Schmitt, 1999) but also on the gain of pleasing experiences from the purchase (Morrison & Crane, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998).

The concept of brand experience according to Brakus et al. (2009) stands for "subjective, internal consumer responses (sensations, feelings, and cognitions) and behavioral responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications, and environments" (p. 53).

Brand experience has also been defined as "the perception of the consumers, at every moment of contact they have with the brand, whether it is in the brand images projected in advertising, during the first personal contact, or the level of quality concerning the personal treatment they receive" (Alloza, 2008, pp. 373-374).

The identification of the dimensions of this concept relies on previous studies on the categorization of experiences from the perspective of philosophy, cognitive science, and experiential marketing and management (Brakus et al., 2009). Based on the approach of experiential marketing, whose aim corresponds to "create holistic experiences that integrate individual experiences into a holistic Gestalt" (p. 53), Schmitt (1999) distinguished among five types of experiences: sense, feel, think, act, and relate.

From the previous research, Brakus et al. (2009) developed four dimensions for the brand experience concept, which correspond to sensory, affective, behavioral, and intellectual. The sensory refers to the stimulation by the brand perceived through external senses (sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch); the affective comprises the feelings and emotions the brand generates; the behavioral includes the physical reactions induced by the brand on the consumer along with the interaction between both; and the intellectual dimension refers to the capacity of the brand to induce both a convergent and divergent thinking on the consumer.

The conceptualization of brand experience also led to the creation of a 12-item scale by Brakus et al. (2009) capable of measuring the intensity with which a brand evokes experiences. This scale has proven not only to be internally consistent but also consistent across many samples and studies.

Consumers tend to appraise the opportunity to increase the pleasure of the experience, which leads to an evidenced positive impact of brand experience on the willingness of consumers to pay a price premium (Dwivedi et al., 2018; Santos & Schlesinger, 2021) and purchase intentions (Sanjaya et al., 2020). Literature also showed the positive effect of brand experience on brand preference (Ebrahim et al., 2016), brand attitude (Khan & Fatma, 2017), brand loyalty (Ramaseshan & Stein, 2014; Santos & Schlesinger, 2021; Van Der Westhuizen, 2018), brand satisfaction (Brakus et al., 2009; Nysveen et al., 2013) and brand equity (Moreira et al., 2017).

For previous contributions and with the purpose of proving the effect of brand experience in the context of purchasing local brands, H2 is established:

H_2: Local brand experience (LBE) has a positive impact on local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL).

2.4 Local brand quality (LBQ)

Zeithaml (1988) defined perceived quality as the consumer's judgment about a product's excellence or superiority. The difference between perceived and objective quality has been emphasized by some papers among which Holbrook and Corfman (1985) and Parasuraman et al. (1988). Based on previous literature, Zeithaml (1988) refers to objective quality as the measured and verified superiority in the compliance of standards. However, this objective concept is argued not to exist by some researchers including Maynes (1976), who alludes that all quality evaluations are made by an individual, therefore implying an intrinsic subjectivity.

Perceived brand quality depends on a subjective abstraction by the consumer. Therefore, it is not only created based on intrinsic, but also on extrinsic cues, including country of origin (Thakor & Katsanis, 1997), price (Wolinsky, 1983), brand name (Dodds et al., 1991), and advertising (Milgrom & Roberts, 1986).

Pursuant to the research from Chen and Hu (2010) and Sweeney and Soutar (2001), the paper from Vera (2015) supported a positive relationship between perceived brand quality and customer perceived value. Following the conceptualization of Zeithaml (1988), this latter concept corresponds to the "consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given" (p. 14).

Perceived quality is deemed as a direct influencing factor on brand preference (Chomvilailuk & Butcher, 2010) and as a main component of consumer brand equity (Aaker, 1996; Yoo et al., 2000). Literature also evidenced the positive effect of this construct on consumer satisfaction (Cronin et al., 2000; Gotlieb et al., 1994; Ranjbarian et al., 2012) and brand loyalty (Alhaddad, 2015; Chi et al., 2009).

López et al. (2019) identified brand quality as a key determinant for brand evaluation and proved its positive influence on brand attitude regardless of brand categorization. In turn, the paper also supported the direct influence of brand attitude on purchase intention, and thus the indirect effect of brand quality on this latter.

Literature also corroborated the significance of the direct influence of perceived quality on purchase intentions (Alexandris et al., 2002; Chi et al., 2009; Garretson & Clow, 1999; Wang & Tsai, 2014). In line with this research, perceived quality is also ascribed to other behavioral intentions such as the repurchase intention (Cronin et al., 2000; Ranjbarian et al., 2012) and the willingness to pay a price premium (Cronin et al., 2000). In addition, it is evinced both the direct influence of perceived quality on purchase decisions, and its indirect impact through purchase intentions (Amri & Prihandono, 2019; Anwar & Andrean, 2021; Haikal, 2018; Yee & San, 2011).

Furthermore, Özsomer (2012) contended that perceived brand quality of the local brand held a negative relationship with the purchase of global brands. Therefore, in order to investigate the effects of perceived brand quality with regard to the purchase of local brands, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_3: Local brand quality (LBQ) has a positive impact on local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL).

2.5 Local brand image (LBI)

Literature ascribes the introduction of brand image to Gardner and Levy (1995), who refer to "sets of ideas, feelings, and attitudes that consumers have about brands" (p. 35). According to Keller (2009), it is described as "consumer perceptions of and preferences for a brand, as reflected by the various types of brand associations held in consumers' memory" (p. 143). Said brand associations arise from direct or indirect brand-consumer interactions (Cho & Fiore, 2015; Keller, 1993).

Although brand image has been an analyzed concept since the early 1950s, there are differing views concerning the approach of its conceptualization. In line with Keller (1993), brand associations can be classified into attributes, benefits, and attitudes; which can be differentiated by the increasing scope of information included in the association, respectively. While attributes refer to descriptive features identified in the product or service, benefits include the personal assigned value to the product or service attributes, and the latter is described as the consumer's general assessment of the brand (Keller, 1993). Otherwise, pursuant to Cho and Fiore (2015), the dimensions of brand image correspond to cognitive, emotional, and sensory brand associations.

Brand awareness, which is reflected as "consumers' ability to recall or recognize the brand under different conditions" (Keller, 2009, p. 143), is identified as an antecedent of brand image (Esch et al., 2006).

Brand image is deemed to have a positive influence on perceived value (Kim et al., 2017), brand equity (Faircloth et al., 2001; Iglesias et al., 2019; Sasmita & Suki, 2015), brand loyalty (Alhaddad, 2015), and brand trust (Alhaddad, 2015; Esch et al., 2006).

Additionally, its influence also falls on customer satisfaction (Cuong, 2020; Esch et al., 2006; Febrianti et al., 2021) and extends to brand preference (Gómez et al., 2022), purchase decision (Anwar & Andrean, 2021; Febrianti et al., 2021), and current consumer purchase behavior (Esch et al., 2006).

There is statistical evidence to support the direct effect of brand image on purchase intention (Aghekyan-Simonian et al., 2012; Diamantopoulos et al., 2011) but also its indirect effect mediated through brand attitude, irrespective of the brand category (López et al., 2019). In the context of apparel, Aghekyan-Simonian et al. (2012) proved the negative impact of brand image on perceived risk, which is also identified to act as a mediator of the relationship between brand image and purchase intention.

Given that consumers' purchase intentions are evidenced to be influenced by brand image according to some researchers, the aim is to prove this impact in the context of the purchase of local brands. Therefore, the proposed hypothesis is the following:

H_4: Local brand image (LBI) has a positive impact on local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL).

2.6 Ethnocentrism (ETN)

The construct of consumer ethnocentrism is drawn on the sociological concept of ethnocentrism introduced by Sumner (1906), which refers to the tendency of individuals to ascribe superiority to their in-group. According to Shimp (1984), consumer ethnocentrism represents "consumers' beliefs in the superiority of their own country's products" and it is aimed at capturing "the notion that some consumers believe it is somehow wrong to purchase foreign-made products, because it will hurt the domestic economy, cause the loss of jobs, and, in short, because, from their point of view, it is plainly unpatriotic" (p. 285). In contrast, the evaluation of the products by non-ethnocentric consumers is based on intrinsic merits and does not consider the country of origin (Shimp & Sharma, 1987).

Literature suggests four categories of antecedents for consumer ethnocentrism (referred to as ethnocentrism or ETN in this paper): socio-psychological, political, economic, and demographic. For example, the ethnocentric tendency is evidenced to decrease with the cultural openness of the consumer (Sharma et al., 1995). Instead, patriotism, conservatism, and collectivism are positively related to ethnocentrism (Balabanis et al., 2002; Javalgi et al., 2005; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Sharma et al., 1995). Research conducted in developed and developing countries evidenced economic development as another influencing factor of the effects of ethnocentrism (Karoui & Khemakhem, 2019). Regarding political antecedents, Good and Huddleston (1995) suggested the impact of the history of oppression, holding that an oppressed nation has to fight for its identity, which leads to develop patriotic emotions that induce consumer attitudes.

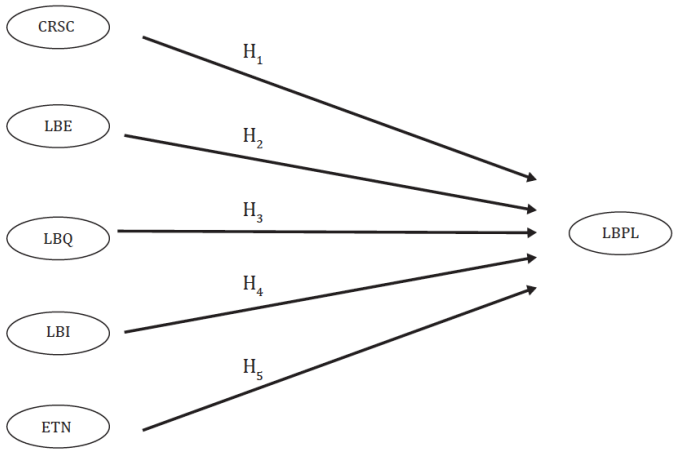
Consumer ethnocentrism is used as a central construct in the study of local and foreign brands. There is empirical support for a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and attitudes both toward importing products (Sharma et al., 1995; Yildiz et al., 2018) and toward global brands (Alden et al., 2006; Steenkamp & De Jong, 2010). Furthermore, studies identified consumer attitude held with regard to foreign brands as a mediator of the influence of ethnocentrism on purchase decisions (Thomas et al., 2020). Consistently, ethnocentrism resulted in positive attitudes toward local brands (Steenkamp & De Jong, 2010) and local brand preference (Hsu & Nien, 2008).

Ethnocentrism is proved to influence purchasing decisions (Febrianti et al., 2021), both directly and through purchase intention as a mediator (Amri & Prihandono, 2019). Besides, it is evidenced the positive effect of this construct on the purchase intention of domestic products (Han, 1988; Herche, 1992; Li et al., 2012; Yildiz et al., 2018) and on local (relative to global) brand purchases (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015). It is also confirmed its indirect influence on purchase intentions of domestic products with customers' purchase attitudes as a mediator (Qing et al., 2012). In addition, it is supported the negative influence of ethnocentrism on the purchase intention of foreign products (Li et al., 2012) and on the willingness to buy foreign products (Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004). Given literature leads to formulate the following hypothesis:

H_5: Ethnocentrism (ETN) has a positive impact on local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL).

The posited hypotheses result in the conceptual model depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1: *Conceptual model*



3. Methodology

The target of the present study corresponds to inhabitants of the province of Barcelona from 18 to 25. The non-probability sampling method intended to use was proportional quotas to the population distribution of the province of Barcelona with regard to age and gender. The aim of using this method is to attain a representative sample of the targeted population, whose data was extracted from the National Statistics Institute (INE, 2022). Initially, the sample was expected to have a sampling error ±5%, confidence level 95%, and p = q = 0.5, which results in a sample size of n = 384. Not all the expected data could be collected nor the proposed quotas, resulting in a sample size of n = 214, after discarding 17 answers for their non-validity. The lower number of observations implies a higher sampling error of ±6.7%. However, it is deemed to be within habitual limits. The fact of adopting this sample size as adequate implies the ascription of a weight for each response to maintain the representativity of the sample in order to infer about said population. Table 1 shows the details of the adjustment.

The data was collected through a questionnaire, including demographic questions which worked as conditional questions to ensure the respondents belong to said target. The measurement scales of each construct were adapted from the sources indicated in Table 2, which were translated into Spanish considering the reference population (Annex 2). Each item was rated on a five-point Likert scale, where 5 was “strongly agree” and 1 was “strongly disagree”.

Out of the 214 respondents, the maximum level of studies achieved corresponds to high school for 30.84% and unfinished university studies for 28.51%. These percentages are followed by advanced and intermediate vocational training with 13.55% and 10.75%, respectively. Regarding gross monthly income, 43.46% earn less than 500€ and 27.10% between 500 and 1,000€. Only 2.80% present a quantity between 2,000 and 2,500€, which corresponds to the same proportion of respondents with an income higher than 2,500€. The univariate analysis of the data obtained for the different items is presented in Annex 1.

Table 1: *Real and theoretical sample*

	Real sample		Weight applied		Theoretical sample	
Age	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
18	4	3	3.528	4.358	14	13
19	12	19	1.163	0.678	14	13
20	16	14	0.859	0.908	14	13
21	30	28	0.461	0.458	14	13
22	25	16	0.553	0.809	14	13
23	19	12	0.718	1.065	14	13
24	4	6	3.425	2.154	14	13
25	4	2	3.467	6.616	14	13

Table 2: *Constructs and items*

Constructs	Items	Sources
Local brand experience (LBE)	LBE1: Local brands make a strong impression on my visual sense or other senses. LBE2: I find local brands interesting in a sensory way. LBE3: Local brands do not appeal to my senses. LBE4: Local brands induce feelings and sentiments. LBE5: I do not have strong emotions for local brands. LBE6: Local brands are emotional brands. LBE7: I use local brands when I engage in physical actions. LBE8: Local brands result in bodily experiences. LBE9: Local brands do not trigger my activity. LBE10: I engage in a lot of thinking when I encounter local brands. LBE11: Local brands do not make me think. LBE12: Local brands stimulate my curiosity and problem solving.	Brakus et al. (2009)
Local brand quality (LBQ)	LBQ1: Local brands are well made. LBQ2: Local brands offer a high level of quality. LBQ3: Local brands have a consistent level of quality.	Sweeney and Soutar (2001)
Local brand image (LBI)	LBI1: Local brands have a very good image. LBI2: Local brands are some of the best on the market. LBI3: Local brands have a high quality. LBI4: Local brands have better characteristics than non-local ones. LBI5: Local brands tend to be cheaper than non-local ones. LBI6: Local brands are attractive. LBI7: Local brands have a personality that distinguishes them from those that are not. LBI8: Local brands do not disappoint their customers.	Pina et al. (2010).
Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC)	CRSC1: I feel obligated to try to implement sustainable practices where appropriate. CRSC2: It is up to me to bring about improvements in sustainability. CRSC3: I feel little obligation to challenge or change the way sustainability related practices have been conducted. CRSC4: I feel a personal sense of responsibility to be more sustainable in my product choices. CRSC5: Correcting sustainability related problems is not really my responsibility.	Luchs and Miller (2015)

Constructs	Items	Sources
Ethnocentrism (ETN)	ETN1: Purchasing foreign-made products is anti-Spanish. ETN2: A real Spaniard should always buy national products. ETN3: Spaniards should not buy foreign products, because this hurts Spanish business and causes unemployment. ETN4: It is not correct to purchase foreign-made products.	Batra et al. (2000), selected from the original CETSCALE scale from Shimp and Sharma (1987)
Local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL)	LBPL1: I would buy local brands. LBPL2: I would certainly buy local brands. LBPL3: It is very likely that I will buy local brands. LBPL4: The next time I need a certain product I will buy it from a local brand. LBPL5: When I had to buy a product I will definitely try a local brand first.	Dodds et al. (1991) Putrevu and Lord (1994)

4. Study 1

4.1 Exploratory factor analysis

The suitability of the exploratory factor analysis is assessed through the correlation matrix among quantitative variables. In line with Tabachnick and Fidell (2019), if there are no correlation coefficients over 0.30 the appropriateness of the factor analysis should be reconsidered. In this case, as we will see, all constructs are suitable for applying factor analysis.

To confirm the suitability of the data, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is used and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (MSA). Concerning the former, all constructs present a significant statistical test; and with regards to KMO, the overall MSA in all cases is above 0.50, therefore reinforcing the appropriateness to continue with factor analysis (Hair et al., 2009).

The extracting method chosen is principal axis factoring (PAF) and the method for prior communality corresponds to principal components which set all communalities equal to 1. As for the rotation method, Varimax is used to maintain the orthogonality of the dimensions when rotating and develop factor structures that are uncorrelated.

Rotated Factor Loading reveals the factors obtained from each construct (Table 3), which are extracted deeming the dimensions with an eigenvalue higher than 1 (Kaiser, 1960).

The factors obtained from the same construct are uncorrelated by definition, but the correlation among all extracted factors is assessed through the correlation matrix from Table 4.

Table 3: *Results from exploratory factor analysis*

Constructs	Factors	Variance	Percent	Cum Percent	Items
Local brand experience (LBE)	**F_1:** LBE_Positive emotional brand experience	2.9601	24.667	24.667	LBE10 LBE4 LBE12 LBE6
	F_2: LBE_Positive sensory brand experience	2.9030	24.192	48.859	LBE7 LBE8 LBE2 LBE1
	F_3: LBE_Negative emotional and sensory brand experience	2.3939	19.949	68.808	LBE9 LBE5 LBE3 LBE11
Local brand quality (LBQ)	**F_1:** LBQ_Brand quality	2.5556	85.187	85.187	LBQ2 LBQ1 LBQ3
Local brand image (LBI)	**F_1:** LBI_Brand image	3.6651	45.814	45.814	LBI1 LBI3 LBI6 LBI4 LBI2 LBI7
	F_2: LBI_Economic brand	1.2918	16.147	61.961	LBI5 LBI8
Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC)	**F_1:** CRSC_High consumer responsibility	1.9387	38.774	38.774	CRSC4 CRSC1 CRSC2
	F_2: CRSC_Low consumer responsibility	1.4658	29.316	68.090	CRSC3 CRSC5
Ethnocentrism (ETN)	**F_1:** ETN_Ethnocentrism	2.8100	70.250	70.250	ETN2 ETN4 ETN1 ETN3
Local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL)	**F_1:** LBPL_Local brand purchase likelihood	3.5522	71.043	71.043	LBPL2 LBPL3 LBPL4 LBPL1 LBPL5

Table 4: *Correlation matrix among extracted factors.*

Factors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. LBE_Positive emotional brand experience	1								
2. LBE_Positive sensory brand experience	0.0000	1							
3. LBE_Negative emotional and sensory brand experience	0.0000	0.0000	1						
4. LBQ_Brand quality	0.2942***	0.3071***	0.0568	1					
5. LBI_Brand image	0.3006***	0.4143***	-0.1490*	0.6274***	1				
6. LBI_Economic brand	-0.0561	0.1660*	0.0189	-0.0209	-0.0000	1			
7. CRSC_High consumer responsibility	0.4950***	0.1582*	-0.0639	0.3458***	0.4460***	0.0401	1		
8. CRSC_Low consumer responsibility	-0.0656	0.0906	0.2278***	0.2172**	0.2467***	0.0414	-0.0000	1	
9. ETN_Ethnocentrism	0.0333	0.2162**	0.1607*	-0.0462	0.0181	0.1703*	0.0280	0.0411	1

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

4.2 Logistic regression

Given the binary nature of the response variable "Local brand purchase likelihood", the data was approached with logistic regression. Said variable was extracted from the construct of LBPL, considering its median as the cut-off point between the two proposed categories. Therefore, if the value of the construct for a given observation was equal to or higher than 0.14237 it was classified as "1", and if lower as "0".

The variance inflation factors (VIF) depicted in Table 5 suggest no presence of multicollinearity among the obtained factors since any VIF exceeds the threshold of 5 (Snee, 1973). In fact, for all factors this measure is below 3.

Table 5: *Variance inflating factor (VIF) of the extracted factors.*

Factors	VIF
1. LBE_Positive emotional brand experience	1.4300
2. LBE_Positive sensory brand experience	1.3566
3. LBE_Negative emotional and sensory brand experience	1.1880
4. LBQ_Brand quality	1.8012
5. LBI_Brand image	2.2780
6. LBI_Economic brand	1.0638
7. CRSC_High consumer responsibility	1.5413
8. CRSC_Low consumer responsibility	1.2047
9. ETN_Ethnocentrism	1.1252

The suggested model was designed to predict the effect of the extracted factors on local brand purchase likelihood (LPLB) and the results obtained are shown in Table 6.

The Goodness-of-fit of the model is assessed by comparing the -LogLikelihood of the full and the reduced model. As Chi-square is significant (Table 6), it proved the validity of the logistic regression results, which led to the implication that the added variables contribute to the model.

Table 6: *Result from the logistic regression model*

Factors	Coefficient	SE	Chi-square	Odds ratio	Result
LBE_Positive emotional brand experience	0.667**	0.207	10.345	1.948	Supported
LBE_Positive sensory brand experience	0.561**	0.202	7.711	1.753	Supported
LBE_Negative emotional and sensory brand experience	-0.376	0.213	3.110	0.687	Not supported
LBQ_Brand quality	0.311	0.218	2.043	1.365	Not supported
LBI_Brand image	0.301	0.248	1.480	1.351	Not supported
LBI_Economic brand	0.355*	0.182	3.814	1.427	Supported
CRSC_High consumer responsibility	0.433*	0.207	4.383	1.542	Supported
CRSC_Low consumer responsibility	-0.125	0.194	0.411	0.883	Not supported
ETN_Ethnocentrism	-0.005	0.175	0.001	0.995	Not supported
- LogLikelihood = 37.692 ; Chi-square = 75.383***					

Regarding local brand experience, the factors alluding to a positive experience impact LBPL in the expected direction. Instead, when it is negative, it seems not to be significant on said dependent construct.

The result evinces a significant positive impact between a high consumer responsibility and LBPL, but not when this responsibility is low, in which case the hypothesis is not supported.

As regards to local brand image, the discernment of this construct into two factors has led to recognizing that only the effect of the economic brand has a significant influence on the posit direction with respect to the response variable.

Finally, concerning local brand quality and ethnocentrism, their effect is not significant, thus in disagreement with the research shown in the previous literature.

5. Study 2

5.1 New hypotheses development

The significant correlations among the extracted factors shown in the correlation matrix led to posit relationships between independent variables. Thus, it is suggested a positive association among local brand image and local brand quality, and also the relationship of consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption with the constructs of local brand experience, local brand image, and local brand quality.

Furthermore, previous literature alludes to the former relationship. Conforming to Kim et al. (2017) along with Wang and Tsai (2014), brand image has a positive impact on perceived quality. Consistently, Nguyen et al. (2022) identified perceived quality as a mediator of brand image and purchase intention.

In addition, previous contributions also suggest another possible relationship among independent variables since it is demonstrated that the more the consumers' level of ethnocentrism increases, so does their quality perception of a local brand (Li et al., 2012; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015; Tong & Li, 2013; Verlegh, 2007).

Therefore, the following hypotheses have been proposed:

H_6: Local brand image (LBI) has a positive impact on local brand quality (LBQ).

H_7: Ethnocentrism (ETN) has a positive impact on local brand quality (LBQ).

H_8: Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC) has a positive impact on local brand experience (LBE).

H_9: Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC) has a positive impact on local brand image (LBI).

H_{10}: Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC) has a positive impact on local brand quality (LBQ).

5.2 Control variables

In this study, several control variables related to demographic consumers' characteristics have been considered: age, gender, level of education, and gross monthly income. Consistent with previous research, Madahi and Sukati (2012) evinced the impact of demographic variables on purchase intention. Therefore, they are included in the analysis of local brand purchase likelihood to statistically isolate the impact of the main constructs of interest.

Indeed, Steenkamp et al. (1999) supported the effect of demographic variables on consumer attitudes toward local and global products. For instance, older consumers tend to hold more propensity toward the consumption of local products. Further studies support the influence of said variables on consumer purchase behavior in other contexts, such as environmentally friendly products (Mehmet & Gül, 2014) and e-commerce (Akhter, 2003; Bhat et al., 2021; Fekete-Farkas et al., 2021; Lin et al., 2019).

Literature emphasized the study of the demographic variables on consumer ethnocentrism, although there is also evidence for the other constructs. Sharma et al. (1995) stated that "ethnocentric tendencies in consumers do not develop in isolation but rather are part of a constellation of social-psychological and demographic influences" (p. 27). Correspondingly, Good and Huddleston (1995) evidenced that ethnocentric leanings in Poland increase with age, and tend to be higher in females, while decreasing with the level of education and income.

Klein and Ettenson (1999) and Sharma et al. (1995) supported said influences from gender, education, and income on consumer ethnocentrism. Caruana (1996), Alam et al. (2022), and Balabanis et al. (2001) all supported the impact of age, but the latter also evidenced the posit influence of gender and income. Findings related to age and education are consistent with the foregoing research by Schooler (1971), who identified the same effect of said demographic variables with regard to consumer attitudes toward foreign products.

The papers from Luchs and Miller (2015) related consumers' felt responsibility for sustainability positively to the level of education and age and established a higher consumer responsibility for women with respect to men, thus proving the effect of the demographic variables on sustainable consumption behavior.

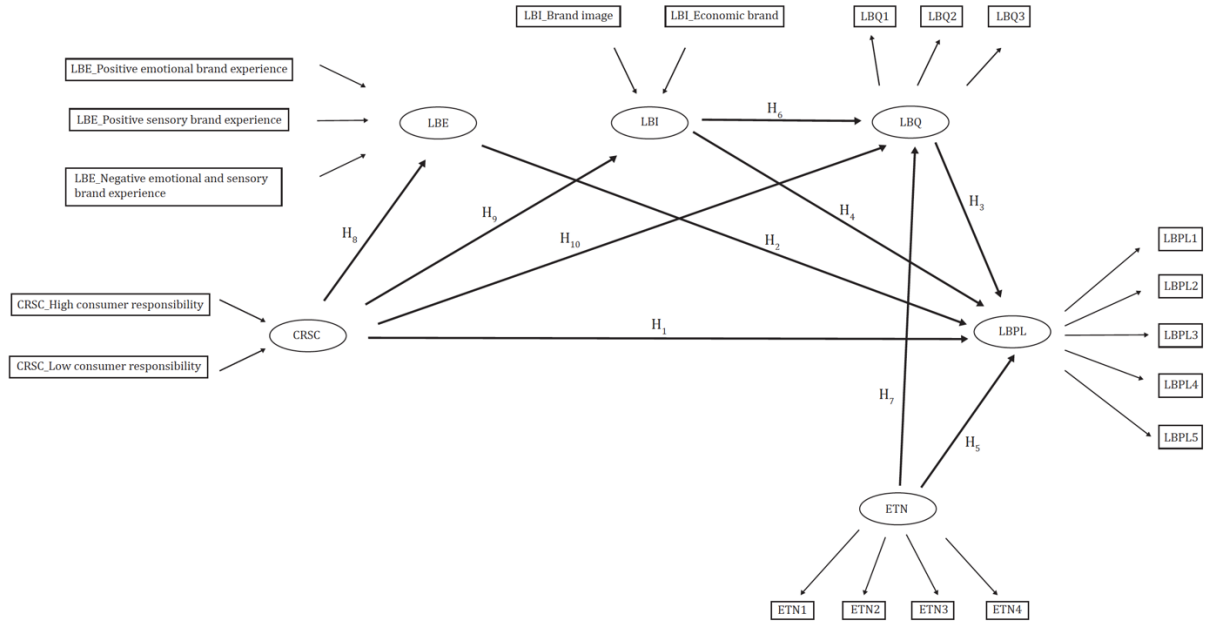
The research of Strizhakova and Coulter (2015) evinced the importance of age and gender as predictors of brand quality: women and older consumers result in a more favorable perceived quality of local (relative to global) brands. In addition, Garg et al. (2014) attested that age, gender, education, income, and marital status exert influence on some factors included in customer experience.

Finally, Wang and Tsai (2014) stated that demographic characteristics are connected to consumers' needs and affect purchasing behavior. In fact, it proved that education and occupation influence brand image, perceived quality, and purchase intention. In addition, it stressed that perceived quality is affected by gender, while brand image and purchase intention by the residential area.

5.3 Mediation analysis

Given the basic assumption of the logistic regression related to the absence of multicollinearity, these suggested relationships have not been considered in the previous analysis (Study 1). To deal with them, the Structural Equation Model via Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM) is used through the Smart PLS software. This method is advocated considering the small size of the sample (Cassel et al., 1999). Therefore, the proposed model considering these additional relationships is depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2: *Initial structural model*



Measurement model

For the first-order reflective constructs, their reliability is evaluated using a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The internal consistency of each construct is assessed through the composite reliability (CR) values and Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficients, for which previous studies (Chin, 1998; Fornell & Larcker, 1981) set an acceptable threshold of 0.7. As composite reliability ranges from 0.896 to 0.934 and Cronbach's alpha from 0.859 to 0.895 (Table 7), the values are above the benchmark and the internal consistency is supported.

Concerning convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) and the standardized factor loading should exceed 0.5 and 0.7, respectively (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The AVE varies from 0.679 to 0.826 and the outer loadings are all significant and range from 0.751 to 0.929. Therefore, as both measures satisfy the criteria, convergent validity is suggested as appropriate.

According to Clark and Watson (1995) and Kline (2011), the constructs present discriminant validity if the value of the HTMT (Heterotrait-monotrait ratio) is lower than 0.85. In line with this criterion, as the values are between 0.057 and 0.346 (Table 8), discriminant validity is supported.

Table 7: *Internal consistency and convergent validity of first-order reflective constructs*

Construct	Cronbach's alpha	AVE	CR	Indicator	Outer loading
LBPL	0.882	0.679	0.914	LBPL1	0.815
				LBPL2	0.862
				LBPL3	0.843
				LBPL4	0.846
				LBPL5	0.751
LBQ	0.895	0.826	0.934	LBQ1	0.900
				LBQ2	0.929
				LBQ3	0.897
ETN	0.859	0.683	0.896	ETN1	0.756
				ETN2	0.829
				ETN3	0.891
				ETN4	0.825

NOTE: CR composite reliability, AVE average variance extracted

Table 8: *Discriminant validity HTML of first-order reflective constructs*

	LBPL	LBQ	ETN
LBPL			
LBQ	0.346		
ETN	0.167	0.057	

NOTE: HTMT Heterotrait-monotrait ratio

For the second-order constructs considered reflective-formative, the outer weights and the variance inflating factor (VIF) are assessed. Regarding the former, its values range from -0.163 to 0.983 (Table 9). All are significant except the coefficients for LBE_Negative and LBI_Economic. The VIF of these constructs are all below 1.012, thus suggesting an absence of multicollinearity since it does not surpass the cut-off value of 3.0 (Hair et al., 2011).

Table 9: *Construct validation of second-order constructs reflective-formative*

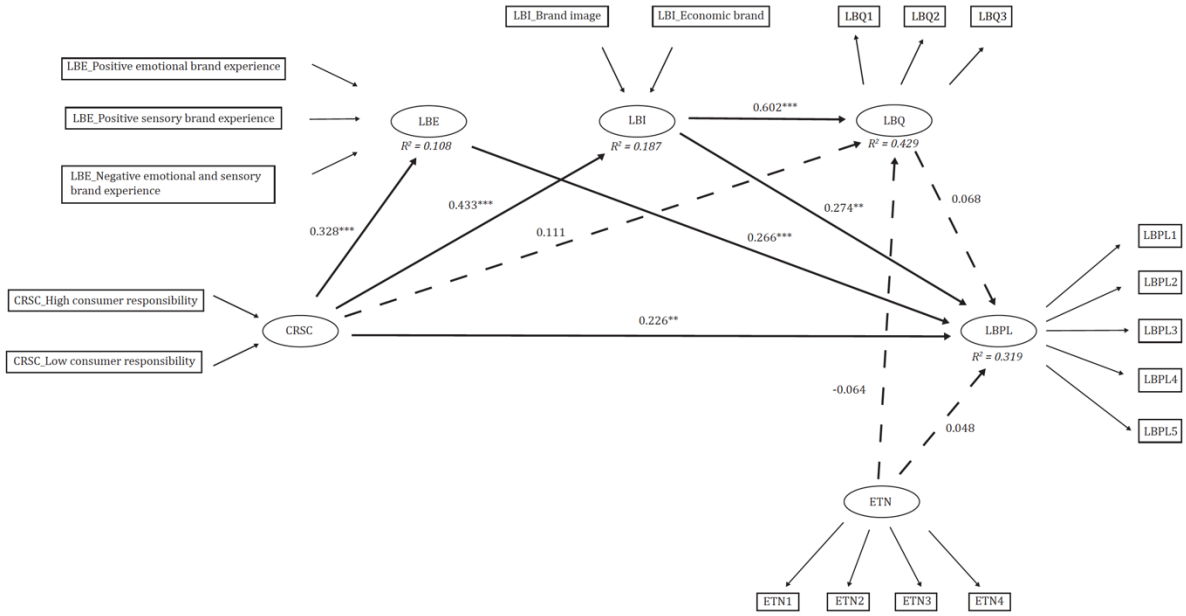
Construct	Indicator	Outer weight	VIF
CRSC	CRSC_High consumer responsibility	0.952***	1.000
	CRSC_Low consumer responsibility	0.291*	1.000
LBE	LBE_Positive emotional brand experience	0.745***	1.004
	LBE_Positive sensory brand experience	0.626***	1.012
	LBE_Negative emotional and sensory brand experience	-0.163	1.010
LBI	LBI_Brand image	0.983***	1.009
	LBI_Economic brand	0.111	1.009

NOTE: VIF Variance Inflating Factor ; *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

Structural model

The hypothesized relationships between constructs were assessed using PLS and to determine the significance of the parameters a bootstrapping of 5,000 resamples was implemented (Chin, 1998) (Annex 4).

Figure 3: *Results of the structural model*



The estimations indicate that CRSC, LBE, and LBI have a positive direct effect on LBPL. Nevertheless, the influence of LBQ and ETN on LBPL is not significant.

Regarding the proposed mediating effects for the relationship between CRSC and LBPL, LBE and LBI are significant but not LBQ. The latter is also suggested as a mediator of the relationship between ETN and LBPL, in which case, neither is significant.

According to Falk and Miller (1992), the predictive ability of the structural model is confirmed when the determination coefficient R^2 of the endogenous latent constructs exceeds 0.1. In the studied model, the R^2 for LBE, LBI, LBQ, and LBPL corresponds to 0.108, 0.187, 0.429, and 0.319, respectively, thus exceeding the threshold value.

Proposed modification of the model

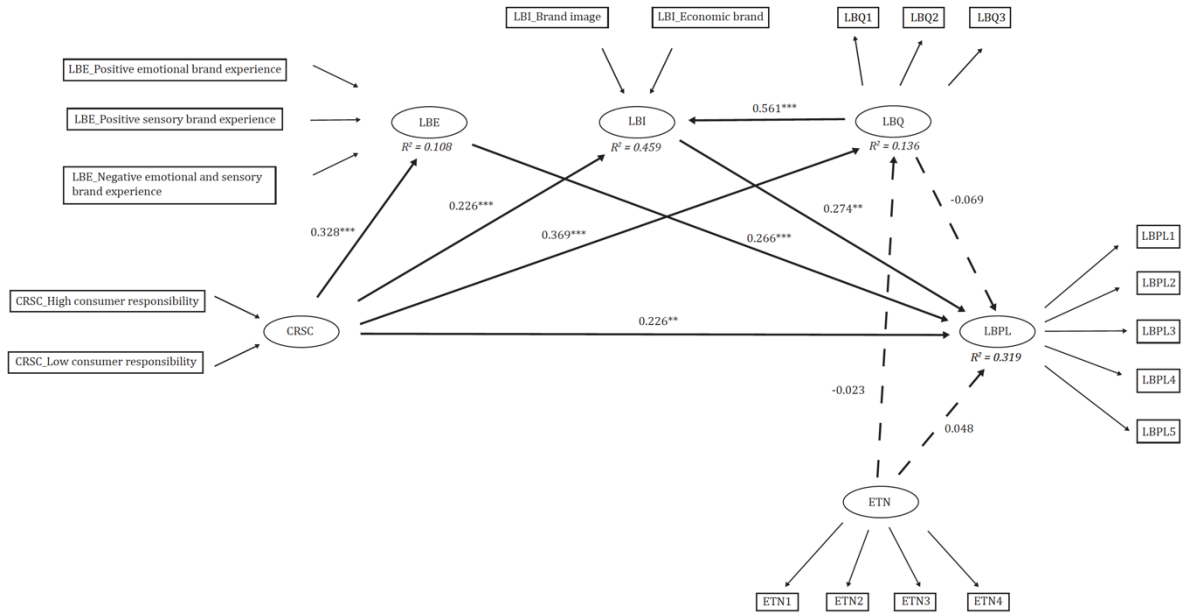
The evidenced effect in previous research of brand quality on the customer's purchase intention and consumer preferences (Alexandris et al., 2002; Amri & Prihandono, 2019; Anwar & Andrean, 2021; Chi et al., 2009; Chomvilailuk & Butcher, 2010; Garretson & Clow, 1999; Haikal, 2018; López et al., 2019; Wang & Tsai, 2014; Yee & San, 2011) strongly suggests a relationship between brand quality and local brand purchase likelihood. Instead, it seems not to be significant in either the logistic model or the analyzed structural equation model.

Previous research proved the effect of perceived quality on brand image (Alhaddad, 2015; Chen & Tseng, 2010; Tan et al, 2011; Shakil & Majeed, 2018). Based upon this evidence, it has been hypothesized the mediating effect of brand image on said relationship between brand quality and the dependent variable. To test it, a modification of the previous model has been introduced by reversing the direction of the effect between brand image and brand quality. Therefore, the suggested H_6 of the proposed model is:

H_6: Local brand quality (LBQ) has a positive impact on local brand image (LBI).

The modified structural model is also estimated using PLS and the significance of its parameters also assessed using a re-sampling procedure for 5,000 resamples.

Figure 4: *Results of the modified structural model*



The empirical results suggest that CRSC, LBE, and LBI have a significant positive impact on LBPL; thus H_1, H_2, and H_4 are supported, respectively.

For the effect of LBQ on LBPL, it is non-significant, therefore H_3 is rejected. However, since LBQ is shown to positively influence LBI, in support of H_6, the effect of this former with LBPL seems to be mediated by this latter.

Regarding ETN, its hypothesized impact is not significant, neither in the case of LBPL nor in the case of LBQ, thus H_5 and H_7 are rejected. Therefore, results discard LBQ as a mediating construct between the relationship of ETN and LBPL.

With respect to CRSC, since H_8 and H_9 are not rejected, the intervening effect of LBE and LBI on the impact that exerts CRSC on LBPL is supported. In contrast to the initial model, the positive effect of CRSC on LBQ seems to be significant, thus supporting H_{10}. However, because of the non-significance effect of the latter on LBPL, it could not be considered a mediator of CRSC on LBPL.

Using the same approach suggested by Falk and Miller (1992), the predictive ability of the model is confirmed since the R^2 for LBE, LBI, LBQ, and LBPL corresponds to 0.108, 0.459, 0.136, and 0.319, respectively, thus exceeding the limit of 0.1.

Despite both models having the same variance accounted for of the dependent variable LBPL, the modified model allows both to explain the positive impact of LBQ on LBPL through the mediator of LBI and to prove the positive influence of CRSC on LBQ. Thus, adjusting more to the previous literature and the relationships suggested in the correlation analysis.

Table 10: *Path coefficients of the modified structural model*

Hypothesis	Path	Coefficient	t-statistic	Result
H_1	CRSC → LBPL	0.226**	3.226	Supported
H_2	LBE → LBPL	0.266***	3.613	Supported
H_3	LBQ → LBPL	-0.069	0.830	Not supported
H_4	LBI → LBPL	0.274**	3.478	Supported
H_5	ETN → LBPL	0.048	0.689	Not supported
H_6	LBQ → LBI	0.561***	10.902	Supported
H_7	ETN → LBQ	-0.023	0.239	Not supported
H_8	CRSC → LBE	0.328***	4.754	Supported
H_9	CRSC → LBI	0.226***	3.728	Supported
H_{10}	CRSC → LBQ	0.369***	5.095	Supported

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

Table 11: *Specific indirect effects of the modified structural model*

Path	Coefficient	t-statistic	Result
CRSC → LBE → LBPL	0.087**	2.835	Supported
CRSC → LBI → LBPL	0.062*	2.554	Supported
CRSC → LBQ → LBPL	-0.025	0.816	Not supported
ETN → LBQ → LBPL	0.002	0.164	Not supported
ETN → LBQ → LBI → LBPL	-0.004	0.230	Not supported
CRSC → LBQ → LBI → LBPL	0.057*	2.652	Supported
ETN → LBQ → LBI	-0.013	0.236	Not supported
CRSC → LBQ → LBI	0.207***	4.656	Supported
LBQ → LBI → LBPL	0.154**	3.259	Supported

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

5.4 Moderation analysis

In the present paper, 4 variables are considered as possible moderators of the analyzed relationship: age, gender, level of education, and gross monthly income. Due to the significant relations between these variables (see p-values of the Chi-squared test consisting of "H_0: variables are not related" and "H_1: variables are related", Table 12), the moderation analysis will be developed considering gender and age.

Table 12: *Relations among the control variables*

	Gender	Age	Education	Income
Gender				
Age	0.1539			
Education	0.0024	<0.0001		
Income	0.1633	<0.0001	0.0022	

Before analyzing the possible moderation effects, for which multigroup analysis will be used, it was necessary to test the reliability and validity of the measurement instruments for the subgroups defined by gender and age. The same steps as before were followed: for the first-order reflective constructs, their reliability is evaluated using a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), computing the composite reliability (CR) values and Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficients. Concerning convergent validity, we compute the average variance extracted (AVE) and the standardized factor loading, which should exceed 0.5 and 0.7, respectively (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All the values are above the benchmark (only two coefficients are below 0.7: 0.661 and 0.611, the standardized coefficients of ETN3 and ETN4, respectively, for the group "more than 21"), so the internal consistency and convergent validity are supported (Table 13).

Table 13: *Reliability and validity of first-order reflective constructs*

	Cronbach's alpha				AVE				CR				Indicator	Outer loading			
	Female	Male	Less or 21	More than 21	Female	Male	Less or 21	More than 21	Female	Male	Less or 21	More than 21		Female	Male	Less or 21	More than 21
LBPL	0.877	0.871	0.883	0.881	0.665	0.659	0.685	0.676	0.895	0.906	0.915	0.912	LBPL1	0.765	0.811	0.836	0.787
													LBPL2	0.817	0.858	0.878	0.842
													LBPL3	0.826	0.810	0.879	0.801
													LBPL4	0.844	0.853	0.812	0.888
													LBPL5	0.823	0.719	0.723	0.789
LBQ	0.903	0.887	0.898	0.892	0.838	0.816	0.830	0.822	0.907	0.930	0.936	0.933	LBQ1	0.870	0.927	0.892	0.912
													LBQ2	0.942	0.914	0.935	0.922
													LBQ3	0.932	0.868	0.906	0.885
ETN	0.836	0.877	0.896	0.790	0.670	0.710	0.73	0.583	0.845	0.907	0.915	0.845	ETN1	0.759	0.771	0.778	0.880
													ETN2	0.875	0.868	0.874	0.865
													ETN3	0.777	0.908	0.938	0.661
													ETN4	0.858	0.817	0.819	0.611

Related to discriminant validity, the values of the HTMT (Heterotrait-monotrait ratio) are presented in Table 14. Discriminant validity is also supported.

***Table 14**: Discriminant validity HTML of first-order reflective constructs*

Female				Male				Less or 21				More than 21			
	ETN	LBPL	LBQ		ETN	LBPL	LBQ		ETN	LBPL	LBQ		ETN	LBPL	LBQ
ETN				ETN				ETN				ETN			
LBPL	0.191			LBPL	0.183			LBPL	0.185			LBPL	0.165		
LBQ	0.125	0.212		LBQ	0.070	0.413		LBQ	0.091	0.390		LBQ	0.146	0.282	

For the second-order constructs considered reflective-formative, the outer weights and the variance inflating factor (VIF) are assessed (Table 15). All weights are significant. The VIF of these constructs are all below 1.1, thus suggesting an absence of multicollinearity since it does not surpass the cut-off value of 3.0 (Hair et al., 2011).

***Table 15:** Construct validation of second-order constructs reflective-formative*

		Female		Male		Less or 21		More than 21	
		Outer weight	VIF	Outer weight	VIF	Outer weight	VIF	Outer weight	VIF
CRSC	CRSC_High consumer responsibility	0.822	1.002	0.988	1.001	0.995	1.004	0.869	1.004
	CRSC_Low consumer responsibility	0.530	1.002	0.121	1.001	0.056	1.004	0.550	1.004
LBE	LBE_Positive emotional brand experience	0.510	1.002	0.814	1.016	0.853	1.008	0.641	1.022
	LBE_Positive sensory brand experience	0.877	1.021	0.460	1.019	0.461	1.026	0.730	1.002
	LBE_Negative emotional and sensory brand experience	-0.035	1.021	-0.256	1.005	-0.075	1.021	-0.328	1.023
LBI	LBI_Brand image	0.976	1.005	0.972	1.017	0.990	1.010	0.976	1.009
	LBI_Economic brand	0.159	1.005	0.141	1.017	0.072	1.010	0.141	1.009

NOTE: VIF Variance Inflating Factor

Likewise, we test the measurement invariance. This eliminates the possibility that the differences found in the inner model coefficients were derived from errors in the measurement model. Thus, the measurement invariance of composite models (MICOMs) was utilized to test the measurement invariance as suggested by Hair et al. (2012), through which we analyzed the configurational invariance, the compositional invariance, and the scalar invariance (the equality of the composite means and variances) (Henseler et al., 2016). Table 16 shows the compositional invariance (step 2 in MICOM).

***Table 16:** Results of the invariance measurement testing, MICOM Step 2*

	Female – Male			
	Original correlation	Correlation permutation mean	5.0%	Permutation p-value
CRSC	0.902	0.964	0.873	0.092
ETN	0.984	0.830	0.303	0.925
LBE	0.846	0.913	0.753	0.180
LBI	1.000	0.989	0.958	0.908
LBPL	0.999	0.997	0.989	0.689
LBQ	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.544

Less or 21 – More than 21

	Original correlation	Correlation permutation mean	5.0%	Permutation p-value
CRSC	0.876	0.960	0.848	0.077
ETN	0.951	0.830	0.309	0.648
LBE	0.919	0.908	0.741	0.426
LBI	0.998	0.989	0.958	0.636
LBPL	0.999	0.997	0.991	0.600
LBQ	1.000	1.000	0.999	0.313

The equality of the composite means and variances cannot be proved for variable gender, which shows the partial invariance of the measurement instrument, but can be proved for age (Table 17).

Table 17: *MICOM Step 3*

Less or 21 – More than 21

MICOM - STEP 3A MEAN						MICOM – STEP 3B VARIANCE					
	Original difference	Permutation mean difference	2.5%	97.5%	Permutation p-value		Original difference	Permutation mean difference	2.5%	97.5%	Permutation p-value
CRSC	-0.149	0.006	-0.288	0.269	0.273	CRSC	0.170	-0.003	-0.414	0.412	0.420
ETN	0.060	0.003	-0.270	0.260	0.657	ETN	0.274	0.012	-0.504	0.571	0.321
LBE	0.034	-0.004	-0.269	0.255	0.827	LBE	0.108	0.006	-0.393	0.419	0.580
LBI	0.016	-0.002	-0.288	0.273	0.905	LBI	0.071	0.005	-0.426	0.447	0.742
LBPL	-0.089	0.000	-0.276	0.261	0.504	LBPL	-0.068	0.000	-0.340	0.371	0.712
LBQ	-0.123	-0.002	-0.284	0.293	0.383	LBQ	-0.084	0.005	-0.350	0.378	0.657

Based on the previous results, we can continue and evaluate the moderator effect of gender and age on the relationships proposed (Byrne, 2006; Byrne et al., 1989; Hair et al., 2006; Muthén & Christoffersson, 1981). Therefore, we can proceed to evaluate the moderator effect, for which it is necessary to carry out a multigroup analysis (Henseler et al., 2016).

The multigroup path coefficient differences were examined based on PLS Bootstrap MGA and following the procedures suggested by Keil et al. (2000) and Chin (2000). These authors suggested applying an unpaired samples t-test to the group-specific model parameters using the standard deviations of the estimates resulting from the bootstrapping. The parametric test uses the path coefficients and the standard errors of the structural paths calculated by PLS with the samples of the two groups, using the following expression of the t-value for the multigroup comparison test (1) (Chin, 2000) (m = group 1 sample size and n = group 2 sample size):

$$(1)\ t = \frac{\beta_{group\ 1} - \beta_{group\ 2}}{\sqrt{\frac{m-1}{m+n-2} \times SE^2_{group\ 1} + \frac{n-1}{m+n-2} \times SE^2_{group\ 2}} \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n}}}$$

This statistic follows a t-distribution with m + n – 2 degrees of freedom. The subsample-specific path coefficients are denoted as β, the sizes of the subsamples as m and n, and the patch coefficient standard errors resulting from the bootstrapping as SE.

Table 18 shows the multigroup comparison test results obtained for the moderation hypothesis testing. Consistent with Chin (1998), bootstrapping (5,000 resamples) was used to generate the t-values.

Table 18: *Multigroup analysis*

Path coefficients – Bootstrap MGA				
	Difference (Female – Male)	2-tailed (Female vs Male) p-value	Difference (Less or 21 – More than 21)	2-tailed (Less or 21 vs More than 21) p-value
CRSC → LBE	-0.141	0.375	-0.074	0.581
CRSC → LBI	0.130	0.276	0.083	0.542
CRSC → LBPL	-0.062	0.689	0.083	0.653
CRSC → LBQ	0.113	0.478	-0.202	0.122
ETN → LBPL	-0.065	0.640	-0.019	0.897
ETN → LBQ	-0.069	0.723	-0.153	0.428
LBE → LBPL	-0.005	0.987	-0.071	0.657
LBI → LBPL	0.001	0.987	-0.017	0.900
LBQ → LBI	-0.052	0.635	-0.027	0.798
LBQ → LBPL	-0.168	0.331	0.146	0.411

There are no significant differences either in the coefficients of males and females or between people 21 years old or less and people older than 21. However, when we are focused on the significance of the estimated coefficients for the group defined by both variables (gender and age), we can observe that the estimations for all the groups are mainly similar to the estimated coefficients obtained when we do not consider groups, except two coefficients in the group of people older than 21 years old: the coefficients of CRSC→LBI and CRSC→LBPL. Both coefficients are not significantly different from 0 (Table 19).

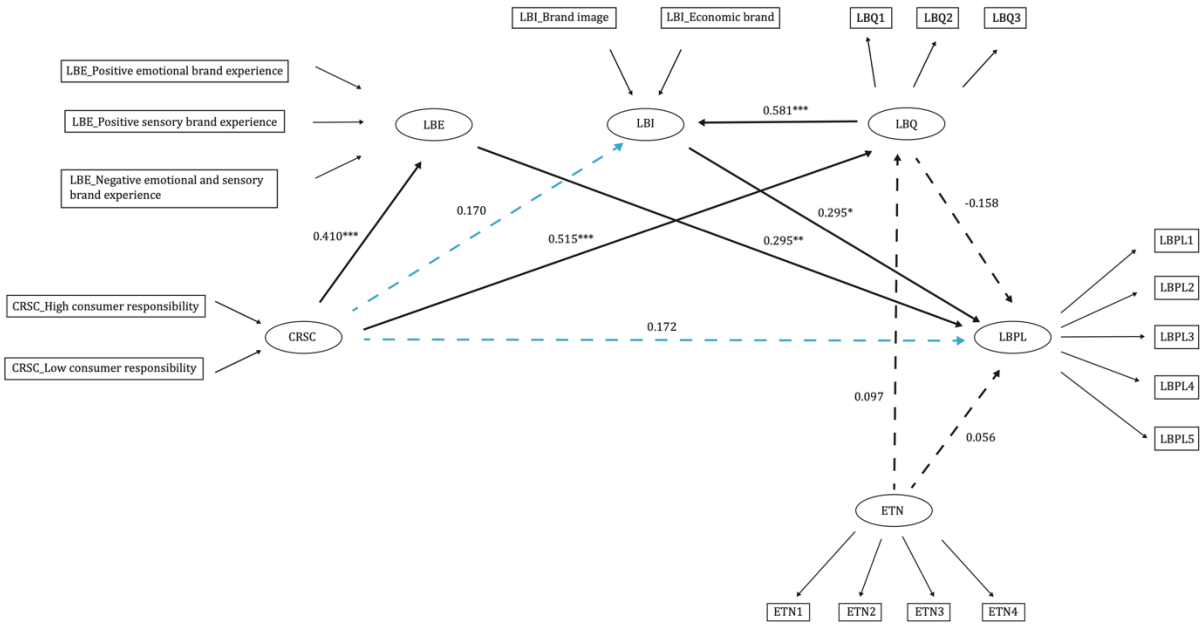
Table 19: *Estimated coefficients general and for all groups*

	GENERAL	FEMALE				MALE			
	Coefficient	Original sample (O)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T-statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P-values	Original sample (O)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T-statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P-values
CRSC → LBE	0.328***	0.253*	0.146	1.739	0.082	0.394***	0.101	3.888	0.000
CRSC → LBI	0.226***	0.304***	0.090	3.363	0.001	0.174**	0.082	2.131	0.033
CRSC → LBPL	0.226**	0.202*	0.120	1.691	0.091	0.265**	0.112	2.365	0.018
CRSC → LBQ	0.369***	0.389***	0.123	3.161	0.002	0.276**	0.118	2.334	0.020
ETN → LBPL	0.048	0.032	0.118	0.268	0.789	0.097	0.079	1.226	0.220
ETN → LBQ	-0.023	-0.078	0.161	0.483	0.629	-0.009	0.104	0.085	0.932
LBE → LBPL	0.266***	0.255**	0.117	2.177	0.029	0.261**	0.113	2.318	0.020
LBI → LBPL	0.274**	0.271**	0.133	2.034	0.042	0.270**	0.116	2.328	0.020
LBQ → LBI	0.561***	0.526***	0.085	6.195	0.000	0.578***	0.069	8.421	0.000
LBQ → LBPL	-0.069	-0.156	0.126	1.236	0.217	0.012	0.117	0.101	0.920

	LESS OR 21				MORE THAN 21			
	Original sample (O)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T-statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P-values	Original sample (O)	Standard deviation (STDEV)	T-statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P-values
CRSC → LBE	0.336***	0.096	3.491	0.000	0.410***	0.144	2.850	0.004
CRSC → LBI	0.252***	0.079	3.212	0.001	0.170	0.112	1.516	0.130
CRSC → LBPL	0.254***	0.090	2.822	0.005	0.172	0.153	1.118	0.264
CRSC → LBQ	0.312***	0.096	3.256	0.001	0.515***	0.090	5.739	0.000
ETN → LBPL	0.037	0.093	0.397	0.691	0.056	0.149	0.374	0.709
ETN → LBQ	-0.056	0.111	0.505	0.614	0.097	0.154	0.632	0.527
LBE → LBPL	0.224**	0.104	2.155	0.031	0.295**	0.139	2.128	0.033
LBI → LBPL	0.277***	0.096	2.877	0.004	0.295*	0.159	1.849	0.065
LBQ → LBI	0.554***	0.068	8.151	0.000	0.581***	0.092	6.302	0.000
LBQ → LBPL	-0.012	0.108	0.111	0.912	-0.158	0.144	1.097	0.273

Therefore, for consumers older than 21, the results from the structural equation model are depicted in Figure 5.

Figure 5: *Results of the structural model for consumers older than 21*



6. Conclusions

The main contribution of the present study is to determine the antecedents of local brand purchase likelihood of young consumers, thus appraising local brand preference.

Therefore, to assess the influence of the proposed constructs on the response variable, data from the present study is approached using two different quantitative methods: Logistic regression and Structural Equation Model via Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM). The results of both methods are illustrated in Table 20.

Table 20: *Result of the logistic regression model and Structural Equation Model*

Constructs	LOGIT	SEM
Local brand experience (LBE)		Supported
LBE_Positive emotional brand experience	Supported	
LBE_Positive sensory brand experience	Supported	
LBE_Negative emotional and sensory brand experience	Not supported	
Local brand quality (LBQ)	Not supported	Not supported
Local brand image (LBI)		Supported
LBI_Brand image	Not supported	
LBI_Economic brand	Supported	
Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC)		Supported
CRSC_High consumer responsibility	Supported	
CRSC_Low consumer responsibility	Not supported	
Ethnocentrism (ETN)	Not supported	Not supported

Furthermore, Structural Equation Model considers the following influences among the proposed predictors of local brand purchase likelihood:

Table 21: *Influences among predictors considered in Structural Equation Model*

Relationship	SEM
LBQ → LBI	Supported
ETN → LBQ	Not supported
CRSC → LBE	Supported
CRSC → LBI	Supported
CRSC → LBQ	Supported

As suggested by Zarantonello and Schmitt (2010), brand experiences can be positive or negative. In the present study, the factors considered for the local brand experience construct reflect said differentiation. Furthermore, the positive experiences are also discerned depending on their association with emotional or sensory stimuli.

In line with Sanjaya et al. (2020), results suggest that brand experiences are related positively to local brand purchase likelihood. However, it has to be objected that when brand experience is negative, the present paper does not provide support to confirm said impact.

With respect to local brand quality, there is not enough evidence to prove its direct effect on local brand purchase likelihood. In contrast to previous studies, among which Chi (2009), some papers do not provide support to the influence of customer's perception of

quality on brand purchase intention (Shakil & Majeed, 2018). Consistently, there is no evidence to corroborate its effect on local brand purchase intention (Kumar et al., 2009; Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015; Tong & Li, 2013). In fact, there is neither support for the impact of perceived quality on purchase behavior (Shakil & Majeed, 2018) nor consumer's purchase intention of foreign brands (Tong & Li, 2013).

However, it is evinced that the influence of local brand quality on local brand image, thus identifying local brand image as a mediator of the relationship between the former and local brand purchase likelihood. This reinforces the results from previous literature (Alhaddad, 2015; Chen & Tseng, 2010; Tan et al, 2011; Shakil & Majeed, 2018).

Regarding the local brand image construct, the logistic regression method analyzes it through two factors: brand image and economic brand. Said differentiation of the construct led to identify that it is only supported the impact of economic brand in the posit direction regarding local brand purchase likelihood. Results concerning the brand image factor are consistent with previous research (Haikal, 2018; Suhaily & Darmoyo, 2017) in which there is not enough evidence to prove its direct influence on purchase decisions.

Instead, SEM considers local brand image as a second-order construct reflective-formative and demonstrates its positive influence on purchase intention, consistent with previous research (Aghekyan-Simonian et al., 2012; Diamantopoulos et al., 2011).

Literature has analyzed consumer responsibility in the context of sustainability through different perspectives. For instance, Wang et al. (2014) used the construct of environmental responsibility to assess its significance on sustainable consumption behaviors. In line with Luchs et al. (2015), the present study reveals that consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption of young inhabitants positively influences the local brand purchase likelihood. However, logistic regression analysis identified that the mentioned correlation is not substantiated when consumer responsibility is low.

Furthermore, it is supported the indirect influence of consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption on local brand purchase likelihood through local brand experience and local brand image as mediators. However, local brand quality is not supported as a mediator on said relationship although a higher consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption implies a higher perception of quality of local brands.

Regarding consumer ethnocentrism, in both methods, it is not supported as a predictor of local brand purchase likelihood. Previous literature revealed that there is no evidence to support the positive effect of consumer ethnocentrism on consumer purchase intention (Wong et al., 2008). Indeed, said effect is not supported when referring to purchase intention of local brands (Tong & Li, 2013; Wel et al., 2018), thus consistent with the insufficient evidence to substantiate the positive association of consumer ethnocentrism with local brand preference (He & Wang, 2015).

Furthermore, the negative impact of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intention toward foreign products is not defended (Narang, 2016). In fact, research supported that consumer ethnocentrism does not affect purchase intention of foreign brands (Tong & Li, 2013).

Concerning the posit impact of consumer ethnocentrism on local brand quality, there is no statistical evidence to support it. Consistently, literature evinced there is no difference in the consumer perception of quality based on its consumer ethnocentric tendency (Wong et al., 2008) and did not support the moderating effect of said construct on the relationship between perceived quality and purchase intention (Nguyen et al., 2022).

Results from the moderation analysis reveal that gender is not identified as a moderator, but age is. Indeed, for consumers older than 21, consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption does not directly impact local brand purchase likelihood nor local brand image. Thus, in this case, brand image does not act as a mediator. In consequence, the responsibility for sustainable consumption for said group of consumers only influences the consumer behavior concerning local brands indirectly through the experience of local brands.

7. Discussion

Concerning theoretical contributions, this paper broadens the study of the concept on consumer responsibility, considered an under-researched subject in marketing and management in comparison with corporate responsibility (Birtchnell et al., 2006; Quazi et al., 2016). The present results enhance the body of knowledge of the impact of macro-trend toward sustainability on the survival of local brands in the presence of the challenges due to market globalization.

The present paper also increases the understanding of what drives local brand choice by endorsing the positive influence of the experience, image, and quality of local brands. However, against common assumptions, it refutes the influence of consumer ethnocentric tendencies in the analyzed context.

Managerial implications are based on the consideration of consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption to guide marketing decisions. Thus, supporting the suggested importance of focusing the marketer efforts to create responsible consumers (Smith et al., 2010). Strategically, local companies should also emphasize on the experience, image, and quality of local brands to develop effective marketing strategies for brand positioning and foster favorable brand preference and consumer behavior.

In turn, these implications foster the survival of companies in our economic environment, mainly small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), and further promote a more sustainable economy.

8. Limitations and future research lines

The limitations of the present paper provide avenues for future research. Results from this paper are based only on the province of Barcelona. Therefore, to improve the generalizability of results, the study could have been developed across different

countries, as in Özsomer (2012). The focus on young consumers could also be considered as a limiting factor. Thus, it would be interesting to compare consumers of different generations.

Moreover, two additional moderators could have been considered: the country's level of economic development and the product category. Previous literature has already considered said moderators in the study of local brands (Strizhakova & Coulter, 2015), but further studies are encouraged to incorporate them in the analysis of local brands encompassing sustainable consumption. Correspondingly, it can be also identified literature on consumer attitude toward global brands from developed versus developing countries (Guo, 2013).

Lastly, it would also be interesting to include services in future research (Steenkamp, 2003) or even to study the role of consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption discerning among the dimensions of sustainability, consistent with previous papers' approach (Schmitt, 2017).

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Annex

Annex 1: *Univariate analysis of the items measured*

Variable	Mean	SD	Skew	Kurtosis
LBE1	2.73	1.10	-0.038	0.976
LBE2	2.79	1.15	-0.068	1.810
LBE3	2.34	1.24	0.781	1.892
LBE4	2.82	1.22	0.172	0.476
LBE5	2.56	1.31	0.764	1.954
LBE6	2.78	1.21	0.196	0.141
LBE7	2.50	1.11	0.761	2.450
LBE8	2.40	1.15	0.591	1.759
LBE9	2.65	1.17	0.733	1.668
LBE10	2.86	1.27	-0.155	1.184
LBE11	2.39	1.29	0.972	1.631
LBE12	2.49	1.19	0.208	0.361
LBQ1	3.36	0.93	0.156	1.026
LBQ2	3.32	0.89	0.275	0.713
LBQ3	3.43	0.98	-0.148	0.274
LBI1	3.19	0.97	-0.001	2.644
LBI2	2.77	1.00	0.240	2.969
LBI3	3.32	0.93	0.409	0.914
LBI4	2.92	1.03	0.467	1.241
LBI5	2.54	1.25	0.636	1.609
LBI6	3.11	0.99	0.073	0.468
LBI7	3.40	1.08	-0.288	0.923
LBI8	2.95	1.11	0.106	1.682
CRSC1	3.05	1.29	-0.219	0.675
CRSC2	3.50	1.18	-0.072	0.140
CRSC3	2.89	1.26	0.210	1.352
CRSC4	3.28	1.27	-0.272	0.298
CRSC5	2.44	1.29	0.727	1.519
ETN1	1.50	0.83	1.752	3.203
ETN2	1.48	0.88	1.917	3.449
ETN3	1.64	0.94	1.306	1.231
ETN4	1.38	0.75	2.006	3.677
LBPL1	3.72	1.08	-0.752	1.793
LBPL2	3.55	1.17	-0.843	2.174
LBPL3	3.51	1.19	-0.597	2.065
LBPL4	2.80	1.05	-0.445	2.532
LBPL5	2.77	1.17	-0.192	1.030

Annex 2: *Constructs and items translated into Spanish*

Constructs	Items
Experiencia con las marcas locales (LBE)	LBE1: Las marcas locales causan una fuerte impresión en mi sentido de la vista u otros sentidos. LBE2: Las marcas locales me parecen interesantes a nivel sensorial. LBE3: Las marcas locales no atraen mis sentidos. LBE4: Las marcas locales me inducen sensaciones y sentimientos. LBE5: No tengo emociones fuertes por las marcas locales. LBE6: Las marcas locales son marcas emocionales. LBE7: Utilizo marcas locales cuando realizo comportamientos físicos. LBE8: Las marcas locales dan como resultado experiencias corporales. LBE9: Las marcas locales no activan mi actividad. LBE10: Las marcas locales me dan que pensar. LBE11: Las marcas locales no me hacen pensar. LBE12: Las marcas locales estimulan mi curiosidad y resolución de problemas.
Calidad de las marcas locales (LBQ)	LBQ1: Las marcas locales están muy bien fabricadas. LBQ2: Las marcas locales ofrecen un nivel muy alto de calidad. LBQ3: Las marcas locales tienen un nivel de calidad consistente.
Imagen de las marcas locales (LBI)	LBI1: Las marcas locales tienen muy buena imagen. LBI2: Las marcas locales son de las mejores en el mercado. LBI3: Las marcas locales tienen una elevada calidad. LBI4: Las marcas locales tienen mejores características que las que no son locales. LBI5: Las marcas locales suelen ser más baratas que las que no son locales. LBI6: Las marcas locales son atractivas. LBI7: Las marcas locales tienen una personalidad que las distingue de las que no lo son. LBI8: Las marcas locales no decepcionan a sus clientes.
Responsabilidad del consumidor por un consumo sostenible (CRSC)	CRSC1: Me siento obligado a tratar de implementar prácticas sostenibles cuando corresponda. CRSC2: Depende de mí lograr mejoras en la sostenibilidad. CRSC3: Me siento poco obligado a desafiar o cambiar la forma en que se han llevado a cabo las prácticas relacionadas con la sostenibilidad. CRSC4: Siento la responsabilidad personal de ser más sostenible en mis elecciones de productos. CRSC5: Solucionar los problemas relacionados con la sostenibilidad no es realmente responsabilidad mía.
Etnocentrismo (ETN)	ETN1: La compra de productos fabricados en el extranjero es anti- español. ETN2: Un verdadero español siempre debe comprar productos nacionales. ETN3: Los españoles no deben comprar productos extranjeros, ya que esto perjudica a las empresas españolas y causa desempleo. ETN4: No es correcto comprar productos extranjeros.
Probabilidad de comprar una marca local (LBPL)	LBPL1: Yo compraría marcas locales. LBPL2: Ciertamente compraría marcas locales. LBPL3: Es muy probable que compre marcas locales. LBPL4: La próxima vez que necesite un determinado producto lo compraré de una marca local. LBPL5: Sin duda, cuando tenga que comprar un producto probaré primero una marca local.

Annex 3: *Correlation matrix and output from factor analysis of the constructs*

Local brand purchase likelihood (LBPL)

Correlation matrix

	LBPL1	LBPL2	LBPL3	LBPL4	LBPL5
LBPL1	1				
LBPL2	0.8735***	1			
LBPL3	0.6989***	0.7302***	1		
LBPL4	0.5473***	0.6363***	0.6426***	1	
LBPL5	0.4142***	0.5039***	0.5282***	0.7813***	1

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

Rotated factor loading

	Factor
Variable	1
LBPL2	**0.897**
LBPL3	**0.859**
LBPL4	**0.852**
LBPL1	**0.847**
LBPL5	**0.753**

KMO (Overall MSA)	Bartlett's test
0.785	807.488***

Local brand image (LBI)

Correlation matrix

	LBI1	LBI2	LBI3	LBI4	LBI5	LBI6	LBI7	LBI8
LBI1	1							
LBI2	0.4797***	1						
LBI3	0.6381***	0.5984***	1					
LBI4	0.5107***	0.5795***	0.5476***	1				
LBI5	-0.0734	0.2045**	0.0221	0.0534	1			
LBI6	0.5897***	0.4891***	0.4899***	0.4240***	0.1663*	1		
LBI7	0.4567***	0.3725***	0.4674***	0.3373***	-0.0052	0.5730***	1	
LBI8	0.2537***	0.3577***	0.3192***	0.4739***	0.1947**	0.3492***	0.3877***	1

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

Rotated factor loading

	Factor	
Variable	1	2
LBI1	**0.829**	
LBI3	**0.819**	
LBI6	**0.743**	
LBI4	**0.725**	
LBI2	**0.708**	0.331
LBI7	**0.701**	
LBI5		**0.910**
LBI8	0.480	**0.501**

KMO (Overall MSA)	Bartlett's test
0.819	640.956***

Local brand experience (LBE)

Correlation matrix

	LBE1	LBE2	LBE3	LBE4	LBE5	LBE6	LBE7	LBE8	LBE9	LBE10	LBE11	LBE12
LBE1	1											
LBE2	0.6484***	1										
LBE3	-0.2330***	-0.3063***	1									
LBE4	0.4051***	0.6244***	-0.1863**	1								
LBE5	-0.1199	-0.0356	0.4921***	-0.0703	1							
LBE6	0.4889***	0.6133***	-0.1748*	0.5649***	-0.0391	1						
LBE7	0.4825***	0.4888***	-0.1354*	0.3299***	-0.0038	0.5099***	1					
LBE8	0.5000***	0.6011***	-0.1186	0.4503***	-0.0413	0.5017***	0.7220***	1				
LBE9	-0.1069	-0.0751	0.5526***	0.0250	0.5472***	-0.0274	-0.1498*	-0.1399*	1			
LBE10	0.4520***	0.5132***	0.0027	0.5310***	-0.0544	0.5362***	0.2780***	0.3926***	0.0728	1		
LBE11	0.0473	-0.0109	0.3824***	-0.1870**	0.4519***	-0.1340	0.1026	0.1192	0.3689***	-0.3630***	1	
LBE12	0.5477***	0.4970***	-0.1254	0.4544***	-0.1977**	0.4383***	0.3218***	0.4732***	-0.1100	0.6070***	-0.1687*	1

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

Rotated factor loading

	Factor		
Variable	1	2	3
LBE10	**0.890**		
LBE4	**0.705**	0.326	
LBE12	**0.671**	0.329	
LBE6	**0.608**	0.495	
LBE7		**0.829**	
LBE8		**0.815**	
LBE2	0.540	**0.647**	
LBE1	0.421	**0.640**	
LBE9			**0.845**
LBE5			**0.808**
LBE3			**0.795**
LBE11	-0.503	0.429	**0.594**

KMO (Overall MSA)	Bartlett's test
0.799	1283.477***

Local brand quality (LBQ)

Correlation matrix

	LBQ	LBQ2	LBQ3
LBQ1	1		
LBQ2	0.7929***	1	
LBQ3	0.7592***	0.7812***	1

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

Rotated factor loading

	Factor
Variable	1
LBQ2	**0.930**
LBQ1	**0.922**
LBQ3	**0.917**

KMO (Overall MSA)	Bartlett's test
0.758	438.829***

Consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption (CRSC)

Correlation matrix

	CRSC1	CRSC2	CRSC3	CRSC4	CRSC5
CRSC1	1				
CRSC2	0.4203***	1			
CRSC3	-0.0278	0.2435***	1		
CRSC4	0.5467***	0.4379***	-0.0029	1	
CRSC5	0.0395	0.0288	0.4371***	0.0335	1

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

Rotated factor loading

	Factor	
Variable	1	2
CRSC4	**0.835**	
CRSC1	**0.827**	
CRSC2	**0.746**	
CRSC3		**0.866**
CRSC5		**0.816**

KMO (Overall MSA)	Bartlett's test
0.571	199.794***

Ethnocentrism (ETN)

Correlation matrix

	ETN1	ETN2	ETN3	ETN4
ETN1	1			
ETN2	0.7182***	1		
ETN3	0.4852***	0.5868***	1	
ETN4	0.5737***	0.6512***	0.5962***	1

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

Rotated factor loading

	Factor
Variable	1
ETN2	**0.888**
ETN4	**0.842**
ETN1	**0.831**
ETN3	**0.788**

KMO (Overall MSA)	Bartlett's test
0.794	394.663***

Annex 4: *Path coefficients and specific indirect effects of the initial structural model*

Hypothesis	Path	Coefficient	t-statistic	Result
H_1	CRSC → LBPL	0.226**	3.227	Supported
H_2	LBE → LBPL	0.266***	3.608	Supported
H_3	LBQ → LBPL	-0.068	0.827	Not supported
H_4	LBI → LBPL	0.274**	3.467	Supported
H_5	ETN → LBPL	0.048	0.692	Not supported
H_6	LBI → LBQ	0.602***	10.740	Supported
H_7	ETN → LBQ	-0.064	1.012	Not supported
H_8	CRSC → LBE	0.328***	4.755	Supported
H_9	CRSC → LBI	0.433***	6.351	Supported
H_{10}	CRSC → LBQ	0.111	1.649	Not supported

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001

Path	Coefficient	t-statistic	Result
CRSC → LBE → LBPL	0.087**	2.832	Supported
CRSC → LBI → LBPL	0.118**	2.986	Supported
LBI → LBQ → LBPL	-0.041	0.817	Not supported
CRSC → LBQ → LBPL	-0.008	0.677	Not supported
ETN → LBQ → LBPL	0.004	0.530	Not supported
CRSC → LBI → LBQ	0.261***	5.159	Supported
CRSC → LBI → LBQ → LBPL	-0.018	0.799	Not supported

NOTE: *p<0.05 , **p<0.01 , ***p<0.001