

Transformation of a National Brand into an International Brand

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This research seeks to answer the question how to successfully adapt a national brand in foreign markets.

The increasing scope of foreign economic activity of enterprises encourages enterprises to give more attention to the decisions of transformation of national brands into international ones. In order to present a brand as a strong brand that can compete on an international level, it is necessary to acknowledge and understand the similarities and differences of branding in local and foreign markets. Studies of transformation of a national brand into an international one have been fragmentary to date. There are only several researches that are deeper and more single-mindedly dedicated to the study of introduction of a national brand into foreign markets.

The main objective of this research is to prepare a conceptual model of transformation of a national brand into an international one.

Based on the analysis of research performed in the area of international branding, the main decisions of brands in foreign markets and factors that determine them were identified.

The creation of international brands is more complex than the creation of national ones because at least four levels of brand creation must be considered: (1) branded product vs. no brand (generic product), (2) manufacturer brand vs. private brand, (3) single brand vs. multiple brands, (4) global brand vs. local brand.

When introducing a brand in a new market at first attention should be given to the increase of brand awareness, and only later brand image may be considered. The image is determined by the decisions of brand core essence or positioning that offers unique added value to consumers. Means, used for consolidating the brand in the national market, will not always be suitable for foreign markets.

Inner as well as outer environmental factors of the enterprise should be considered when making international brand decisions.

Inner factors of the enterprise are also factors that form supply. The following factors are emphasized in this factor group: the degree of centralisation of the enterprise activity, the budget of brand creation, and the possibilities of decreasing cost.

When creating an international brand, differences between the national and foreign markets must be taken into account. The following aspects of the markets may differ: consumer behaviour, marketing infrastructure, scope of competition, level of economic development, cultural values, and state regulation. These differences may have a decisive influence on the creation of the brand

and its management beyond the limits of the national market.

The result of theoretical studies is an original conceptual model of transformation of a national brand into an international one, connecting decisions of situation analysis, brand decisions in foreign markets, adaptation of brand identity roots and integrated brand communications, and control of brand success in a market. The presented model will enable to ensure that when a national brand is introduced in a foreign market successful brand adaptation in foreign markets will be purposefully sought.

Keywords: brand, national brand, international brand, brand decisions, brand transformation.

Introduction

Seeking for confidence and favourable regard for their products, enterprises are forced to create and keep their distinctive characteristics, image or reputation (Smaiziene, Jucevicius, 2009). Most often they seek this aim, using brands that have distinguishing power.

The increasing scope of foreign economic activity of enterprises encourages to give more attention to the decisions of transformation of national brands into international ones. In order to present a brand as a strong brand that can compete on an international level, it is necessary to acknowledge and understand the similarities and differences of branding in local and foreign markets.

Brand creation is a complex process that encompasses more than one stage. When an international brand is being created, this process becomes even more complex. When creating an international brand, differences among the national and foreign markets must be taken into account. The following aspects of markets may differ: consumer behaviour (Dmitrovic, Vida, 2010), marketing infrastructure, scope of competition (Romanowska, 2009), and state regulation. These differences may have a decisive influence on the creation of the brand and its management beyond the limits of the national market (De Chernatony, Halliburton, Bernath, 1995; Alashban, Hayes, Zinkhan, Balazs, 2002; Grundey, Bakowska., 2008).

It is impossible to introduce into a foreign market a brand that is successful in a national market without having evaluated its core essence anew. When introducing a brand in a new market at first attention should be given to the increase of brand awareness, and only later brand image may be considered. When creating the strategy of development of national brands in foreign markets an essential question is met – what should an enterprise orient towards: the factor of the image of the product, the

enterprise, the country (or the region) (Auruskeviciene *et al.*, 2010). The factor of the country or region of origin has a great influence on the brand in the stages of its introduction into a foreign market and its maturity (Kim, Chung, 1997; Lindstrom, 2006; Koneenik, Ruzzier, 2008; Chlivickas, Smaliukiene, 2009). Most often when introducing a new brand in a foreign market the following model is followed: at first an enterprise orients towards the presentation of a new product abroad, and later attention of consumers is drawn to the characteristics of the enterprise that presents the products (Bradley, 2005).

Means, used for consolidating the brand in the national market, will not always be suitable for foreign markets. Besides, a question must be answered, how to cover different foreign markets with a brand – to use the same brand in all chosen markets, or to differentiate it depending on market peculiarities.

Many researches, performed in the area of international branding (Buzzell, 1968; Levitt, 1983; Onkvisit, Shaw, 1989; Kapferer, 2008; Barwise, Robertson, 1992; Shocker, Srivastava, Ruekert, 1994; Kim *et al.*, 1997; Czinkota, Ronkainen, 2007; Aaker, Joachimsthaler, 1999; Alashban *et al.*, 2002; De Burca, Fletcher, Brown, 2004; Hollensen, 2004), are oriented towards the main decisions of brands in foreign markets. But there are just a few researches (De Chernatony *et al.*, 1995; Bradley, 2005; Quelch, 1999; Keller, 2008) that are intended for deeper and more single-minded studies of introducing a national brand in foreign markets. Although the problem of transformation of a national brand into an international one is indisputable, the studies of this topic are still fragmentary. This is the basis of the problem of transformation of a national brand into an international one, and enables to define its decision direction with the help of a question: how to successfully adapt a national brand in foreign markets?

The aim of the research: having identified the decisions of brand formation when an enterprise acts in foreign markets and having discussed the main factors that influence them, to prepare a conceptual model of transformation of a national brand into an international one.

Research object: adaptation of a national brand for foreign markets.

Research methods: systematic and comparative analysis of scientific literature and generalization.

Novelty. An original conceptual model of transformation of a national brand into an international one is presented in the article. The suggested model will enable to ensure that when a national brand is introduced in a foreign market, a final result of national brand transformation will be purposefully sought – successful brand adaptation in foreign markets.

Main decisions of brands in foreign markets

The creation of international brands is more complex than the creation of national ones because at least four levels of brand creation must be considered (Onkvisit *et al.*, 1989; Hollensen, 2007): (1) branded product vs. no brand (generic product), (2) manufacturer brand vs. private brand, (3) single brand vs. multiple brands, (4) global brand vs. local brand.

Branded product vs. no brand (generic product).

According to Hollensen (2004), first of all an enterprise must decide if it wants to create a brand or not.

Exported products without brands require less manufacturing, marketing, and legal protection costs and cost less than exported products with brands. But there is a danger that the enterprise-manufacturer that exports no brand products may weaken product quality and sales control. Such products may lack exceptional qualities and may encounter savage competition in a foreign market (Onkvisit *et al.*, 1989).

Branded products are more innovative, of higher quality, and are advertised more often. If an enterprise decides to brand a product, then it experiences bigger costs, but consumers identify and realize such goods better. According to Onkvisit *et al.* (1989), branding, if performed properly, may be a very perspective decision when seeking for obtaining a competitive advantage, because brands allow strengthening the conception of product value in consumers' minds.

Manufacturer brand vs. private brand. When an enterprise decides to brand a product, another decision is related to the problem of the brand owner. The enterprise has the following choices: to use a private brand, a manufacturer brand, or co-branding.

A private brand. A private brand is usually used when a manufacturer's name is unknown, and the trader is big and established. In this way manufacturers get a possibility to penetrate unfamiliar markets with very severe competition (Maiksteniene, Auruskeviciene, 2008). Such strategy is useful for exporters in cases when their financial resources are limited because when using a private brand there are no sponsorship costs (the trader is responsible for sponsorship actions), and exporters may acquire access to shelves of retail stores more easily (Hollensen, 2007). According to Onkvisit *et al.* (1989), this strategy has the following advantages: a possibility to control a part of the market for a longer period of time, no sponsorship problems; and the disadvantages are: severe price competition, and lack of product exclusiveness in the market.

A manufacturer brand. A manufacturer may brand its products itself. In this case a brand belongs to the manufacturer. When selling products with its own brands a manufacturer seeks to attract and keep loyal consumers and to control marketing actions, also it acquires a bigger control of distribution. A disadvantage of this strategy is big investments into the actions of sponsorship of the brand, and an increased product price (Hollensen, 2007). When a manufacturer is limited by financial resources, and the brand is still not known in a foreign market, it is difficult to implement this strategy.

Co-brand. An enterprise may introduce a national brand into a foreign market, using brands that are successful in that foreign market. A brand, well-known in a foreign market, is coupled with a brand that is being introduced, thus creating a co-brand.

A co-brand may be defined as an average- or long-term combination of two or more different brands, seeking to create a new unique brand and to receive a synergy effect, which provides bigger benefit when acting together

than when acting separately. Keller (2008) defines a co-brand as the use of two different brands in a brand of a new product, when each brand owner expects that a partner's brand will strengthen consumer preferences and buying intentions and will help to reach new consumer audiences.

A national brand, introduced in a foreign market, is coupled with a brand that is well-known in the foreign market in order for the latter to strengthen the brand that is being introduced and that is less known. According to Rao, Ruekert (1994), many reasons exist for a co-brand to be formed: the objective to enter new markets, the attempt to communicate quality that is still unreachable by the brand owner, to receive financial benefit, and to strengthen competitive position. Keller (2008) distinguishes the following main advantages of a co-brand: the possibility to absorb a partner's experience; decreasing costs of introducing a product in a market; bigger possibilities of entrenchment in a market, and increased brand equity.

Although a co-brand provides many advantages, it may encounter failure if a brand partner is chosen wrongly or if a partner's brand becomes weak.

Single brand vs. multiple brands. An enterprise may mark all its products with a single brand or with multiple brands for product groups or a certain product.

A single brand for all products means that it is used for many different products. Quite often the name of such products is the same as the company's name. A single brand is used, when an enterprise does not differentiate its product lines, and when product reputation is high. This strategy seeks to demonstrate that all products of the enterprise are of the same quality, it determines smaller marketing costs. When a single brand is used, costs of introducing a new product into a market are decreased, and there is no brand confusion (Onkvisit *et al.*, 1989). But if the new product appears to be of insufficiently high quality or does not meet consumer needs in another way, it may undermine the reputation of the enterprise itself. Another disadvantage of this brand strategy is that it is suitable only for homogenous markets (Hollensen, 2007).

Multiple brands. An individual brand is when a brand is used for a separate product group or one product of the enterprise. According to Hollensen (2004), multiple brands are not related to the company's name or to its other brands; therefore in case of failure the image of an already existing brand is not damaged.

When using multiple brands of a certain product, the market may be segmented; more space in store shelves may be used, thus creating a competitive advantage (Hollensen, 2007). Sometimes several multiple brands must be chosen also for legal reasons, when laws limit the use of competitors' brands in comparative advertisement. Therefore some brands are registered only for advertisement purposes, although the registered brand will never be introduced into the market.

But when introducing a product with an individual brand into a foreign market, an enterprise experiences bigger marketing and resource storage costs (Onkvisit *et al.*, 1989).

Global brand vs. local brand. When making a decision to encompass foreign markets with brands, enterprises have two possibilities – to standardize a brand, i.e. to use the same brand in all chosen markets, or to

differentiate it, i.e. to introduce local brands in certain markets. When talking about global companies, De Burca *et al.* (2004) describe such brand strategies:

- *The use of the same brand on a global scale.* Usually it is characteristic of enterprises that offer a few brands with a wide international distribution to foreign markets.
- *Brand modification in each market.* This strategy is applied, seeking to adapt a global brand to conditions of a certain foreign market.
- *Different brands in different markets.* This is necessary when a brand name in a certain culture acquires a negative meaning or when an enterprise seeks to create a local identity.

A global brand. Global brands will be defined as brands, used by global companies, used without transformation in all countries. From a more radical point of view global brands are defined as brands that use the same marketing complex in all countries (Levitt, 1983).

Buzzell (1968), Levitt (1983), Kapferer (2008), Aaker *et al.* (1999), Alimiene, Kuvykaite (2008) have emphasized the advantages of global brands and the global marketing strategy. The main advantage of globalisation is the possibilities for enterprises to receive profit from economy due to production capacity. According to Buzzell (1968), Levitt (1983), Craig, Douglas (2000), the transition to a global brand allows saving brand communication costs. After the increase of consumers' mobility, consumers can find products marked with the same brands in various countries; a uniform brand image is created in all countries. But, as Kapferer (2008) noticed, the push towards the creation of global brands is more stimulated by circumstances, related to costs, than market circumstances. According to Hollensen (2007), the main drawback of a global brands is that when all markets are considered to be as one, specific needs of consumers of a certain country remain not assessed. The global brand strategy may be related also to the threat of parallel import.

A local brand. Shuiling, Kepferer (2004) define local brands as brands that exist in one country or in a limited geographical region. According to the authors such brands may belong to a local, international, or global company. Urbanskiene, Vaitkiene (2006), based on Henderson (2000), state that strong local brands usually appear in four ways: (1) a new brand is created especially for a certain market, belonging to a local manufacturer, (2) a new brand is created especially for a certain market, belonging to a foreign manufacturer or investor, (3) a brand that is little known in other markets is intensely and successfully pushed in local distribution channels due to certain reasons, (4) "an old brand", related to a local manufacturer and having a constant positive reputation.

Research, performed by Shuiling *et al.* (2004), allows to distinguish such advantages of local brands: (1) better satisfaction of needs of local consumers, (2) a more flexible price strategy, (3) a possibility to expeditiously react to actions of competitors, (4) a possibility for global companies to keep the balance of global and local brands in their brand portfolio, (5) a possibility to satisfy the needs, not encompassed by global brands, (6) a possibility to enter new markets quickly.

The drawbacks of this strategy are the following: big marketing and resource storage costs, production scale economy is lost, and the image is disintegrated.

Douglas, Craig, Nijssen (2001) state that managers of global companies encounter a difficult question: how to prepare an ideal portfolio of global and local brands. Many authors admit the existence of local brands (Quelch, Hoff, 1986, De Chernatony *et al.*, 1995; Douglas *et al.*, 2001). Local brands are well-known in their markets, and with time they often form strong relations with local consumers. Shuiling *et al.* (2004) state that the concentration of enterprises only on the development of global brands has a negative influence on local brands. Many local brands are eliminated from the brand portfolio. When enterprises eliminate strong local brands from their brand portfolios, they reject many successful possibilities. A strong local brand reflects strategic advantages. When brands are eliminated from a market, it is difficult to return them back successfully. Therefore there are many reasons for the stimulation of the development of a brand portfolio that encompasses local and global brands.

Factors that determine international brand decisions

International brand decisions depend on a wide complex of factors. When analyzing factors that determine international brand decisions, researchers (De Chernatony *et al.*, 1995; Alashban *et al.*, 2002) give the main attention to the analysis of factors that determine the degree of standardization and differentiation of brands.

When making international brand decisions *inner factors of the enterprise* as well as *outer environmental factors* should be assessed.

Inner factors of the enterprise. De Chernatony *et al.* (1995) call inner factors of the enterprise demand-forming factors, distinguishing the following factors in this factor group: *the degree of centralisation of the activity of the enterprise, the budget of brand creation, and possibilities of decreasing cost.* The authors state that global brands require the centralisation of brand management decisions in an international company. When making international brand decisions, it is necessary to perform a comparative analysis of the budget of alternative brand decisions and to assess their influence on the product cost, because the decrease of cost determines an enterprise's possibilities to compete in an international market, with no regard of relative prices and changes in market distribution due to this. *The representative industry branch of the enterprise (product category)* and its *business strategy* may also be attributed to the inner factors of the enterprise. Brand standardization is more often met in B2B, luxury goods markets, while in the sector of food industry local brands are dominant. Business strategy of the enterprise also influences brand decisions, because brands are intended so that clients would start acting in such a way so that business goals would be reached.

Alashban *et al.* (2002) distinguish *market structure* and *environmental factors* in the group of **external factors**.

Market structure factors. The following factors are attributed to market structure factors:

- Consumers. When making a decision on the strategy of covering foreign markets with brands, the level of convergence of consumer needs should be evaluated, i.e. if needs of consumers in different countries have become similar, if there are special national needs. Also the number of buyers in the market is important. Porter (1979) and Sherer (1980) state that a big intensity of buyers determines smaller standardization. Buyer intensity is determined by the business sector, represented by the enterprise.

- Competition. If competition is small, an enterprise has a possibility to standardize its brand. But if competition is big, the enterprise may gain a competitive advantage, offering such a brand, which would suit local demand better. It is important to evaluate brand strategies of competitors and to find a way, how to acquire a competitive advantage by choosing an alternative strategy.

- Distribution. It concerns the amount of products in the market and different levels of distribution channels. The more intensive the distribution is, the more fragmented the market in the country is, and so the less the brand should be standardized.

Alashban *et al.* (2002) performed a research and confirmed that the bigger the intensity of market structure factors was, the less standardized the brand was.

Environmental factors. Alashban *et al.* (2002) distinguish five environmental factors that may affect brand strategy: religion, language, education, technology, and economics.

- Religion. Many errors in labelling are made because of disregard to religion. Religion may consider some social phenomena as taboos. Products, the names of which are associated with this taboo by consumers, may be undesirable.

- Language. One of language expressions is pronunciation. It is difficult to remember product names that are difficult to pronounce. If buyers have difficulty in pronouncing a product name, it is likely that they will not be inclined to ask for it in a trading place, to discuss it with others, and to buy it. Another aspect of language is related with meaning or translation. If an enterprise decides to trade in the countries, where the same language is spoken as in the country, where the brand originated, there is a bigger probability that the product name will have a similar meaning, and it will be understood similarly. But when offering a product for foreign markets, where other languages are spoken, there is a danger that the brand might have a completely different meaning in those countries, or that it might create opposite associations. Such probability increases together with the variety of languages in a foreign market. When talking about the problems of brand interpretation in different countries, Czinkota *et al.* (2007) suggests, to pay attention to *translation, transliteration, clarity, and trans-culture* when checking the suitability of the brand for a foreign market. It is easy to make a direct translation of the product name into a foreign language for languages that use the same characters as English, but problems arise when translating into languages that use ideographic characters, for example, Japanese. The conveyance of the product

name in one language in characters of another language is called transliteration. Therefore it is necessary to check if the product name keeps the same meaning as in the national market. Clarity is ensured, creating an essentially meaningless product name, and this helps to avoid problems of product name transliteration, translation, and early registration. According to Czinkota *et al.* (2007), trans-culture means that a word in a foreign language is used as a product name.

- Education. Illiteracy prevents brand recognition and conception, and this may influence consumer attitude towards a brand.

- Economics. Jain (1989) states that standardization is more suitable in the countries that are similar from the economic point of view. Having researched the differences of economic development in inner and foreign markets, Michael (1979) states that goods, exported by the British, have higher standardization, when they are sold in developed countries, and they have bigger brand variation, when they are sold in weakly developed countries (Alashban *et al.*, 2002).

- Technology. Technological differences of countries may be big. An increasing possibility to use various technologies will condition a bigger standardization in technologically similar countries. For example, when there are similar mass media inside and outside a country, transmission of information about standardized brands would be easier. Television is very important for information transmission. While watching television consumers may see and hear the product name, and this facilitates to pronounce and remember standardized product names.

Based on the discussed environmental factors, Alashban *et al.* (2002) raised a hypothesis that the bigger the differences between environmental factors of inner and foreign markets were, the less the brand was standardized. But the results of the research performed by Alashban *et al.* (2002) showed that environmental factors did not have a big influence on brand standardization. Most enterprises do not include environmental factors when deciding whether to standardize its brand or to adapt it to conditions of a foreign market.

Theoretical model of transformation of a national brand into an international one

According to Hollensen (2004), it is not important, if the brand is being created for a local or an international market, the main functions of a brand remain the same:

- to distinguish the enterprise's offer for the market and to differentiate a certain product from competing products;
- to initiate the recognition and remembering of the brand;
- to ensure a certain level of quality and consumer satisfaction;
- to contribute to product sponsorship actions.

Delaney (2002) also does not distinguish specific features of an international brand creation process emphasizing that when creating an international brand it is necessary: 1. to define the target segment carefully and

thoughtfully; 2. to ensure that each client's needs and the want to be in contact will always be noticed; 3. to provide a dynamic individuality to the brand; 4. to persuade clients of a constant development of the company and to offer new services all the time, which would stimulate client loyalty; to create such products, which would raise and be able to keep consumer interest in them; a strong and a well-known brand may have a bigger influence on the increase of the value of company shares than sales; 5. to necessarily keep all given promises; to do more than clients expect; 6. to always keep a close connection with clients, seeking for long-term quality.

Other authors (Bradley, 2005; De Chernatony *et al.*, 1995; Quelch, 1999; Keller, 2008) try to reveal the particularity of creation of an international brand.

An enterprise that develops and implements an international brands strategy, according to Bradley (2005), has to make three inter-related decisions. *First of all*, it has to decide, which markets (already existing or new ones) should operate in. *Secondly*, an enterprise has to initiate product innovations, seeking for their success in international markets. *Thirdly*, probably the most difficult task is the evaluation of the accessibility of the brand (ensured by brand sponsorship and distribution actions) for foreign markets.

When creating an international brand, according to Keller (2008), it is necessary: 1. to acknowledge and to perceive similarities and differences of product labelling in different global zones; 2. to choose the most effective way (not the shorter or simpler one) when creating brand equity; 3. to create marketing infrastructure; 4. to join integrated marketing communications; 5. to foster brand partnership; 6. to balance standardization and differentiation; 7. to balance global and local control; 8. to identify valid guidelines; 9. to implement a brand equity measurement system; 10. to manage brand elements.

De Chernatony *et al.* (1995) distinguish two stages in the planning process of an international brand: (1) decisions of brand core essence or positioning that offers consumers unique added value, that enables to distinguish the product from competing products; (2) implementation of the brand offer on an international scale (that encompasses the analysis of the company's inner possibilities and outer environment and distribution of resources for integrated brand communications).

When talking about the creation of a global brand, Quelch (1999) distinguishes the following factors in its creation process: strategic brand decisions (positioning) and integrated brand communications, which seek to convey the brand meaning, emphasizing the suggested brand quality, roots (for example, historical roots), user imagery, usage situations, and enduring values. The author distinguishes four elements of integrated brand communications: advertisement message theme and content, brand slogan and brand logo, and packaging.

The research of brand standardization-adaptation in foreign markets, performed by Caller (1990) and Wolfe (1991), showed that brand core essence in local and foreign markets did not change, while brand offer on an international scale was implemented adapting it with regard to local conditions (De Chernatony *et al.*, 1995).

Kotler, Armstrong, Saunders, Wong (2001) agree with this opinion, stating, that when advertising a global brand, it is important to acknowledge that although the brand position may be the same in different countries, the creative advertisement strategy should be different. Therefore, even if the main position is applicable everywhere, it should be adapted in a way, characteristic of local markets. According to Kotler *et al.* (2001), it is simpler and easier to standardize brand elements than its integrated marketing communications. Some international enterprises use a standard brand advertisement in the whole world. While other enterprises follow the communications adaptation strategy, according to which advertisement is completely adapted to local markets.

Kotler *et al.* (2001) illustrate this with an example: the use of mass media for communication is not very effective in such markets as China and India. A big part of inhabitants of these countries is dispersed in country localities and has limited possibilities to use mass media. Mass media should also be adapted, because their accessibility in every country is different. The information message should also be adapted to the needs and expectations of consumers of another country.

Having reviewed the main brand decisions in foreign markets and their determining factors and having evaluated the particularity of the creation of international brands, a conceptual model of transformation of a national brand into an international one is suggested (see Figure 1).



Figure 1. Conceptual model of transformation of a national brand into an international one

The first stage of the model – *situation analysis* – encompasses the *analysis of the enterprise's inner possibilities, the situation in the foreign market, and the macro environment of the foreign market*. Based on the research performed by De Chernatony *et al.* (1995) we attributed organisational management structure of the enterprise, the budget of brand creation, and product cost to the group of factors that reflected the enterprise's inner possibilities, and we supplemented them by product category and business strategy of the enterprise. According to Alashban *et al.* (2002), the most important factors that reflect the situation in a foreign market are consumers, competition, and distribution structure. Alashban *et al.* (2002) name religion, language, education, technology, and economics as the most important elements of the macro environment of the foreign market that determine international brand decisions. Basing on Terpsta *et al.* (2000), the first four elements reflect the country's cultural

environment. Therefore we distinguished cultural and economic environment in the suggested model, supplementing them with one more element of macro environment, important for international brand decisions – legal environment. The analysis of the mentioned factors will enable to assess the enterprise's possibilities to introduce a national brand into a foreign market. It is clear that the mentioned differences may have a decisive influence on brand decisions beyond the limits of the national market.

The second step of the model – *brand decisions in foreign markets* – encompasses four levels of brand creation, distinguished by Onkvisit *et al.* (1989); Hollensen (2007): (1) branded product vs. no brand (generic product), (2) manufacturer brand vs. private brand, (3) single brand vs. multiple brands, (4) global brand vs. local brand.

When distinguishing the third and fourth steps of the model, we based ourselves on the attitude of Quelch (1999)

that strategic brand decisions (positioning) and integrated brand communications were the most important factors in the international brand creation process.

The third step of the proposed model – *adaptation of brand identity sources* – is very important. According to Keller (2008), the creation of brand equity in a new market is started from increasing of brand awareness. The most important instrument of forming brand awareness is identity. The most important sources of identity are the product itself, product name, symbol, logo, manufacturer country, character, advertisement, packaging, and slogan (Kapferer, 2008; Kotler, Keller, 2006; Butkeviciene, Stravinskiene, Rutelione, 2008). Identity sources are chosen based on decisions of brand positioning (Ostaseviciute, Sliburyte, 2008). Therefore the following were distinguished in the block of adaptation of identity sources: brand positioning decisions and the advertisement message theme, product name, symbol, logo, and packaging that reflect them.

Brand identity creates brand awareness and is the basis for the formation of brand image. Essential elements of identity, due to which the brand is distinguished from competing brands, when forming brand image, are transmitted to consumers with the help of integrated marketing communications. They are analysed in the fourth step – *adaptation of integrated brand communications*. This stage of transformation of a national brand into an international one seeks to identify the need for adaption of advertisement, sales stimulation, public relations, personal selling, and direct marketing actions for foreign markets.

Seeking for success of a brand in a foreign market, it is necessary to have *control of brand success in the market* (see the last step of the model). Brand success in the market is reflected by brand income; the taken market share; brand awareness; quality, related with the brand; associations, raised by the brand; and consumer loyalty (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 2008; Virvilaite, Jucaityte, 2008). The control system will enable to expeditiously review brand decisions and will ensure the growth of brand equity in the future.

The proposed model will enable to ensure that when a national brand is introduced into a foreign market, the final result of transformation of a national brand – successful brand adaptation in foreign markets – will be purposefully sought.

Conclusions

1. Brand creation is a complex process that encompasses more than one stage. The creation of international brands is more complex than the creation of national ones because at least four levels of brand creation must be considered: (1) branded product vs. no brand (generic product), (2) manufacturer brand vs. private brand, (3) single brand vs. multiple brands, (4) global brand vs. local brand.

2. When creating an international brand, the differences among the national and foreign markets must be taken into account. The following aspects of the markets may differ: consumer behaviour, marketing infrastructure, scope of competition, and state regulation. These differences may have a decisive influence on the creation of the brand and its management beyond the limits of the national market. When making international brand decisions inner factors of the enterprise (the degree of centralisation of the activity of the enterprise, the budget of brand creation, possibilities of decreasing cost, representative industry branch / product category and business strategy) as well as outer environmental factors (market structure, reflected by consumers, competition and distribution system, and macro environment, encompassing economical, cultural, and legal environments) should be assessed.

3. The presented conceptual model of transformation of a national brand into an international one encompasses these stages: 1. Situation analysis – analysis of the enterprise's inner possibilities, situation in the foreign market, and macro environment of the foreign market. 2. Brand decisions in foreign markets: (1) branded product vs. no brand (generic product), (2) manufacturer brand vs. private brand, (3) single brand vs. multiple brands, (4) global brand vs. local brand. 3. Adaptation of brand identity sources – the need of adaptation of brand positioning decisions, advertisement message theme, product name, symbol, logo, and packaging for a foreign market is identified.

4. Adaptation of integrated brand communications – the need of adaptation of advertisement, sales stimulation, public relations, personal selling, and direct marketing actions for foreign markets is identified. 5. Control of brand success in the market – brand income; the taken market share; brand awareness; quality, related with the brand may be control objects. The proposed model will enable to ensure that when a national brand is introduced into a foreign market, the final result of transformation of a national brand – successful brand adaptation in foreign markets – will be purposefully sought.

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Nacionalinio prekės ženklo transformavimas į tarptautinį

Santrauka

Didėjantis įmonių užsienio ekonominės veiklos mastas skatina įmones didesnę dėmesį skirti nacionalinių prekių ženklų transformavimo į tarptautinius sprendimams. Norint prekės ženklą pateikti kaip stiprų ir galintį konkuruoti tarptautiniu mastu, būtina pripažinti ir suvokti prekių ženklavimo vietinėje ir užsienio rinkose panašumus ir skirtumus. Pristatant prekės ženklą naujoje rinkoje, pradžioje tenka koncentruotis į prekės ženklo žinomumo didinimą, o tik po to, į prekės ženklo įvaizdį. Priemonės, kuriomis prekės ženklas buvo įtvirtintas nacionalinėje rinkoje, ne visada bus tinkamos užsienio rinkose.

Nacionalinio prekės ženklo transformavimo į tarptautinį studijos kol kas yra fragmentiškos. Daugelis tyrimų tarptautinės ženklo daros srityje (Buzzell, 1968; Levitt, 1983; Onkvisit, Shaw, 1989; Kapferer, 2008; Barwise, Robertson, 1992; Shocker, Srivastava, Ruekert, 1994; Kim *et al.*, 1997; Czinkota & Ronkainen, 2007; Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 1999; Alashban, Hayes, Zinkhan & Balazs, 2002; De Burca, Fletcher & Brown, 2004; Hollensen, 2004) orientuoti į pagrindinius prekės ženklų užsienio rinkose sprendimus. Yra tik keletas tyrimų (De Chernatony, Halliburton & Bernath, 1995; Bradley, 2005; Quelch, 1999; Keller, 2008), skirtų gilesnėms ir kryptingesnėms nacionalinio prekės ženklo įvedimo į užsienio rinkas studijoms. Tai pagrindžia nacionalinio prekės ženklo transformavimo į tarptautinį problematiką, o jos sprendimo kryptį leidžia apibūdinti klausimu – kaip nacionalinį prekės ženklą sėkmingai adaptuoti užsienio rinkose?

Tyrimo tikslas – identifikavus prekės ženklo formavimo, įmonei veikiant užsienio rinkose, sprendimus bei aptarus pagrindinius juos lemiančius veiksnius, parengti teorinį nacionalinio prekės ženklo transformavimo į tarptautinį modelį.

Remiantis tyrimų tarptautinės ženklo daros srityje analize, straipsnyje identifiukuoti pagrindiniai prekių ženklų užsienio rinkose sprendimai ir juos lemiantys veiksniai.

Anot Onkvisit *et al.* (1989); Hollensen (2007), tarptautinių prekių ženklų kūrimas yra sudėtingesnis nei nacionalinių, nes tenka atsižvelgti mažiausiai į keturis prekių ženklų kūrimo lygmenis: 1) prekės ženklas prieš prekės ženklo nebuvimą; 2) gamintojo prekės ženklas prieš prekybininko prekės ženklą; 3) bendras visų prekių ženklas prieš individualius prekių ženklus; 4) globalus prekės ženklas prieš vietinį prekės ženklą.

Visų pirma įmonė turi nuspręsti, ar suteikti prekės ženklą, ar nesuteikti. Prekių ženklų suteikimas, jei jis įgyvendinamas tinkamai, gali būti labai perspektyvus sprendimas, siekiant įgyti konkurencinį pranašumą, nes prekių ženklai leidžia sustiprinti prekės vertės suvokimą vartotojo sąmonėje.

Kai įmonė nusprendžia suteikti prekei prekės ženklą, kitas sprendimas yra susijęs su prekės ženklo savininko problema. Įmonės pasirinkimo alternatyvos – naudoti prekybininko, gamintojo ar sudėtinį prekės ženklą. Prekybininko prekės ženklas dažniausiai naudojamas tada, kai gamintojo vardas nežinomas, o prekybininkas – stambus ir pripažintas. Pardavinėdamas prekes su savo prekių ženklais, gamintojas siekia pritraukti ir išsaugoti sau lojalius vartotojus ir kontroliuoti marketingo veiksmus, taip pat įgyja didesnę paskirstymo kontrolę. Šios strategijos trūkumas – didelės investicijos į prekės ženklo rėmimo veiksmus, padidėjusi prekės kaina. Įvesti nacionalinį ženklą į užsienio rinką įmonė taip pat gali pasinaudodama toje užsienio rinkoje sėkmingai veikiančiais prekių ženklais. Užsienio rinkoje žinomas prekės ženklas suporuojamas su įvedamu prekės ženklu. Taip sukuriama sudėtinis prekės ženklas.

Įmonė savo prekių asortimentą gali žymėti bendru visų prekių arba individualiu prekių grupės ar konkrečios prekės ženklu. Naudojant bendrą prekės ženklą, sumažėja naujos prekės įvedimo į rinką išlaidos, nėra prekių ženklų painiavos. Naudojant individualius konkrečios prekės ženklo galima segmentuoti rinką, išnaudoti daugiau vietos parduotuvių lentynose – taip sukuriama konkurencinį pranašumą.

Priimdama užsienio rinkų aprėpimo prekių ženklais sprendimą, įmonė turi dvi galimybes – standartizuoti prekės ženklą, t. y. naudoti vienodą prekės ženklą visose pasirinktose rinkose, ar jį diferencijuoti, t. y. konkrečioms rinkoms pristatyti vietinius prekės ženklus. Perėjimas prie standartizuoto (globalaus) ženklo leidžia taupyti įmonės išlaidas. Vartotojai, padidėjęs jų mobilumui, įvairiose šalyse gali rasti prekių, pažymėtų tais pačiais prekių ženklais. Taip sukuriama vienodas prekės ženklo įvaizdis visose šalyse. Pagrindinis globalių prekių ženklų trūkumas yra tas, kad lieka neįvertinti specifiniai konkrečios šalies vartotojų poreikiai. Vietiniai prekės ženklai yra gerai žinomi savo rinkose ir metams bėgant dažnai sukuria stiprius ryšius su vietiniais vartotojais.

Priimant tarptautinių prekių ženklų sprendimus, tenka įvertinti tiek įmonės vidinius, tiek išorinės aplinkos veiksnius.

De Chernatony *et al.* (1995) įmonės vidinius veiksnius vadina pasiūlą formuojančiais veiksniais, šioje veiksmų grupėje išskirdami *įmonės veiklos centralizacijos laipsnį, prekės ženklo kūrimo biudžetą ir savikainos mažinimo galimybes*.

Kuriant tarptautinį prekės ženklą, reikia atsižvelgti į nacionalinės ir užsienio rinkų skirtumus. Rinkos gali skirtis vartotojų elgsena, marketingo infrastruktūra, konkurencijos mastu, ekonomikos plėtros lygiu, kultūros vertybėmis, valstybiniu reguliavimu. Šie skirtumai gali turėti lemiamą įtaką prekės ženklo kūrimui ir valdymui už nacionalinės rinkos ribų. Alashban *et al.* (2002) *išorinių veiksmų*, lemiančių prekių ženklų užsienio rinkose sprendimus, grupėje išskiria *rinkos struktūros ir aplinkos veiksnius*. Svarbiausiais rinkos struktūros veiksniais nusatyti vartotojai, konkurencija ir paskirstymo struktūra. Literatūroje iš aplinkos veiksmų, kurie gali paveikti tarptautinio prekės ženklo strategiją, dažniausiai išskiriami religija, kalba, išsilavinimas, technologija ir ekonomika.

Dalies autorių (Hollensen, 2004; Delaney, 2002) nuomone, nesvarbu, ar prekės ženklas kuriamas vietinei, ar tarptautinei rinkai, vis tiek pagrindinės prekės ženklo funkcijos išlieka tos pačios. Kiti autoriai (Bradley, 2005; De Chernatony *et al.*, 1995; Quelch, 1999; Keller, 2008) bando atskleisti tarptautinio prekės ženklo kūrimo specifiką.

Kuriant tarptautinį prekės ženklą, anot Keller (2008), reikalinga: 1) pripažinti ir suvokti prekių ženklavimo skirtingose pasaulinėse zonos panašumus ir skirtumus; 2) kuriant prekės ženklo vertę, rinktis ne trumpesnį ar paprastesnį, bet efektyviausią kelią; 3) sukurti marketingo infrastruktūrą;

4) a) sujungti integruotas marketingo komunikacijas; 5) puoselėti prekių ženklų partnerystę; 6) subalansuoti standartizaciją ir diferenciaciją; 7) subalansuoti globalią ir lokalią kontrolę; 8) nustatyti galiojančias gaires; 9) įdiegti prekės ženklo vertės matavimo sistemą; 10) valdyti prekės ženklo elementus.

Tarptautinio prekės ženklo planavimo procese De Chernatony *et al.* (1995) išskiria dvi stadijas: 1) prekės ženklo esmės arba pozicionavimo, siūlančio vartotojui unikalią pridėtinę vertę, įgalinančią išskirti prekę iš konkuruojančių prekių, sprendimai; (2) prekės ženklo pasiūlymo tarptautiniu mastu įgyvendinimas (apimantis kompanijos vidinių galimybių ir išorinės aplinkos analizę bei išteklių integruotosioms prekės ženklo komunikacijoms paskirstymą).

Caller (1990) ir Wolfe (1991) atlikti prekės ženklo užsienio rinkose standartizavimo-adaptavimo tyrimai parodė, kad prekės ženklo esmė vietinėje ir užsienio rinkose nesikeičia, prekės ženklo pasiūlymas tarptautiniu mastu įgyvendinamas jį adaptuojant, atsižvelgus į vietos sąlygas (De Chernatony *et al.*, 1995).

Apžvelgus pagrindinius prekių ženklų užsienio rinkose sprendimus bei juos lemiančius veiksnius ir įvertinus tarptautinių prekių ženklų kūrimo specifiką, siūlomas koncepcinis nacionalinio prekės ženklo transformavimo į tarptautinį modelis, sujungiantis šiuos etapus: 1. *Situacijos analizė* – įmonės vidinių galimybių, situacijos užsienio rinkoje ir užsienio rinkos makroaplinkos analizė. 2. *Prekių ženklų užsienio rinkose sprendimai*: a) prekės ženklas prieš prekės ženklo nebuvimą; b) gamintojo prekės ženklas prieš prekybininko prekės ženklą; c) bendras visų prekių ženklas prieš individualius prekių ženklus; d) globalus prekės ženklas prieš vietinį prekės ženklą. 3. *Prekės ženklo identiteto šaltinių adaptavimas* – nustatomas prekės ženklo pozicionavimo sprendimų, reklamos pranešimo temos, prekės vardo, simbolio, logotipo, pakuotės adaptavimo užsienio rinkoje poreikis. 4. *Integruotųjų prekės ženklo komunikacijų adaptavimas* – nustatomas reklamos, pardavimo skatinimo, ryšių su visuomene, asmeninio pardavimo ir tiesioginio marketingo veiksmų adaptavimo užsienio rinkoms poreikis. 5. *Prekės ženklo sėkmės rinkoje kontrolė* – kontrolės objektai gali būti prekės ženklo pajamos; užimama rinkos dalis; prekės ženklo žinomumas; kokybė, siejama su prekės ženklu.

Pristatomas originalus koncepcinis nacionalinio prekės ženklo transformavimo į tarptautinį modelis leis užtikrinti, kad, įvedant nacionalinį prekės ženklą į užsienio rinką, bus tikslingai siekiama sėkmingos prekės ženklo adaptacijos užsienio rinkose.

Raktažodžiai: *prekės ženklas, nacionalinis prekės ženklas, tarptautinis prekės ženklas, prekių ženklų sprendimai, prekės ženklo transformavimas.*

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