

Advertising and Consumer Psychology 2007

New Frontiers in Branding:
Attitudes, Attachments, and
Relationships

Santa Monica, CA

Editors

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Joseph R. Priester, Deborah J. MacInnis, and C. Whan Park, Editors

Advertising and Consumer Psychology
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Preface

The Twenty-Sixth Advertising and Consumer Psychology (ACP) conference was held at the Loews Santa Monica Beach Hotel from June 7-9, 2007. This volume is comprised of abstracts of the presentations made at the conference.

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We would also like to express our appreciation of our spouses and their patience throughout this, and other, endeavors. Our attachments extend beyond brands...

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Table of Contents

Big Picture Perspective

Upstream Context for Psychological Constructs and Brand Behavior: Models of Everyday Action and the Relevant Universe Geraldine Fennell PhD, Belfast, Northern Ireland Joel Saegert, University of Texas, San Antonio	1
Toward An Evolutionary Theory of Marketing: Evolution and Branding Cary A. Greenwood, University of Oregon Lynn R. Kahle, University of Oregon	3

Attitudes

When Brands are Built from Within: A Social Identity Pathway to Liking and Evaluation Americus Reed, II, University of Pennsylvania Joel B. Cohen, University of Florida Lisa E. Bolton, University of Pennsylvania Amit Bhattacharjee, University of Pennsylvania	12
Children's Formation of Brand Attitudes: Age of Onset and Importance of Product Category Anna R. McAlister, University of Queensland T. Bettina Cornwell, University of Queensland	15
An Assessment of Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Attitude on Spouses in Taiwan Yung- Ching Ho, National Chung-Cheng University, Chun-Chi Chuang, National Chung-Cheng University	17
Measuring the Effects of Culturally Salient Message Cues on Attitude toward the Brand: Congruency between Foreign Language Voice-Overs and Product Origin David R. Fortin, University of Canterbury, New Zealand Bruce Donaldson, University of Canterbury, New Zealand Sebastian Kessel, University of Canterbury, New Zealand	18

The Effects of Background Music on Ad Processing of High- and Low-Involvement Consumers	22
<p style="padding-left: 40px;">Jung Ok Jeon, Pukyong National University, Korea Jai-Kwan Park, Gyeongju University, Korea Jin-Hwa Lee, Pusan National University, Korea</p>	
Understanding perceptions of personal invulnerability to persuasive advertising	24
<p style="padding-left: 40px;">Sofia Stathi, University of Kent, UK Karen Douglas, University of Kent, UK Robbie Sutton, University of Kent, UK</p>	
Impact of CSR Communication Strategies on Brand Attitude Change after Crisis	28
<p style="padding-left: 40px;">Virginie Solelhac, Universitat Pompeu Fabra</p>	
Basic processes of habitual control and their implications for consumer behavior and brand loyalty	30
<p style="padding-left: 40px;">David T. Neal, Duke University Wendy Wood, Duke University Mindy F. Ji, Iowa State University</p>	
Attitude Formation Processes: Exploring When and Why Attitudes are Retrieved Rather than Constructed	33
<p style="padding-left: 40px;">Dhananjay (DJ) Nayakankuppam, University of Iowa Joseph R. Priester, University of Southern California</p>	
<i>Brand Meaning</i>	
Intentional Brand Strategies that Result in Restricting Our Exposure to Diversity	34
<p style="padding-left: 40px;">David W. Schumann, University of Tennessee Edith Davidson, Auburn University</p>	
The Role of Affect in the Accessibility of Brands from Memory	38
<p style="padding-left: 40px;">Sunil Erevelles University of North Carolina, Charlotte Nobuyuki Fukawa, Louisiana State University</p>	

Visualizing Brand Meaning	39
Michael R. Solomon, Saint Joseph's University	
Susan Fournier, Boston University	
Basil G. Englis, Berry College	
Wi-Suk Kwon, Auburn University	
The Malleable Brand: The Role of Implicit Theories in Brand Extendibility	40
Eric Yorkston, Texas Christian University	
Joseph C. Nunes, University of Southern California	
Shashi Matta, Ohio State University	
The Broad Embrace of Luxury: The Influence of Luxury Cues on Brand Extendibility	44
Vanessa M. Patrick, University of Georgia	
Henrik Hagtvedt, University of Georgia	
Measuring negative emotions to brands: Implications for brand strategy	46
Simona Romani, University of Sassari	
Silvia Grappi, University of Modena and Reggio Emilia	
Daniele Dalli, University of Pisa	
Images of Cities: Relating Experience to Perception of Brand	52
Christine L. Hansvick, Pacific Lutheran University	
Perceived Entitativity of Family Brands	58
Joseph W. Chang, Malaspina University	
What Have You Done for Me Lately? The Effect of Gender on Gay Consumers' Perceptions of Gay-Friendliness	59
Gillian K. Oakenfull, Miami University	
Michael S. McCarthy, Miami University	
Celebrity Endorsement in Women's Magazines: Evidence of a Corporate Social Responsibility Concern	61
Jacqueline Granleese, University of East Anglia	
Chia-fang Liu, University of East Anglia	
Brand and National Culture	67
Susan Forquer Gupta, Monmouth University	
Laura Peracchio, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee	
Doan Winkel, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee	

Understanding Cross-Cultural Differences in Brand Extension Evaluation: The Influence of Analytic versus Holistic Thinking Alokparna Basu Monga, University of Texas, San Antonio Deborah Roedder John, University of Minnesota	70
Cultural Self-Construal and Self-Presentation Sharon Shavitt, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign	72
<i>Brand Relationships, Emotional Attachment, and Love</i>	
Using Relationship Norms to Understand Consumer-Brand Interactions Pankaj Aggarwal, University of Toronto	73
Building Relationships Through Corporate Social Responsibility: The Role Of Communication Sankar Sen, Baruch College/CUNY	75
The Dark Side of Attachment: Addiction Cornelia (Connie) Pechmann, University of California, Irvine Dante Pirouz, University of California, Irvine	76
Attachment As A Brand Building Block: Do Strong Relationships Matter? Peter Dacin, Queen's School of Business Laurence Ashworth, Queen's School of Business Matthew Thomson, Queen's School of Business	77
Peoples' Interpersonal Relationship Styles and Their Relationships With Brands Jeffrey Green, New York University	80
Understanding and Measuring Brand Love Hean Tat Keh, Peking University Jun Pang, Peking University Siqing Peng, Peking University	84
Nostalgic Memories and Consumer Emotional Attachments to Brands Steffi Gal, Kiel University Ulrich R. Orth, Kiel University	89

Understanding Brand Attachment: Measures and Outcomes C.Whan Park, University of Southern California Deborah J. MacInnis, University of Southern California Joseph R. Priester, University of Southern California	91
Attachment and Identification: How Relationships are Connected Allison Johnson, Queen's University Jay Handelman, Queen's University Matthew Thomson, Queen's University	92
Brand Love: A Multi-Method Approach Aaron Ahuvia, University of Michigan, Dearborn Richard Bagozzi, University of Michigan Rajeev Batra, University of Michigan	93
BrandLove – The precursor to Loyalty Vikram V. Kamat, Goa Institute of Management, Ribandar Ajit Arun Parulekar, Goa Institute of Management, Ribandar	94
Why it is Particularly Bad to Upset Female Customers: Sex Differences in How Brand Love and Brand Hate Affect Word-of-Mouth Michal Ann Strahilevitz, Golden Gate University	99
 <i>High and Low Involvement Brand Behavior</i>	
Deviation from Overall Satisfaction Approach to Inter-Rater Attribute-Level Analysis for Attitude and Behavior Link Keiko I. Powers, J. D. Power and Associates	100
The Role of Taste Similarity on Recommending Power: The Moderating Role of Emotional Attachment Sara Kim, KAIST Business School Minhi Hahn, KAIST Business School Do-Hyung Park, KAIST Business School	102
Customer Coping in Response to Relationship Transgressions: An Attachment Theoretic Approach Marcel Paulssen, Humbolt University Richard P. Bagozzi, University of Michigan	104
Branding and Marketing Metrics David W. Stewart, University of Southern California	106

Upstream Context for Psychological Constructs and Brand Behavior:
Models of Everyday Action and the Relevant Universe

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Responding to the conference goal to “foster research that bridges different, often unconnected, areas,” the present paper addresses two issues. It discusses: 1) the special place within a model of everyday human action of such diverse constructs as attitude, relationship, attachment, commitment, and others including motivation, and selective attention, and 2) how management, in a competitive environment, uses such a model of everyday action along with a model of the relevant universe to guide brand strategy.

The present approach is based on the premise that marketing and advertising, operating in a competitive environment, build on and adapt to the way people are disposed to allocate their resources. Goods and services fit into people’s lives in highly particularized ways, as they serve features of the context in which people engage in the activities of daily living. First, then, we present a model of a single occasion of everyday human action. Starting with a motivational component, the model addresses the function and diverse kinds of condition that allocate human resources to effecting adjustments. Such conditions select the kinds of attribute that the individual believes will improve his/her state of being, and searches for in imagination. As motivational constructs, they direct choice among option(s) that the individual generates and searches for in the current environment selecting one to try to put into effect (action). Such aspects of the model provide the contemporaneous upstream context for the constructs of attitude, attachment, commitment, relationships as applied to brand strategy and brand use.

We then discuss how management uses such a model to generate options for brand strategy and, in a competitive environment, possibly selecting one to invest its resources in, as likely to yield a satisfactory return on investment (ROI). Once strategic direction is selected, management produces the brand and promotes it to targets, i.e., the individuals in a market of prospects for whose conditions the brand has been tailored.

Management’s use of the model of action is discussed both at the level of an individual occasion of brand use (i.e., an applied version of the general model of everyday action), and also at the level of the relevant universe. Promoting and delivering the brand involves a two-stage task for marketing and advertising management, i.e., within a population as found in management’s domain of geographic interest, marketing management defines a relevant universe within which to 1) study the nature of demand as found (market segmentation) and the existing state of want-satisfaction and 2) select a direction for brand strategy. Advertising management follows a parallel process as it 1) selects from the general population an audience to which to expose promotional messages, and 2) creates and executes an advertising strategy to engage, within that

audience, the attention of targets i.e., those prospects for whose conditions the brand has been formulated. In sum, the paper discusses the contemporaneous behavioral and managerial contexts for a brand application of selected psychological constructs.

Toward An Evolutionary Theory of Marketing: Evolution and Branding

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The Darwinian contribution to the concept of attitudes was advanced more than 20 years ago with the development of social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1984), but it has taken subsequent research into primate behavior and the extension of evolutionary theory into such diverse disciplines as evolutionary biology, evolutionary psychology, human behavioral ecology, evolutionary economics, and anthropology to provide the basis for a broader acceptance of its direct path to marketing and, ultimately, to branding. Evolutionary theory stands on the brink of providing the most comprehensive integration of social science in a generation; thus, looking at the relations between evolutionary theory and marketing and branding seems timely.

Social adaptation theory argues that one of the roles of cognition is to allow an individual to adapt to the environment for purposes of survival, while social adaptation involves “fitting the person to the environment and fitting the environment to the person” (Kahle, 1984). Attitudes and beliefs, which are among the chief components of culture, have a direct impact on brand marketing because they influence what people buy and play a critical role in branding (Kotler & Keller, 2006). Evolutionary theory can help us better understand how this process happens (Kahle, Kulka, & Klingel, 1980). Relationships, which encompass attachment and commitment, are one of the differentiating characteristics of primates in terms of social complexity (Whiten & Byrne, 1997). One of the roles of emotions is to facilitate socialization and cooperation among group members, and one of the ways of evoking emotions is through symbols (Fessler & Haley, 2003). A brand is “a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods, or service of one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors” (Kotler & Keller, 2006). Among the many functions of brands is facilitating “relationship formation” (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). An exploration of contemporary branding concerns, including beauty in advertising, corporate image, and reputation management, from the perspective of evolutionary theory should help marketers understand, and possibly enhance, branding opportunities.

Clearly, evolutionary theory has much to say to marketing about branding, some of which has been proposed in the recent past (Colarelli & Dettmann, 2003; Hantula, 2003; Saad, 2004, 2006; Saad & Gill, 2000), but a great deal of which has yet to be heard within the field. This paper articulates a number of these issues.

Evolution and Evolutionary Psychology

Darwin's theory of natural selection for relative reproductive success contends that current species have evolved over millions of years through the adaptation of individual life forms to their environment (Darwin, 1859/1979). Darwin's theory of evolution by natural selection emphasizes the role of adaptation in explaining the differences among species (Dennett, 1995), while his other major theory, sexual selection through mate choice, explains the biological anomalies of sexuality not explained by natural selection (Miller, 2000). Together they form a framework for understanding the sometimes differing behaviors of men and women that can be applied in the marketing arena.

While evolutionary biology began with Darwin, evolutionary psychology is the application of evolutionary theory, specifically evolutionary biology, to more recent discoveries about the cognitive architecture of the human brain (Cosmides, Tooby, & Barkow, 1992). It is based on the assumption that there is a "universal human nature," that the brain (or mind) has evolved, and that the human mind is adapted to Pleistocene, rather than modern, times. From those basic premises there follow several key constructs.

One of those key constructs is the view of the human brain as a modular mechanism, a domain specific, special purpose information processor (Gigerenzer, 1997). Although the concept of a general intelligence seemed to follow from Darwin, evolutionary psychology holds that modularity evolved in order to address the primary problem of evolution: the transmission of genes from one generation to the next (Gigerenzer, 1997). If that problem is not solved through adaptive mechanisms, the evolutionary problem has not been solved. One way of looking at the development of modules is by examining the information demands they are developed to satisfy.

"The function of modules...is to solve specific problems of adaptive significance and to do this quickly" (Gigerenzer, 1997). His definition of "adaptive significance" is "an evolutionarily recurrent problem whose solution promoted reproduction (Gigerenzer, 1997). Among the modules he identified are "coalition forming and co-operation," "foraging," "predator avoidance," "navigation," and "mate selection." Given the information one has about the demands, one could make predictions about the adaptations. Knowing that males and females have different adaptive roles to play in nature, it follows that adaptations for the two genders have developed somewhat differently.

For example, Trivers' (1971) concept of "reproductive investment" gives a great deal of practical information to brand marketers about what interests males and females. From a biological standpoint, females are limited in the number of reproductive events they can have by gestation, lactation, and rearing, while for males such events are limited by only by the number of available females within the fertility curve (15-40 or so). As a consequence, females invest more in any reproductive event than males in terms of resources, and they have different interests than men. Specifically, females want from a

partner what the contents of every romance novel on the market would confirm: good genes, passionate (committed) love, and resources to invest (in the rearing of offspring). Males, on the other hand, have one requirement, and one requirement only: young, nubile females. Can the annual *Sports Illustrated* swim suit issue have any other explanation? These differences between the sexes have significant implications for attitudes, relationships, attachments, commitment, and branding, as we will see.

Attitudes

It is generally accepted that attitudes and beliefs are among the chief contents of culture and that they are acquired through interaction with, and adaptation to, the environment, in particular, the local interpersonal environment. Attitudes and beliefs influence what people buy, and as a result, they play a critical role in brand marketing (c.f. Kotler & Keller, 2006).

The concept of attitudes, which Fleming (1967) attributed to introduction by artists around 1700 to “describe body position in a painting” was later used by Charles Darwin to describe the physical process that balanced the disequilibrium created by emotions (Kahle, 1984). Kahle et al. pointed to the use of evolutionary theory to explain attitudes (Kahle, Kulka, & Klingel, 1980), and Kahle expanded on Piaget’s (1952) views on the cognitive element of attitude in adaptation with the development of social adaptation theory (Kahle, 1984). Piaget believed “cognitive and affective or social development” were “inseparable and parallel” (Smith, 1988).

Although Osgood et al. developed “the best known empirically formulated definition of attitude,” which incorporates the three factors of affect, activity, and potency, (or sometimes “cognition”) the best operational definition may be Bem’s (1970) characterization of attitudes as “likes and dislikes” (Kahle, 1984). “Most researchers assume, however, that the evaluative information provides insight into probable behaviors and into the social knowledge that a person holds” (Kahle, 1984). Attitudes are social cognitions, and the relevant cognition research applies (Kahle, Kulka, & Klingel, 1980). “That is, we use our attitudes to help us know about our social worlds” (Kahle, 1984).

Social adaptation theory holds that the “primary function of attitudes and other social cognitions is adaptation” to the environment for the purpose of preservation. Attitudes are “abstractions” for our adaptation to the environment (Kahle, 1984). The utility of social adaptation theory has been upheld in studies of such topics as the influential nature of adolescent male self-esteem on behaviors (Kahle, Kulka, & Klingel, 1980), the effect of surrealism in advertising (Homer & Kahle, 1986), Maslow’s hierarchy of values (Kahle, Homer, O'brien, & Boush, 1997) and of the role of physical attractiveness in behavior change (Kahle & Homer, 1985). In the latter study, information is found to have value to the extent it is salient, but its value is even more significantly correlated to its role in facilitating the individual’s adaptation to the environment (Kahle & Homer, 1985). The findings in the study of physical beauty reflect the evolutionary theory premise that sexual selection for mate choice is among the more fundamental

human drives (Miller, 2000) and has broad implications for the marketing industry and branding. What may have been an adaptive mechanism for our remote ancestors remains today an evolutionary “misfiring” much akin to Hugh Hefner and his Bunnies, surely an evolutionary anachronism that nevertheless sells products.

The concept of adaptation in social adaptation theory is drawn from the literature of evolutionary theory. Although Kahle (1984) made a distinction between his definition of “adaptation” and the strictly genetic transmission implied by Wilson (1975), Kahle’s argument for the role of “uniquely human behavior” resonates with evolutionary psychology, while his argument for the role of “flexibility and intellect” in adapting to contemporary society, rather than a focus on hunter-gatherer cultures, leaves room for further discussion.

The evolutionary link from attitudes to cultural transmission is made by Richerson and Boyd (2005), who hold that behavior is driven by “skills, beliefs, values, and attitudes” and by culture, which they define as information acquired from others “through teaching, imitation, and other forms of social transmission” that can effect behavior (Richerson & Boyd, 2005). Barkow, Cosmides, and Tooby (1992) are also strong proponents of the role of evolution in cultural transmission. “Culture is not causeless and disembodied. It is generated in rich and intricate ways by information-processing mechanisms situated in human minds” (Cosmides, Tooby, & Barkow, 1992). They argue that we must understand evolved human psychology before we can understand the relationship between biology and culture (Barkow, 1973, 1980a, 1989a; Tooby & Cosmides, 1989)” (Cosmides, Tooby, & Barkow, 1992). Through the development of psychological understanding, our understanding of attitudes, and the role they play in belief and in behavior, continues to grow.

Relationships/Attachment/Commitment

One perspective on relationships is that they are a result of social complexity among primates. The language used by evolutionists to discuss relationships includes sexual selection (Darwin, 1859/1979), mate selection (Miller, 2000), kin selection (Hamilton, 1964), the social function of intellect (Humphrey, 1976), alliances and coalitions (Whiten & Byrne, 1997), reciprocity (Trivers, 1971), and altruism (Hamilton, 1964), among others.

Cords (1992) found that primates aren’t the only organisms to have social relationships, but they cultivate, protect and use those relationships in distinct ways: they form friendships, alliances, and coalitions with non-kin, including former opponents; they engage in aggressive reciprocity against aggressors (which involves keeping score); they engage in reconciliation with former adversaries to repair social relationships; and they engage in mediation (“third party conflict resolution”) (Whiten & Byrne, 1997).

Among the attributes of relationships are “stable dominance hierarchies,” “extensive matriline,” and “regular patterns of long-term group membership and intergroup transfer” (Whiten & Byrne, 1997). Evidence of relationships among primates

is extensive, including observations by Kummer (1967) of the use by a female hamadryas baboon of a powerful male as protection while she taunted others; by Harcourt and de Waal (1992) of “alliance formation and repair, coalitions and political behaviour;” by Harcourt (1992, 1998) of the choice of allies based on “competitive value;” by Seyfarth (1977) and Seyfarth and Cheney (1984) of apes and monkeys using “grooming to build up relationships” for later benefit; by de Waal & van Roosmalen (1979) and de Waal and Luttrell (1988) of mending relationships with deliberate acts; by Cheney and Seyfarth (1990) of awareness of social rank of outside group members; and (Trivers, 1971) of the use of reciprocity to cement friendships (Whiten & Byrne, 1997).

Two of the primary evolutionary developments that accompanied the establishment of complex social structures are the capacity to deceive, dubbed “Machiavellian intelligence” (Byrne & Whiten, 1997), and the ability to know when one has been deceived, dubbed “cheater detection” (Cosmides & Tooby, 1992), the battle for genetic supremacy that Trivers (1971) dubbed “the Arms Race.” Both are fundamental elements of relationships, and both can inform the process of branding.

The make-up industry could be viewed as a prime example of female cheating strategies, or “Machiavellian intelligence,” in the biological sense. Why do women want to look younger, if not to attract a male whose eye is biologically and evolutionarily primed to search for young, fertile females? Why do men woo women with large diamond rings and promises of faithfulness, if not to bolster women’s desire for “reproductive investment” in a mate and to counter the male reputation for preferring short-term, low-commitment relationships? Women are sending signals, through make-up, that are deceptive, and men are sending signals through diamonds and other displays of wealth and tokens of commitment that are deceptive. Both genders know this activity, and yet the industries that support these signals, continue to prosper. As has been noted, advertising that uses cute kids, cute animals, and semi-naked women will out-perform ads with less direct elements.

Brands

The universal anthropomorphism of brands has been documented: we attribute human characteristics to brands in the process of developing relationships with them (Aaker, 1997; Keller & Lehmann, 2006). At least five aspects of brands identified in Keller and Lehmann (2006) have a direct tie to relationships. Brand positioning is tied to “corporate images and reputation,” which share characteristics with human image and reputation; brand personality references five human characteristics; brand relations share characteristics with human relationships, are susceptible to deceit, and have personalities; brand experience is engineered to engage human preferences; and brand values are a potentially heuristic concept worthy of exploration (Kim, Boush, Marquardt, & Kahle, 2006).

Brand Personality: The connection between evolutionary mechanisms and the Big Five personality constructs (“surgency (extraversion), agreeableness, conscientiousness (will

to achieve), emotional stability, and intellect (openness)”) and has already been made (Buss, 1991). Customers in the United States attribute “sincerity,” “excitement,” “competence,” “sophistication,” and “ruggedness” to brands, while customers in Spain and France prefer “peacefulness” to “ruggedness,” and Spain replaced “competence” with “passion” (Aaker, 1997; Keller & Lehmann, 2006). We are able to understand the power of the Nike Swoosh and its famous logo, “Just do it!” in terms of brand personality. The brand that represents performing athletes could just as well represent healthy reproducers.

Brand Relationships: Fournier (1998) found that brand relationships have many of the characteristics of human interpersonal relationships, including “(1) self-concept connection, (2) commitment or nostalgic attachment, (3) behavioral interdependence, (4) love/passion, (5) intimacy, and (6) brand-partner quality” (Keller & Lehmann, 2006).

Brand Experience: Among their many functions, brands allow customers to experience “sensory perception,” “affect and emotions,” creative and cognitive thought, “behavior... actions... and lifestyles,” “connecting with a reference group or culture,” and facilitating “relationship formation” (Keller & Lehmann, 2006).

Brand values. Brands convey the core values that consumers use to adapt to their environments (Kahle, 1983; Kim, Boush, Marquardt, & Kahle, 2006).

Symbols are directly connected to relationships, attachment, commitment, and brands. Richerson and Boyd (2005) note that complex societies use symbols to support and reinforce one of the foundations of survival and of cultural transmission, tribal membership (Richerson & Boyd, 2005).

Those symbols, we would argue, are brands, and the use of those symbols, whether for cultural transmission or sexual signaling, are the stuff of evolutionary psychology and the stuff of brand management. It would behoove both groups to see those similarities, and it would particularly benefit brand managers to understand the basis for the universal appeal of certain of those symbols.

Conclusion

Understanding how evolution influences human behavior can have a significant effect on the way in which brands are envisioned, developed, and marketed, and that understanding in turn can have a profound impact on the field of marketing. It also follows that any human behavior must be compatible with evolutionary theory, and that the results of research into branding can be interpreted in the light of evolutionary theory. Not everything that people are seen to do is adaptive in the present, but everything that people are seen to be doing in the present must have been potentially adaptive in the ancient past.

One might question bringing a concept as old and as controversial as evolution into the contemporary world of marketing. Why raise the specter of the primordial origins

of life and, thereby, risk the wrath of those for whom evolution is antithetical to their personal philosophical and religious beliefs? We would argue that raising that specter is essential to understanding the thoughts and behaviors of consumers. We would further argue that evolutionary theory can explain much of the working knowledge, as well as basic and applied science, that we in marketing use on a daily basis. If Lewin's (1951, p. 169) comment, "There is nothing so practical as a good theory" (Bishop & Browne, 2006) is correct, then we would argue that one "good theory" of practical import to marketing and branding is evolutionary theory.

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When Brands are Built from Within: A Social Identity Pathway to Liking and Evaluation

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The concept of a “brand” is a fundamental, critical and complex part of marketing strategy. A well-managed brand may be thought of as a symbol that communicates a set of clear, related associations (e.g., Aaker 1997) that distinguish it from competitive offerings, and that connect with some economically sustainable segment of customers. A legitimate argument can be made that the holy grail of marketing is to facilitate this connection. In fact, many iconic brands in the market place appear to be successful at producing extreme brand loyalty (e.g., Nike, Harley Davidson, Ipod, Starbucks, etc.), whereby a “consumer community” associates itself with a brand, thereby distancing themselves from other brands (e.g., Thomson, MacInnis & Park, 2005). Although researchers have extensively discussed examples of deeply symbolic brands and their relationship to self-definition (see Reed 2004) as well as related measurement issues (Thomson, et. al, 2005), little research has honed in on how brands come to transcend their status as objects (cf. Shavitt 1990; Kleine, Kleine & Kernan 1993). Based on recent work in attitude theory by Cohen and Reed (2006a), and on relevant work in social identity and social cognition, we describe and illustrate a social identity pathway to liking and evaluation. We explain how and when brand attitudes become organized around a social identity and how the social identity itself becomes a primary basis for recruiting favorable evaluations toward the brand.

The processes and psychological mechanisms in our model build on current work in social identity and attitude theory and describe how the links between a consumer’s social identity and the identity of a brand become congruent. The model also suggests very specific ways that marketers might leverage this process to increase the likelihood that symbolic communities will form around their product offerings and result in loyalty that comes from within (as opposed to being based primarily on product features) and, therefore, that may be particularly immune to competitive attack (Bolton & Reed 2004). We describe this model in detail and lay out key moderating and mediating mechanisms that point to relevant managerial strategies that can be incorporated into persuasive communications aimed at using identity based marketing as a positioning or repositioning strategy. For example, a key implication of the model is that it is not sufficient for social identities to be the primary basis for stored brand evaluations because of the flexibility in

thought processes that derive from salient contextual information (e.g., choice contexts) and the presence of an extensive memory network. Accordingly, though consumers may initially anchor on social identity brand associations, marketers who adopt such a positioning strategy need to provide consistent brand retrieval information so that social identity based attitudes are likely to be recruited to guide behavior.

The empirical paradigm we use explores the attitudinal implications of retrieval and assessment of an initial evaluation of an object based on either its functional features (an object-centered orientation), or its relationship to the self (a person-centered orientation). Our focus is on research that compares these two pathways in their role as proxies for positioning strategies that are often pursued in real world marketing strategies. We will report several studies that utilize a common design. First, we manipulate an object (e.g., product) such that half the participants generate their attitude towards it based on a relevant social identity. The other half generated an attitude toward the same product(s) based on its tangible functional features. We present data that explores the underlying structural, process and content based differences between these two attitudes emphasizing constructs noted in the attitude literature (e.g., strength, confidence, clarity, representational sufficiency, etc.) Second, we then examine the effect of moderating factors (e.g., group salience, strength of identification, and diagnosticity) on subsequent attitude recruitment and expression.

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Children's Formation of Brand Attitudes: Age of Onset and Importance of Product Category

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Cradle-to-grave strategies are used by marketers to promote brands to children and facilitate lifelong brand relationships. The outcomes of these relationships are clear: research shows that adults tend to choose brands they have used since childhood. However, little is known about the early stages of brand relationships. This research introduces a framework from which to investigate children's formation of brand attitudes. Principles from marketing and psychology are integrated to determine whether the age of brand attitude formation varies as a function of individual differences in children's development and to address whether the typical age of this milestone differs across product categories. Attitudes are discussed in terms of a child's ability to make attributions about users of various brands.

Evidence from marketing suggests that children do not form brand attitudes until eleven years of age. However, this conclusion rests on a Piagetian age-stage theory of children's development which is now considered outdated. According to that theory, young children are capable only of attending to basic perceptual cues and this limited cognitive capacity renders them incapable of understanding brand symbolism since it requires abstract thought. However, recent evidence from psychology suggests that preschool children whose executive functioning (i.e., behavior planning, rule adherence and goal-directed activity) is adequately developed can use abstract reasoning to perform a variety of tasks including classifying objects or stimuli according to rules. Such findings refute the age-stage theory. Future research in children's marketing needs to reconcile these findings. This can only be achieved if executive functioning is measured and assessed as a correlate of brand attitudes, along with traditional measures of cognitive development. This research offers a methodology to operationalise such measurement. The framework incorporates standardized tests of executive functioning and cognition and addresses issues of practicality and special considerations in testing.

The multidisciplinary framework also borrows measures of children's social maturity from psychology to address the question of product categories playing a role in brand attitude formation. The marketing literature has inadvertently raised this question by allowing a potential confound in its studies. Studies in this area of marketing have repeatedly used fashion brands as stimuli. For example, Achenreiner and John (2003) required children to make judgments about the users of Nike versus Kmart jeans.

Multiple studies conclude that limited cognitive capacity prevents young children from formulating brand attitudes. However, findings from two separate areas of

psychology may equally explain this result. First, psychology findings show that at a very young age (i.e., roughly four years) a lack of social understanding results in children viewing others as having the same thoughts, beliefs, and perceptions as themselves. Children who lack such social understanding may not have the capacity to make judgments about the users of various brands. The acquisition of such social skills may be a prerequisite to the formation of brand attitudes.

The present framework employs tests of children's social skills to assess whether this variable could account for the previous findings. Further, the framework incorporates additional product categories as stimuli to be used in future research. Another explanation of the prior findings may be that young children show no understanding of fashion brands because they are not yet interested in fashion, but that the use of brand stimuli from other product categories might yield different results. In early childhood, the "cool" children may be those who own the trendy brands of toys, lunch foods or trading cards. Therefore, future research should determine whether brand symbolism is understood by preschool children using product categories familiar to children in that age group. In taking a multidisciplinary approach, it is anticipated that this framework can be used to resolve conflicting findings from marketing and psychology.

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An Assessment of the Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Attitude on Spouses
in Taiwan

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There is a fast increase of foreign spouse (or call “the transnational marriage”) in Taiwan. Till the end of year 2005 in Taiwan, there are 365,000 foreign husbands or wives which are 64.1 % from China and 35.9% are from Vietnam, Indonesia and Thailand etc. When mentioning about the issue of foreign spouses, we can further be aware of a new consumption structure in Taiwan except the sociological issues. We will take consumer ethnocentrism as our construct in this article to probe the consumer behavior of this group. There may be certain degree of difference in Consumer Ethnocentrism (Shimp and Sharma, 1987) due to different culture. And ethnocentrism is a sociological concept, which became a psychosocial construct with relevance to individual-level personality systems as well as to the more general cultural and social-analytic frameworks (Levine and Campbell, 1972), has been borrowed by marketers

This article will examine the consumer ethnocentrism on female foreign spouses and domestic foreign spouses in Taiwan, and to see whether there exist differences among foreign countries. Further, the relationships between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitudes towards food product, clothes and 3C product will be explored. Besides, we also want to know whether the consumer ethnocentrism would changed if consumers’ demographic characteristics differ.

Measuring the Effects of Culturally Salient Message Cues on Attitude toward the Brand:
Congruency between Foreign Language Voice-Overs and Product Origin

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As brand development strategies become increasingly sophisticated in a global context, several firms try to add elements of differentiation to their brands so that consumers may develop emotional ties that go beyond functional attributes of the product. Kevin Roberts of Saatchi and Saatchi has developed a framework named Lovemarks (*The Lovemarks Effect: Winning in the Consumer Revolution 2006*) that attempts to develop communication platforms that engage consumers into some form of higher level relationship or attachment.

This can be achieved by a number of execution approaches, one of which is the reinforcement of the product's cultural origin. This has been used in worldwide markets by using the imported brand's own native language in television commercials instead of the original language in the host country. This approach has been used in New Zealand for products like beer, coffee, and cellular phones, using foreign languages such as French, Dutch and Spanish which are not commonly understood here.

In order to measure the effectiveness of such communication strategies, a 2×2 between-subject factorial design experiment using a sample of 127 participants was conducted in one of the main cities in NZ. The two treatment variables used were language (German vs. English) and country of origin (Germany vs. New Zealand). The subjects were randomly assigned to the four experimental conditions. Each group watched a Beck's beer ad, which was played either in German or in English and communicated the message that the beer was either imported to New Zealand or brewed in New Zealand. After watching the ads, the subjects were handed out questionnaires containing the measures for their attitude toward the ad (Mackenzie & Lutz, 1989), attitude toward the brand and purchase intention (Zhang 1996).

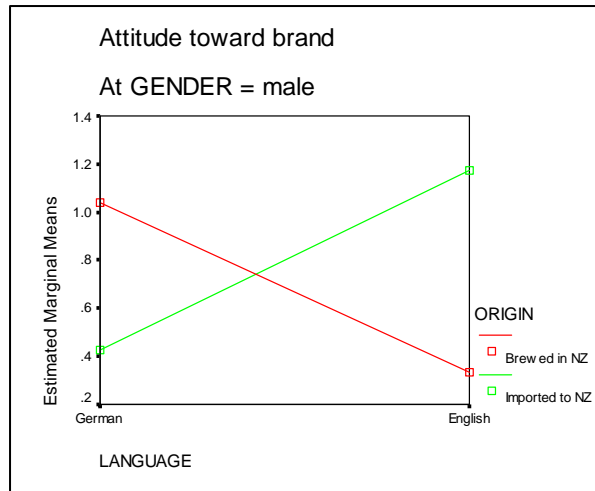


Figure 1. Effect of Language and COO on A_{br}

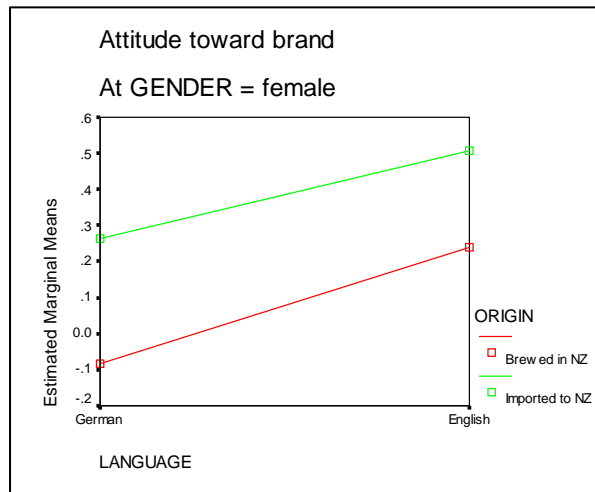


Figure 2. Effect of Language and COO on A_{br}

Initial results indicate that there is a strong gender interaction effect relative to the reinforcement of cultural cues used in advertising communication (see Figures 1 and 2). This research makes several contributions in the area of COO effects and the use of foreign language in advertising. Past studies have paid little attention to these and based on attitude toward the ad, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention, our study provides theoretical insights into when and how foreign language may be used in television advertising.

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The Effects of Background Music on Ad Processing of High- and Low-Involvement Consumers

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Ever since background music (BGM) in ad has been widely used across the countries, academicians and practitioners have engaged in efforts to assess its effectiveness. However, past research concerning the effects of BGM on consumers' responses to advertised brands has produced mixed results. The inconsistency seems to be largely due to the use of different characteristics of music with the level of consumer involvement, as well as the methodologies used to assess its effectiveness.

This study examines the persuasion effectiveness of two salient characteristics of music – consumer's familiarity to the music and music fit with the advertised product – on high- and low-involvement consumers' ad processing. Based on literature reviews regarding the role of BGM and Homer's Dual Mediation Model, it was hypothesized that: (H1) the presence of BGM in TV commercial would cause differences in persuasiveness depending on the level of consumer's involvement; (H2 & H3) the level of familiarity to the music and that of fitness to the advertised product would lead the differences in persuasion effectiveness depending on the level of consumer's involvement; (H4) there would be interaction effects between these two characteristics of music.

For the experiment, 600 male and female undergraduate students in Korea participated. The 2(involvement) x 2(presence of BGM) and 2(involvement) x 2(familiarity) x 2(fit) factorial designs were used. A newly produced 20" TV commercial with 4 different types of music was used for the test ad. The ad promoted a fictitious brand of sport shoes called Masters. The randomly assigned participants were processed via three research stages: i) pre-exposure measure, ii) ad exposure, and iii) post-exposure measure.

The results indicated that: (H1) the presence of BGM made little facilitative effects on processing for high-involvement subjects, while there were partially positive effects for low-involvement subjects; (H2) under high-involvement conditions, familiarity to the music had a significant effect on brand cognition but not significantly different for low-involvement condition; (H3) fit with the advertised product had positive effects on high-involvement consumers' attitudes toward the ad and the brand, while fit affected low-involvement consumers' ad cognition; (H4) interaction effects between familiarity and fit were not significant across involvement groups.

The results suggest that two characteristics of music, familiarity and fit, play an important role in the ad processing of both high- and low-involvement consumers. However, the specific nature of their effects differs across the levels of consumer involvement. As such, the consideration should be given onto what kind of BGM will be used rather than whether the BGM will be used or not. Also, the selection of the BGM should be done in accordance with the communication goal and product characteristics. Extensive suggestions for future research and implications for academicians and practitioners are provided.

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Understanding perceptions of personal invulnerability to persuasive advertising

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Psychological research has shown that while people assume *others* to be influenced by persuasive media, they believe that they *themselves* will not be influenced. This phenomenon, called the *third-person effect* or *TPE* (Davison, 1983) has been demonstrated in a variety of contexts (Duck, Terry & Hogg, 1995; Henriksen & Flora, 1999; Shah, Faber & Youn, 1999) and is a robust finding with respect to people's perceptions of advertising. Because this tendency to evaluate the self more favourably than others is both logically and statistically suspect, the TPE is seen as a robust example of a *self-serving bias* (Douglas & Sutton, 2004). The aim of the present research is to test and extend current theories of why this bias occurs. Exactly why do people possess this misplaced and possibly maladaptive faith in their own invulnerability?

One answer appeals to the pursuit of positive self-regard. In many contexts, being easily persuadable is seen as an undesirable trait and in those contexts, the TPE is correlated with self-esteem (e.g., Perloff, 1989) and measures of self-enhancement (Pickering & Sutton, 2005). In contrast, where it is seen as desirable to be persuaded by a message, the TPE may sometimes be obviated or even reversed (e.g., Duck & Mullin, 1995; Duck et al., 1995). In short, people feel good about themselves when they believe themselves to be unaffected by undesirable messages, and vice versa.

Another possibility is that consumers may think differently when considering their own versus others' susceptibility to advertising. In particular, past research suggests that people tend to rely on 'case-based' or *theory-based* assumptions when making judgements about the self (Epley and Dunning, 2000). For example, people might base predictions of their own charity-giving behaviour on perceptions of their own personality traits such as their generosity. On the other hand, research suggests that people typically base their judgements of others on *population base-rates*. Applying this logic to the TPE, it is possible that when estimating their own susceptibility to advertising, consumers think about personal characteristics that make them invulnerable according to their implicit theories of persuasion – such as their intelligence and independence. On the other hand, when judging others they may consult population base rates such as actual statistics, sales figures or their own observations of correlations between advertising and buying behaviour.

The present study is the first in a series of studies designed to examine the potential mechanisms underlying third-person perceptions. Here, we tested the extent to which people use theory-based information in judging self/other differences in susceptibility to advertising, and the relationship between self-enhancement motives and the TPE. In a two group design, 108 undergraduate psychology students completed a questionnaire administered online. Participants were first asked to rate the extent to which they (self) *or* other undergraduate students (others) possess specific personal characteristics such as intelligence and independence, on a scale from 0 ‘not at all’ to 6 ‘very much’. In previous research (e.g., Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and our own pilot work, these factors have been linked to judgements of susceptibility to persuasion. Participants were also asked to rate their own or others’ susceptibility to peripheral advertising cues such as the use of familiar phrases (e.g., slogans) and attractiveness, again on a seven point scale from 0 ‘not at all’ to 6 ‘very much’.

Participants were then asked to view a series of advertisements that had undergone extensive pre-testing for variables such as familiarity and gender-neutrality. These were six screen-size colour advertisements for *Pepsi*, *McDonalds*, *Nokia*, *Peugeot*, *Lacoste* clothing and *Calvin Klein* perfume. After viewing each advertisement, participants were asked to rate how much they thought each advertisement would influence themselves, or others, on a scale from 0 ‘not at all’ to 6 ‘very much’.

Finally, after viewing all of the advertisements and answering the questions related to the self or others, participants were asked to compare themselves to other undergraduate students on a range of abilities and traits by completing Taylor and Gollwitzer’s (1995) self-enhancement scale.

As predicted, participants responded that others ($M = 3.41$) would be more influenced by the advertisements than themselves ($M = 2.02$). This effect was mediated by judgements of susceptibility to peripheral cues, where others were deemed more susceptible ($M = 5.24$) than the self ($M = 4.29$; see Figure 1). In other words, judgements of susceptibility to peripheral cues predicted self/other differences in ratings of influence.

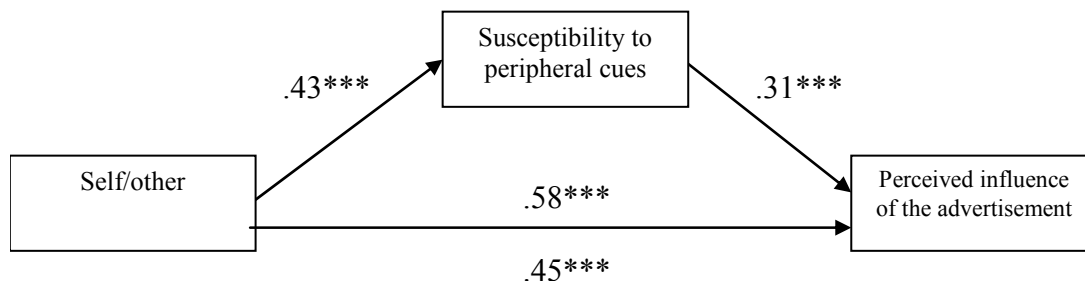


Figure 1. Path model showing the effect of self/other condition on perceived influence, mediated by perceived susceptibility to peripheral cues. *** $p < .001$

Further, the tendency to self-enhance moderated the TPE, with high self-enhancers more likely to commit the TPE than low self-enhancers (Figure 2).

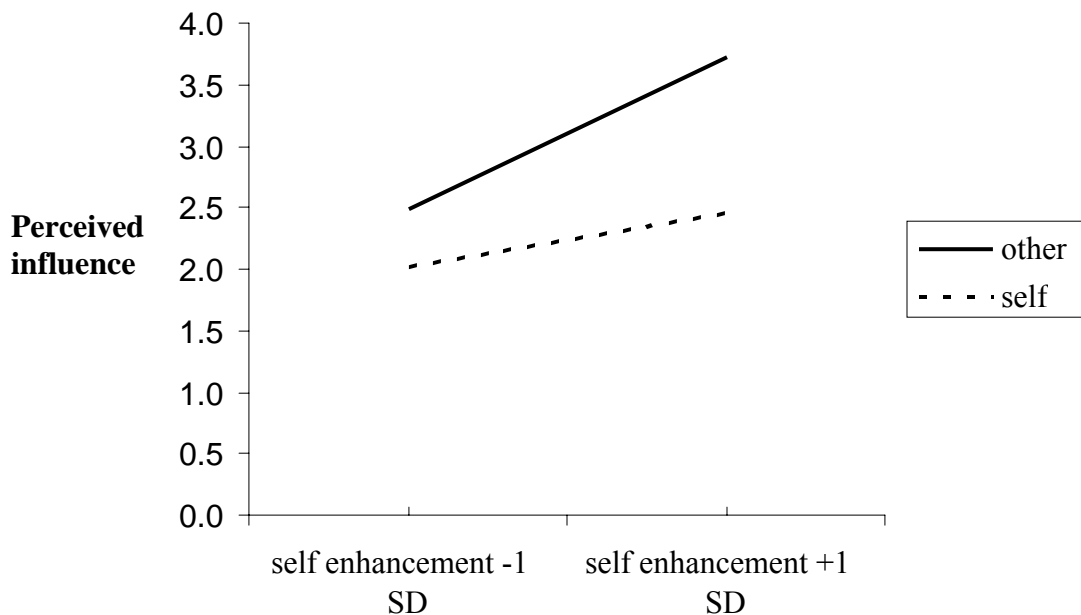


Figure 1. Perceived influence of the advertisement as a function of self-enhancement and self/other condition.

There was also some evidence to suggest that people draw on intuitive theories to predict influence for self and others in general. For example, the more targets judged themselves or others to be ‘followers’, the more likely they were judged to be influenced; $r(106) = .28, p < .01$. Also, the more they perceived themselves or others to be ‘cynical’, the less likely they were judged to be influenced by the advertisements, $r(106) = -.23, p < .05$.

Our results support previous research demonstrating that people perceive others as more ‘persuadable’ than themselves. However, people do not appear to rely on different intuitive theories when making judgements about themselves and others. Indeed, factors such as being seen as a ‘follower’ were associated with perceived influence regardless of target. Participants demonstrating a tendency to self-enhance showed a stronger tendency to commit the TPE. Further, ratings of susceptibility to peripheral cues seem to drive self/other judgements of susceptibility to advertising. This work is among the first to examine lay people’s intuitive theories about the psycho-social factors that make people susceptible to persuasion.

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Impact of CSR Communication Strategies on Brand Attitude Change after Crisis

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Recent studies have shown that consumers pay increasing attention to the social behaviour of companies. Firms are not only expected to deliver quality products and services, they should also take actions in favour of the welfare of their environment and of their stakeholders (employees, local population, consumers). Thus there is a clear and explicit public demand for information on companies' responsibility programs.

However, previous studies showed that communicating only positively about corporate social responsibility (CSR) issues may increase both the likelihood of the uncovering of irresponsible practices along the supply chain (higher scrutiny) and the negative effect of such a crisis on the company's reputation (higher consumers' expectations) (Swaen & Vanhamme, 2004). On the other hand, not communicating may be interpreted as a lack of interest in social matters and have a negative effect on consumers' attitudes towards the firm. Therefore public relations professionals recommend that firms communicate honestly, in line with their actual behaviour. In this paper we study the effect of using this latter communication strategy (honesty) from the point of view of consumers before and after a crisis happens. Studying the impact of a CSR crisis is made relevant by the fact that CSR has an asymmetric effect, a common finding in the CSR literature (e.g. Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). While positive CSR context may not lead to any significant increase in consumer attitude, a crisis is likely to have strong negative effects on attitudes and purchase intentions (e.g. boycott).

We formulate a model of attitude change after crisis. For doing so, we build on the traditional belief-adjustment model (Hogarth & Einhorn, 1992) that we extend to include attribution effects. Indeed attribution theory predicts that the effect of a crisis on attitude depends on the perceived responsibility that consumers assign to the company for it. We apply this model to the specific case of a CSR crisis about an external ethical issue that firms cannot fully control for yet, e.g. employment practices along the supply chain.

We consider three alternative communication strategies: guaranteeing the absence of any unethical process along the supply chain (very positive firm), recognizing the possible existence of some unethical practices along the supply chain despite the company's best efforts (honest firm) or not communicating at all. We hypothesize that in the short run (before a crisis occurs) consumers judge more negatively the honest companies as they may pay more attention to the negative side of the message ("negativity bias") and interpret it as a lack of social responsibility. In the long run, however, consumers' attitude towards the honest company should decrease less.

We run a between-subject experiment using fictitious companies from the MP3 players manufacturing industry. Its design is similar to those used in related studies (Brown & Dacin, 1997, Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001, Swaen & Vanhamme 2004). Results

are supportive of our hypotheses. Before a crisis occurs, consumers had a significantly higher attitude towards the very positive firm compared to the honest one. Consumers' attitude towards the firm not communicating was the lowest. After the crisis, the decrease in attitude was stronger when the firm had previously used the very positive strategy. As a result the order in brand attitudes got reversed: the best rated company (in terms of brand attitude) after the crisis was the honest one while the worst rated company was the very positive one.

Thus we recommend that companies do not overstate their achievements about CSR issues they cannot fully control for yet and inform consumers about their limits. This would prevent them from strong image deteriorations that many firms have experienced after CSR crises in the past.

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Basic processes of habitual control and their
implications for consumer behavior and brand loyalty

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Stable patterns of consumer behavior, as reflected in repeated brand purchase and consumption, are typically explained by invoking factors such as strong preferences, attitudes, emotional commitments, intentions, and goals. Consumers are seen as consistently purchasing particular brands or products because these factors motivate and guide them to repeat their past behavior. However, in this talk, we argue that stable patterns of consumer behavior can also reflect the operation of habits. Although consumer habits typically originate in people's goals and intentions, we present data suggesting that these factors play a significantly diminished role in guiding habitual (vs. non-habitual) consumer behavior. We argue that habits are triggered instead by cues in the performance context that have historically co-varied with the response. Specifically, context cues come to be represented with habitual responses in memory so that the simple perception of the cues can trigger performance of the associated habit.

In support, we present data from a series of studies, some of which directly measure consumer behavior and some of which assess habits more broadly. Our first two studies indicate that habits are relatively insensitive to people's current goals and intentions. Study one used a diary paradigm in which participants' fast food purchases were tracked over a one-week period and then predicted from (a) the strength of their past purchasing habits and (b) the favorability of their stated purchase intentions. As depicted in Figure 1, regression analyses showed that intentions were powerful predictors of actual purchasing behavior when habits were not in place, but did not predict behavior for those with strong habits (Ji & Wood, in press).

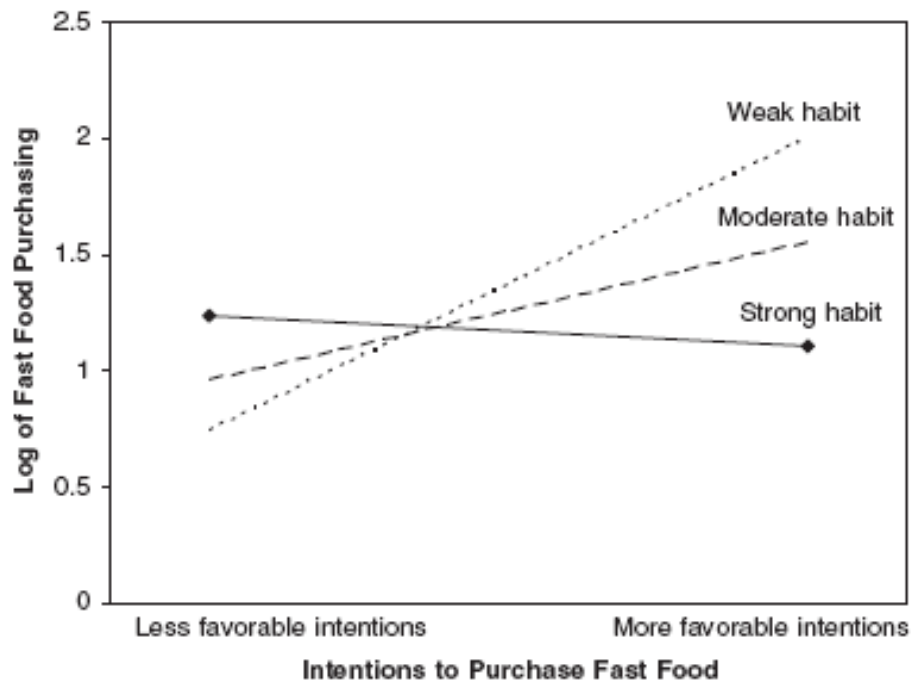


Figure 1. Poisson regression analysis predicting frequency of buying fast food over one week from intention to buy and from strength of past buying habits (Ji & Wood, in press)

We then will present evidence from a controlled experimental paradigm demonstrating the basic pattern in which habitual behavior is repeated without depending on people's goals/intentions. This study simulated habit formation in the laboratory using a probabilistic learning task used in cognitive neuroscience studies of habit-based memory systems (e.g., Poldrack, Clark, Pare-Blagoev, Shohamy, Creso Moyano et al., 2001). Specifically, participants played a computer game in which they learned to predict weather outcomes (rain vs. shine) based on probabilistically associated visual cues (playing cards). For some participants, the learning trials encouraged a feedback-based strategy known to encourage development of habit-based, procedural associations in memory. For others, the learning trials involved more explicit, declarative learning of rules for specific outcomes. After learning, some participants were primed with a task-relevant goal (i.e., achievement) via a standard scrambled-sentence priming task. As would be expected when performance is guided by goals, activation of the achievement goal (marginally) improved performance of those using declarative learning rules. However, suggesting that habitual performance is not dependent on goals, activation of achievement goals actually significantly impaired performance of those using habit-based procedural memory. Thus, habit performance does not appear to depend on task-relevant goals and such goals may even backfire for habitual tasks. This finding is reminiscent of instances in which attempts to control performance of skilled tasks can hinder effectiveness (e.g., thinking about one's golf swing).

These first two studies, although employing radically different paradigms, support a similar conclusion. That is, the performance of habits is not positively predicted, and even can be impaired, by people's current goals and intentions. Extrapolating to the consumer domain, we theorize that, if consumers have had the opportunity to form habits of purchase and consumption, then marketing campaigns should be tailored accordingly. Change in consumer habits and brand loyalties based on those habits will not be easily accomplished by a focus on changing intentions and goals.

In the second part of the talk, we address the mechanisms by which habitual behavior *can* be successfully altered. One key strategy involves disrupting people's exposure to the context cues that trigger habit performance. The results of a real-world diary study will be presented showing that people's newspaper-reading and TV-watching habits tend to be disrupted when the context in which they perform those behaviors changes in some way (e.g., when cohabitants' behavior changes). These data provide a real-world analogue for experimental work showing that habits are linked to, and triggered by, the context cues that have consistently co-varied with past performance. Importantly, the diary data also reveal that context change tends to bring behavior under the control of people's intentions. Specifically, even those with strong habits to read the newspaper or watch TV acted in line with their (favorable or unfavorable) intentions when context had been disrupted. Based on this, we argue that context change (e.g., when people move to a new house) offers opportunities to target the formation of new consumer habits by influencing people's intentions and goals when their old habits have been disrupted and they are freed to act on those goals. In particular, new resident marketing programs hold great promise to alter habitual consumer behaviors (see Verplanken & Wood, 2006).

On the basis of these data, we argue that habitual brand purchase and consumption may often be predominantly driven not by consumer's strong goals and intentions, but rather by their context cued habits.

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Attitude Formation Processes: Exploring When and Why Attitudes are Retrieved Rather than Constructed

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The construct of *attitude* was introduced by Thurstone in 1928. Attitudes are generally conceptualized as relatively enduring, internally stored, evaluations of people, products, places, and ideas. That is, an attitude is represented by whether one likes or dislikes something. Since the introduction of this construct, attitudes have become a central construct in the social sciences. In recent years, however, a theoretical perspective has arisen that questions the role of attitudes in the nature of evaluative judgments. This perspective argues that evaluative judgments are constructed, rather than retrieved. That is, this perspective hypothesizes that, when asked whether one likes or dislikes an attitude object, individuals construct their responses based upon available thoughts and/or feelings available at the time of judgment. Proponents of this perspective have taken the extreme stand that all evaluative judgments are constructed, and as such, attitudes do not represent a necessary or ecologically valid construct.

The present research provides a theoretical resolution to these two, seemingly incompatible, perspectives. We argue that evaluative judgments associated with strongly held attitudes are the result of attitude retrieval processes, whereas those evaluative judgments associated with weakly held attitudes are more likely to be the result of construction processes. Strongly held attitudes are those attitudes that are the result of thoughtful consideration of an attitude object, whereas weakly held attitudes are those attitudes that are the result of relatively less thoughtful processes, such as heuristics, classical conditioning, and balance processes. We present the results of several studies that explore and provide support for this, the Construction and Retrieval as Moderated by Attitude Strength (CARMAS) model of evaluative judgment.

Intentional Brand Strategies that Result in Restricting Our Exposure to Diversity

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Everyday, as a result of lack of motivation, limited processing capacity, or limited time or energy constraints, we select to enhance our exposure to certain stimuli while, at the same time, limiting or restricting our exposure to other stimuli (e.g. Lynch & Srull, 1982; Shiffrin, 1976). When we choose to restrict our exposure, what is it that we restrict and why? It is our contention that what is restricted is likely to be exposure to things of a diverse nature. This is not a new concept, rather it extends the earlier contentions of several pioneer social psychologists who have made note of the phenomenon of restricting opportunities that expose oneself to people, ideas, and things that are different (e.g. Newcomb, 1947, Allport, 1954, Stephan and Stephan, 1984), and more recently the notation of this phenomenon in media sociology (Gitlin, 2002) and political science (Sunstein, 2000). While one can internally restrict one's exposure to things of a diverse nature, there are external forces that reinforce this action. Such forces can be found in highly segmented marketing and media strategies (e.g., direct mail campaigns, targeted email, retail targeting). Schumann has developed these notions and has considered both the antecedents and the consequences of restricting exposure to diversity (Schumann, 2003, 2004, Schumann and Hood, 2007).

This phenomenon of restricting exposure can be applied to limitations with regard to brand knowledge and brand selection. Both internal and external forces may result in a rather restricted set of brands in an evoked set. Moreover, information regarding brands is also likely restricted to a relatively small number. This relatively small set of brands (and brand information) can be explained, in part, by intergroup bias theory (Brewer and Miller, 1996). Those brands that are familiar to us, that we have tried and been satisfied with, may exist in a brand "ingroup." Those brands that are unfamiliar to us, or whose use has resulted in dissatisfaction, will likely belong to a brand "outgroup."

Since our use of brands often reflects something about our self-identity, the ingroup brands (and brand knowledge) get far more attention and commitment, than do outgroup brands. Marketers clearly attempt to build upon this difference, often focusing their positioning and promotional efforts to reflect the targeted consumer's identity.

This presentation focuses on such strategies and isolates on ethnic segmentation in the retail environment as an example. Store names and products within stores are indeed brands. The premise of ethnic/racial segmentation is that marketers are able to more effectively reach minority markets by using cues such as an actor's race (eg. Whittler and Spira 2002), ethnic nostalgia (Grier & Brumbaugh 1999), and through the use of vehicles that are targeted to these groups (Grier, Brumbaugh and Thornton 2006).

This research has primarily examined the use of advertising in segmentation, though advertising is only one of the ways that marketers communicate with consumers. Recent research suggests that minorities use physical cues in retail environments to determine whether or not the retailer welcomes their presence. Rosenbaum (2005) found that gay and lesbian consumers responded positively to symbols such as a rainbow flag and pink triangles. Conversely, physical cues can also make it easy for minority customers to infer that their business is not solicited by certain retailers as well (Rosenbaum and Montoya 2006, Rosenbaum 2005), thus inducing restriction of exposure. Though signs such as “No Blacks Allowed” have been absent from retail settings since the 1960s, more subtle signs may convey this same message for minority groups (Rosenbaum and Montoya 2006). These types of cues (or absence of ethnic cues) may serve another purpose as well. Majority group members may interpret these cues as signals that they will be amongst their own at these retailers. These types of cues may allow restricted exposure to diversity to continue in retail environments.

Diversity-seeking has been identified as a trait that is positively related to individuals of one cultural group (typically the majority group) gravitating to products or services originally targeted to another group (a racial minority group) (Grier, Brumbaugh and Thornton 2006). Conversely, individuals who have a propensity to eschew diversity may purposely avoid products, services, and retail settings that appear to cater to multiple cultural groups. The retailer Abercrombie and Fitch has faced criticism (and lawsuits) alleging the retailer’s focus on reaching the ‘classic American’ college market has resulted in discrimination against African American, Asian and Hispanic potential employees and consumers (Edwards 2003). This suggests that targeting practices may produce a perception of a racist motivation (Smith and Cooper-Martin 1997). This motivation may be perceived positively by some majority consumers who patronize the store as a result.

There is another potential consequence of restricted exposure to diversity is that is manifested in the marketplace. When individuals who have limited contact with other cultural or ethnic groups are forced into contact during market exchanges (such as a retail transaction) what happens? One result may be that it promotes the perception of discrimination amongst minority consumers. It has been posited that racial integration may foster decreased perceptions of discriminatory out-group treatment though perceptions of in-group rejection may increase (Postmes and Branscombe 2002). It is equally plausible that racial segregation (a likely result of restricted exposure to diversity) may increase perceptions of discriminatory out-group treatment among minorities as well as increase perceptions of mistrust and suspicion towards minority group members among majority group members.

This example reveals how both external and internal forces may act together in an integrative form to contribute to restriction of exposure to diversity. Such restriction that results from intentional marketing strategies has significant implications for both marketers as well as consumers.

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The Role of Affect in the Accessibility of Brands from Memory

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This research examines the relative impact of the affective and cognitive components of overall brand attitude on the order of brand recall (OBR), a key determinant of brand strength in a product category. More specifically, the authors examine if the affective component of overall brand attitudes is a better predictor of OBR than the cognitive component. To investigate the relative relationship between attitude components and OBR, participants were given a free-recall task of brand names in several product categories (soft drinks, fast food, automobiles, and airlines). The Crites, Fabrigar, and Petty (1994) scale was used to measure each respondent's attitudinal components (affective and cognitive) toward each brand recalled.

The data were analyzed with a two-stage distribution-free procedure (involving Kendall's tau correlation coefficients and the Wilcoxon Sign-rank test) to determine which attitudinal component was a better predictor of OBR. This methodology, which is one of the contributions of the paper can be applied to analyze other marketing phenomena to determine the relative predictive role of "n" explanatory variables on a dependent variable, when only a small number of data points are available and no underlying normal distribution can be assumed. The strength of the methodology is that it can be used to examine not only the direction, but also the magnitude of the relationship between predictive and dependent variables, and can do so at individual customer level.

The authors conclude that the affective component of overall brand attitudes has a stronger relationship with OBR than its cognitive component for repeat purchase products (soft drinks) and services (fast food). The data also suggests that affect may be more important as a determinant of OBR for females than for males for repeat purchase products and services. For major purchase (durable) products such as automobiles, the cognitive component plays a more important role as a determinant of OBR for males. Finally, theoretical, managerial and methodological implications of the findings are presented.

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Visualizing Brand Meaning

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Much of the meaning of a brand is conveyed visually – directly through products themselves, and indirectly through the imagery that is used to support the brand via advertising and point-of-purchase materials. However, brand meaning (or “brand personality”) typically is measured using a verbal format; visual methods are seldom used and then only in the context of small-scale, qualitative studies. We argue that the dominant verbal methods are ill-suited to truly understand brand meaning. The linkage of *brand meaning* with visual images is pervasive (e.g., imagery involving the American cowboy, debutantes, or lush landscapes) yet at the same time totally *ad hoc*. The project reported here aims to systematically and empirically construct a *visual lexicon* of brand meaning that can link the meanings evoked by a standardized set of images with brands. The method we are developing will allow us to generate visual brand meaning maps. Analyses of these meaning maps will be used to gauge the consistency of meanings among consumers and will be related ultimately to financial and market measures of brand performance. Visual meaning maps can also inform brand managers how best to visually depict the intended meanings of their brands.

The Malleable Brand: The Role of Implicit Theories in Brand Extendibility

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For decades, consumer behavior research has devoted attention to the set of human characteristics people associate with brands, such that the construct of *brand personality* has begun taking on a life of its own. The general idea, which emerged in the 1960s, is that a brand provides a symbolic function enabling a consumer to express his or her own self-concept (see Sirgy 1982 for a review). With this idea in mind, researchers tried to relate purchases of specific brands to traits a purchaser either sees, or would like to see in him or herself. Dolich (1969) found evidence for the congruence between one's self-concept and images of his or her preferred brands for bar soap, toothpaste, beer and cigarettes. As researchers moved away from the historic conceptualization of the self possessing a stable set of personality traits, (Kassarjian 1971) support for brand personality theories continued to amass. Recent work now often takes into account the notion of malleable or multiple self concepts.

Recent work suggests that through their brand preference, choice and consumption, consumers define or strengthen their identity (Belk 1988). In her work on the self-expressive role of brands, Aaker (1999) argues that different situations lead consumers to evoke different self-schemas that vary in their associated personality traits. Aaker argues that given different situational cues, preferences for brands can be expected to vary across usage situations. Hence, it would not be surprising for a stuffy corporate businessman to ride a Harley-Davidson motorcycle on weekends as consumers express different dimensions of the self through their use of a brand. While demonstrating how usage situations, brand personality and self-concept interact, Aaker (1999) accepts the brand's traits as fixed while considering the consumer's malleable. There is evidence to suggest, however, that consumers make inferences as to the malleability of the brand, suggesting that the traits associated with a particular brand might be more flexible than previously thought.

A growing literature in social psychology supports the notion that people possess lay theories about the malleability of their own personality traits and that these "implicit theories" affect the inferences made when judging the traits of others (Dweck, Chiu, and Hong 1995). As such, people tend to adopt one of two theories: either traits are fixed entities that cannot change (entity theory), or traits are dynamic and able to change with

time and effort (incremental theory). Although individuals differ in terms of which of these two theories is more chronically accessible, either can become dominant when activated (Levy, Stroessner, and Dweck 1998). Therefore, an individual's predisposition to view his or her own personality as fixed or malleable as well as external prompting will affect how fixed or malleable the personality of another person, or even a brand, is subsequently judged. Accordingly, the ability for a brand to assume the appropriate traits for a particular situation should depend on the consumer's implicit theory of the self and whether it is fixed or malleable.

Whether, and to what extent, a brand is perceived as possessing fixed or malleable traits has important implications for a brand's positioning and whether a brand can successfully extend into a new category. Consumer reactions to brand extensions have been shown to depend on the perceived suitability of its membership in the new category, or the "fit" between the parent brand and the extension category (Park, Milberg, and Lawson 1991). The success of a brand extension, therefore, depends on the consistency of the extension with existing brand beliefs (Loken and John 1993). Research examining the role of brand personality on brand extensions is scarce. One exception is work by Diamantopoulos, Smith, and Grime (2005) that utilized Aaker's (1997) five-factor brand personality scale to investigate the impact of brand extensions on perceptions of brand personality. Their results suggest firms can introduce an extension for a high-quality brand without fear of adversely affecting the core brand's personality, irrespective of fit. Yet no research we know of has looked the other way, exploring how brand personality, more specifically the perceived malleability of a brand's traits, affects how consumers respond to a brand extension. This research examines this topic directly by investigating the impact of implicit theories of the self on perceptions of the malleability of a brand, its ability to adapt, and thus how favorably brand extensions are regarded.

In study 1, we manipulate people's implicit theories of the self utilizing the generalized trait manipulation used in social psychological research. We find evidence suggesting that one's implicit theory of the self applies to brand personality such that, the more malleable one sees an individual's traits, the more likely they are to see a brand as being malleable, reflected in the endorsement of a greater number of brand extensions. The results provide evidence that a brand's traits can be affected by implicit theories with regards to the fixedness or malleability of one's traits.

Study 2 explores the process by which implicit theories affect their perceptions of brand extendibility. We test two alternate explanations as to why incremental theorists are more accepting of extensions for a brand. The first explanation involves the brand-specific associations called to mind within each group. Thus, we'd expect the greater the number of associations generated, the greater the likelihood of a persuasive connection. We would expect incremental theorists to generate more brand-specific associations as they are more likely to be creative in the face of difficulty or unfamiliar situations. The second possibility is that implicit theories do not affect the generation of associations, *per se*, but instead manifest only in the judgments of existing, activated associations. Study 2 provides support for the explanation that implicit theories of the self affect the number of associations judged as acceptable, not the number of acceptable associations generated.

This suggests that when consumers reject a brand extension, it is likely that they understand the connection, yet reject it as being beyond the traits of the parent. Studies 1 and 2 demonstrate that incremental theorists see brands as more malleable and are more accepting of brand extensions. It is important to point out that incremental theorists appear to have limits with regard to how malleable they perceive a parent brand to be. Incremental theorists did not choose all five extensions as acceptable nor did they find all ten uses of a brick acceptable.

Study 3 sets out to explore what happens when peoples' implicit theories are violated. To this end, rather than having respondents make choices that are consistent with their theories, we measure their reactions to a company's choices, represented by brand extension scenarios that may or may not violate their implicit theories. Plaks, Grant, and Dweck (2005) have found that implicit theory violation creates a "warm state," wherein individuals are motivated to protect their activated theory in the face of disconfirming evidence. Violations should therefore engender negative attitudes towards the extension that goes too far, as attempts to maintain cognitive consistency between a parent brand and its extension are thwarted. Although incremental theorists are more willing to stretch a brand's traits than entity theorists, we've seen evidence in the first two studies that incremental theorists will not stretch traits indefinitely and too far of a stretch should violate their implicit theory. Thus, study 3 examines the differential boundaries and what happens when implicit theories are violated for each group.

This research may shed light on consumer innovativeness as people's product adoption tendency is a factor considered to impact brand extension evaluation (Klink and Smith, 2001). Early adopters have been shown to be less sensitive to risk, with the implication being that perceived fit is less important in their evaluation of the extension, as compared to evaluations made by late adopters. In fact, it may not be a risk argument at all, but early adopters may simply have a more malleable view of traits, and therefore are more accepting of brand extensions. The impact of implicit theories on new product development, concept testing and brand extensions, seems ripe for future work.

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The Broad Embrace of Luxury:
The Influence of Luxury Cues on Brand Extendibility

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Luxury branding is an issue of increasing importance for marketing practitioners and academics. Some argue that the luxury industry epitomizes the phrase “marketing is everything” (Beverland, 2004) and that it therefore should represent a unique area of interest for research in marketing. A report from Research and Markets (2006) estimated that the total U.S. luxury market had reached \$1,002.2 billion in 2005, up 11.6% from \$898 billion in 2004. However, if one includes what Silverstein and Fiske (2003) conceptualize as the “new luxury” market, these figures represent perhaps only a fraction of the actual size of the U.S. luxury market. With this conceptualization the luxury market is not restricted to conventional luxury goods such as diamonds, furs and expensive cars, but may include any products at the top of their category from sandwiches to body washes. “New luxury” products are premium goods that connect with consumers on an emotional level, thus a luxury brand concept may extend to a variety of product categories. This introduces new questions for research on luxury and the influence of a luxury brand concept on brand evaluation and brand extendibility.

Reddy and Terblanche (2005), observing marketplace trends, argue that symbolic brands appear to be more easily extendible than functional brands and can succeed in diverse categories when consistently promoting their core symbolic attributes. A study by Park, Milberg, and Lawson (1991) also suggests that prestige brands may be more extendible to product categories with low feature similarity than are functional brands. However, no systematic research has been conducted to investigate the questions of *whether*, *when*, and *why* a luxury brand concept is more extendible than a non-luxury (value) brand concept. This forms the focus of the current research, where we assert that luxury brands can extend to a broad variety of categories due to the hedonic perceptions evoked by the luxury brand concept. Integrating the rich stream of branding research with the relatively nascent stream of research in luxury, we present a set of four studies that focus on how a luxury (vs. value) brand concept influences brand evaluation and brand extension evaluations. We then extend this research to focus on the use of visual art as a luxury cue and examine its influence on brand extendibility.

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Measuring negative emotions to brands.
Implications for brand strategy

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While it is possible for consumers to like or even love some brands, have an emotional attachment to or in any case generally positive feelings toward them, at the same time, it is also true that consumers can feel neutral about other brands, and, in certain cases, express negative feelings, such as hate, dislike, discontent, anger, etc.

Marketing scholars have only recently started studying emotions evoked by marketing stimuli: Derbaix (1995) and Edson Escalas and Stern (2003) for advertising; Laros and Steenkamp (2005) and Dube et al. (2003) for product attributes; Zeelenberg and Pieters (1999), Menon and Dubé (2004), Bougie et al. (2003), Zeelenberg and Pieters (2004) for service failures. Brands have also been considered (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Whang et al., 2004; Thomson et al., 2005; Fournier & Mick, 1999; Fournier, 1998; Oliver et al., 1997).

Focusing on brands, the research available on negative emotional reactions to them is significantly limited, especially in comparison to that conducted on those positive. The almost exclusive focus on brand dissatisfaction on the negative side is counterbalanced by a wide range of positive emotions explored in relation to brands (e.g., brand love, brand attachment, brand passion, brand satisfaction, brand delight)

The aims of our general research project are to better understand negative emotions toward brands, develop a measurement scale for these emotions and identify their main antecedent states and subsequent consequences.

Existing research on general negative responses towards brands and their related behaviour is fragmented, however, it is possible to distinguish the following research streams: “whys” of negative responses toward a brand; negative emotions in brand research. The first stream of research could be followed considering the possible antecedents of negative responses toward a brand (see Dalli et al., 2006, for review and exploratory evidence). Negative emotions in brand research have been approached from several perspectives. Negative emotions can be conceptualized as *general dimension (valence-based approach)*, like negative affect (Watson and Tellegen, 1985), but recently there has also been a rise in interest in more specific emotions (*specific emotion approach*). The importance of taking into account differences across emotions of the

same valence induces us to use “specific emotion approach” as our organizing framework for looking at negative emotions to brands. Until now, this approach has been used in consumer and marketing research analysing particular patterns of cognitive appraisals (e.g., Nyer, 1997; Ruth et al., 2002) and specific consequences of different emotions (e.g., Bougie et al., 2003; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). The central construct in this field is that of dissatisfaction as a key emotion toward the brand that follows as an outcome of product/service purchase. However, as observed by Bagozzi et al. (1999, p. 201), the centrality of satisfaction/dissatisfaction in marketing and consumer behaviour studies is perhaps more due to being the first emotion to receive attention than to constituting a unique, fundamental construct in and of itself.

Given these premises, we consider the investigation of specific negative emotions to brands as an area presenting interesting opportunities for future research. Richins (1997), in recognizing the limitation of the emotions measures available for the analysis of consumption-related emotions (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Aaker et al., 1988; Batra & Holbrook, 1990; Edell & Burke, 1987; Izard, 1977; Havlena & Holbrook, 1986) introduces the CES (Consumption Emotion Set) that can be regarded as the starting point for adequately representing consumer emotional reactions to most consumption experience. The CES aims for a relatively broad, but not exhaustive coverage of consumption emotion states. Additional research may be required to create a specific set of descriptors that can be useful in assessing specific negative emotional reactions toward a brand, as specified above. Indeed, we may find that certain emotion states excluded from the CES prove to be important for our research goal, and equally, that a number of those included are likely to be irrelevant for the phenomenon studied.

The empirical work described below, currently in progress, is motivated by the desire to identify this appropriate measure that covers the range of most frequently experienced negative emotions to brands.

The purpose of Study 1 was to identify a preliminary set of descriptors of negative emotions consumers experience toward a brand. We asked 120 students enrolled in several different undergraduate and graduate schools to identify a brand capable of generating negative emotional responses. Participants then completed a survey composed of 106 negative emotion descriptors¹. Respondents used a 7-point rating scale, ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (very much), to describe the extent to which the identified brand makes them feel each of the 106 emotion descriptors. In order to control for possible order effects, two versions of the questionnaire were prepared: one with emotion descriptors in alphabetical order and the other in reverse. The negative emotion descriptors were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using an oblique rotation. Based on our sample size, any item with a factor loading greater than 0,50 (Hair et al., 1998) and with a mean rating over 2 was assumed to have significance. Nine different factors

¹ The emotion descriptor set covers the range of negative emotions identified by scholars (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Ortony et al., 1987; Ben Ze'ev, 2000; Izard, 1977; and other scales available on negative affect and emotions) as well as by respondents in an exploratory study (Dalli et al., 2006). These negative emotion descriptors have been collected in English, since the literature on this topic is essentially US based. These items were then translated in Italian by three researchers with long fluency in English and competence in the field, a British English teacher working at the University of Pisa, and an official translator.

were identified containing 36 negative emotion descriptors. The explained variance was 70,41%.

The purpose of Study 2 is to further reduce the negative emotion descriptors identified in Study 1. We asked 297 undergraduate students in two different Business School in Italy to identify a brand capable of generating negative emotional responses and then indicate which of the 36 emotion descriptors describe their feelings using the same 7-point rating scale. In order to control for possible order effects, also in this case two versions of the questionnaire were prepared: one with emotion descriptors in alphabetical order and the other in reverse. The negative emotion descriptors were subjected to exploratory factor analysis using an oblique rotation. Even in this case, we rejected items that had mean ratings below 2. The final set of items reflected a six-factor solution (factors were labelled Anger, Sadness, Disgust, Discontent, Embarrassment and Fear) containing 17 negative emotion descriptors. The explained variance was 75.53%. The alpha reliability coefficient score for the global BNE scale, obtained by averaging scores on each factor, was adequate (0.743). With Study 2 three factors disappear, the six factors that remain confirm the findings of Study 1. The correlations between dimensions were all positive and significant.

Study 3 was designed to confirm the stability of the BNE scale and to assess the relation among the six factors as first order factor underlying the brand negative emotion construct. We asked 479 ordinary consumers (selected from three different towns in Italy -Pisa, Sassari, Modena- and equally distributed in terms of gender and age classes) to think about a brand to which they had “negative emotions” and to complete the 17 item BNE scale with this brand in mind. Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient for the BNE scale was 0.77.

To assess the relation of the scale items to the BNE construct, we used structural equation modelling (using Lisrel) and conducted a set of confirmatory factor analyses corresponding to three models (Fig.1). *Model 1* assumes that all 17 items load directly onto a single latent BNE construct. *Model 2* assumes six equally weighted first-order latent factors (Anger, Sadness, Disgust, Discontent, Embarrassment, Fear) reflecting a single second-order factor (BNE) with no correlations permitted among the first-order latent factors. *Model 3* is similar to Model 2 except that the first-order factors are modelled as correlated². All three models show that each path is positive and significant, suggesting that each indicator contributes to the BNE construct directly (Model 1) or to the first-order factors which are themselves significantly tied to BNE construct (Models 2 and 3). The fit statistics of each model were subsequently examined to assess which model best fits the data. The first model is the worst, the second and the third models are better because each possesses Chi2/df statistics below 5 and adequate GFI, AGFI, NFI, RFI, CFI and RMSEA statistics (see Figure 1). However the chi-square statistics that explicitly compare models suggest that Model 3 is significantly better than Model 2 (Model 3 - Chi2: 253.44, Chi2/df: 2.4) (Model 2 - Chi2: 460.71, Chi2/df: 3.8). In addition, the average variance extracted for all constructs in Model 3 was greater than

² This model tests the notion that the six dimensions can be conceptualized as interrelated first order factors loading onto a global BNE latent construct.

0.50 (Sadness: 0.52; Anger: 0.59; Discontent: 0.72; Disgust: 0.72; Embarrassment: 0.59; Fear: 0.57). Model 3 holds that Anger, Sadness, Disgust, Discontent, Embarrassment and Fear are six nonorthogonal first-order factors that correspond with a higher order BNE construct.

Figure 1 – Study 3: Confirmatory factor analyses

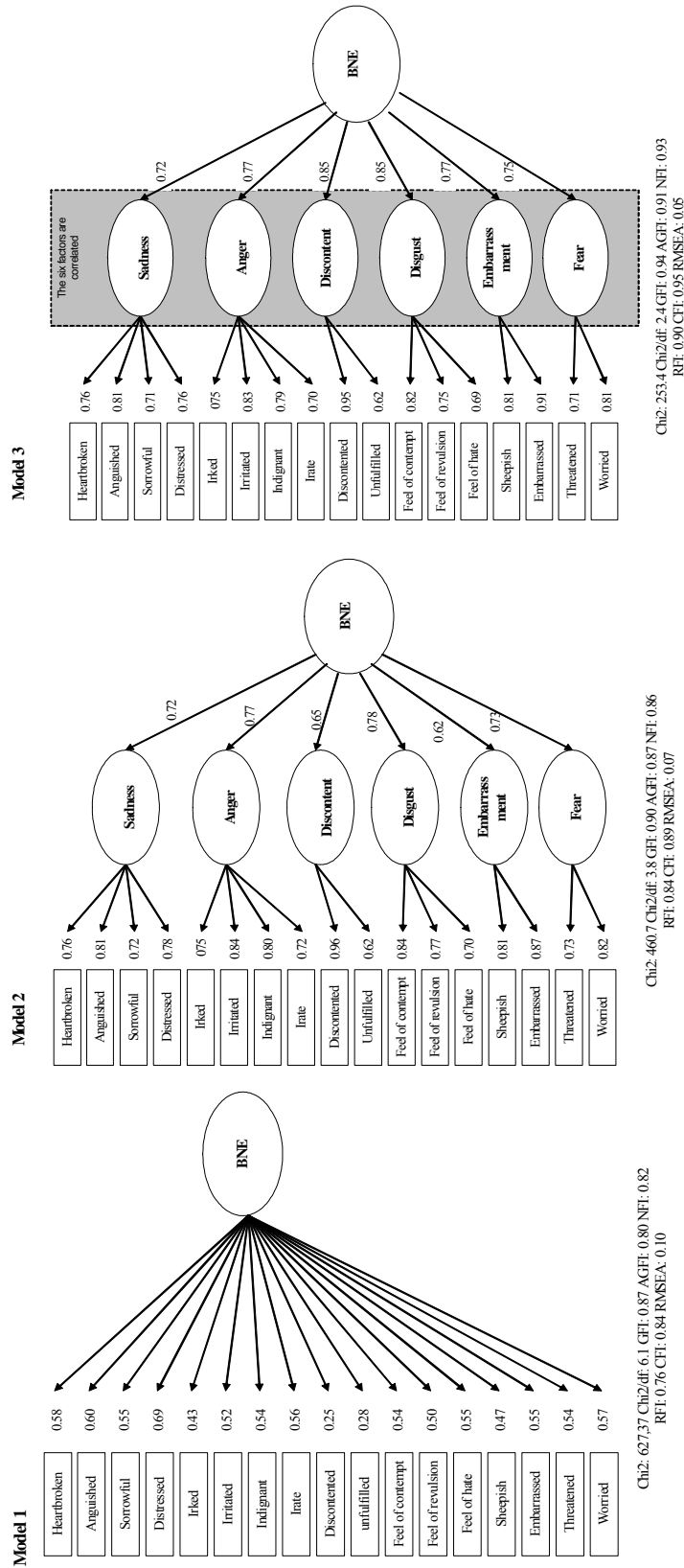


FIGURE 1 - Confirmatory factor analyses comparing three models of BNE. Model 1 assumes that all items load on a single BNE construct. Model 2 assumes six uncorrelated first-order factors reflecting a second-order BNE construct. Model 3 assumes six correlated first-order factors reflecting a second-order BNE construct. All coefficient values appear above the associated path (all standardized).

Further researches are planned with several objectives: (1) to show that our scale is empirically related, but differentiated from similar constructs (e.g. negative attitude, dissatisfaction); (2) to show that variations in BNE scores, and especially in the six factors, correspond in theoretically consistent ways to outcomes measures of negative behavioural responses (e.g. brand switching, desire for retaliation, complaining, negative word of mouth, boycotting). Data will be collected from a nationally representative sample of Italian consumers to address issues of generalizability and external validity.

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Images of Cities: Relating Experience to Perception of Brand

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Tourism is a popular topic in the study of consumer behavior (Kolb, 2006; Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). Both destination branding (Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2004) and flagship developments (Smyth, 1994) are offered as solutions for cities or geographic regions that are seeking to highlight positive geographic characteristics or changes in urban images to encourage tourism. Smith (2006) noted, however, that assessments based upon tourist perceptions are incomplete because visitors are likely to have varied experiences both with the marketing campaign and the urban setting when they actually visit the city. He also mentioned that longitudinal studies are rarely conducted—another shortcoming in tourism research.

Perceptions play a significant role in the marketing of images, as Marconi (1996) noted in relation to services provided by legal or medical professionals and McLeish (1995) regarding nonprofit organizations. Lynch, in his classic work *The Image of the City* (1960), identified meaningfulness as the evaluative—or desirability—component in perceptions of cities. This is more than just the visual appearance or map of a place because it includes symbols and mental representations expressed through language. Ratings on sets of bipolar adjectives can be a valuable tool in assessing this aspect of brand images for cities (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993). However, as Nasar (1998) pointed out, seldom does urban research explore at any depth the length or place of residence in relation to these evaluative aspects of urban images.

This research explores the connection between residence and images of cities. It also proposes several theoretical interpretations for images of cities based upon consumer psychology.

Method

Two studies conducted by the author over a 30-year period serve as the foundation for this analysis. Both projects involved cities ranging in population from 100,000 to 500,000. The first study compared images of residents in 5 cities all located within southern Ontario, Canada (Hansvick, 1978). Residents registered primarily in continuing education or summer courses at higher education institutions within each of the 5 cities were tested ($N = 530$). The mean age was 27.3 years and average length of time residing in or near the city was 15.0 years.

The second study ($N = 2291$) explored images for one city (population = approximately 250,000) in the Pacific Northwest—comparing perceptions based upon

length of residence ($M = 20.0$ years), distance of residence from downtown (coded into 3 concentric circles based upon distance from city center), type of sample (e.g., member of one of the 6 local Chambers of Commerce or an employee in one of the 12 largest local firms), and age of the respondent ($M = 39.2$ years). A follow-up study targeting the same population using a slightly modified survey is currently underway.

Before completing any of the rating scales, residents in both studies were asked *what color comes to mind when you think of (city name here)?* They then rated their own cities on 25 bipolar descriptive adjective pairs (e.g., *friendly-unfriendly*, *unsafe-safe*) using a 6-point scale.

Results

The most important finding from the first study was that the 2 cities rated more *industrial* were also rated more *dirty* and *smelly*. Conversely, the 3 cities rated more *commercial* were also rated *clean* and *fresh*. Discriminant function analysis of the descriptors yielded a single desirability factor that accounted for 81.4% of the variance, with the cities perceived as more industrial being rated as less desirable overall. Figure 1 illustrates the mean ratings for these clusters on the adjective pairs. Also important was the finding that those residents who said they preferred to move elsewhere rated their own cities significantly different than those who did not indicate they preferred to move on 16 of the 25 adjective pairs and 10 of the 11 environmental features.

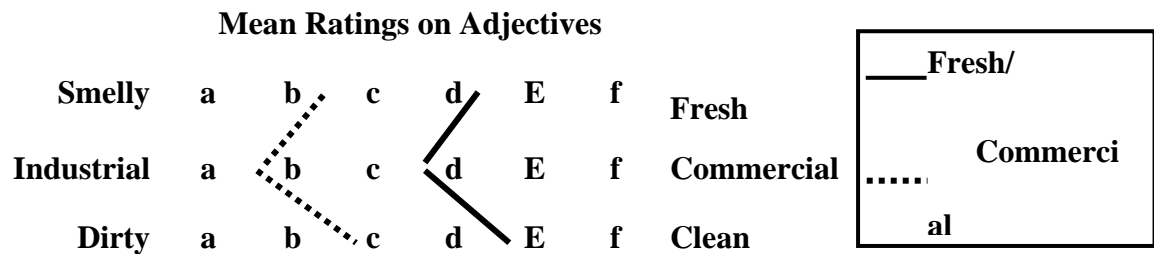


Figure 1. Mean Ratings on Descriptive Adjective Pairs for City Clusters. Study 1.

Colors associated with each city varied with the ratings used to describe the city. In the first study, the cities rated as *industrial-smelly-dirty* were typically ascribed colors such as black, gray, or red, while hues of green or blue were associated with cities rated as more *commercial-fresh-clean*.

The second study extended understanding of these color associations, as well as of the ratings on adjective pairs. Overall, the same *industrial-smelly-dirty* cluster of ratings occurred, but differences in ratings among the residents also emerged. As shown in Figure 2, ratings on the adjective pairs differed significantly in conjunction with the colors these same residents associated with the city. There was a clear dichotomy in the colors associated with the city, with 46.8% of the sample identified either gray or brown

with the city while another 43.1% thought of green or blue for the same city. Length of time living in or near the city led to another significant difference for color associations, with those in the area 30 years or longer the most likely to use either blue or green as a color for the city. Those living in the area less than 10 years choose gray 45.0% of the time.

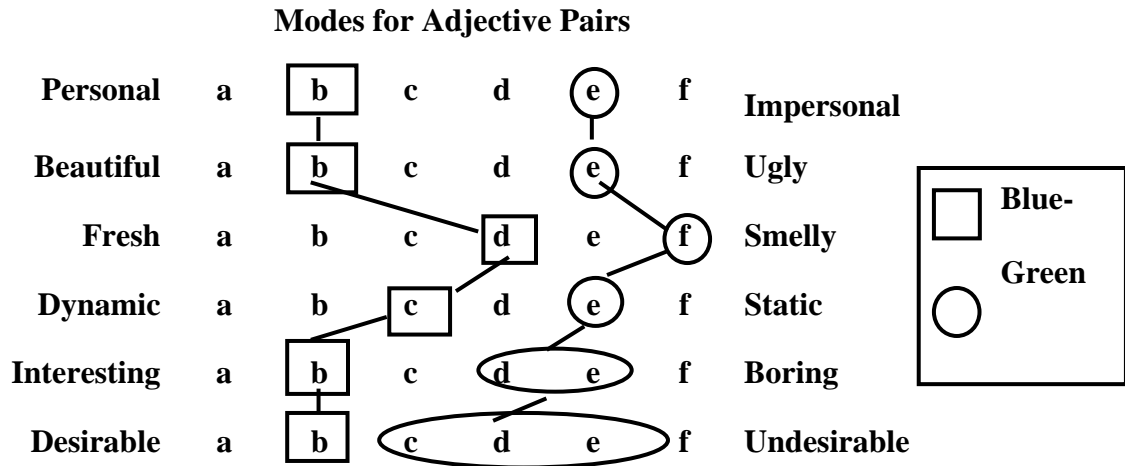


Figure 2. Modes for Select Adjective Pairs based upon Color Association. Study 2.

Place of residence played a significant role in ratings on the adjective pairs, with the highest number of significant differences in adjective ratings occurring for place of residence. Twenty-one of the 25 adjective pairs were rated differently based upon the participant's place of residence. In general, the people who lived closer to the downtown area also rated the city as having changed more in the past 5 years and perceived the changes as desirable ones.

Discussion

The images that emerged from ratings on descriptive adjective pairs in this research reflect meaningful representations of the “city of the mind” for the residents in an area. There were also consistencies in associations of industrialization-commercialization with color for each city. The centrality of industrial-commercial as a descriptive pair for the city suggests it is an important defining characteristic for a city. This supports Schmitt (2006), who emphasized that consumer experiences are affective and holistic in nature. Boush and Jones (2006) had suggested that meaningfulness of brand images extends to the colors or sounds associated with the product; the findings here also support such a conclusion for images of cities.

Relating experience to perceptions of a city involves both the central and peripheral routes to information processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). The peripheral route for information processing is exemplified by reliance upon geographical and

architectural features, especially in the images of non-residents. Wayfinding maps and the visibility of tall or new buildings along the major thoroughfares fit with this structural or spatial (Lynch, 1960) component of urban images. For residents, however, the visual aspects of the urban image may recede in importance. Indeed, long-time residents may habituate to the stimuli serving as the basis for perceptions of non-residents; instead, the experiences that make up their everyday lives dominate. Residents should be more aware of the utilitarian or benefit functions of local events and places, as they have had to learn how and where to go to obtain goods and services. Long-term locals will also be more alert to smaller scale changes (e.g., new paint on a neighbor's house, a local store changing ownership), as well as being more familiar with a variety of districts, attractions, or neighborhoods within the city. These all suggest a more central route to information processing for residents. Differences in information processing may be a reason for the discrepancy in images, but it is an important issue to address. Beinert (2001) has suggested that those promoting cities will be at a disadvantage when differences in images exist for residents and non-residents.

Cognitive dissonance theory may also be relevant to interpretation of the images of cities that emerged in this research. Residents in the first study who would have preferred to move elsewhere used less positive ratings than other residents in the same cities. In addition, in the second study, negative ratings were more likely for those who had lived in the area less time. Of course, restless or dissatisfied residents may leave, so that it is the longer-term residents who remain that rate the city more positively. Or, perhaps residents change their perceptions with longer stays in the area, becoming more positive about the city because they take the time to seek out positive experiences within the community (e.g., becoming familiar with the parks, joining community organizations). This would suggest that the evaluative component of urban images is more dependent upon the characteristics of the person doing the evaluation than upon external criteria. Such a conclusion supports the suggestion by de Monchaux (2001) that the problem with quality of life rating schemas popular in numerous magazines is that the residents are not the ones who rate or rank the places. The criteria are developed and promoted by external "objective" experts.

Several challenges are suggested by this research. First, branding cities by highlighting positive changes in urban settings requires recognizing differences between images of residents and non-residents. The experience of living in the city is, indeed, different than that of merely "passing through." Another significant challenge is that of enhancing meaningfulness—with all its nonverbal and symbolic components—by making more than merely visually appealing changes to the physical, architectural (i.e., structural) components of the city. This is necessary because residents can be a resource, creating positive word-of-mouth, which is of great value when they interact with the non-resident tourists or visitors, but residents' perceptions may also be more unchangeable. The next study in this series will examine these issues further.

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Perceived Entitativity of Family Brands

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Research in social cognition has recently paid a considerable amount of attentions to the influence of perceived entitativity on the impression formation of social groups. The concept of perceived entitativity was also just implemented to the research domain in family brand evaluations. Research results indicate that high (vs. low) entitative family brands are more favourably evaluated, and perceived entitativity yields asymmetric reciprocal effects on family brand evaluations, which parallel to the result of group perceptions in social cognition. As categorization is the basis of stereotyping and judgments, the research results also suggest that, as with social groups, family brands with various perceived entitativity are categorized differently, which leads to the asymmetric reciprocal effect on family brand evaluations. Therefore, this research is to examine the applicability of the eight entitativity measures in group perceptions for family brand evaluations.

Eight measures of perceived entitativity including interaction, importance, outcomes, goals, similarity, duration, size, and permeability are utilized to cluster 40 prominent family brands (e.g., Coca-Cola, Microsoft, IBM, etc.) selected from the Top 100 Global Brands of BusinessWeek 2006. Around 200 students (valid samples) are to be invited to answer computer-adopted questionnaires in laboratory settings. Correlation analysis, factor analyses, regression analysis, cluster analysis, and multidimensional scaling (MDS) are to be performed to determine appropriate measures, and form dimensions, of perceived entitativity for the categorization of family brands. As with social groups, it is expected that the majority of the antecedents are valid determinants for the perceived entitativity of family brands, except for the antecedent of permeability.

What Have You Done for Me Lately? The Effect of Gender on Gay Consumers' Perceptions of Gay-Friendliness

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Numerous commercial studies have claimed that gay consumers are more loyal to gay-friendly companies. In a recent nationwide study, 70% gay respondents say they are extremely or very likely to consider a brand that is known to provide equal workplace benefits for all of their employees, including gays and lesbians. Half of gay respondents also report they are extremely or very likely to consider brands that support nonprofits and/or causes that are important to them. Each year, the Human Rights Campaign's Corporate Equality Index rates companies on a scale from zero to 100 based on their treatment of GLBT workers, customers and investors. However, little is known about how gay customers perceive the gay-friendliness of companies and what factors may influence their perceptions.

Researchers in the social sciences have suggested that males and females identify differently as gay, with gay males holding a more sexual identity while lesbians identify more socio-politically (Rich, 1980; Eliason 1996). However, as has been common practice in corporations' treatment of the gay market, no consideration has been made for how gender, and its differential effect on gay identity, may affect how gay consumers evaluate the gay-friendliness of a brand. Additionally, consumer researchers have yet to examine the influence that gender may have on gay consumers perceptions of the gay-friendliness of a brand.

In a study of 395 gay and lesbian consumers in the US and Canada, representing the largest sample of gay consumers in academic research to date, we examine the effect of gender on the importance that gay consumers place on various dimensions of gay-friendliness and on their evaluations of the gay-friendliness of a brand.

Using Tuten's (2006) conceptualization of gay-friendliness, we examine the importance placed by gay males and lesbians on five gay-oriented corporate activities – (i) domestic partner benefits, (ii) corporate support of gay organizations and social causes, (iii) ads in gay media, (iv) gay-oriented ads in gay media, (v) gay-oriented ads in mainstream media.

While we find that lesbians consider all gay-oriented activities to be more important than do men, as hypothesized due to the more socio-political nature of lesbian identity, we find that lesbians appear to place significantly more importance on non-advertising-related activities than do gay men. Additionally, media placement appears to play a much stronger role for gay males than it for lesbians in determining a company's

gay-friendliness. While lesbians consider gay advertising in mainstream media to be equally as important as advertising in gay media, gay males consider advertising in gay media to be more important than gay advertising in mainstream media.

Additionally, our results indicate that gender plays a moderating role in gay consumers' perceptions of the likelihood that a company would be involved in gay-friendly activities. Interestingly, while lesbians consider all gay-oriented marketing activities to be more important to their consideration of a corporation's gay-friendliness than do gay males, when asked about the Starbucks brand, they generally perceived the company to be less likely to engage in all gay-oriented marketing activities than did gay males. Once again, a significant gender difference was found in lesbians' and gay males' perceptions that companies would be involved in all non-advertising related gay-oriented activities. Gay males perceive Starbucks to be significantly more involved in non-advertising activities than do lesbians.

Celebrity Endorsement in Women's Magazines: Evidence of a Corporate Social Responsibility Concern

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Atkins & Block (1989) ascertain that the audience will evaluate both the advertisements and the image of the product advertised more favourably when celebrities are used to endorse products. A celebrity endorser is "*any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition on behalf of a consumer good by appearing with it in an advertisement*" (McCracken, 1989, p. 310). Celebrity endorsements can: enhance consumers' recall of the products and brand names (Friedman & Friedman, 1979); increase credibility of the advertisements and stimulate a positive attitude towards the product or brand among a targeted consumer base (Kamins, Brand, Hoeke & Moe, 1989; Goldsmith, Lafferty & Newell, 2000); and influence the profitability of endorsed products by producing above-average sales and profits, resulting in declines in growth in sales and profits of competitors (Mathur, Mathur & Rangan, 1997).

Similarity, likeability and physical attractiveness are three source features that advertisers look for when selecting a celebrity endorser. If an advertisement is delivered by an endorser who shares similar needs, goals, interest and lifestyles with the audience, the message is easier for the audience to understand and accept (Kelman, 1961). Source credibility (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Kahle & Homer, 1985), and source attractiveness (Kamins et al. 1989; Bower & Landreth, 2001) predict celebrity endorsement effectiveness. The credibility of endorsers is affected by the match between endorsers and the products. McCracken (1989) developed a "meaning transfer process" model to elucidate the ways in which meanings can be transferred from celebrity endorsers to the brands. As through the meaning transfer process "*the meanings associated with the celebrity become associated with the product in the mind of the consumer and the consumer acquires the meaning in the product through consumption*" (Gwinner, 1997, p.147). Choi, Lee & Kim (2005) argue there must be a meaningful relationship or match up between the celebrity, the audience and the product known as the "match up hypothesis" (Kahle & Homer, 1985).

Advertisements are more effective when the dominant characteristics of the celebrity's image and the product's purpose are congruent (Kahle & Hommer, 1985; Kamins, 1990). If the source is considered as expert and trustworthy, it is more likely to persuade the audience (Belch & Belch, 2001). Erdogan, Baker & Tagg (2001) found the importance of a celebrity's characteristics (trustworthiness, expertise, physical attractiveness, familiarity, and likeability) varies according to product type. Further, they argue "*Match-up Hypothesis research may have to extend beyond attractiveness and credibility toward a consideration and matching of the entire image of the celebrity with the endorsed brand and the target audience*" (Erdogan et al., 2001, p.41).

Given this plethora of research, it is unsurprising that between 1979 and 2004, the use of celebrity endorsers in advertisements increased from 15 percent to approximately 25% of all advertisements in the USA, and roughly 70% of advertisements in Japan (Hsu & McDonald, 2002; Silvera & Austad, 2004). Is there a downside however to the use of celebrity endorsers? When a celebrity is known for a particular role or kind of role might certain roles present corporate social responsibility (CSR) concerns. Hopkins defines CSR as being “*concerned with treating the stakeholders of the firm ethically or in a socially responsible manner. Stakeholders exist both within a firm and outside. The aim of social responsibility is to create higher and higher standards of living, while preserving the profitability of the corporation, for its stakeholders both within and outside the corporation*” (Hopkins, 2005, p214). One proposition is that the corporation's only responsibility is to maximize profits for shareholders, and that corporate responsibility runs counter to the philosophy of free enterprise. Proponents of CSR, however, argue that preoccupation with short-term financial returns results in profit loss over the long term, and that corporations ultimately succeed or fail on the basis of public trust and support. For them CSR adds value to and is in the interest of the business (Morton, 2003). What is clear is that companies can no longer afford to ignore CSR as it helps integrate companies into the social environment of communities by developing bonds between the organization, its employees and the local citizens. It helps a company build reputational capital (Briggs & Verma, 2006). Given this it is surprising that there is a paucity of research in relation to advertising and CSR, especially in relation to celebrity endorsed advertisements.

This study addresses this omission by analysing the prevalence (extent and frequency) of celebrity endorsed advertisements in women's magazines, the characteristics of the celebrity endorsers and the products that they endorse. Further it explores what is signified in their use by asking consumers about the meanings conveyed to answer the question “Are advertisers and their brands being socially responsible in the messages they convey to sell their products?” Specifically it addresses the messages, values and themes being conveyed by celebrity endorsement, comments on the implications of what is being signified and considers if there are corporate social responsibility concerns in the use of celebrity endorsers.

Nine monthly UK women's magazines published in July 2006 were randomly chosen for inclusion in the study: Vogue, Instyle, Cosmopolitan, Red, Eve, She, Marie Claire, Easy Living, and Company. The prevalence and nature of all advertising was systematically observed, recorded and quantified. Content analyses of these observations enabled product categories to be devised for all advertisements in order to identify the prevalence of celebrity endorsed advertisements within product categories. The most frequently deployed celebrity endorser was identified and a questionnaire devised using both closed and open questions to survey consumers as to the meanings signified by this celebrity's photograph. The questionnaire data were analysed using SPSS and content analyses for the open questions comparing descriptions for those who knew her with those who did not.

Celebrity endorsers were only found in advertisements of one page and over. Per monthly women's magazine, the average number of pages is 250, including 100 pages of adverts of whom 83 are of 1 page and over, while the average number of advertisements is 159 with 47% (N=67) being of 1 page and over. Across all magazines 606 1 page and over advertisements were found and eight product categories identified: fashion (bags/clothes/sunglasses/jewels/watches), beauty (make up/ skin care), perfume, hair products (shampoo/conditioner/ hair styling/ hair dyes), toiletries (shower gel/ toothpaste/ antiperspirant), foods (water/chocolate/alcohol), cars and consumer products (contact lenses/ cameras/ condom/ mobile phones/others) Some product types (bags/clothes/sunglasses/jewels) and product categories toiletries (shower gel/ toothpaste/ antiperspirant), foods (water/chocolate/alcohol), cars and consumer products (contact lenses/ cameras/ condom/ mobile phones/others) were dropped from further analyses at this point because they did not have celebrity endorsers.

Only 56 advertisements contained celebrity endorsers. Comparing advertisement type totals with those celebrity endorsed, hair dyes have the highest proportion of celebrity endorsements (45.45 %) followed by advertisements for shampoo/conditioner (25.71%), skin care (24.47%), make up (21.57%), hair styling (17.39%) watches (15.38%) and perfume only 5.71%. Forty-two of the celebrity endorsed advertisements fall under the L'Oreal corporation's remit with 23 of these advertisements being for skincare (Perfectslim = 9, Nutrisummer =5, Sublime Bronze =3, Solar =2, Collagen Filler =2, Revitalift =1, Pure Zone =1), 9 for hair conditioners (Elvive Anti-breakage =6, Elvive Nutrigloss =3), 2 for hairspray (Elvive Elnett), 5 for hair dye (Recital Preference =3, Couleur Experte =2) and 3 for make-up (Volume Shocking Mascara). Maybelline feature their Moisture Extreme Lipstick 6 times, Revlon their Fabulash twice as do Tissot their T+ watch and Softsheen. Carson their Dark & Lovely hair relaxer. Dior and Givenchy feature once each with their J'adore and Very, Irresistable perfumes respectively.

Of the 56 advertisements, 41 feature actors/actresses (73.21%), 13 employ models (23.21%), and two employ a singer as an endorser (3.56%). Thirty-two (57.14%) employ celebrities between 30 ~ 39; 21 (37.50%) feature celebrities age 20 ~ 29; and only 3 (5.36%) employ celebrities age over 39. Twenty-two feature American celebrities (39.29%), 21 employ European (37.5%), and nine Asian (16.07%). No UK celebrity endorser featured in the 9 randomly selected magazines. In terms of race/ethnicity, 24 of 56 advertisements (42.85%) employ White celebrities; 19 (33.93%) feature Hispanic celebrities; 6 (10.71%) a Chinese endorser; 4 (7.14%) spotlight Black celebrities and 3 (5.36%) employ an Indian celebrity. This suggests that the target audience as a whole is believed by advertisers to identify more strongly with and/or admire the characteristics of the American or European white women.

Most (N=10) of the 14 celebrities identified only endorse one type of product. Eva Longoria (skincare and hair dye), Penelope Cruz (shampoo/conditioner and hair styling), Charlize Theron (perfume and hair dye) and Laetitia Casta (skincare and shampoo/conditioner) endorse two types of products. Charlize Theron is the only

celebrity to endorse 2 different brands (L’Oreal and Dior). Only Eva Longoria, Penelope Cruz, Laetitia Casta, and Scarlett Johansson appear more than once in same magazine. Celebrity endorsers are associated with particular brands which appear to match their personal characteristics. The petite and slim Eva Longoria is associated with Perfectslim, a body skincare cream to help get rid of cellulite while the fair skinned Claudia Schiffer is associated with Solar the anti-ageing suncare cream and the oldest celebrity endorser Andie McDowell with Revitalift skin care cream for ageing skin. Their physical characteristics “match” the products they endorse so “transferring associative meaning”. As such they have “source credibility” and “source attractiveness”, however, it could be argued that for the actresses their “source credibility” and “source attractiveness” to consumers is as much from the roles they play rather than who they are and their physical characteristics.

Eva Longoria, the actress, is the only celebrity to feature in all 9 magazines so she was chosen for survey purposes. Women were shown a photograph of Eva Longoria. They were asked if they knew who she was, and, if yes, how they knew her. Of the 147 women randomly surveyed Eva is known for her TV character with 81% stating they only know her in her role as “Gabrielle” in the TV programme “Desperate Housewives”. “Eva” is described as “glamorous, beautiful, silky, stylish, and feminine” by those respondents who did not know who was in the photograph while those who know her as “Gabrielle” describe her as “sexy, attractive, confident, erotic, desirable, expensive, wilful, immoral, and selfish” This supports the actress’s own perspectives. In an interview in the UK weekly magazine, Now, p73 dated 20th September 2006, Eva states that “I’m definitely not like Gabrielle, but I love playing her. She has no moral boundaries.” In response to the question what does Eva most like about Gabrielle, Eva states “She does what she wants, when she wants, and how she wants to do it”.

The women surveyed who know Eva Longoria only in her role as “Gabrielle” are “transferring associative meaning” and “matching” to Gabrielle’s personality characteristics rather than Eva’s personality characteristics as this is how they “know” her. Deploying Eva Longoria in an advertisement as a celebrity endorser is likely to elicit for these individuals associations to “Gabrielle’s” personality rather than “Eva’s” personality. They simply do not know Eva’s personality. Thus advertisers and their brands have an ethical concern with regard to corporate social responsibility. While L’Oreal may be happy to match its brand Perfectslim with Eva, a successful and attractive actress, and so attract women to their product by association with her celebrity lifestyle, are they equally happy for their brand to be associated with the selfish and amoral “Gabrielle”? Moreover, have they a corporate social responsibility to their consumers and society. Are the values typified by “Gabrielle’s” personality descriptors, as opposed to those typified by Eva Longoria’s, the messages that advertisers should be sending about and to women today to sell their products? While they may argue that they wish consumers to enter into “Eva’s” celebrity life-style by using her physical and personality characteristics to sell the product they advertise, it is found here that it is actually “Gabrielle’s” life-style consumers are identifying with to sell the product advertised.

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Brand and National Culture

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This chapter reviews culture theory and how it informs brand concepts. Culture is studied in a wide variety of disciplines, each with its own theories, conceptual models and preferred methodologies. There are a number of areas in culture research that can help us to further understand brand issues in the formation of brand cultures as well as cultural differences in branding and brand concepts.

First, national culture may help us to better understand brand cultures and behaviors. National culture is a concept based upon the philosophy that national borders define distinct culture groups. Research in National culture has developed cultural value dimensions (Schwartz 1994 1997; Hofstede 1980, 2002; Triandis 1980, 1995), including probably the most studied dimension of individualism and collectivism. In addition, the following areas of cultural research are gaining attention in brand research: formation of culture groups, country of origin effects, acculturation, culture change, and global culture. These areas fall under the “values” level of the culture concept.

Research about material culture and artifacts has primarily included anthropological approaches documenting how a culture acquires goods and the meaning of the goods in the culture. Culture also encompasses communication and language. Studying research in all of these areas can help to inform our knowledge of branding.

Consumer behavior is deeply influenced by culture as is all human behavior (Craig and Douglas 2006). As a result, the influence of culture on consumer behavior toward brands has garnered increased attention and includes investigations into:

- *Perceived brand image*: Brand image and the “appropriation of the meaning of global brands to their own ends, creatively adding new cultural associations, dropping incompatible ones, and transforming others to fit into local cultural and lifestyle patterns” (see Thompson and Arsel 2004, page 631).
- *Brand cultures*: Development of brand cultures, acculturation processes, and corporate versus consumer power over the brand image (Holt, 2002, Thompson 2004).
- *Historical context of brand*: Historical brand image or meaning differs across cultures dependent upon the context of use, availability, and introduction in a culture (Hatch and Rubin 2006).

- *Perceived attribute differences*: e.g. Cultural differences in preferences of color (Brand marks and packaging) and meanings associated with color (Madden, Hewett, and Roth).
- *Perceived value differences*: e.g. Individualism-collectivism and approaches to life (differing concepts of fairness) (Kagitcibasi 1997; Triandis 1995).
- *Cross cultural differences in gender roles*: (Segall, Lonner, and Berry 1998).
- *Brand Personality Structure* (Sung and Tinkham, 2005)

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Understanding Cross-Cultural Differences in Brand Extension Evaluation: The Influence of Analytic versus Holistic Thinking

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The popularity of brand extensions has generated interest in understanding how consumers evaluate brand extensions. A number of factors have been identified that influence whether consumers will evaluate brand extensions in a favorable manner. Key among them is the degree to which a brand extension “fits” with the parent brand, which consumers judge in a variety of ways, including whether the extension is in a product class similar to other products produced by the parent brand, whether an attribute associated with the parent brand could be beneficial in the extension product class, whether prestige associated with the parent brand could transfer to the extension product category, and whether the parent brand has the requisite expertise to produce a product in the extension class (see Keller 2002). Brand extensions that are higher in perceived fit are typically evaluated more favorably than are those that are viewed as poor fits.

Despite the impressive body of research on brand extensions, little attention has been devoted to whether or not these findings apply to consumers around the globe. The vast majority of research has been conducted with American consumers, although many brands operate in a global environment and launch brand extensions across multiple countries. Consumers from different cultures might evaluate brand extensions differently, which is a distinct possibility given the number of other contexts in which cultural differences in consumer behavior have been uncovered (e.g., Aaker 2000; Aaker and Maheswaran 1997; Briley, Morris, and Simonson 2000; Kacen and Lee 2002).

How might consumers from different cultures vary in the way they evaluate brand extensions? In this paper, we explore the possibility that cultural differences exist in the way that consumers judge brand extension fit, leading to cultural differences in brand extension evaluation. To do so, we rely on recent research from cross-cultural psychology describing cultural differences in styles of thinking, with East Asian societies characterized by *holistic thinking* and Western societies characterized by *analytic thinking* (Nisbett et al. 2001). Holistic thinking involves an orientation to the context or field as a whole, whereas analytic thinking involves a detachment of the object from its context and a focus on attributes of the object. We suggest that these styles of thinking influence the way in which consumers from Eastern versus Western cultures judge brand extension fit and arrive at brand extension evaluations. Specifically, we propose that Easterners (who favor holistic thinking) perceive a higher degree of extension fit and evaluate extensions more favorably than do Westerners (who favor analytic thinking).

This proposition is tested in three experiments. The first two studies compare brand extension fit and brand extension evaluations for consumers from Western (U.S.) and Eastern (India) cultures. Cultural differences are examined for different parent brands, both real and hypothetical, and a range of brand extensions that vary in their similarity to the parent brand. We find that Easterners, who favor holistic thinking, perceive greater extension fit and evaluate extensions more highly than do Westerners, who favor analytic thinking. Additionally, we find that Easterners and Westerners generate different types of thoughts when judging brand extensions, and that these thought patterns mediate cultural differences in brand extension evaluation. A third study adds further evidence regarding the role of analytic and holistic thinking in cultural differences by comparing brand extension evaluations for Westerners, Easterners, and bicultural consumers. We find, as expected, that bicultural consumers fall midway between the two extremes, with brand extension evaluations that are more positive than Westerners but less positive than Easterners. Additionally, we find the types of thoughts generated by the bicultural sample to be a mix of Western (analytic) and Eastern (holistic) styles of thinking.

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Cultural Self-Construal and Self-Presentation

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How does the salience of cultural self-construal activate the pursuit of self-presentational goals? Several studies are presented showing that the salience of an *independent* versus *interdependent* self enhances both the tendency and the readiness to participate in distinct self-presentational tasks. When the independent self is salient, the result is self-presentations that make the self appear competent and self-reliant. When the interdependent self is salient, the result is self-presentations that make the self appear normatively appropriate and socially sensitive. Across studies, these independent vs. interdependent self-presentational patterns also emerge for national culture, ethnicity, and individual differences in cultural orientation. Additional studies show that, in evaluating products, the interdependent self is more responsive to cues such as retailer reputation that reflect upon one's social image. These distinct self-presentational patterns associated with independent versus interdependent selves have implications for the way people engage in self-presentations about their consumer choices and skills, and possibly also for their actual skills.

Using Relationship Norms to Understand Consumer-Brand Interactions

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The growing volume of research on brand personality (Aaker 1997; Plummer 1985), brand imagery (Aaker and Keller 1990), and more recently on brand relationships (Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel 2004; Fournier 1998) suggests that increasingly marketing researchers are leaning heavily on social psychology by employing the brand-as-a-person metaphor to get new insights about consumer behavior. My research extends this overall stream of work, and draws upon this interpersonal relationship metaphor in order to develop conceptual tools to better understand the nature of consumer-brand interactions.

Prior research in social psychology has distinguished between relationships that are described as exchange versus those that are communal. Exchange relationships are those in which people give benefits to others to get something back in return (the relationship is based on *quid pro quo*), while communal relationships are those in which people give benefits to others to take care of their needs (the relationship is based on concern for the others' well-being). This distinction between communal and exchange relationship norms is used to develop specific hypotheses that are tested in a variety of experimental studies.

My research proposes a theoretical and predictive framework by suggesting that when consumers form relationships with brands, they use norms underlying these relationships as a guide in their brand interactions. Norms of behavior (i.e., the socially approved, "right" way to behave) are unique to each type of social relationship and used by people to guide their judgments and evaluations of their relationship partner. Each relationship type has its own specific norms of behavior – norms of an exchange relationship are distinct from those of a communal relationship. Thus, consumers who perceive their brand relationship to be exchange-like will use exchange relationship norms as a guide, while those who perceive their brand relationship to be more communal in nature will use communal relationship norms to guide their behavior as well as to evaluate the brand.

A series of research projects examine various aspects of consumer behavior using this particular framework of relationship norms. Results show that differences in the norms of relationship influence consumers' responses depending upon whether or not the brand's action is in violation of or in conformity with the relationship norms (Aggarwal 2004). Further, relationship norms also influence the type of information consumers attend to (Aggarwal and Law 2005), the degree of loss aversion they demonstrate (Aggarwal and Zhang 2006), how they respond to unfair treatment (Aggarwal 2006) as well as their preference for self-made versus imposed choices (Aggarwal and Botti 2006). The main insight of this stream of research is that the key to understanding consumer-brand interactions is a better understanding of the norms that govern the particular consumer-brand relationship.

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Building Relationships Through Corporate Social Responsibility: The Role Of Communication

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Both marketplace polls and academic research suggest that a company's actions in the domain of corporate social responsibility (CSR) can help it build deep, meaningful connections with its consumers. This occurs, at least in part, because a company's engagement in social initiatives reveal its "values," "soul," or "character" more unequivocally than do its actions in product-related domains. Insight into these central, enduring and distinctive aspects of the company (i.e., its identity) allows consumers, under an appropriate set of company, cause and consumer-specific circumstances, to identify with the company. Such identification, in turn, triggers a set of long-term, sustained relational behaviors that are often more difficult to elicit through routine marketing actions.

A key stumbling block, however, in CSR's ability to drive deep consumer-company relationships is consumers' general lack of awareness and knowledge of the CSR actions taken by the companies they consume from. Moreover, consumers can be acutely sensitive to a company's motives in communicating such CSR information, adding to the complexity underlying the formulation of appropriate CSR communication strategies. This research draws upon extant CSR research to delineate both the conditions under which CSR can help companies build meaningful relationships with consumers and the precise nature of such relationships. It also draws, more generally, on research in the domains of CSR, communications and consumer interpretation processes to conceptualize the CSR communication process, identifying the key theoretical and practical challenges in the effective communication of such information.

The Dark Side of Attachment: Addiction

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Product attachment does not always result in a positive experience for the consumer. Some marketed products, such as cigarettes and alcohol, are highly addictive and over time can be detrimental to the health and well-being of the addicted user. Thus, it is important to ask why some people continue to engage in consumption behaviors even when they would rather quit.

According to the addiction literature, there are a number of factors that can lead to addictive consumption including social, biological, psychological and environmental. The focus of this paper is to review some of the key findings regarding the effects of environmental cues such as advertising, branding, and packaging on addicted consumers in order to better understand the importance of these cues in reinforcing addictive behaviors. These environmental cues are ubiquitous. Our review of studies shows that these cues cause a unique reaction in addicted users that nonusers do not experience. Cue reactivity theory offers an explanation for how users of addictive products respond to environmental cues. The study of cue reactivity has a long history and has been applied to a broad range of addictive behaviors including the use of illicit drugs such as cocaine, the use of legal drugs such as alcohol and nicotine, and gambling.

Cue reactivity studies measure a variety of physiological responses. Recent studies have used functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) in order to identify the neural substrates activated when addicted users are exposed to cues. In addition, cue reactivity has been investigated using both adult and adolescent populations. This paper will review the key findings from these studies.

The marketing of cigarettes and alcohol is regulated in the U.S. and elsewhere. The main goal of these regulations is to protect consumers, especially vulnerable segments such as adolescents and children, as well as those consumers whose usage patterns may be harmful. However, it is not clear whether the current regulations are adequate. This paper discusses the public policy implications of cue reactivity research and offers some future research directions.

Attachment As A Brand Building Block: Do Strong Relationships Matter?

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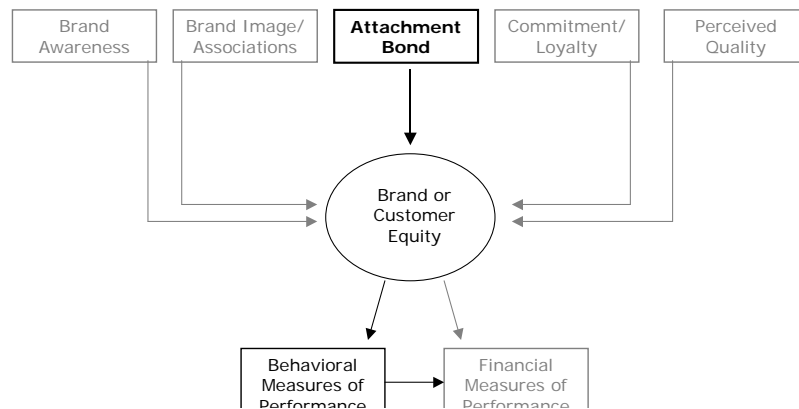
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Research acknowledges that it is imperative for firms to develop and fortify their brands but notes that existing measures of brand equity fair poorly in capturing the strength of relationships consumers have with brands (Ehrbar 2005; Rust et al. 2004). This failure emerges from a confluence of trends, including an over-reliance on financial indicators of performance, poor tracking of relationship marketing's effectiveness and a narrow focus of existing measures of brand equity (e.g. Ambler 2002; Furse et al 1994; Izquierdo, Cillán and Gutiérrez 2005; Liljander and Roos 2002; Homburg et al. 2002). This failure is also remarkable given the considerable resources that firms have invested in promoting relationships with consumers and the generally accepted view that such relationships represent a valuable asset that improves the position of firms (e.g. Sheth and Parvatiyar 1995).

In this study, we investigate if the strength of consumer-brand relationships is an important but omitted indicator of brand equity. We address the question of how consumer relationships fit with existing measures of brand equity and demonstrate their potential utility in predicting important marketing outcomes.

Figure 1: Primary Conceptual Focus



We operationalize relationship strength using attachment and predict WOM, CSR and Willingness to Defend while controlling for the influence of the four brand equity components (e.g. Brand Associations, Brand Commitment/Loyalty) and an array of

control variables (e.g. firm size, industry effects). These three outcome variables represent behavioral measures of brand performance that are linked to a firm's financial performance.

The results suggest that attachment is only moderately correlated (r 's .30-.40, p 's $< .01$) with three of the four brand equity components (brand awareness: $r = .07$, $p = n.s.$). Using a series of Confirmatory Factor Analysis, the results also suggest that attachment is separable from each of the four brand equity components (e.g. perceived quality, loyalty) and their affiliated constructs (e.g. satisfaction, commitment).

Using hierarchical regression while controlling for the impact of these four brand equity components, attachment significantly predicts WOM ($St. B. = .42$, $p < .01$), CSR ($St. B. = .17$, $p < .03$) and Willingness to Defend ($St. B. = .24$, $p < .01$). This finding holds true even when the analysis considers further refinements in the brand equity components (e.g. brand associations = brand image + brand distinctiveness) and enters each of these sub-components into the analysis separately. The results do not appear to be driven by attachment's explaining the same variance as the four brand equity components since their predictive power is relatively stable with or without attachment in the analysis.

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Peoples' Interpersonal Relationship Styles and Their Relationships With Brands

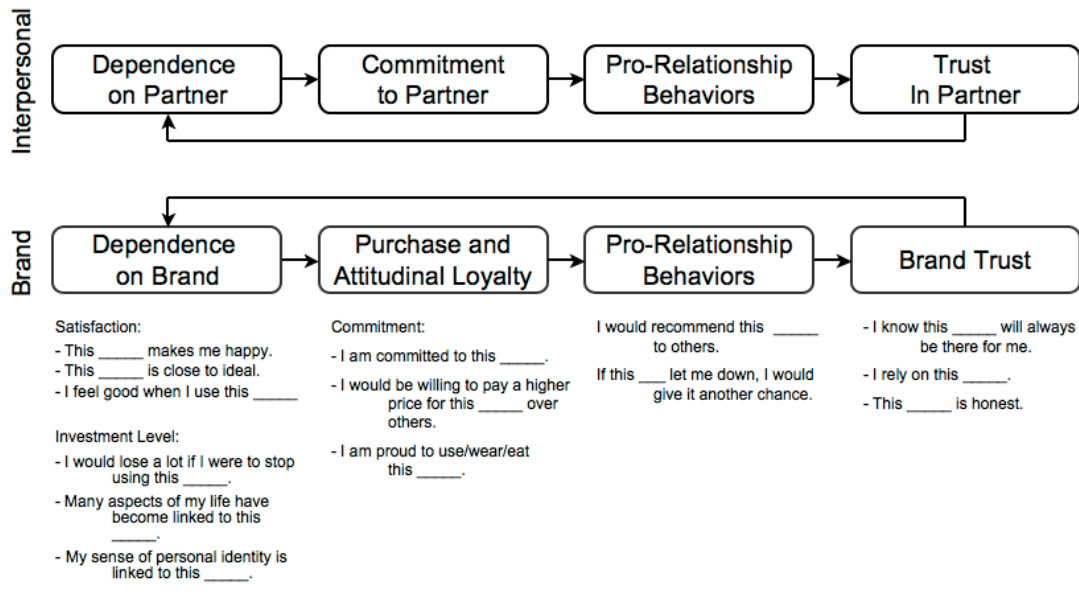
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Recent consumer research has established that people perceive the brands they use in relationship terms, in some cases as relationship partners (e.g., Fournier, 1998, Barnes, 2001 and Aggarwal, 2004). These brand relationships often take on meanings associated with self-definition and identity (e.g., Fournier, 1998 and Richins, 1994), as do relationship partners, in which they both can define and extend our sense of self (Belk, 1988). These broad findings suggest that how people tend to perceive interpersonal relationships ought to shed light on how they relate to brands. This notion has received limited attention in prior research. The current project addresses this gap by focusing on the intersection between peoples' interpersonal relationship styles (grounded in interdependence theory, Rusbult and Arriaga, 2000) and the strength of their relationships with brands.

Three interpersonal relationship style (IRS) schemes were identified based on four unique criteria developed specifically for this project (focused on potential alignment to constructs in the brand relationships domain and ease of implementation). The schemes were Attachment Style (RECR Scale, Fraley, et. al., 2000), Individualistic/Collectivistic Orientation (Triandis and Gelfand, 1998) and Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO; Schutz, 1966).

Brand relationship strength was assessed across three product categories (banks, breakfast cereals, and sneakers) via a new relationship strength pathway. This circular pathway was initially developed on an interpersonal basis using key dimensions of interdependence theory (Rusbult and Arriaga, 2000; Wieselquist, et. al., 1999). It was then translated for brand relationships using a variety of existing scales (e.g., Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Van Lange, et. al. 1997; and Barnes, 1997). The pathway consisted of four steps – dependence on the brand (i.e., satisfaction with the brand and level of investment in the brand), commitment to the brand, pro-brand relationship behaviors (i.e., likelihood to recommend the brand to others and willingness to forgive the brand after a transgression) and brand trust. The sequence of steps and circular nature of the pathway were established via mediation analysis, based on the approach suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986).

Figure 1: Relationship Strength Pathways



Data was collected in April 2003 via an on-line survey; 850 adult panelists completed the survey who were broadly representative of the US 18+ population. Based on a series of ANOVAs, two key findings emerged regarding the effect of IRS type on consumer-brand relationship strength.

1) People who are avoidant in their interpersonal relationships have weaker relationships with brands than people who are neutral or who embrace interpersonal relationships.

- Attachment Style: “Fearfuls” have weaker brand relationships than “secures” or “preoccupieds.”
- I/C Orientation: “Horizontal individualists” have weaker brand relationships than “collectivists.”
- FIRO: “Underpersonals” have weaker brand relationships than “personals” or “overpersonals;” “undersocials” have weaker brand relationships than “socials” or “oversocials.”

2) People who seek status through their interpersonal relationships have stronger brand relationships than people who do not seek status.

- I/C Orientation: “Vertical individualists” have stronger relationships with brands than “horizontal individualists.”
- FIRO: “Autocrats” have stronger relationships with brands than “abdocrats.”

These two characteristics, relationship avoidance and status seeking, have the potential to become influential and accepted personality or individual difference variables in future consumer-brand relationship research. From a managerial point of view, relationship avoiders are a particularly interesting and challenging group for marketers, given their resistance to relationship-building efforts. Marketers could ignore them,

which is often an uncomfortable choice. Alternatively, marketers could a) attempt to directly address their inherent self-reliance or b) emphasize more functional brand benefits rather than hedonic or self-expressive brand benefits.

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Understanding and Measuring Brand Love

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Some researchers observe that consumers often treat brands as relationship partners in much the same way that they treat each other in a social context (Aggarwal, 2004; Fournier, 1998). Indeed, given the depth of such consumer-brand relationships (CBRs), it would be relevant to study the “love” between customers and brands (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Thomason, MacInnis & Park, 2005; Whang, Allen, Sahoury & Zhang, 2004). In particular, Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) contend that examining “brand love” will contribute to (1) a more nuanced view of consumer feelings towards brands, (2) a quantitative measure of brand love response, (3) a better understanding and prediction of desirable consumer behavior, and (4) an updated strategic objective for practitioners that recognize differences in satisfied consumers. In this article we adopt Sternberg’s (1986) triangular theory of interpersonal love and use the three dimensions of emotion (intimacy), conation (passion) and cognition (commitment) to conceptualize and develop a scale to measure brand love. Such an approach will not only add value to the literature by providing a more comprehensive perspective of CBRs, but also enable researchers and practitioners to quantitatively evaluate them.

We define brand love as the intimate, passionate, and committed relationship between a customer and a brand, characterized by its reciprocal, purposive, multiplex, and dynamic properties. Specifically, brand love is a tri-dimensional construct, which can be decomposed into intimacy, passion, and commitment, reflecting its emotional, conative, and cognitive bases, respectively. Brand intimacy refers to the closeness and harmonization features of CBRs. It reflects consumers’ emotional willingness to keep in touch with the brand, share their feelings with the brand and support the brand when it is in difficulty. In addition, brand intimacy mirrors consumers’ perceptions of the care, understanding and attention from the brand. Brand passion describes the zeal and enthusiasm features of CBRs. It captures consumers’ dithyrambic, and sometimes, blind affect for the brand driven by motivational involvement and other arousals. Brand commitment is defined as “an average consumer’s long term, behavioral and attitudinal disposition toward a relational brand” (Chaudhuri & Holbrook 2002, p. 38). As it is generally indicated by instrumental investment in the relationship and intention to maintain the stable relationship (Dick & Basu, 1994; Oliver, 1999), commitment comprises the cognitive elements involved in decision-making about the existence of and potential long-term maintenance of a loving relationship (Sternberg, 1986). Brand commitment has a dual-temporal characteristic which works in the short term by consumers’ decision to establish the relationship with the brand (e.g., a purchase

decision), and in the long term by consumers' positive attitudes toward the continuance of such relationship. To summarize, these three components are "quasi-discrete" and interact with each other to develop love between consumers and brands. Depending on the absence or presence of each component, brand love can have several manifestations (Shimp & Madden, 1988).

We contend that the reciprocal, purposive, multiplex, and dynamic properties of brand love distinguish it from other brand constructs such as brand attitude and brand loyalty. The essential difference between brand love and brand attitude hinges on reciprocal exchange, which should exist between the interdependent partners in a qualified relationship (Fournier, 1998; Hinde, 1995). Brand attitude regards the brand as the object of attitude and reflects how consumers evaluate it. However, brand love considers the brand as a relationship partner, and reflects consumer perceptions of the two-way relationship between themselves and the brand.

Brand loyalty (e.g., Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Dick & Basu, 1994; Fournier & Yao, 1997) fails to reveal the purposive aspect of CBRs, which is required for a qualified relationship to implicate what the partners expect to gain from the relationship (Fournier, 1998; Hinde, 1995). Brand love is able to capture various arousals driven by such motivations as self-consistency, social-identification, dominance, submission and so on. The dynamic nature of brand love also distinguishes it from brand loyalty. Fournier (1998) suggests that the continuous process of relationship development can be decomposed into various stages, such as the five-phased model of initiation, growth, maintenance, deterioration, and dissolution (Levinger, 1983). Each stage would vary in the cognitive, emotional and conative aspects of partner interactions. As a result, brand loyalty, the favorable outcome of relationship development that usually emerges at the latter stages, is unable to interpret how the relationship evolves. In contrast, all three components of brand love have distinct development processes (Sternberg, 1986), and can provide a clearer picture of the relationship evolution. Overall, our theoretical framework differentiates brand love from brand attitude and brand loyalty based on its abilities to describe the reciprocal, complex, purposive and dynamic consumer-brand phenomena.

We next proceed to conduct a qualitative study to investigate customers' relationships with their loved brands. The content analysis reveals the existence of intimacy, passion, and commitment in brand love. Following that, we perform five studies to develop and validate a multi-dimensional Brand Love Scale (BLS) following the scale development procedure by Churchill (1979). In Study 1, we build up an item pool by integrating the items of intimacy, passion and commitment from the literature, which constitute a 43-item primary scale. In Study 2, we conduct psychometric analysis to test the reliability and dimensionality of the scale, which leads to a 16-item purified scale. In Study 3, we test for convergent validity, second-order structure and discriminant validity, and finalize BLS to be an 11-item scale (see Table 1).

Table 1. Brand Love Scale*

Brand Love Scale		Cronbach's Alpha: 0.947		
Factors	Items	Factor Loading	Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's Alpha
Intimacy	1. I received considerable emotional support from this brand.	0.756	0.633	0.727
	2. My relationship with the brand is intimate.	0.574	0.610	
	3. There is something special about my relationship with this brand.	0.818	0.531	
Passion	1. I would rather own this brand than any other brand.	0.647	0.535	0.884
	2. I cannot imagine another brand of the same product making me as happy as this brand.	0.641	0.650	
	3. I find myself thinking about this brand frequently during the day.	0.554	0.572	
	4. I have the impulse to buy it at the sight of the brand.	0.813	0.578	
Commitment	1. I will continue to buy this brand when I need the same product.	0.683	0.558	0.974
	2. I am willing to recommend this brand to my friends.	0.869	0.716	
	3. I feel that I really can trust this brand.	0.802	0.600	
	4. This brand is my first choice when I buy the same product.	0.730	0.718	

* Goodness-of-fit indices: $\chi^2=76.694$ (df=41, $p=.000$), CFI=0.994, NFI=0.987, RFI=0.980, IFI=0.994, TLI=0.990, FMIN=0.428, RMSEA=0.07, AIC=148.694.

The results demonstrate that intimacy, passion, and commitment are internally distinct but related to each other, and converge to the higher-order latent variable of brand love. In addition, brand love reveals high discriminant validity from both unidimensional and multi-dimensional measures of brand attitude as well as brand loyalty. We also confirm the predictive power of brand love in differentiating between favorable and unfavorable CBRs in Study 4. Finally, our nomological framework in Study 5 provides empirical support for the antecedents and consequences of brand love. We find that brand quality (the brand's performance as a relational partner), and customer satisfaction both have significant and positive effects on brand love, which in turn generates desirable customer outcomes (i.e., repurchase intention and price tolerance).

The academic contribution of this study is twofold: (1) we show that Sternberg's (1986) theory of love has direct correspondence to consumer-brand relationships. Our definition and operationalization of brand love capture the emotional, conative, and cognitive aspects of brand love, and fulfill the requirements for a qualified relationship,

thus contributing to the literature on brand and consumer relationship management; (2) our BLS does not only encapsulate the three components intimacy, passion and commitment, but is also effective in predicting favorable consumer behavior. Therefore, it is valuable to marketing researchers seeking to plumb greater depths of the nature of the bond between customers and brands, beyond the insights afforded by traditional brand constructs. Brand love also has important managerial implications. It sheds a more nuanced insight into customers' behaviors during their interactions with brands and offers a new perspective on customer segmentation. The three components of brand love enable marketing managers to identify the affective, conative, and cognitive qualities of a specific CBR, which facilitates fine-tuned actions to improve customer relationship.

This article also provides a foundation for further research on brand love. Firstly, it possible for brand love to be formed in different ways across product categories. For example, Carroll and Ahuvia (2006) reveal that hedonic and/or self-expressive brands are more likely to be emotionally loved. Future research can explore the various formation processed of brand love for different product categories. In Study 5 we find that it is easier for the brands with distinct personality to cultivate brand love than those without personality. Yet, different personality traits may exert varying effects on brand love (Aaker, Fournier, & Brasel, 2004). Subsequent work can further examine which brand personality is more favorable in building brand love. Our exploratory research is merely a first step towards a large and exciting research agenda.

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Nostalgic Memories and Consumer Emotional Attachments to Brands

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The notion that the “dear departed past” (Holbrook and Schindler, 1991) may be used as a source of market value had a strong impact on both marketing practice and research over the past decade (Brown, Kozinets and Sherry, 2003; Rindfleisch and Sprott, 2000 for a review). Past research has focused on individual differences (i.e., nostalgia proneness) in a person’s desire for the past or a liking for possessions and activities of days gone by (e.g., Holbrook, 1993), and has linked consumer nostalgic memories (i.e., a fleeting consumer state) to consumer responses to advertising (Muehling and Sprott, 2004; Pascal, Sprott and Muehling, 2002; Sujan, Bettman and Baumgartner, 1993).

Although nostalgic memories have been linked to negative emotions (Holak and Havlena 1998; Stern 1992), past research has almost exclusively focused on the positive side of nostalgic memories and downstream positive emotions. Further, little attention has been given to autobiographical nostalgic memories in a brand context, specifically to the possibility that consumers may become more emotionally attached to brands that remind them of past times. Such an interpretation would be consistent with findings that autobiographical memories relate to past personal experiences and thus come with a strong emotional-motivational charge (Baumgartner, Sujan and Bettman, 1992).

Extant research further shows that consumers can become emotionally attached to brands, and that such an emotional tie is positively associated with brand loyalty (Thomson, MacInnis and Park, 2005). Credited with playing a substantial role in this attachment process are emotions and cognitions in a referential meaning mechanism where positive and negative feelings emerge from context-dependent conceptual associations with a stimulus (Zhu and Meyers-Levy, 2005).

Our research examines the following questions: What brand characteristics (e.g., brand name, logo, package design, etc.) evoke positive and negative nostalgic memories? What is the relation between nostalgic memories and consumer emotions and cognitions about the brand? What downstream effects originate from brand-evoked nostalgic memories leading to consumer emotional attachments?

Three consecutive studies 1) identify brand characteristics leading to differential nostalgic memories and emotions, 2) determine how more or less nostalgic brands relate to positive and negative emotions, cognitions, and consumer emotional attachments, and 3) extend this model to offer a new explanation for country-of-origin effects and brand community identification.

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Understanding Brand Attachment: Measures and Outcomes

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This paper advances and provides support for a new model of brand attachment. The Connection-Automaticity Attachment Model (CAAM) proposes that brand attachment is best conceptualized as a second order factor, composed of two core elements; brand-self connection and automaticity of thought. We develop a measure of each of these constructs, and compare the ability of the CAAM model to predict brand commitment to other meaningful models, such as more global measures of attachment and attitude strength models.

Measures

A series of studies were conducted in which factor analyses were used on items designed to assess the three constructs central to our research focus. From these studies, we gleaned the best indicators for each of the constructs. For *Brand-Self Connection* these items are (1) “To what extent do you feel that you are personally connected to (Brand Name)?” and (2) “To what extent is (Brand Name) part of you and who you are?” For automaticity of thoughts the two items are (1) “To what extent are your thoughts and feelings towards (Brand Name) often automatic, coming to mind seemingly on their own?” and (2) “To what extent do your thoughts and feelings towards (Brand Name) come to you naturally and instantly?” Three items were chosen for brand commitment. They are (1) “Are you loyal to (Brand Name)?” (2) „Are you committed to (Brand Name)?” and (3) “Have you made a pledge to yourself to use (Brand Name) in the future?”

Results

In three different studies, the CAAM model was able to predict brand commitment better than either more global measures of attachment and/or attitude strength models. These results were consistent with the hypothesis that Brand Attachment is best conceptualized as the extent to which one feels a connection to a brand and the extent to which that brand comes to mind often.

Attachment and Identification: How Relationships are Connected

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Do “identification” and “attachment” describe the same types of relationships? How do these constructs differ historically, empirically, conceptually? Attachment Theory and Social Identity Theory have a long history in the literature on interpersonal relationships, and each has been relatively recently introduced to the study of consumers’ marketing relationships. Identification has been conceptualized as the internalization of the values and qualities of a given relationship partner, whereas attachment has been conceptualized as an emotional bond to the relationship. Attachment and identification are likely to covary as characteristics of most strong relationships, but the causal direction and necessity of this conceptual link are unclear. The internalization of a relationship is likely to lead to an emotional bond, but an emotional bond can occur without internalizing the partner’s values. For example, I have an attachment to my SUV, based on many happy memories in it, but I do not identify with the environmental values (or lack thereof) implied by it. Conversely, an emotional bond is likely to lead to the internalization of the partner’s values, but a relationship can be internalized without an emotional bond. For example, I identify with the practical values of a new brand of fuel-efficient car, but I don’t have an emotional bond to it. These distinctions imply that identification and attachment may result from different conditions in the process of forming a strong relationship. An empirical illustration of two such conditions will be discussed.

Brand Love: A Multi-Method Approach

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We study the meaning, dimensionality, and measurement of “Brand Love.” We begin with a qualitative study on consumers’ “love for objects,” from which we develop a multi-dimensional conceptualization of what “brand love” might entail, broader than existing discussions in the current literature. We arrive at a “tripartite” construct that includes certain types of beliefs, feelings, and behaviors towards the loved brand. Specific survey questions were then created to measure these various sub-dimensions of “brand love,” and student subjects rated both a brand that they “loved” plus another same-category brand that they did not “love.” These data were then analyzed to test the validity of our hypothesized “brand love” construct, its discriminant validity from “attitude strength,” and its impact on loyalty intentions and behaviors. Based on these findings, we offer thoughts on how “brand love” can be conceptualized, measured, created and nurtured.

BrandLove – The precursor to Loyalty

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Brand loyalty has been widely researched and written about as a measure of successful brand marketing. We believe that brand loyalty is merely a symptom or the result of a deeper underlying relationship between the consumer and brand and that relationship is love.

Abundant work has been done on relationships between people. However, relatively lesser work has been done on studying the relationships between people and brands, especially in trying to explain the role of these relationships with respect to brand loyalty. Whilst the interaction of brands and other material possessions with the self-concept of consumers has been studied extensively (Belk, 1988; Sirgy, 1982; Wallendorf and Arnould, 1988), few researchers have looked at loyalty as a committed, affective partnership between a consumer and a brand (Fullerton, 2003). However, all work stops short of developing fully articulated framework on customer-brand relationships.

So why is it that brand loyalty is such an elusive condition in brand consumer relationships? Can a person feel loyalty alone, for a person leave alone a product, without feeling anything else? Or is loyalty only a symptom of a much larger condition and if so what is it?

Loyalty in itself is not a relationship that exists between two entities, be it two people or be it a person (consumer) and an object (brand). It is the symptom or result of the positive relationship that exists between two entities (consumer and brand). This underlying relationship that results in loyalty of a person towards a brand (or person or any other object) is love. We have termed this love that a consumer feels towards the brands he/she is loyal to as BrandLove. It is this BrandLove that one person has for a brand that creates a bond or sense of allegiance (loyalty). The stronger the BrandLove, the stronger will be the loyalty towards the brand.

The objective of this study is to break down the love felt by a consumer for a brand into various components (dimensions of BrandLove). We first studied frameworks of love with respect to human relationships (person-person relationships) and looked at the various dimensions of human love. We used Sternberg's triangular theory of love (Sternberg, 1998, 2000) as a starting point.

Sternberg's Triangular Theory of Love

Sternberg's theory of love employs a triangle for conceptualizing the interrelationships between the three components of love that he identifies as intimacy,

passion and decision/ commitment. The importance of each of these three components of love varies according to the type of loving relationship (Sternberg, 1986).

Intimacy refers to the feelings that promote closeness, bondedness and connectedness in a relationship. In terms of consumer-brand relationships, intimacy would be seen in many utilitarian brands, and cherished possessions such as a particular furniture item, a quilt and pillow.

Passion involves a “state of intense longing for union with the other” partner (Hatfield and Walster, 1981). It is an expression of needs and desires – such as the need for self-esteem, nurturance, affiliation, dominance, submission and sexual fulfillment. In the case of consumer-brand relationships, passion is seen in cases where a consumer is passionate about a particular motorbike brand, may get a sense of self-esteem by associating with a premium brand of apparel, or try to affiliate with a brand community.

Decision/ Commitment component of love consists of two aspects – one as the short-term decision to love a person and the other a long-term commitment towards maintaining that love. These two aspects do not necessarily occur together -i.e the decision to love does not necessarily imply a commitment to that love. In consumer-brand relationships decision would relate to the purchase decision which in the short term would be based on the attributes, perceived quality (McConnell, 1968) and perceived value of the brand and long term commitment would be akin to affective attitudes towards the brand that have been built over a period of time and which result in loyalty (Johnson, Hermann and Huber, 2006).

Method

In this study we have tried to dimensionalise BrandLove on the lines of Sternberg’s love triangle. To establish content validity, we have described the process of development of a representative set of measurement items.

Generation of Test Items

On the lines of Sternberg’s questionnaire for measuring love (Sternberg, 1997) and original qualitative research (depth interviews were conducted with 12 consumers) we generated a total of 75 measurement items. We then gave this list of 75 measurement items and a write-up on our construct definitions to 3 Marketing professors for validation of these items. Their inputs resulted in reduction of the number of measurement items from 75 to 52. On the basis of this, a questionnaire was drawn. The questionnaire was pre-tested on 10 respondents and then finalized (attached as Annexure 1).

Sample

The targeted sample size was 150 respondents using convenience sampling. Convenience sampling had to be used since the research was not funded and hence the respondents were not given any compensation. All the respondents were known to either

of the researchers. The actual sample ended up at 139 respondents from different age groups (minimum age was 23 years and maximum age was 59 years), gender and income class.

Procedure

Subjects who participated in the study received a set of instructions along with the questionnaire/ scale, which included the following guideline to help them select the brand they love:

I would like you to think of all the products or services that you use and like. Take your time... jot them down at the side if you want. Done? Now, choose one out of these that you like best, one that you really love. Don't hurry; take your time in deciding which one you really love.

Using a 10-point Likert scale (1 being the lowest and 10 being the highest), subjects were asked to rate the extent to which they felt each of the 52 statements best described their relationship/ interaction with the brand that they love.

Analysis

The data obtained was factor-analyzed using principal components analysis. The output was varimax rotated with Kaiser normalization in order to give a better interpretation. This resulted in a solution of five principal components (factors), each factor having an eigen value of more than 1, and the five factors together explained 65.1 % of variance. Only items that had high loadings (more than 0.6) were considered.

Results and Discussion

The five factors were named Friendship, Contentment, Admiration, Commitment and Yearning. The percentage variance explained by the factor and corresponding eigen values are presented in the table below:

Factor	Friendship	Contentment	Admiration	Commitment	Yearning
% Variance explained	43.5	6.5	5.9	4.9	4.2
Eigen Value	22.6	3.4	3.1	2.6	2.2
Items with highest factor loadings	Possessiveness, Pride, Honesty, Coolness, Obligation, Dependence	Joy, Gratitude, Contentment, Peacefulness, Satisfaction	Respect, Interest, Value, Awe, Captivation, Passion	Preference, Unsubstitutability, Commitment	Acceptance, Physical Contentment, Desire Physical Contact, Desire Frequent Physical Contact

The objective of this research was to develop a framework of BrandLove dimensions and a scale to measure these dimensions. The results of the exploratory principal components analysis suggests that BrandLove has five distinct dimensions: Friendship, Contentment, Admiration, Commitment, and Yearning. The items loaded onto the respective factors and their factor loadings are presented in the table below:

Friendship	Contentment	Admiration	Commitment	Yearning
Dependance (.81)	Gratitude (.77)	Value (.80)	Preference (.81)	Desire Physical Contact (.72)
Possesiveness (.78)	Joy (.74)	Awe (.78)	Commitment (.60)	Physical Contentment (.69)
Coolness (.68)	Contentment (.69)	Passion (.68)	Unsubstitutability (.60)	Desire Frequent Physical Contact (.66)
Honesty (.67)	Satisfaction (.67)	Respect (.66)		Acceptance (.64)
Pride (.65)	Peacefulness (.60)	Interest (.65)		
Obligation (.60)		Captivation (.62)		

It is also evident that the framework is similar to the love triangle proposed by Sternberg and similarly for different consumer-brand love situations, there will be presence or absence of some of these five components of BrandLove. This would depend upon the individual consumer (or segment), the product category and the brands' image.

This study has both theoretical as practical implications. Managers have for long tried to build brand loyalty, the symptom without realizing the underlying condition of BrandLove. Creating the symptom without understanding the condition would at best be a short-term strategy.

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Why it is Particularly Bad to Upset Female Customers:
Sex Differences in How Brand Love and Brand Hate Affect Word-of-Mouth

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This research examines how men and women differ in terms of how their emotional experiences with brands affect their tendency to spread word-of-mouth (WOM). A combination of survey and experimental results demonstrate that, compared to men, women are more likely to spread WOM about a purchase experience. However, the greater tendency for women to spread WOM is found to be significantly higher with purchase experiences that lead to brand affection/love than with purchase experiences that lead to brand resentment/hate. In cases leading to brand resentment/hate, men report being more likely to express their negative feelings towards a brand by addressing their anger towards a sales person or service provider. In contrast, women are more likely to express negative feelings about a brand by complaining to friends and others in their social network. In terms of who hears the most WOM, both males and females report that they are more likely to talk about their feelings about brands with women than with men. This suggests that women not only spread more WOM, but also hear more WOM.

A follow-up study examining the weight men and women place on WOM from friends when making purchase decisions suggests that, compared to men, women place more weight on both recommendations and warnings from personal friends. In contrast, males place relatively more weight on third party evaluations from experts such as J.D. Powers or Consumer Reports.

In short, the results of this research suggest that women *spread* more WOM, *hear* more WOM, and *pay more attention* to the WOM they hear from others. All this suggests that although it is probably never good to upset any of your customers, it may be particularly damaging to upset your *female* customers.

Deviation from Overall Satisfaction Approach to Inter-Rater Attribute-Level Analysis for Attitude and Behavior Link

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Consumer satisfaction is one of the most studied concepts in the field of consumer behavior and psychology. It is also one of the most sought-after performance criteria to assess the ‘goodness’ of their brand in various business sectors in the industry. Benefiting from rigorous academic research from the theoretical perspective and persistent efforts in the business arena, many companies and organizations have been successfully improving their customer satisfaction level over time. As businesses continue to offer more to improve services or products, merely meeting customers’ expectation and having ‘satisfied’ customers is becoming a required rather than desired proposition (Denove and Power, 2006).

As customer satisfaction in various business areas continues to improve and many competitors share a similar performance level, assessing and investigating the nature of their customer’s satisfaction to derive actionable business plans becomes increasingly challenging. In some cases, when a survey is conducted, many competing brands score very high in satisfaction measures, making it difficult to differentiate their strengths and weaknesses in various criteria. Understanding satisfaction scores can be challenging as well – for example, if Brand A’s mean satisfaction score is 8.5 for a 10-point scale and Brand B’s is 8.9, with the difference being statistically significant, how would we interpret the 0.4 difference from the business strategic point of view? Clearly, a more versatile quantitative approach to satisfaction ratings data is needed that enables us to display more meaningful and actionable information.

Deviation from Overall Satisfaction (DOSAT) approach is a quantitative approach where deviation scores from the overall satisfaction measure for each respondent are the basis for various statistical analyses. These deviation scores – i.e., take the difference between the score for each questionnaire item and the overall satisfaction measure – gives a clearer picture regarding each respondent’s relative satisfaction/dissatisfaction level with each attribute because it adjusts for the halo effect as well as other individual differences in attribute ratings (e.g., Lynch et. al., 1991; Mittal and Kamakura, 2001). Various analyses based on the deviation scores provide information very useful for identifying relative strengths and weaknesses among satisfaction-related attributes. The DOSAT approach would allow implementation of strategic recommendation by Mittal et. al (1998) that business managers ‘optimize attribute-level performance to maximize overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions.’ The paper illustrates how results based on the DOSAT approach can be used for a better understanding of the link between attribute-level performance and overall satisfaction with example cases.

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The Role of Taste Similarity on Recommending Power:
The Moderating Role of Emotional Attachment

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Consumers often rely on others to obtain recommendations and evaluations on products and services. They can act as recommendation agents influencing consumer decision making. Previous research on agent adoption mainly focuses on cognitive factors that influence agent recommending power such as source credibility and taste similarity (Gershoff, Broniarczyk, and West, 2001; Gershoff, Mukherjee, and Mukhopadhyay, 2007; Swaminathan, 2003; White, 2005). This study expands previous research by examining not only cognitive factors but also affective factors influencing agent recommending power.

In the cognitive process, consumers are likely to adopt agent advice when they think their agent has similar tastes and preferences with them. Taste similarity can be perceived differently depending on the extent to which they agree. Recent studies on agent recommendations investigate that agreement on liked alternatives and disliked alternatives can have different effects on recommending power (Gershoff et al., 2007; 2006). These studies show that agreement on liked alternatives has a stronger effect on agent suitability than agreement on disliked alternatives. Even though these studies expand previous studies on agent recommendations by considering agreement valence, few studies have examined recommendation valence. An agent can advise someone to buy a product that he/she likes. Besides positive recommendations, an agent can provide negative recommendations advising potential customers not to buy a product that the agent does not like. This study will investigate the interaction effect of agreement valence and recommendation valence on recommending power. Study 1 shows the valence matching effect, which is that the recommending power is greater when the agreement valence and recommendation valence match than when they don't match. That is, positive recommendations will be more persuasive when individuals have agreement on liked alternatives with their agent, while negative recommendations will be more persuasive when they have agreement on disliked alternatives with their agent.

Study 2 shows that attachment to an agent can attenuate the valence matching effect. Previous research on interpersonal relationships shows that people tend to overestimate what their friends know about them, so they can overaccept their agent recommendations (Gershoff & Johar, 2006). This study, however, shows that individuals can overaccept agent advice even in the absence of the overestimation effect if they are

emotionally attached to their agent. When individuals are attached to someone, they want to maintain the positive relationship with that person. Therefore, they put more weight on relationship motivation than on taste similarity when adopting agent advice. Consequently, the valence matching effect will be attenuated. However, if individuals feel high social risk in their purchasing decision, they will put more weight on taste similarity than on relationship motivation. Thus, the valence matching effect will occur again. Study 2 shows the reoccurrence of the valence matching effect in the gift giving situation.

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Customer Coping in Response to Relationship Transgressions:
An Attachment Theoretic Approach

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In relationships, most partners eventually violate the implicit or explicit rules guiding relationship evaluation and performance and thereby commit a transgression. The likelihood that a customer experiences a transgression grows with increasing duration and increasing frequency of interaction in consumer-brand relationships. Even though transgressions may vary in their severity and cause, they all have the potential to damage an existing relationship. How do consumers react if such a breach of expectations in a brand relationship occurs? Even though consumers' coping reactions following brand transgressions can be decisive for the longevity of consumer-brand relationships, research concerned with the question of how and why individual consumer react to transgressions has been lacking. Building on attachment theory, the authors developed a conceptual framework of how consumer attachment determines cognitive and emotional response pattern that in turn drive behavioral responses to relationship transgressions in consumer-company relationships. The main hypothesis underlying this model was that consumer with different attachment orientations will explain and interpret relationship transgressions consistent with their beliefs and expectations about themselves and the companies with which they interact. The framework was tested in two studies investigating consumer coping responses to marketing relationship transgressions. Secure consumer attachment increases the likelihood of utilizing constructive (voice, loyalty) and decreases the likelihood of utilizing destructive coping strategies (exit, neglect). Study results also support that the effects of consumer attachment on coping strategies are mediated by attributional and emotional response patterns triggered by transgression experiences. Concerning mediating cognitive processes, our results show that securely attached customers have a lower likelihood of attributing stable causes to relationship problems with their company. Furthermore, secure consumer attachment reduces the degree of anger experienced by respondents in response to a transgression. The positive expectations that securely attached customers possess of companies and brands help them to positively interpret problematic interactions and buffer emotional distress from relational transgressions. These cognitive (attribution bias) and emotional (less intense negative emotions) response patterns of securely attached customers reduce the likelihood of maladaptive behavioral responses and decrease the vulnerability of their relationships with companies to transgressions.

Previous research has found that there is considerable variability in consumers' predispositions to form strong and lasting relationships with companies and brands. For relationship marketers, customer heterogeneity poses a problem, since investments in customers with no desire or no disposition to form strong relationships are essentially lost and greatly diminish the effectiveness of relationship marketing programs. Securely

attached consumers are likely to have more stable relationships because attribution biases and emotional response patterns predispose them to react more constructively and less destructively in response to relationship transgressions. They are thus less likely to exit or neglect their commercial relationships in response to relational transgressions. This result confirms the applicability of the secure consumer attachment construct to identify and target customers for relationship marketing purposes.

Branding and Marketing Metrics

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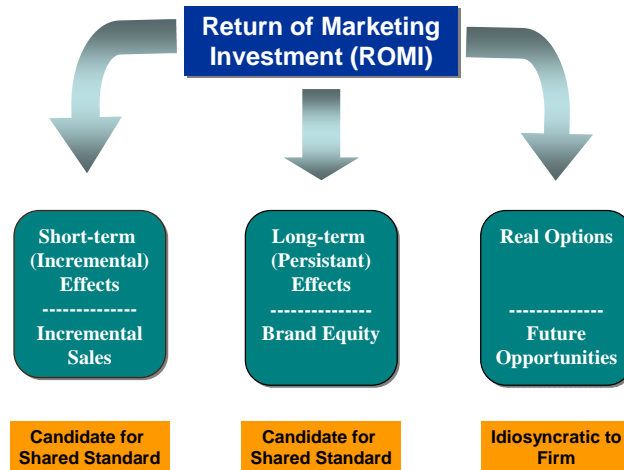
Marketing has a long history of paying attention to measurement and the creation of metrics, especially when it comes to claiming success, but it has done nothing to standardize the way it defines success. Most of the metrics used to assess the outcomes of marketing activities are tactical and not directly relevant to the overall financial performance of the firm (Lehmann, 2004). This is especially problematic for brand related marketing activities that may have effects in both the short and long term. A survey of Chief Marketing Officers has also found significant dissatisfaction with the most common measures of branding success, awareness, perception and attitude measures (CMO Council, 2004).

This paper argues that marketing must develop a set of standard metrics for assessing the outcomes of marketing activities in general, and branding efforts more specifically. It also argues that these metrics must ultimately be linked to financial performance measures.

The paper suggests that there are three broad classes of marketing outcomes: short-term (incremental) results, long-term (persistent) effects, and the creation of real options (see Figure 1). Each of these broad types of outcomes can be linked to the financial performance of the firm and the profitability of investment in specific marketing and branding activities.

The paper closes with a call for the development of broadly accepted standards for measuring these three types of outcomes.

Figure 1
Three Types of Return on Marketing Investment



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