**BRANDx-related DEFINITION – MEASURE / SCALE – ANTECEDENTS – OUTCOMES**

**BRAND IDENTIFICATION**

Brand (definition)

Brand Anthropomorphism

Brand personification

Brand Personality – Identity – Image – Positioning

Brand authenticity

**BRAND -consumer RELATIONSHIP**

Brand Awareness

Brand Knowledge

Pro-Brand attitude and

Brand attachment

Brand Liking Brand preference – Brand engagement - Brand involvement –Brand commitment – Brand devotion

Brand love – Brand passion -

Brand indifference

Brand aversion – Brand misconduct - Brand hate

Brand behavior, ie Brand loyalty

Brand experience

Brand co-creation

**BRAND VALUATION**

Brand Equity

Customer-based Brand Equity

Brand Valuation

**BRAND MANAGEMENT**

Brand elements

Brand portfolio

Brand life cycle

**Brand**

Definition

From AMA …. Brands as trademarks, as ‘‘a name, term, design, symbol, or any other feature that identifies one seller’s good or service as distinct from those of other sellers’’ (AMA 2014a). [too narrow since ignores: the brands meaning, the scope of branding, the independence and co-creation ]

SOURCE for REVIEW: Riley, Francesca Dall’Olmo. "Brand definitions and conceptualizations." *The Routledge Companion to Contemporary Brand Management* (2016): 3.

To Semiotics … Brands are re-defined as complex multidimensional constructs with varying degrees of meaning, independence, co-creation and scope. Brands are semiotic marketing systems that generate value for direct and indirect participants, society, and the broader environment, through the exchange of co-created meaning

SOURCE: Brands defined as Semiotic Mkt systems http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.883.6937&rep=rep1&type=pdf

social identity theory based on social psychology. According to this theory, [Kim et al. (2001, p. 196)](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X" \l "bb0185) define the level of consumer–brand identification as the degree to which the brand expresses and enhances consumers’ identity. [Del Rio et al. (2001)](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X" \l "bb0105) distinguish between personal identification and social identification function of a brand (see also [Carlson et al., 2008](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X" \l "bb0080)). Personal identification function means that consumers can identify with a specific brand and develop feelings of affinity towards the brand, whereas social identification refers to the brand's ability to act as a communication instrument allowing consumers to manifest the desire to integrate with or to dissociate from the groups of individuals that make up their closest social environment ([Del Rio et al., 2001, p. 412](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X#bb0105)). According to [Carlson et al. (2008, p. 286)](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X#bb0080), personal identification with a brand refers to the degree of overlap between an individual's self-schema and the schema s/he holds for a brand.

**Brand authenticity**

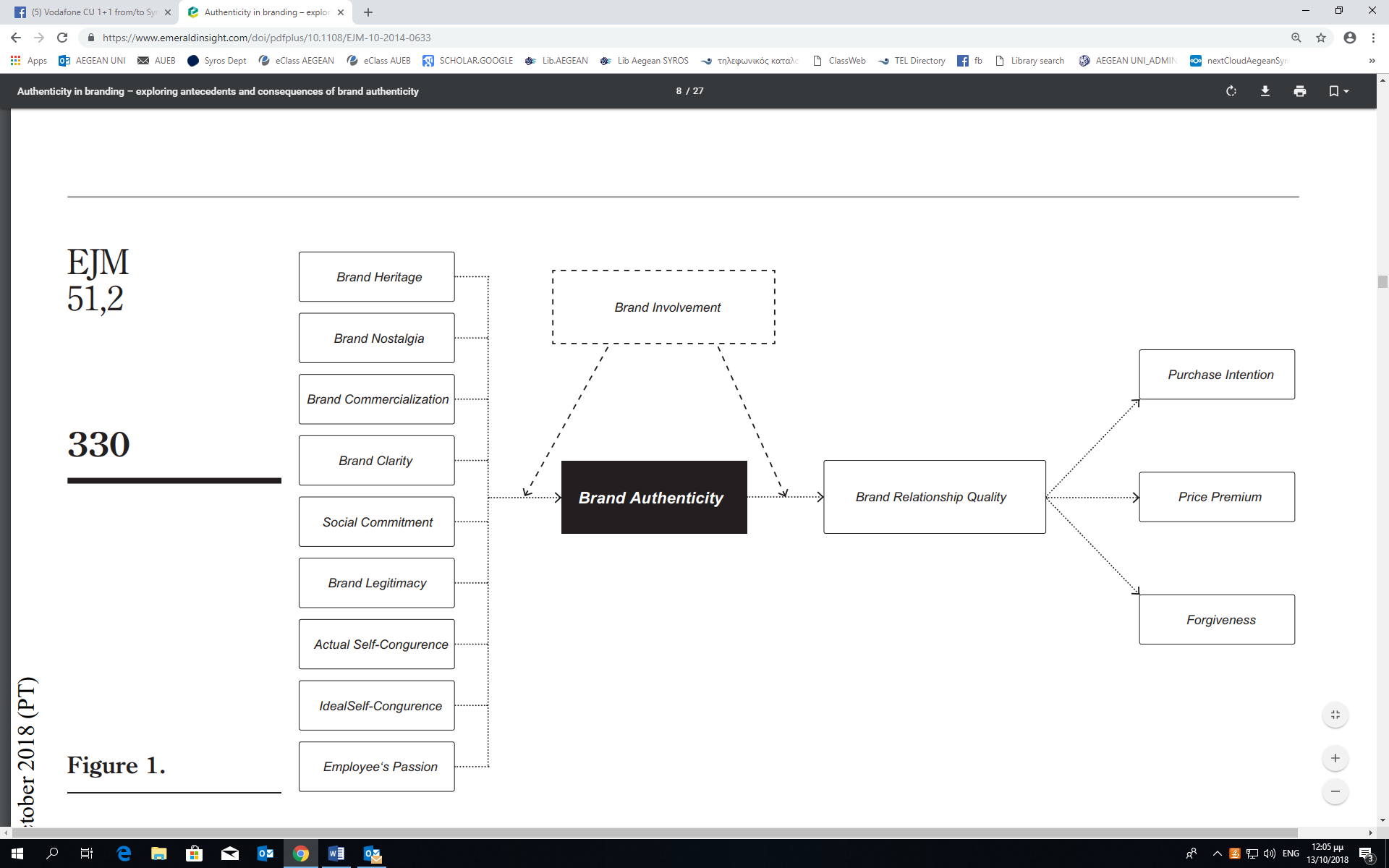
The existentialist perspective advances the notion that authenticity means being true to one‘s self. This type of authenticity is prominent in the study of authentic functioning (Kernis & Goldman, 2006), authentic leadership (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), and tourist experiences (Wang, 1999). Handler and Saxton (1988), for example, define an authentic experience as ―one in which individuals feel themselves to be in touch both with a ‗real‘ world and with their ‗real‘ selves‖ (p. 243). … We therefore propose that PBA arises from the interplay of objective facts (indexical authenticity), subjective mental associations (iconic authenticity), and existential motives connected to a brand (existential authenticity). Brand authenticity thus emerges to the extent to which consumers perceive a brand to be faithful and true towards itself and its consumers, and to support consumers being true to themselves.

SOURCE: <http://www.novasbe.unl.pt/images/novasbe/files/INOVA_Seminars/lucia.pdf>

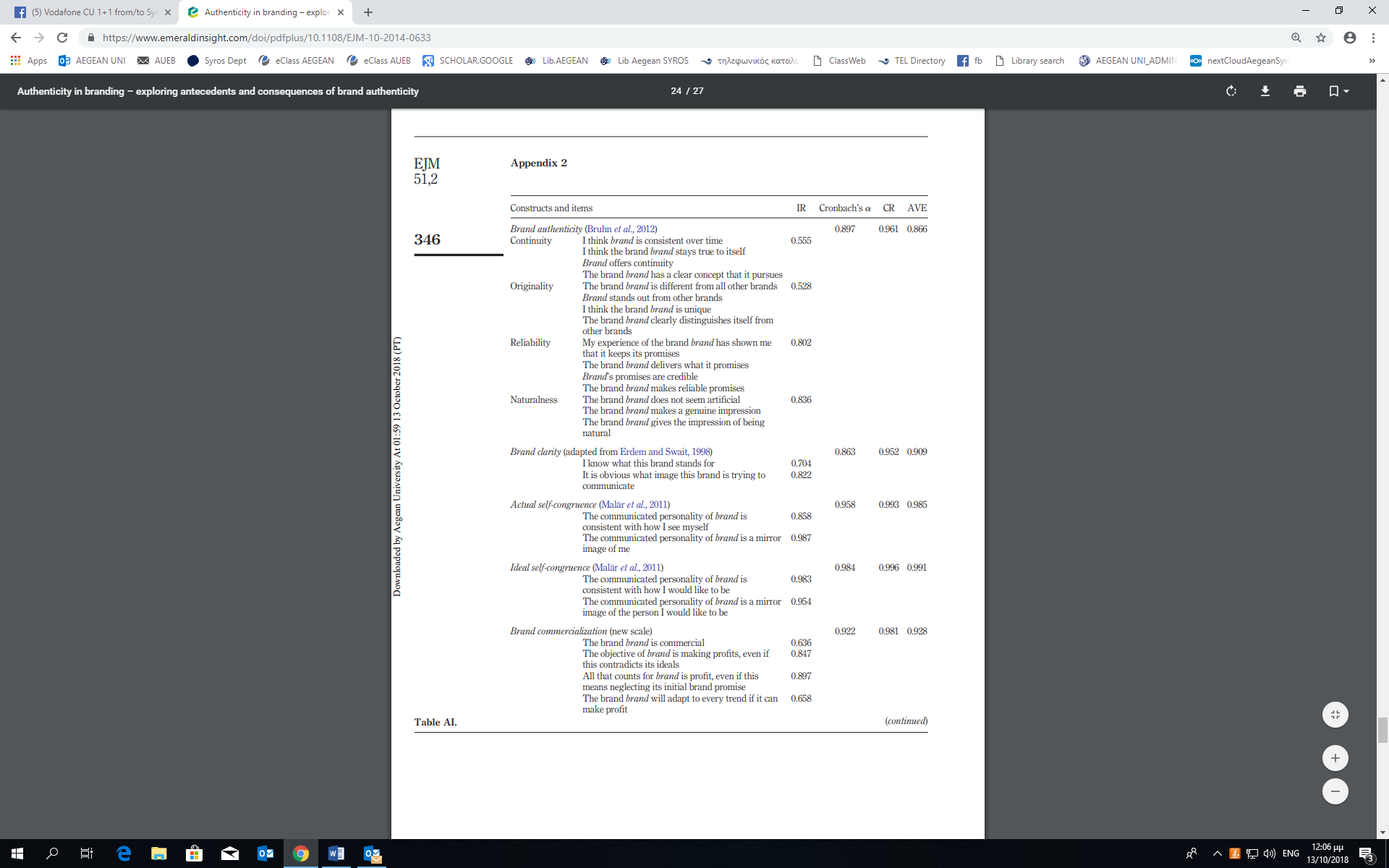
authenticity is primarily understood as a subject-related behavioral attribute

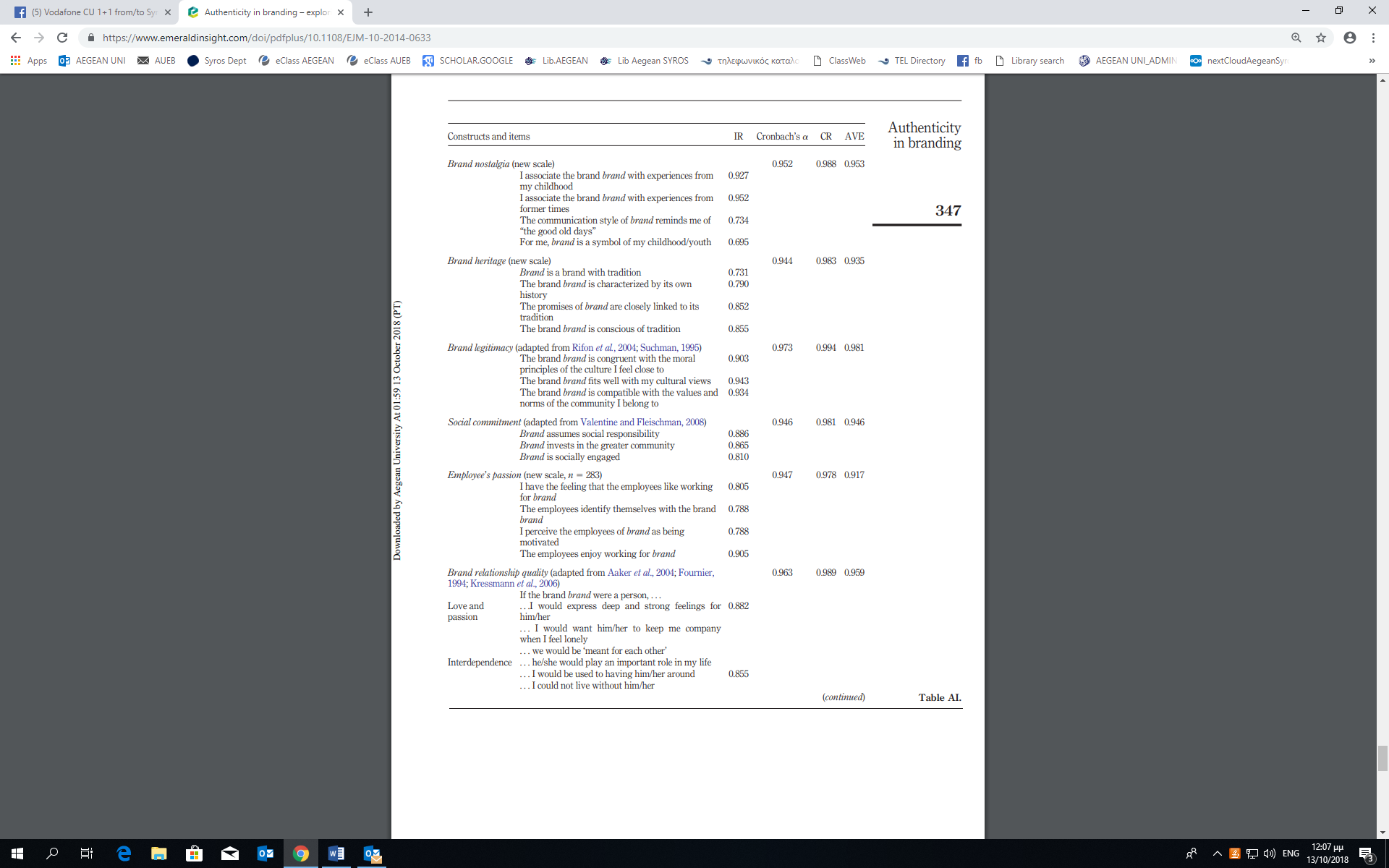
The understanding of brand authenticity is mainly influenced by the conceptualization of Grayson and Martinec (2004). Building on Peirce’s (1998) philosophy of signs as well as MacCannell’s (1973) distinction between “true” (i.e. objectivist perspective) and “staged” (i.e. constructivist perspective) authenticity in tourism, the authors develop a framework to investigate how consumers assess authenticity. In particular, they distinguish two types of authenticity: indexical authenticity and iconic authenticity. This distinction is based on two different frames of reference which are applied when the subject/consumer forms an understanding or perception of a phenomenon (object or event) and attributes the word authentic to it

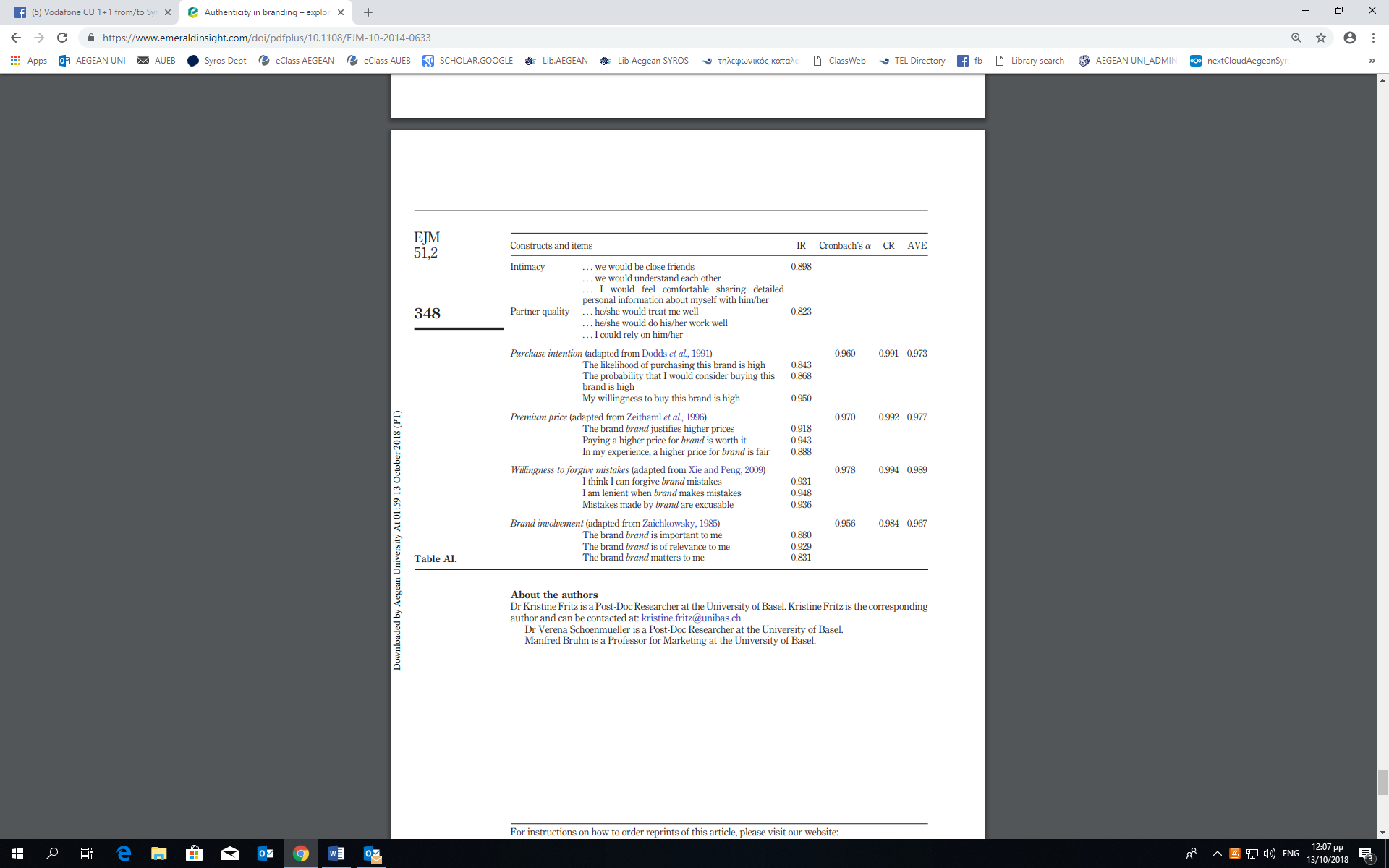
Bruhn and colleagues define brand authenticity as the perceived genuineness of a brand that is manifested in terms of its stability and consistency (i.e. continuity), uniqueness (i.e. originality), ability to keep its promises (i.e. reliability) and unaffectedness (i.e. naturalness). Derived from the findings of Beverland (2006), Napoli et al. (2014) identify quality commitment, heritage and sincerity as first-order factors of the brand authenticity scale, whereas the more recent work by Morhart et al. (2015) develop a four-dimensional scale to describe a brand’s manifestation of authenticity with the factors of continuity, credibility, integrity and symbolism



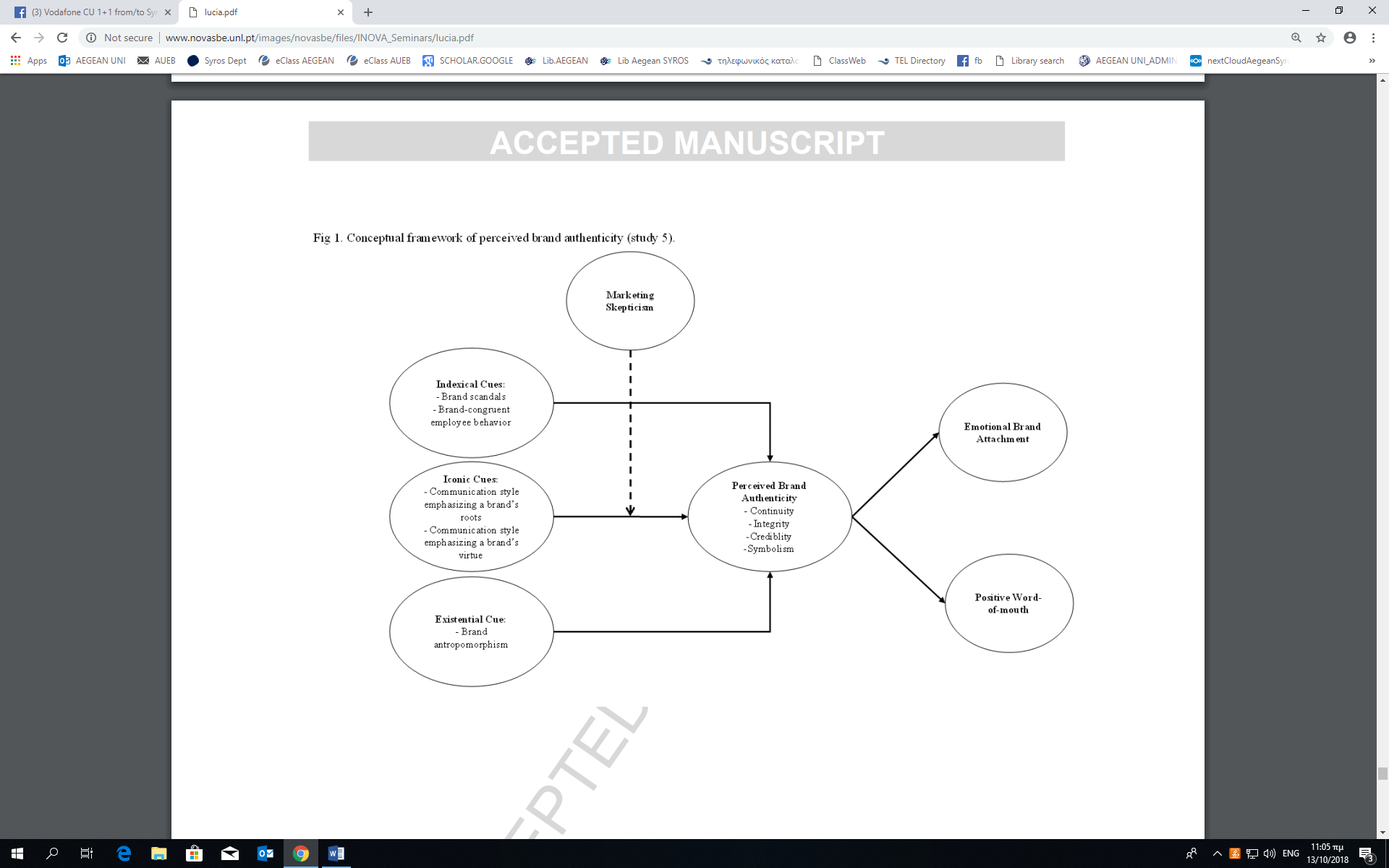
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antecedents of PBA consisted of

brand anthropomorphism (based on Aaker & Fournier, 1995),

brand congruent employee behavior (Morhart, Herzog, & Tomczak, 2009),

brand scandals (Wagner, Lutz, & Weitz, 2009),

communication style emphasizing a brand‘s roots (new), and communication style emphasizing a brand‘s virtue (new).

Emotional brand attachment (Thomson et al., 2005) and word-of-mouth (Price & Arnould, 1999) served as dependent variables and skepticism towards advertising (Gaski & Etzel, 1986) as moderator

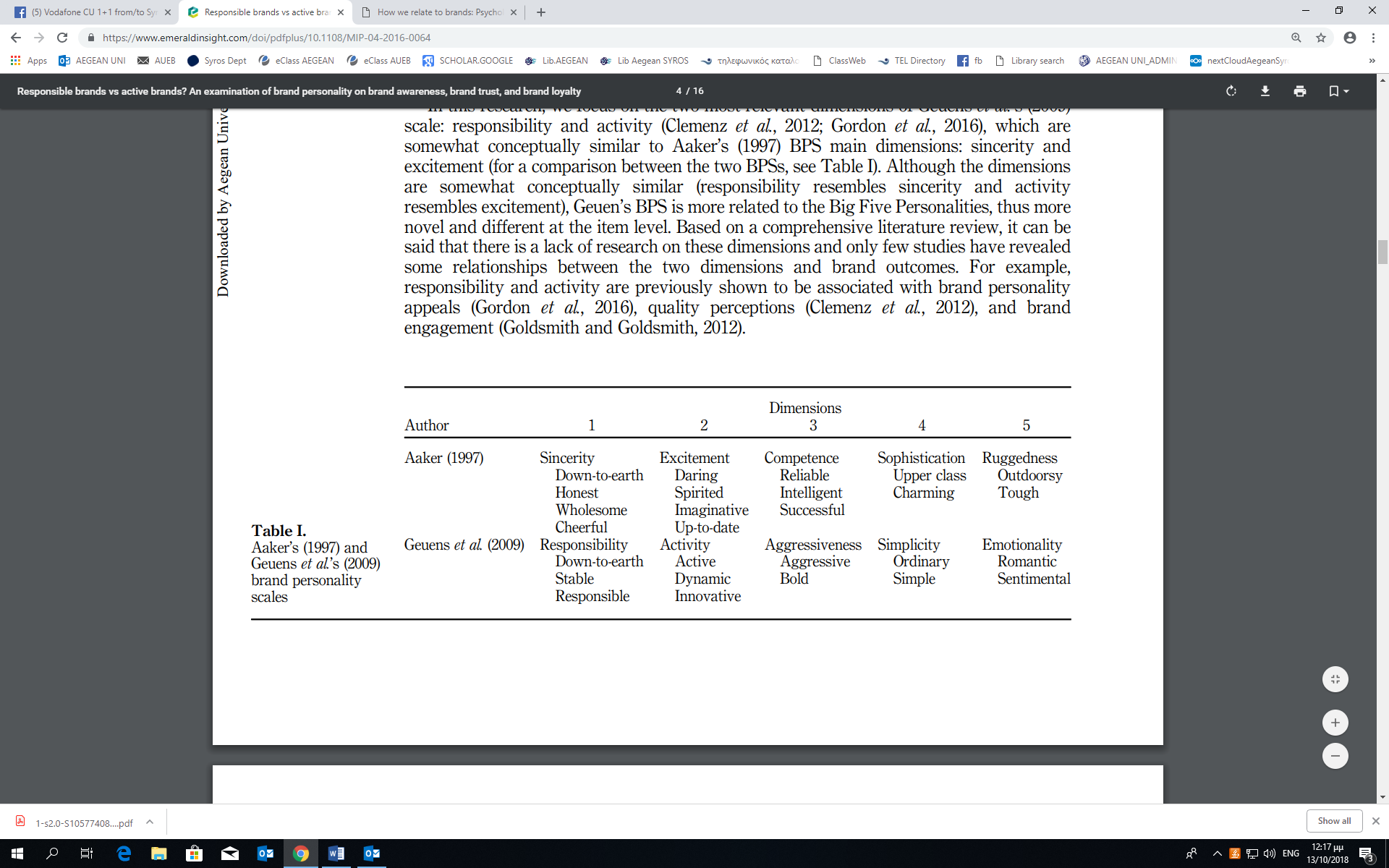
**Brand Awareness**

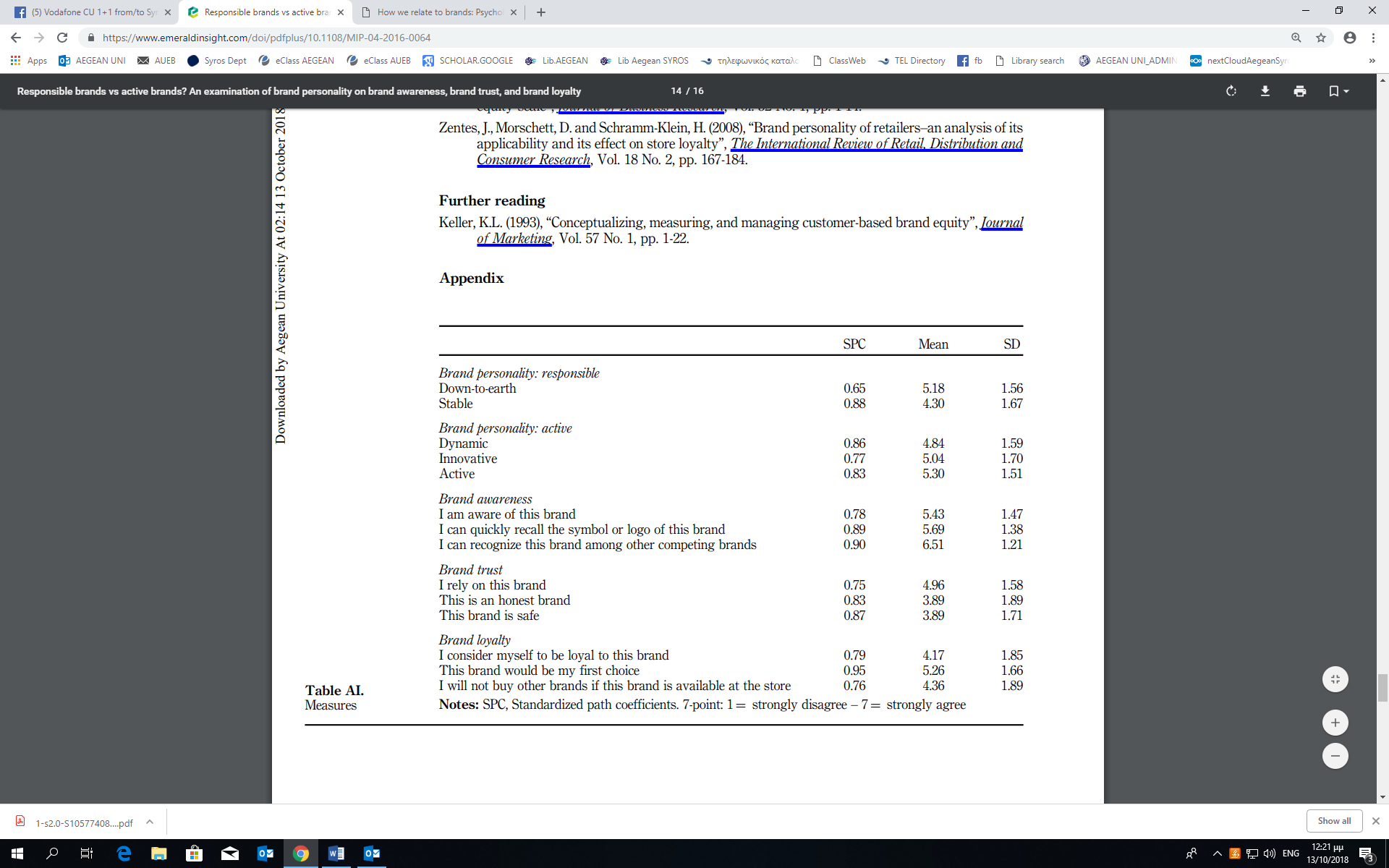
Brand awareness refers to a consumer’s brand recall or brand recognition (Aaker, 1991) and exerts a positive effect on consumer decision making (Hoyer and Brown, 1990; Macdonald and Sharp, 2000), brand image (Esch et al., 2006; Jara and Cliquet, 2012) and brand market outcomes such as sales and market share (Huang and Sarigöllü, 2012).

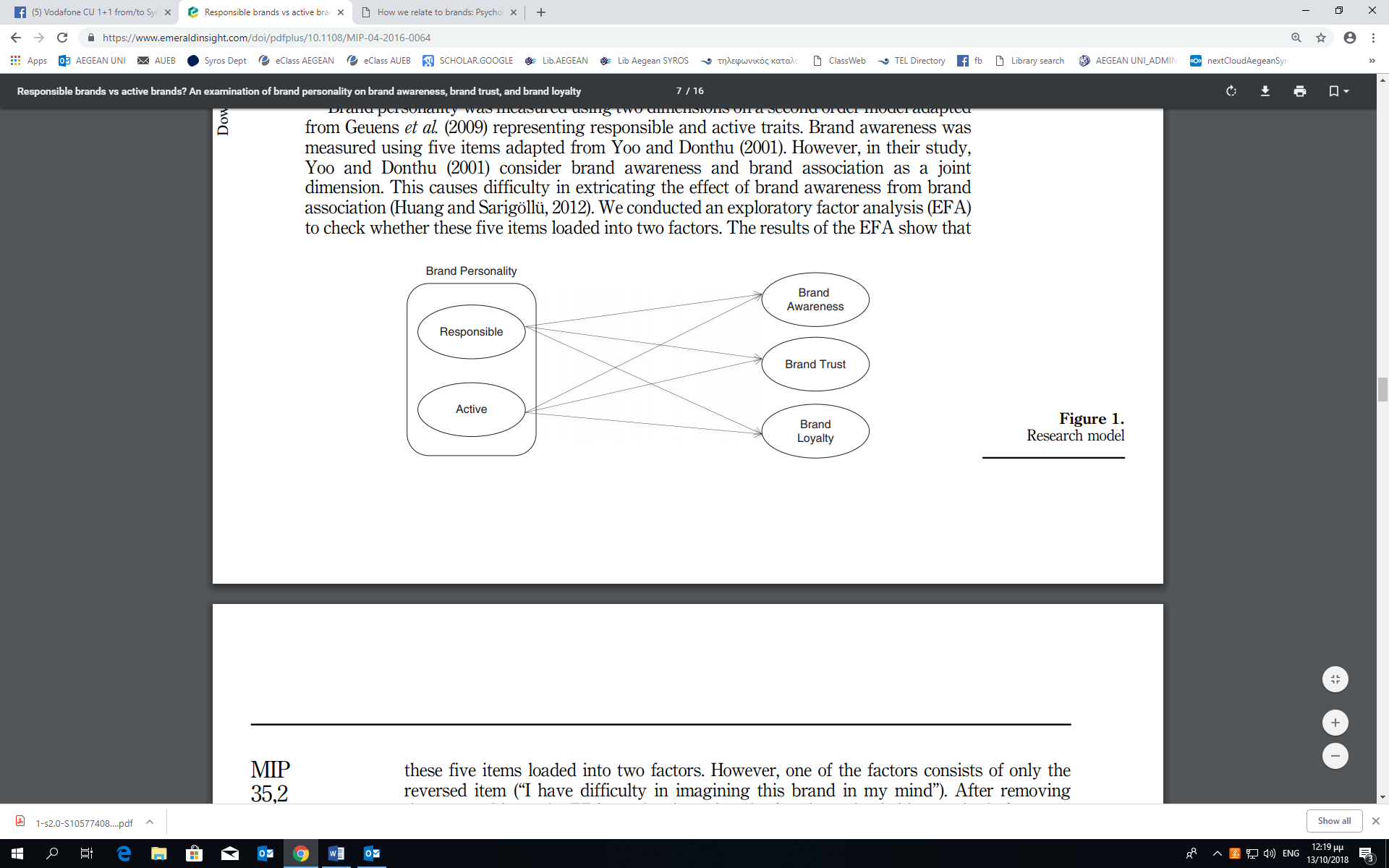
**Brand personality**

Aaker (1997, p. 347) defines brand personality as “the set of human characteristic associated with brand.”

Geuens et al. (2009) propose five new dimensions of brand personality: responsibility, activity, aggressiveness, simplicity, and emotionality







SOURCE <https://www.emeraldinsight.com/doi/pdfplus/10.1108/MIP-04-2016-0064>

**Brand identity**

Brand identity is an abstract concept that has been defined in several ways. The identity of a brand is usually based on its distinctive and durable core attributes (Albert and Whetten, 1985) that managers wish to develop and communicate. Aaker (1996) distinguishes between the core identity, comprising the central and timeless essence of the brand, and the extended identity, which includes other dynamic dimensions that may change as a consequence of different contexts. As such, he defines brand identity as “a unique set of brand associations that the brand strategist aspires to create or maintain” (Aaker, 1996, p. 68). Similarly, de Chernatony (2010) considers brand identity as the distinctive or central idea of a brand and how the brand communicates this idea to different stakeholders. In the same vein, Kapferer (2012) refers to brand identity as a brand’s meaning projected by the firm.

Aaker (1996) proposed a brand identity system based on 12 dimensions organised into four categories: brand as a product, an organisation, a person and a symbol.

Kapferer (2012) introduced the brand identity prism, which comprises six dimensions: physique, personality, relationship, culture, self-image and reflection.

de Chernatony (2010) conceives brand identity in terms of vision, culture, positioning, personality, relationships and presentation.

Suvatjis et al. (2012) built on this and developed the six-station model to guide brand identity building. The first station refers to leadership issues, the second to the strategy, the third to creativity, the fourth to communications, the fifth mainly refers to the staff and group dynamism and in the sixth station, the critical triplet station, the company’s corporate personality, reputation and image is finally formed by external stakeholders

* social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Mael and Ashforth, 1992). Social identity refers to the portion of an individual’s self-concept derived from perceived membership of a relevant social group. Thus, according to this theory, an individual’s self-concept may be composed of different identities which evolve from social groups, such as the workplace

Brand Identity was adopted from He et al. (2012)

**Brand identity (He et al., 2012**) [X]

is a first-class, high-quality brand .81 39.28 .88 .65 [X]

stands out from its competitors .84 44.09 [X]

has a distinctive identity .72 25.92 [X]

has a high reputation .85 47.53

Brand preferences (Sirgy et al., 1997) [X] r

elative … -Very Poor: Very Good .93 102.49 .94 .85 [X]

relative … -Very Unsatisfactory: Very Satisfactory .89 68.24 [X]

relative … -Very Unfavorable: Very Favorable .95 114.91

**Affective brand identification – adapted from Wolter and Cronin Jr (2016)**

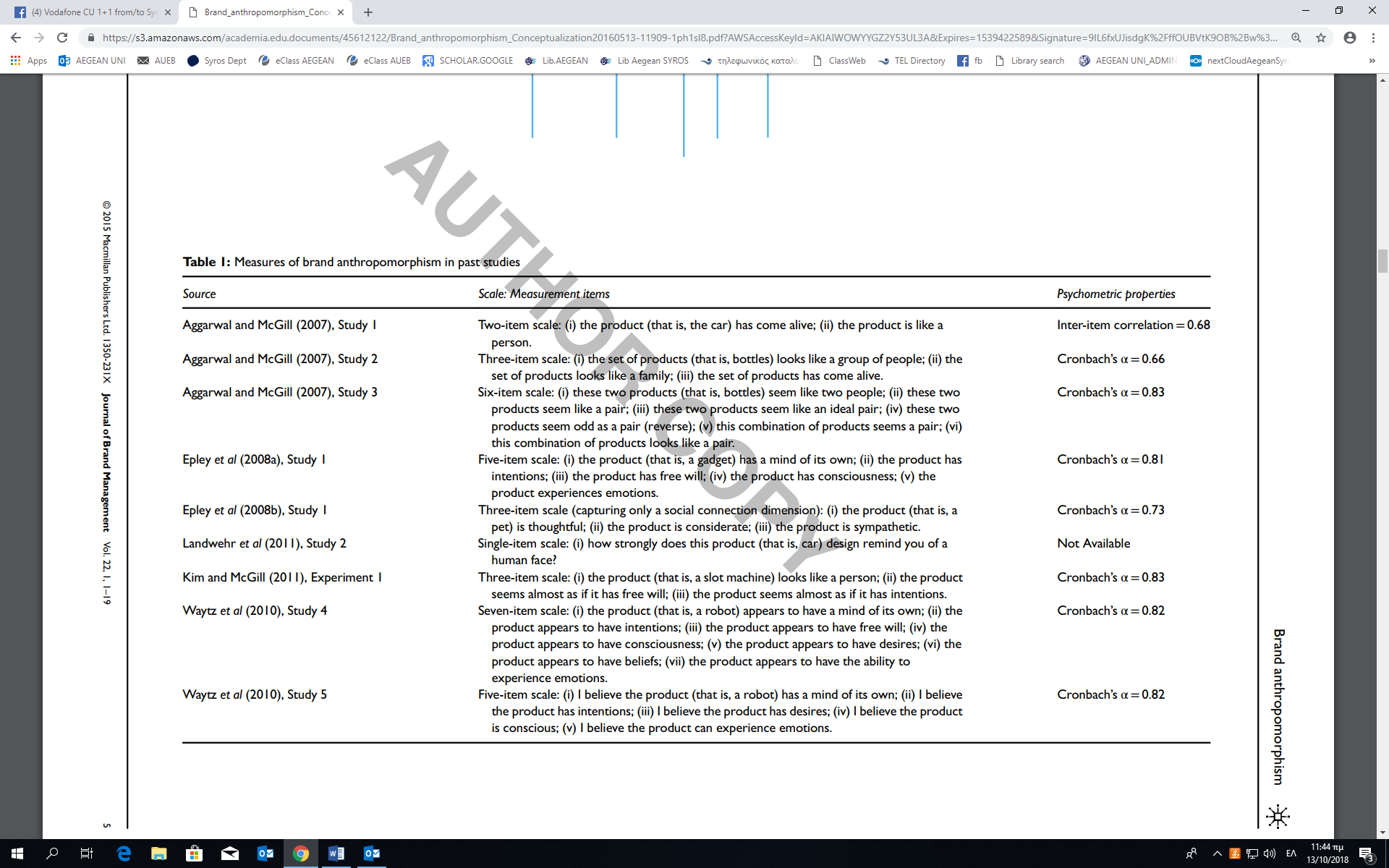
Overall, I feel good when people associate me with [X] .66 19.27 .82 .60

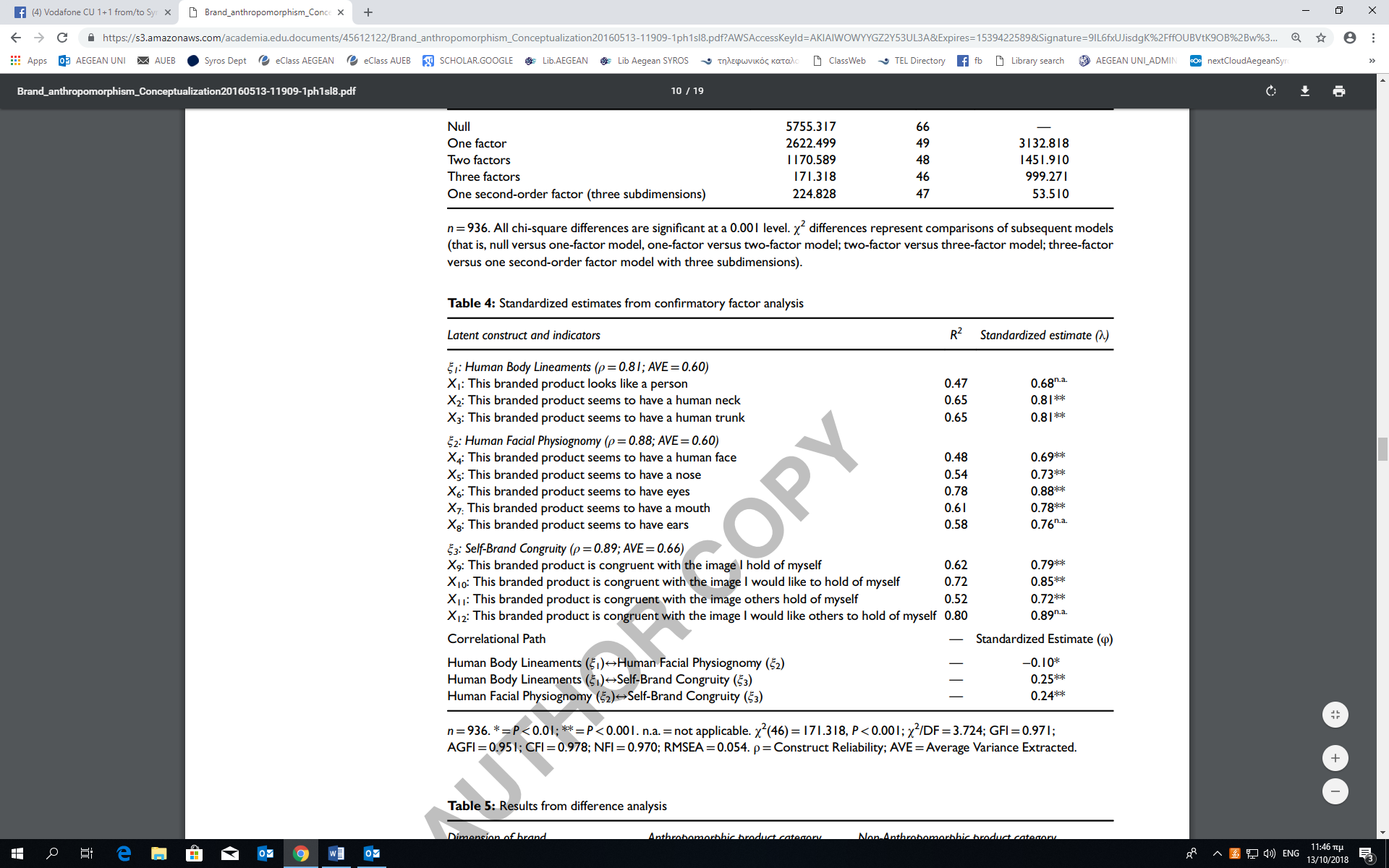
Generally, being associated with [X] gives me a sense of pride .83 36.31

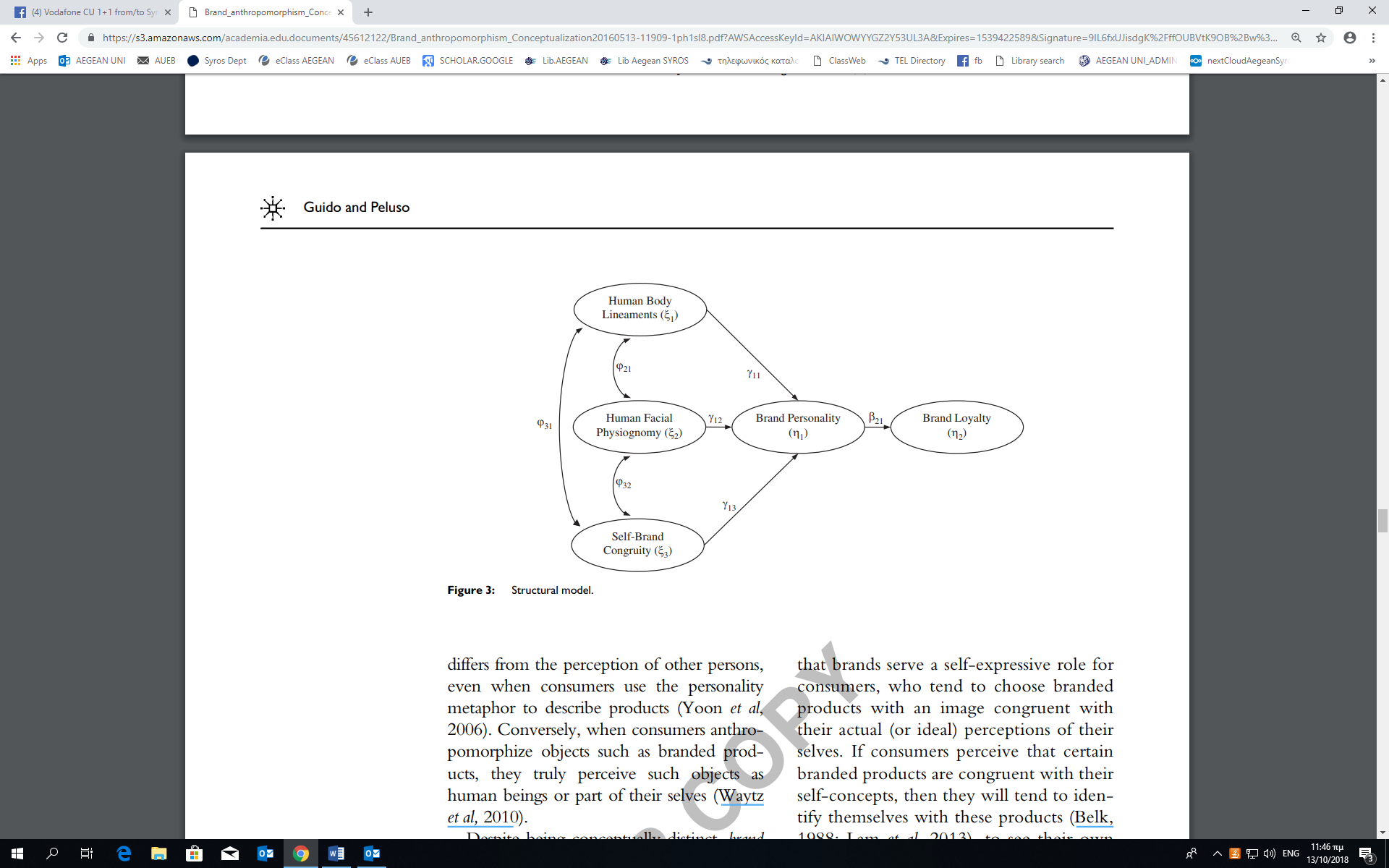
The things that [X] stands for makes me feel good to be connected with it

**Brand Anthropomorphism**

Anthropomorphism refers to the individual tendency to perceive inanimate objects as humanlike entities (Guthrie, 1993)







SOURCE <https://s3.amazonaws.com/academia.edu.documents/45612122/Brand_anthropomorphism_Conceptualization20160513-11909-1ph1sl8.pdf?AWSAccessKeyId=AKIAIWOWYYGZ2Y53UL3A&Expires=1539422589&Signature=9IL6fxUJisdgK%2FffOUBVtK9OB%2Bw%3D&response-content-disposition=inline%3B%20filename%3DBrand_anthropomorphism_Conceptualization.pdf>

**Brand image**

Research views brand image as: a collection of ideas, feelings and attitudes that consumers have about brands (Gardner & Levy, 1955; Schmitt, 2012); a mental representation of meaning (Paivio, 1969); a concept that sums up the ideas that consumers buy into brands for the meanings connected to them beyond their physical attributes (Levy & Glick, 1973).

According to Keller (1993), brand image encompasses consumers' perceptions about a brand, which form from brand associations in the memory, and is defined as “perceptions about a brand reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory” (p. 3).

Dobni and Zinkhan’s (1990) *definition* "brand image is largely a subjective and perceptual phenomenon that is formed through consumer interpretation, whether reasoned or emotional."

Brand imagery can be *measured* in various ways (Keller, 1998) and this study aims to understand the differences between the **personification approach** and the **non-personification approach** in predicting commonly used dependent variables such as satisfaction of the consumers, brand’s reputation, and consumer purchase intentions, when measuring brand image of a corporate brand

SOURCE: A comparative study of Brand image measurements <http://gloserv.org/wp-content/uploads/GLOSERV_2017_Conference_Proceedings.pdf#page=340>

brand image scales gather items from several works (Martin and Brown, 1990; Weiss et al., 1999; etc.) which attempt to assess tangible (functional image) and intangible (affective image) attributes and benefits, as well as the global attitude to the brand (reputation)

Brand image

Functional image (FUIM) (initial/final) Martin and Brown (1990)

FUIM1i/FUIM1f: The products have a high quality Aaker (1996) FUIM2i/FUIM2f: The products have better characteristics than competitors' Weiss et al. (1999) FUIM3i/FUIM3f: The products of the competitors are usually cheaper

Villarejo (2002) Affective image (AFIM) (initial/final) AFIM1i/AFIM1f: The brand is nice AFIM2i/AFIM2f: The brand has a personality that distinguishes itself from competitors AFIM3i/AFIM3f: It's a brand that doesn't disappoint its customers Reputation (REIM) (initial/final) REIM1i/REIM1f: It's one of the best brands in the sector REIM2i/REIM2f: The brand is very consolidated in the market

Brand Attitude

*Brand attitude* (Cronbach *α* = 0.83) was measured with three items (I do not like this brand/I like this brand, It is not a good brand/It is a good brand, It is not attractive brand/It is an attractive brand) that have been previously used on the study of [Yoo and Donthu (2001)](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S244496951730046X" \l "bib1375).

**Brand elements**

The brand name is accordingly considered as the “most central of the brand elements” (Keller, 2013) or as a part of the brand messages that make up the brand’s EJM 49,11/12 1942 (PT) image as a “distinctive sign” and a “source of identity” (Kapferer, 2012) .. The brand name signifies or identifies the branded entity

In Keller’s customer-based brand equity model (Keller, 1993), the choice of brand name is acknowledged as having an impact on brand equity

s. also *Round, Griff, and Stuart Roper. "When and why does the name of the brand still matter? Developing the temporal dimension of brand name equity theory." European journal of marketing51.11/12 (2017): 2118-2137*.

trust

**Brand involvement**

The perceived importance of a stimulus – be that stimulus the product (or brand) itself or the purchase decision task (Mittal, 1995), which encompasses a duality of cognitive and emotional motivational forces (Hollebeek et al., 2014).

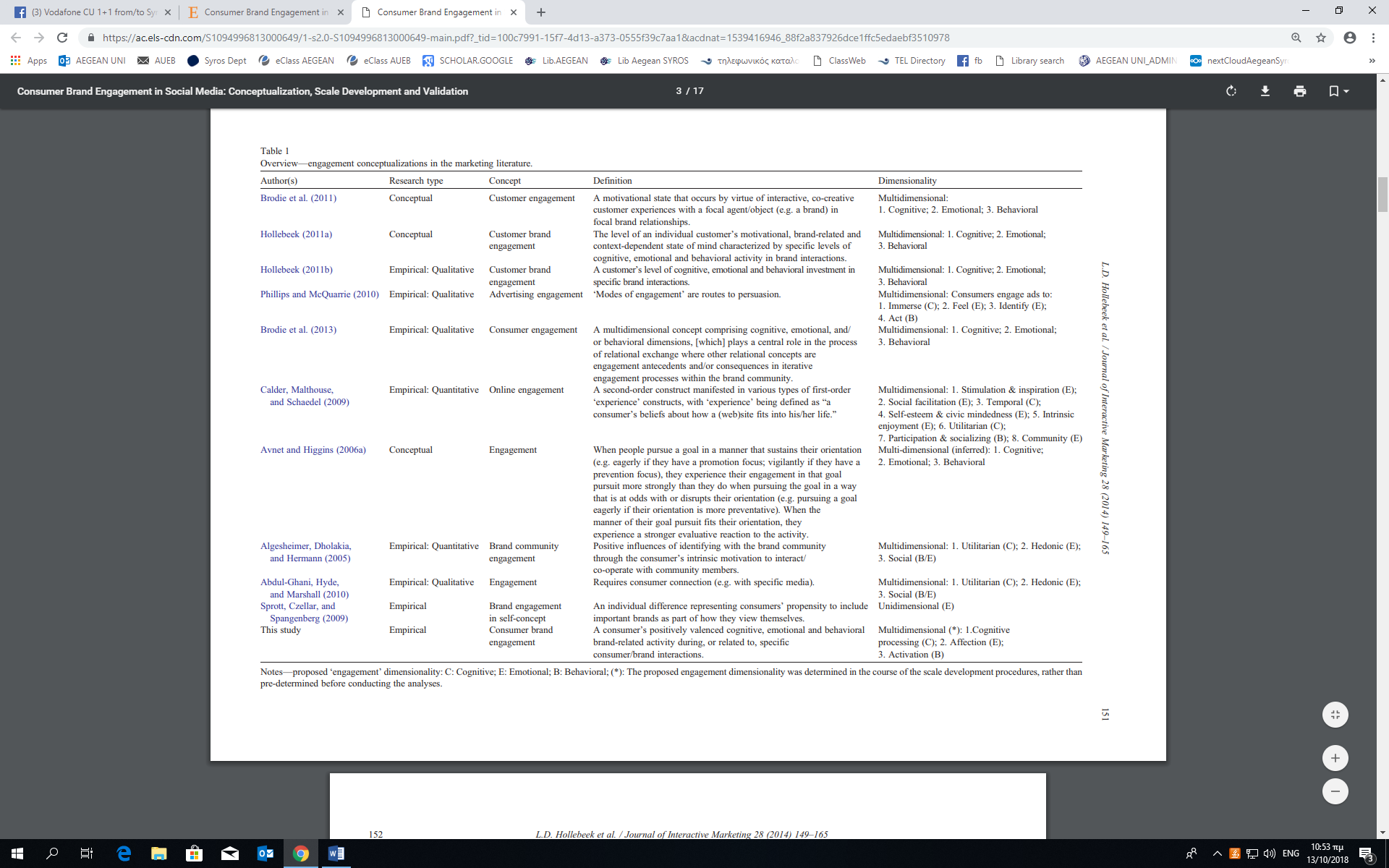
**Brand participation**

The degree to which a customer actively contributes with the firm/brand to improve their services, for the purpose of creating value both for themselves and for the firm/brand (Dabholkar, 1990).

**Brand engagement**

the consumer ‘engagement’ concept, more explicitly accounts for consumers' interactive brand-related dynamics (Brodie et al. 2011)

Brodie et al. (2011) define ‘customer engagement’ as “a psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive, co-creative customer experiences with a focal agent/ object (e.g. a brand).”



SOURCE: <https://ac.els-cdn.com/S1094996813000649/1-s2.0-S1094996813000649-main.pdf?_tid=100c7991-15f7-4d13-a373-0555f39c7aa1&acdnat=1539416946_88f2a837926dce1ffc5edaebf3510978>

Hollebeek et al. 2014: A consumer's positively valenced brand-related cognitive, emotional and behavioral activity during or related to focal consumer/brand interactions

A selection of engagement conceptualizations in academic disciplines (continued)

[in terms of Academic discipline Author(s) Concept Definition Dimensionality

Marketing

Algesheimer et al. (2005) Community engagement Customer’s intrinsic motivation to interact and cooperate with community members.

4 items Unidimensional

Marketing Vivek (2009) Consumer engagement Intensity of the consumer’s participation and connection with the organisation’s offerings and/or its organised activities.

44 items Enthusiasm Conscious participation Social interaction

Marketing

Calder et al. (2009) Online engagement A second-order construct manifested in various types of first-order experience constructs, with experience being defined as a consumer’s beliefs about how a (web)site fits into his/ her life.

37 items Stimulation and inspiration Social facilitation Temporal Self-esteem and Civic mindedness Intrinsic enjoyment Utilitarian Participation and socialising Community

Marketing

Sprott et al. (2009) Brand engagement in self-concept An individual difference representing consumer’s propensity to include important brands as part of how they view themselves.

8 items Unidimensional (cognitive)

Marketing

Cheung et al. (2011) Customer engagement The level of a customer’s physical, cognitive, and emotional presence in connections with a particular online social platform. Vigour Absorption Dedication

Marketing

Reitz (2012) Online consumer engagement A multidimensional construct that encompasses cognitions, affection, and behaviour. Cognitive Affective Participative

Marketing

Jahn and Kunz (2012) Fan-page engagement An interactive and integrative participation in the fan-page community and would differentiate this from the solely usage intensity of a member. 5 items Unidimensional (behavioural)

Marketing

Verleye et al. (2013) Customer engagement behaviours Behavioural manifestations of customer engagement toward a firm, after and beyond purchase.

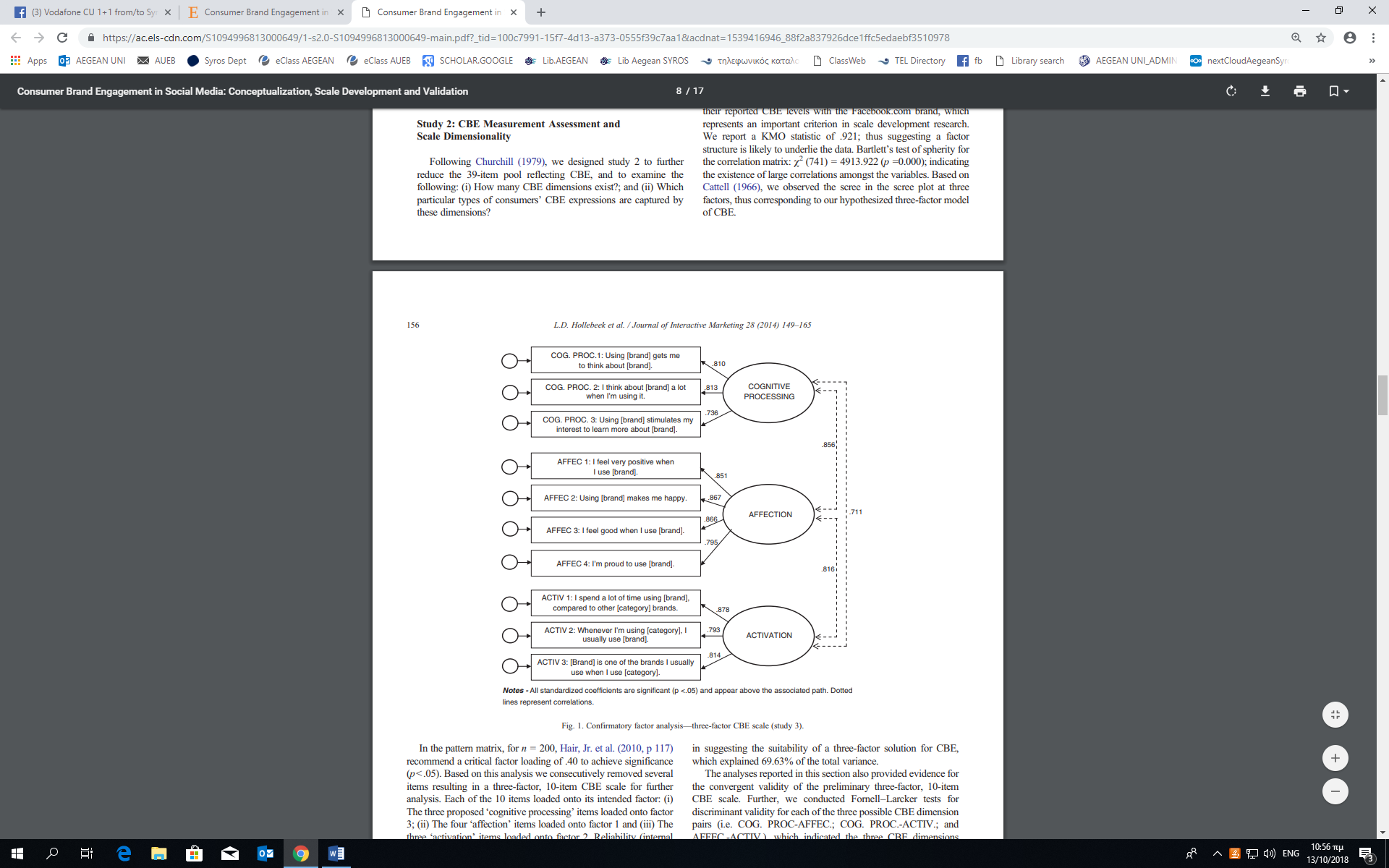
Compliance Cooperation Feedback Helping other customers Positive word of mouth

Marketing

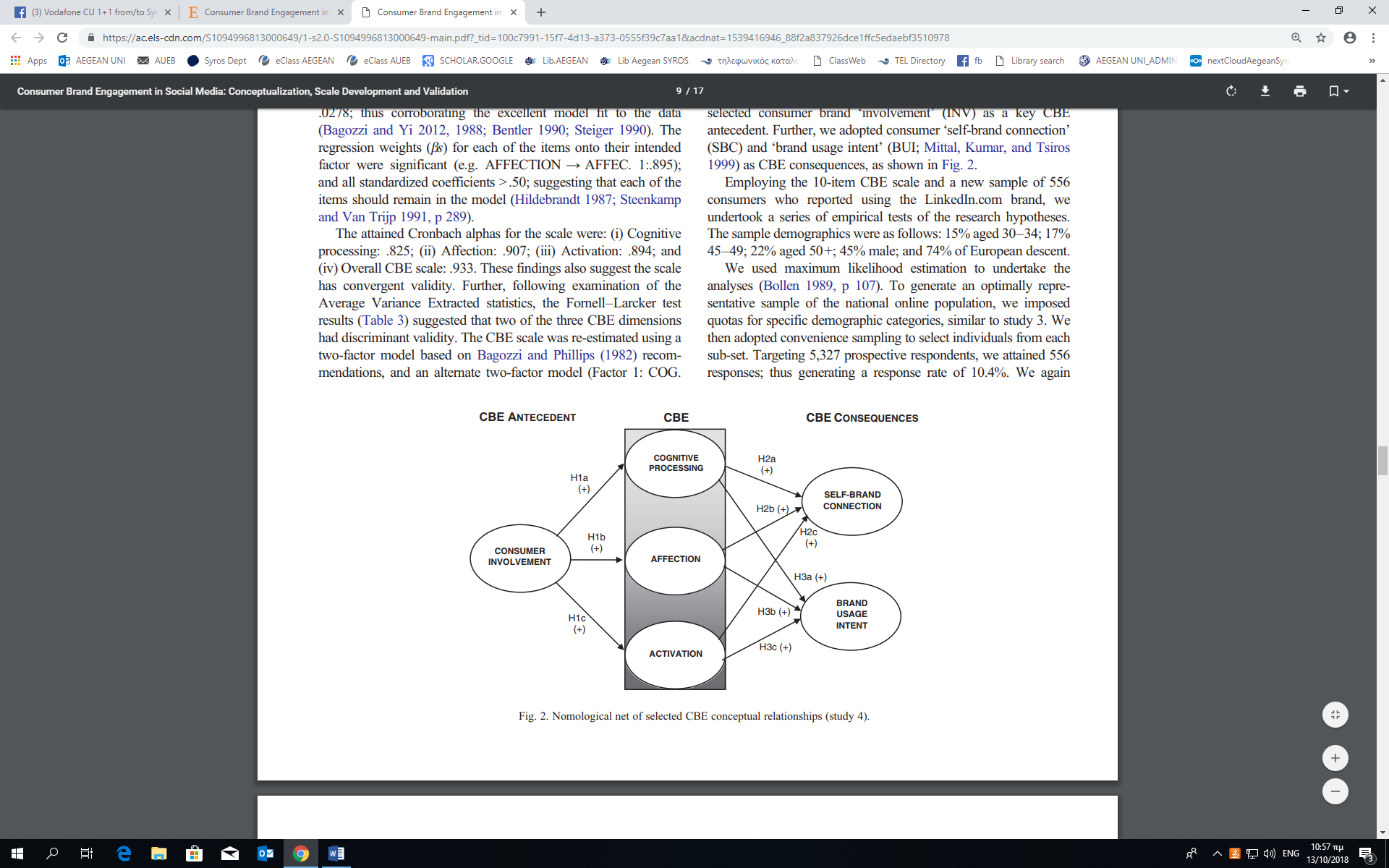
Hollebeek (2014) Consumer engagement behaviour A consumer’s positively valenced cognitive, emotional and behavioural brand related activity during, or related to, specific consumer/brand interactions.

Cognitive processing Affection Activation

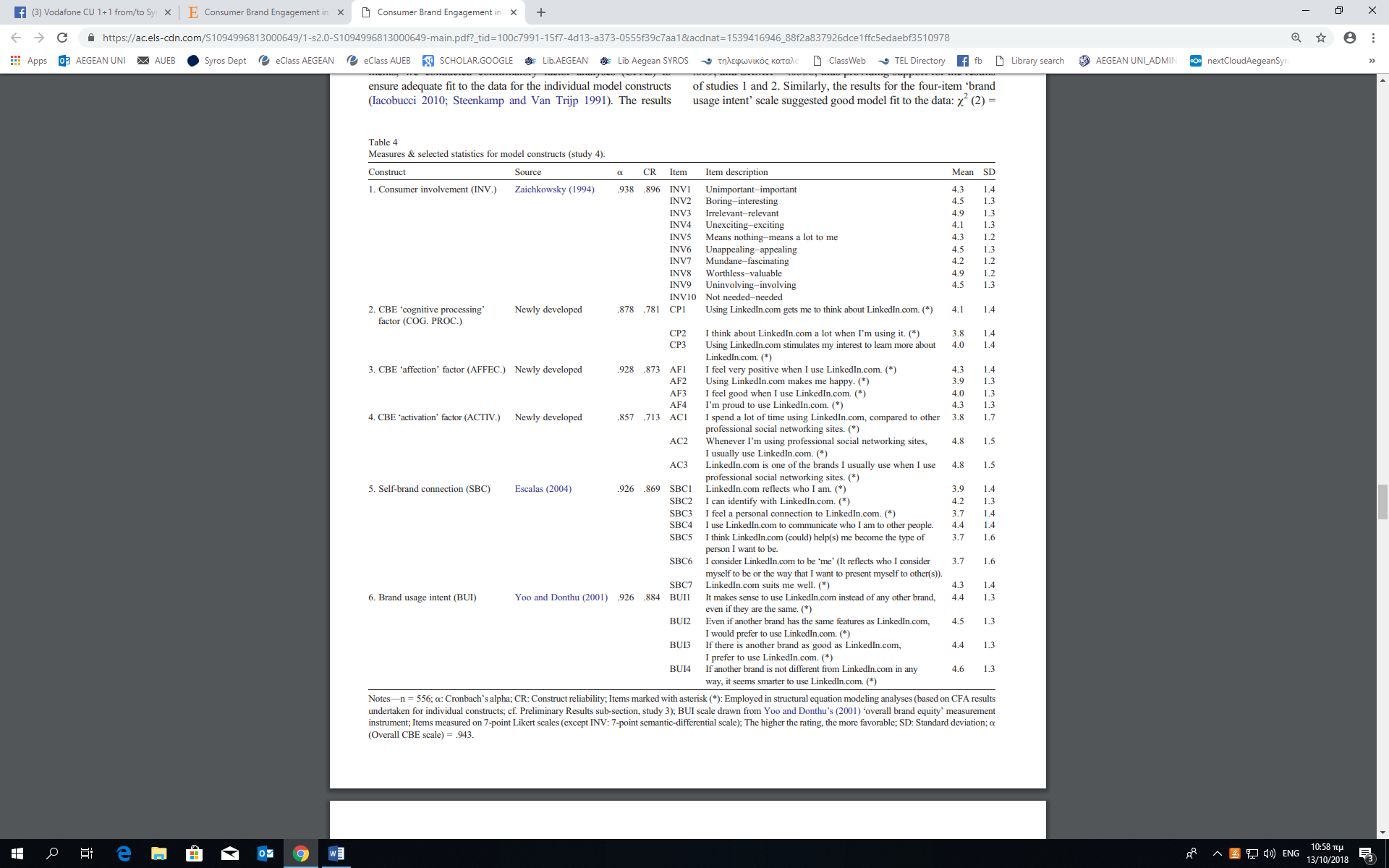
SOURCE: The role of customer brand engagement in social media <file:///C:/Users/irigop/Downloads/Theroleofcustomerbrandengagementinsocialmedia.pdf>



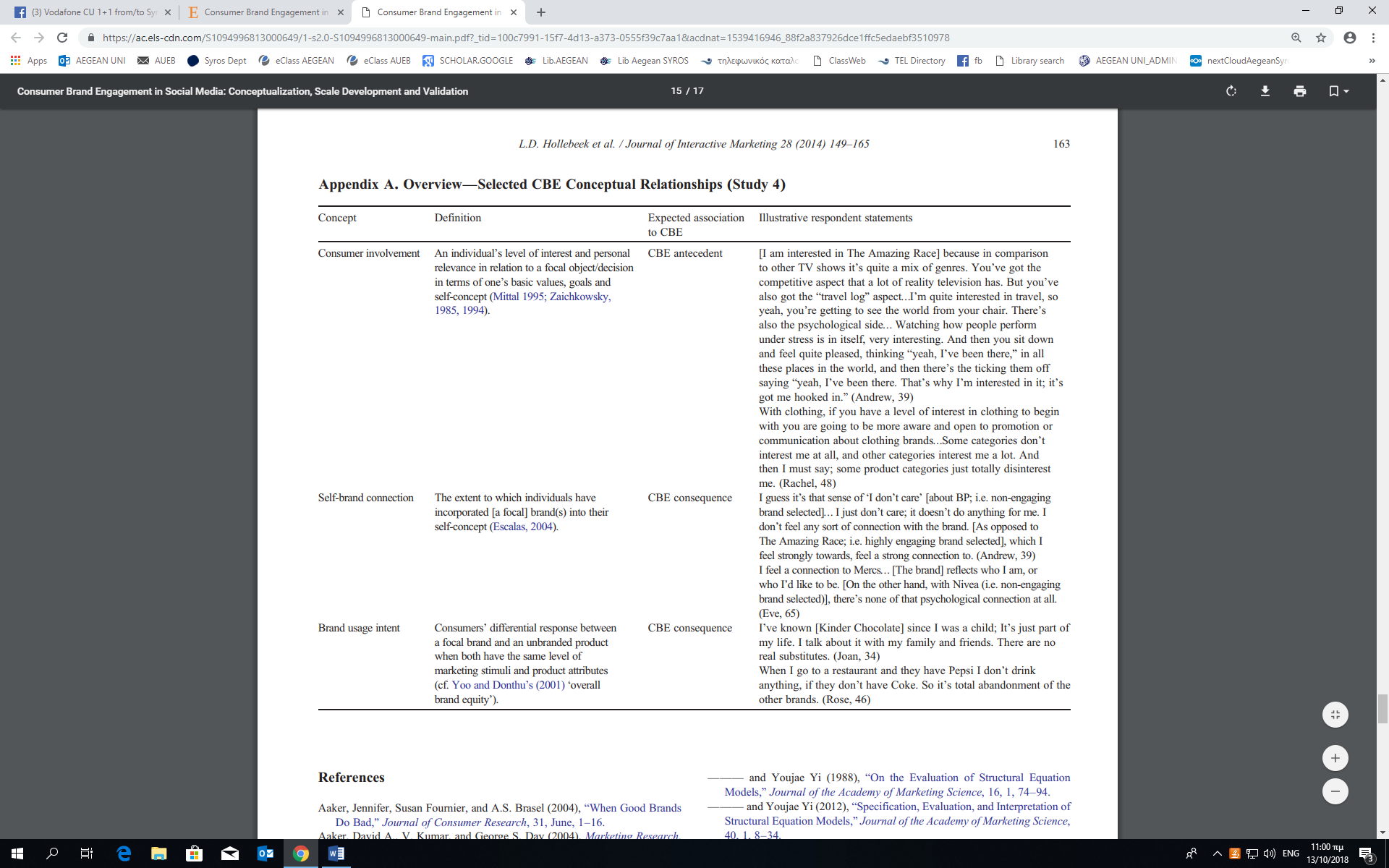
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**Brand Trust**

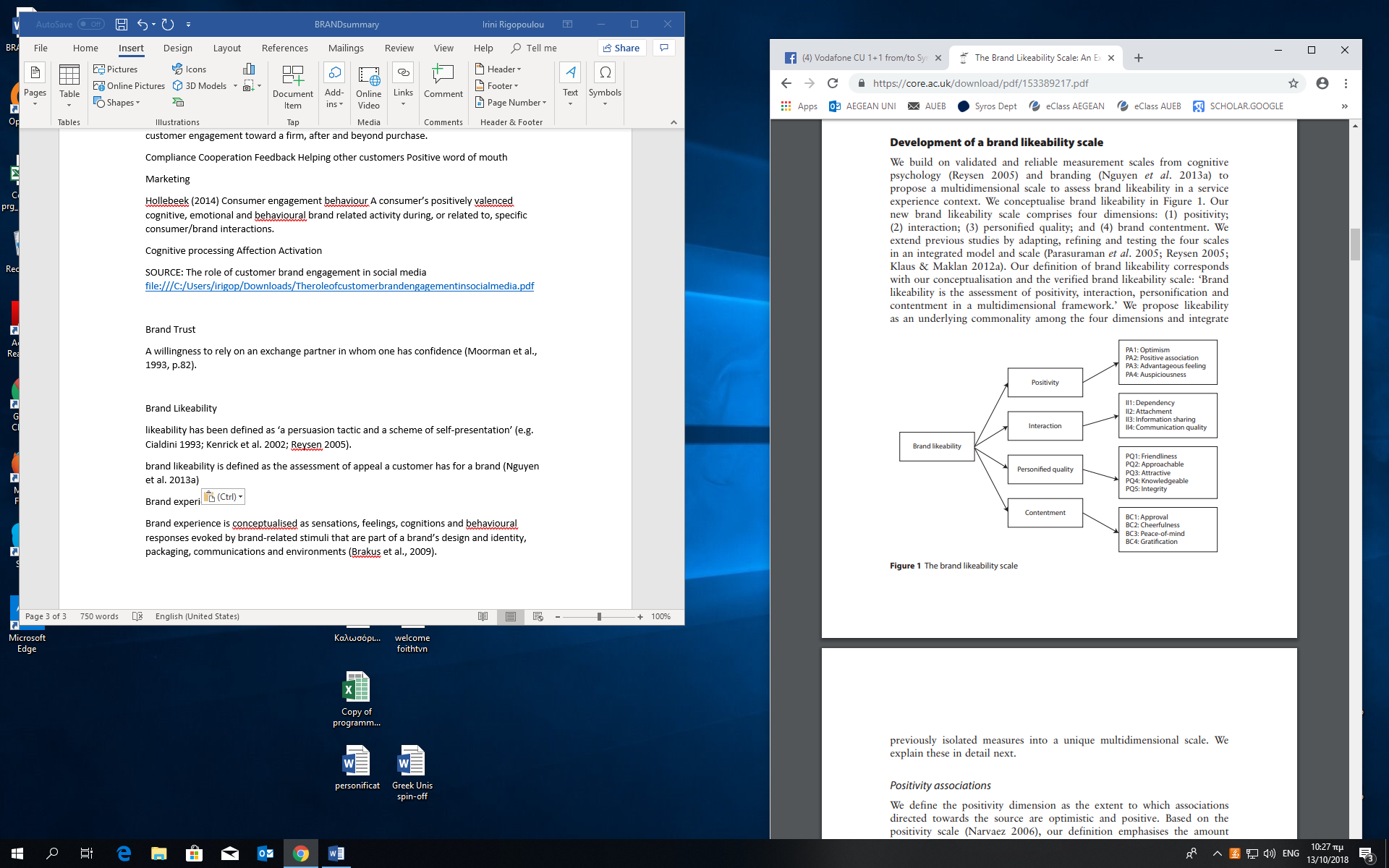
A willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence (Moorman et al., 1993, p.82).

Brand trust is defined as the willingness of the average customer to rely on the brand’s ability to perform its function (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001).

**Brand Likeability**

likeability has been defined as ‘a persuasion tactic and a scheme of self-presentation’ (e.g. Cialdini 1993; Kenrick et al. 2002; Reysen 2005).

brand likeability is defined as the assessment of appeal a customer has for a brand (Nguyen et al. 2013a)

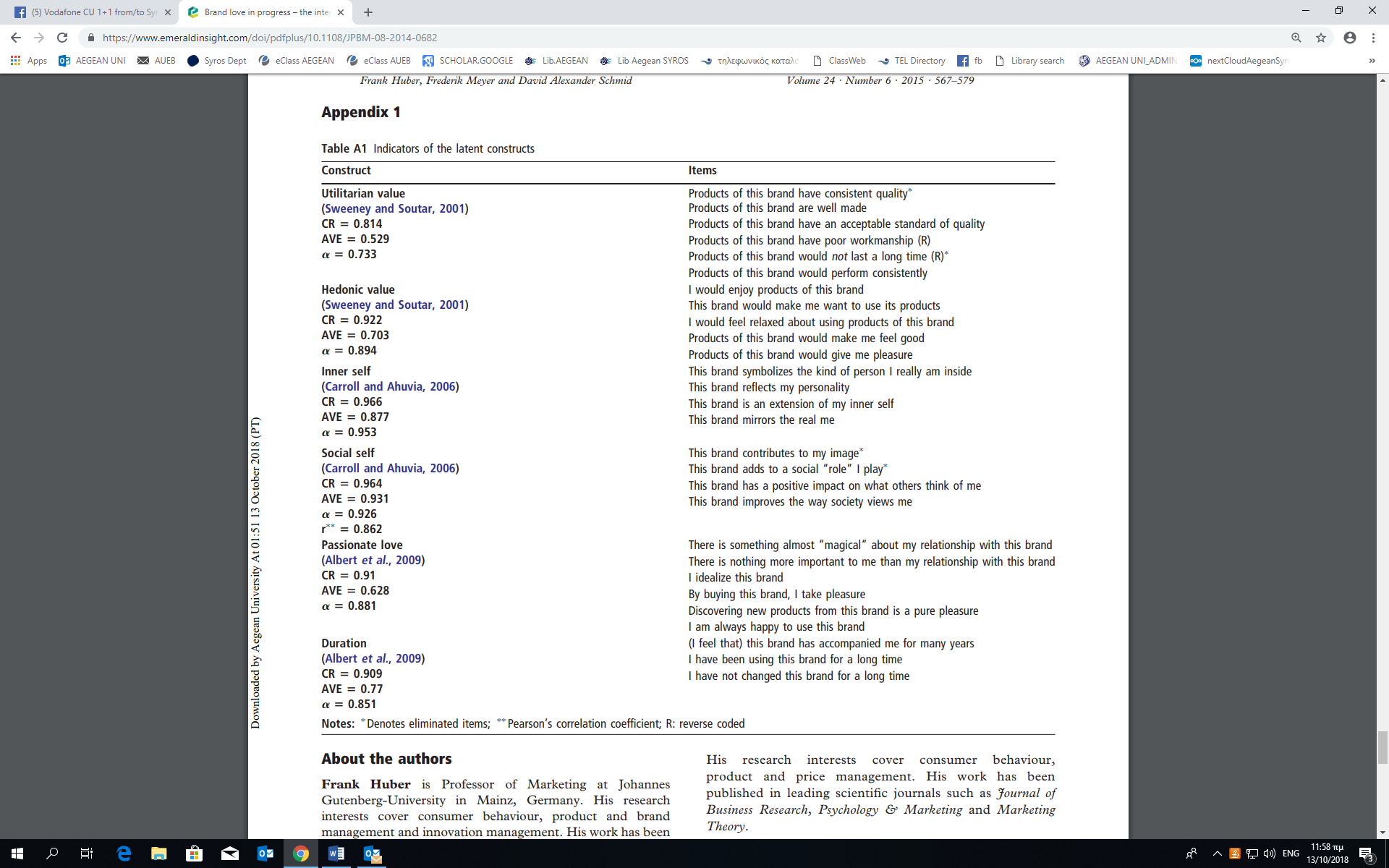


SOURCE: <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/153389217.pdf>

**Brand love**

Sternberg’s (1986) triangular theory of love, the brand love construct is based on the multidimensional construct of love within an interpersonal relationship (Shimp and Madden, 1988), asserting that the feeling of love towards a brand is highly similar to interpersonal love within a romantic relationship (Whang et al., 2004; Albert et al., 2009)

To measure *Brand love* a direct global measure was used to rate the degree to which the respondents loved the brand in question in an overall sense ([Batra et al., 2012](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S244496951730046X#bib0090)): “Overall, how much do you love [brand]” (1 = Not at all, and 7 = Much).



**Brand passion**

Hatfield and Walster (1978, p. 9) define passion as “a state of intense longing for union with another. Reciprocated love (union with other) is associated with fulfillment and ecstasy …, a state of profound physiological arousal.” Baumeister and Bratslavsky (1999, p. 52) provide another definition and indicate that passion involves “strong feeling for the other person. These feeling are typically characterized by physiological arousal and the desire to be united with the other person in multiple senses.” Therefore, interpersonal passion implies the partner's presence in the person's thoughts, the idealization of both the partner and the relationship, sexual attraction, and a desire for reciprocity (Hatfield, 1988)

brand passion is “a primarily affective, extremely positive attitude toward a specific brand that leads to emotional attachment and influences relevant behavioral factors” (Bauer et al., 2007, p. 2190), which “describes the zeal and enthusiasm features of consumer–brand relationships” (Keh, Pang, & Peng, 2007, p. 84) and “reflects intense and aroused positive feelings toward a brand” (Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005, p. 80).

brand passion (i.e., a strong positive feeling toward a brand) features examples and evidence of consumer enthusiasm (Bauer, Heinrich, & Marin, 2007; Belk, Ger, & Askegaard, 2003; Matzler, Pichler, & Hemetsberger, 2007) and activities such as belonging to a brand community (Schouten & McAlexander, 1995)

Bauer et al. (2007) study the determinants of brand passion and find influences of four brand characteristics: uniqueness, self expression ability, prestige, and hedonic features. Brand uniqueness is an antecedent of brand passion, though conceptually this element is considered as a dimension of consumer's affect (Ahuvia, 1993; Albert et al., 2008; Vincent, 2004). Brand passion also reflects individual factors, such as extraversion (Matzler et al., 2007). Yet other determinants, such as brand identification or brand trust, remain ignored, despite their influences on consumers' feeling of affect toward the brand (Albert, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2010).

**Brand misconduct**

Brand misconduct refers to a company's behavior or statement that disappoints consumers or public expectations of the brand. For example, Adidas, Nike, and Puma have contracted their product to factories that abuse child labor for production (Huber, Vollhardt, Matthes, & Vogel, 2010)

**Brand Devotion**

Devotion represents an intense emotional relationship and religious fervor

Hemetsberger et al. 2009, state that brand devotion refers to fervent loyalty towards the brand and a devotee tries to fervently defend the brand against all odds – The “highest” form of love

Brand Prominence

Brand prominence, a construct that reflects the conspicuousness of a brand logo (Han et al., 2008) This notion of visibility as well as the cognitive and affective bond that connect the brand to the consumers has been defined as brand prominence (Park et al., 2010).

. Consumer brand relationship constructs such as

brand trust (Hess, 1995),

brand identification (Escalas & Bettman, 2003), and

brand commitment (Fullerton, 2005) appear central to many branding studies.

Affective constructs such as

brand love (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006) or

brand attachment (Park, MacInnis, & Priester, 2006) also influence consumer behavior.

The recently proposed concept

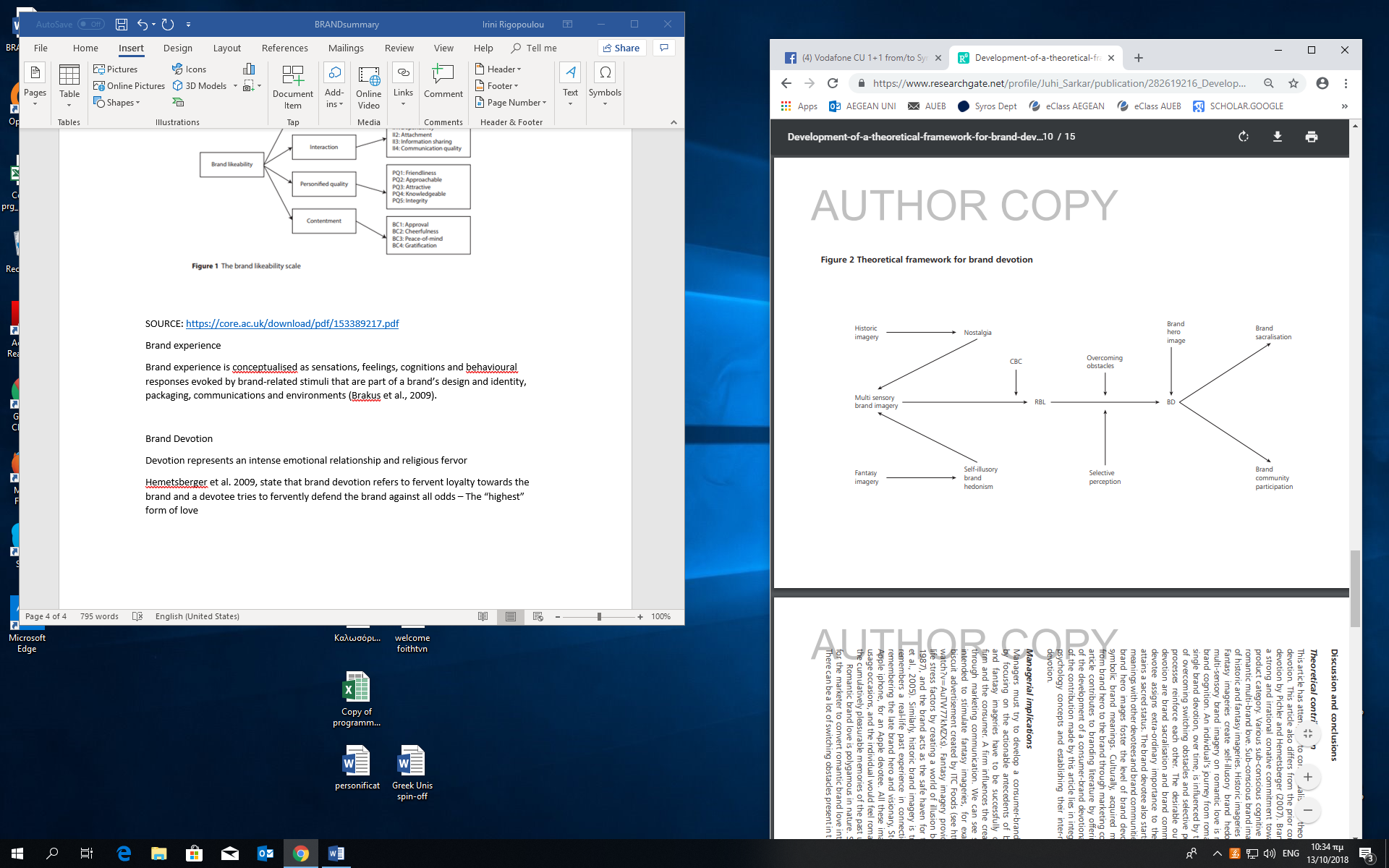
**Brand experience**

Brand experience is conceptualised as sensations, feelings, cognitions and behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand’s design and identity, packaging, communications and environments (Brakus et al., 2009).

**Brand commitment**

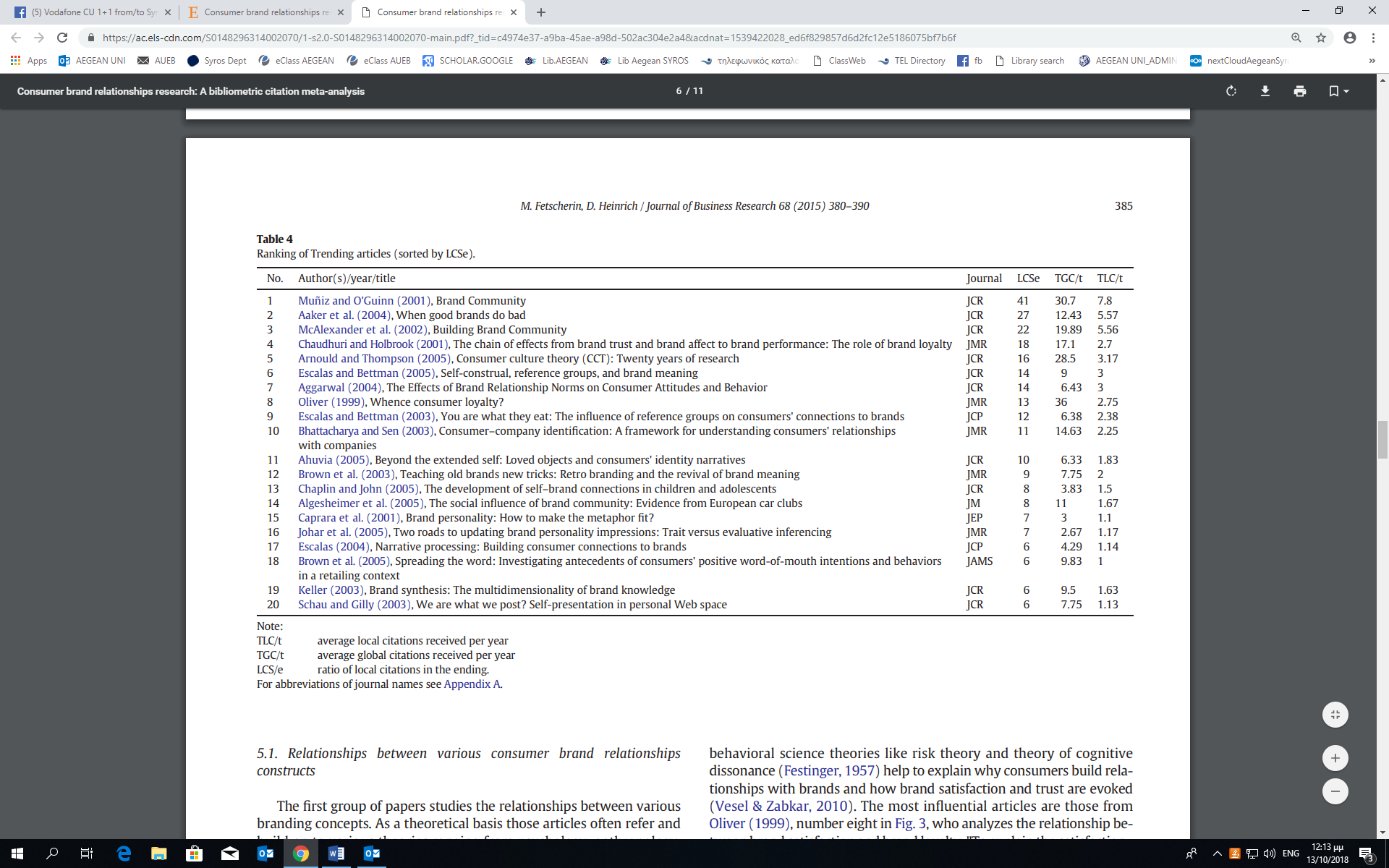
Brand commitment consists of three sources, including affective, continuance, and normative (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1996; Bansal, Irving, & Taylor, 2004). Affective commitment refers to the customer's emotional connection in a marketing relationship. Continuance commitment is the cost associated with consumers when they leave an exchange relationship, reflecting the benefit of the continuing relationship. Normative commitment is the degree of obligation that a consumer considers with regard to behavior (Gustafsson, Johnson, & Roos, 2005; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002)

**Brand co-creation**



SOURCE: Development of a theoretical framework of brand devotion

<https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Juhi_Sarkar/publication/282619216_Development_of_a_theoretical_framework_for_brand_devotion/links/578a844c08ae7a588eebc859/Development-of-a-theoretical-framework-for-brand-devotion.pdf>



<https://ac.els-cdn.com/S0148296314002070/1-s2.0-S0148296314002070-main.pdf?_tid=c4974e37-a9ba-45ae-a98d-502ac304e2a4&acdnat=1539422028_ed6f829857d6d2fc12e5186075bf7b6f>

Brand heritage

Brand resonance

Brand advocacy

Brand Reputation

Brand citizenship

Brand fidelity

Brand attractiveness

Brand tribalism

Brand narration

Brand authenticity

BRAND LOYALTY

Brand loyalty refers to the behavioral perspective and reflects mainly in the repeated purchase of a particular brand ([Assael, 1998](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X" \l "bb0030))

BRAND COMMITMENT

Brand commitment, on the other hand, relates to an attitudinal perspective. This perspective is the “reason why brand commitment is a better indicator of consumer satisfaction with brand choice” ([Warrington and Shim, 2000, p. 364](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X" \l "bb0285)), and is therefore the concept of interest in this study.

Consumers' commitment to a brand implies an emotional or psychological attachment that reflects the degree to which a brand is firmly entrenched as the only acceptable choice within a product class ([Warrington and Shim, 2000, p. 764](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X#bb0285)). Commitment in contrast to identification represents a positive attitude toward the brand while consumers' self and the brand remain separate entities ([Ashforth et al., 2008, p. 333](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X" \l "bb0025))

According to [Ellis (2000, p. 39–40)](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X" \l "bb0130) consumers' commitment to a brand is two-dimensional, resulting either from an emotional attachment to a brand (affective brand commitment) or from a need for approval or motivation to comply with normative beliefs and purchase an object (social compliance commitment). Although [Ellis (2000, p. 35)](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S014829631100258X" \l "bb0130) discusses loyalty dimensions, both evidently refer to consumers' commitment or “true loyalty” to a brand.

Tan, Teck Ming, et al. "A comparative study of creation of self-brand connection amongst well-liked, new, and unfavorable brands." *Journal of Business Research* 92 (2018): 71-80.

Albert, Noel, and Matthew Thomson. "A Synthesis of the Consumer-Brand Relationship Domain: Using Text Mining to Track Research Streams, Describe Their Emotional Associations, and Identify Future Research Priorities." *Journal of the Association for Consumer Research* 3.2 (2018): 130-146.

Fetscherin, Marc, and Daniel Heinrich. "Consumer brand relationships research: A bibliometric citation meta-analysis." *Journal of Business Research* 68.2 (2015): 380-390.

Park, C. Whan, and Deborah J. MacInnis. "Introduction to the Special Issue: Brand Relationships, Emotions, and the Self." (2018): 123-129.

Consumer- brand identification

Self-expansion theory

Self-congruty theory

Self-brand integration

by [Ahuvia et al. (2009)](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S244496951730046X" \l "bib0050), integration of an object into a person's identity only constitutes love when that integration is highly desired

*Self-brand integration* (Cronbach *α* = 0.967) was measured with the scale developed by [Batra et al. (2012)](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S244496951730046X" \l "bib0090). The scale originally consists on 12 items that represent the degree to which the brand is integrated into the consumer's self, express deeply held value and important group identities and provide intrinsic rewards.

self-brand integration were estimated using the ‘pick-a-point’ approach ([Hayes & Matthes, 2009](https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S244496951730046X" \l "bib0215)), with the sample mean and plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean representing ‘moderate’, ‘high’ and ‘low’ attitude towards the brand respectively

Self-brand connection

self-brand connection directly fulfills self-definitional needs of consumers (Belk 1988; Sirgy 1982).

theory of reciprocal action (Li and Dant 1997), a central tenet of which is that consumers often develop a strong sense of commitment towards a firm in response to its perceived relationship-building efforts. The theory has been validated across diverse consumerbrand relationship contexts (Kim et al. 2008; Yoon et al. 2008), and can be extended to the present context. Thus, consumers who perceive that a brand provides them with valuable self-identity-defining benefits are likely to reciprocate by engaging in long-term relational behavior with the brand, enabling them to continue to derive such self-definitional benefits (Dolich 1969). This dynamic likely enhances the importance and quality of the relationship for the consumer (Brodie et al. 2013)

relationship quality is conceptualized as a fully reflective second-order construct, defined as consumer perceptions of trust in a brand, commitment towards maintaining a relationship and perceptions of social benefits received from a brand. The first dimension, trust, is defined as consumer perception that a brand is dependable and can be relied on to do the right thing (Ganesan 1994). The second dimension, relationship commitment, is defined as consumers’ tendency to maintain the relationship (Aurier and N’Gaola 2010). Perception of social benefits received (the third dimension) is defined as consumer perception of personal recognition by a brand (Hennig-Thurau et al. 2002). This conceptualization of relationship quality is consistent with prominent conceptualizations adopted in the literature (Gregoire et al. 2009; Hennig-Thurau et al. 2002). Moreover, relationship quality is conceptualized as a fully reflective construct, that is, reflective at the first- and second-order levels (referred to as a Type-I construct by Jarvis et al. (2003). Endorser credibility is operationalized as a second-order fully reflective construct (Ohanian 1990), that is, measured using five items each for perceived attractiveness, expertise and trustworthiness as dimensions. Self-brand connection is measured using four items derived from Escalas and Bettman (2003). Finally, three items from Till and Busler (2000) operationalize endorser-brand fit, and overall satisfaction is measured using three items derived from Aurier and N’Goala (2010).

Trustworthiness

[Endorser] is trustworthy

[Endorser] is honest

[Endorser] is reliable

Attractiveness

[Endorser] is good looking

[Endorser] is attractive

[Endorser] is sexy

Expertise

[Endorser] is an expert

[Endorser] is knowledgeable

[Endorser] possesses experience

Endorser-brand fit

There is match-up

There is similarity

Combination is appropriate

Self-brand connection

I consider my telecom brand as a part of myself

I have a special bond with my telecom brand

I feel a personal connection with my brand

My brand is an important indication of who I am

Brand trust

The [brand] is honest in addressing my concerns

Cares about its customers

Can count on it to do what is right

Relationship commitment

Proud to be a customer

Intend to maintain an indefinite relationship

The brand has a lot of personal meaning

Social benefits

Relation based on brand’s ability to make me feel important

Relation based on brand’s ability to know my needs

Relation based on brand’s ability to build a one on one connection

Performance satisfaction

I did the right thing when I signed up

I am satisfied with my service

My choice is a wise one

Brand Relationships, Emotions, and the Self

**Introduction to the Special Issue: Brand Relationships, Emotions, and the Self**

**C. Whan Park** and **Deborah J. MacInnis**

**ONLINE:**Mar 05, 2018

* [**First Page**](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/abs/10.1086/696969)

* [**Full Text**](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)

* [**PDF**](http://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/pdfplus/10.1086/696969)

**Why Brand Relationships, Emotions, and the Self?**

* [Go to](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)

Brands and Brand Relationships

Our interest in this special issue is grounded in the early work on brands and brand relationships (Gardner and Levy [1955](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf16); Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis [1986](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf27); Fournier [1998](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf11)) and the growing academic and practitioner interest in understanding how consumers feel, think about, interact with, and form relationships with brands (see MacInnis and Folkes [[2017]](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf23) for a recent review). We realized that interest in consumer-brand relationships applies to all types of brands: product brands, service brands, corporate brands, celebrity brands, entertainment brands, place brands, and nonprofit brands. This expansive scope on the domain to which the word “brand” applies is important for several reasons. First, brands of all types can be integral to consumers’ lives, the goals they seek, the identities they build, the emotions they experience, and the resources they have at their disposal (e.g., Schouten and McAlexander [1995](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf32); Dinnie [2004](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf8); Thompson and Arsel [2004](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf35); Muniz and Schau [2005](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf25); Fournier [2010](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf13); Janiszewski and Warlop [2017](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf18)). Second, all types of brands can accrue financial and nonfinancial benefits that build the brand’s equity (e.g., Keller [1993](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf20); Aaker [2009](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf1)). Third, each type of brand can build brand relationships by enabling, enticing, and enriching customers (Park, MacInnis, and Eisingerich [2016](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf29)).

Brand Relationships and the Self

Whereas brands and brand relationships can be described along any number of dimensions (e.g., Aggarwal [2004](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf2); Fournier [2009](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf12)), our interest centers on the dimension of the brand’s *self-relevance*. Self-relevance concerns the extent to which the brand is deemed personally meaningful and significant in fulfilling psychological, utilitarian, hedonic, social, symbolic, or even spiritual goals. Brands that are highly self-relevant resonate with consumers’ current concerns, life projects, or life experiences (Huffman, Mick, and Ratneshwar [2000](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf17); Keller [2012](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf22)). Self-relevant brands can become strongly connected to one’s self (Escalas and Bettman [2005](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf10); Park et al. [2010](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf28)). Some connections between the brand and the self are so strong that the concept of “self” includes the brand (Belk [1988](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf4); Reimann and Aron [2009](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf30)). Consumers are likely to engage with self-relevant brands frequently (Brodie et al. [2011](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf6); Gallup [2011](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf15)), making such brands highly salient or prominent in memory (Park et al. [2010](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf28)). Consumers are not the only beneficiaries when their brand relationships are self-relevant. As noted above, firms benefit as well. Consumers are more likely to remain loyal to, pay a price premium to acquire, and engage in positive brand advocacy in supporting those brands that are most self-relevant (Park et al. [2010](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf28)).

Self-Relevant Brands and Emotions

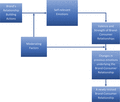
Moreover, when brands are relevant to consumers’ goals and strongly connected to the self, consumers should connect with these brands emotionally (Thomson, MacInnis, and Park [2005](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf34)). By virtue of their role in goal fulfillment, self-relevant brands should have the potential to elicit strong and positive emotions that tie directly to and implicate the self (Brown and Marshall [2001](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf7)). We call them *self-relevant emotions*. They include love (Batra, Ahuvia, and Bagozzi [2012](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf3)), trust, pride, awe, gratitude, and happiness. Strong and positive emotions evoked by self-relevant brands should also be *motivational*. They should evoke brand attachment (Park et al. [2010](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf28); Park, Eisingerich, and Park [2013](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf26)) and motivate not just repeat purchase, but also the psychological and affective commitment observed through positive brand advocacy behaviors and brand community involvement (Muniz and O’Guinn [2001](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf24); Wang [2002](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf36); Muniz and Schau [2005](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf25); Sung and Choi [2010](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf33)).

Yet, we also realized that not all brand relationships are positive (Fournier [1998](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf11); Fournier and Alvarez [2012](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf14)). Indeed, self-relevant brand relationships can be described on a continuum that ranges from strong and positive, to neutral, to negative brand-self connections (Fournier [1998](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf11); Escalas and Bettman [2003](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf9); Park et al. [2013](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf26)). When a brand is highly self-relevant and it evokes positive feelings, consumers are likely to develop a positive and strong relationship with the brand. When the brand’s relevance to self is weak, consumers are likely to feel indifferent toward the brand, in terms of both their emotions and their behaviors. When the brand’s relevance to the self is strong but negative, consumers can experience strong and negative brand affect. Rather than feeling attached to the brand, they experience brand aversion (Park et al. [2013](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf26)). Rather than experiencing strong positive emotions, one experiences strong negative emotions toward the brand (e.g., anger, embarrassment, shame, and disgust; Johnson, Matear and Thomson [2010](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf19)). In short, we saw growing interest in brands and brand relationships that implicate the self and evoke strong self-relevant emotions.

**The Research Landscape on Brand Relationships, Emotions, and the Self**

* [Go to](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)

In light of the prior research on brands, relationships, and the self, we believed (and still do) that we have an opportunity to deepen our understanding of topics at the center of this brand-self-relationship nexus. Indeed, we realized that we have just scratched the surface on the types of questions that can be considered. To frame some of the interesting and relevant issues, we developed [figure 1](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969). The figure pictorially depicts what we saw as interesting research opportunities about brand relationships, emotions, and the self: opportunities that drove this issue’s call for papers.

[](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)

**Figure 1.**Formation and change of consumer-brand relationship.

Self-Relevant Relationship-Building Brand Actions

In particular, we saw considerable potential to deepen our understanding of how a brand’s relationship-building actions influence self-relevant emotions, and how such emotions affect the valence and strength of the brand’s connection to the self (see [fig. 1](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)). Indeed, whereas prior research has examined the consumer and equity-building benefits of building strong brand relationships, we know considerably less about what drives such relationships in the first place. How do marketing actions like aspirational branding strategies, brand personality characteristics, brand aesthetics, logos, and brand meaning influence the valence and strength of brand relationships? Do they do so by virtue of the self-relevant emotions they evoke? How should the brand’s utilitarian functions, hedonic qualities, symbolic meanings, and values be best managed so as to induce strong and positive brand-self connections?

Self-Relevant Emotions

Moreover, we saw considerable opportunity to explore the emotional and motivational aspects of consumers’ relationships with self-relevant brands. When brands are self-relevant by virtue of their link to goal attainment, goal fulfillment should result in emotions that also implicate the self (Brown and Marshall [2001](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf7)). Emotions like gratitude, excitement, joy, nostalgia, pride, relief, inspiration, trustworthiness, respect, and love can arise when brand-building actions implicate a desired self and enhance goal fulfillment. Likewise, emotions like fear, anxiety, embarrassment, guilt, shame, disgust, regret, and anger can result when brands implicate an undesired self or fail to enhance self-relevant goals.

We saw an opportunity to deepen our knowledge of the types of emotions evoked in brand relationships characterized by varying degrees of self-relevance. Since not all emotions are equally self-relevant and since self-relevance influences the strength and valence of self-brand relationships, we need to identify and focus on key emotions that critically affect these relationships. We also saw an opportunity to better understand the mediating role of self-relevant emotions on the relationship between brand-building actions on the one hand, and the valence and strength of brand-self connections and strong brand relationships on the other (see [fig. 1](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)).

Interesting questions pertinent to self-relevant emotions include the following: What kinds of self-relevant emotions are implicated in positive or negative brand relationships? What is the role of relationship-oriented states like trust (mistrust), love (hate), and respect (contempt) in developing positive (negative) consumer-brand relationships? Just as the primary colors (i.e., red, yellow, and blue) and their combination create secondary and tertiary colors, relationships based on different levels of trust, love, and respect may lead to distinct types of consumer-brand relationships. We also wondered whether it is more difficult to evoke certain kinds of self-relevant emotions than others when developing brand relationships? For example, is it more difficult to create brand respect than to create brand trust or brand love? If so, is this because the former is a self-conscious emotion that implicates the self both cognitively and affectively while the latter implicates the self only cognitively (as with trust) or affectively (as with love)?

We wondered about the process(es) by which emotions influence the *strength* of brand relationships. Do self-relevant negative emotions like fear, anxiety, embarrassment, guilt, shame, disgust, regret, and anger exert an equal influence on valence and strength of consumers’ brand-self connections? We also wondered about whether consumer-relevant factors like age, reference group affiliation, temporal orientation, or self-construal could moderate the effects of a brand’s relationship-building actions on consumers’ self-relevant emotions.

Self-Relevant Emotions and Brand Relationship Change

Finally, whereas research to date has emphasized the formation of brand relationships, we realized that the valence and strength of brand relationships are not static; they are subject to change. Yet, as a field we have not focused on when, why, and how brand relationships change over time. We saw an opportunity to examine how brand-building actions might make brand relationships more stable over time. Such might be the case when brands continuously improve the brand’s benefits (and relevance to the self) over time. Brand relationships can change from positive to negative, as when the brand’s actions (or lack thereof) are viewed by consumers as entailing a serious transgression such as deception. Brand relationships can change over the life-course, as brands become more or less significant to consumers’ changing goals. Moreover, certain types of consumers (e.g., those with low self-esteem, those who are from interdependent cultures, those who are of a certain age) may be more versus less affected by a brand’s relationship-building actions than others.

We also saw opportunities to examine whether and how certain emotions influence the changeability of brand relationships over time. For example, are brand relationships based on positive emotions like gratitude, nostalgia, pride, relief, inspiration, and love equally vulnerable or resistant to change? Do emotions that relate to self-esteem (e.g., pride, inspiration) have a greater influence on the duration of brand relationships characterized by high/low self-relevance than other emotions do? Brands that evoke excitement, for example, may initially have a strong impact on attachment-based brand relationships. However, excitement may be difficult to sustain over time (e.g., Reimann et al. [2012](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf31)). A different relationship trajectory might occur when brands are self-relevant by evoking pride.

In short, it was clear to us that we have much to learn about how self-relevant emotions can induce changes in the strength and valence over the course of a brand relationship as well as the moderating factors that influence such changes (see [fig. 1](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)).

**Articles in the Special Issue**

* [Go to](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)

The scope of research issues implied in [figure 1](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969) is broad and provocative. Fortunately, a set of the world’s most noted branding experts have risen to the challenge of expanding our knowledge in ways pertinent to [figure 1](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969). The composite set of papers does much to advance our thinking.

Overview

Albert and Thomson provide solid grounding both for the special issue and the historical literature base that undergirds it. They use text mining to analyze 287 research articles that comprise the consumer-brand relationship domain, including the articles in this special issue. Their analysis identifies constructs core to the literature on consumer-brand relationships (e.g., attachment, connection, identification, commitment, love, trust, loyalty) as well as constructs that are gaining interest among more niche audiences (transgressions, brand-self congruity, relationship quality). A similar analysis identifies core and niche emotions studied in the brand relationship domain (e.g., feeling loving, afraid, angry, passionate, excited, envious, sad, shame, and guilty). Analysis of the combined corpus also reveals seven research streams that have studied emotions in the context of brand relationships. The authors observe that from 1999 to 2015 various constructs have occurred more versus less frequently in the literature, with less emphasis over time on constructs like community and brand meaning and more on brand attachment. A general conclusion from their work is that academic interest in brand relationships, emotions, and the self is significant. This finding underscores the importance of the special issue. The authors identify myriad emotions that have been studied in the context of consumer brand relationships. They strongly suggest the need for more focused research on self-relevant emotions in the context of brand relationships. The articles in the special issue are on target with respect to this issue as well.

Brand Relationship Building Actions

Approximately half of the articles in the special issue examine potential brand-building actions that might induce self-relevant emotions, foster brand-self connections, and build strong and positive brand relationships (see [fig. 1](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)). Zhang and Patrick consider brand nicknames (e.g., Big Blue for IBM, Chevy for Chevrolet, Rollie for Rolex) as potential drivers of self-relevant emotions and the strength of brand relationships. Their studies find that brand nicknames evoke positive brand-related emotions (e.g., affection, love) that influence both the brand’s cognitive closeness (self-brand connection) and salience (brand prominence): components of brand attachment. Cognitive closeness and salience also encourage consumers’ brand relationship maintenance behaviors. Based on their elegant conceptual framework and strong empirical results, the authors provide compelling insight into the use of brand nicknames as vehicles for building brand relationships.

Malär, Herzog, Krohmer, Hoyer, and Kähr examine the potential limits of aspirational branding strategies (those designed to appeal to consumers’ ideal self). Consumers anticipate feeling better about themselves through the use of brands linked to an ideal self. However, activation of an ideal self can also make consumers feel envy toward those who are better than they are. Such mixed emotions leave consumers feeling ambivalent about the brand. But several factors moderate these effects; the size of the gap between the actual and ideal self and the extent to which the brand positions itself as holding agentic versus communal brand values. Their results suggest that marketers need to understand aspects of consumers (ideal brand self-congruity; the discrepancy between one’s actual and ideal self) and the values that underlie the brand’s meaning in the marketplace (agentic vs. communal) when using aspirational branding strategies.

Park and John consider whether consumers with weak brand relationships can actually become more engaged and more emotionally attached to a brand after a brand transgression than before. This counterintuitive effect is hypothesized to depend on consumers’ implicit beliefs about whether relationships can grow over time. Consumers who hold such growth beliefs make the effort to engage with the brand following a transgression. If the brand responds positively, consumers who initially felt a weak connection with the brand become more emotionally attached to the brand because of its relationship-building actions. An important implication of this research that marketers should understand is that consumers vary in their beliefs about how brands should respond to brand transgressions. Those marketers who respond in relationship-building ways can turn weak brand relationships into stronger ones, even if a brand transgression occurs.

Aggarwal and Shi examine marketers’ use of loyalty programs in building strong and positive brand relationships. In particular, the authors investigate how demoting a consumer’s status in a loyalty program (e.g., losing “elite status” on an airline loyalty program) influences consumers’ brand evaluations. They propose that this effect of a demotion depends upon whether the consumer’s relationship with the brand is monogamous (i.e., they are loyal to this brand only) or polygamous (they are loyal to a set of brands). Consumers who have a monogamous relationship with the brand are angrier and more upset by a loss of status than are consumers in a polygamous brand relationship, and hence feel less positively about the brand as a result. Restoring elite status also exerts stronger effects on consumers who are monogamous versus polygamous in their brand relationship. However, the reinstatement of elite status does not fully compensate for the initial loss of status and the resultant anger that the monogamous consumers felt. The results suggest that when it comes to changing the status of consumers in a loyalty program, marketers need to understand whether target consumers’ brand relationship is monogamous versus polygamous. A demotion of status is regarded as worse for consumers who are monogamous, and restoring status may never leave monogamous consumers feeling the same way about the brand.

The Role of Self Relevant Emotions on Brand Relationship Valence and Strength

The last four papers in the special issue focus squarely on emotions and their implications for building brand-self connections and strong brand relationships. Williams, Coleman, Morales, and Cesareo examine how two positive emotions—awe and pride—can differentially impact consumer self-brand connections (SBC) for luxury versus social benefit brands. They find that incidentally induced feelings of awe create stronger brand-self connections for social benefit brands than for luxury brands. The reverse is observed for incidentally induced pride. The mechanism driving these effects has to do with how awe (vs. pride) makes one feel small or diminished (vs. large and superior). Feelings of awe create a diminished self and an awareness of entities as bigger than oneself, making consumers more open to brands with social benefits (vs. luxury brands). Pride, in contrast, enhances one’s sense of self as superior to others, making consumers more amenable to forming connections with luxury (vs. social benefit) brands. It is worth highlighting that consumers seek connections with companies in ways that transcend materialistic self-oriented benefits in favor of meaningful, others-centered values. This implication is consistent with Park et al.’s ([2013](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf26), [2016](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf29)) point that consumers want to develop deep emotional relationships not only with functional and hedonic brands, but also those that fertilize and nourish their soul. A second implication is that such connections can be facilitated or hindered by incidentally induced emotions.

Ahuvia, Garg, Batra, McFerran, and de Diesbach also study pride; but here in the context of integral pride evoked from brand ownership. Using a new surfacing methodology, they develop a novel framework that shows that pride of ownership can build five aspects of consumers’ identity: cultivating personal taste, achieving adult independence, achieving social status, building close relationships, and connecting to groups. These five implicit identity goals are ordered in terms of their correspondence with an independent self-identity (i.e., personal taste) versus an interdependent self-identity (i.e., social roles and connecting to groups). Using a series of depth interviews, the authors find that people take pride in those brands, products, and consumption experiences that both reflect who they are and shape who they want to be. Finally, the authors document how consumers’ pride in the things they own can both increase and decrease over time, and in unexpected ways. This paper not only offers an enhanced perspective on how pride of brand ownerships builds brand-self connections; it also provides complementary perspectives on how brands can enrich the self (see Park et al. [2013](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf26), [2016](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969#rf29)).

Whereas the previous two papers emphasized positive emotions and their impact on brand-self connections, the next two papers emphasize negative emotions. Lamberton, Kristofferson, and Dahl offer novel insights into how envy affects consumers’ attraction to products and brands. They find that the impact of envy on consumers’ attraction to desirable brands depends on whether consumers are high vs. low in self-esteem. Specifically, low-self-esteem consumers cope with the negative experience of envy by withdrawing from and denigrating brands. High-self-esteem consumers preserve or enhance their relationship with a desired brand when experiencing envy. As such, while using envy to foster brand relationships and to motivate a purchase can be successful with higher self-esteem consumers, this tactic may backfire when consumers are low in self-esteem. These negative effects of envy on brand relationship attraction are, however, limited to conditions of malicious (vs. benign) envy; specifically, when the envied other is undeserving (vs. deserving) of their status. Providing external opportunities to self-affirm in ways other than brand or product denigration also reduces the negative consequences of envy among low-self-esteem consumers. The clever experiments and thoughtful theorizing by the authors make for a strong contribution to the literature on brand relationships, emotions, and the self.

Reimann, MacInnis, Folkes, Uhalde, and Pol ask whether brand betrayal is an extreme form of brand dissatisfaction or a distinct state experienced differently from dissatisfaction. The fact that both states can lower brand trust, weaken brand relationships, and evoke consumer revenge makes this question pertinent. Using a large-scale psychometric study and a functional neuroimaging experiment, the authors show that brand betrayal and brand dissatisfaction can be differentiated in terms of neural and emotional/psychological reactions. Brand betrayal (vs. dissatisfaction) is associated with self-relevant emotions of psychological loss, anger at the self over one’s prior relationship with the brand, indignation-focused versus frustration-focused anger toward the brand, and rumination about the brand and its betraying actions. The neurological results support these emotional reactions. These differences suggest that compared with brand dissatisfaction, brand betrayal is likely to be more harmful to both the brand and the brand relationship and with longer lasting consequences. This work is novel in shedding light on how brand betrayal is experienced by consumers at a phenomenological and neural level.

**Conclusion**

* [Go to](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969)

At the risk of seeming premature, we offer several general conclusions from the set of papers:

* 1.

Marketers should carefully examine their branding strategies (e.g., brand nicknames, aspirational branding strategies, loyalty programs) as well as recovery tactics in building and changing brand relationships. The efficacy of such tactics may well depend on the characteristics of the target market (e.g., their implicit theories about relationships, self-esteem, monogamous vs. polygamous loyalty status), the type of product they are marketing (e.g., a social good vs. a status good), and the nature of the transgression (betrayal vs. dissatisfaction).

* 2.

Positive emotions, induced incidentally or through explicit marketing actions, can influence the strength and valence of brand relationships. However, positive emotions are not always equivalent in how they implicate the self (e.g., they can enhance or diminish the self). Pride may be a particularly powerful emotion in building brand relationships, particularly given its multifaceted role in building brand-self connections.

* 3.

Negative emotions induced from a brand’s actions can threaten the strength of brand relationships. However, distinct forms of negative emotions (malicious vs. benign envy) can have different influences on the strength and valence of brand relationships. Consumers can experience negative reactions not only toward the brand (e.g., anger at the brand) but also related to the self (e.g., feelings of loss, anger at the self).

* 4.

Brand transgressions, by themselves, need not be always bad for brands. What might matter more than the transgression itself is the strength of the initial consumer-brand relationship and how the brand handles recovery efforts.

In closing, our excitement about the special issue is matched by our hope that the topics reflected in [figure 1](https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/full/10.1086/696969) spur additional theory and research on brand relationships, emotions, and the self.

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