Check for updates

Received: 4 March 2022 | Revised: 18 July 2022 | Accepted: 29 August 2022

DOI: 10.1111/ijcs.12873

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

International Journal of Consumer Studies WILEY

Masstige scale: An alternative to measure brand equity

Subburaj Alagarsamy[1] | Sangeeta Mehrolia[2] | Justin Paul[3,4]

[1]School of Business, Manipal Academy of Higher Education, Dubai, UAE

[2]School of Business and Management, Christ University, Bangalore, India

[3]University of Reading Henley Business School, UK

[4]University of Puerto Rico, San Juan, Puerto Rico, USA

Correspondence
Subburaj Alagarsamy, School of Business, Manipal Academy of Higher Education, Dubai, UAE.
Email: subbu2raj@gmail.com

Abstract

Masstige marketing is a strategic word for market penetration for premium but reachable products based on brand equity, trying to develop brand awareness, likability, affection and attachment. Hence, masstige scale may allow firms to measure brand equity to derive insights into the popularity of their brands. However, there is no empirical evidence available to test whether these scales are related measures of brand equity and, at the same time, independent measures, respectively. This study investigates whether the masstige scale and multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scale measure the same constructs. A total of 493 participants evaluated four different athletic shoe brands. The multi-trait, multimethod and confirmatory factor analyses suggested that the masstige scale may be a viable alternative to consumer-based brand equity and masstige value. We discuss the implications and provide directions for future research derived from our findings.

KEYWORDS
brand equity, mass prestige, masstige marketing, masstige scale, MTMM

1 | INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades, brand equity has gained ground and caught research interest in the context of brand management literature. Brand equity has been studied extensively in various industries using different dimensional measures (Herr, 1994; Keller, 2001; Shocker, 1993; Washburn & Plank, 2002; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Aaker defines brand equity as a collection of assets associated with a brand's name and symbol that contribute to the value a product/service gives the customer (Aaker, 1996). A consumer perceives brand equity as the 'value-added' to a product by connecting it with a brand name. Though this 'value-added' is determined by several factors, the 'core' factors are the key determinants of brand purchase intent and behaviour. Aaker's core brand equity elements include a brand's 'perceived quality', 'perceived value for the cost', 'uniqueness' and a brand's 'willingness to pay a price premium' (Netemeyer et al., 2004). Because of high levels of 'positive customer-based brand equity', brands could charge premium pricing. The ideas of brand equity and mass prestige can explain the extra premium prices that luxury brands charge (Kumar et al., 2020; Paul, 2015, 2018).

Exclusivity and rarity have always been the most critical traits for premium and luxury brands (Zhan & He, 2012). Despite their rarity, brands have realized that they need to proliferate to remain competitive and go where the customers and markets are (Kapferer & Bastien, 2013). Recent studies questioned the rarity principle of premium and luxury brands due to the bandwagon effect (Kapferer & Laurent, 2016; Kastanakis & Balabanis, 2012; Paul, 2019), which creates mass prestige (masstige). Therefore, there are opportunities for unique future studies in brand equity and masstige. Over the years, premium brands have been observed to cater to niche markets, focusing on rarity as the primary messaging and promotional construct (Kim et al., 2019; Kumar & Paul, 2018; Paul, 2018). However, it soon emerged that rarity could not be the sole criterion, and there was a need for brands to extend beyond their comfort zones to go where the market is in order to sustain itself (Kapferer & Bastien, 2009, 2013; Zhan & He, 2012).

Modern consumers are more aspirational and willing to invest in exclusive brands to achieve a sense of identity (Diallo et al., 2020; Heo & Hyun, 2015; Siew et al., 2018). This means marketers must make their brand entry point more flexible to cater to a broader market. Accordingly, it has come to light that brands have been stretching their price spectrum downwards to cater to a broader market without compromising the image of luxury they represent (Kumar & Paul, 2018; Paul, 2018, 2019). Lassar et al. (1995) finds that brand

 © 2022 John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

equity influences consumer loyalty and their willingness to pay a premium price for the brand. Highly positive brand equity can command a premium price, which is well explained by the masstige marketing phenomenon (Kumar et al., 2020; Paul, 2015, 2018).

Kotler et al. (2017) defines brand equity as 'the added value endowed to products and services with consumers'. Masstige marketing, a combination of the terms 'mass' and 'prestige', is self-explanatory, signifying 'prestige for the masses' (Silverstein & Fiske, 2003), which is a marketing term akin to better 'brand perception and brand equity' (Paul, 2018). In marketing terms, it means a downward extension of the brand. With masstige, premium brands become attainable to the masses without compromising the essential qualities they represent (Kumar et al., 2020; Paul, 2015, 2018). Masstige is a marketing strategy targeted at the maximum possible customers instead of sticking to 'premium' customers. It helps brands break through the gilded cages to serve a more inclusive market. Interestingly, even with mass promotions, brands continue to enjoy the same brand equity; in other words, there is no compromise to their premium tag. These products are priced between the middle and premium range (Kim et al., 2019; Truong et al., 2008). Masstige theory is grounded in the equation price = f (masstige) and masstige = f (product, promotion and place) strategies (Paul, 2018). This implies that a brand can charge a premium price if the managers employ the best possible product, promotion and place strategies.

As income increases and consumers become more aspirational and more amenable to shell out extra for premium products, it makes sense for brands to meet them mid-way for a win–win situation, serving them with products that are more reasonably priced (Dwivedi et al., 2018; Heo & Hyun, 2015; Siew et al., 2018). With masstige, brands are no longer limited to serving a niche upper-affluent market. Instead, they can tap an additional revenue source by serving the aspirational mass-market consumers. Masstige brands are relatively more competitively priced while offering exclusivity to mass consumers (Kumar et al., 2020; Paul, 2015, 2018, 2019).

In this evolving scenario, the emerging Masstige model now includes brand equity as one of its dimensions of measurement. According to the model, brand equity can also be operationalized using masstige marketing (Kumar et al., 2020; Paul, 2015, 2018, 2019). From the discussion, it becomes clear that masstige marketing is a means for brands to tap new markets without compromising their premium tag and putting off the upper-affluent market that was their sole source of revenue (Kumar et al., 2020; Paul, 2018, 2019).

Based on the literature, masstige marketing is a strategic word for market penetration for premium but reachable products based on brand equity, trying to develop brand awareness, likability, affection and attachment and masstige is seen as a formidable alternative to brand equity in the marketing world (Kumar et al., 2020; Paul, 2018, 2019). In their study, Kumar and Paul (2018) defined brand equity in terms of mass prestige and popularity, and they used 'brand equity measurement' to record the theoretical emergence of mass prestige. However, there is little empirical evidence available to test the masstige value and brand equity are related measures of brand equity and, at the same time, independent measures, respectively. Paul (2018) explains the link between perceived brand equity, country of origin and mass prestige value. Park et al. (2022) study shows that the dimensions of masstige consumption value, brand equity and buy intention are linked. This study's main objective is to investigate whether both instruments (masstige scale and multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scale) measure the same constructs. This can be assessed by applying a multi-trait, multimethod (MTMM) framework by validating both scales' convergent and discriminant validity. The underlying premise behind MTMM analysis is that theoretically connected test scores measuring the same or similar traits should be practically associated, while theoretically unrelated test scores measuring distinct constructs should be empirically unrelated (Koch et al., 2017). The first statement refers to the degree of 'convergent validity' among the measures; the second refers to the degree of 'discriminant validity'. MTMM measurement designs are frequently analysed with confirmatory factor models (CFA-MTMM models). The CFA-MTMM models offer numerous advantages (Bagozzi & Yi, 1993). CFA-MTMM models enable '(1) separating unsystematic measurement error variance from systematic trait or method influences, (2) relating latent trait or method variables to other external variables in order to explain trait or method effects and (3) testing specific assumptions about the measurement model'. Many researchers have used the MTMM framework in organizational behaviour (Demerouti et al., 2003; Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005), psychology (Miller et al., 2018; Turner et al., 2008) and public health fields (Bauldry et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2008; Langer et al., 2010) and this is one of the first studies that use the marketing field's MTMM framework. The second part of this study aims to determine the mass prestige value associated with best-selling athletic shoe brands in an emerging market like India.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. The Section 2 explains the literature reviews on masstige theory, consumer-based brand equity and its constructs. The following section deals with the research methodology followed by the results. Finally, study implications were discussed under the Section 4, followed by the study's limitations and future scope.

2 | LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 | Instruments for the measurement of brand equity and mass prestige

Yoo and Donthu (2001) developed 10 items and a Multidimensional Brand Equity (MBE) scale comprising of three theoretically defined constructs, namely, (1) brand awareness/associations, (2) perceived quality and (3) brand loyalty. They also developed a separate multiple-item construct to measure the overall brand equity. On the other hand, Paul (2015) developed mass prestige (masstige) mean score scale with 10 items to measure the effectiveness of masstige marketing based on masstige value, with the individual score ranging from 10 to 70. The scale is called the masstige scale and has three subscales, namely, (1) brand knowledge and prestige, (2) perceived quality

and (3) excitement and status (Paul, 2019). A higher score indicates that a particular brand has a higher masstige value. To use this scale, data must be collected from consumers or potential consumers about selected brands (different brands or the same brand in other geographies). Then, the mean value can be used to compare which brand has a better masstige value (Kumar & Paul, 2018; Kumar et al., 2020; Paul, 2015, 2018, 2019). To the best of our knowledge, the masstige scale is the only scale available to measure the brand's masstige value and has been used to measure the brand value of various products such as automobiles (Paul, 2018), laptop brands (Kumar & Paul, 2018), mobile payment services (Singh, 2022) and mobile phones (Baber et al., 2020; Kumar et al., 2021).

Many authors have defined brand equity in different forms. Keller (1993) defined it as 'the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand.' According to Herr (1994), brand equity is 'a set of assets linked to a brand's name and symbol that adds to the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or that firm's consumers.' While the definition may vary, brand equity ideally includes four dimensions: brand awareness, loyalty, perceived quality and brand associations (Aaker, 1993; Keller, 1993; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). These dimensions can be used to explore and define marketing and consumer behaviour and conduct further brand equity research.

2.2 | The link between masstige and brand equity dimensions

Brand awareness is the degree to which consumers exhibit familiarity with a brand in terms of its products and services and also their perceptions about the quality of these offerings (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Herr, 1994; Keller, 1993, 2001; Rossiter & Percy, 1987). Brand association is the deep-rooted positive perceptions about the brand. These perceptions are relatable and aspirational for the consumers. Brand awareness is the degree to which consumers are familiar with a brand regarding its products and services and their perceptions of its quality (Cleveland & Laroche, 2007; Keller, 1993, 2001). Brand association is the deep-rooted positive perceptions about the brand. These perceptions are relatable and aspirational for the consumers (French & Smith, 2013; Sasmita & Mohd Suki, 2015; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Kumar and Paul (2018) emphasized that brand knowledge and awareness are essential to brand equity on the masstige scale. Brand knowledge comprises two parts: brand awareness (recognition and recall of the brand) and brand image (strength, favorability and uniqueness). 'A brand node in memory to which a variety of associations are linked' is one way to describe brand knowledge (Keller, 1993, p. 3). The more well-known a brand is, the more likely it will come to mind. The person then remembers everything they know about the brand, its characteristics and benefits, and the sensory pleasure of using it (Keller, 1993; Roy & Chau, 2011; Yoo & Donthu, 2001). Luxury brands aim to have this be closely linked with prestige, high-quality and enjoyable experiences (Siu et al., 2016). When a brand has strong and positive associations, it is easy to remember its high-quality and luxurious features and benefits, which makes the consumer happy to use the product (Kapferer & Bastien, 2013). Consumers are more likely to feel strongly about a brand when they know more about it and have some positive, strong, and unique knowledge about it in their minds (Kumar et al., 2020). So, for luxury brands, a consumer's positive feelings, like pleasure and happiness, should be linked to how much they know about the brand (combining brand associations and awareness) (Siu et al., 2016). Hence, the brand knowledge dimensions of the masstige scale and brand awareness dimensions of the brand equity scale are the same.

Perceived quality is critical in brand equity frameworks (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993; Yoo & Donthu, 2001) and the masstige scale (Kumar & Paul, 2018). According to one widely accepted definition, perceived quality is the customer's assessment of a brand's overall excellence, esteem, or superiority (concerning its intended purposes) relative to the alternative brand (s) (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993; Netemeyer et al., 2004). Perceptions of quality as a component of brand value contribute to brand equity and distinguish a brand (Yoo & Donthu, 2001).

Perceived quality differs from objective quality in that it is more related to an attitudinal assessment of a brand—a worldwide emotive appraisal of its performance relative to other brands (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993; Netemeyer et al., 2004). In the cognitive process of brand evaluation, the perceived greater quality of a premium brand promotes the sense of self (Fuchs et al., 2013). Perceiving the high quality of a luxury brand can provide consumers with a satisfying experience and cause them to acknowledge the brand's high uniqueness and superiority (Siu et al., 2016). Because it has been linked to willingness to pay a price premium, brand purchase intent, and brand choice, perceived quality is considered a core/primary brand equity construct. Perceived quality can also be a proxy for other aspects of brand equity, valid across product categories (Aaker, 1996; Netemeyer et al., 2004). The perceived quality of the masstige brand provides them with a great sense of pleasure and increases brand equity.

The introduction of masstige brands has sparked consumer interest in luxury brands (Silverstein & Fiske, 2003). According to research, one of the most distinguishing features of luxury goods is that they allow consumers to express and enhance their identity (status) and ideal personality (excitement) by acquiring and consuming them (Sung et al., 2015). A brand's personality (dimensions of brand personality include excitement and status) is an essential component of the brand's equity and loyalty (Keller, 1993). It is related to the value a customer attributes to the brand. Masstige products are 'premium yet affordable', luxury or premium products with price tags that fall between mid-market and super-premium. The premium price is a function of mass prestige (Kumar et al., 2020), one of the most powerful indicators of brand loyalty, and the most appropriate summary measure of overall brand equity (Aaker, 1996). The more positive the association, the greater the opportunity for brands to charge a premium for their products (Paul, 2018, 2019). Another aspect to consider is the sense of status associated with a brand. The status depends on factors such as life experiences and the knowledge and

awareness of competing brands (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005; Roy & Chau, 2011; Truong et al., 2008). A consumer perceives brand status depending on its exclusivity, technical superiority, price and how selectively it is available (Brun & Castelli, 2013; Wiedmann et al., 2009). A brand can symbolize style, wealth and prestige. A high-status brand will automatically symbolize superior quality, exclusive price, snob appeal and the perception of luxury and exclusivity (Goldsmith et al., 2012; O'Cass & Frost, 2002; Roy & Chau, 2011; Shahid & Paul, 2021). Accordingly, the cost of the product in such cases also includes the symbolic benefit it offers. Brand prestige refers to a brand's high status in terms of positioning, making consumers feel like they belong to a higher upper class through increasing 'social value and social self-concept' (Hwang & Han, 2014). Consumers are willing to pay higher prices to gain a reputation, which signifies social status (El-Adly & Abu ELSamen, 2018; Hwang & Han, 2014). The significance of prestige as a brand equity asset is derived from its essential outcomes (Nasution & Mavondo, 2008). According to previous studies, brand prestige is crucial to brand recognition, loyalty, trust and satisfaction (El-Adly & Abu ELSamen, 2018; Hwang & Han, 2014; Nasution & Mavondo, 2008). As a result, when a brand represents high prestige status and makes customers proud of their decision, it shows a distinguished standing, boosting brand equity (El-Adly & Abu ELSamen, 2018).

Brand loyalty, one component of brand equity, can be defined as a consumer's attitudinal attachment to a brand (Aaker, 1996; Dick & Basu, 1994). Brand loyalty is defined as 'the degree of dispositional commitment in terms of some unique value associated with the brand' (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001). According to the 'self-enhancement theory', people are motivated to boost their sense of personal worth and self-esteem by seeking information or approaching their goals. The loyal usage of luxury products is a means of self-enhancement (Siu et al., 2016). Luxury brand customers are more likely to perceive them as providing superior quality and to receive emotional rewards (excitement and status) from utilizing them (Pappu et al., 2005). An increase in self-esteem may explain the emotional rewards. Excitement and status created by the masstige brand lead to increased brand loyalty (Kumar et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2015).

Paul's (2019) study shows that masstige brands can build brand equity by being well-known, liked, loved and attached to the brand, and his work reconceptualized the Masstige Scale as a different way to measure the value of a brand; similar arguments were found in masstige literature (Baber et al., 2020; Singh, 2022). His multidimensional masstige scale for masstige brands includes brand knowledge (Keller, 1993; Paul, 2019), perceived quality (Kirmani & Zeithaml, 1993), and excitement constructs (Siu et al., 2016; Zeithaml et al., 1996). In their study on the masstige value of smartphones in the Indian market, Baber et al. (2020) found that the masstige scale measures the brand perception of masstige, perceived quality and willingness to pay a price premium, and they concluded that the Apple iPhone has strong brand equity in the Indian market. Based on the information above, we can say that the masstige value measured by the masstige scale is also the brand equity of masstige brands.

3 | METHODS

Country of origin is a crucial informational cue for the consumer, influencing purchase decisions and playing a significant part in establishing brand equity (Kumar & Paul, 2018; Mohd Yasin et al., 2007). If masstige is considered one of the relative measures of brand equity, then it is prudent to emphasize the effect of the brand nation of origin on masstige (Kumar & Paul, 2018). According to Vohra and Gupta's (2017) study, Indian consumers prefer foreign brands, which relates substantially to 'materialistic value'. It emphasized 'Reputation' as a factor related to materialism and propensity towards foreign companies. Numerous studies indicate that Indian consumers like international brands over domestic brands (Mukherjee & Sundararajan, 2012; Vohra & Gupta, 2017); thus, the effect of country of origin on brand equity and masstige studies is extensive and profound. Consequently, the mass prestige value connected with brands from various countries of origin varies significantly (Kumar & Paul, 2018).

In this study, we selected four athletic shoe brands, namely, (1) Nike, (2) Adidas, (3) Reebok and (4) Puma. The basis of selection was that they are India's best-selling athletic shoe brands (BestShoe99, 2021; Richter, 2020). Reebok is a British American brand which has been a subsidiary of the German-based brand Adidas since 2005. The country of origin for Nike and Puma are the United States of America and Germany, respectively. To fulfil the objective, we used the overall brand equity constructs of the MBE scale (Yoo & Donthu, 2001) and the masstige scale (Paul, 2019). Both measures (masstige scale and MBE) are measured on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Both scales were validated and well-received in academia and free from potential sources of common method biases recommended by Podsakoff et al. (2003). This research on brand equity differs from others in that it is based on consumers instead of students. We also asked for a few demographic details of respondents, such as age, gender, family income, educational qualification and occupation.

The research collects data through an online survey and uses snowball sampling. In line with existing research, we use Google forms to collect data (Kumar & Paul, 2018). The study's purpose was explained to the participants. Then, respondents were selected through professional social media platforms, such as Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn and the primary investigator's professional networks. We also requested that the participants share the link with their peers for extended reach. The respondents answered the survey anonymously and received no incentives for participating. We maintained confidentiality and anonymity in this research. We surveyed various places in India. On the masstige scale and the MBE scale, respondents were asked to rate all four brands of athletic shoes. We chose respondents based on the fact that they owned one of the brands of athletic shoes used in this study. In total, we received 493 responses.

4 | RESULTS

The participants' age ranged from 18 to 52 years, with an average age of 28.87 years. Of the total respondents, 64.7% were male, whereas

35.3% were female; 50.1% held a bachelor's degree, 42.8% held a master's degree and only 7.1% of respondents had a school-level qualification. More than half of the respondents were students (52.7%), 23.1% salaried, 10.3% self-employed and 13.8% unemployed. 24.7% of the respondents earned more than Indian Rupees (INR) 1,00,000, 22.1% earned between INR30,000–INR49,999 and 19.9% earned between INR50,000–INR74,999 on a monthly basis. Only 15.4% of respondents had their earnings between INR75,000–INR99,999. Among the four brands, Nike has the highest market share (33.5%), followed by Adidas (26.2%), Reebok (23.7%) and Puma (16.6%).

We used the structural equation modelling technique (SEM) with the maximum likelihood estimation method for this study. This includes the IBM SPSS AMOS 25 software and a variety of model fit adequacy measures such as the Chi square value (χ^2), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) with 90% confidence intervals, goodness of fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI) and normed fit index (NFI) as recommended (Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Rigdon, 1997). The cut-off value for the model good fits were χ^2/df <3; GFI > 0.95; NFI > 0.95; CFI > 0.95; RMSEA < 0.08. As recommended by Byrne (2013), 'χ^2/df, Akaike's information criterion (AIC) and Bayesian information criterion (BIC) were employed to statistically compare the nested models to judge evidence of convergent and discriminant validity'. Lower χ^2/df, AIC and BIC values indicate a better fitting model; also, χ^2 differences ($\Delta\chi^2$), CFI differences (ΔCFI) and differences in RMSEA (ΔRMSEA) were used to compare the goodness of fit of the models.

This analysis included several stages of investigation. First, we tested the factor structures of both scales (masstige scale and MBE scale) using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Based on the scale structure proposed by the Yoo and Donthu (2001) and Paul (2019), we tested the three-factor model for both scales and found that the model fit adequacy measures showed a good model fit for the masstige scale ($\chi^2 = 89.526$; $df = 32$; $\chi^2/df = 2.798$; GFI = 0.966; CFI = 0.984; NFI = 0.975; RMESA = 0.060; AIC = 135.526; BIC = 232.138) and MBE scale ($\chi^2 = 120.12$; $df = 32$; $\chi^2/df = 3.754$; GFI = 0.951; CFI = 0.972; NFI = 0.963; RMESA = 0.075; AIC = 166.12; BIC = 262.731).

Cronbach alpha coefficients (α) were used to check the internal consistency. The masstige scale and MBE scales' internal consistency were acceptable since all Cronbach's α scores were over .7. The construct validity was assessed through convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity was estimated using composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). CR > 0.7 and AVE > 0.5 indicated acceptable convergent validity levels (Hair et al., 2014). Discriminant validity was assessed through the Fornell–Larcker criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 1 explains the validity and reliability measures of the masstige scale and MBE scale and shows no validity and reliability concerns. However, the inter-construct relations were higher between the masstige scale constructs and the MBE construct; we tested the unidimensional model where all items were loaded onto one factor. The model fit measure showed that the three-factor model was superior and yielded better results than the one-factor model for both scales; the results are displayed in Table 2. These results were confirmed by χ^2/df, GFI, CFI, NFI, RMSEA, AIC and BIC values presented in Table 2. χ^2/df, AIC and BIC values were lower for the three-factor models of the masstige scale and MBE scales than unidimensional masstige scale and MBE scales.

The MTMM model was used to evaluate construct validity. It involves comparing the various nested models. We followed the MTMM framework suggested by Campbell and Fiske (1959), which has been widely used in research (Brown, 2015; Koch et al., 2017). The MTMM tests the masstige scale against MBE to assure that its measurement characteristics competently account for unique traits (brand knowledge, perceived quality, excitement, status) and different methods. Demerouti et al. (2003) and Halbesleben and Demerouti (2005) used CFA to conduct the MTMM analysis (two methods and three traits) instead of comparing the correlation coefficient for validity estimation. Our study used the correlated method models developed and tested MTMM by comparing the nested models. We followed the four types of nested models proposed by Koch et al. (2017): 'correlated traits/correlated methods (CTCM), no traits/correlated methods (NTCM), perfectly correlated traits/freely correlated method (PCTCM) and freely correlated traits/uncorrelated methods (CTUM)'. CTCM was considered the base model among these models, and the other three models were compared against it. Figure 1 shows the visual representation of the MTMM model. Convergent and discriminant validity at the matrix level can be achieved through these four model comparisons (Byrne, 2013). To

TABLE 1 Validity and reliability measures

Constructs	CR	AVE	MSV	1	2	3	α
1. Brand knowledge and prestige (MS)	0.917	0.689	0.658	**0.830**			.915
2. Excitement and status (MS)	0.868	0.687	0.566	0.731**	**0.829**		.857
3. Perceived quality (MS)	0.845	0.731	0.658	0.811**	0.752**	**0.855**	.843
1. Brand awareness and associations (CBBE)	0.908	0.664	0.566	**0.815**			.906
2. Brand loyalty (CBBE)	0.858	0.668	0.638	0.740**	**0.817**		.856
3. Perceived quality (CBBE)	0.799	0.665	0.638	0.753**	0.799**	**0.815**	.797

Note: The square root of AVE is shown as bold at diagonal.
Abbreviations: α, Cronbach's alpha; AVE, average variance extracted; CBBE, consumer-based brand equity scale; CR, composite reliability; MS, masstige scale; MSV, maximum shared variance.
**p < .01.

TABLE 2 Nested models and model comparison

Model	χ^2	*df*	χ^2/df	GFI	CFI	NFI	AIC	BIC	RMSEA	90% CI
Unidimensional model (masstige scale)	**480.672**	**35**	**13.733**	**0.819**	**0.873**	**0.865**	**520.672**	**604.682**	**0.161**	**0.148–0.174**
Proposed three-factor model (masstige scale)	89.526	32	2.798	0.966	0.984	0.975	135.526	232.138	0.060	0.046–0.075
Unidimensional model (CBBE scale)	483.053	35	13.802	0.795	0.859	0.850	523.053	607.063	0.161	0.149–0.174
Proposed three-factor model (CBBE scale)	120.12	32	3.754	0.951	0.972	0.963	166.12	262.731	0.075	0.061–0.089
Model 1: Correlated traits/correlated methods	337.088	146	2.309	0.935	0.973	0.953	465.088	733.921	0.052	0.044–0.059
Model 2: No traits/correlated methods	1079.541	169	6.388	0.789	0.870	0.850	1161.541	1333.762	0.105	0.099–0.111
Model 3: Perfectly correlated traits/freely correlated method	722.694	149	4.850	0.849	0.918	0.899	844.694	1100.925	0.088	0.082–0.095
Model 4: Freely correlated traits/uncorrelated methods	729.905	150	4.866	0.917	0.847	0.898	849.905	1101.936	0.089	0.082–0.095

Abbreviations: χ^2, Chi square value; AIC, Akaike's information criterion; BIC, Bayesian information criterion; CFI, comparative fit index; GFI, goodness of fit; NFI, normed fit index; RMESA, root mean square error of approximation.

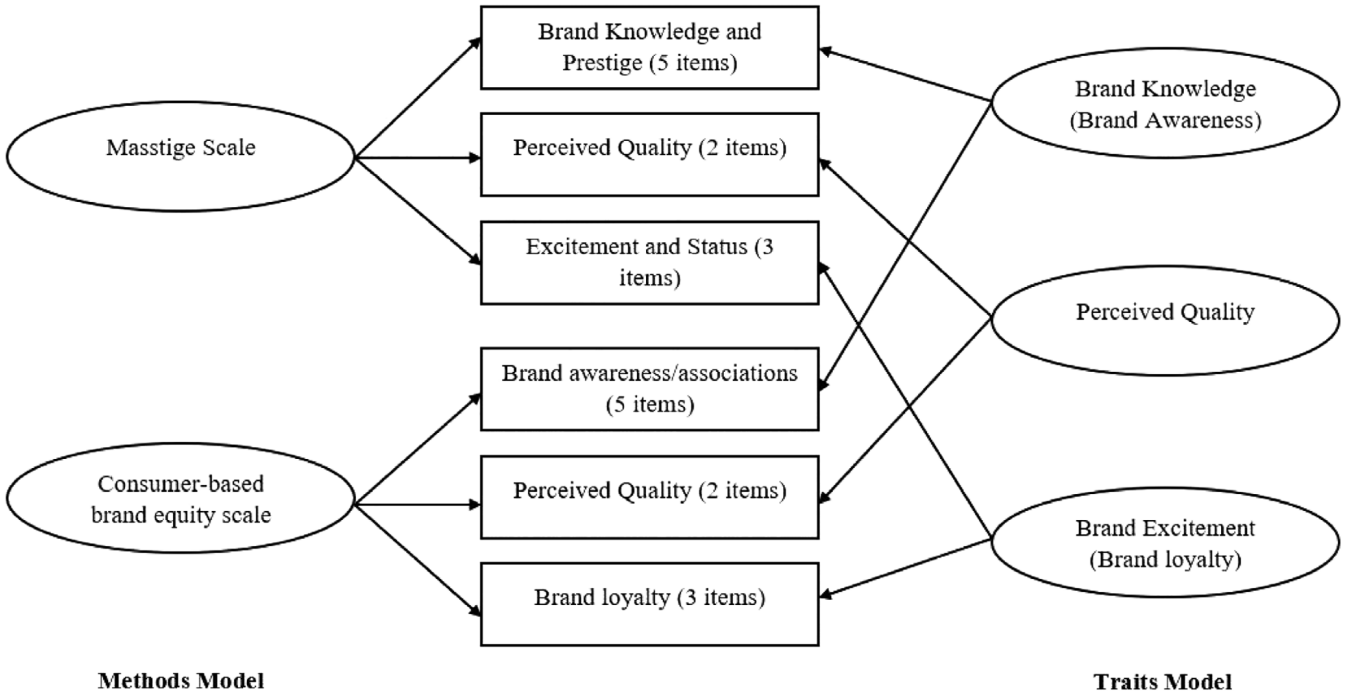


FIGURE 1 MTMM framework

test convergent validity, the CTCM model was tested against the NTCM model; and the CTCM model was tested against PCTCM and CTUM to test the discriminant validity.

Model 1 was constructed by considering method factors (masstige scale and MBE) and trait factors (brand knowledge or brand awareness, perceived quality; excitement and status or brand loyalty) as the latent variables. These were measured through the observed scores and not directly. In this model, method factors were allowed to be freely correlated with each other; also, trait factors were freely correlated. Model 1, CTCM the hypothesized baseline model, shows adequate model fit ($\chi^2 = 337.088$; $df = 146$; $\chi^2/df = 2.309$; GFI = 0.935; CFI = 0.973; NFI = 0.953; RMESA = 0.052; AIC = 465.088; BIC = 733.921). The path diagram of this model is presented in Figure 2. The difference between content and instrument seems to be substantial. The second hypothesized model, the NTCM model, is identical to Model 1 (CTCM), and no trait factors are included—only

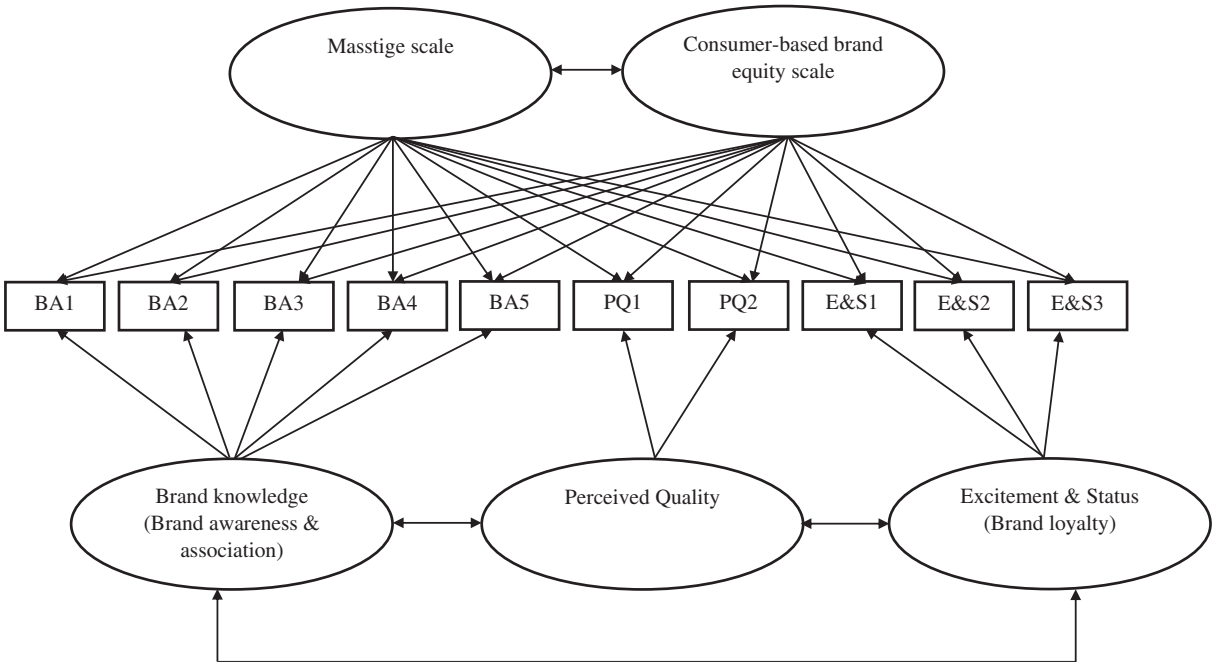


FIGURE 2 The correlated traits/correlated methods model (CTCM)

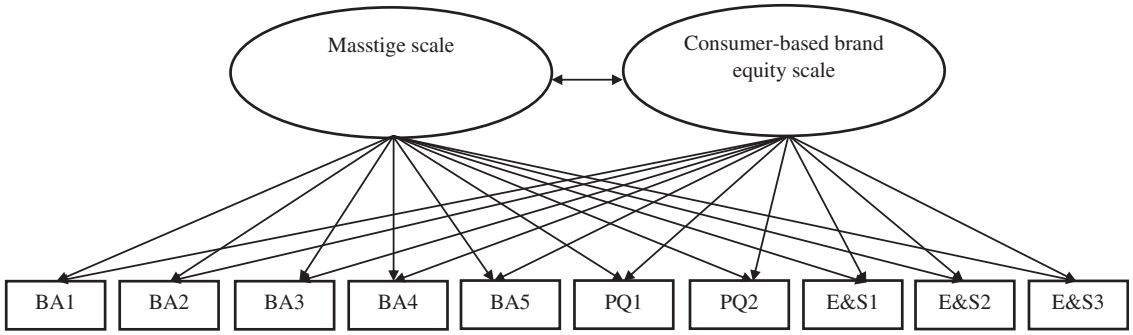


FIGURE 3 No traits/correlated methods (NTCM)

the corrected method factors are included. The path diagram of this model is presented in Figure 3. Brown (2015) argues, 'comparison of NTCM and CTCM models provides a statistical evaluation of whether effects associated with the different traits emerge'. The third model was hypothesized as the PCTCM model. This model is also identical to Model 1 (CTCM), and the three traits are perfectly correlated (i.e., equal to 1); two methods are freely estimated in Model 3, and PCTCM is shown in Figure 4. The final model was hypothesized as the CTUM MTMM model. This model is similar to Model 1, with the only difference being the absence of correlations in the method factors presented in Figure 5. The model fit measures for all four MTMM models are given in Table 2. Finally, the goodness of fit for the NTCM, PCTCM and CTUM models was compared with the CTCM model.

After carefully comparing the model fit measures of the four MTMM models, convergent and discriminant validity was tested, matrix level convergent validity was tested by comparing CTCM (Figure 2) and the NTCM (Figure 3) models. When $\Delta\chi^2$, ΔCFI and ΔRMSEA values are highly significant between these two models ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4.078$, ΔCFI = 0.103 and ΔRMSEA = −0.053), they show the presence of convergent validity (Byrne, 2013). Also, AIC and BIC values for the CTCM model are less than the NTCM model. This result also shows the same evidence of convergent validity (see Table 2).

Trait and method models were considered while evaluating the discriminant validity at the matrix level. The discriminant validity of the traits was assessed by checking the model fit measures' statistical significance between Model 1 (Figure 2) and Model 3 (Figure 4). In this, the three trait constructs are correlated freely, significantly improving the model fit and showing that the three traits are not perfectly correlated with one another. The statistically significant difference between the fit of Models 1 and 3 supports the discriminant validity of the traits ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2.100$, ΔCFI = 0.055 and ΔRMSEA = 0.036). AIC and BIC values of Model 3 are also higher than in Model 1.

Next, model fit measures of Model 1 (Figure 2) and Model 4 (Figure 5) were compared to assess the method's discriminant validity.

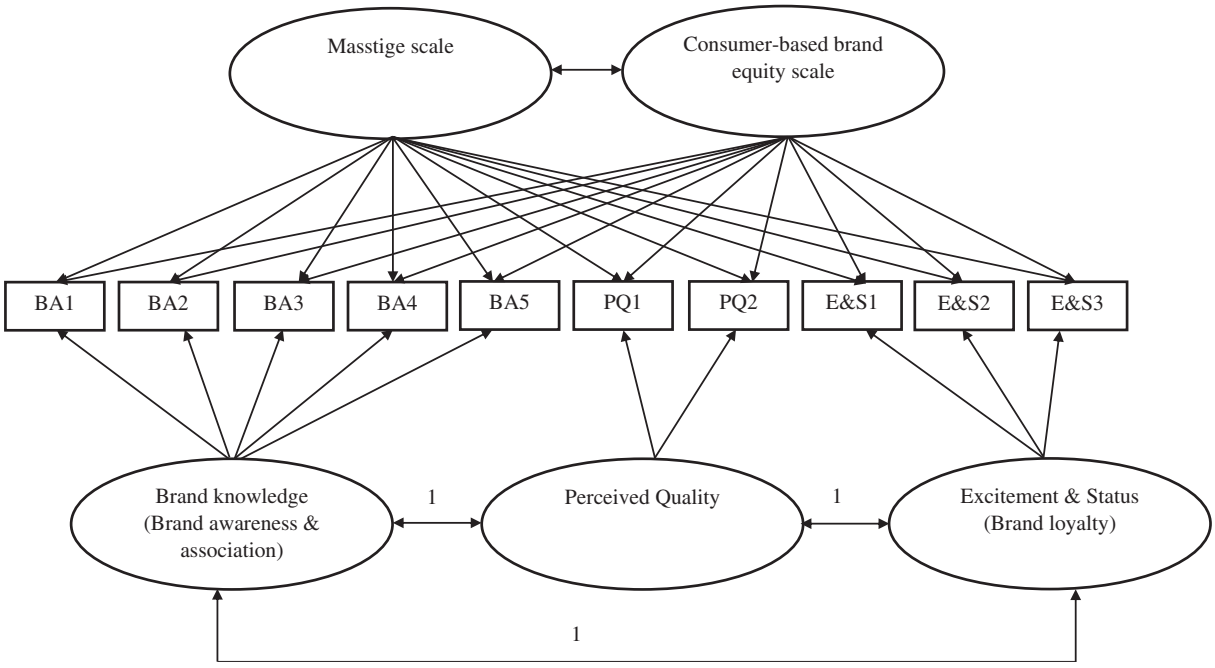


FIGURE 4 Perfectly correlated traits/freely correlated methods model (PCTCM)

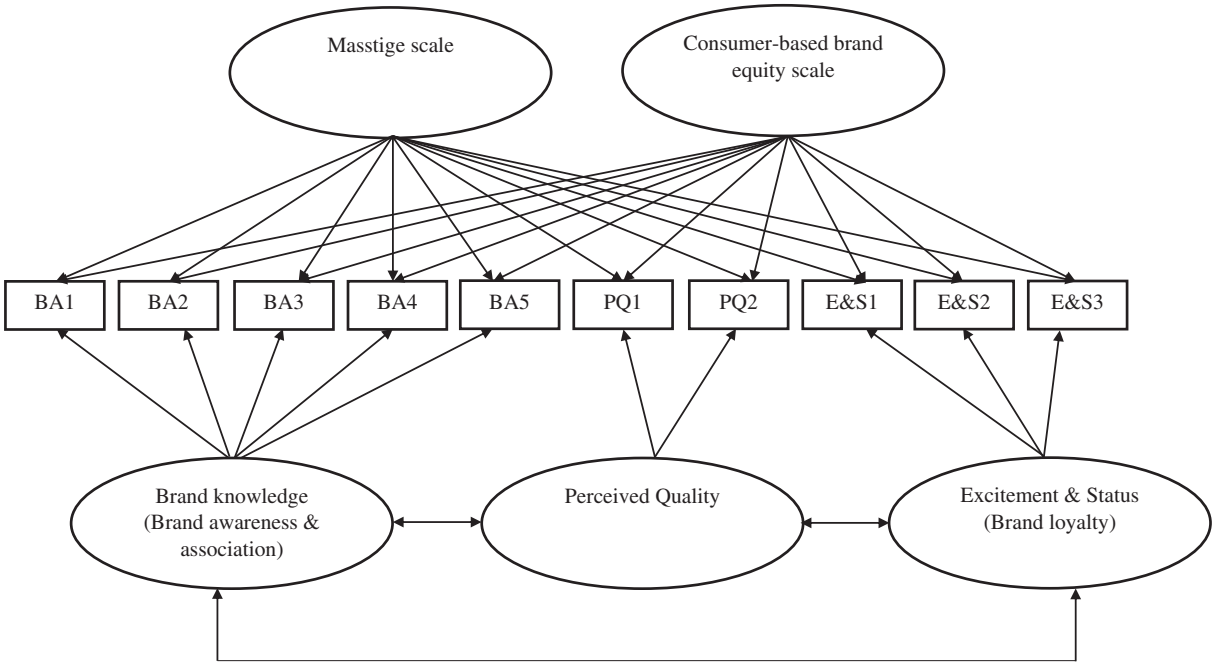


FIGURE 5 Freely correlated traits/uncorrelated methods (CTUM)

In Model 1, methods were freely correlated but uncorrelated in Model 4. The comparison of these two models shows a statistically significant difference between the fit of Models 1 and 4 ($\Delta\chi^2 = 2.31$, ΔCFI = 0.126 and ΔRMSEA = −0.037). Results show that each of the two methods employed—the masstige scale and MBE scale—provides non-redundant information about the traits in question. The model fit criteria and the nested models' comparison are identical to the measurement invariance comparison criteria (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

Finally, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to check the differences between the research construct scores based on four brands. As per the score pattern recommended by Paul (2019), the masstige mean score was calculated for all four brands by summing up all 10 items of the masstige scale. The masstige mean score findings show that Nike, Adidas and Reebok have created mass prestige in the Indian market, attaining a masstige mean score of 54.77, 51.22 and 50.24. Paul (2015) recommends 'to use one-sample

TABLE 3 Score of the constructs

		Masstige scale		Brand awareness/associations		Perceived quality		Brand loyalty	
Brands	***N***	**Mean**	***SD***	**Mean**	***SD***	**Mean**	***SD***	**Mean**	***SD***
Nike	165	54.77	9.01	5.59	0.92	5.13	0.91	5.59	0.93
Adidas	129	51.22	9.44	5.18	1.10	4.79	1.03	5.25	0.95
Reebok	117	50.24	8.82	5.07	0.99	4.79	0.93	5.20	0.82
Puma	82	48.89	9.23	4.97	0.94	4.73	0.97	5.10	0.98
Total	493	51.79	9.36	5.25	1.01	4.90	0.97	5.33	0.94
F value (*p* value)		9.946 (.000**)		10.120 (.000**)		5.191 (.000**)		7.330 (.000**)	

**$p < .01$.

t-test by taking the benchmark value of masstige to check mass prestige of the brand'. In our study, we set the masstige benchmark value as 50, and the result of the t-test concludes masstige score of Puma is equal to the benchmark value of 50 ($t = -1.089$, $df = 81$; $p = .279$; $M = 48.89$; $SD = 9.23$). Based on this, we can conclude that the Puma brand is also considered a masstige brand in India. One-way ANOVA and *t*-test results imply that all the four brands are masstige and have substantial brand equity in India. ANOVA results revealed that Nike's masstige score is significantly higher than Adidas, Reebok and Puma. The respondents' opinions about the four brands' MBE constructs were tested using one-way ANOVA. The results conclude that the Nike brand's positive brand equity level (brand awareness/associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty) is significantly higher than Adidas, Reebok and Puma (see Table 3).

5 | DISCUSSION

Nowadays, consumers are willing to pay a premium price for some brands as they have a high positive brand equity level (Kumar & Paul, 2018). Based on the literature, the masstige scale can measure brand perception and brand equity (Paul, 2018). Both measures conceptualize both mass prestige and brand equity. To advance the literature on mass prestige and brand equity, the researchers must measure brand equity and masstige using the same instrument. Hence, the present study aims to find evidence for the validity of an alternative measure of brand equity. It suggests that the masstige scale may be a suitable alternative for measuring consumer-based brand equity for a premium product.

Paul (2015) uses the masstige scale as 'an alternate method to measure international marketing strategies' effectiveness that creates better brand equity'. This study provides evidence for the masstige scale's factorial validity, internal reliability and construct validity. Similar results are recorded for the MBE scale. For both the masstige scale and the MBE scale, the three-factor structure is relatively more supportive than the single-factor structure. The estimated correlation between the two methods (masstige scale and MBE scale) is .63, which again supports the two's convergent validity. The MTMM framework and differences in the nested model fit measures show that the masstige scale and MBE scale have convergence and divergence though they are not identical. Moreover, in both scales, many items have shared contents (i.e., brand knowledge and prestige items and perceived quality items), creating a small problem. Due to this issue, the traits' discriminant validity is slightly affected. However, the AIC and BIC values support the traits' discriminant validity. Finally, this study concludes that the masstige scale has a broader scope than the MBE scale since the masstige scale can measure brand perception (prestige) and brand equity; however, the MBE scale measures only brand equity.

The study results show a high masstige score for the Nike brand. This can be attributed to the fact that Nike keeps its leadership position in its industry. Nike has strong brand awareness and brand prestige value when we see it from a masstige perspective. Their brand association includes high-quality product lines, innovation, high performance and global presence and responsiveness. They are associated with achievers, champions, determinants and accomplishment-oriented personalities. Nike has used sponsorships, ads and experience-based retailing to boost its brand image and awareness. Athlete support may be its most important achievement among these strategies. Nike's prestige perceptions derive from a unique, exceptional accomplishment inherent to the brand. Brand prestige is generated by interactions with people, product attributes, and symbolic values, which were found to be missing in other athletic shoe brands. With this explanation, we can conclude that the Nike brand is synonymous with prestige and luxury, mainly because its products are unique and comfort their consumers.

5.1 | Implications

This study has theoretical implications. First, we administered two instruments to test whether the masstige scale is the alternative to measure consumer-based brand equity. For better theoretical contribution, the masstige scale and MBE scale's subscales can be pooled to create better items since both are considerably invariant. Researchers can use the masstige scale for a more comprehensive measure of masstige value and brand equity because masstige marketing strategy helps build brand prestige, love and equity. We followed the three-factor factorial structure of the masstige scale developed by Paul (2018), which consists of three constructs, namely, (1) brand knowledge and prestige, (2) perceived quality and (3) excitement and status. These also measure the core constructs of MBE (brand awareness/

association, perceived quality and brand loyalty). However, the MBE construct's brand loyalty was measured under the masstige scale's brand knowledge and prestige construct, along with brand awareness/association. Many studies argue that a more robust brand personality, mainly excitement, leads to higher brand loyalty (Bekk et al., 2017; Chung & Park, 2017). Previous studies posit that when a brand gives a sense of satisfaction, the consumers are more likely to become loyal customers (Goldsmith et al., 2012; O'Cass & Frost, 2002; Roy & Chau, 2011). Based on the above discussion, we use the MBE model's brand excitement and status construct of the masstige scale-related consumer loyalty construct. In the future, special attention should be given before following the factorial structure of the masstige scale. It is recommended to change the item structures; such results will increase the reliability of the masstige scale. This study significantly adds to the amount of knowledge already available on measurement scales for brand–consumer relationships. According to the findings of this study, these scales can be used to investigate how consumer-based brand equity and masstige value are influenced by potential antecedents such as brand knowledge, perceived quality, enthusiasm and status. Furthermore, the measure can study the effects of brand equity and masstige value.

Based on the second objective, this study provides a few practical implications. Practitioners can use these measures to evaluate and track a brand's performance over time. They can see where the brand does well and where it does not. Paul (2018) derived three theoretical propositions to develop strategic brand management. 'The higher the masstige value of brands, the greater the likelihood of success in a distinct market. The better the marketing mix's appropriateness, the higher the masstige value in that market. Certain brands create higher brand equity in terms of masstige value in foreign markets'. Other shoe brands can follow similar strategies in India to create mass prestige. Paul (2018) concludes, 'Masstige marketing has roots in product and promotion strategies, whereas it has nothing to do with the price change'. As explained in the results section, Nike has the highest masstige value. The company effectively follows a marketing mix (place, promotion and product) to create mass prestige and positive brand equity. Nike prices remain constant at a premium or relatively higher than other athletic shoe brands.

Designing branding and marketing strategies to build brand equity would benefit significantly from the findings of this study. The creation of recognition and desirability is advised to marketers to establish brand equity and encourage bandwagon consumption to increase brand knowledge and awareness for masstige brands (Singh, 2022). Therefore, marketers of masstige brands must convey to their target audience the symbolic and functional value of the brand using a variety of media, as Nike currently does. Other shoe brands can apply these techniques to boost their brand equity and masstige value. The study's conclusions also show that perceived quality, status, and excitement support the masstige brand equity by increasing consumer propensity to purchase masstige goods. Customers are more likely to pay a higher price and spread good word of mouth about a brand when they believe it to be reputable and distinctive (Nguyen et al., 2015; Singh, 2022). Marketers must develop a brand reputation based on their products' performance; this will draw customers and foster loyalty.

Our result clarifies that all four brands are masstige in the Indian market. However, they are not 'top of the mind' brands, implying that they need to create awareness, availability, accessibility and affordability. As Paul (2018) recommended, shoe brands can follow a 5-step 'masstige value creation approach' to create mass prestige, as shown in Figure 6.

5.2 | Limitations and directions for future research

This study provides some specific directions for future research. This study is based on data from India and considered only four athletic shoe brands. For better generalization, data can be collected from multiple countries with different cultures. In addition, comparative studies using mass brands and class brands can be undertaken for greater insights. Similar studies can be conducted on a single brand market research to check the masstige value or brand equity level in different markets (local markets and international markets). Future research can focus on multiple brands (cobrands) or the masstige value or level of brand equity in a single market. Our study uses four athletic shoe brands, all of which are foreign brands. As Paul (2018) recommended, it is good to use different brands (including local brands) from different countries of origin for such studies because perception about the country of origin might influence the consumer's

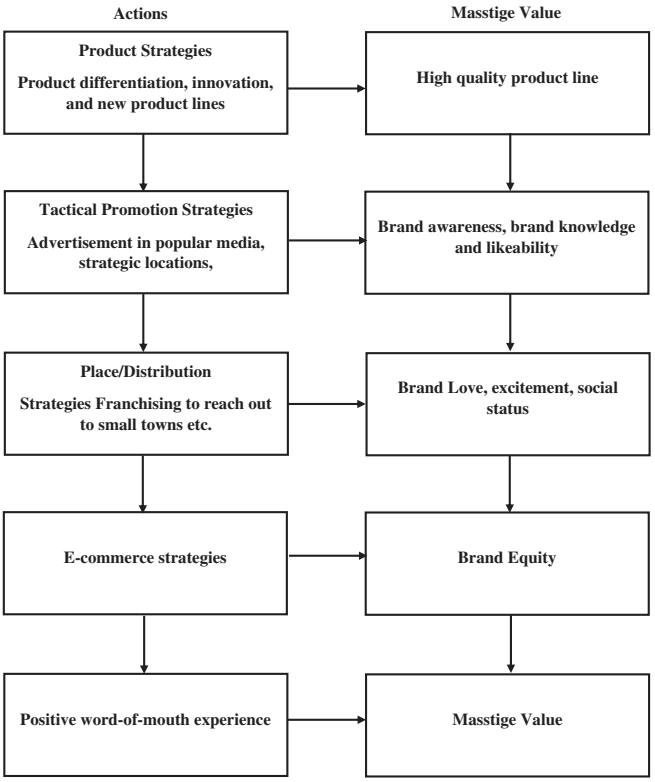


FIGURE 6 The masstige value creation approach. Adapted from Paul (2019), masstige model and measure for brand management

purchase intention and, thereby, the value of the masstige. There is significant income inequality in emerging economic countries. Future researchers should include respondents from different income groups to better understand masstige value and increase the external generalizability. We used the original masstige scale developed by Paul (2018) to measure the masstige value. Based on our results, the masstige scale measured masstige value and brand equity; however, the brand loyalty construct was not adequately measured. Future researchers can extend the three dimensions of the masstige scale into subdimensions, which will help clarify the masstige structure in detail. It is suggested that an experimental study be conducted to enhance the empiricism of the masstige scale further; in addition, a longitudinal study is strongly encouraged.

6 | CONCLUSION

In a nutshell, the present study offers evidence for a new instrument's reliability and construct validity to assess masstige value and brand equity. The masstige scale measures the same constructs as evaluated with the alternative measurement instrument MBE. This means the masstige scale is a reasonable alternative that can simultaneously assess masstige value and brand equity. This research opens new avenues for future studies using the unexplored masstige scale to measure a brand's mass prestige and equity.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author would like to thank the reviewers and the editor for the constructive feedback that helped improve the paper's quality.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

ORCID

Subburaj Alagarsamy https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1200-6381
Sangeeta Mehrolia https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3162-4361

REFERENCES

Aaker, D. A. (1993). *Managing brand equity*. Free Press.

Aaker, D. A. (1996). Measuring brand equity across products and markets. *California Management Review*, *38*(3), 102–120. https://doi.org/10.2307/41165845

Baber, R., Upadhyay, Y., Singh Kaurav, R. P., Baber, P., Kaurav, R. P. S., & Baber, P. (2020). Application of 'masstige' theory and approaches for the marketing of smartphone brands in India. *International Journal of Business and Emerging Markets*, *12*(3), 296–312. https://doi.org/10.1504/IJBEM.2020.109578

Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1993). Multitrait–multimethod matrices in consumer research: Critique and new developments. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *2*(2), 143–170. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1057-7408(08)80022-8

Bauldry, S., Bollen, K. A., & Adair, L. S. (2015). Evaluating measurement error in readings of blood pressure for adolescents and young adults. *Blood Pressure*, *24*(2), 96–102. https://doi.org/10.3109/08037051.2014.986952

Bekk, M., Spörrle, M., Landes, M., & Moser, K. (2017). Traits grow important with increasing age: Customer age, brand personality and loyalty. *Journal of Business Economics*, *87*(4), 511–531.

BestShoe99. (2021). Best sports shoe brands in India | For extra edge | 2021 edition. *BestShoe99*. https://www.bestshoe99.in/best-sports-shoe-brands-in-india/

Brown, T. A. (2015). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research* (2nd ed.). Guilford Publications.

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1992). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. *Sociological Methods & Research*, *21*(2), 230–258. https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124192021002005

Brun, A., & Castelli, C. (2013). The nature of luxury: A consumer perspective. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, *41*(11–12), 823–847. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJRDM-01-2013-0006

Byrne, B. M. (2013). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203805534

Campbell, D. T., & Fiske, D. W. (1959). Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. *Psychological Bulletin*, *56*(2), 81–105. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0046016

Chaudhuri, A., & Holbrook, M. B. (2001). The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: The role of brand loyalty. *Journal of Marketing*, *65*(2), 81–93. https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.65.2.81.18255

Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *9*(2), 233–255. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0902_5

Chung, S., & Park, J. (2017). The influence of brand personality and relative brand identification on brand loyalty in the European mobile phone market. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, *34*(1), 47–62. https://doi.org/10.1002/cjas.1321

Cleveland, M., & Laroche, M. (2007). Acculturaton to the global consumer culture: Scale development and research paradigm. *Journal of Business Research*, *60*(3), 249–259. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2006.11.006

Delgado-Ballester, E., & Munuera-Alemán, J. L. (2005). Does brand trust matter to brand equity? *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, *14*(3), 187–196. https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420510601058

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Vardakou, I., & Kantas, A. (2003). The convergent validity of two burnout instruments: A multitrait-multimethod analysis. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, *19*(1), 12–23. https://doi.org/10.1027//1015-5759.19.1.12

Diallo, M. F., Ben Dahmane Mouelhi, N., Gadekar, M., & Schill, M. (2020). csr actions, brand value, and willingness to pay a premium price for luxury brands: does long-term orientation matter? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *169*, 241–260. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-020-04486-5

Dick, A. S., & Basu, K. (1994). Customer loyalty: Toward an integrated conceptual framework. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *22*(2), 99–113. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070394222001

Dwivedi, A., Nayeem, T., & Murshed, F. (2018). Brand experience and consumers' willingness-to-pay (WTP) a price premium: Mediating role of brand credibility and perceived uniqueness. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *44*, 100–107. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2018.06.009

El-Adly, M. I., & Abu ELSamen, A. (2018). Guest-based hotel equity: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *27*(6), 615–633. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-09-2017-1570

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(1), 39–50. https://doi.org/10.2307/3151312

French, A., & Smith, G. (2013). Measuring brand association strength: A consumer based brand equity approach. *European Journal of Marketing*, *47*(8), 1356–1367. https://doi.org/10.1108/03090561311324363

Fuchs, C., Prandelli, E., Schreier, M., & Dahl, D. W. (2013). All that is users might not be gold: How labeling products as user designed backfires in the context of luxury fashion brands. *Journal of Marketing*, *77*(5), 75–91. https://doi.org/10.1509/jm.11.0330

Goldsmith, R. E., Flynn, L. R., & Clark, R. A. (2012). Materialistic, brand engaged and status consuming consumers and clothing behaviors. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, *16*(1), 102–119. https://doi.org/10.1108/13612021211203050

Guo, B., Aveyard, P., Fielding, A., & Sutton, S. (2008). Testing the convergent and discriminant validity of the decisional balance scale of the transtheoretical model using the multi-trait multi-method approach. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, *22*(2), 288–294. https://doi.org/10.1037/0893-164X.22.2.288

Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B., & Anderson, R. (2014). *Multivariate data analysis: Pearson new international edition* (7th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

Halbesleben, J. R. B., & Demerouti, E. (2005). The construct validity of an alternative measure of burnout: Investigating the English translation of the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory. *Work & Stress*, *19*(3), 208–220. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678370500340728

Heo, C. Y., & Hyun, S. S. (2015). Do luxury room amenities affect guests' willingness to pay? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *46*, 161–168. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2014.10.002

Herr, P. M. (1994). Review of *Brand equity and advertising: Advertising's role in building strong brands*, by D. A. Aaker & A. L. Biel. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *31*(4), 580–582. https://doi.org/10.2307/3151889

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *6*(1), 1–55. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

Hwang, J., & Han, H. (2014). Examining strategies for maximizing and utilizing brand prestige in the luxury cruise industry. *Tourism Management*, *40*, 244–259. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2013.06.007

Kapferer, J.-N., & Bastien, V. (2009). The specificity of luxury management: Turning marketing upside down. *Journal of Brand Management*, *16*(5–6), 311–322. https://doi.org/10.1057/bm.2008.51

Kapferer, J.-N., & Bastien, V. (2013). *The luxury strategy: Break the rules of marketing to build luxury brands*. Kogan Page Publishers. https://doi.org/10.5860/choice.50-3944

Kapferer, J. N., & Laurent, G. (2016). Where do consumers think luxury begins? A study of perceived minimum price for 21 luxury goods in 7 countries. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(1), 332–340. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.08.005

Kastanakis, M. N., & Balabanis, G. (2012). Between the mass and the class: Antecedents of the "bandwagon" luxury consumption behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, *65*(10), 1399–1407. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.10.005

Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing*, *57*(1), 1–22. https://doi.org/10.2307/1252054

Keller, K. L. (2001). Building strong brands in a modern marketing communications environment. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, *15*(2–3), 139–155. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527260902757530

Kim, J. E., Lloyd, S., Adebeshin, K., & Kang, J. Y. M. (2019). Decoding fashion advertising symbolism in masstige and luxury brands. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management*, *23*(2), 277–295. https://doi.org/10.1108/JFMM-04-2018-0047

Kirmani, A., & Zeithaml, V. (1993). Advertising, perceived quality, and brand image. In D. A. Aaker & A. L. Biel (Eds.), *Brand equity and advertising: Advertising's role in building strong brands* (pp. 143–161). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Koch, T., Eid, M., & Lochner, K. (2017). Multitrait-multimethod-analysis: The psychometric foundation of CFA-MTMM models. In P. Irwing, T. Booth, & D. J. Hughes (Eds.), *The Wiley handbook of psychometric testing: A multidisciplinary reference on survey, scale and test development* (pp. 781–846). Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118489772.ch25

Kotler, P., Keller, K. L., Ang, S. H., Tan, C., & Leong, S. M. (2017). *Marketing management: An Asian perspective* (7th ed.). Pearson.

Kumar, A., & Paul, J. (2018). Mass prestige value and competition between American versus Asian laptop brands in an emerging market—Theory and evidence. *International Business Review*, *27*(5), 969–981. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2018.02.007

Kumar, A., Paul, J., & Starčević, S. (2021). Do brands make consumers happy?—A masstige theory perspective. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *58*, 102318. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2020.102318

Kumar, A., Paul, J., & Unnithan, A. B. (2020). 'Masstige' marketing: A review, synthesis and research agenda. *Journal of Business Research*, *113*, 384–398. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2019.09.030

Langer, D. A., Wood, J. J., Bergman, R. L., & Piacentini, J. C. (2010). A multitrait-multimethod analysis of the construct validity of child anxiety disorders in a clinical sample. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*, *41*(5), 549–561. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10578-010-0187-0

Lassar, W., Mittal, B., & Sharma, A. (1995). Measuring customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *12*(4), 11–19. https://doi.org/10.1108/07363769510095270

Miller, F. G., Johnson, A. H., Yu, H., Chafouleas, S. M., McCoach, D. B., Riley-Tillman, T. C., Fabiano, G. A., & Welsh, M. E. (2018). Methods matter: A multi-trait multi-method analysis of student behavior. *Journal of School Psychology*, *68*, 53–72. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2018.01.002

Mohd Yasin, N., Nasser Noor, M., & Mohamad, O. (2007). Does image of country-of-origin matter to brand equity? *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *16*(1), 38–48. https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420710731142

Mukherjee, J., & Sundararajan, M. (2012). HCL: Facing the challenge of the laptop market. *Vikalpa*, *37*(1), 113–126. https://doi.org/10.1177/0256090920120109

Nasution, H. N., & Mavondo, F. T. (2008). Customer value in the hotel industry: What managers believe they deliver and what customer experience. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *27*(2), 204–213. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2007.02.003

Netemeyer, R. G., Krishnan, B., Pullig, C., Wang, G., Yagci, M., Dean, D., Ricks, J., & Wirth, F. (2004). Developing and validating measures of facets of customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Business Research*, *57*(2), 209–224. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(01)00303-4

Nguyen, B., Ekinci, Y., Simkin, L., & Melewar, T. C. (2015). The brand likeability scale: An exploratory study of likeability in firm-level brands. *International Journal of Market Research*, *57*(5), 777–800. https://doi.org/10.2501/IJMR-2015-063

O'Cass, A., & Frost, H. (2002). Status brands: Examining the effects of non-product-related brand associations on status and conspicuous consumption. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *11*(2), 67–88. https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420210423455

Pappu, R., Quester, P. G., & Cooksey, R. W. (2005). Consumer-based brand equity: Improving the measurement—Empirical evidence. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *14*(3), 143–154. https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420510601012

Park, J., Back, S. Y., & Kim, D. (2022). Masstige consumption values and its effect on consumer behavior. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *67*, 102943. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2022.102943

Paul, J. (2015). Masstige marketing redefined and mapped. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, *33*(5), 691–706. https://doi.org/10.1108/mip-02-2014-0028

Paul, J. (2018). Toward a "masstige" theory and strategy for marketing. *European Journal of International Management*, *12*(5–6), 722–745. https://doi.org/10.1504/EJIM.2018.094466

Paul, J. (2019). Masstige model and measure for brand management. *European Management Journal*, *37*(3), 299–312. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2018.07.003

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(5), 879–903. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

Richter, F. (2020). Nike still on top of the sneaker world. Stat. https://www.statista.com/chart/13470/athletic-footwear-sales/

Rigdon, E. E. (1997). Review of *Structural Equation Modeling: Concepts, Issues, and Applications*, by R. H. Hoyle. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *34*(3), 412–415. https://doi.org/10.2307/3151904

Rossiter, J. R., & Percy, L. (1987). *Advertising and promotion management*. McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Roy, R., & Chau, R. (2011). Consumer-based brand equity and status-seeking motivation for a global versus local brand. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *23*(3), 270–284. https://doi.org/10.1108/13555851111143213

Sasmita, J., & Mohd Suki, N. (2015). Young consumers' insights on brand equity: Effects of brand association, brand loyalty, brand awareness, and brand image. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, *43*(3), 276–292. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJRDM-02-2014-0024

Shahid, S., & Paul, J. (2021). Intrinsic motivation of luxury consumers in an emerging market. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *61*, 102531. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretconser.2021.102531

Shocker, A. D. (1993). Review of *Managing Brand Equity*, by D. A. Aaker. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *30*(2), 256–258. https://doi.org/10.2307/3172832

Siew, S. W., Minor, M. S., & Felix, R. (2018). The influence of perceived strength of brand origin on willingness to pay more for luxury goods. *Journal of Brand Management*, *25*(6), 591–605. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41262-018-0114-4

Silverstein, M. J., & Fiske, N. (2003). Luxury for the masses. *Harvard Business Review*, *81*(4), 48–59. https://doi.org/10.3917/eh.046.0056

Singh, B. (2022). Measuring consumer based brand equity of prestigious mass brands using masstige mean score scale. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12839

Siu, N. Y.-M., Kwan, H. Y., & Zeng, C. Y. (2016). The role of brand equity and face saving in Chinese luxury consumption. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *33*(4), 245–256. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCM-08-2014-1116

Sung, Y., Choi, S. M., Ahn, H., & Song, Y. A. (2015). Dimensions of luxury brand personality: Scale development and validation. *Psychology and Marketing*, *32*(1), 121–132. https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20767

Truong, Y., Simmons, G., McColl, R., & Kitchen, P. J. (2008). Status and conspicuousness - are they related? Strategic marketing implications for luxury brands. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, *16*(3), 189–203. https://doi.org/10.1080/09652540802117124

Turner, N. M., van de Leemput, A. J., Draaisma, J. M. T., Oosterveld, P., & ten Cate, O. T. J. (2008). Validity of the visual analogue scale as an instrument to measure self-efficacy in resuscitation skills. *Medical Education*, *42*(5), 503–511. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2007.02950.x

Vohra, A. V., & Gupta, G. (2017). Predisposition towards foreign brands and materialism: A quantitative assessment. *Journal of Asia Business Studies*, *11*(1), 41–59. https://doi.org/10.1108/JABS-08-2015-0144

Washburn, J. H., & Plank, R. E. (2002). Measuring brand equity: An evaluation of a consumer-based brand equity scale. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *10*(1), 46–62. https://doi.org/10.1080/10696679.2002.11501909

Wiedmann, K. P., Hennigs, N., & Siebels, A. (2009). Value-based segmentation of luxury consumption behavior. *Psychology and Marketing*, *26*(7), 625–651. https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20292

Yoo, B., & Donthu, N. (2001). Developing and validating a multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scale. *Journal of Business Research*, *52*(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(99)00098-3

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, *60*(2), 31–46. https://doi.org/10.2307/1251929

Zhan, L., & He, Y. (2012). Understanding luxury consumption in China: Consumer perceptions of best-known brands. *Journal of Business Research*, *65*(10), 1452–1460. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.10.011

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHIES

Subburaj Alagarsamy completed his PhD in organizational behaviour. His current research interests are services marketing, ICT integration, work-related well-being and brand management. He has collaborated with researchers on other projects related to organizational behaviour, service marketing and public health. He is currently a program coordinator and Assistant Professor at Manipal Academy of Higher Education, Dubai, UAE. He published various papers in ABDC/ABS-listed journals.

Sangeeta Mehrolia completed her PhD in International Business. Her research interests are international business, branding and public health education. She is currently an Assistant Professor at the Strategy and Leadership team, School of Business Management, Christ University, Bangalore, India. She published various papers in ABDC/ABS-listed journals.

Justin Paul, is among the world's top 0.1% highly cited researchers, with citations increasing at 500 per month with an H Index 54. A former faculty member with the University of Washington, he serves as Professor of MBA and Director/Chair-Research and PhD program, University of Puerto Rico, USA and holds an honorary Visiting Professor-Henley Business school, University of Reading, England for 3 years. He has also served as MBA Director and AACSB Coordinator at Nagoya University, Japan and as Department Chair at IIM. Dr Paul introduced the masstige model and measure for brand management, CPP model for internationalization, SCOPE framework for small firms, 7-P Framework for International Marketing and TCCM Framework for literature reviews. He holds titles as 'Distinguished Professor' with three reputed universities including—Indian Institute of Management-Kerala, SIBM, Pune and MS University. In addition, he has taught full courses at Aarhus University-Denmark, Grenoble Eco le de Management and University of Versailles-France, University-Lithuania, Warsaw-Poland and holds/has held a visiting professor positions at University of Chicago, Vienna University-Austria, Fudan and UIBE-China, UAB-Barcelona and Madrid. He has published three best-selling case studies with Ivey and Harvard. He is known as an author/co-author of books such as Business Environment (4th ed), International Marketing, Services Marketing, Export–Import Management (2nd edition), Management of Banking and Financial Services by McGraw Hill, Oxford University Press and Pearson, respectively. His articles

have been downloaded over 800,000 times during the last 6 years. An author of over 140 research papers in SSCI journals, Justin has over 80 papers in A or A star journals (ABDC) and 65+ in UK-CABS 3 or 4 level journals. He has visited over 60 countries as a visiting professor/public speaker.

How to cite this article: Alagarsamy, S., Mehrolia, S., & Paul, J. (2022). Masstige scale: An alternative to measure brand equity. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijcs.12873