Dissertation written by:

Christina A. Kuchmaner

B.S.B.A., Youngstown State University, 2011

M.B.A., Youngstown State University, 2012

Ph.D., Kent State University, 2020

Approved by:

_____  Chair, Doctoral Dissertation Committee
Dr. Jennifer Wiggins

_____  Members, Doctoral Dissertation Committee
Dr. Robert Jewell

_____
Dr. Mary Hogue

Accepted by:

_____  Ph.D. Program Director
Dr. Mary Hogue

_____  Graduate Dean, College of Business Administration
Dr. Cathy DuBois

KUCHMANER, Christina A., Ph.D.          April, 2020          MARKETING

ARE YOU FOR REAL? THE CONSUMPTION-DRIVEN SELF-AUTHENTICATION
PROCESS AND ITS EFFECTS ON PERCEIVED BRAND AUTHENTICITY

Director of Dissertation:          Jennifer Wiggins

Essay one is a conceptual piece in which I focus on how people use consumption choices in the continuous process of identity authentication and construction of feelings of self-authenticity. I highlight the key role that external audiences play in this process; while external audiences can further authenticate a consumer's identity, the audience can also be a source of identity threat that damages an authenticating consumer's self-authenticity. I posit that a consumer's social network may impact brand authenticity perceptions both directly and indirectly through effects on a consumer's perceived self-authenticity.

Essay two examines the proposition that identity threats may have an impact on brand authenticity perceptions through consumers' perceptions of self-authenticity. When a consumer experiences an identity threat – specifically observing another brand user behaving territorially – the consumer feels less authentic and this negative effect spills over onto perceptions of brand authenticity via the consumer's associative network. The magnitude of this negative effect may depend upon the territorial consumer's network centrality and the density of the network. Central consumers should be perceived as more threatening than peripheral consumers, but under high density the threat from central consumers should be mitigated.

Essay three takes the perspective of the threatened consumer to study contradictory sets of identity threat responses that may have a differential impact on perceived brand authenticity. In the context of an identity threat, consumers can respond with dissociative, identity-restructuring responses or with associative, territorial responses. The type of response a consumer has to an identity threat depends on perceived progress toward the authentication goal, which affects the consumer's regulatory focus. Consumers with a promotion focus should dissociate from the brand and therefore view the brand as less authentic, while consumers with a prevention focus should stand by the brand and respond territorially and therefore view the brand as more authentic. Given that brand authenticity has been hailed as the new purchase criterion (Gilmore and Pine, 2007), firms may be especially interested in how a consumer's social network may negatively (or positively) influence perceptions of their brand's authenticity.

## Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the Chair of my dissertation committee, Dr. Jennifer Wiggins, for her support and guidance over the last five years and for her contribution to my dissertation research. I would also like to thank the other members of my dissertation committee, Dr. Robert Jewell and Dr. Mary Hogue, for their support of and feedback on this project. I also want to thank Dr. Greta Polites for moderating my dissertation defense. I would also like to thank the other faculty members and students in the Department of Marketing and Entrepreneurship, all of whom provided valuable feedback on my dissertation essays over the duration of the project.

## Table of Contents

## Introduction

Consumer perceptions of the authenticity of objects, including experiences, products, and brands, have been shown to lead to a variety of positive outcomes for firms. The perceived authenticity of an experience has been shown to increase anticipated enjoyment (Waller and Lea, 1998), consumer engagement (Bryce et al., 2015), satisfaction (Hede, 2014; Novello and Fernandez, 2016), loyalty (Bryce et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2015; Novello and Fernandez, 2016), repurchase intentions (Wang and Mattila, 2015; Kim and Bonn, 2016; Novello and Fernandez, 2016), willingness to pay (Kim and Bonn, 2016), brand choice intention (Lu et al., 2015), and brand equity (Lu et al., 2015), result in higher star review ratings (Kovács et al., 2014), and increase willingness to recommend the company (Kim and Bonn, 2016). Lehman, Kovács, and Carroll (2017) even found that restaurant customers who focus on the authenticity of the culture represented are less concerned about restaurant hygiene.

The perceived authenticity of products also has positive effects for the firm. Perceived product authenticity has been shown to lead to positive assessments of the attributes of a product, such as its origin and uniqueness (Lenglet and Giannelloni, 2016), increase loyalty to the retailer (Castéran and Roederer, 2013), and result in positive emotions (Jang et al., 2012; Jang and Ha, 2015). In addition, findings from Lochr, Krupinski, and Schaefer (2015) suggest that the belief that a product is authentic or original could cause consumers to remember differences between products that were not actually present, which bias the consumer toward believing the product perceived to be authentic is superior. Overall, products perceived as authentic have higher perceived value (e.g. Jang et al., 2012; Jang and Ha, 2015) and consumers are willing to pay more for these products (e.g. Fritz et al., 2017), allowing companies to charge price premiums (Beverland, 2005).

Finally, perceived brand authenticity, which has been heavily studied in current marketing literature, delivers positive results to firms. Brand authenticity has been shown to increase emotional attachment to the brand (Morhart et al., 2015), trust in the company (Moulard et al., 2016; Napoli et al., 2016), perceived brand quality (Minor and LeBoeuf, 2011), perceptions of brand relationship quality (Fritz et al., 2017), brand equity (Napoli et al., 2016), purchase intentions (Fritz et al., 2017), word of mouth (Morhart et al., 2015), confidence in brand opinions (Minor and LeBoeuf, 2011), and willingness to forgive mistakes (Fritz et al., 2017). The value of authenticity is even apparent in the luxury goods sector. Hartmann, Nitzko, and Spiller (2017) found that the dimensions of luxury food now include a perceived authenticity dimension, which indicates to them a new set of "luxury values."

Due to the multitude of positive effects of authenticity, it has been hailed as the new purchase criterion and the next source of competitive advantage for firms (Gilmore and Pine, 2007). Therefore, it comes as no surprise that marketers devote much time and many resources to creating authentic images for their brands and products.

**How Firms Foster Consumer Perceptions of Authenticity**

Companies adopt a variety of strategies and tactics to build authenticity perceptions, and much work on authenticity provides strategic recommendations on the topic (e.g. Boyle, 2003; Gilmore and Pine, 2007; Napoli et al., 2016). The effort put forth by an entity to appear authentic has been termed authenticity work (Peterson, 2005). Even when objects are inherently inauthentic, marketers can induce perceptions of authenticity, a situation that Gilmore and Pine (2007) coin "the authenticity paradox."

At the brand level, Fritz, Schoenmueller, and Bruhn (2017) identify several antecedents to brand authenticity, including brand commercialization, brand legitimacy, brand clarity, brand heritage, brand nostalgia, a brand's social commitment, and employee passion. Support for several of these antecedents can be found elsewhere. Lozanski (2010) found that independent travellers perceive non-commercialization of locations as signifying authenticity. Moulard, Raggio, and Folse (2016) found that a company's product orientation communicates management's passion for brand authenticity, which increases perceived brand authenticity. Travel destinations with strong heritage icons, such as Scotland (e.g. golf, whiskey, and monsters), appear more authentic (Yeoman et al., 2005). Companies also attempt to leverage brand heritage to influence the authenticity perceptions of individual products. For example, Anand and Jones (2005) found that a London tea and coffee retailer attempted to influence the authenticity perceptions of its products by emphasizing the founder, founding date, and staff training by the founder in marketing.

At the product level, the perceived authenticity of product inputs, such as the creator, materials used, and manufacturing practices, can impact the perceived authenticity of the final product (e.g. Cheah et al., 2016). Co-producing a product has been shown to increase authenticity perceptions of the product (Supphellen and Troye, 2009). Some marketers focus on establishing an authentic identity of a product through its place of origin, particularly for food and beverage products. For example, the marketing of the "true" champagne region in France greatly impacted the authenticity perceptions of champagne brands (Guy, 2002). Newman (2016) found that even small differences in product "purity" (e.g. a Louis Vuitton bag made 100% vs. 95% in France or fresh orange juice vs. partially from concentrate) decreases the authenticity perceptions of the product greatly. Relatedly, marketers attempt to influence authenticity

perceptions of products through authenticity cues, such as describing or labeling a product as authentic. Nguyen and Gunasti (2011) found that a product described as authentic increases attitude toward the product and willingness to pay for the product. Further, an "objectively inferior product" with authenticity cues was preferred to a better product with no such cues (Nguyen and Gunasti, 2011).

Lastly, a firm may try to influence authenticity perceptions through the overall atmosphere of the point of sale location. This is especially relevant to service firms, and some of the best examples come from the dining industry. Companies can attempt to reproduce authentic cultures (Solomon, 2001). Munoz, Wood, and Solomon (2006) describe that the authenticity of themed Irish pubs is produced from atmosphere, employees, and cultural artifacts. The combination of these factors has been called a consumption constellation, which is defined as "a cluster of complimentary products, specific brands, and/or consumption activities used to construct, signify, and/or perform a social role" (Munoz et al., 2006, p. 225). The consumption constellation concept has also been called staging in tourism studies (e.g. Chronis and Hampton, 2008; MacCannell, 1973). This is an extremely valuable tool for altering authenticity perceptions. For example, studying Outback Steakhouse, Groves, Solomon, and Quilty (2001) found that Americans preferred the "idealized prototypes" of the Australian culture used by Outback to a more authentic experience.

Several other papers have examined how aspects of the relevant consumption constellation impact the firm. Kim, Youn, and Rao (2017) found that at ethnic restaurants, unfamiliar food and ingredient names each increase the perceived authenticity of the restaurant, positive emotions, and repurchase intentions. Similarly, Kim and Jang (2016) found that using an authentic sauce in a dish, advertising authenticity, and using ethnically congruent staff each

increase the perceived authenticity of the food. While an ethnic menu item name and employees of the relevant ethnicity have the largest impacts on customer perceptions of authenticity, perceived food authenticity has the largest effect on intentions to return, while perceived culture and employee authenticity have the largest impacts on willingness to pay (Kim and Baker, 2017). Munoz, Wood, and Solomon (2006) make a key point when discussing consumption constellations: consumers judge the authenticity of the service environment and can provide formal and informal feedback to the company, after which the company may use this feedback to revise the consumption constellation. To this last point, while many scholars have examined how firms can influence consumer perceptions of authenticity, few have examined the role of consumers in constructing perceptions of product and brand authenticity.

**How Consumers Construct Perceptions of Authenticity**

Current marketing research has focused on context-specific attributes of authentic products and brands and the positive impact of authenticity, most notably brand authenticity, on firm outcomes. This research has viewed consumers as passive receivers of authenticity claims. However, it is widely recognized that authenticity perceptions are constructed by and idiosyncratic to individuals.

Grayson and Martinec (2004) explain that authenticity is not an inherent quality of an object, but a judgment made by an evaluator. In discussing brand authenticity, Gilmore and Pine (2007) state that "authenticity is personally determined" (p. 93) and that the individual perceiving the object is the lone determinant of its authenticity. Relatedly, Hartmann and Ostberg (2013) describe authenticity as negotiated by consumers. Similarly, Peterson (2005) echoes that authenticity in not an object attribute, but a claim that hinges on acceptance or rejection by

others. To this last point, Boyle (2003) contends that "authenticity is a moving target" (p. 39) affected by changing times and tastes. Further, Napoli, Dickinson-Delaporte, and Beverland (2016) state that brand authenticity lies on a continuum. The claim that object and brand authenticity are socially constructed and malleable has been asserted in work on authenticity perceptions in a variety of contexts, including country music (Peterson, 1997), opera (Benzecry, 2015), bands (Corciolani, 2014), guitar brands (Hartmann and Ostberg, 2013), cultural activities performed for tourists (Xie, 2003), tourist sites (Reynolds, 2016), museum exhibits (King, 2006), antiquities (Jones, 2010), and sports memorabilia (Benzecry, 2015), among others.

Jones (2010) describes that the object's overall authenticity as being formed by the interaction of socially constructed meanings of objects, that is the object's constructive authenticity, and the features of the object, that is the object's objective authenticity. In line with this view, Grayson and Martinec (2004) identify indexicality and iconicity as two main types of object authenticity. An object has indexical authenticity when it has a factual or physical link to the world, which includes links to people, places, eras, or events (e.g. a chair made in the Victorian era) or a psychic link to the true self (e.g. a cultural dance true to identity) (Grayson and Shulman, 2000; Grayson and Martinec, 2004). An object has iconic authenticity when its physical features are similar to an object with indexical authenticity; these are essentially reproductions (Grayson and Martinec, 2004). Along these lines, Nguyen and Gunasti (2011) find that consumers form product authenticity perceptions using intrinsic cues, such as product experiences and quality, and/or or extrinsic cues, such as marketing messages and cues crafted by companies.

When cues suggest that an object may be inauthentic, an "authenticity crisis" may occur (Corciolani, 2011). Examples of authenticity crises include an underground band participating in

a mainstream music festival (Corciolani, 2011; 2014), an alternative band signing with a major record label (Daschuk, 2011), or a craft brewery being bought by a major corporation (Frake, 2017). Benzecry (2015) explains that objects and experiences become destabilized when they change, but become re-stabilized when people accept them. Corciolani (2014) calls this an authenticity drama, which is "a sequential process through which, owing to an object's authenticity being undermined as a result of external market forces acting upon the object, or due to internal changes in the object itself, opposing groups of subjects (e.g. consumers and producers) interact dialectically in order to negotiate and transform their contradictory views of authenticity and inauthenticity over time" (p. 185). Corciolani (2014) suggests that consumers' authenticity negotiation during a crisis follows a certain pattern. First, there is some breach of authenticity, such as an underground band that attends a mainstream music festival. Next, there is the authenticity crisis, in which people argue about the brand's authenticity. Following this, consumers engage in redress, in which the authenticity of the brand is negotiated. The final step is reintegration, in which a new meaning of authenticity is formed for the object.

Taken together, these studies highlight that product and brand authenticity perceptions are partially formed by consumer perceptions, but current research does not sufficiently examine this process. Consumer factors studied in relation to product and brand authenticity are limited and include consumer involvement (Chhabra et al., 2003), prior knowledge (Chhabra et al., 2003; Munoz et al., 2006; Munoz and Wood, 2006), and identity needs (Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016; Newman and Smith, 2016). This work aims to determine how a consumer's sense of self-authenticity, or "the degree of congruency between one's actions and one's core self-conceptions, consisting of fundamental values, beliefs, and identities to which one is committed and in terms of which one defines oneself" (Vannini and Burgess, 2009, p. 104), and

their use of brands in the consumption-driven self-authentication process, defined as the process of assessing whether or not one's actions (i.e. consumption choices) are congruent with one's activated identity, feed back into perceptions of brand authenticity.

**Summary of Essays**

Essay one is a conceptual piece that synthesizes research in marketing, psychology, sociology, and philosophy to examine how people use consumption choices in the continuous process of identity authentication and construction of feelings of self-authenticity. Specifically, these literatures are used to delineate the consumption-driven self-authentication process. I suggest that consumers use products and brands to self-authenticate identities through either a process of meaning appropriation or meaning creation. I highlight the key role that external audiences play in this process. Audience members can directly validate or invalidate one's sense of self-authenticity or affect self-authenticity indirectly when the authenticating consumer engages in social comparison.

While external audiences can further authenticate a consumer's identity, the audience can also be a source of identity threat that damages an authenticating consumer's self-authenticity. Essay two examines the proposition that identity threats may have an impact on brand authenticity perceptions through consumers' perceptions of self-authenticity. I posit that when a consumer experiences an identity threat – specifically observing another brand user behaving territorially – the consumer feels less authentic and this negative effect spills over onto perceptions of brand authenticity via the consumer's associative network. The magnitude of this negative effect may depend upon the territorial consumer's network centrality and the density of the network. Central consumers should be perceived as more threatening than peripheral

consumers, but under high density the threat from central consumers should be mitigated. Given that brand authenticity has been hailed as the new purchase criterion (Gilmore and Pine, 2007), firms may be especially interested in how a consumer's social network may negatively (or positively) influence perceptions of their brand's authenticity.

Essay three takes the perspective of the threatened consumer to study contradictory sets of identity threat responses that may have a differential impact on perceived brand authenticity. In the context of an identity threat, consumers can respond to the reduction in feelings of self-authenticity with dissociative, identity-restructuring responses or with associative, territorial responses. The type of response a consumer has to an identity threat depends on where the consumer is in the self-authentication process, that is, the consumer's perceived progress toward their goal of self-authentication (i.e. the consumer's degree of perceived self-authenticity). Perceived goal progress influences the consumer's regulatory focus, which determines the identity threat response. I posit that those with a promotion focus engage in dissociative responses and abandon the brand, while those with a prevention focus stand by the brand and engage in territorial responses. Dissociative responses should reduce perceived brand authenticity, while territorial responses should increase perceived brand authenticity.

This dissertation contributes to current authenticity literature by first synthesizing a wide variety of research to explicitly delineate the consumption-driven self-authentication process. Subsequently, this research examines the previously unexplored relationship between brand and consumer self-authenticity, which provide a more thorough and nuanced view of how brand authenticity perceptions are formed and influenced by their consumers. I underscore the importance of relating self-authenticity to brand authenticity in essay two by showing that an identity threat emanating from a brand's user network can harm brand authenticity perceptions,

and in essay three I find that these perceptions can be further effected by the type of identity threat response evoked. This work is of importance to firms considering the many resources companies invest in fostering authenticity perceptions and the potential positive outcomes of these perceptions. By identifying how consumers' perceived self-authenticity influences brand authenticity, firms can better control these authenticity perceptions by developing strategies to address the influence of consumer self-authenticity and consumer groups and communities.

**Do I Seem Real to You? The Role of External Audiences in the**

**Consumption-Driven Self Authentication Process**

Although some marketing scholars have alluded to the idea that people use consumption choices to authenticate their identities (Beverland and Farrelly, 2010; Force, 2009; Leigh et al., 2006; Peterson, 2005), to date the majority of research examining authenticity has focused on the perceived authenticity of brands (Cheah et al., 2016; Morhart et al., 2015; Napoli et al., 2016), products (Beverland, 2006; Newman, 2016; Nguyen and Gunasti, 2011), and experiences (Grayson and Martinec, 2004; Munoz et al., 2006). Given that authenticity in general is an enduring topic of interest in the marketing literature and that the current literature suggests that people use consumption to authenticate identities, along with the continued interest in the construct of self-authenticity in the psychology literature, the lack of research tying self-authenticity to consumption choices and clearly elucidating the underlying process of self-authentication is conspicuous and surprising.

Self-authenticity is defined as "the degree of congruency between one's actions and one's core self-conceptions, consisting of fundamental values, beliefs, and identities to which one is committed and in terms of which one defines oneself" (Vannini and Burgess, 2009, p. 104) and has become a valued ideal to strive for (Kovács, 2019; Taylor, 1991). Research in psychology has largely focused on the outcomes of self-authenticity, particularly the association between self-authenticity and its outcomes, which appear to be overwhelmingly positive. For example, self-authenticity has been associated with psychological wellbeing (Baker et al., 2017; Hicks et al., 2019; Robinson et al., 2012; Ryan et al., 2005; Theran, 2010; Wood et al., 2008), subjective wellbeing (Boucher, 2011; Kernis and Goldman, 2006; Kifer et al., 2013**;** Wood et al., 2008), self-esteem (Davis et al., 2015; Diehl et al., 2006; Goldman and Kernis, 2002; Kernis, 2003;

Kernis and Goldman, 2006; Lenton et al., 2016; Sheldon et al., 1997; Theran, 2010; Wenzel and Lucas-Thompson, 2012; Wood et al., 2008), life satisfaction (Boyraz et al., 2014; Boyraz and Kuhl, 2015; Goldman and Kernis, 2002), energy (Lenton et al., 2016), positive affect (Diehl et al., 2006; Goldman and Kernis, 2002; Venaglia and Lemay Jr., 2017), and positive mood (Lenton et al., 2016), as well as leading to healthier relationships (Brunell et al., 2010; Impett et al., 2013; Kernis and Goldman, 2006) and greater relationship satisfaction (Kernis and Goldman, 2006; Wang, 2015). In addition, self-authenticity negatively affects stress and anxiety (Boyraz et al., 2014; Boyraz and Kuhl, 2015; Sheldon et al., 1997; Wood et al., 2008) and depressive symptoms (Theran, 2010; Sheldon et al., 1997; Wenzel and Lucas-Thompson, 2012). However, the process by which individuals self-authenticate, both generally and through consumption, is still largely underexplored. Indeed, the lack of understanding of the psychological and contextual antecedents to self-authenticity, the process by which it is formed, and the effect of peers on the process, have been identified as essential questions about self-authenticity that have yet to be answered (Hicks et al., 2019; Vess, 2019). In particular, the role that external forces play in the self-authentication process has been identified as a key area of future research (Baumeister, 2019), one that is particularly relevant for the use of consumption to authenticate the self.

Research in psychology and marketing has examined some of the contexts in which people self-authenticate, but not the underlying process of self-authentication. For example, people self-authenticate through personal and romantic relationships (Didonato and Krueger, 2010; Kraus and Chen, 2014; Venaglia and Lemay Jr., 2017), community and group membership (Arnould and Price, 2000; Peterson, 2005; Weninger and Williams, 2017), heritage (Heidegger, 1962; Moisio et al., 2004), and identity disclosure (Healy and Beverland, 2016). Cultural phenomena such as music (Kotarba, 2009), art (Fine, 2003), and traveling (Canavan, 2018;

Hirschorn and Hefferon, 2013; Howard, 2016) can also be resources to verify the self.  One of the main avenues for self-authentication, however, is self-expression (Lindholm, 2008; Taylor, 1991), particularly through consumption (Lindholm, 2008).

Research in marketing also suggests that people seek social validation of their identities via consumption. Therefore, the role of external forces in the self-authentication process is particularly relevant for the use of consumption to authenticate the self.  Consumers care greatly about how others view and interpret their consumption choices (Belk, 1988; Holt, 1997), because consumption objects are endowed with public meanings (Richins, 1994) and people make inferences about others' traits using these cues (Belk et al., 1982; Bourdieu, 1984; Holt, 1998). People have a deep-seated motive both to act authentically (Goldman and Kernis, 2002; Stets and Burke, 2014) and to achieve social acceptance (Leary and Baumeister, 2000). To this end, consumers often seek approval from others after making purchases (Bearden et al., 1989; Goldsmith and Clark, 2012). Accordingly, some marketing literature suggests that people use brands, products, and experiences to self-authenticate (Beverland and Farrelly, 2010; Leigh et al., 2006; Peterson, 2005) through specific self-authentication strategies that are enacted in a consumption context (Beverland and Farrelly, 2010; Force, 2009; Hahl et al., 2017). Again, however, the underlying process of how consumers use consumption choices to self-authenticate remains largely undefined.

I propose that combining perspectives from marketing and psychology can begin to address the gap in our understanding of how consumption is used in the process of self-authenticity formation. Integrating insights from these two fields as well as philosophy and sociology, I explicitly delineate the consumption-driven self-authentication process. I focus on the key role that external audiences play in enabling the individual to self-authenticate through

self-expressive consumption choices and activities. While self-authentication through consumption has previously been examined in the context of consumption subcultures, I suggest that consumers engage in this process at a broader level, laying the groundwork for new research on the topic. In doing so, I begin to address lingering questions about the antecedents of self-authenticity and the process of its formation.

## The Construction of Self-Authenticity

The meaning of self-authenticity and how to achieve it has been an enduring topic of philosophers for centuries. The two main perspectives on self-authenticity are the essentialist and existentialist views. The essentialist view of self-authenticity is a narrative of self-discovery, advocated by Rousseau (1712-78), which contends that there is one "true self" – an unchanging inner core that one is born with – that becomes hidden due to the influence of external forces and must be discovered via self-reflection in order to achieve self-authenticity. This view is embodied in the phrase "know thyself." Existentialists, in contrast, believe that people have no core, true self. In Sartre's words, "existence precedes essence" (Sartre, 1948); one comes to exist and then has the freedom to define, and redefine, oneself. This narrative is of self-creation or transcendence; it is a process of *becoming* your true self through taking responsibility for your life and making choices to act based solely on who you are (Erickson, 1995; Sartre, 1948). It is a view of self-as-process as opposed to self-as-object (Ryan and Brown, 2003). This work favors the existentialist perspective on self-authenticity.

While many scholars define self-authenticity in general terms, such as being true to (Chen, 2018; Vannini and Burgess, 2009), in touch with (Hicks et al., 2019), or aligned with (Kokkoris et al., 2019; Sedikides et al., 2018) one's true, real, or genuine self, these definitions

are inherently essentialist in that they assume that there is a "true self" to connect with, and further that there is *one* "true self." However, it is generally agreed that the self consists of multiple identities, or "working selves" (Chen, 2018), that are activated by situational cues in context (Oyserman, 2009), such as one's identity as a parent being activated by one's child arriving home. While early work on self-authenticity discussed the authenticity of the self as a whole, the intersection of self-authenticity and identity research has refined conceptions such that self-authenticity relates to specific identities activated in context (Chen, 2018; Erickson, 1995). Erickson (1995: 139) explains that, "the importance of the particular self-values that are implicated by any two situational contexts or relationships may differ." The idea that what is authentic is determined by the situation is echoed by Gubrium and Holstein (2009), who state that, "authenticity is worked up and judged by situationally distinct practices, expectations, and standards" (122). As Erickson (1995) sums up, "authenticity is no longer a question of being 'true to self' for all time, but rather of being true to self-in-context or true to self-in-relationship" based on the activated identity (139). One can feel authentic in one role and inauthentic in another role (Vannini and Burgess, 2009).

Further, self-authenticity is not a dichotomous phenomenon, but a continuous one. Vannini (2006: 27) explains that, "authenticity and inauthenticity serve as two ends of a spectrum upon which we oscillate." This has been described as being a "more or less person" (Waskul, 2009; Erickson, 1995; Heidegger, 1962), in which one shifts between feeling more or less authentic (Rogers, 1961). The dynamic nature of self-authenticity and its contextual influences enable this shifting along the continuum to occur. Additionally, being less authentic is different from being inauthentic. For example, a person who holds an identity as a baker may

feel less authentic if they makes a cake from a mix instead of from scratch, but they may feel inauthentic if they buy a cake and tries to pass it off as their own.

While self-authenticity has been traditionally conceptualized as dispositional (Kernis and Goldman, 2006; Wood et al., 2008), I adhere to recent research that conceptualizes self-authenticity as a state (Fleeson and Wilt, 2010; Lenton et al., 2013a; Sedikides et al., 2017), in line with the notion that perceptions of self-authenticity can differ based on the activated identity. State self-authenticity is achieved when one subjectively *feels* aligned with the true self, but it does not require that one objectively be in alignment with the true self (Rivera et al., 2018; Sedikides et al., 2018; Vess, 2019). Indeed, self-authenticity is described as an affective experience (Vannini and Burgess, 2009) – a feeling – that is distinct from positive and negative affective states (Smallenbroek et al., 2016), positive mood, and other positive self-evaluations, such as self-esteem and self-worth (Hicks et al., 2019; Rivera et al., 2018).

Though many scholars have agreed that self-authenticity is a dynamic state, research has shown that laypeople often conceptualize self-authenticity in terms of the essentialist notion of searching for and finding the "true self" (Lewin and Williams, 2009; Taylor, 1991), which may be partly attributed to social learning and psychological essentialism (Hicks et al., 2019; Rivera et al., 2018), as well as popular culture (Vess, 2019). However, an investigation into how people conceptualize self-authenticity revealed that while some people hold a "strict construal" of self-authenticity, believing that self-authenticity means being true to one's true self across contexts, others have a "flexible construal" of self-authenticity in which one can be authentic while behaving in inconsistent ways across situations (Jongman-Sereno and Leary, 2018; Fleeson and Wilt, 2010). Additionally, Kovács (2019) found that some people associate self-authenticity with uniqueness, while others associate it with expressing oneself in a manner consistent with the true

self and its values. The way in which a person construes self-authenticity has no bearing on the actual process of self-authentication. Depending on one's conceptualization of self-authenticity, self-authentication could mean feeling that one's actions align with one's core, "true self," if one follows essentialist notions, or feeling that one is acting in accordance with an identity, belief, or value, whether that value is uniqueness or consistency with the true self.

Finally, people hold personal and social identities (Carter and Marony, 2018) and individuals may self-authenticate their personal or social identities. Accordingly, distinct types of authenticity have been discussed in relation to these two categories of identities. Weninger and Williams (2017) distinguish between self-authenticity and social authenticity, which emphasizes the self in relation to others. Other scholars have differentiated intrapersonal authenticity, the individual sense of self, from interpersonal authenticity, the collective sense of self and relationships with others (Schmader and Sedikides, 2018; Scully, 2015; Wang, 1999). This work is primarily concerned with the authentication of personal identities; however, the consumption-driven self-authentication process can also be used to authenticate social identities and achieve social authenticity, particularly through consuming brands that have meaning for the relevant social group (Escalas and Bettman, 2005). It is important to note, however, that social meanings can be used to authenticate personal identities as well as social identities (e.g. Escalas and Bettman, 2005).

Adhering to the existentialist perspective, people are continuously evolving: defining and redefining themselves while striving to be authentic. Though laypeople tend to believe in the essentialist idea of a one, "true" self, current research suggests that the process of self-definition and the quest for self-authenticity are specific to the various identities that a person holds, whether this is a personal or social identity. Accordingly, one's sense of self-authenticity can

differ based on which identity is activated. These feelings of self-authenticity are born not only out of an individual's actions, but also out of reactions from external audiences, such as society or peers. Therefore, external influence is likely to play a key role in the self-authentication process.

## The Role of External Influence

At a broad level, authenticity is socially constructed; the social context in which one lives determines what is "authentic" and what is not. This has been discussed frequently in research on the authenticity of objects and experiences. Many scholars agree that authenticity is not an inherent quality of an object, but a judgment made by an evaluator (Gilmore and Pine 2007; Grayson and Martinec, 2004) that hinges on acceptance or rejection by others (Peterson, 2005). Further, authenticity is a "moving target" (Boyle, 2003; Peterson, 2005) affected by cultural changes (Vannini and Williams, 2009). It follows, then, that one must be integrated with the social environment to construct meaningful and accurate perceptions of self-authenticity.

As Jacobsen (2007: 292) explains, self-authenticity "does not imply that a person cannot independently choose to live according to the prevailing tastes and standards." One's social network is essential for achieving self-authenticity because recognizing who and what one is not helps one realize who and what one is (Golomb, 1995; Lenton et al., 2016), and this can only be achieved by "being-with-others" (Heidegger, 1962). Taylor (1991) agrees, describing that we define ourselves by recognizing "horizons of significance" – how we differ from others on dimensions that are important to us (e.g. musical talent, environmental consciousness) – through a dialogical process with people who are important to us and help to shape our identity (Taylor, 1991). Since what one deems important is influenced by history, tradition, culture, and society,

achieving self-authenticity involves both a reflective component and consideration of these external forces (Taylor, 1991).

Accordingly, a theme in many philosophical writings is a cycle in which external forces help one to become authentic, then cause one to become inauthentic, and then lead one back to self-authenticity (Heidegger, 1962). As Golomb (1995) sums up, "authentic individuals need each other and need society and culture as a vital working framework within which they create themselves" (80). Achieving self-authenticity is "a social process contingent on validation with and from others as well as self's own experience as both the means and outcomes of social actions" (Weigert, 2009: 39). Taken together, this suggests that the external audience becomes an essential aspect of the consumption-driven self-authentication process.

### The Consumption-Driven Self-Authentication Process

I define self-authentication as the process of assessing whether or not one's actions (i.e. consumption choices) are congruent with one's activated identity. This process results in the formation of perceptions of self-authenticity. Arnould and Price (2000) suggest that consumers engage in both authenticating acts and authoritative performances to self-authenticate. Authenticating acts are defined as individual, "self-referential behaviors actors feel reveal or produce the 'true' self" (Arnould and Price, 2000: 140). Authoritative performances are described as collective, cultural displays that allow people to connect themselves to their community, such as festivals and sporting events (Arnould and Price, 2000). In Arnould and Price's (2000) work, the role of external forces in self-authentication is only discussed in relation to authoritative performances (i.e. social identities). However, I argue that external, social forces will play a role in the authentication of personal identities as well.

**Consumption-Driven Authenticating Acts**

There are two types of consumption-driven authenticating acts that can foster self-authenticity. One can either buy an object and appropriate its meaning or make an object and create its meaning; these meanings are then linked to the self-narrative and provide authentication (Arnould and Price, 2000).

*Appropriating Meaning through Consumption*. People purchase objects based not only on functionality, but also on the symbolic value of the object (Levy, 1959). These symbolic meanings are used to create and delineate identities (Levy, 1959; McCracken, 1989). According to McCracken's (1988) meaning transfer model, meanings are develop in the world, become associated with and, therefore, transferred to objects. Then, when one purchases objects, the meaning associated with those objects can be transferred to the self, becoming integrated into the self-concept (Escalas and Bettman, 2005; McCracken, 1988; Wang and Wallendorf, 2006). For example, authenticity can flow (Chhabra, 2005) from artists to owners of the art through the artwork (Fine, 2003; Newman and Bloom, 2012; Moulard et al., 2014) or from celebrities to others through memorabilia (Newman et al., 2011). This phenomenon is also called contagion, "the notion that objects may acquire a special aura or "essence" from their past" (Newman and Dhar, 2014: 371). These objects then serve self-validating functions (Grayson and Shulman, 1996, 2000). For example, Wang and Wallendorf (2006) describe how meanings of success, wealth, prestige, or taste can be transferred from objects to their owners.

Indeed, objects are "contaminated" by a variety of meanings, such as those related to experiences (Belk, 1990; Grayson and Shulman, 1996, 2000), the past (Autio et al., 2013; Belk, 1990; Newman, 2018), personal history (Grayson and Shulman, 1996, 2000; Jones, 2010), and

other people, groups, or personal relationships (Belk, 1988; Wang and Wallendorf, 2006; Berger and Ward, 2010). Consumers, then, have the option to adopt a variety of object meanings to authenticate the self when meaning is appropriated from consumption objects. In short, when a consumer transfers meanings from a consumption object, the object comes to reflect who the person is (Oyserman, 2009) because people link existing meanings of objects or experiences to the self (Arnould and Price, 2000). Activated identities serve as "meaning-making anchors" whereby people's perceived self-knowledge drives purchase choice (Oyserman, 2009; Oyserman, Elmore, & Smith, 2012). Therefore, when choosing which object to purchase and appropriate meaning from, the consumer asks questions like, "Does the product fit *me*?" or, "Is this the *right* product for *me*?"

Post-purchase, the consumer evaluates whether or not the meaning appropriated from the purchased item reflects the activated identity in order to confirm that one is authentic in that identity. Now, the question asked by the consumer becomes, "Do *I* fit the *product*?" or, "Have I validated who I *really* am with this product?" If the consumer determines that the adopted meaning does reflect the activated identity, the person's perceived self-authenticity increases. If the consumer determines that the adopted meaning does not represent the identity, the person's perceived self-authenticity decreases. If this evaluation is made, the consumer will subsequently make a different consumption choice and reevaluate. As Groth (2008: 92) explains, "whenever the self is revised, existence must be revalidated."

However, consumers may not transfer meaning from all consumption objects. Two conditions must be met for this meaning transfer to occur in order to authenticate an identity. First, the object must be *relevant* to the identity that the consumer is attempting to authenticate. For example, if I am a baker, it may matter what kind of bakeware and ingredients I use, but the

type of car I drive is irrelevant. The bakeware and ingredients are the objects that are imbued with meanings relevant to the baker identity, and therefore these objects can authenticate the identity. To this point, the second condition for meaning transfer is that the consumer determines that the brands or products are appropriate and strong authenticators of the identity, as some objects are perceived as better able to communicate important information about a person to others and, therefore, are preferred for identity formation (Escalas and Bettman, 2005). For example, as a baker I might perceive that KitchenAid branded bakeware is a powerful identity authenticator.

***Creating Meaning through Consumption.*** In lieu of buying an object, a person may choose to make an object in an effort to self-authenticate. Arnould and Price (2000) describe that consumers can work with products and experiences to create something new, which they call productive consumption. This is another term for do-it-yourself (DIY) consumption, which is defined here as a consumer-controlled process in which consumers use raw or semi-raw, firm-produced materials as inputs to produce or transform products or services for their own or others' consumption. DIY can range from producing something from scratch (e.g. creating a meal using home-grown vegetables) to engaging in co-production (e.g. creating a meal from a dinner kit).

Two of the primary motives of DIY are to express oneself (Kuznetsov and Paulos, 2010) and to fulfill or enhance identities (Wolf and McQuitty, 2011; Xie et al., 2008). As such, DIY has been described as a process that transforms one's identity (Watson and Shove, 2008). Research suggests that DIY is motivated by the hunt for self-authenticity (Fisher and Smith, 2011; Lindholm, 2008), and DIY activities have been shown to create a sense of self-authenticity (Aitken and Campelo, 2011). For example, women use homemade food to construct family

identities (Moisio et al., 2004) and men connect with primal masculine identities through knife-making kits (Peters et al., 2012) and use DIY home improvement projects to assert "suburban-craftsman" or "family handy-man" identities (Moisio et al., 2013). As Taylor (1991: 62) explains, "self-discovery passes through a creation, the making of something original and new."

Creating objects enables a person to create themselves, as the created objects become a part of the self (Heidegger, 1962). When someone makes an object, the self is invested into the object, which creates a strong self-object association in which the object becomes incorporated into the extended self (Belk, 1988; Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton, 1981; Pierce et al., 2003). Troye and Supphellen (2012) find that engaging in DIY leads to self-integration, a linkage between the self and the created object. Csikszentmihalyi and Rochberg-Halton (1981) explain that created objects help form the identity of the creator by representing his or her skills and traits. Therefore, consumers have stronger identification, or perceptions of similarity, to self-made objects; this is referred to as an identity overlap (Atakan et al., 2014a; 2014b). In other words, the self becomes embodied in the object created and, in turn, this object represents the self. This allows the created object to authenticate the relevant identity. For example, a piece of furniture crafted using only recycled materials may embody and represent a person's identity as an environmentally conscious individual, which, in turn, authenticates the person as environmentally conscious. Therefore, the person's perceived self-authenticity should increase.

**Validation by an External Audience**

Appropriated meanings and created meanings are both incorporated into the consumer's sense of self. The meanings transferred to the self from these objects, products, or brands can provide authentication of an identity if the consumer determines that these meanings are

congruent with the identity. This portion of the authentication process can be considered internal authentication, in that the consumer alone decides whether the identity has been authenticated by the consumption act and associated meanings or not. However, while engaging in an authenticating consumption act alone can authenticate a person's identity based on that person's determination, the perceived self-authenticity generated from that act also depends on the reaction of the audience. External audiences can further authenticate, or inauthenticate, a person's identity based on feedback about the consumption choice. This portion of the authentication process can be considered external authentication, in that the opinions and judgments of people other than the consumer affect that consumer's perception of self-authenticity. For example, verification or validation of one's identity has been shown to increase feelings of self-authenticity (Kraus and Chen, 2014; Schmader and Sedikides, 2018; Stets and Burke, 2014).

The authenticating consumption act must be displayed to the person, people, or group(s) that are relevant to the identity in order to be authenticated. Anyone in the relevant audience can provide authentication (Peterson, 2005). For example, if a "biker" attempts to display consumption acts relevant to that identity (e.g. wearing leathers) at the accounting firm where they work, co-workers cannot verify his biker identity because they are not relevant to that identity. That is not to say that the other accountants could not interpret this signal and recognize that this person is a biker, however because they have less knowledge about the identity any verification of the identity is less meaningful. Meanwhile, the relevant group of bikers who *could* provide meaningful verification of the identity cannot do so because they have not witnessed the authenticating act. Therefore, authenticating consumption activities must be exposed to the relevant audience in order to receive meaningful verification.

An audience can verify one's identity through two mechanisms. The first is audience validation of the identity and the second is validation of the identity via social comparison.

*Audience Validation.* The validation function of the audience stems from psychology literature on relationships. People seek self-verifying appraisals in personal relationships (Kraus and Chen, 2014). These relationships perform authenticating functions by validating or affirming the self and increasing perceptions of self-authenticity (Didonato and Krueger, 2010). A sense of self-authenticity is created from being valued for who one is (Kernis, 2003; Leary, 2003). Consider the following example. Building a dining table was motivated by your identity as a carpenter. Your neighbors later attend a dinner party at your house in which they praise you for your carpentry skills. Your carpenter identity has been validated and authenticated by the audience. Conversely, your neighbors may comment that the table is shoddily constructed, which would invalidate your carpenter identity. Validation by the audience will increase one's perceived self-authenticity, while invalidation will decrease one's perceived self-authenticity. Notably, this validation *stems from* the audience and is freely *offered* to the one seeking authentication. Social comparison, in contrast, is conducted *internally* by the one seeking authentication.

*Social Comparison*. The second authenticating function of the audience is providing a meaningful contrast for social comparison. People evaluate themselves by comparing themselves to others (Festinger, 1954) and the self is authenticated through the recognition of differences from others on important dimensions (Taylor, 1991; Golomb, 1995). The effect of social comparison on a person's perceived self-authenticity depends on whether the comparison is upward, in which a person compares him/herself to someone perceived as better than him or her,

or downward, in which a person compares him/herself to someone perceived as worse than him or her (Festinger, 1954).

An upward comparison may result in a decrease in a person's perceived self-authenticity because one may feel that one does not hold the relevant identity as strongly as the other person. Conversely, a downward comparison is likely to increase the person's perceived self-authenticity because one may feel that one does hold the identity more strongly than the other person. In other words, a downward comparison validates the person's identity and increases perceived self-authenticity, while an upward comparison could invalidate the person's identity and possibly decrease perceived self-authenticity.

A social comparison with someone perceived to be at the same level is expected to have no effect on perceived self-authenticity. Oyserman, Elmore, and Smith (2012) describe that information must be very distinct to be used as a contrast standard in social comparisons. Therefore, another person is used as a comparison only when he or she is noticeably inferior or superior. However, there may be a limit to upward social comparison. For example, if one knows someone is much, much better at something and that one will not be able to achieve that proficiency, one may not even bother to use this person as a comparison. This may be justified by assuming the person has had formal training and/or years of practice in the domain. Therefore, people are likely to compare with those who are perceived as inferior or at a superior yet attainable level.

**Ingroup vs. Outgroup Audiences**

Social comparison can be made at the group or individual level (Force, 2009; Widdicombe and Wooffitt, 1990). One may compare oneself with some external standard, such

as someone from an outgroup (Arthur, 2006; Charmley et al., 2013; Widdicombe and Wooffitt, 1990). For example, a homeowner can compare oneself to a home renter. A second type of comparison entails comparing oneself to a member of one's ingroup. For example, the homeowner can compare oneself to other homeowners on the block. Both ingroup and outgroup comparisons can have an effect on one's perceived self-authenticity.

*Ingroup Audiences.* Ingroup comparisons enable status hierarchies of cultural capital to form in groups (Force, 2009; Holt, 1998; Thornton, 1996) and a key form of cultural capital is publicizing the ownership of certain goods (Force, 2009). People use signals, such as brand choices, to let others know where they rank in the social hierarchy (Berger and Ward, 2010; Beverland et al., 2010; Veblen, 1899). The perceived self-authenticity gained from these activities legitimizes group members and helps establish these hierarchies (Leigh et al., 2006; Perry, 2015). As such, authenticity has been described as a "strategically invoked" status marker (Vannini and Williams, 2009). More authentic group members are at the core of the group as opposed to the periphery and have higher status within the group (Dupont, 2014; Lewin and Williams, 2009; Williams, 2006), and people with higher status should perceive themselves to be more authentic. For example, research has found that higher perceived social power, which allows individuals to express themselves more freely, elevates perceptions of state authenticity (Chen, 2018; Kifer et al., 2013).

*Outgroup Audiences.* Outgroup contrasts help define and solidify one's identity and the authenticity of that identity by highlighting "horizons of significance" (Taylor, 1991) that reveal what one is not. The person recognizes that he/she is part of the "us" that is different from

"them." This may explain consumers' strong reaction to the use of brands by those perceived to be from an outgroup. Research has shown that consumers will avoid products associated with outgroups that they don't wish to be seen as a part of (White and Dahl 2006; 2007) and abandon brands associated with group members perceived to be inauthentic, who may come to be considered "fringe" or "fake" group members and, in turn, become perceived as members of the outgroup (Arthur, 2006; Charmley et al., 2013; Daschuk, 2011). These findings suggest that brands used by outgroup members may constitute an identity threat that could damage perceived self-authenticity and prompt brand avoidance. Indeed, Charmley et al. (2013) found that in the skateboarding community, "the authenticating act that distinguishes 'us' from 'them' is the collective avoidance of a brand" (467). Outgroup comparisons may also confirm and bolster one's perceived self-authenticity if the comparison is downward, such as if undesirable outgroups use different brands that are not used by "insiders."

Figure 1 summarizes the consumption-driven self-authentication process. Consumers can self-authenticate by either appropriating meaning from the brands and products that they consume or by creating meaning through the production or co-production of products for their own consumption and incorporating these meanings into the self. These activities result in the formation of feelings of self-authenticity. This portion of the process is considered to be internal authentication because the authenticating consumer alone judges whether or not the incorporated meanings align with the activated identity. These consumption acts can then be authenticated by an external audience through either validation from the audience members or social comparisons made by the authenticating consumer, which leads to a revision of perceived self-authenticity such that it is either bolstered or reduced. This portion of the process is external authentication.

**Figure 1**

**Theoretical Model of the Consumption-Driven Self-Authentication Process**
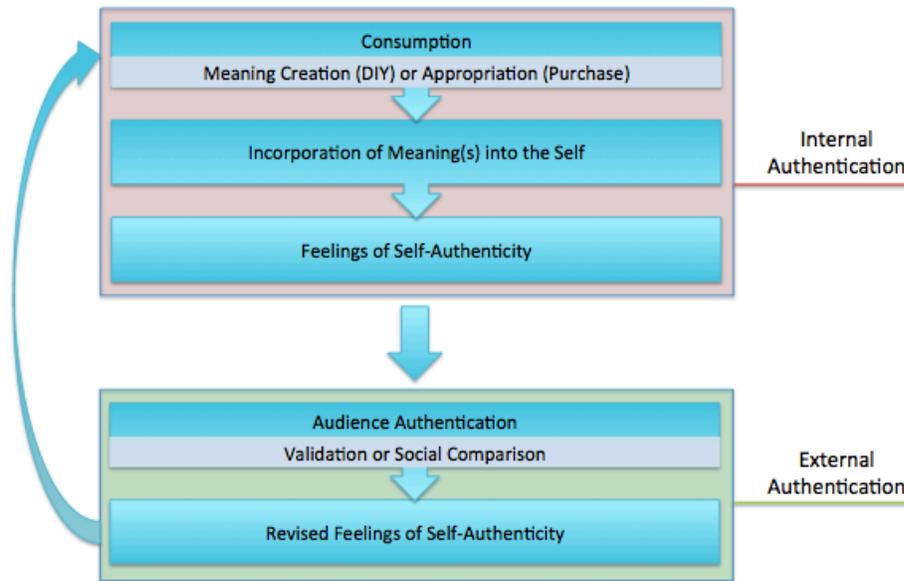


Given that these validations can derive from either an ingroup or an outgroup audience, the result is eight different possible combinations of authenticating consumption act, type of audience validation, and type of audience. Table 1 organizes past research to provide examples of each of these combinations.

**Table 1**

**The Role of the External Audience in Consumption-Driven Self-Authentication**
*Examples*

| | Ingroup Audiences | | Outgroup Audiences | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Audience Validation | Social Comparison | Audience Validation | Social Comparison |
| Meaning Appropriation | Validating comment about artwork choices to authenticate an "elite" identity (Hahl et al., 2017) | Choosing different products from a brand to signal group status (Berger and Ward, 2010) to authenticate | Validating comment about Apple product usage by someone who uses a flip phone to authenticate a tech savvy identity | Avoidance of a brand (Charmley et al., 2013) or avoidance of a product (White and Dahl, 2006) to authenticate |
| Meaning Creation | Validating comments about a knife made from a kit by family and friends to authenticate a masculine identity (Peters et al., 2012) | Authentication of a "craftsman" identity by comparing to those who are perceived as unable to do DIY home improvement projects (Moisio et al., 2013) | Validating comment by someone who does not make his/her own green cleaning products to authenticate an environmentally conscious identity | Authentication of a family identity by comparing to those who do not make homemade food (Moisio et al., 2004) |

**Motivation to Engage in the Authentication Process**

It is important to note that people may not always engage in the self-authentication

process. That is, people may not always assess whether or not their actions (i.e. consumption

choices) are congruent with the activated identity. A prerequisite to the attempt to authenticate an

identity is that the identity in question is important to the person and, therefore, worth the

authentication effort. People are more concerned with the authenticity of an identity when it is personally meaningful (Ryan, 1993; Ryan et al., 2005). For example, if one prides oneself on being a baker, one may seek to authenticate that identity by entering a baking contest. However, if one does not really consider oneself a baker, but bakes on occasion when it is required, one may not be motivated to authenticate this identity because it is not an important identity. An identity can also become important by being made salient or relevant in context. For example, if the baker identity is not an important identity, but one then must bake cupcakes for a bake sale, one may seek to authenticate the baker identity. In sum, a person may choose to authenticate an identity if it is important generally or made important in context.

The literature also points to other prerequisites of the self-authentication process. There is evidence to suggest that people may be more likely to authenticate an identity that is voluntary rather than obligatory. Ryan (1993) states that people are more concerned with authenticating identities that are "fully self-endorsed" and "volitionally enacted." Finally, people may be more likely to authenticate an identity when there is sufficient opportunity for self-expression. Diehl, Jacobs, and Hastings (2006) describe that some roles limit how authentically a person can act with norms of behavior or rules. Franzese (2009) found that inauthentic behaviors were associated with social institutions, such as family, the military, religious institutions, and some work environments. In regard to work environments, she found that people felt that behaving authentically could have negative consequence on work relationships (Franzese, 2009). Therefore, an important voluntary identity is more likely to be the subject of authentication, and the relevant environment must be conducive to that authentication. In total, the first step in the self-authentication process is determining if the identity is worthy of the authentication effort.

After this occurs, four particular situations may arise is which people will be motivated to authenticate the identity. First, people will seek to authenticate an identity when they are establishing the identity in an effort to ensure that they are "on the right track," sufficiently expressing or signaling the identity. Next, authentication can serve a maintenance function for an existing identity. Related to these first two points is the idea of confidence. Self-authentication is conceptualized as an additive function in which one seeks to authenticate an identity until one feels confident or secure. If one is confident in an identity, one may not need to authenticate the identity as frequently or one may be able to stop authenticating the identity all together. Next, the authentication process may precipitate when one makes an upward comparison with someone perceived to represent one's ideal self related to a specific identity. This comparison could motivate one to begin authenticating one's identity in order to close the distance between one's actual self and the self they aspire to be in regard to the activated identity.

Fourth, regardless of how confidently held an identity is, an identity threat could generate the need to self-authenticate. Experiences are more likely to be appraised as an identity threat when the relevant identity is deemed important (e.g. Stryker and Serpe, 1994; Petriglieri, 2011). Research has indicated that having an identity called into question raises concerns about self-authenticity (Erickson, 1995; Peterson, 2005). For example, social exclusion increases attachment to and valuation of authentic brands (Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016; Newman and Smith, 2016). In addition, Guèvremont and Grohmann (2016) found that consumers with higher perceived self-authenticity show greater emotional brand attachment to authentic (versus less authentic) brands when they experience situations that make them feel inauthentic. In sum, people may choose to authenticate the relevant identity through their consumption activities if any one of these situations occurs.

**Discussion**

I posit that consumers use consumption activities to authenticate various identities. Consumers can self-authenticate through the consumption acts of meaning appropriation or meaning creation. Consumers are further authenticated, or inauthenticated, by relevant external audiences via audience validation or social comparison, which can derive from one's ingroup or an outgroup. This research contributes to our understanding of the antecedents of self-authenticity and the underlying process by which it is formed, which has been identified as an unanswered essential question (Hicks et al., 2019; Vess, 2019). Further, I highlight the importance of external forces in the self-authentication process, taking steps to address this key area of future research (Baumeister, 2019).

This work deepens our understanding of certain aspects of consumer behavior. First, self-authenticity seeking and engaging in the consumption-driven self-authentication process appear to be additional consumption motives that can drive brand choice, particularly for those brands perceived to be identity-congruent and authentic. These motives may also drive consumer sharing behavior. Since the reactions of external audience members are a key input in the formation of perceived self-authenticity, consumers may share their consumption choices for the purpose of getting this feedback in order to determine their authenticity. In today's digital world, this sharing is likely to occur online, particularly on social media, where members of the relevant audience can easily be reached.

This framework yields several lines of interesting future research. Given that authenticity may not always be desirable (Jongman-Sereno and Leary, 2018; Waskul, 2009), consideration should be given to the circumstances under which a consumer will engage in the consumption-driven self-authentication process. First, research suggests that the identities most likely to be

self-authenticated include those that are personally meaningful (Ryan, 1993) and voluntary (Ryan, 1993; Ferrara, 2009). Future research could consider whether or not consumers are motivated to authenticate obligatory identities and the differential impact of the external audience on the authentication of voluntary versus obligatory identities. For example, Ferrara (2009) suggests that identities imposed by external forces do not contribute to global feelings of self-authenticity.

Relatedly, another avenue for future research lies in studying the motivators of the consumption-driven self-authentication process. For example, an upward social comparison with an individual whom represents the comparer's ideal self in regard to the identity – the self that the comparer aspires to be – could motivate the process. In this situation, the upward comparison may not reduce the comparing consumer's sense of self-authenticity, as I suggest in this research, because the comparer imagines him/herself on the road to achieving this ideal self. Future work could examine under what circumstances upward social comparisons either motivate the consumption-driven self-authentication process or reduce one's sense of self-authenticity.

Another precipitator of the self-authentication process could be an identity threat, which may call into question the authenticity of an identity and motivate the self-authentication process. For example, social exclusion and experiencing situations that make one feel inauthentic have been shown to increase attachment to authentic brands (Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016). In addition, Kokkoris et al. (2019) found evidence of compensatory authenticity seeking in unrelated domains, such that when one felt less state authenticity, one responded more favorably to an advertisement with an authenticity message. These findings suggest that identity threats could motivate individuals to engage in compensatory consumption and to seek out brands, products, or experiences perceived to be authentic to recover feelings of self-authenticity.

This proposition aligns with evidence suggesting that self-authenticating consumers generally prefer and seek out authentic brands (Morhart et al., 2015) because the authentic essence of these brands flow from the brand to the consumer (Chhabra, 2005). However, this may not always be true. The perceived congruence in authenticity between an identity and the brand can also drive brand choice (Fritz, 2017; Morhart et al., 2015). Therefore, if a consumer feels inauthentic, it is possible that they may seek out brands perceived as inauthentic, despite this negative connotation. This implies that, contrary to current research, consumers may not always prefer authentic brands. Further, this suggests that brands perceived to be inauthentic can also be used in the consumption-driven self-authentication process.

Future research could also examine the role of external influences in consumer perceptions of inauthenticity. Research shows that one may give in to self-presentation concerns to secure social approval (Carson and Langer, 2006; Franzese, 2009) and avoid rejection from peers (Leary, 2003), which can lead to feelings of inauthenticity (English and John, 2013). It would be interesting to study how consumers negotiate authenticity and inauthenticity, and how consumption differs with perceptions of being less authentic versus inauthentic. For example, a consumer who feels inauthentic may make riskier brand and product choices in an effort to authenticate oneself.

Consumers care about how other people interpret their consumption choices because consumption activities, and the reaction of relevant social groups to these activities, are a means to authenticate one's various identities. The process of self-authentication through consumption is a continuous cycle of searching for identity validation and striving to consume in a manner consistent with one's authentic self (Groth, 2008; Lindholm, 2008). External audiences play a key role in this process by enabling consumers to self-authenticate through self-expression and

providing validation or invalidation of their identities. This investigation enriches our

understanding of the antecedents of self-authenticity and the underlying process by which it is

formed in the consumption context. Understanding this consumption motive may enrich our

understanding of consumers' brand and product choices and self-brand relationships.

**In-Network Territorial Behavior as Identity Threat and Its Effects on
Perceived Brand Authenticity**

What brands did your neighbor buy on her Target run today? You may know the answer to this question if you have social media accounts. Largely due to social media platforms, today's global culture is one of sharing real-time information about one's life with the masses, sometimes even if that information is personal. This practice has virtually eliminated the line between public and private consumption, which may enable you to answer the question above. You may find that you use the same brand as your neighbor, and then you may notice other people who use the same brand. Social media enables members of a brand's network of consumers to be very visible and easily accessible to other members. In essay one, I outline how consumers can use brands to authenticate their identities and build a sense of self-authenticity (Arnould and Price, 2000; Beverland and Farrelly, 2010; Napoli et al., 2016).

Self-authenticity is defined as "the degree of [perceived] congruency between one's actions and one's core self-conceptions, consisting of fundamental values, beliefs, and identities to which one is committed and in terms of which one defines oneself" (Vannini and Burgess, 2009, p. 104). Self-authenticity is fostered when meanings associated with a brand transfer to the person, become incorporated into the self (Escalas and Bettman, 2005), and serve self-validating functions (Grayson and Shulman, 1996; 2000). Key to this process are reactions of the external audience, which can either validate or invalidate the sense of self-authenticity one gains from one's consumption choices. In this essay, I empirically examine how other visible consumers of a brand can affect this process. I suggest here that the audience – other visible brand users in the network – can also be a source of identity threat, which in turn could have a negative impact on one's perceived self-authenticity.

An identity threat is defined as an experience that is "appraised as indicating potential harm to the value, meanings, or enactments of an identity" (Petriglieri, 2011, p. 644). I suggest that territorial behavior in a brand user network can be construed as an identity threat when an authenticating consumer observes it. Brands-as-territories help form the identities of their owners (Wise, 2000; Fraser, 2013) via a sense of ownership and control over the territory (Ardrey, 1966; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973; Edney, 1976). If another consumer behaves territorially over a brand, this consumer stakes a claim on the brand. An observing consumer that has used the brand to authenticate their own identity may view this behavior as a challenge to their own ownership of the brand and the associated identity. The observer may even perceive that a competition for rightful "ownership" of the brand has begun (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973; Edney, 1976). Therefore, the territorial behavior is likely to be perceived as an identity threat.

This identity threat is likely to have a negative effect on the observing consumer's perceived self-authenticity. When an observing consumer is threatened by territorial behavior in the brand user network, the observer may question or doubt their claim to the associated identity. Research suggests that doubting an identity raises concerns about self-authenticity (Erickson, 1995; Peterson, 2005) and that consumers use brand choices as an attempt to recover feelings of self-authenticity after identity threats (Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016; Newman and Smith, 2016). Therefore, the identity threat spawned by the observation of territorial behavior is likely to reduce the observing consumer's perceived self-authenticity.

This reduction in perceived self-authenticity is expected to backfire onto the brand such that perceptions of brand authenticity are also reduced. Brands used in the self-authentication process become closely linked to the identities that consumers associate with them, such that the consumer perceives a level of self-brand congruence (Morhart et al., 2015; Fritz et al., 2017). In

this case, the brand can become integrated into the self (Belk, 1988; Pierce et al., 2003; Escalas and Bettman, 2005; Troye and Supphellen, 2012). Therefore, the brand and identity information is likely to be closely linked in memory (Collins and Loftus, 1975; Janakiraman et al., 2009; Borah and Tellis, 2016). This close linkage can facilitate a spillover effect (Wang and Korschun, 2015) from the authenticity of the relevant identity to the connected brand, such that a reduction in perceived self-authenticity will also reduce perceptions of the brand's authenticity.

This paper has several aims. First, I make novel connections among the territoriality, identity threat, and self-authenticity literatures to determine if the observation of territorial behavior in a brand user network is perceived as an identity threat, and if this identity threat does reduce the threatened consumer's perceived self-authenticity. In doing so, I further define the role that external audiences and their behaviors play in the self-authentication process and perceptions of self-authenticity. Second, I examine the largely unexplored relationship between self- and brand authenticity to uncover whether or not a reduction in the brand user's perceived self-authenticity can spill over to negatively affect brand authenticity perceptions. While research has shown that the identity needs of consumers impact demand for and perceptions of object authenticity (Newman and Smith, 2016; Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016), few studies have discussed these identity processes in relation to brand authenticity and no research has examined how the self-authentication process, which is motivated by identity needs, may feed back into brand authenticity perceptions.

This work yields several considerations for firms. Consumers pursuing self-authenticity prefer and seek out authentic brands (Morhart et al., 2015; Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016). If territorial behavior in a brand user network threatens observing consumers, those consumers' efforts to use those brands that have been carefully marketed to be authentic in the self-

authentication process may actually backfire and reduce the perceived authenticity of the brand that marketers have worked so carefully to cultivate. Further, since members of brand user networks are visible and easily accessible to other members via social media platforms, territorial behaviors have the potential to be seen by many members of the network. Therefore, if members engage in territorial behavior, the number of members experiencing an identity threat may quickly increase, thereby having a large net negative impact on brand authenticity perceptions.

## Territorial Behavior

Territoriality emerges in social contexts and requires the public claiming of an object to make it a territory (Brown et al., 2005). Territories are a socially constructed, subjective experience in that people must negotiate who the owner(s) of the territory are and its boundaries (Brown et al., 2005; Brown and Robinson, 2011). People can be territorial over physical spaces (Lyman and Scott, 1967; Sommer, 1969; Altman, 1970), geographic locations (Altman, 1975; Andereck, 1997), people, groups, relationships, and roles (Brown et al., 2005), and objects and ideas (Altman, 1970; 1975; Edney, 1974; Brown et al., 2005). Therefore, brands and their associated identities can be conceptualized as territories (Altman, 1970; 1975; Edney, 1974; Brown et al., 2005), which may result in territorial behavior directed toward the brand.

Early scholars advocated that territoriality required both possession *and* defense of a space, and definitions included defense as a key aspect of territorial behavior. For example, Becker (1971) defined territoriality as behavior that "entails the acquisition, demarcation, and defense of a spatial area" (p. 375). However, research showed that people did not always defend a territory, such as in the case of cafeteria seats (Becker, 1971), library seats (Becker and Mayo, 1971), and other public seating (Becker, 1973). Taylor and Brooks (1980) posited that the lack of

defensive reactions could have been caused by the territory not being perceived as valuable

enough or because many other seats, or potential territories, were available. Similarly, Richman

(1972) did not find support for his territorial-defense theory of aggression, which asserted that

people had a biological drive to use various levels of aggression to acquire and protect territory.

In addition, Calsyn (1976) found that responses to intrusion were not always aggressive, showing

that groups responded to outsiders sitting at their occupied table by either ignoring them in

"peaceful co-existence" or communicating with them. Therefore, Edney (1976) asserted that

active and aggressive defense could be present in territoriality, but that it is not necessary.

Edney (1976) went on to suggest that human defense of territory is usually passive. For

example, Jason, Reichler, and Rucker (1981) found that females exhibited passive defensive

behaviors, such as avoiding eye contact or leaving, when males invaded their territory on a

beach. However, people may not always exhibit submissive behaviors or flee. Ruback, Pape, and

Doriot (1989) found that people talking on a pay phone remained on the phone longer when

someone else who was clearly waiting for the phone invaded them; callers defended their

territory (i.e. the phone) by spending more time on their task. Similarly, Ruback and Juieng

(1997) found that drivers about to exit a parking space while another car was waiting for the

space took more time to leave than if they were not intruded upon. Even though this action goes

against the goal of leaving, people may re-evaluate the value of a space if someone is waiting or

the driver may want to reassert control (Ruback and Juieng, 1997). In line with the advancement

of the territoriality concept, territorial behavior is defined as "a self/other boundary-regulation

mechanism that involves personalization of or marking of a place or object and communication

that it is "owned" by a person or group (Altman, 1975, p. 107). Altman (1975) goes on to state,

"defense responses *may* sometimes occur when territorial boundaries are violated" (p. 107).

***Likelihood of Territory Defense.*** The function of territorial defenses is to maintain territories or restore them after infringement (Brown et al., 2005). Indeed, violation of a territory can precipitate defensive territorial behaviors. Territorial infringement can include unauthorized use of a territory, use by "unusual" people or groups, or someone altering the social meaning of a territory (Lyman and Scott, 1967). Altman (1975) describes infringement as encroachment, defined as the "unwarranted crossing of a self or a group boundary" (p.121) by another. Territorial infringements can also be psychological (Meisels and Dosey, 1971), spawned by real or implied social threats. For example, territorial infringement has been operationalized as perceived self-esteem threats (Dosey and Meisels, 1969; Meisels and Dosey, 1971) and perceived, implied threats from others' status (Bailey et al, 1972; Knowles, 1973; Bouska and Beatty, 1978).

A person faces several considerations when determining whether or not to defend a territory. The first set of considerations deal with characteristics of the territory itself. One must consider how important the territory is, which include determining how central the territory is (i.e. its relationship with other territories) (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973). In this context, if an object is chosen as an authenticator of an identity that has been deemed important, the object will likely be viewed as important enough to defend, especially if it is central to the authentication of that identity. Similarly, anticipated future use of a territory can also positively influence its defense. For example, people have been shown to claim more space in a territory if they anticipate future use of the space and a stranger was present, and to stand closer to the stranger (Edney, 1972b). In addition, people who had visible territorial displays on their property (e.g. keep out or private property signs) showed greater attachment to the property and responded more quickly to outsiders on the property (Edney, 1972a), and these effects were stronger if

individuals displayed more permanence, which is past and anticipated future residence (Edney, 1972a). Relatedly, the perceived desirability of a territory has been shown to increase defense. For example, Taylor and Brooks (1980) found that library carrel seats, which are more private and desired, were more likely to be defended by verbally asking for the seat back than table seats.

The second set of factors that influence defense consider characteristics of the territory's owner. One may try to predict the outcome of defensive action based on past experience (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973). In other words, the person may judge the likelihood of successfully defending the territory. Finally, one may take stock of the defensive skills s/he possesses in the "arsenal," which come from past learning (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973). One may also consider the costs of defending a territory, such as the time, effort, and risk associated with defending an area or time and energy taken away from other pursuits in a cost-benefit analysis (Dyson-Hudson and Smith, 1978). If one believes s/he cannot successfully defend the territory, the person can choose to reduce investment in or abandon the territory, acquire the additional skills needed to successfully defend it, or ask other for help in defending it (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973).

***Types of Territorial Behavior.*** Defensive territorial behavior can consist of preventative and reactive behaviors (Altman, 1975). Accordingly, Brown, Lawrence, and Robinson (2005) outline two general types of territorial defenses. Anticipatory defenses are actions taken before an invasion in order to prevent invasion (i.e. locking a door). Reactionary defenses are actions taken after an invasion that are in reaction to that invasion in order to express anger or frustration or to reclaim control of the territory (i.e. complaining).

A common form of anticipatory defense is territorial marking, which aligns with Lyman and Scott's (1967) defensive response of insulation. Brown, Lawrence, and Robinson (2005) differentiate between identity-oriented marking, which encompasses elements of personalization (e.g. a name plate and pictures on an office door), and control-oriented marking, which is overt communication of a territorial claim (e.g. a note that indicates a food item in the office fridge belongs to Brenda). Anticipatory territorial markers can also include actions. For example, Truscott, Parmelee, and Werner (1977) found that touching could be a territory marker; people touched their plates more after being served by a waiter versus when serving themselves and these touches served no utilitarian purpose. Similarly, Werner, Brown, and Damron (1981) suggested that touching is used as a territory marker, finding that in a game arcade, touching or standing near a machine deterred potential invaders and was often used in conjunction with verbal defensive behaviors; long touches are suggested as a behavior used by threatened parties to defend their territory.

There are many other territorial behaviors, in addition to marking, that can be used in either an anticipatory or reactionary manner (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973). Such defensive territorial behaviors vary widely, but include actions like complaining or protesting (Ashley and Noble, 2014; Brown et al., 2005; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973), ridicule, criticism, or other methods of source derogation (Petriglieri, 2011; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973), deception and confusion tactics (Griffiths and Gilly, 2012; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973), emotional manipulation through inciting guilt, using seduction, or gift-giving (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973), and unkind, intimidating, or aggressive behaviors (Ashley and Noble, 2014; Kirk et al., 2018; Lyman and Scott, 1967). Lyman and Scott (1967) also highlight an interesting territorial response called linguistic collusion, in which authorized users of a territory are affirmed through

engaging in "insider" behaviors, which may be exaggerated or staged, and labeling "outsiders." While territorial behaviors are quite diversified, research has shown that, in general, these behaviors can be perceived as signaling the value of a territory and/or signaling a threat due to the potential for territory defense by the territory's owner.

***Territoriality as a Value Signal.*** Literature suggests that observing territorial behaviors may indicate the value of the territory, in this case the brand's value. Indeed, research has shown that territorial behaviors can increase the perceived value of the territory. In fact, Macdonald and Gifford (1989) interviewed burglars and found that the presence of territorial markers on a residential property increased the burglars' perception that a home contained valuables, which made them more likely to target such homes. Using secondary data, Perkins et al. (1993) concluded that territory markers increased crimes including burglary and robbery on neighborhood blocks for the same reason. These findings suggest that witnessing territorial behaviors may increase the perceived value of the brand because viewers recognize that the brand owner has spent time and effort defending the brand, which is assumed to indicate that the brand is valuable.

More specifically, territorial behaviors may indicate the *social* value of the brand territory. Territories enable the formation of status hierarchies through territory competition (Edney, 1976; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973). Social status can be defended through possession of territory (Ardrey, 1966) and those who can stake and defend a territory are seen as socially superior (i.e. of higher status) (Ardrey, 1966; Sommer, 1969; Leyhausen, 1971; DeLong, 1973). For example, DeLong (1973) found that consistently maintaining a territory (a seat) was a key factor in the formation of a group status hierarchy and that group members who achieved

this "territorial stability" held a higher position in the group's leadership hierarchy. Therefore, observing another brand user engaging in territorial behavior over a brand may increase the perceived status of that brand user, in which the observing brand user attributes that status to both the defense of the brand territory and the social value of the brand *itself*. This increased social status may have positive authenticity outcomes for the consumer, and the perceptions of high social value may also increase the perceived authenticity of the brand.

***Territoriality as Identity Threat.*** However, observing territorial behavior directed toward a brand that one has used to authenticate one's identity may also be perceived as an identity threat. In general, territorial behavior is perceived as threatening. Research has shown that territorial behavior has been perceived to indicate a threat due to the possibility that the territory's owner will defend the territory. For example, territorial markers can function as a recognizable warning system (Becker, 1973; Shaffer and Sadowski, 1975) to potential invaders. By acting as a signal of the possibility of territorial defense by the owner (Shaffer and Sadowski, 1975), markers can prevent territorial infringement (e.g. Hoppe et al., 1972; Wortley and McFarlane, 2011). For example, homes with territorial markers communicating privacy and personalization were burglarized less than homes with markers of openness or an unoccupied appearance (Brown and Altman, 1983). Similarly, Newman (1972) found that markers deterred burglars. These findings suggest that observing territorial behavior may cause the observing brand user to perceive a potential threat – the risk of being on the receiving end of territorial defense, even if the territorial behavior is not currently directed at the person.

I suggest that the observation of territorial behavior may be perceived as a specific type of threat in this context – an identity threat. Brands-as-territories help form both the personal and

social identities of their users (Wise, 2000; Fraser, 2013). Territories deliver a sense of identity through the possession, ownership, and control of an object that helps define the person or group (Ardrey, 1966; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973; Edney, 1976). In other words, territories lend distinctiveness to a person, which enables one to identify oneself and others to identify one (Edney, 1976). By allowing people to learn about themselves (Altman, 1975; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973) and express identity through the creation of boundaries and control over the territory (Lyman and Scott, 1967), a sense of identity is fostered (Edney, 1976). If a consumer is authenticating their identity with a brand, s/he is using the brand (i.e. territory) in constructing an authentic identity. Indeed, research has shown that consumers develop a sense of self-brand congruence, or identity overlap, with brands (Fritz et al., 2017; Morhart et al., 2015). It follows, then, that if a brand becomes closely linked to the consumer's identity and is used to authenticate the identity, the consumer may come to view the brand as his/her territory.

However, brands are a public resource in that anyone can use them, and therefore multiple consumers may view the brand as their territory and be willing to defend it. If these other brand users engage in territorial behavior, thereby communicating their own ownership over the brand territory, the observing consumer may perceive a competition for rightful "ownership" of the brand and associated identity (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973; Edney, 1976) with the territorial consumer. This perceived competition is likely to make the observer question or doubt their claim to the brand territory, and therefore doubt the associated identity. Ultimately then, observing the territorial behavior of another user should be perceived as an identity threat.

In this context, it is more likely that territorial behavior over the brand by another brand user is construed as an identity threat rather than as a signal of brand value. Consumers for whom

the brand becomes a territory and is used to authenticate an identity have already assessed the value of the brand prior to its use. Since these consumers already "know" that the brand is valuable and viewed as such by others, territorial behavior is likely to be a weak indicator of brand value.

However, territorial behavior is expected to be a strong indicator of identity threat in this context because consumers develop a sense of psychological ownership over the brand territory. Territoriality involves feelings of ownership of the territory (Becker, 1973), as territoriality enables the classification of what's "mine" and "yours" (Sack, 1983). This sense of ownership can be psychological. Psychological ownership refers to a psychological sense of possession or ownership of an object (Pierce et al., 2003), and Brown, Lawrence, and Robinson (2005) describe territoriality as "behaviors that often emanate from psychological ownership for the purposes of constructing, communicating, maintaining, and restoring one's attachment to an object" (p. 579). Indeed, research has shown that individuals feel psychological ownership of territories, such as in the context of rooms (Edney and Uhlig, 1977), workspaces (Brown et al., 2014), and knowledge (Peng, 2013; Huo et al., 2016).

Psychological ownership of an object has been shown to increase perceptions of territory infringement, a perception made stronger when an "invader" signals their own psychological ownership of the object (Kirk et al., 2018). If another brand user is observed behaving territorially over the brand, the observer is likely to view this signal of ownership as territory infringement, specifically as an infringement of both the brand territory and the identity associated with it. This, along with the perceived competition for the territory that can ensue (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973; Edney, 1976), is likely to cause the territorial behavior to be viewed as an identity threat. Therefore, I suggest that:

*__H1:__ Observing the territorial behavior of another brand user is construed as an identity threat more than as a signal of brand value.*

### Identity Threat and Perceptions of Self-Authenticity

Observing the territorial behavior of another brand user, if perceived as an identity threat, has the potential to decrease a consumer's sense of self-authenticity. Identity threats can emerge from the social environment through interpersonal interactions with others (Fine, 1996; Petriglieri, 2011). Evidence of this notion can be found in research on consumption subcultures. For example, Charmley, Garry, and Ballantine (2013) found that the signaling value of brands in the skateboarding community is diluted when outsiders use them; they specifically refer to this as an identity threat. Daschuk (2011) explained that when the alternative band AgainstMe! signed with a major record label, members of the punk subculture felt that liking the band could signal inauthenticity due to the potential of the band to gain mainstream acceptance.

Similarly, Riley and Cahill (2005) found that the popularity of body art, such as tattoos and piercings, threatens the meaningfulness of the signal. Relatedly, Michael (2015) found that "hipsters" purposely avoid trends. Among high school students, Perry (2015) found that if others' dress becomes too similar to one's own it reduces the uniqueness of the expression and destabilizes authenticity. Further, Leigh, Peters, and Shelton (2006) describe that in the MG consumption subculture, posers who appear to be authentic members of the subculture by hiring someone to work on their car instead of doing the work themselves and/or trailering the car instead of driving it to shows "threaten each legitimate member's sense of self" (p. 491). These examples suggest that the popularity of certain consumption objects reduces the ability of these objects to signal authenticity of the user.

These findings describe that identity threats, in this case emerging from outgroups or diffusion of the meaningfulness of an act due to it becoming popular or mainstream, can impact individual's perceived self-authenticity. An identity threat emerging from one's ingroup, which is the focus of this research, should then also have the ability to affect one's perceived self-authenticity. If a consumer has self-authenticated with a brand, the brand territory has become linked to that consumer's identity (Fritz et al., 2017; Morhart et al., 2015). If that identity is then threatened, such as when the consumer observes territorial behavior in the brand user network, the observer may question or doubt their claim to the associated identity. Research has shown that having an identity called into question raises concerns about self-authenticity (Erickson, 1995; Peterson, 2005). Research also suggests that identity threats cause consumers to increase attachment to authentic brands in an attempt to recover from reductions in perceived self-authenticity (Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016; Newman and Smith, 2016). Based on these findings, I suggest that:

*H2: Observing in-network territorial behavior decreases the consumer's perceived self-authenticity.*

## Self-Brand Authenticity Spillover

Research on spillover effects suggests that perceptions of self-authenticity may spill over onto perceptions of brand authenticity. Spillover effects occur due to the activation of associative networks contained in memory. Associative network theory (Collins and Loftus, 1975) contends that information about products, brands, and their attributes is stored in memory in a web of nodes, which encode facts (Janakiraman et al., 2009; Borah and Tellis, 2016). The nodes are connected via associative links. For example, an associative network may consist of nodes for a

product, product attributes, the product's brand, brand attributes, feelings toward that brand, and more. When a node is activated, other associated nodes become activated via these established links through a process of spreading activation. Spreading activation promotes accessibility of information (Janakiraman et al., 2009), which leads to spillover effects (Wang and Korschun, 2015).

The magnitude of a spillover effect is a function of the amount of spreading activation between nodes, which depends on the strength of the association between the nodes (Lei et al., 2008; Roehm and Tybout, 2006) and the direction of the association between the nodes (Lei et al., 2008). Extending the accessibility-diagnosticity framework (Feldman and Lynch, 1988) to our context, when a consumer's self-authenticity is called into question by an identity threat, the associative network for the threatened identity is likely to be activated in memory. This would include information about identity-relevant brands that are accessible at the same time. The associative links between these pieces of information may enable self-authenticity perceptions to spill over onto brands.

***Person-to-Person Spillover Effects***. Spillover effects have been documented in a variety of contexts. For example, spillover effects can occur within a person, from one life domain to another. Garg and Rastogi (2009) discuss that satisfaction in certain domains of life can spill over onto other domains. Ilies, Wilson, and Wagner (2009) found that daily work satisfaction spilled over onto employees' marital satisfaction, and that this effect was stronger for those with highly integrated work and family roles. However, stresses at work can negatively spill over into home and family life (Ferguson, 2012). Similarly, students' academic concerns spilled over into their social lives and reduced social satisfaction (Harlow and Cantor, 1994). Finally, and most

notably, Kang and Inzlicht (2014) found that the negative effects of a type of identity threat, perceived stereotype threat, could spill over into other areas of a person's life, particularly those requiring self-control.

Within-person spillovers can also occur with behaviors. For example, Mullen and Nadler (2008) found that perceptions of a violation of moral standards spilled over onto behavior such that people were more likely to engage in deviant behaviors, such as stealing and cheating. The negative effects of work-family conflict can spill over onto job performance and promotion opportunities (Wayne et al., 2017). Pessimism spills over onto behaviors in other domains (Dickinson and Oxoby, 2011). Finally, Zheng, Baskin, and Peng (2018) found that upward social comparison in one domain spills over to increase materialism via feelings of envy.

Dolan and Galizzi (2015) discuss a behavioral "ripple effect," in which linked behaviors can spill over such that one behavior spills over onto the next in the series and so on. These behaviors are connected by some underlying motive, which can include identity goals (Dolan and Galizzi, 2015). For example, engaging in drinking may lead to smoking cigarettes, which may then lead to smoking marijuana, which may then result in consuming an excess of snacks. In another example, participation in green behaviors has been shown to spill over onto engagement in other green behaviors (Thøgersen and Olander, 2002).

Spillovers can also transpire *between* people, from person-to-person. For example, Uhlmann et al. (2012) found that perceptions of "moral taint" can spill over from one family member to another. In organizational behavior research, Kulik, Bainbridge, and Cregan (2008) found that people who associate with stigmatized individuals at work could be subject to spill over of the stigma, which the authors term a "stigma by association" effect. Li et al. (2016) found a positive spillover effect of formally recognizing a team member's performance on the

performance of other, individual team members and the team as a whole due to social influence. However, emotional labor at work negatively spills over onto self-other interactions, such that engaging in emotional labor increases harmful actions toward co-workers (Deng et al., 2017).

***Person-to-Firm Spillover Effects***. Spillover effects can also occur from person-to-firm. Organizational cynicism has been shown to negatively spill over onto work relationships and employee performance (Neves, 2012). Further, negative relationships with employees from other organizations spill over to negatively affect focal employees' attitudes toward their own organizations and jobs (Ramarajan et al., 2011). Reisel, Chia, and Maloles (2005) found that employees' perceptions of job insecurity spilled over such that insecure workers perceived their company to have ineffective performance. Finally, Dagger et al. (2013) found that others' perceptions of frontline employees' interpersonal skills spill over onto perceptions of other service quality indicators.

***Firm-to-Firm and Brand-to-Brand Spillover Effects***. Some research has examined firm-to-firm spillover effects. For example, Bourdeau, Cronin, and Voorhees (2007) found that service quality perceptions of one service provider spill over to the other provider in a service partnership. Similarly, Lee and Rim (2016) found that the negative effects of an organizational crisis on attitudes could spill over onto a partnering organization. However, the majority of research examining firm-to-firm spillovers does so at the brand level. A large portion of research on spillover effects in marketing has focused on brand-to-brand spillover effects, both between and within companies.

Research shows that consumer perceptions of brands can spill over onto other competing brands. Roehm and Tybout (2006) found that a brand scandal could negatively spill over onto attitudes and beliefs about the product category as a whole and competing brands, due to a "guilt by association" effect. Expanding on this finding, Janakiraman, Sismeiro, and Dutta (2009) found that quality perceptions spill over from one brand to competing brands only when the brands are highly similar. Relatedly, Trump and Newman (2017) find that ethical perceptions after a brand scandal can spill over onto the ethical perceptions of similar, competing brands. Borah and Tellis (2016) found that the negative effects of product recalls spill over onto other products of competing brands, and that this spillover is stronger when it transfers from a dominant brand to one that is less dominant. Zou and Li (2016) offer evidence that firms can mitigate the negative spillover effects of a competitor's crisis on firm financial value through charitable donations and product diversity, but that advertising can exacerbate these effects.

Brand-to-brand spillovers can also occur between brands within a company's brand portfolio and across partnering brands, such as in the case of a brand alliance or in a co-branding situation. Negative or positive perceptions of one branded product can spill over onto the other products that share the brand name (Sullivan, 1990). For example, Lei, Dawar, and Lemmink (2006) found that brand crises spill over onto other associated brands in the brand portfolio, and that this effect is stronger when the crisis is more severe, perceived as controllable by the origin brand, and when the other brand has a strong (vs. weak) association. On the positive end, Wang and Korschun (2015) found that social responsibility associations spill over to other brands in brand portfolios, as well as onto the corporate brand.

In regard to co-branding, Simonin and Ruth (1998) found that brand alliance evaluations spilled over onto each brand in the alliance, and the spillover was stronger for the brand that was

less familiar. Similarly, Rodrigue and Biswas (2004) found that brand alliance evaluations could positively spill over onto member brands. However, Geylani, Inman, and Hofstede (2008) found that uncertainty perceptions of a brand and performance evaluations could spill over in a co-branding situation. Swaminathan, Reddy, and Dommer (2012) show that trying a co-branded product can spill over onto the likelihood to purchase both the host and ingredient brand. However, Hariharan, Bezawada, and Talukdar (2012) show that the purchase of a co-branded extension has a positive spillover effect on the ingredient brand and a negative spillover effect on the host brand due to cannibalization by the ingredient brand.

*Product-to-Product Spillover Effects*. Spillover effects can also occur at the product level. For example, Janakiraman, Meyer, and Morales (2006) showed that in a retail setting, changes in product price or quality can positively or negatively impact total spending on other, unrelated products due to attribution of the changes to the retailer, in which consumers either reward or punish the retailer. Krishna and Rajan (2009) found that including a cause-related product in the product portfolio increased sales of that product and spilled over to increase sales of other products. Barbarossa and De Pelsmacker (2016) revealed that consumers' engagement in green behaviors spilled over to the purchasing of green products. Finally, upward product line extensions instituted to match a competing product can positively spill over onto perceptions of the competing brand and negatively spill over onto the perceptions of the parent firm's brand due to the change in perceptions of the competitor (Caldieraro et al., 2015).

Advertising also plays a role in product-to-product spillovers. Erdem and Sun (2002) found that advertising and sales promotion in one product category positively spilled over onto sales of products under the same umbrella brand in another category. Similarly, Kumar and Tan

(2015) found that demand for and sales of one product positively spilled over onto another product advertised in the same online product video. Along these lines, Liu, Liu, and Chintagunta (2017) found that advertising and promotion of one product sold in a bundle positively spilled over onto the demand of the other bundled products. Lastly, new product preannouncements have been shown to positively spill over onto attitudes toward current products of a brand (Thorbjørnsen et al., 2016).

***Product-to-Brand Spillover Effects.*** Research has shown that factors related to a product can spill over onto the product's brand, affecting other products of the same brand (Chae et al., 2017). Evidence that spillovers occur from object-to-brand is most notably found in research on "reciprocal spillover effects" (Albrecht et al., 2013) or "feedback effects" (Pina et al., 2013) conducted in the realm of brand extensions. Albrecht et al. (2013) found a reciprocal spillover relationship between evaluation of a parent brand and evaluation of the brand extension, such that the consumer's attitude toward the brand extension spilled over onto attitude toward the parent brand for both luxury and non-luxury brands. A meta-analysis conducted by Pina, Riley, and Lomax (2013) supported the idea of reciprocal spillover effects, or "feedback effects," finding that attitude toward a parent brand spills over onto an extension and vice versa. Extension fit plays a key role in these effects (Albrecht et al., 2013; Pina et al., 2013). Further examining the reciprocal spillover effects of brand extensions, Knapp, Thurau, and Mathys (2014) found that the marketing of an extension and the financial success of an extension positively spills over onto the parent brand and that this relationship was moderated by extension fit, a parent brand's pre-extension success, and backward integration of the extension via parent brand marketing. Baumeister, Scherer, and Wangenheim (2015) found that for parent brands that

provide "access offers" – good rentals or sharing services (e.g. car sharing services) – introducing the access offer positively spills over onto perceptions of innovativeness of the parent brand. Finally, Balachander and Ghose (2003) identified a reciprocal spillover effect in which advertising of a brand extension spilled over onto the parent brand through the consumer's associative network, which increased the likelihood of choosing the parent brand.

Some evidence of similar reciprocal spillover effects can already be found in work on meaning creation acts. For example, creating an object has been shown to not only increase the perceived authenticity of the outcome object, but also to increase the perceived authenticity of the brands used (Supphellen and Troye, 2009). In later work, Troye and Supphellen (2012) found that the creation of a meal from a dinner kit lead to increased evaluations of the meal kit brand; this effect was mediated by the evaluation of the outcome. These studies suggest that outcome object evaluations spilled over onto the evaluations of the brands used in the project.

***Authenticity Spillovers from Self to Brand.*** The previous sections highlight the ability of people's perceptions to spill over onto objects in a variety of contexts. In addition, spillovers can occur between people and objects, such as in the case of person-to-person or person-to-firm spillovers. Therefore, it follows that a consumer's self-authenticity perceptions should be able to spill over onto the brands used to authenticate identities.

Judgments of self-authenticity and object (i.e. brand) authenticity are made separately (Grayson and Martinec, 2004; Beverland et al., 2008), with judgments of self-authenticity made first and followed by judgments of object authenticity (Noy, 2004). In the case of both meaning appropriation and meaning creation acts, consumption objects are integrated into the self (Belk, 1988; Pierce et al., 2003; Escalas and Bettman, 2005; Troye and Supphellen, 2012). Due to this

integration, the objects become "me." This should allow one's self-authenticity perceptions to transfer or spill over onto brands, whether in the positive or negative direction. Therefore, if I perceive myself to be an authentic baker, then I also perceive the KitchenAid brand that I use to be authentic; this is an example of a positive spillover effect from my perceived self-authenticity to the brand's perceived authenticity. However, a decrease in perceived self-authenticity due to an identity threat should have a negative spillover effect onto the brands associated with and used to communicate that identity. For example, I make a mistake and my cupcakes are ruined, my perceived self-authenticity as a baker decreases, and, in turn, the perceived authenticity of the KitchenAid brand decreases.

Research specific to brand authenticity also suggests that this spillover effect will occur. Morhart et al. (2015) suggest that consumers pursuing self-authenticity prefer authentic brands. This may be due to the self-authentication potential that authentic brands offer (Napoli et al., 2016), which would be attractive to self-authenticating consumers. However, the negative effects of an identity threat on consumers' perceived self-authenticity are expected to spillover onto perceived brand authenticity.

Brands have long been used to develop and signal identities (e.g. Holt, 1997; Wang and Wallendorf, 2006; Berger and Ward, 2010). Holt (2002) describes brands as ingredients in producing the self. The literature suggests that consumers develop an identity overlap with brands due to perceptions of self-brand congruence. For example, research on the connection between self- and brand authenticity showed that perceived brand authenticity is an antecedent to perceptions of self-brand congruence for consumers who have moderate to high perceived self-authenticity (Morhart et al., 2015). This suggests that perceiving the brand as authentic makes one think the brand is authentic "like me." Fritz, Schoenmueller, and Bruhn (2017) found the

reverse relationship, identifying actual self-brand congruence as a potential antecedent to brand authenticity. In other words, the more "like me" the brand is, the more authentic one perceives it to be. These studies suggest that a person's connection with a brand via perceived self-brand congruence facilitates the spillover of authenticity perceptions from consumer to brand, and vice versa. This may explain why consumers forget promotional information (Dalton and Huang, 2014) and avoid brands (e.g. Daschuk, 2011; Charmley et al., 2013; Perry, 2015) associated with a threatened identity. If positive self-authenticity perceptions can spillover from the person to the brand, then the negative self-authenticity perceptions resulting from an identity threat could also spillover onto perceptions of brand authenticity. Therefore, I suggest that:

**H3**: *Observing in-network territorial behavior decreases perceived brand authenticity, mediated by the consumer's perceived self-authenticity.*

## The Moderating Role of Perceived Centrality of the Territorial Brand User

The level of perceived identity threat stemming from witnessing another brand user's territorial behavior may depend on the perceived centrality of the territorial brand user. Groups, including networks of brand users, have been examined in terms of their network embeddedness, which is the degree to which group members are engaged in a network of relationships (Zhang et al., 2014). Network embeddedness consists of two dimensions, one of which is structural embeddedness or network centrality. Network centrality is the position that an individual group member holds within the network of relationships in the group (Burt, 1976; Granovetter, 1985; Zhang et al., 2014). Central individuals have more ties to other network members (Freeman 1978; 1979) and serve as a connection point between members (Granovetter, 1973). As such, central individuals are viewed as an important hub in the information flow (Freeman, 1978; 1979; Goldenberg et al., 2009). Consumers with higher centrality have more influence over,

control of, and access to information and other resources in groups (Granovetter, 1985; Zhang et al., 2014). Therefore, central consumers have more power over others in the group, which causes the central consumers to be perceived as having higher social status within the network (Bonacich 1987; Ibarra and Andrews 1993). Status is defined as one's position or rank in a group relative to other members (Ordabayeva and Chandon, 2011). Due to the higher perceived status and power of central consumers, territorial behavior exhibited by central consumers, as opposed to non-central consumers, should be perceived as a more a potent identity threat by observers.

Indeed, the territoriality literature suggests that territories play a role in the development of status hierarchies through territory competition and resource sharing and use (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973; Edney, 1976). In fact, Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau (1973) state "territoriality implies competition" (p. 4). Accordingly, this research has found that perceived status holds an implied threat. For example, Bailey, Hartnett, and Gibson Jr. (1972) found that people kept a larger distance from others perceived to have higher status due to the implicit threat that status presents. In line with this finding, high status groups were found to deter outsiders more than low status groups (Knowles, 1973). Bouska and Beatty (1978) also found that interacting dyads with a high status member as indicated by clothing (e.g. dressed as a priest, a businessman) deterred outsiders more than a low status dyad (e.g. dressed as a student). Therefore, again it appears that consumers perceived as highly central (i.e. high status) who display territorial behaviors could be perceived as more threatening, such that there is a risk that the observing brand user could become the target of the territorial responses. A more potent identity threat should have stronger negative effects on perceived self-authenticity along with perceived brand authenticity through spillover effects. Formally stated, I suggest that:

*H4: Territorial behavior exhibited by a central consumer (vs. non-central consumer) has greater (lesser) effects on perceived self-authenticity and brand authenticity.*

**The Moderating Role of Perceived Network Density**

The perceived density of the brand user network may also impact the degree of identity. The second dimension of network embeddedness is relational embeddedness, also described as social cohesion or network density (Burt, 1987; Marsden and Friedkin, 1993). Network density is the strength and quality of the interpersonal relationships among the group members (Zhang et al., 2014), which can be construed as a measure of group cohesion, or the degree of members' feelings of attraction or belonging to the group (Cartwright, 1968; Lieberman et al., 1973; Lott and Lott, 1965). In a network perceived as highly dense, territorial behavior should be perceived as less of an identity threat by an observer.

In highly dense networks, information and power become more equally disbursed among members (Moody and White 2003). Network density often curbs the effects of network centrality (Dong et al. 2015; Shmargad and Watts 2016). First, network density increase the level of conformity to norms within the group (Burt, 1987; Marsden and Friedkin, 1993; Haynie, 2001) because it is easier to monitor and interpret network members' behaviors (Roberson and Williamson, 2012) and communicate information about members' behavior and reputation to the group (Havakhor and Sabherwal 2018). Therefore, high network density tends to decrease behaviors that are opportunistic or exploitative (Beckman et al. 2009; Moran 2005) because these behaviors are less likely to go undetected and an there is an increased likelihood of facing backlash (Antia and Frazier 2001).

Indeed, observers generally perceive territorial behaviors negatively. For example, in the work context, territorial behaviors decreased others' evaluations of the territorial individual as a team contributor (Brown et al., 2014) and decreased the perception of the territorial individual's power and performance (Brown and Zhu, 2016). In a service setting, Wu, Mattila, and Han (2014) found that when a customer would not share a table with an "invading" customer, an observing customer's similarity to the rejected intruder increased the negative emotions of the observer. If territorial behaviors are primarily perceived negatively, as these findings suggest, then observing consumers in a more dense network should perceived them as less of an identity threat, banking on the fact that the territorial consumer has more fear of potential backlash and other negative consequences. Therefore, I suggest that:

**H5:** *Territorial behavior exhibited in a dense (vs. less dense) network has lesser (greater) effects on perceived self-authenticity and brand authenticity.*

**Figure 1**
Conceptual Model
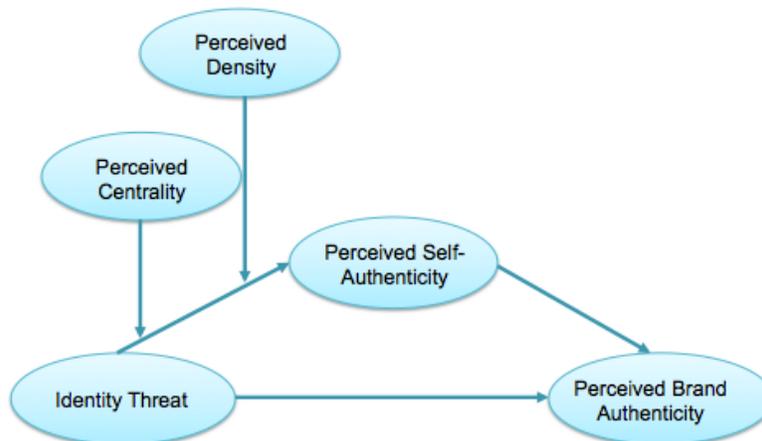
**Overview of Studies**

This research consists of three experimental studies. The first study tests H1-H3 with a manipulation of territorial behavior in the context of a meaning creation act, which is operationalized as a customization scenario. Study two tests a boundary condition for H2 and H3 by examining these propositions in the context of a meaning appropriation act, which is a standard purchase scenario. The final study tests H4 and H5 with manipulations of the perceived centrality of the territorial consumer and the perceived density of the group in the creation/ customization scenario. Participants were randomly assigned to all conditions. All of the studies test the hypothesized effects in the context of a Facebook group in which members use the Nike brand, and specifically Nike athletic shoes. Participants were screened for these characteristics before entering the main portion of the study. The Nike brand was chosen because it has a large brand community, the brand users have opportunities to interact with each other both on and offline, and Nike offers options for customers to both purchase standardized shoes and to customize (i.e. create) shoes through NikeID.

Table 1

Overview of studies.

| Study | Sample Size | Brand | Hypothesis Tested | PROCESS models used |
|-------|-------------|-------|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1 | 155 | Nike | H1, H2, H3 | 4 |
| 2 | 101 | Nike | H2, H3 | 4 |
| 3 | 200 | Nike | H4, H5 | 4, 7 |

**Procedure**

Each study was distributed via Amazon Mechanical Turk to Nike brand users. The survey description was designed to mask the traits that would qualify the participants to take the study; participants knew only that I was seeking people who wear Nike athletic shoes. Participants were excluded from future studies after completing any study in the sequence. The minimum approval

rating was set at 90%. Participants were paid $0.70 for taking each study. To minimize MTurker

misrepresentation, I set up a screening procedure following the recommendations of Wessling,

Huber, and Netzer (2017) and Goodman and Paolacci (2017).

Once MTurkers chose to participate in the study, they answered a set of screening

questions to determine their qualification to take the study. As the purpose of the study was kept

vague in the description, participants were unaware of the desired answers to these questions.

The first question asked participants to identify whether or not they wore Nike athletic shoes. If

"no" was selected, the participant was disqualified. Participants were then asked how long they

had been wearing Nike shoes with choices ranging from "less than a year" to "10+ years." If

"less than a year" was selected, the participant was disqualified. The last screener asked how

frequently the Nike shoes were worn with choices ranging from "less than once per week" to

"more than five times per week." If "less than once per week" was selected, the participant was

disqualified. After successfully completing the screening section of the study, participants

viewed the experimental manipulations and completed variable measures.

**Stimuli**

The general context for all studies was that of an interaction that took place online on

social media, specifically on the Facebook platform. Participants were told, "Imagine that you

are a member of a Nike running group on Facebook and you see the following post." Territorial

behavior was manipulated using a graphic of a Facebook post showing an interaction between

two Nike brand users. This setup placed the participant in the shoes of a third party observer to

the territorial interaction. Due to the context, territorial behavior was manipulated with text, with

the manipulations based on research identifying ridicule, criticism, and deception as types of

territorial behavior (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973; Griffiths and Gilly, 2012; Petriglieri, 2011).

For studies using the context of creation/customization, a character named Shari Miller creates a Facebook post that read, "Loving my new Nike shoes that I made on NikeID!" There is one comment on the post made by a character named Lisa Marie that read, "I noticed your shoes the other day and I really like how you designed them. Can you share your design with me so I can make my new Nike shoes the same?" The character Shari was the territorial consumer, and territorial behavior was manipulated in her reply comment addressing Lisa's question. Several potential territorial responses were pre-tested on 160 Nike brand users in a between-subjects design in which participants were told to imagine they saw the post in a Nike running group on Facebook. These territorial responses included replies indicating that Shari didn't know if she'd have time to find the design (deception), that she lost her account information and no longer had access to the design (deception), that she deleted the design from her account (deception), that the NikeID site wasn't user-friendly with a suggestion that Lisa buy a regular pair of shoes (deception), that the design was hers (claiming) as well as a second version of this that also asked "Can't you come up with your own?" (ridicule), and that the design was hers and she wasn't going to share it (claiming) as well as a second version of this that also asked Lisa if she should be in the group (ridicule).

These territorial responses were evaluated based on perceived level of territoriality, severity, and harshness. The goal was to identify responses that were perceived as territorial, but also ranged in perceived severity and harshness on a 1-7 scale. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that there were significant differences among the responses in regard to perceived severity ($F$ (7, 152) = 4.10, $p$ = 0.00), perceived harshness ($F$ (7, 152) = 5.65, $p$ =

0.00), and perceived territoriality ($F$ (7, 152) = 2.86, $p$ = 0.01). A post hoc Tukey HSD test revealed differences among specific responses.

In terms of severity, the reply asking Lisa if she should be in the group ($M$ = 5.75, $SD$ = 1.83) was perceived as significantly more severe than both the deleted design ($M$ = 3.47, $SD$ = 1.91, $p$ = 0.01) and lost account information ($M$ = 3.65, $SD$ = 2.25, $p$ = 0.01) replies. The reply asking Lisa, "Can't you come up with your own?" ($M$ = 5.67, $SD$ = 1.03) was also perceived as significantly more severe than the deleted design ($p$ = 0.01) and lost account information ($p$ = 0.02) replies. The results for differences in perceived harshness followed the same pattern, with the reply asking Lisa if she should be in the group ($M$ = 5.70, $SD$ = 1.92) perceived as significantly more harsh than both the deleted design ($M$ = 3.47, $SD$ = 1.88, $p$ = 0.004) and lost account information ($M$ = 3.55, $SD$ = 2.00, $p$ = 0.004) replies, and the reply asking Lisa, "Can't you come up with your own?" ($M$ = 6.00, $SD$ = 1.09) also perceived as significantly harsher than the deleted design ($p$ = 0.001) and lost account information ($p$ = 0.001) replies.

These responses were those considered for the stimuli. All of the potential territorial responses were perceived as territorial ($M$ = 5.07-6.15), as desired, and none of these pairs differed significantly in regard to perceived territoriality ($p$ > 0.05). The stimuli were selected based on differences in perceived severity and harshness of the territorial response. Based on these results, the reply asking Lisa, "Can't you come up with your own?" was selected as a strong territorial response ($M$ = 5.56, $SD$ = 1.00) and the reply that indicated that the design had been deleted was selected as a weak territorial response ($M$ = 5.28, $SD$ = 1.17). A control condition was also developed in which the reply read, "Sure, I'll send it to you!" Further, in Study 4, I examine the centrality and density moderators in the context of a moderate territorial response only. The reply indicating that Shari didn't know if she'd have time to find the design

was selected as the moderate territorial response based on its mean perceived territoriality ($M$ = 4.76, $SD$ = 1.76), which was not significantly different from the midpoint of the 1-7 scale ($t$(20) = 1.99, $p$ = 0.06). See Appendix B for the stimuli graphics.

The Facebook post and territorial responses were adapted for study two, which tested the boundary condition of an appropriation/purchase scenario. In this study, the Facebook post by Shari Miller read, "Loving the new Nike shoes that I bought today!" Lisa Marie's comment read, "I noticed your shoes the other day and I really like them. I'm going to buy the same pair!" Shari's strong territorial reply read, "Those are my Nikes. Can't you come up with your own ideas?" Shari's weak territorial response read, "They may have discontinued that specific shoe. Maybe check for other styles you might like?" Shari's non-territorial reply simply read, "That's awesome!" Please see Appendix B for the post graphics.

## Study 1

### Design and Procedure

The purpose of study one was to provide an initial test of H1-H3 in the context of a meaning creation act, which is the Nike shoe customization scenario. The design is a three-level (territorial behavior: strong vs. weak vs. none) single-factor randomized between-subjects design. Participants viewed the territorial behavior manipulation and completed the measures after completing the screening portion of the study, which contained several questions that primed the Nike brand user identity (e.g. questions about the length and frequency of wearing Nike shoes).

**Variables and Measures**

Below is a brief description of each scale used in this research. Complete scale items can be found in Appendix A. Unless otherwise noted, all items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale with the endpoints of strongly agree-strongly disagree. The given α range represents that range of α across all of the studies.

*Dependent Variables*. There are two dependent variables for H1, which I test in a preliminary step before testing the model. Perceived value of the brand was measured two scales. The first is a 5-point semantic differential scale with items such as unattractive/attractive, extremely worthless/extremely valuable, and bad buy/excellent buy (α = 0.82) (Darke and Chung, 2005). The second scale was also a semantic differential scale consisting of three items asking about the value of the Nike brand, how well off you would be with the Nike brand, and how happy you would be with the Nike brand (α = 0.80) (Okada, 2005). Perceived identity threat was measured using a 7-point Likert scale with the endpoints of not at all-very much and consisted of six items, such as the extent to which one would feel threatened, attacked, and contested (α = 0.90–0.95) (White, Argo, and Sengupta, 2012).

The dependent variable of the full model is perceived brand authenticity of the Nike brand, which was measured using two scales developed in prior literature. The first is a two-dimensional, semantic differential scale measuring brand authenticity consisting of the dimensions of originality (three items) and genuineness (six items) from Akbar and Wymer (2017) (α = 0.88–0.92). The second scale is Morhart et al.'s (2015) Perceived Brand Authenticity (PBA) scale, which consists of the dimensions of credibility (three items), continuity (four items), symbolism (four items), and integrity (four items) (α = 0.95–0.96).

*Mediators.* Perceived self-authenticity was assessed using a scale adapted from Wood et al. (2008). The un-adapted scale is a three dimensional measure of dispositional authenticity consisting of the dimensions of authentic living, self-alienation, and accepting external influence, all of which have four scale items. However, following Lenton et al. (2013b), the scale has been adapted to measure state authenticity in regard to the Nike user identity. Further, the accepting external influence dimension was excluded based on the findings from Lenton et al. (2016), who found that state authenticity is best captured by the remaining two dimensions. Authentic living refers to feeling or behaving in a way that is (in)consistent with your perceived authentic self, while self-alienation refers to the degree of mismatch between feelings or behaviors and your perceived authentic self (Wood et al., 2008). The authentic living ($\alpha = 0.76–0.83$) and self-alienation ($\alpha = 0.84–0.90$) dimensions are examined separately.

*Manipulation Check.* The territoriality manipulation was tested using a perceived territoriality measure developed from the definition of territoriality and examples of territorial behavior in the literature, as a scale for perceived territoriality was not found. The resulting scale consisted of five items, such as "Shari is claiming her Nike shoe design" and "Shari is demonstrating that she owns her Nike shoe design" ($\alpha = 0.88–0.96$). Factor analysis was used to confirm the suitability of this scale in the pretest phase; one factor emerged, which explained 74.8% of the variance, with all items loading at 0.800 or above. One semantic differential item assessed the perceived severity of Shari's response with endpoints of not at all severe/very severe. Another semantic differential scale measured the perceived harshness of the Shari's response, with the endpoints of not at all harsh/very harsh. The identity threat scale used as a dependent variable for the test of H1 was used as a manipulation check when testing the full model.

*Control Variables & Demographics.* Attitude toward Shari ($\alpha = 0.97$–0.98), Nike ($\alpha = 0.90$–0.97), the online running group ($\alpha = 0.96$–0.97), and Facebook ($\alpha = 0.97$–0.98) were all measured using a semantic differential scale with the items bad/good, unfavorable/favorable, and negative/positive. Participants were also asked if they had ever used NikeID and how familiar they were with NikeID ($\alpha = 0.96$–0.98). Participants also answered questions about their age, gender, and ethnicity.

**Results**

One hundred and fifty-five Amazon MTurkers qualified to participate in the study (63.3% male, age range 21-78, average age 33.0, all US residents). The territorial behavior manipulation was evaluated based on perceived level of territoriality, severity, and harshness. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that there were significant differences among the behaviors in regard to perceived territoriality ($F$ (2, 147) = 32.62, $p = 0.00$), perceived severity ($F$ (2, 147) = 36.48, $p = 0.00$), and perceived harshness ($F$ (2, 147) = 59.90, $p = 0.00$). A post hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that all of the specific responses significantly differed from each other in terms of perceived territoriality, severity, and harshness (all p's < 0.05; see Table 1). Therefore, the manipulation of territorial behavior was successful.

**Table 1**
Territorial behavior manipulation check results

|  | Strong Territorial Response | | Weak Territorial Response | | No Territorial Response | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| Territoriality | 5.85 | 0.13 | 4.70 | 0.19 | 3.98 | 0.19 |
| Severity | 4.67 | 0.24 | 2.70 | 0.29 | 1.78 | 0.23 |
| Harshness | 5.11 | 0.25 | 2.57 | 0.25 | 1.61 | 0.21 |

All conditons significantly differ on these variables at p < .05

H1 posited that territorial behavior would be interpreted as an identity threat more so than a signal of brand value. Before testing this hypothesis, perceived identity threat and both brand value measures were regressed onto potential control variables. For perceived identity threat, attitude toward Shari ($\beta = -0.67$, $t = -11.40$, $p = 0.00$), attitude toward Facebook ($\beta = 0.23$, $t = 4.33$, $p = 0.00$), and length of time wearing Nikes ($\beta = -0.51$, $t = 4.87$, $p = 0.00$) emerged as significant controls. In terms of brand value, only attitude toward Nike emerged as a significant control for both the first ($\beta = 0.60$, $t = 10.43$, $p = 0.00$) and second measure ($\beta = 0.56$, $t = 9.07$, $p = 0.00$) of brand value. The controls were included in the relevant models.

ANOVA results revealed that the territorial behavior conditions differed significantly in terms of perceived identity threat ($F(2, 144) = 22.40$, $p = 0.00$). The strong territorial behavior condition was perceived as the most identity threatening ($M = 4.55$, $SD = 1.47$), followed by the weak territorial behavior condition ($M = 2.48$, $SD = 1.42$) and then the no territorial behavior condition ($M = 1.57$, $SD = 1.20$). ANOVA showed that the level of territorial behavior had no effect on either the first measure of brand value ($F(2, 146) = 1.02$, $p = 0.36$) or the second measure ($F(2, 146) = 1.40$, $p = 0.25$). Perceived identity threat and both brand value measures were also regressed onto the territorial behavior condition variable for an additional test of H1. Regression analysis showed that territorial behavior does have a positive direct effect on perceived identity threat ($\beta = 0.61$, $t = 6.27$, $p = 0.00$). However, territorial behavior did not have a significant direct effect on the first measure of brand value ($\beta = 0.06$, $t = 1.33$, $p = 0.19$) or the second measure of brand value ($\beta = 0.08$, $t = 1.66$, $p = 0.10$). These results support H1.

H2 suggested that the identity threat inherent in observing territorial behavior would have a negative effect on perceived self-authenticity, and H3 suggested that the identity threat would also have a negative impact on perceived brand authenticity through self-authenticity

perceptions. The mediation model was tested using PROCESS Model 4, with the two dimensions of self-authenticity tested in separate models. Before conducting the mediation analysis, both measures of perceived brand authenticity were regressed onto potential control variables. For the first measure, only attitude toward Nike emerged as a significant control ($\beta = 0.74$, $t = 13.70$, $p = 0.00$). For the second measure, attitude toward Nike was also the only significant control ($\beta = 0.77$, $t = 14.84$, $p = 0.00$).

Observing territorial behavior had no direct effect on the self-alienation dimension of self-authenticity either in the high threat ($\beta = 0.23$, $SE = 0.27$, $t = 0.83$, $p = 0.41$) or low threat ($\beta = -0.10$, $SE = 0.29$ $t = -0.35$, $p = 0.73$) condition. In the self-alienation model, observing territorial behavior did not have a significant indirect effect on perceived brand authenticity through self-alienation for either the high threat ($\beta = -0.03$, $SE = 0.04$, $CI_{95\%}$; [-0.10, 0.05]) or low threat conditions ($\beta = 0.01$, $SE = 0.04$, $CI_{95\%}$; [-0.05, 0.10]). In the model with the authentic living dimension of self-authenticity, observing territorial behavior did not have a significant direct effect on authentic living for either the high threat ($\beta = -0.05$, $SE = 0.17$, $t = -0.30$, $p = 0.77$) or low threat condition ($\beta = -0.01$, $SE = 0.18$, $t = -0.03$, $p = 0.97$). Observing territorial behavior also had no significant indirect effect on perceived brand authenticity through authentic living in either the high threat ($\beta = -0.01$, $SE = 0.04$ $CI_{95\%}$; [-0.10, 0.07]) or low threat ($\beta = 0.00$, $SE = 0.04$, $CI_{95\%}$; [-0.09, 0.08]) condition. These effects were replicated with the second measure of perceived brand authenticity. These results do not support H2 or H3.

While observing territorial behavior is construed as an identity threat, such that stronger territorial displays are perceived as more identity threatening, this threat has no effect on either dimension of self-authenticity or feelings of brand authenticity mediated by self-authenticity. However, mediation results showed that self-alienation did have a significant negative direct

effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta$ = -0.11, *SE* = 0.04, *t* = -2.70, *p* = 0.01), and authentic

living had a significant positive direct effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta$ = 0.23, *SE* =

0.07, *t* = 3.40, *p* = 0.00). These results were replicated with the second measure of perceived

brand authenticity. These findings show that the basic premise that feelings of self-authenticity

can spillover to positively or negative affect brand authenticity perceptions has some merit. The

aim of study two was to determine if these findings hold in an appropriation/standard purchase

scenario as opposed to the creation/customization scenario.


## Study 2

### Design and Procedure

Study two tests H2 and H3 in the context of a meaning appropriation act, which is the

Nike shoe purchase scenario. The design is a three-level (territorial behavior: strong vs. weak vs.

none) single-factor randomized between-subjects design. Participants viewed the territorial

behavior manipulation and filled out measures after completing the screening portion of the

study, which contained several questions that primed the Nike brand user identity (e.g. questions

about the length and frequency of wearing Nike shoes).


### Variables and Measures

The dependent variable, perceived brand authenticity, was measured using the same two

scales from study one. The mediators of self-alienation and authentic living and the control and

demographic variables were also identical to that of study one. The manipulation checks were

also the same as in study one except for the perceived territoriality measure, which was adapted

to the standard purchase scenario. Items read, "Shari is claiming her Nike shoes" and "Shari is demonstrating that she owns her Nike shoes ($\alpha = 0.89$).

**Results**

One hundred and forty-six Amazon MTurkers qualified to participate in the study (48.6% male, age range 22-69, average age 36.3, all US residents). The territorial behavior manipulation was evaluated based on perceived level of territoriality, severity, and harshness. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) indicated that there were significant differences among the behaviors in regard to perceived territoriality ($F$ (2, 143) = 11.48, $p = 0.00$), perceived severity ($F$ (2, 143) = 20.32, $p = 0.00$), and perceived harshness ($F$ (2, 143) = 33.95, $p = 0.00$). A post hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that while all of the specific responses significantly differed from each other in terms of perceived severity and harshness (all p's < 0.05), the no territoriality and low territoriality conditions did not significantly differ on perceived territoriality (p's > 0.05). The low territoriality condition was dropped from the analysis, leaving the no territoriality and high territoriality conditions, which had the largest mean differences on each of the manipulation check variables. Therefore, the revised design of the study is a two-level (territorial behavior: strong vs. none) single-factor randomized between-subjects design. The sample size was reduced to 101 qualified MTurkers (46.5% male, age range 24-69, average age 36.2, all US residents).

A manipulation check showed that the high territoriality condition was perceived as more territorial ($M = 5.79$ vs. 4.64, $F$ (1, 99) = 28.15, $p = 0.00$), more severe ($M = 4.98$ vs. 2.38, $F$ (1, 99) = 45.83, $p = 0.00$) and more harsh ($M = 5.47$ vs. 2.24, $F$ (1, 99) = 73.72, $p = 0.00$) than the no territoriality condition. The territorial behavior conditions differed significantly in terms of perceived identity threat ($F$ (1, 99) = 53.67, $p = 0.00$), with the strong territorial behavior

condition perceived as more identity threatening ($M = 4.40$, $SD = 0.23$) than the no territorial

behavior condition ($M = 2.06$, $SD = 0.23$). This was a manipulation check in this study, however

these results are consistent with that of study one and provide additional support for H1, although

brand value was not measured in this study.

Before conducting the mediation analysis, both measures of perceived brand authenticity

were regressed onto potential control variables. For the first measure, only attitude toward Nike

emerged as a significant control ($\beta = 0.37$, $t = 4.42$, $p = 0.00$). For the second measure, attitude

toward Nike ($\beta = 0.50$, $t = 7.05$, $p = 0.00$) and attitude toward Facebook ($\beta = 0.10$, $t = 2.52$, $p =$

$0.01$) were significant controls. The controls were included in the relevant models.

I proposed identity threat would have a negative effect on perceived self-authenticity

(H2) and on perceived brand authenticity through self-authenticity (H3). The mediation model

was tested using PROCESS Model 4, with the two dimensions of self-authenticity tested in

separate models. Observing territorial behavior did not have a significant direct effect on the

self-alienation dimension of self-authenticity ($\beta = -0.13$, $SE = 0.15$, $t = -0.88$, $p = 0.38$). Further,

observing territorial behavior did not have a significant negative indirect effect on perceived

brand authenticity through self-alienation ($\beta = 0.01$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$; [-0.02, 0.05]). In the

model with the authentic living dimension of self-authenticity, observing territorial behavior

again did not have a significant direct effect on authentic living ($\beta = 0.09$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = 1.12$, $p$

$= 0.27$). Observing territorial behavior again had no significant indirect effect through authentic

living ($\beta = 0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$; [-0.01, 0.06]). This pattern of results was replicated with the

second measure of perceived brand authenticity and do not support H2 or H3.

These results are consistent with those of study one. However, in study one, both the self-

alienation and authentic living dimensions of self-authenticity were shown to spill over and have

significant negative and positive direct effects on perceived brand authenticity, respectively. In this study, neither feelings of self-alienation ($\beta$ = -0.10, $SE$ = 0.05, $t$ = -2.03, $p$ = 0.05) nor feelings of authentic living ($\beta$ = 0.18, $SE$ = 0.09, $t$ = 2.01, $p$ = 0.05) had a significant effect on brand authenticity perceptions. This suggests that spillovers from perceived self-authenticity to brand authenticity perceptions may occur in a customization or co-production scenario, but not in a standard purchase scenario. This may be because it is easier for consumers to restore feelings of self-authenticity through consumption when the product is standardized and readily available versus customized and harder to replicate. In study three, I go back to the customization scenario to examine potential moderating effects.

## Study 3

### Design and Stimuli

The purpose of the final study is to test H4 and H5. The design is a 2 (perceived centrality: high vs. low) x 2 (perceived density: high vs. low) randomized between-subjects design. The context of the study is the Nike creation/customization scenario, in which the territorial behavior is held constant and the moderate territorial response identified in the pretest is used. Since centrality and density variables have traditionally been calculated or measured, manipulations of these variables were developed in order to conduct this experiment.

In this scenario, territorial behavior is still manipulated using a post in a Nike running group on Facebook in which the territorial brand user is interacting with another brand user. To manipulate perceived centrality and density, this post was embedded in a mock-up of the group's page on Facebook. Centrality of the territorial consumer was manipulated with both badges and the proportion of engagements with the territorial consumer's post as compared to posts made by

two other group members; the territorial consumer's post was the second post in the feed of three posts. The names of central territorial consumers appeared with a badge that said "Veteran Member," while the names of non-central consumers appeared with a badge that said "New Member," which is an actual badge that Facebook has. Central territorial consumers also had roughly double the number of post engagements than each of the other two posters on the page, while non-central consumers had less than half of the number of engagements of these other members.

This manipulation was pre-tested on 160 Nike brand users in a between-subjects design in which participants were told to imagine that they were a member of the Nike running group and saw the posts on the group's page. Participants perceived the territorial consumer in the high centrality condition to be more central than the consumer in the low centrality condition ($M =$ 5.60 vs. 4.57, $F(1, 158) = 32.65$, $p = 0.00$). Perceptions of centrality did not differ based on the gender of the territorial consumer ($F(1, 158) = 0.12$, $p = 0.73$) or the ethnicity of the participant ($F(3, 156) = 0.73$, $p = 0.53$).

The manipulation of perceived density of the group was also embedded in the mock-up of the Facebook group page in the first post in the feed of three posts. This manipulation was based on both the description of and scale items for network density (Kuchmaner, Wiggins, and Grimm, 2019; Antia and Frasier, 2001), which emphasizes the amount of contact groups members have with each other as an indicator of density. In the high density condition the first poster said, "416/503 group members attended our last group run in the park! Thanks for the great turn out!" In the low density condition the post read, "27/503 group members attended our last group run in the park! Thanks for coming out!" The manipulation was pretested on 42 Nike brand users in a between-subjects design in which participants were told to imagine that they

were a member of the Nike running group and saw the posts on the group's page. Participants

perceived the group in the high density condition to be more dense than the group in the low

density condition ($M = 5.67$ vs. 4.99, $F(1, 40) = 8.97$, $p = 0.01$). The manipulations of centrality

and density were then combined into one final graphic of the group's Facebook group page (see

Appendix B).

**Variables and Measures**

The dependent variable, perceived brand authenticity, along with the mediating,

manipulation check, and control variables were measured using the same scales from study one.

Manipulation checks were also included for the perceived centrality of the territorial consumer

and the perceived density of the Facebook group. Perceived centrality was measured with a four-

item scale adapted for the context, with items such as "Shari Miller is a key figure in this Nike

running group" and "Shari Miller is located in a central position in this Nike running group" ($\alpha =$

0.88) (Kuchmaner, Wiggins, and Grimm, 2019; Antia and Frasier, 2001). Perceived density was

measured using a four-item scale adapted for the context, which included items like "Members

of this Nike running group are frequently in contact with other members" and "The relationship

between members of this Nike running group can be defined as mutually satisfying" ($\alpha = 0.89$)

(Kuchmaner, Wiggins, and Grimm, 2019; Antia and Frasier, 2001).

**Results**

Two hundred Amazon MTurkers qualified to participate in the study (55% male, age

range 19-73, average age 36.3, all US residents). ANOVA results showed that the centrality

manipulation was successful, with participants perceiving the territorial consumer in the high

centrality condition as more central than the consumer in the low centrality condition ($M = 5.01$ vs. 4.39, $F (1, 198) = 13.76$, $p = 0.00$). The density manipulation was not successful ($F (1, 198) = 0.15$, $p = 0.70$). However, models including perceived density were run using the continuous measure of the variable.

Before conducting the analysis, both dimensions of self-authenticity were regressed onto potential control variables. For authentic living, attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.19$, $t = 3.01$, $p = 0.00$), attitude toward the group ($\beta = 0.25$, $t = 3.88$, $p = 0.00$), attitude toward Shari ($\beta = -0.10$, $t = 2.26$, $p = 0.03$), familiarity with NikeID ($\beta = -0.07$, $t = -2.11$, $p = 0.04$), and length of time wearing Nikes ($\beta = 0.16$, $t = 2.60$, $p = 0.01$) emerged as significant controls. For self-alienation, attitude toward Nike ($\beta = -0.30$, $t = -3.61$, $p = 0.00$), attitude toward Shari ($\beta = 0.24$, $t = 4.18$, $p = 0.00$), and length of time wearing Nikes ($\beta = -0.26$, $t = -3.21$, $p = 0.00$) were significant controls. The measures of perceived brand authenticity were also regressed onto potential control variables. For the first measure, attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.51$, $t = 10.16$, $p = 0.00$), attitude toward the group ($\beta = 0.17$, $t = 3.33$, $p = 0.001$), and attitude toward Shari ($\beta = -0.07$, $t = -2.17$, $p = 0.03$) emerged as significant controls. For the second measure, attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.51$, $t = 10.28$, $p = 0.00$), attitude toward the group ($\beta = 0.17$, $t = 3.29$, $p = 0.001$), and attitude toward Facebook ($\beta = 0.08$, $t = 2.55$ $p = 0.01$) were significant controls. These controls were included in the relevant models.

H4 suggested that territorial behavior exhibited by a more central consumer would have greater negative effects on both perceived self-authenticity and perceived brand authenticity. ANOVA results did not support H4. Centrality made no difference on feelings of self-alienation ($F (1, 195) = 0.23$, $p = 0.63$), feelings of authentic living ($F (1, 193) = 1.08$, $p = 0.30$), the first measure of perceived brand authenticity ($F (1, 195) = 0.20$, $p = 0.65$), or the second measure of

perceived brand authenticity $F(1, 195) = 2.02$, $p = 0.16$). Mediation analysis was also conducted using PROCESS Model 4. Perceived centrality of the territorial consumer did not have a direct effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta = -0.05$, $SE = 0.10$, $t = -0.57$, $p = 0.57$), nor did it have an indirect effect through self-alienation ($\beta = 0.01$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.03, 0.06]). There was also no direct effect of centrality on feelings of self-alienation ($\beta = -0.10$, $SE = 0.17$, $t = -0.62$, $p = 0.54$). In the model with the authentic living dimension of self-authenticity, perceived centrality of the territorial consumer again had no direct effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta = -0.03$, $SE = 0.10$, $t = -0.29$, $p = 0.77$), nor did it have an indirect effect through authentic living ($\beta = -0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.06, 0.03]). There was also no direct effect of centrality on feelings of authentic living ($\beta = -0.10$, $SE = 0.12$, $t = -0.79$, $p = 0.43$). This pattern of results was replicated with the second measure of perceived brand authenticity. Therefore, H4 is unsupported.

H5 suggested that territorial behavior exhibited in a denser network would have lesser effects on perceived self-authenticity and brand authenticity. Since the density manipulation was unsuccessful, the continuous measure of density is used to test this hypothesis, which allows for mediation analysis, but not ANOVA. The mediation analysis was conducted using PROCESS Model 4. Perceived density of the group did not have a direct effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta = -0.09$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = -1.55$, $p = 0.12$), nor did it have an indirect effect through self-alienation ($\beta = 0.01$, $SE = 0.01$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.02, 0.04]). There was also no direct effect of density on feelings of self-alienation ($\beta = -0.06$, $SE = 0.10$, $t = -0.61$, $p = 0.54$). In the model with the authentic living dimension of self-authenticity, perceived density of the group again had no direct effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta = -0.10$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = -1.68$, $p = 0.09$), nor did it have an indirect effect through authentic living ($\beta = 0.01$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.02, 0.05]). There

was also no direct effect of density on feelings of authentic living ($\beta = 0.08$, $SE = 0.07$, $t = 1.12$, $p = 0.26$). This pattern of results was replicated with the second measure of perceived brand authenticity. Therefore, H5 is unsupported.

One possibility is that there is an interaction between perceived centrality and perceived density that affects self-alienation and perceived brand authenticity. Past literature has often documented this interaction, in which density has a constraining effect on centrality (Kuchmaner, Wiggins, and Grimm, 2019). Therefore, a moderated mediation model was examined that included both variables with density as a moderator of the relationship between centrality and each self-authenticity dimension. These models were tested using PROCESS Model 7. In the self-alienation model, the index of moderated mediation was nonsignificant ($\beta = 0.02$, $SE = 0.02$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.02, 0.07]). In the authentic living model, the index of moderated mediation was also nonsignificant ($\beta = 0.02$, $SE = 0.03$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.02, 0.08]). This pattern was replicated with the second measure of perceived brand authenticity. Therefore, moderated mediation is not present.

Perceived centrality of the territorial consumer and perceived density of the network appear to have no effects on either perceptions of self-authenticity or brand authenticity either individually or interactively. However, across all models and consistent with the findings of study one, self-alienation has a significant, negative direct effect on perceived brand authenticity and authentic living has a significant, positive direct effect on perceived brand authenticity for both measures. This again supports the underlying idea that self-authenticity perceptions can spill over onto brand authenticity perceptions.

**General Discussion**

In this paper, I posited that observing the territorial behavior of another brand user in a network can be perceived as an identity threat, which can reduce the observing consumers' perceived self-authenticity. I also suggested that the negative impact on perceived self-authenticity would spill over to negatively affect the perceived authenticity of the brand via the consumer's associative network. I found that observed, in-network territorial behavior is interpreted as an identity threat, but not as a signal of brand value. Further, this work shows that an individual does not always have to be the target of the identity threat in order to perceived a threat. I also showed that the identity threat did not affect feelings of self-authenticity. This suggests that identity threats and self-authenticity threats may be unique forms of threat.

I consistently found that feelings of self-alienation do spill over to negatively affect brand authenticity perceptions, while feelings of authentic living spill over to positively affect these perceptions. While these effects were present in scenarios involving customization, they did not hold in a standard purchase scenario. This may be because consumers find it easier to engage in compensatory consumption to restore feelings of self-authenticity when the branded product is standardized and available, but this is much more difficult when the branded product is customized and more difficult to replicate. Another explanation is that in customization scenarios, the self-brand connection is stronger because the consumer has a hand in creating the product, and therefore the spillover effect is stronger. Surprisingly, the perceived centrality of the territorial consumer had no effect feelings self-authenticity, nor did perceived network density. This suggests that authenticity threats may not be exacerbated or mitigated based on characteristics of the threatening consumer, such as their centrality or social status.

This research has interesting implications for firms. It may be in companies' best interest to monitor their online consumer communities for signs of territorial behavior. Online and on social media, this type of behavior is highly visible in a network and has the potential to be viewed by many network members. Even a small number of consumers engaging in territorial behavior can be damaging to the brand, as the people who see it can experience an identity threat, which could negatively impact the firm.

Further, the spillover from perceived self-authenticity to brand authenticity, and the concern over how to manage it, may be specific to firms that offer opportunities for customization or co-production. The positive direct effect of authentic living and the negative direct effect of self-alienation on brand authenticity perceptions were not found in study two, which used a standard purchase scenario as opposed to a customization scenario. It is likely that the effects were not present in this context because the threatened consumer knows s/he can go out and purchase the exact product that the territorial consumer has to reduce feelings of self-alienation and restore feelings self-authenticity. Indeed, research suggests that consumers can engage in compensatory consumption when their sense of authenticity is threatened (Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016; Kokkoris et al., 2019). A customized or custom branded product is much more difficult to duplicate, such that consumers in this situation may have a harder time compensating from self-authenticity losses.

Finally, in-network territorial behavior can also have broader negative effects on the firm. Territorial behavior is generally perceived negatively by observers (Brown et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2014; Brown and Zhu, 2016). For example, research has shown that observing the territorial behavior of other customers decreases satisfaction with services (Wu et al., 2014), discourages other customers in service settings (Griffiths and Gilly, 2012), and increases reactionary

territorial responses directed toward the firm, such as retaliation, abandonment, and negative WOM (Ashley and Noble, 2014). These findings suggest that the presence of territorial behavior may lower satisfaction ratings, damage the firm's reputation, make the firm subject to punitive actions by consumers, and cause the firm to lose customers.

**Future Research Directions**

This works prompts several new research questions. First, future research can examine what factors what factors may mitigate or counteract perceived identity threats stemming from observing territorial behavior. For example, the spillover effect may be mitigated if the consumers who observe the territorial behavior perceive it as a justified or fair response (e.g. Wu et al., 2014). For example, Rolls Royce is a brand in which the value of the brand is built largely on receiving a personalized, unique car of which there is only one. Therefore, it may be a norm in the Rolls Royce consumer network for the consumers to be territorial over their car.

Another pertinent area of future research lies in determining what firm interventions may counteract the negative spillover from feelings of self-alienation to perceived brand authenticity. More exploration of the role of network density and centrality may be warranted. The manipulation of density was unsuccessful in study three, so a continuous measure was used. Results of future studies using network density would be strengthened if a successful manipulation of density is created in order to conduct experiments. A surprising finding was that centrality did not affect feelings of self-authenticity. In these studies, the perspective was of a consumer who only observed the territorial interaction of two other brand users. The observer is a third-party that may be vicariously experiencing the territorial behavior, but the behavior is not directed toward them. Future research could examine these relationships from the perspective of

a consumer who is actually in the territorial interaction and the target of the territorial behavior. This could reveal whether or not characteristics of the threatening consumer, such as perceived centrality, do have an effect on perceived self-authenticity when the consumer is directly involved in the interaction as opposed to vicariously experiencing it.

## Conclusion

Brand authenticity has been hailed as the new purchase criterion (Gilmore and Pine, 2007) and firms spend much time and resources and employ a myriad of strategies to increase brand authenticity perceptions. However, if a brand's consumers experience a loss of feelings of self-authenticity for an identity that is related to the brand, these consumers can end up with reduced brand authenticity perceptions. Since consumers concerned with self-authenticity prefer and seek out authentic brands (Morhart et al., 2015; Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016), this can be particularly damaging to firms.

**Differential Responses to Identity Threat and Their Impact on**

**Brand Authenticity Perceptions**

Consumer perceptions of brand authenticity, how genuine a brand is perceived to be, have been shown to lead to an assortment of positive outcomes for firms. Brand authenticity can increase emotional attachment to the brand (Morhart et al., 2015), trust in the firm (Moulard et al., 2016; Napoli et al., 2016), perceived brand quality (Minor and LeBoeuf, 2011), perceived brand relationship quality (Fritz, et al., 2017), brand equity (Napoli et al., 2016), purchase intentions (Fritz et al., 2017), word of mouth (Morhart et al., 2015), confidence in brand opinions (Minor and LeBoeuf, 2011), and willingness to forgive mistakes (Fritz et al., 2017). Authenticity has also been identified as a new value in the luxury goods sector (Hartmann et al., 2017) and has been touted as the new purchase criterion and the next source of competitive advantage for firms (Gilmore and Pine, 2007).

Due to the positive outcomes of brand authenticity, firms expend a large amount of resources to foster brand authenticity perceptions among their consumers. Antecedents to brand authenticity that companies attempt to strategically influence include brand commercialization, brand legitimacy, brand clarity, brand heritage, brand nostalgia, a brand's social commitment, and employee passion (Fritz et al., 2017; Lozanski, 2010; Moulard et al., 2016; Yeoman et al., 2005; Anand and Jones, 2005). Particularly relevant to service firms, companies also try to influence authenticity perceptions through features of the point of sale location, such as atmosphere (Groves et al., 2001; Munoz et al., 2006), employees (Kim and Baker, 2017; Kim and Jang, 2016; Munoz et al., 2006), cultural artifacts (Munoz et al., 2006), and products offered, such as restaurant meals (Kim and Jang, 2016; Kim and Baker, 2017; Kim et al., 2017). The mix

of these features has been termed a consumption constellation, which is "a cluster of complimentary products, specific brands, and/or consumption activities used to construct, signify, and/or perform a social role" (Munoz et al., 2006, p. 225), also called staging in tourism studies (e.g. Chronis and Hampton, 2008; MacCannell, 1973).

Research suggests that authentic brands hold self-authentication potential for consumers (Napoli et al., 2016), yet little is known about the effects of the use of brands in the consumption-driven self-authentication process, which is defined as the process of assessing whether or not one's actions (i.e. consumption choices) are congruent with one's activated identity. Past research suggests that perceptions of brand authenticity will be strengthened when a consumer uses a brand to self-authenticate because the brand is perceived as self-congruent (i.e. "like me") and, therefore, more authentic (Gilmore and Pine, 2007; Morhart et al., 2015; Fritz et al., 2017). However, perceived brand authenticity may be at risk if a consumer has used a brand to authenticate an identity and then experiences an identity threat, which is an experience that is "appraised as indicating potential harm to the value, meanings, or enactments of an identity" (Petriglieri, 2011, p. 644). Given the prevalence of social media and the culture of sharing, which have virtually erased the line between public and private consumption, other brand users have become a key source of identity threat.

Essay two shows that when a brand user exhibits territorial behavior, an observing brand user perceives the behavior as an identity threat. Research has shown that a consumer may engage in two classes of contradictory responses toward threatened identity-related brands. White, Argo, and Sengupta (2012) show that a threat can lead to either a dissociative response, which is an avoidance of identity-linked products, or an associative response, which is increased preference for identity-linked products. Petriglieri (2011) distinguishes two sets of responses to

identity threat that align with White, Argo, and Sengupta's (2012) distinction. When a consumer

observes territorial behavior in the network and becomes threatened, the consumer may

disassociate from the brand (White et al., 2012) by engaging in identity restructuring responses

(Petriglieri, 2011) in which the consumer abandons the original, threatened brand for an

unthreatened brand that can also authenticate the relevant identity. In other words, the consumer

engages in brand switching. If a consumer chooses to disassociate from a brand, the brand should

be viewed as less congruent with self and, in turn, less authentic (Fritz et al., 2017).

However, observing and becoming threatened by in-network territorial behavior can also

cause threatened consumers to become territorial themselves. Indeed, research shows that a

second type of response that a consumer can have to an identity threat is an associative response

to the brand, in which they show an increased preference for the brand (White et al., 2012). This

associative response may manifest in territorial behaviors toward the brand. In standing by the

brand, the threatened consumer maintains perceptions of self-brand congruence and, therefore,

perceptions of brand authenticity (Fritz et al., 2017). In addition, territorial behaviors can allow

consumers to vent negative emotions or reassert control over the brand (Brown et al., 2005),

which may boost perceptions of brand authenticity.

Essay two suggested that an identity threat may reduce perceptions of self-authenticity.

Identity threat responses may be an outcome of reductions in perceived self-authenticity, "the

degree of [perceived] congruency between one's actions and one's core self-conceptions,

consisting of fundamental values, beliefs, and identities to which one is committed and in terms

of which one defines oneself" (Vannini and Burgess, 2009, p. 104), not the identity threat per se.

Self-authenticity has two dimensions. Self-alienation is described as the degree of mismatch

between your feelings or behaviors and your perceived authentic self (Wood et al., 2008).

Authentic living is described as feeling or behaving in a way that is consistent or inconsistent with your authentic self (Wood et al., 2008). Essay two showed that feelings of self-alienation reduced perceived brand authenticity, while feelings of authentic living increased it. In this essay, I focus on identity threat responses as a potential outcome of feelings of self-alienation. However, whether or not brand authenticity perceptions are damaged by an increase in perceived self-alienation may depend on the threatened consumer's response to the identity threat.

The type of response a consumer has to an identity threat depends on where the consumer is in the self-authentication process. In other words, it depends on the consumer's perceived progress toward their goal of self-authentication. The amount of perceived goal progress influences the consumer's regulatory focus. Regulatory focus theory (Higgins 1997; 1998) is a theory of motivation and goal pursuit that conceptualizes self-knowledge as a self-digest that encompasses how other people respond to a person and his/her actions; these potential reactions from others prompt self-regulation (Higgins, 1996). Therefore, regulatory focus theory is highly applicable to this research given the prominent role of other consumers as a source of identity threat. A consumer's regulatory focus, in turn, determines the way the consumer responds to the identity threat. It is important for firms to consider the different ways consumers can respond to identity threat when engaged in the self-authentication process, as these responses can help or harm perceptions of brand authenticity.

### Responses to Identity Threat and Effects on Perceived Brand Authenticity

***Identity-Restructuring Responses.*** Under threat, people may engage in identity-restructuring responses, which "target the threatened identity in order to make it less of an object for potential

harm" (Petriglieri, 2011; p. 647). These can include abandoning or exiting the identity when possible, decreasing the importance of the threatened identity, or changing the meanings associated with the identity (Petriglieri, 2011). Consumers may attempt to change the meanings associated with a threatened identity by choosing different brands to authenticate the identity and simultaneously avoiding the original brands that provided authentication. Indeed, identity research has shown that certain consumers often protect the self by avoiding threatened identity-related products (White and Argo, 2009), and they even forget promotional information associated with a threatened identity (Dalton and Huang, 2014).

The brand-avoidant behavior precipitated from an identity threat has been noted in work on consumption in subcultures. For example, Charmley, Garry, and Ballantine (2013) discuss that in the skateboarding community, the use of brands by outsiders dilutes their signal value and "authentic" members of the community avoid them. Daschuk (2011) found that when the alternative band AgainstMe! signed with a major record label, members of the punk subculture felt that liking the band could signal inauthenticity due to the potential of the band to gain mainstream acceptance and the band was avoided. Finally, Perry (2015) found that among high school students, the similarity of others' dress to one's own it reduces the uniqueness of the expression and destabilizes authenticity, with some students going as far as to avoid the brands that became popular. In sum, current research suggests that identity threats create self-authenticity concerns, which may lead to the abandonment of brands (i.e. identity restructuring responses).

When a consumer must disassociate from a brand used to authenticate an identity and find a new brand to re-authenticate the identity and repair perceived self-authenticity, s/he is likely to view the abandoned brand as less authentic. Research shows that perceptions of self-

brand congruence cause consumers to develop identity overlaps with brands. Gilmore and Pine (2007) explain that a match between a company's offerings and a consumer's self-image will result in higher authenticity perceptions of the offering. For example, Fritz, Schoenmueller, and Bruhn (2017) identify actual self-brand congruence as an antecedent to brand authenticity, such that the more "like me" the brand is, the more authentic it is perceived to be. Morhart et al. (2015) show the inverse, noting that perceived brand authenticity increases perception of self-brand congruence, such that authentic brands are perceived as "like me." Therefore, if a consumer chooses to disassociate from a brand used to authenticate an identity after an identity threat, perceptions of self-brand congruence should be reduced, which would result in the brand being perceived as less authentic.

*H1a*: *Engaging in identity-restructuring responses decreases perceived brand authenticity.*

*Territorial Responses.* Reactionary territorial responses are actions directed toward the source of a perceived infringement that are taken after and in reaction to the infringement in order to restore claim to the territory (Brown et al., 2005). This category of responses encompasses the associative, identity-protection responses identified by Petrieglieri (2011), described as "directed towards the source of the threat and involve no change to the individual's threatened identity" (p. 647). These include actions like concealment of the threatened identity, derogation of the source of the threat, and positive-distinctiveness, which is an attempt to change the attitudes of the individuals or groups who are the source of the threat (Petrieglieri, 2011; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973). A main consideration of the choice to defend a territory is how important or central the territory is (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973). If an identity has been deemed important enough for the consumer to engage in the self-authentication process, the brand chosen

as an authenticator of that identity will likely be viewed as important enough to defend, especially if it is central to the authentication of that identity.

In essence, consumers who engage in reactionary territorial responses after an identity threat choose to "double down" and stand by threatened identity-related brand. By protecting the brand currently used to authenticate the relevant threatened identity, consumers also protect their sense of self-authenticity. These include actions like complaining or protesting (Ashley and Noble, 2014; Brown et al., 2005; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973), ridicule, criticism, or other methods of source derogation (Petriglieri, 2011; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973), deception and confusion tactics (Griffiths and Gilly, 2012; Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973), and unkind, intimidating, or aggressive behaviors (Ashley and Noble, 2014; Kirk et al., 2018). When this class of responses is used, the consumer maintains perceptions of self-brand congruence and, therefore, perceptions of brand authenticity (Fritz et al., 2017). However, engaging in reactionary territorial responses is expected to increase perceived brand authenticity over this baseline for several reasons.

First, Brown, Lawrence, and Robinson (2005) explain that one function of reactionary territorial responses is to express anger or frustration. Therefore, these responses may give the consumer an outlet to vent negative emotions and frustration related to experiencing an identity threat, in which the negativity is directed toward the source of that threat (i.e. the infringing consumer). In this case, the consumer may direct less negativity toward the threatened brand itself. In addition, the relief provided to the consumer from having an outlet to vent the threat-related negative emotions may cause the consumer to view the threatened brand more positively, such that perceived brand authenticity is increased.

Second, these responses enable the consumer to reassert control over the territory (Brown et al., 2005). For example, Ruback, Pape, and Doriot (1989) found that people talking on a pay phone remained on the phone longer when someone else who was clearly waiting for the phone invaded them; callers defended their territory (i.e. the phone) by spending more time on their task. Similarly, Ruback and Juieng (1997) suggest that drivers about to exit a parking space while another car was waiting for the space took more time to leave than if they were not intruded upon in an effort to reassert control over the territory. In this context, if a threatened consumer were to engage in a territorial response such as ridiculing (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973) the infringing consumer (i.e. "You're not the type of person that should be using this brand, but I am"), the threatened consumer asserts control over the brand territory. Control over an object has been shown to lead to the development of psychological ownership of the object (i.e. "This is mine!") (Pierce et al., 2003), in which the object is incorporated into the extended self (Belk, 1988; Pierce et al., 2003) and becomes "me." This results in perceptions of self-brand congruence, and reasserting control over a brand after an identity threat is likely to strengthen this perception such that perceived brand authenticity increases (Fritz et al., 2017).

*H1b: Engaging in territorial responses increases perceived brand authenticity.*

## The Impact of Regulatory Focus on Choice of Responses

Regulatory focus, the method a person uses to achieve goals, approaching pleasure and avoiding pain (Higgins, 1997), determines which set of responses the consumer will engage in. While regulatory focus is well known to be chronic or induced by situational cues, recent research has shown that it can also be induced by activated identities that have unique motivations and motivational preferences, which direct thought and behavior (Browman, et al.,

2017). There are two types of regulatory focus that differ based on desired goals or end states and the strategies used to achieve these end states.

Individuals with a promotion focus concentrate on accomplishment (Higgins, 1996), advancement (Crowe and Higgins, 1997), growth (Crowe and Higgins, 1997), and aspirations (Higgins, 1996). These people adopt an approach strategy to reach their desired end state; specifically, they approach a match between the actual self and the ideal self (Higgins, 1996; Higgins et al., 1994) seeking the "hoped for self" (Sobh and Martin, 2008). The approach strategy reflects an eagerness to achieve the desired self (Higgins, 1996; Crowe and Higgins, 1997), or an eagerness for gains (Higgins, 1997). Promotion-focused individuals pay the most attention to gains and non-gains (Shah et al., 1998), or the presence and absence of positive outcomes (Brockner and Higgins, 2001), and are therefore sensitive to rewards (Higgins, 1997). These people want to distinguish themselves (Higgins, 1997) and maximize distinction from others (i.e. maximize gains) (Lalwani et al., 2009). To this end, actual/desired self-discrepancies are thought of as a "need to be met" (Pham and Higgins, 2006) and these individuals want to insure "hits" and not commit errors of omission (Crowe and Higgins, 1997). Therefore, choices are guided by the acceptance or selection of alternatives (Pham and Higgins, 2006).

Prevention-focused individuals focus on security (Crowe and Higgins, 1997; Higgins, 1997), responsibilities (Crowe and Higgins, 1997), and meeting obligations (Higgins, 1996). These people adopt an avoidance strategy to reach their desired end state; specifically, they avoid threats to and a mismatch between the actual self and the ought self (Higgins, 1996; Higgins et al., 1994), avoiding the "feared self" (Sobh and Martin, 2008). The avoidance strategy reflects a vigilance to protect against threats to the desired self (Higgins, 1996; Crowe and Higgins, 1997), or vigilance against losses (Higgins, 1997). Prevention-focused individuals pay the most

attention to losses and non-losses (Shah et al., 1998), or the presence and absence of negative outcomes (Brockner and Higgins, 2001), and are therefore sensitive to punishments (Higgins, 1997). These people want to fit in with the group (Higgins, 1997; Lalwani et al., 2009), avoid loss in social situations (Lalwani et al., 2009), and avoid being associated with outgroups (Shah et al., 2004). To this end, actual/desired self-discrepancies are thought of as a "problem to be fixed" (Pham and Higgins, 2006) and these individuals want to insure correct rejections and not commit errors of commission (Crowe and Higgins, 1997). Therefore, choice is guided by the elimination or rejection of alternatives (Pham and Higgins, 2006). Promotion-focused individuals are expected to be more likely to engage in identity-restructuring responses and abandon a brand associated with a threatened identity, while prevention-focused individuals are expected to be more likely to stand by the brand and engage in territorial responses.

*Likelihood to Engage in Identity-Restructuring Responses.* Promotion-focused individuals are better equipped to identify alternative brands that can re-authenticate the threatened identity than prevention-focused individuals. Promotion-focused people have been shown to be more creative (Brockner and Higgins, 2001) and have more creative conflict resolution behavior (Winterheld and Simpson, 2011) than prevention-focused people. This is due to a willingness to take risks, a more explorative (vs. vigilant) processing style, and greater memory search for novel responses (Friedman and Forster, 2001), as well as higher levels of cognitive flexibility (Baas et al., 2011) and a tendency to be more open-minded (Dholakia et al., 2006). This creativity may play a role in promotion-focused individuals' tendency to search for alternatives in more global, top-down fashion (Pham and Trudel, 2008; Pham and Higgins, 2006; Kuhnen and Hannover, 2010), which allows the identification of more opportunities (Pham and Chang, 2010). Meanwhile, prevention-

focused individuals search for alternatives in a more local, bottom up way (Pham and Trudel, 2008; Pham and Higgins, 2006; Kuhnen and Hannover, 2010), which allows the avoidance of mistakes by considering the "fine print" of an option (Pham and Chang, 2010). Zhu and Meyers-Levy (2007) found that promotion-focused people engage in relational elaboration in which themes among different items are identified due to a focus on positive states and exploration, while prevention-focused people engage in item-specific elaboration, which involves focusing on each item's attributes independent of other items due to a focus on negative states and the need to fix the "problem."

As a result, promotion-focused individuals generate more alternatives than prevention-focused individuals in a variety of contexts, such as generating more alternatives in a task (Crowe and Higgins, 1997) and generating and endorsing more hypotheses at the same time (Liberman et al., 2001). Those with a promotion focus also use larger consideration sets than prevention-focused individuals (Pham and Trudel, 2008; Pham and Chang, 2010) that are more heterogeneous and formed through the inclusion of alternatives (Pham and Higgins, 2006). Zhu and Meyers-Levy (2007) found that those with a promotion focus prefer large assortment sizes because many options increase the chances of "hits," while Bodur and Matyas (2008) found that those with a prevention focus prefer smaller assortment sizes to increase the chances of correct rejections. Therefore, promotion-focused individuals appear to be better able than prevention-focused individuals to identify alternative brands that could re-authenticate a threatened identity.

In addition, promotion-focused individuals are more likely than prevention-focused individuals to choose one of the identified alternatives because promotion-focused individuals are more open to switching brands. In general, promotion-focused individuals show a greater propensity for risk-taking than prevention-focused individuals, who are risk averse (Crowe and

Higgins, 1997) and for whom losses loom larger than gains (Idson et al., 2000). People with a promotion focus tend to be more open to change (Liberman et al., 1999) and are more likely to change behavior than prevention-focused individuals (Keller et al., 2003), who tend to repeat past behavior (Crowe and Higgins, 1997; Liberman et al., 1999; Schwabe et al., 2018). Zhang, Cornwell, and Higgins (2014) explain that prevention-focused individuals may be motivated to repeat behavior because they view their initial behavior as the status quo to be maintained; therefore, prevention-focused individuals may continue to use a threatened brand because it is the status quo they have established. In fact, promotion-focused people are better able to change plans and use alternative strategies than prevention-focused people (Higgins and Spiegel, 2004). In addition, Molden and Hui (2011) found that activating a promotion focus de-escalates commitment to a failing enterprise because it reduces the focus on losses and increases perceptions of alternatives, however, this may also cause premature abandonment of an endeavor. This research shows that promotion-focused consumers may be more likely to adopt new authenticating brands than prevention-focused consumers because they are less risk averse and more likely to change behaviors.

In line with these findings, the promotion-focused goals of accomplishment, advancement, and achieving social gain, combined with an approach strategy to maximize social gains in terms of distinction from others, may cause the promotion-focused consumer to be more likely to take a "leap of faith" and attempt to authenticate a threatened identity with a new brand that they have identified. Higgins et al. (2003) explains that the promotion-focused, eager competitor would improve by maximizing strengths, which is an offensive, gain strategy. Promotion-focused people prefer and are more likely to adopt optimistic forecasts, which maintain eagerness in alignment with growth goals (Hazlett et al., 2011). Therefore, a

promotion-focused person may attempt to maximize social gains by "staying ahead of the crowd" and adopting a new authenticating brand, the results of which would be optimistically forecast.

In contrast, prevention-focused individuals' goals of safety, security, and stability in concert with an avoidance strategy to minimize social losses and be consistent with the ingroup may cause the prevention-focused consumer to stick with what s/he knows and stand by the brand currently used to authenticate the threatened identity, instead of searching for a new authenticator. Higgins et al. (2003) states that the prevention-focused, vigilant competitor would improve by minimizing weaknesses, which is a defensive, non-loss strategy. Prevention-focused people prefer and are more likely to adopt pessimistic forecasts, which maintain vigilance in alignment with safety goals (Hazlett et al., 2011). Therefore, a prevention-focused individual would not want to risk a social loss by adopting a different authenticating brand, the consequences of which would be pessimistically forecast.

The emphasis on social gains and losses between the different regulatory foci indicates that susceptibility to external influence also underlies these choice differences. A promotion focus is associated with individualism (Lalwani et al., 2009), independence (Allen et al., 2018), not engaging in impression management (Lalwani et al., 2009), and more reliance on internal guides in decision-making rather than external, normative expectations (Brebels et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2011). A prevention focus, on the other hand, is associated with collectivism (Lalwani et al., 2009), interdependence (Allen et al., 2018), impression management (Lalwani et al., 2009), and more reliance on external guides and normative influences (Zhang et al., 2011).

Prevention-focused individuals' heightened concern for how others view them has been shown to impact product choice. Ku, Kuo, and Kuo (2012) found that promotion-focused

individuals are more likely than prevention-focused individuals to adopt supply scarce products than demand scarce products due to the potential social gain from status or uniqueness, whereas those with a prevention focus guard against social loss by avoiding supply scarce products because there is not much information about who is buying them. In addition, prevention-focused people may stick with a brand because s/he does not want to explain her/his change in consumption or negotiate the authentication value of a new brand with the group. Mourali et al. (2007) reports that those with a prevention focus prefer safe, justifiable choices and Shalvi et al. (2013) found that prevention-focused buyers were more likely to try to avoid a negotiation situation than promotion-focused buyers to avoid risks associated with the negotiation. Under identity threat, therefore, a prevention-focused consumer may be more likely to stand by the brand because it is the safe option that is less likely to result in a potential sense of social loss resulting from social rejection (Molden et al., 2009).

Indeed, research shows that promotion-focused people show a preference for extreme choices with a high possibility of reward or failure (Mourali et al., 2007) while prevention-focused individuals care more about maintaining the status quo (Grant and Xie, 2003). For example, promotion-focused people are more likely to exchange formerly or currently possessed objects than those with a prevention focus due to the potential of the new object to be even better than the old one, which would be a potential gain, while those with a prevention focus view the original object as a safe alternative that would result in a non-loss (Liberman et al., 1999). Similarly, promotion-focused people were shown to own more new tech products and newly launched items that are a repurchase and have higher purchase intentions for really new products than prevention-focused individuals (Herzenstein et al., 2007). In addition, Ramanathan and Dhar (2010) state that less familiar brands represent a riskier choice and a preference for variety,

consistent with a promotion focus, while more familiar brands represent the safe choice, consistent with a prevention focus. These findings support the idea that promotion-focused individuals may be more likely than prevention-focused individuals to abandon a known brand and choose a new brand as an authenticator of a threatened identity. Therefore:

*H2a: The higher a consumer's promotion (prevention) focus, (a) the stronger (weaker) the relationship between identity threat and identity-restructuring responses and (b) the weaker (stronger) the relationship between identity threat and territorial responses.*

Identity threat responses are expected to be an outcome of reductions in self-authenticity resulting from the identity threat. Specifically, feelings of self-alienation are expected to mediate the link between identity threat and threat response.

*H3a: The relationship between identity threat and identity-restructuring responses is mediated by self-alienation.*

***Likelihood to Engage in Territorial Responses.*** The reviewed research shows that prevention-focused individuals are less equipped to identify viable alternative brands and less likely to select these alternative brands than promotion-focused individuals, which makes those with a prevention-focus more likely to stand by the brand. Additionally, prevention-focused individuals may be more likely to not only stick with the brand, but also behave territorially over the original authenticating brand. The ownership of territories is strongly related to a sense of security and stability, which are key needs and motivations considered by the prevention-focused individual. Guyot, Byrd, and Caudle (1980) found that students ranked a sense of security and control as the top influences in consistently choosing the same seat (i.e. territory). Costa (2012) finds that consistent territories provide order and predictability, which reduces conflict, stress, and anxiety.

Expanding on this, Edney (1976) explains that anticipation of future experience with a territory leads to a sense of cognitive control over the future through the creation of expectations. Relatedly, territories provide environmental cues that help create regular patterns of behaviors that result in a sense of continuity (Edney, 1976). This relates to findings that territories deliver a sense of security through a known environment and a sense of identity through the possession, ownership, and control of an object that helps define the person or group (Ardrey, 1966), which can be considered mastery of a territory (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973). Further, social status can be defended through possession of territory (Ardrey, 1966) and defense of a territory can reinforce a person's social status (Ardrey, 1966; Sommer, 1969; Leyhausen, 1971; DeLong, 1973). In sum, the original authenticating brand territory may fulfill the prevention-focused individuals' safety and security needs and, along with the desire to avoid social losses, prompt them to not only stand by the brand, but also to engage in territorial behaviors after an identity threat.

*H2b: The higher a consumer's prevention (promotion) focus, (a) the stronger (weaker) the relationship between identity threat and territorial responses and (b) the weaker (stronger) the relationship between identity threat and identity-restructuring responses.*

Again, identity threat responses are expected to be an outcome of increased feelings of self-alienation. Therefore:

*H3b: The relationship between identity threat and territorial responses is mediated by self-alienation.*

**Progress Towards the Self-Authentication Goal as an Antecedent to Regulatory Focus**

Research suggests that one's goal progress determines his or her regulatory focus. The goal of the consumption-driven self-authentication process is to authenticate the relevant identity

or, in other words, to achieve a high degree of perceived self-authenticity in regard to that identity. Since a consumer's regulatory focus is determined by his or her progress toward this self-authentication goal, perceived goal progress should influence the type of response employed after an identity threat.

Early in goal pursuit, people endorse a promotion-focused view of goals and adopt an approach strategy to achieve them because they rely on their initial state (vs. desired end state) as a reference to measure progress (Bullard and Manchanda, 2017). This creates a gain-framed perspective of goal progress, which leads to use of the approach strategy. Later in goal pursuit, people adopt a prevention-focused view of goals and use an avoidance strategy to reach them because they use the desired end state as a reference to measure goal progress. This creates a loss-framed perspective of goal progress, which leads to use of the avoidance strategy.

The effect of goal progress on choice of regulatory focus appears to overcome individuals' chronic tendency toward one focus or the other. For example, research has shown that prevention-focused individuals who fall short of their goal (i.e. experience a loss) adopt a riskier promotion-focused approach strategy to reach the goal in lieu of their usual prevention-focused avoidance strategy (Scholer et al., 2010; Higgins and Cornwell, 2016). In contrast, promotion-focused individuals who achieve their goal (i.e. experience a gain) switch to a more conservative prevention-focused avoidance strategy from their normal promotion-focused approach strategy in order to preserve their gains (Zou et al., 2014; Higgins and Cornwell, 2016). Zou, Higgins, and Scholer (2014) explain that people increase effort when goal progress is perceived as not going well, but decrease effort and "coast" when progress is perceived as sufficient. Therefore, goal progress influences one's regulatory focus regardless of the predisposition toward a certain focus.

This research suggests that consumers who are closer to their identity authentication goal or those who have already achieved the authentication goal and, therefore, have a higher degree of perceived self-authenticity (i.e. high goal progress) will adopt a prevention focus to achieve or maintain the goal. In contrast, consumers who are farther from their identity authentication goal and have a lower degree of perceived self-authenticity (i.e. minimal goal progress), such as in the early stages of the self-authentication process, will adopt a promotion focus to achieve the goal. The effect of goal progress on type of threat response, therefore, is mediated by regulatory focus. All hypotheses are summarized in Figure 1.

**H4**: *The moderating effect of perceived goal progress on type of threat response is mediated by regulatory focus, such that higher (lower) goal progress results in a prevention (promotion) focus, which (a) strengthens (weakens) the relationship between self-alienation and territorial responses and (b) the weakens (strengthens) the relationship between self-alienation and identity-restructuring responses.*

**Figure 1**
*Conceptual Model*
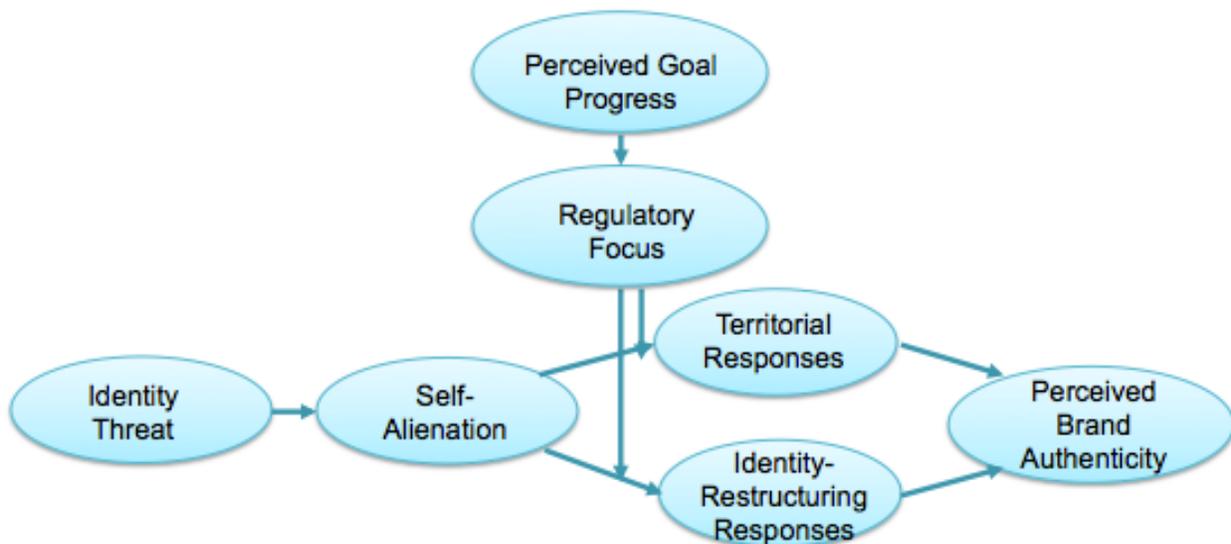
## Overview of Studies

This research consists of three experimental studies. The first study tests H1, H2, and H3 in the Nike shoe customization scenario using a manipulation of territorial behavior and regulatory focus. The second study tests H1, H3, and H4 with a manipulation of territorial behavior and goal progress in a baking scenario centered on the KitchenAid brand, specifically in the context of customizing a KitchenAid stand mixer. I then use a manipulation of perceived social exclusion and goal progress to test H1, H3, and H4 using the same baking scenario and the KitchenAid brand, to determine if the new threat changes the threat response. See Table 1 for a summary of the studies.

Participants were randomly assigned to all conditions. All of the studies test the hypothesized effects in the context of a customization scenario in which interactions are seen in a Facebook group. The group was either a Nike running group in which members used Nike branded athletic shoes for running (study one) or a KitchenAid baking group in which members used a KitchenAid branded stand mixer for baking (studies two and three). Participants were screened before access was granted to the main study. Both the Nike and KitchenAid brands were chosen because they have large brand communities, the brand users have opportunities to interact with each other both on and offline, and both offer options for customers to both purchase standardized shoes or stand mixers, respectively, or to customize these products.

**Table 1**
Overview of studies.

| Study | Sample Size | Brand | Identity Threat | Hypothesis Tested | PROCESS models used |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 134 | Nike | Observed territorial behavior | H1, H2, H3 | 81, 91 |
| 2 | 203 | KitchenAid | Observed territorial behavior | H1, H3, H4 | 81, 91 |
| 3 | 205 | KitchenAid | Social exclusion | H1, H3, H4 | 81, 91 |

**Procedure**

Each study was distributed via Amazon Mechanical Turk to Nike or KitchenAid brand users, depending on the study. Participants were excluded from future studies after completing any previous study. The minimum approval rating was set at 90%. Participants were paid $0.70 for taking each study. A screening procedure following the recommendations of Wessling, Huber, and Netzer (2017) and Goodman and Paolacci (2017) was used to minimize MTurker misrepresentation.

Once MTurkers chose to participate in the study, they answered a set of screening questions to determine their eligibility to take the study. Due to the purposely vague study description, participants were unaware of the necessary answers to these questions. The first question asked participants to identify whether or not they wore Nike athletic shoes. If "no" was selected, the participant was disqualified. Participants were then asked how long they had been wearing Nike shoes with choices ranging from "less than a year" to "10+ years." If "less than a year" was selected, the participant was disqualified. Subjects were also asked how frequently the Nike shoes were worn with choices ranging from "less than once per week" to "more than five times per week." If "less than once per week" was selected, the participant was disqualified.

In study two, participants completed additional screeners pertinent to the regulatory focus manipulation. For this study, I sought real-world participants that were working toward an actual goal related to running. The primed goal was completing a race that the subject was currently training for, whether it was a 5K, 10K, half or full marathon, or something similar. I asked participants whether or not they run, if they were currently training for a race, and if they would wear their Nike shoes when competing in the race. For each of these questions, if "no" was selected, the participant was disqualified. Participants were also asked for the approximate date

of the race and the approximate date they started training. If the inputted dates did not make sense (i.e. dates that had already passed, made up dates), that participant was later removed from the dataset in the data cleaning phase.

For studies three and four, the screeners were adapted for the baking scenario and the KitchenAid brand. Participants were asked if they baked and if they baked using a KitchenAid stand mixer. If "no" was selected for either of these questions, the participant was disqualified. Participants were then asked how long they had been baking with their KitchenAid stand mixer with choices ranging from "less than a year" to "10+ years." If "less than a year" was selected, the participant was disqualified. Finally, subjects were also asked how frequently they bake with choices ranging from "once per month" to "more than five times per month." If "once per month" was selected, the participant was disqualified. After successfully completing the screening portion of each study, participants viewed the experimental manipulations and completed variable measures.

## Study 1

Study one tests H1, H2, and H3 in the Nike shoe customization scenario from essay two. The design is a 2 (territorial behavior: strong vs. weak) x 2 (regulatory focus: prevention vs. promotion) randomized between-subjects design.

### Stimuli and Procedure

Participants viewed the regulatory focus manipulation after completing the screening portion of the study, which contained several questions that primed the runner identity (e.g. questions about race participation). State regulatory focus was manipulated with a goal-priming

writing task adapted from Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002). Those in the prevention focus

condition read, "Please take a couple of minutes to briefly describe a negative outcome that you

hope to avoid as a runner. Describe strategies you could use to successfully prevent this

outcome." Those in the promotion focus condition read, "Please take a couple of minutes to

briefly describe a positive outcome you hope to achieve as a runner. Describe strategies you

could use to successfully promote this outcome."

     Participants then viewed the manipulation of observed territorial behavior, which was

identical to the manipulation of strong and weak observed territorial behavior that was pretested

and used in essay two. In this manipulation, two Nike brand users interact through a post in a

Nike branded Facebook running group. Participants were asked to imagine that they are a group

member and they see the post. A character named Shari Miller creates the initial Facebook post

that read, "Loving my new Nike shoes that I made on NikeID! A character named Lisa Marie

comments on the post, "I noticed your shoes the other day and I really like how you designed

them. Can you share your design with me so I can make my new Nike shoes the same?" The

character Shari was the territorial consumer. Territorial behavior was manipulated in her reply

comment addressing Lisa's question, which was based on research showing that ridicule,

criticism, and deception are types of territorial behavior (Bakker and Bakker-Rabdau, 1973;

Griffiths and Gilly, 2012; Petriglieri, 2011). Shari's strong territorial response read, "That's my

design. Can't you come up with your own?" The weak territorial response read, "I think I deleted

the design from my Nike account." After viewing all manipulations, participants completed the

variable measures.

**Variables and Measures**

A brief description of each scale used in this research is given below. Complete scale items can be found in the Appendix A. Unless otherwise noted, all items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale with the endpoints of strongly agree-strongly disagree. The given α range represents that range of α across all of the studies.

*Dependent Variable*. Perceived brand authenticity of the Nike brand was measured using two scales developed in prior literature. The first is a two-dimensional, semantic differential scale measuring brand authenticity consisting of the dimensions of originality (three items) and genuineness (six items) from Akbar and Wymer (2017) ($α = 0.89$–$0.93$). The second scale is Morhart et al.'s (2015) Perceived Brand Authenticity (PBA) scale, which consists of the dimensions of credibility (three items), continuity (four items), symbolism (four items), and integrity (four items) ($α = 0.96$–$0.97$).

*Mediators*. Perceived self-alienation was assessed using a scale adapted from Wood et al. (2008). The un-adapted scale is a three dimensional measure of dispositional authenticity consisting of the dimensions of authentic living, self-alienation, and accepting external influence, all of which have four scale items. The scale has been adapted to measure state authenticity in regard to the Nike user identity (Lenton et al., 2013b). The accepting external influence dimension was also excluded based on the findings from Lenton et al. (2016), who found that state authenticity is best captured by the remaining two dimensions. Accordingly, the self-alienation dimension ($α = 0.95$–$0.96$) was used, but the authentic living dimension ($α = 0.83$–$0.90$) was also included for completeness.

Territorial threat response was measured with a five-item scale developed from the definition of territoriality and examples of territorial behavior in the literature, as such a scale was not found. Example items include how likely you would be to "claim [brand] as your own" and "show that [brand] belongs to you" ($\alpha = 0.94$–$0.96$). A factor analysis was conducted to ensure the suitability of the scale in study one. One factor emerged, which explained 83.6% of the variance, with all five items loading at 0.912 or above.

Identity-restructuring responses was measured using items developed based on Petriglieri's (2011) description of identity-restructuring responses, which consist of abandoning the identity and any roles or groups associated with it, changing the importance of the identity, or changing the meanings associated with the identity. The 11-item scale, with anchors of not at all likely-extremely likely, consists of items such as, "No longer buy [branded product]," "Avoid [brand]," and "Ignore other [brand] users" ($\alpha = 0.94$–$0.98$). Factor analysis was used to confirm the suitability of this scale in study one. One factor emerged, which explained 78.9% of the variance, with nine items loading at 0.871 or above and the remaining two items loading at 0.700 or above.

*Manipulation Check.* Perceived identity threat was measured using a 7-point Likert scale with the endpoints of not at all-very much and consisted of six items, such as the extent to which one would feel threatened, attacked, and contested ($\alpha = 0.92$–$0.95$) (White, Argo, and Sengupta, 2012). The territoriality manipulation was tested using a developed scale consisting of five items, such as "Shari is claiming her Nike shoe design" and "Shari is demonstrating that she owns her Nike shoe design" ($\alpha = 0.90$–$0.91$). One semantic differential item assessed the perceived severity of Shari's response with endpoints of not at all severe/very severe. Another semantic

differential scale measured the perceived harshness of the Shari's response, with the endpoints of not at all harsh/very harsh.

Regulatory focus was measured with the Regulatory Focus Questionnaire (RFQ) developed by Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002), which consists of a dimension for each focus. Originally developed as a measure of chronic regulatory focus, the scale was adapted to reflect identity-specific (i.e. situational or state) regulatory focus. Items for the prevention dimension include, "I am focused on preventing negative outcomes as a runner/baker" and "I often worry that I will fail to accomplish my goals as a runner/baker." Items for the promotion focus dimension include, "My major goal right now id to achieve my ambitions as a runner/baker" and "I often think about how I will achieve success as a runner/baker." The prevention ($\alpha = 0.90–0.93$) and promotion ($\alpha = 0.90–0.91$) dimensions are examined separately, which is how the scale is designed.

*Control Variables & Demographics.* Attitude toward the poster (i.e. Shari or Taylor) ($\alpha = 0.98$), the brand ($\alpha = 0.90–0.98$), the online group ($\alpha = 0.97–0.98$), and Facebook ($\alpha = 0.97–0.99$) were all measured using a semantic differential scale with the items bad/good, unfavorable/ favorable, and negative/positive. Participants were also asked if they had ever used NikeID and how familiar they were with these options ($\alpha = 0.95–0.97$). Subjects were asked to complete a five-item measure of self-brand connection with the endpoints of not at all-completely, with items asking to what extent "[brand] is part of you" and "you feel personally connected to [brand], among others (Park et al., 2010) ($\alpha = 0.94–0.97$). Participants also answered questions about their age, gender, and ethnicity.

**Results**

One hundred and thirty-four Amazon MTurkers qualified to participate in the study. Seventeen of these participants did not pass the attention check and were removed from the analysis, resulting in a final sample size of 117 (64.1% male, age range 19-64, average age 32.5, all US residents). The territorial behavior manipulation was successful, with participants perceiving the strong territorial behavior condition as more identity threatening than the weak condition ($M = 4.09$ vs. 2.80, $F (1, 115) = 20.74$, $p = 0.00$). Indeed, participants perceiving the strong response as more territorial than the weak response according to ANOVA results ($M = 5.87$ vs. 4.66, $F (1, 115) = 24.94$, $p = 0.00$). A manipulation check showed that the regulatory focus manipulation was unsuccessful. There were no differences in prevention focus ($F (1, 115) = 0.35$, $p = 0.56$) or promotion focus ($F (1, 115) = 1.68$, $p = 0.20$) between the conditions. Although the manipulation failed, the continuous measures of prevention and promotion focus were used to test the regulatory focus moderator. Therefore, the revised design of this study is a single factor with two levels: 2 (territorial behavior: strong vs. weak).

The two measures of perceived brand authenticity were regressed onto potential control variables. For the first measure of perceived brand authenticity (Akbar and Wymer, 2017), attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.51$, $t = 7.29$, $p = 0.00$), the number of past races participated in ($\beta = -0.02$, $t = -3.00$, $p = 0.00$), and the length of time the participant had been running in general ($\beta = 0.28$, $t = 3.53$, $p = 0.00$) were revealed as significant predictors. For the second measure of perceived brand authenticity (Morhart et al., 2015), only attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.50$, $t = 5.92$, $p = 0.00$) emerged as a predictor. These controls were included in the appropriate models.

H1a suggested that identity-restructuring responses would decrease perceived brand authenticity, while H1b proposed that territorial responses would increase perceived brand

authenticity. These propositions were tested using PROCESS Model 81, which allows for the dual mediators of the identity-restructuring and territorial responses. Identity threat did not have a direct effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta$ = -0.12, $SE$ = 0.14, $t$ = -0.91, $p$ = 0.37). Identity threat also had no indirect effect on perceived brand authenticity through self-alienation and either identity-restructuring responses ($\beta$ = 0.01, $SE$ = 0.01, $C1_{95\%}$: [-0.02, 0.04]) or territorial responses ($\beta$ = 0.00, $SE$ = 0.01, $C1_{95\%}$: [-0.02, 0.01]). This pattern of results was replicated with the second measure of perceived brand authenticity. ANOVA results also confirmed that there were no significant differences in perceived brand authenticity between territoriality conditions for either the first measure ($M$ = 5.65 vs. 5.18, $F_{(1, 112)}$ = 2.03, $p$ = 0.16) or the second measure ($M$ = 5.65 vs. 5.18, $F_{(1, 114)}$ = 3.36, $p$ = 0.07). These findings do not support H1a or H1b. These results also do not support H3a or H3b, which suggested that the relationship between identity threat and each type of response is mediated by self-alienation.

Next, the moderating effect of regulatory focus on each mediation path was examined. H2a suggested that a higher promotion focus would strengthen the effect of self-alienation on identity-restructuring responses and weaken the effect of self-alienation on territorial responses. H2b suggested that a higher prevention focus would strengthen the effect of self-alienation on territorial responses and weaken the effect of self-alienation on identity-restructuring responses. The prevention and promotion focus were tested in separate models using PROCESS Model 91.

When looking at identity-restructuring responses and the prevention focus moderator, the index of moderated mediation was nonsignificant ($\beta$ = 0.00, $SE$ = 0.00, $C1_{95\%}$: [-0.01, 0.01]). When the promotion focus moderator was included in the model with identity-restructuring responses, the index of moderated mediation was not significant ($\beta$ = 0.00, $SE$ = 0.00, $C1_{95\%}$: [-0.01, 0.00]). The prevention focus moderator was then included in the model with territorial

responses and the index of moderated mediation was nonsignificant ($\beta = 0.00$, $SE = 0.00$, $C1_{95\%}$: [0.00, 0.00]). When the promotion focus moderator was included in the territorial response model, the index of moderated mediation was again nonsignificant ($\beta = 0.00$, $SE = 0.00$, $C1_{95\%}$: [0.00, 0.01]). These results do not support H2a or H2b.

Although H1 is unsupported, results show that self-alienation does have a positive direct effect on both territorial responses ($\beta = 0.28$, $SE = 0.10$, $t = 2.70$, $p = 0.01$) and identity-restructuring responses ($\beta = 0.48$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = 5.81$, $p = 0.00$). This suggests that reductions in self-authenticity do motivate both types of threat responses, but the effect on identity-restructuring responses is stronger. ANOVA results did show that those in the high territoriality condition were *less* likely to engage in territorial responses than those in the non-exclusion condition ($M = 3.25$ vs. 4.45, $F(1, 115) = 8.77$, $p = 0.00$), but the threat condition had no effect on the likelihood of engaging in identity-restructuring responses ($M = 2.65$ vs. 2.40, $F(1, 115) = 0.70$, $p = 0.41$). However, these results show that the mediation model is not significant, in contrast to H1 and H3, and regulatory focus does not appear to determine which type of response the consumer chooses, in contrast to H2.

The goal of study two is to test the base mediation model (i.e. H1 and H3) in another context using a different brand. Study two also tests H4, which hypothesized a mediated moderation: that perceived progress toward the identity authentication goal affects regulatory focus, which moderates the relationship between self-alienation and type of threat response. Results from study one showed that regulatory focus does not seem to moderate the link between self-alienation and threat response. However, in study two I still sought to test whether or not perceived goal progress moderated this relationship.

118

**Study 2**

The design of study two is a 2 (territorial behavior: strong vs. weak) x 2 (perceived goal progress: high vs. low) randomized between-subjects design. This study used a baking scenario and the KitchenAid brand; the specific context was customizing a KitchenAid stand mixer.

**Stimuli and Procedure**

Participants viewed the goal progress manipulation after completing the screening portion of the study, which contained several questions that primed the baker identity (e.g. questions about length and frequency of baking). Goal progress was manipulated with an "imagine that" prompt. In the high goal progress condition, the prompt read, "Imagine that you set a goal to become a better baker by increasing the number of recipes that you can make. You have set a goal to try **25** new baking recipes and so far, you have tried **21** new recipes." In the low goal progress condition, the prompt read, "Imagine that you set a goal to become a better baker by increasing the number of recipes that you can make. You have set a goal to try **25** new baking recipes and so far, you have tried **4** new recipes."

Participants then viewed the manipulation of observed territorial behavior, which was based on the manipulation of strong and weak observed territorial behavior used in the Nike shoe customization scenario. In this manipulation, two KitchenAid brand users interact through a post in a KitchenAid branded Facebook baking group. Participants were asked to imagine that they are a group member and they see the post. A character named Shari Miller creates the initial Facebook post that read, "Loving my new KitchenAid mixer! I was able to customize every feature through the website, down to the custom color!" A character named Lisa Marie comments on the post, "I noticed your mixer the other day and I really like how you customized

it. Can you share your features with me so I can make my new KitchenAid mixer the same?"

Shari was the territorial consumer and territorial behavior was again manipulated in her reply

comment addressing Lisa's question. Shari's strong territorial response read, "Those are my

custom features. Can't you come up with your own?" The weak territorial response read, "I think

I deleted the list of features from my KitchenAid account." The post graphics can be found in

Appendix B. After viewing all manipulations, participants completed the variable measures.

**Variables and Measures**

The dependent, mediating, and control variables were measured using the same scales

from study one, adapted to the baking context and the KitchenAid brand. The study one

manipulation checks were also adapted and used. An additional manipulation check for goal

progress was included. This was measured with one item that asked how much progress they

would think they made toward the goal given in the manipulation, with the endpoints of not at

all-a great deal.

**Results**

Two hundred and three Amazon MTurkers qualified to participate in the study. Eight of

these participants did not pass the attention check and were removed from the analysis, resulting

in a final sample size of 195 (36.4% male, age range 20-73, average age 40.6, all US residents).

A manipulation check showed that the territorial behavior manipulation was successful. ANOVA

results revealed that the strong territorial behavior condition was perceived as more identity

threatening than the weak condition ($M = 4.59$ vs. 2.63, $F (1, 193) = 84.46$, $p = 0.00$).

Accordingly, the participants perceived the strong response as more territorial than the weak

response ($M = 5.97$ vs. 4.99, $F(1, 193) = 32.04$, $p = 0.00$). The goal progress manipulation was also successful, with those in the high goal progress condition perceived more progress than those in the low goal progress condition ($M = 5.45$ vs. 2.88, $F(1, 193) = 124.94$, $p = 0.00$).

The two measures for the dependent variable, perceived brand authenticity, were regressed onto potential control variables before continuing with the analysis. For the first measure of perceived brand authenticity (Akbar and Wymer, 2017), attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.65$, $t = 8.77$, $p = 0.00$) and the length of time the participant had been baking ($\beta = 0.20$, $t = 2.40$, $p = 0.02$) were revealed as significant predictors. For the second measure of perceived brand authenticity (Morhart et al., 2015), only attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.60$, $t = 7.16$, $p = 0.00$) emerged as a predictor. These controls were included in the appropriate models.

H1, which suggested (a) that identity-restructuring responses would decrease perceived brand authenticity and (b) that territorial responses would increase perceived brand authenticity, was tested using PROCESS Model 81. Identity threat did not have a direct effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta = -0.07$, $SE = -0.69$, $t = -0.69$, $p = 0.49$). Identity threat also did not have an indirect effect on perceived brand authenticity through self-alienation and either identity-restructuring responses ($\beta = 0.00$ $SE = 0.01$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.02, 0.01]) or territorial responses ($\beta = 0.00$ $SE = 0.00$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.01, 0.01]). This pattern of results was replicated for the second measure of perceived brand authenticity. Therefore, H1a and H1b are again unsupported. There is again no support for H3a or H3b, which suggested that the relationship between identity threat and each type of response is mediated by self-alienation. However, self-alienation again had a significant direct effect on both territorial responses ($\beta = 0.37$ $SE = 0.10$, $t = 3.73$, $p = 0.00$) and identity-restructuring responses ($\beta = 0.59$ $SE = 0.05$, $t = 12.07$, $p = 0.00$), which suggests that engaging in these behaviors is a response to a loss of perceived self-authenticity.

H4 suggests that higher goal progress induces a prevention focus while lower goal progress induces a promotion focus, and each focus moderates the relationship between self-alienation and threat response. The moderating effect of goal progress on each mediation path was examined next using PROCESS Model 91. When looking at identity-restructuring responses, the index of moderated mediation was nonsignificant ($\beta = 0.00$, $SE = 0.00$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.01, 0.00]). In regard to territorial responses, the index of moderated mediation was also not significant ($\beta = 0.00$, $SE = 0.00$, $CI_{95\%}$: [0.00, 0.00]). H4 is unsupported.

The results of study two align with that of study one. The identity threat does not impact perceived brand authenticity either directly or indirectly through self-alienation and either type of response. However, self-alienation had a direct effect on type of response, which was stronger for identity-restructuring responses than territorial responses; it appears consumers may lean toward distancing themselves from a brand after an identity threat. Perceived goal progress also had no moderating effect. The aim of study three is to retest H1, H3, and H4 to determine if the results hold using a different identity threat.

## Study 3

The design of study three is a 2 (identity threat: present vs. absent) x 2 (perceived goal progress: high vs. low) randomized between-subjects design. This study used a baking scenario and the KitchenAid brand; the specific context was customizing a KitchenAid stand mixer.

**Stimuli**

*Pretest One*. A pretest was conducted to identify potential identity threats, other than observed territorial behavior, that could emerge from brand user networks to use as a manipulation of

identity threat in study three. The design of the pretest was a 3 (type of identity threat: social exclusion vs. counterfeit use vs. fringe members) x 2 (threat: present vs. absent) randomized between-subjects design. The three identity threats were adapted for the Nike branded Facebook running group context and pretested on 101 participants.

The first of these was social exclusion, an identity threat established by past research (Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016; Knowles and Gardner, 2008) that has been related to self-authenticity perceptions (Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016). The second threat was the use of counterfeit Nike shoes by other group members. Research has shown that consumers of counterfeit goods can experience a decrease in perceived self-authenticity (Gino, Norton, and Ariely, 2010). If many people in a brand user group openly consume counterfeit products, negative associations from these consumers may transfer to other consumers in the group (Escalas and Bettman, 2005) and become an identity threat. The final threat was the attempt of "fringe" group members to gain more status in the group, based on consumption subculture research showing that fringe group members are perceived as less authentic members that can damage the reputations and identities of "insiders" (Charmley et al., 2013; Leigh et al., 2006). These subjects viewed either a threat present or threat absent condition for each of the three types of identity threat before completing the measures.

Before viewing the manipulations, participants read the prompt, "Imagine that you are a member of a Nike running group that meets regularly for runs. The group also has a Facebook group page, which enables you to communicate regularly with other members and stay informed about what's going on. Imagine that you see the following post in the group." The identity threats were manipulated using a graphic of a Facebook post showing an interaction between two Nike brand users. A character named Taylor G. creates the initial Facebook post in all

123

manipulations; the name was purposely made androgynous and paired with a profile picture of a landscape to avoid potential gender effects. Please see Appendix B for post graphics.

In the social exclusion manipulation, Taylor's post reads, "Thanks to everyone who came out for our most recent run. We rock!" On the next screen, participants either read the message, "After reading the post, you realize that no one in the group informed you about the run, so you missed it" if in the threat condition, or "You attended the run and had a good time" if in the no threat condition. In the counterfeit manipulation, Taylor posts in the threat condition, "I needed new running shoes, and after looking at the Nike website and some other sites I actually chose to buy counterfeit Nikes – same quality, better price." A character named Lisa Marie replies to this post with "Honestly, mine are fake too. I know a lot of people who have the counterfeit versions. There are more of us than you may think!" In the no threat condition, Taylor's post reads, "I needed new running shoes, and after looking at the Nike website and some other sites I found the perfect pair of Nikes – great quality and good price." There is no reply. Finally, in the fringe member manipulation, Taylor posts, "Hi! I'm the newest group admin. I'm excited to start working on bringing the group together more often!" On the next screen, participants either read the message, "You know Taylor – a group member who has never really been that involved with the group. You are surprised that Taylor has been made a group admin" if in the threat condition, or "You know Taylor – a group member who has always been involved with the group. You are not surprised that Taylor has been made a group admin" if in the no threat condition. After viewing the manipulation, participants completed a measure of identity threat that asked the extent to which participants felt threatened, challenged, and attacked, among others. For the social exclusion manipulation, participants also completed a semantic differential scale assessing the extent that the participant felt rejected/accepted and alone/included.

In regard to the social exclusion manipulation, the threat present condition ($M = 3.07$, $SD = 1.52$) was perceived as significantly more identity threatening than the threat absent condition ($M = 1.76$, $SD = 1.22$) based on independent samples t-test results ($t = 4.78$, $df = 99$, $p = 0.00$). Participants also felt significantly more excluded in threat present ($M = 5.38$, $SD = 1.36$) versus threat absent ($M = 1.79$, $SD = 0.88$) condition ($t = 15.79$, $df = 99$, $p = 0.00$). For the counterfeit manipulation, the threat present condition ($M = 2.70$, $SD = 1.75$) was also perceived as significantly more identity threatening than the threat absent condition ($M = 1.72$, $SD = 1.25$) according to an independent samples t-test ($t = 3.22$, $df = 99$, $p = 0.00$). Finally, for the fringe group member manipulation, the threat present condition ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.49$) was again perceived as significantly more identity threatening than the threat absent condition ($M = 1.69$, $SD = 1.06$) according to an independent samples t-test ($t = 4.10$, $df = 99$, $p = 0.00$).

*Pretest Two*. It is possible that the responses to the identity threat may differ depending on whether the self-alienation or authentic living dimension of self-authenticity is influenced. The aim of the second pretest was to examine whether the three identity threats identified in the first pretest impact the self-alienation or authentic living dimension of self-authenticity. The design of the pretest was a 3 (type of identity threat: social exclusion vs. counterfeit use vs. fringe members) x 2 (threat: present vs. absent) randomized between-subjects design. The same manipulations for each type of identity threat used in pretest one were used here and pretested on 153 Amazon MTurkers. These subjects viewed either a threat present or threat absent condition for one of the three types of identity threat before completing the measures.

The stimuli were first evaluated based on perceived identity threat, identically to pretest one. For social exclusion, the threat condition was perceived as more identity threatening than

the no threat condition according to ANOVA results ($M = 3.49$ vs. 2.30, $F(1, 48) = 6.53$, $p = 0.01$). Participants felt significantly more excluded in the threat versus no threat condition ($M = 3.35$ vs. 6.43, $F(1, 48) = 56.73$, $p = 0.00$); note that these items were reverse coded. These results are consistent with that of pretest one. However, the threat manipulations were unsuccessful for counterfeit use ($M = 2.87$ vs. 2.48, $F(1, 45) = 0.54$, $p = 0.47$) or fringe group members ($M = 2.78$ vs. 2.62, $F(1, 54) = 0.11$, $p = 0.74$), in contrast to the results of pretest one. As social exclusion was the only successful manipulation here, it was the only identity threat to be further analyzed.

The two dependent variables, self-alienation and authentic living, were regressed onto potential control variables. For authentic living, attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.33$, $t = 4.91$, $p = 0.00$) and attitude toward the online group ($\beta = 0.12$, $t = 2.11$, $p = 0.04$) emerged as a significant predictors. For self-alienation, attitude toward Nike ($\beta = -0.29$, $t = -2.63$, $p = 0.01$), attitude toward Facebook ($\beta = 0.35$, $t = 4.71$, $p = 0.00$), length of time the user had been wearing Nike shoes ($\beta = -0.50$, $t = -3.78$, $p = 0.00$) and frequency of wearing Nike shoes ($\beta = -0.31$, $t = -2.42$, $p = 0.02$) were revealed as significant predictors. The identified control variables were included in the relevant models.

ANOVA results showed that participants felt more self-alienated in the threat versus no threat condition ($M = 3.74$ vs. 2.69, $F(1, 44) = 5.24$, $p = 0.03$), but there was no difference in authentic living between conditions ($M = 6.00$ vs. 5.53, $F(1, 46) = 0.08$, $p = 0.78$). These results suggest that social exclusion is an identity threat and it does negatively affect perceived self-authenticity, specifically by increasing feelings of self-alienation.

**Procedure**

Participants first viewed the same goal progress manipulation used in study two after completing the screening portion of the study, which contained several questions that primed the baker identity (e.g. questions about length and frequency of baking). Participants then viewed the manipulation of social exclusion, which was adapted from the pretest to fit the baking context. In this manipulation, a KitchenAid brand user posts in a KitchenAid branded Facebook baking group. Participants were asked to imagine that they were group members and they see the post. A character named Taylor G. creates the Facebook post that read, "Thanks to everyone who came out for our most recent bake sale. What a great group. We rock!" In the social exclusion present condition, on the next screen participants read, "After reading the post, you realize that no one in the group informed you about the bake sale, so you missed it." In the social exclusion absent condition, participants read, "You attended the bake sale and had a good time." The post graphics can be found in Appendix B. After viewing all manipulations, participants completed the variable measures.

**Variables and Measures**

The dependent, mediating, and control variables were measured using the same scales from study two. The manipulation checks for perceived identity threat and goal progress were also carried over. An addition manipulation check for social exclusion was included, in which participants completed a semantic differential scale assessing the extent of feeling rejected/accepted and alone/included (Guèvremont and Grohmann, 2016; Maner, 2007) ($\alpha$ = 0.96–0.99).

**Results**

Two hundred and five Amazon MTurkers qualified to participate in the study (45.4% male, age range 20-74, average age 36.3, all US residents). A manipulation check showed that the social exclusion manipulation was successful. ANOVA results revealed that the exclusion condition was perceived as more identity threatening than the non-exclusion condition ($M = 2.95$ vs. 2.00, $F (1, 203) = 21.36$, $p = 0.00$). Indeed, subjects felt more excluded when exclusion was present versus absent ($M = 3.21$ vs. 6.31, $F (1, 203) = 216.73$, $p = 0.00$); note that these items were reverse coded. The goal progress manipulation was also successful. Those in the high goal progress condition perceived more progress than those in the low goal progress condition ($M = 5.65$ vs. 3.23, $F (1, 203) = 132.66$, $p = 0.00$).

Both measures of the dependent variable, perceived brand authenticity, were regressed onto potential control variables before continuing with the analysis. For the first measure of perceived brand authenticity (Akbar and Wymer, 2017), attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.59$, $t = 8.99$, $p = 0.00$) and self-brand connection ($\beta = 0.15$, $t = 3.18$, $p = 0.00$) were revealed as significant predictors. Attitude toward Nike ($\beta = 0.37$, $t = 5.53$, $p = 0.00$), self-brand connection ($\beta = 0.25$, $t = 5.19$, $p = 0.00$), and frequency of baking ($\beta = 0.18$, $t = 2.24$, $p = 0.03$) emerged as significant predictors of the second measure of perceived brand authenticity (Morhart et al., 2015). These controls were included in the appropriate models.

H1a posits that identity-restructuring responses decrease perceived brand authenticity and H1b suggests that territorial responses increase it. The mediation model was tested using PROCESS Model 81. Identity threat did not have a direct effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta = 0.06$, $SE = 0.11$, $t = 0.52$, $p = 0.60$). Identity threat also had no indirect effect on perceived brand authenticity through self-alienation and either identity-restructuring responses ($\beta = 0.01$,

$SE = 0.04$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.07, 0.10]) or territorial responses ($\beta = 0.00$, $SE = 0.01$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.02, 0.02]). These results do not support H3a or H3b, which suggested that the relationship between identity threat and each type of response is mediated by self-alienation. Identity threat *did* have a negative indirect effect on perceived brand authenticity only through territorial responses ($\beta = -0.07$, $SE = 0.03$, $t = -0.16$, $p = -0.02$), however this relationship was expected to be positive. This indirect effect was not replicated with the second measure of brand authenticity, but the other effects were replicated. While H1a and H1b would appear to be unsupported, the analysis showed that territorial responses had a significant, positive direct effect on perceived brand authenticity ($\beta = 0.12$, $SE = 0.04$, $t = 3.26$, $p = 0.00$), while identity-restructuring responses had a significant, negative direct effect ($\beta = -0.23$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = -3.98$, $p = 0.00$). These results provide some support for both H1a and H1b. In addition, for the third time, self-alienation was shown to have a significant, positive direct effect on both territorial responses ($\beta = 0.32$, $SE = 0.07$, $t = 4.90$, $p = 0.00$) and identity-restructuring responses ($\beta = 0.75$, $SE = 0.04$, $t = 18.35$, $p = 0.60$), suggesting that feelings of self-alienation spurs identity threat response.

The moderating effect of goal progress on each mediation path was again examined using PROCESS Model 91. When looking at identity-restructuring responses, the index of moderated mediation was nonsignificant ($\beta = 0.00$, $SE = 0.00$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.01, 0.01]). In regard to territorial responses, the index of moderated mediation was also nonsignificant ($\beta = 0.00$, $SE = 0.00$, $CI_{95\%}$: [-0.01, 0.01]). Therefore, H4 is again unsupported.

Study three provides some support that identity threat response type differentially impacts perceived self-authenticity. However, contrary to predictions, the indirect effect of the identity threat on perceived brand authenticity through territorial responses was negative instead of positive. This result indicates that when consumers respond to an identity threat with

territorial responses they may feel more protective over the brand, but they may still view the brand as less authentic. The direct effect of self-alienation was stronger for identity-restructuring responses compared to territorial responses; it appears consumers may be more likely to distance themselves from a brand after an identity threat. Indeed, an ANOVA showed that those in the exclusion present condition were *less* likely to engage in territorial responses than those in the non-exclusion condition ($M = 3.76$ vs. 4.45, $F (1, 203) = 7.52$, $p = 0.01$), but the threat condition had no effect on the likelihood of engaging in identity-restructuring responses ($M = 2.94$ vs. 2.63, $F (1, 203) = 1.43$, $p = 0.23$).

## General Discussion

This research proposed that a consumption-related identity threat could increase feelings of self-alienation, which could precipitate two types of responses that have downstream implications for perceptions of brand authenticity. The first type, termed identity-restructuring responses, involves distancing oneself from the brand. The second type, territorial responses, involves reaffirming the self-brand relationship and becoming protective over the brand. I posited that the choice of response was determined by the consumer's regulatory focus, such that those with a promotion focus would be more likely to distance themselves from the brand, while those with a prevention focus would be more likely to become territorial over the brand. Further, I suggested that the consumer's regulatory focus was determined by his or her perceived progress toward the identity authentication goal, such that those with lower perceived goal progress would adopt a promotion focus, while those with higher perceived goal progress would adopt a prevention focus.

Across all studies, I found no evidence for the mediation model presented. However, direct effects revealed some of the expected relationships among the variables. The two types of identity threat responses were suggested to be outcomes of a decrease in feelings of self-authenticity, specifically through self-alienation. Although no link was found between identity threat and self-alienation, self-alienation did increase the likelihood of engaging in both identity restructuring responses and territorial responses, as expected, across all three studies. The effect was consistently stronger for identity-restructuring responses as compared to territorial responses. This suggests that while consumers are likely to engage in either type of response after a self-authenticity is damaged, they are more likely to distance themselves from the brand than become territorial over it. Indeed, results from two of the studies showed that threatened consumers are less likely to be territorial over the brand than non-threatened consumers or those who perceive a weak threat.

Additionally, support for an effect of either type of response on perceived brand authenticity was not found in the mediation models. Yet, direct effects in study three showed that territorial responses increased perceived brand authenticity while identity-restructuring responses decreased it, in line with H1. However, this study also showed that identity threat had a negative indirect effect on perceived brand authenticity through only territorial responses. I expected such an indirect effect to be positive. Taking these results together, it is possible that territorial responses do increase perceptions of brand authenticity, but when under threat, consumers can become territorial and protective over the brand *in spite of* believing it is less authentic.

Across all studies, I found no evidence to support the moderating role of goal progress, regulatory focus or the hypothesized mediated moderation using these two variables. Therefore,

choice of identity threat response in the consumption context does not appear to depend on perceived goal progress or regulatory focus.

Though most of the predictions were unsupported, this work does have some theoretical implications. First, identity threat responses appear not be an outcome of the identity threat itself, but from increased feelings of self-alienation, which is a link that has not been discussed in current literature. Further, self-alienation leads people to engage in both types of responses, but more so identity-restructuring responses. The research shows that the type of response can differentially impact perceived brand authenticity, which is another connection that has not been suggested in the literature. Interestingly, while the direct effect of territorial behavior on brand authenticity perceptions was positive, the indirect effect of identity threat through territorial responses was negative. This suggests that despite territorial responses, in which consumers can cling to and become protective over the brand, consumers may still perceive the brand as less authentic after a threat.

These findings have important implications for brand management and customer relations, most notably in regard to managing consumer-to-consumer relationships on social media. If consumers in a network experience some event in that group that increases feelings of self-alienation the firm can experience several negative outcomes. Consumers appear to be more likely to distance themselves from a brand when they feel more alienated from themselves. Distancing from the brand can involve decreasing the amount of purchases of the brand or discontinuing purchasing the brand altogether, either of which can have a negative effect on revenue. Second, distancing from the brand can decrease the consumer's perception of brand authenticity, a perception that the firm has likely invested time and money into creating. In addition, it seems that even when the consumer engages in territorial responses, the brand can be

perceived as less authentic. If the consumer perceives the brand as less authentic, s/he will be less likely to purchase the brand in the future, as research has shown that consumers prefer authentic brands.

Marketers might conclude that the preferable threat response, from a customer relationship perspective, is the territorial response. If a consumer becomes territorial over the brand, that consumer will defend the brand, despite perceiving it as less authentic. However, territorial behavior is generally viewed negatively (Brown et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2014; Brown and Zhu, 2016), and therefore could have broader negative effects on the brand such as the development of negative associations with the brand and the brand's network of consumers. Online, it is more likely that other consumers in the network will see territorial displays, which can cause these negative associations to spread through the network quickly.

## Future Research Directions

Several interesting lines of future research emerge from this work. First, future work could further examine the relationship, if any, between identity threat and perceived self-authenticity. The pretests of this essay, along with results from essay two, suggest a connection. Researchers can also investigate what circumstances relevant to brand consumption and consumer networks may cause a consumer to feel alienated from the self, as these feelings can prompt threat responses. This piece looked at observing territorial behavior and social exclusion, although other negative experiences may affect self-authenticity and have different downstream effects on brand authenticity.

This work showed that self-alienation could precipitate either type of threat response. Another area of future research lies in examining the factors that would push a consumer to

choose one type of response over another. Regulatory focus and perceived goal progress do not appear to affect this choice, though other variables may be identified that do. For example, if the consumer is presented with an opportunity to restore feelings of self-authenticity, they may be less likely to distance themselves from the brand.

Finally, this work has implications for marketing strategy. One of the most interesting lines of future research resulting from this work may lie in studying what strategies a firm can use to mitigate territorial behavior and/or the spread of territorial behavior. If controlling this behavior of network members proves to be difficult, perhaps there are strategies a firm can deploy to the network to counteract the effects of the threats that are present.

**Conclusion**

Feelings of self-alienation among a brand's consumers can have damaging effects on the brand, specifically in regard to perceptions of brand authenticity. Consumers who distance themselves from the brand in response to feeling alienated from the self can have decreased perceptions of brand authenticity and may also be less likely to buy the brand. Consumers who become territorial over the brand in response to feelings of self-alienation may develop a stronger relationship with the brand, however brand authenticity perceptions may still be reduced and eventually result in distancing behavior. Viewing territorial behavior may cause negative associations about the brand and brand's consumers to develop. Since consumer-to-consumer networks are very visible and easily accessible given the Internet and social media, many of a brand's consumers can be exposed to this behavior end up viewing the brand negatively. Therefore, it could be to a firm's benefit to monitor territorial behavior and steer consumers away from such behavior, encouraging positive consumer-to-consumer relationships.

*List of Measures and Scale Items for Primary Variables*

*Perceived Identity Threat*

Threatened
Attacked
Challenged
Disputed
Contested
Unhappy
(1 = not at all, 7 = very much)


*Perceived Brand Value*

Unattractive/Attractive
Bad buy/Excellent buy
Extremely unfair/Extremely fair
No savings at all/Extremely large savings
Extremely worthless/Extremely valuable

What is the value of the _____?
(not at all valuable/extremely valuable)

How well off would you be with the _____?
(not at all well off/extremely well off)

How happy would you be with the _____?
(I would not care about it at all/I would be the happiest I've been all year)


*Perceived Brand Authenticity (first measure)*

1. **Originality**
   Follower/Pioneer
   Ordinary/Innovative
   Copied/Unique

2. **Genuineness**
   Pretentious/unpretentious
   Insincere/sincere
   Fake/real
   Dishonest/honest
   Disguised/Undisguised
   Illegitimate/Legitimate

*Perceived Brand Authenticity (second measure)*

1. **Credibility**
   A brand that will not betray you
   A brand that accomplishes its value promise
   An honest brand

2. **Continuity**
   A brand with history
   A timeless brand
   A brand that survives times
   A brand that survives trends

3. **Symbolism**
   A brand that adds meaning to people's lives
   A brand that reflects important values people care about
   A brand that connects people with their real selves
   A brand that connects people with what is really important

4. **Integrity**
   A brand that gives back to its consumers
   A brand with moral principles
   A brand true to a set of moral values
   A brand that cares about its consumers
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)


*Perceived Self-Authenticity: Authentic Living*

I think it is better to be yourself as a baker, than to be a popular baker.
As a baker, I always stand by what I believe in.
I am true to myself in most baking situations.
As a baker, I live in accordance with my values and beliefs.
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)


*Perceived Self-Authenticity: Self-Alienation*

I feel as if I don't know myself very well as a baker.
I don't know how I really feel inside about being a baker.
I feel out of touch with the 'real baker' in me.
I feel alienated from the baker part of myself.
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

*Territorial Responses*

Be territorial over [brand].
Claim [brand] as your own.
Demonstrate that you own [brand].
Show that [brand] belongs to you.
Communicate that [brand] is your property.
(1 = extremely unlikely, 7 = extremely likely)


*Identity-Restructuring Responses*

No longer buy [brand] [product].
No longer buy [brand] products in general.
Buy fewer [brand] products.
Spend less money on [brand] products.
Avoid [brand].
Avoid people who buy [brand].
[Activity] less frequently.
Spend your time doing other activities instead of [activity].
Realize your identity as a/an [identity] is less important to you.
Care less about what other people think of you as a/an [identity].
Ignore other [brand] users.
(1 = extremely unlikely, 7 = extremely likely)


*Regulatory Focus: Prevention Focus*

I am focused on preventing negative events as a baker.
I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations as a baker.
I often think about the baker I am afraid I might become in the future.
I often worry that I will fail to accomplish my goals as a baker.
I often imagine myself experiencing bad things that I fear might happen to me as a baker.
I frequently think about how I can prevent failures as a baker.
I am more oriented toward preventing losses as a baker than I am toward achieving gains.
My major goal right now is to avoid becoming a baking failure.
I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to become the baker I "ought" to be—to fulfill my duties, responsibilities, and obligations.
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)


*Regulatory Focus: Promotion Focus*

I am focused on achieving positive outcomes as a baker.
I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future as a baker.
I often think about the baker I would ideally like to be in the future.

I often think about how I will achieve success as a baker.
I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me as a baker.
I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations as a baker.
I am more oriented toward achieving success as a baker than preventing failure.
My major goal right now is to achieve my ambitions as a baker.
I see myself as a baker who is primarily striving to reach my "ideal self"—to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations.
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)


*Perceived Centrality of the Territorial Consumer*

Shari Miller is a key figure in this Nike running group.
Shari Miller has contact with many members of this Nike running group.
Shari Miller is an active member in this Nike running group.
Shari Miller is located in a central position in this Nike running group.
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)


*Perceived Density of the Network*

Members of this Nike running group are frequently in contact with other members.
Members of this Nike running group have good relationships with other members.
The relationship between members of this Nike running group can be defined as mutually satisfying.
Members of this Nike running group maintain long-term relationships with other members.
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

*Essay 2, Study 1 & Essay 3, Study 1 (first two posts only)*

*Essay 2, Study 2*

**Shari Miller**

Loving the new Nike shoes that I bought today!

1 Comment

👍 Like          💬 Comment

**Lisa Marie** I noticed your shoes the other day and I really like them. I'm going to buy the same pair!

Like · Reply

**Shari Miller** They may have discontinued that specific shoe. Maybe check for other styles you might like?

Like · Reply

Write a comment...          😊 📷 GIF 🙂

---

**Shari Miller**

Loving the new Nike shoes that I bought today!

1 Comment

👍 Like          💬 Comment

**Lisa Marie** I noticed your shoes the other day and I really like them. I'm going to buy the same pair!

Like · Reply

**Shari Miller** That's awesome!

Like · Reply

Write a comment...          😊 📷 GIF 🙂

![Facebook screenshot of Nike Runners' Group discussion page]

**Nike Runners' Group**

About
Discussion
Announcements
Members
Events
Videos
Photos
Files
Recommendations

Search this group

**Jane Smith**

27 / 503 group members attended our last group run in the park! Thanks for the great turn out!

7        5 Comments

Like        Comment

**Shari Miller**
New Member

Loving my new custom Nike shoes that I made on NikeiD!

2        1 Comment

Like        Comment

Lisa Marie I noticed your shoes the other day and I really like how you designed them. Can you share your design with me so I can make my new Nike shoes the same?
Like · Reply

Shari Miller I would have to go onto the website to get the design and I don't know when I'll have time.
Like · Reply

Write a comment...

**Mary Simon**

Managed to get 5 miles in this morning :)

4        8 Comments

Like        Comment

INVITE MEMBERS

Enter name or email address...

MEMBERS                503 Members

DESCRIPTION
Welcome to Nike Runners' Group!... See More

Home   Create

*Essay 3, Study 2*



**Shari Miller**

Loving my new KitchenAid mixer! I was able to customize every feature through the website, down to the custom color!

1 Comment

👍 Like          💬 Comment

**Lisa Marie** I noticed your mixer the other day and I really like how you customized it. Can you share your features with me so I can make my new KitchenAid mixer the same?
Like · Reply

**Shari Miller** Those are my custom features. Can't you come up with your own?
Like · Reply

Write a comment...          😊 📷 GIF 🐱



**Shari Miller**

Loving my new KitchenAid mixer! I was able to customize every feature through the website, down to the custom color!

1 Comment

👍 Like          💬 Comment

**Lisa Marie** I noticed your mixer the other day and I really like how you customized it. Can you share your features with me so I can make my new KitchenAid mixer the same?
Like · Reply

**Shari Miller** I think I deleted the list of features from my KitchenAid account.
Like · Reply

Write a comment...          😊 📷 GIF 🐱

*Study 3*

**Taylor G.**

Thanks to everyone who came out for our most recent run. What a great group! We rock! 🏃🏃

👍❤️😆 68

👍 Like          💬 Comment

Write a comment...          ☺ 📷 GIF 🙂

---

**Taylor G.**
🛡 Admin

Hi! I'm the newest group admin. I'm excited to start working on bringing the group together more often!

👍❤️😆 68

👍 Like          💬 Comment

Write a comment...          ☺ 📷 GIF 🙂

---

**Taylor G.**

I needed new running shoes, and after looking at the Nike website and some other sites I actually chose to buy counterfeit Nikes – same quality, better price. 💸

👍❤️😆 68          1 Comment

👍 Like          💬 Comment

**Lisa Marie** Honestly, mine are fake too. I know a lot of people who have the counterfeit versions. There are more of us than you may think!
Like · Reply

Write a comment...          ☺ 📷 GIF 🙂

---

**Taylor G.**

I needed new running shoes and after looking at the Nike website and some other sites, I found the perfect pair of Nikes – great quality and good price.

👍❤️😆 68

👍 Like          💬 Comment

Write a comment...          ☺ 📷 GIF 🙂

---

**Taylor G.**

Thanks to everyone who came out for our most recent bake sale. What a great group! We rock! 🥧🧁🍪

👍❤️😆 68

👍 Like          💬 Comment

Write a comment...          ☺ 📷 GIF 🙂

# References

Aitken, R., & Campelo, A. (2011). The four Rs of place branding. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *27*(9–10), 913–933.

Akbar, M. M., & Wymer, W. (2017). Refining the conceptualization of Brand Authenticity. *Journal of Brand Management*, *24*(1), 14–32.

Albrecht, C.-M., Backhaus, C., Gurzki, H., & Woisetschlager, D. M. (2013). Drivers of Brand Extension Success: What Really Matters for Luxury Brands. *Psychology & Marketing*, *30*(8), 647–659.

Allen, A. M., Eilert, M., & Peloza, J. (2018). How Deviations from Performance Norms Impact Charitable Donations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *55*(2), 277–290.

Altman, I. (1970). Territorial behavior in humans: an analysis of the concept. In L. A. Pastalan & D. A. Carson (Eds.), *Spatial Behavior of Older People* (pp. 1–24). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Altman, I. (1975). *Environment and Social Behavior: Privacy, Personal Space, Territory, and Crowding*. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Andereck, K. L. (1997). Territorial Functioning in a Tourism Setting. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *24*(3), 706–720.

Anand, N., & Jones, B. C. (2005). Fabricating Authenticity to Produce Organizational Culture: The Case of a British Retail Chain Store. *Unpublished Manuscript, London: London Business School.*

Antia, K. D., & Frazier, G. L. (2001). The Severity of Contract Enforcement in Interfirm Channel Relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, *65*(4), 67–81.

Ardrey, R. (1966). *The Territorial Imperative*. New York: Atheneum.

Arnould, E. J., & Price, L. L. (2000). Authenticating acts and authoritative performances: Questing for self and community. In S. Ratneshwar, D. G. Mick, & C. Huffman (Eds.), *The Why of Consumption: Contemporary perspectives on consumer motives, goals, and desires* (pp. 140–163). London: Routledge.

Arthur, D. (2006). Authenticity and consumption in the Australian Hip Hop culture. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, *9*(2), 140–156.

Ashley, C., & Noble, S. M. (2014). It's Closing Time: Territorial Behaviors from Customers in Response to Front Line Employees. *Journal of Retailing*, *90*(1), 74–92.

Atakan, S. S., Bagozzi, R. P., & Yoon, C. (2014a). Make it Your Own: How Process Valence and Self-Construal Affect Evaluation of Self-Made Products. *Psychology & Marketing, 31*(6), 451–468. Atakan, S. S., Bagozzi, R. P., & Yoon, C. (2014). Consumer participation in the design and realization stages of production: How self-production shapes consumer evaluations and relationships to products. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 31*, 395–408.

Autio, M., Collins, R., Wahlen, S., & Anttila, M. (2013). Consuming nostalgia? The appreciation of authenticity in local food production. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 37*, 564–568.

Baas, M., De Dreu, C. K. W., & Nijstad, B. A. (2011). When Prevention Promotes Creativity: The Role of Mood, Regulatory Focus, and Regulatory Closure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 100*(5), 794–809.

Bailey, K. G., Hartnett, J. J., & Gibson Jr., F. W. (1972). Implied Threat and the Territorial Factor in Personal Space. *Psychological Reports, 30*, 263–270.

Baker, Z. G., Tou, R. Y. W., Bryan, J. L., & Knee, C. R. (2017). Authenticity and well-being : Exploring positivity and negativity in interactions as a mediator ☆. *Personality and Individual Differences, 113*, 235–239.

Bakker, C. B., & Bakker-Rabdau, M. K. (1973). *No Trespassing! Explorations in Human Territoriality*. Corte Madera, CA: Chandler & Sharp Publishers.

Balachander, S., & Ghose, S. (2003). Reciprocal Spillover Effects: A Strategic Benefit of Brand Extensions. *Journal of Marketing, 67*(January), 4–13.

Barbarossa, C., & De Pelsmacker, P. (2016). Positive and Negative Antecedents of Purchasing Eco-friendly Products: A Comparison Between Green and Non-green Consumers. *Journal of Business Ethics, 134*(2), 229–247.

Baumeister, R. F. (2019). Stalking the True Self Through the Jungles of Authenticity: Problems, Contradictions, Inconsistencies, Disturbing Findings—and a Possible Way Forward. *Review of General Psychology, 23*(1), 143–154.

Baumeister, C., Scherer, A., & Wangenheim, F. v. (2015). Branding access offers: the importance of product brands, ownership status, and spillover effects to parent brands. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43*(5), 574–588.

Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G., & Teel, J. E. (1989). Measurement of Consumer Susceptibility to Interpersonal Influence. *Journal of Consumer Research, 15*(4), 473–481.

Becker, F. D. (1971). Delineating personal distance and territoriality. *Environment and Behavior, 3*(4), 375–381.

Becker, F. D. (1973). Study of Spatial Markers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *26*(3), 439–445.

Beckman, T., Colwell A., & Cunningham, P. H. (2009). The Emergence of Corporate Social Responsibility in Chile: The Importance of Authenticity and Social Networks. *Journal of Business Ethics*, (86), 191–206.

Belk, R. W. (1988). Possessions and the Extended Self. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *15*(2), 139–168.

Belk, R. W. (1990). The Role of Possessions in Constructing and Maintaining a Sense of Past. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *17*, 669–676.

Belk, R. W., Bahn, K. D., & Mayer, R. N. (1982). Developmental Recognition of Consumption Symbolism. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *9*(1), 4–17.

Benzecry, C. E. (2015). Restabilizing attachment to cultural objects. Aesthetics, emotions and biography. *The British Journal of Sociology*, *66*(4), 779–800.

Berger, J., & Ward, M. (2010). Subtle Signals of Inconspicuous Consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *37*(4), 555–569.

Beverland, M. B. (2005). Crafting Brand Authenticity: The Case of Luxury Wines. *Journal of Management Studies*, *42*(5), 1003–1029.

Beverland, M. B. (2006). The "real thing": Branding authenticity in the luxury wine trade. *Journal of Business Research*, *59*, 251–258.

Beverland, M. B., & Farrelly, F. J. (2010). The Quest for Authenticity in Consumption: Consumers' Purposive Choice of Authentic Cues to Shape Experienced Outcomes. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *36*(5), 838–856.

Beverland, M. B., Farrelly, F., & Quester, P. G. (2010). Authentic Subcultural Membership : Antecedents and Consequences of Authenticating Acts and Authoritative Performances. *Psychology & Marketing*, *27*(7), 698–716.

Beverland, M. B., Lindgreen, A., & Vink, M. W. (2008). Projecting Authenticity Through Advertising: Consumer Judgments of Advertisers' Claims. *Journal of Advertising*, *37*(1), 5–15.

Bodur, H. O., & Matyas, L. (2008). When Do Consumers Prefer More Choice? Moderating Effects of Regulatory Focus. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *35*, 787–88.

Bonacich, P. (1987). Power and Centrality: A Family of Measures. *American Journal of Sociology*, 92 (5), 1170–82.

Borah, A., & Tellis, G. J. (2016). *Halo (Spillover) Effects in Social Media: Do Product Recalls of One Brand Hurt or Help Rival Brands? Journal of Marketing Research* (Vol. 53).

Boucher, H. C. (2011). The Dialectical Self-Concept II : Cross-Role and Within-Role Consistency, and Authenticity. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *42*(7), 1251–1271.

Bourdeau, B. L., Cronin, Jr., J. J., & Voorhees, C. M. (2007). Modeling Service Alliances: An Exploratory Investigation of Spillover Effects in Service Partnerships. *Strategic Management Journal*, *28*, 609–622.

Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: A Social Critique of the Judgement of Taste*. Harvard University Press.

Bouska, M. L., & Beatty, P. A. (1978). Clothing as a symbol of status: Its effect on control of interaction territory. *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society*, *11*(4), 235–238.

Boyle, D. (2003). *Authenticity: Brands, Fakes, Spin and the Lust for Real Life*. Harper Perennial.

Boyraz, G., & Kuhl, M. L. (2015). Self-focused attention, authenticity, and well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *87*, 70–75.

Boyraz, G., Waits, J. B., & Felix, V. A. (2014). Authenticity, Life Satisfaction, and Distress: A Longitudinal Analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *61*(3), 498–505.

Brebels, L., De Cremer, D., & Sedikides, C. (2008). Retaliation as a Response to Procedural Unfairness: A Self-Regulatory Approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *95*(6), 1511–1525.

Brockner, J., & Higgins, E. T. (2001). Regulatory Focus Theory: Implications for the Study of Emotions at Work. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *86*(1), 35–66.

Browman, A. S., Destin, M., & Molden, D. C. (2017). Identity-Specific Motivation: How Distinct Identities Direct Self-Regulation Across Distinct Situations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *113*(6), 835–857.

Brown, B. B., & Altman, I. (1983). Territoriality, Defensible Space and Residential Burglary: An Environmental Analysis. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *3*, 203–220.

Brown, G., Crossley, C., & Robinson, S. L. (2014). Psychological Ownership, Territorial Behavior, and Being Perceived as a Team Contributor: The Critical Role of Trust in the Work Environment. *Personnel Psychology*, *67*(2), 463–485.

Brown, G., Lawrence, T. B., & Robinson, S. L. (2005). Territoriality in Organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, *30*(3), 577–594.

Brown, G., & Robinson, S. L. (2011). Reactions to Territorial Infringement. *Organization Science*, *22*(1), 210–224.

Brown, G., & Zhu, H. (2016). 'My workspace, not yours': The impact of psychological ownership and territoriality in organizations. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *48*, 54–64.

Brunell, A. B., Kernis, M. H., Goldman, B. M., Heppner, W., Davis, P., Cascio, E. V., & Webster, G. D. (2010). Dispositional authenticity and romantic relationship functioning. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *48*(8), 900–905.

Bryce, D., Curran, R., O'Gorman, K., & Taheri, B. (2015). Visitors' engagement and authenticity: Japanese heritage consumption. *Tourism Management*, *46*, 571–581.

Bullard, O., & Manchanda, R. V. (2017). How goal progress influences regulatory focus in goal pursuit. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *27*(3), 302–317.

Burt, R. S. (1976). Positions in Networks. *Social Forces*, 55(1), 93–122.

Burt, R. S. (1987). Social Contagion and Innovation: Cohesion Versus Structural Equivalence. *American Journal of Sociology*, 92(6), 1287–335.

Caldieraro, F., Kao, L.-J., & Cunha Jr., M. (2015). Harmful Upward Line Extensions: Can the Launch of Premium Products Result in Competitive Disadvantages? *Journal of Marketing*, *79*(6), 50–70.

Calsyn, R. J. (1976). Group Responses to Territorial Intrusion. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *400*, 51–58.

Canavan, B. (2018). An existentialist exploration of tourism sustainability: backpackers fleeing and finding themselves. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *26*(4), 551–566.

Carson, S. H., & Langer, E. J. (2006). Mindfulness and Self-Acceptance. *Journal of Rational-Emotive & Cognitive-Behavior Therapy*, *24*(1), 29–43.

Carter, M. J., & Marony, J. (2018). Examining Self-Perceptions of Identity Change in Person, Role, and Social Identities. *Current Psychology*, 1–18.

Cartwright, D. (1968). The nature of group cohesiveness. In D. Cartwright & A. Zander (Eds.), *Group Dynamics: Research and Theory* (3rd ed.). New York: Harper & Row.

Castéran, H., & Roederer, C. (2013). Does authenticity really affect behavior? The case of the Strasbourg Christmas Market. *Tourism Management*, *36*, 153–163.

Chae, I., Stephen, A. T., Bart, Y., & Yao, D. (2017). Spillover Effects in Seeded Word-of-Mouth Marketing Campaigns. *Marketing Science*, *36*(1), 89–104.

Charmley, R., Garry, T., & Ballantine, P. W. (2013). The inauthentic other: Social comparison theory and brand avoidance within consumer sub-cultures. *Journal of Brand Management*, *20*(6), 458–472.

Cheah, I., Zainol, Z., & Phau, I. (2016). Conceptualizing country-of-ingredient authenticity of luxury brands. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*, 5819–5826.

Chen, S. (2018). Authenticity in Context: Being True to Working Selves. *Review of General Psychology*, 1–13.

Chhabra, D. (2005). Defining Authenticity and Its Determinants: Toward an Authenticity Flow Model. *Journal of Travel Research*, *44*, 64–73.

Chhabra, D., Healy, R., & Sills, E. (2003). Staged Authenticity and Heritage Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *30*(3), 702–719.

Chronis, A., & Hampton, R. D. (2008). Consuming the authentic Gettysburg: How a tourist landscape becomes an authentic experience. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *7*, 111–126.

Collins, A. M., & Loftus, E. F. (1975). A Spreading Activation Theory of Semantic Processing. *Psychological Review*, *82*(6), 407–428.

Corciolani, M. (2014). How do authenticity dramas develop? An analysis of Afterhours fans' responses to the band's participation in the Sanremo music festival. *Marketing Theory*, *14*(2), 185–206.

Corciolani, M. (2011). In Defence of Authenticity. An Analysis of Consumers ' Responses to A Crisis of Authenticity. *European Advances in Consumer Research*, *9*, 496–497.

Costa, M. (2012). Territorial Behavior in Public Settings. *Environment and Behavior*, *44*(5), 713–721.

Crowe, E., & Higgins, E. T. (1997). Regulatory Focus and Strategic Inclinations: Promotion and Prevention in Decision-Making. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *69*(2), 117–132.

Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Rochberg-Halton, E. (1981). *The meaning of things: Domestic symbols and the self*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dagger, T. S., Danaher, P. J., Sweeney, J. C., & McColl-Kennedy, J. R. (2013). Selective Halo Effects Arising From Improving the Interpersonal Skills of Frontline Employees. *Journal of Service Research*, *16*(4), 488–502.

Dalton, A. N., & Huang, L. (2014). Motivated Forgetting in Response to Social Identity Threat. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *40*(6), 1017–1038.

Daschuk, M. D. (2011). The significance of artistic criticism in the production of punk subcultural authenticity: the case study of Against Me! *Journal of Youth Studies*, *14*(5), 605–626.

Davis, W. E., Hicks, J. A., Schlegel, R. J., Smith, C. M., & Vess, M. (2015). Authenticity and self-esteem across temporal horizons. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *10*(2), 116–126.

DeLong, A. J. (1973). Territorial Stability and Hierarchical Formation. *Small Group Behavior*, *4*(1), 55–63.

Deng, H., Walter, F., Lam, C. K., & Zhao, H. H. (2017). Spillover Effects of Emotional Labor in Customer Service Encounters Toward Coworker Harming: A Resource Depletion Perspective. *Personnel Psychology*, *70*, 469–502.

Dholakia, U. M., Gopinath, M., Bagozzi, R. P., & Nataraajan, R. (2006). The Role of Regulatory Focus in the Experience and Self-Control of Desire for Temptations. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *16*(2), 163–175.

Dickinson, D. L., & Oxoby, R. J. (2011). Cognitive dissonance, pessimism, and behavioral spillover effects. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *32*, 295–306.

Didonato, T. E., & Krueger, J. I. (2010). Interpersonal Affirmation and Self-authenticity: A Test of Rogers's Self-growth Hypothesis. *Self and Identity*, *9*, 322–336.

Diehl, M., Jacobs, L. M., & Hastings, C. T. (2006). Temporal Stability and Authenticity of Self-Representations in Adulthood. *Journal of Adult Development*, *13*(1), 10–22.

Dolan, P., & Galizzi, M. M. (2015). Like ripples on a pond: Behavioral spillovers and their implications for research and policy. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *47*, 1–16.

Dong, M. C., Liu, Z., Yu, Y., & Zheng J. (2015). Opportunism in Distribution Networks: The Role of Network Embeddedness and Dependence. *Production and Operations Management*, 24(10), 1657–70.

Dosey, M. A., & Meisels, M. (1969). Personal Space and Self-Protection. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *11*(2), 93–97.

Dupont, T. (2014). From Core to Consumer: The Informal Hierarchy of the Skateboard Scene. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, *43*(5), 556–581.

Dyson-Hudson, R., & Smith, E. A. (1978). Human Territoriality: An Ecological Reassessment. *American Anthropologist*, *80*(1), 21–41.

Edney, J. J. (1972a). Property, Possession and Permanence: A Field Study in Human Territoriality. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *2*(3), 275–282.

Edney, J. J. (1974). Human Territoriality. *Psychological Bulletin*, *81*(12), 959–975.

Edney, J. J. (1976). Human Territories: Comment on Functional Properties. *Environment and Behavior*, *8*(1), 31–47.

Edney, J. J., & Uhlig, S. R. (1977). Individual and Small Group Territories. *Small Group Behavior*, *8*(4), 457–468.

English, T., & John, O. P. (2013). Understanding the Social Effects of Emotion Regulation: The Mediating Role of Authenticity for Individual Differences in Suppression. *Emotion*, *13*(2), 314–329.

Erdem, T., & Sun, B. (2002). An Empirical Investigation of the Spillover Effects of Advertising and Sales Promotions in Umbrella Branding. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *39*(4), 408–420.

Erickson, R. J. (1995). The Importance of Authenticity for Self and Society. *Symbolic Interaction*, *18*(2), 121–144.

Escalas, J. E., & Bettman, J. R. (2005). Self-Construal, Reference Groups, and Brand Meaning. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *32*, 378–389.

Feldman, J. M., & Lynch Jr., J. G. (1988). Self-Generated Validity and Other Effects of Measurement on Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*(3), 421–435.

Ferguson, M. (2012). You cannot leave it at the office: Spillover and crossover of coworker incivility. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *33*, 571–588.

Ferrara, A. (2009). Authenticity Without a True Self. In P. Vannini & J. P. Williams (Eds.), *Authenticity in Culture, Self, and Society* (1st ed., pp. 21–36). London: Routledge.

Festinger, L. (1954). A Theory of Social Comparison Processes. *Human Relations*, *7*, 117–140.

Fine, G. A. (2003). Crafting Authenticity: The Validation of Identity in Self-Taught Art. *Theory and Society*, *32*(2), 153–180.

Fine, G. A. (1996). Justifying Work: Occupational Rhetorics as Resources in Restaurant Kitchens. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *41*(1), 90–115.

Fisher, D., & Smith, S. (2011). Cocreation is chaotic: What it means for marketing when no one has control. *Marketing Theory*, *11*(3), 325–350.

Fleeson, W., & Wilt, J. (2010). The Relevance of Big Five Trait Content in Behavior to Subjective Authenticity: Do High Levels of Within-Person Behavioral Variability

Undermine or Enable Authenticity Achievement? *Journal of Personality*, *78*(4), 1353–1382.

Force, W. R. (2009). Consumption Styles and the Fluid Complexity of Punk Authenticity. *Symbolic Interaction*, *32*(4), 289–309.

Frake, J. (2017). Selling Out: The Inauthenticity Discount in the Craft Beer Industry. *Management Science*, *63*(11), 3930–3943.

Franzese, A. T. (2009). Authenticity: Perspectives and Experiences. In P. Vannini & J. P. Williams (Eds.), *Authenticity in Culture, Self, and Society* (1st ed.). London: Routledge.

Fraser, A. (2013). Street habitus: gangs, territorialism and social change in Glasgow. *Journal of Youth Studies*, *16*(8), 970–985.

Freeman, L. C. (1978/79). Centrality in Social Networks: Conceptual Clarification. *Social Networks*, 1, 215–39.

Friedman, R. S., & Forster, J. (2001). The Effects of Promotion and Prevention Cues on Creativity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *81*(6), 1001–1013.

Fritz, K., Schoenmueller, V., & Bruhn, M. (2017). Authenticity in branding - exploring antecedents and consequences of brand authenticity. *European Journal of Marketing*, *51*(2), 324–348.

Garg, P., & Rastogi, R. (2009). Effect of Psychological Wellbeing on Organizational Commitment of Employees. *The Icfai University Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *8*(2), 42–51.

Geylani, T., Inman, J. J., & Ter Hofstede, F. (2008). Image Reinforcement or Impairment: The Effects of Co-Branding on Attribute Uncertainty. *Marketing Science*, *27*(4), 730–744.

Gilmore, J. H., & Pine II, B. J. (2007). *Authenticity: What Consumers Really Want* (1st ed.). Harvard Business Review Press.

Gino, F., Norton, M. I., & Ariely, D. (2010). The Counterfeit Self: The Deceptive Costs of Faking It. *Psychological Science*, *21*(5), 712–720.

Goldenberg, J., Han S., Lehmann, D. R., & Hong J. W. (2009). The Role of Hubs in the Adoption Process. *Journal of Marketing*, 73, 1–13.

Goldman, B. M., & Kernis, M. H. (2002). The role of authenticity in healthy psychological functioning and subjective well-being. *Annals of the American Psychotherapy Association*, *5*(6), 18–20.

Goldsmith, R. E., & Clark, R. A. (2012). Materialism, Status Consumption, and Consumer Independence. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *152*(1), 43–60.

Golomb, J. (1995). *In Search of Authenticity: Existentialism from Kierkegaard to Camus* (1st ed.). Routledge.

Goodman, J. K., & Paolacci, G. (2017). Crowdsourcing Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *44*, 196–210.

Granovetter, M. S. (1985). Economic Action and Social Structure: The Problem of Embeddedness. *American Journal of Sociology*, *91*(3), 481–510.

Granovetter, M. S. (1973). The Strength of Weak Ties. *American Journal of Sociology*, 78(6), 1360–80.

Grant, S. J., & Xie, Y. (2003). An Analysis of Counterfactual Thinking and Rationality: The Role of Regulatory Goal Focus in Individual Investor Response. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *30*, 84.

Grayson, K., & Martinec, R. (2004). Consumer Perceptions of Iconicity and Indexicality and Their Influence on Assessments of Authentic Market Offerings. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *31*(2), 296–312.

Grayson, K., & Shulman, D. (1996). The Genuine Article: Product Authenticity and its Value to Discussant Presentation. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *23*, 391–392.

Grayson, K., & Shulman, D. (2000). Indexicality and the Verification Function of Irreplaceable Possessions: A Semiotic Analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *27*(1), 17–30.

Griffiths, M. A., & Gilly, M. C. (2012). Dibs! Customer Territorial Behaviors. *Journal of Service Research*, *15*(2), 131–149.

Groth, M. (2008). Authenticity in Existentiai Anaiysis. *Existential Analysis*, *19*(1), 81–101.

Groves, R., Solomon, M. R., & Quilty, N. (2001). But is it True Blue Mate? Cross-Cultural Perceptions of Authenticity. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *28*, 397.

Gubrium, J. F., & Holstein, J. A. (2009). The Everyday Work and Auspices of Authenticity. In P. Vannini & J. P. Williams (Eds.), *Authenticity in Culture, Self, and Society* (1st ed.). London: Routledge.

Guèvremont, A., & Grohmann, B. (2016). The brand authenticity effect: situational and individual-level moderators. *European Journal of Marketing*, *50*(3/4), 602–614.

Guy, K. M. (2002). *When Champagne Became French: Wine and the Making of a National Identity*. Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press.

Guyot, G. W., Byrd, G. R., & Caudle, R. (1980). Classroom Seating: An Expression of Situational Territoriality in Humans. *Small Group Behavior*, *11*(1), 120–128.

Hahl, O., Zuckerman, E. W., & Kim, M. (2017). Why Elites Love Authentic Lowbrow Culture: Overcoming High-Status Denigration with Outsider Art. *American Sociological Review*, *82*(4), 828–856.

Hariharan, V. G., Bezawada, R., & Talukdar, D. (2012). Trial, repeat purchase and spillover effects of cobranded extensions. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *21*(2), 76–88.

Harlow, R. E., & Cantor, N. (1994). Social Pursuit of Academics: Side Effects and Spillover of Strategic Reassurance Seeking. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *66*(2), 386–397.

Hartmann, B. J., & Ostberg, J. (2013). Authenticating by re-enchantment: The discursive making of craft production. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *29*(7/8), 882–911.

Hartmann, L. H., Nitzko, S., & Spiller, A. (2017). Segmentation of German Consumers Based on Perceived Dimensions of Luxury Food. *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, *23*(7), 733–768.

Havakhor, T. & Sabherwal, R. (2018). Team Processes in Virtual Knowledge Teams: The Effects of Reputation Signals and Network Density. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 35(1), 266–318.

Haynie, D. L. (2001). Delinquent Peers Revisited: Does Network Structure Matter? *American Journal of Sociology*, 106(4), 1013–57.

Hazlett, A., Molden, D. C., & Sackett, A. M. (2011). Hoping for the Best or Preparing for the Worst? Regulatory Focus and Preferences for Optimism and Pessimism in Predicting Personal Outcomes. *Social Cognition*, *29*(1), 74–96.

Healy, M. J., & Beverland, M. B. (2016). Being sub-culturally authentic and acceptable to the mainstream: Civilizing practices and self-authentication. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*, 224–233.

Hede, A.-M., Garma, R., Josiassen, A., & Thyne, M. (2014). Perceived authenticity of the visitor experience in museums: Conceptualization and initial empirical findings. *European Journal of Marketing*, *48*(7/8), 1395–1412.

Heidegger, M. (1962). *Being and Time*. New York: Harper & Row.

Herzenstein, M., Posavac, S. S., & Brakus, J. J. (2007). Adoption of New and Really New Products: The Effects of Self-Regulation Systems and Risk Salience. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *44*(2), 251–260.

Hicks, J. A., Schlegel, R. J., & Newman, G. E. (2019). Introduction to the Special Issue: Authenticity: Novel Insights Into a Valued, Yet Elusive, Concept. *Review of General Psychology*, *23*(1), 3–7.

Higgins, E. T. (1996). The "Self Digest": Self-Knowledge Serving Self-Regulatory Functions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *71*(6), 1062–1083.

Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond Pleasure and Pain. *American Psychologist*, *52*(12), 1280–1300.

Higgins, E. T. (1998). Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, Volume 30* (pp. 1–46). New York: Academic Press.

Higgins, E. T., & Cornwell, J. F. M. (2016). Securing foundations and advancing frontiers: Prevention and promotion effects on judgment & decision making. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *136*, 56–67.

Higgins, E. T., Idson, L. C., Freitas, A. L., Spiegel, S., & Molden, D. C. (2003). Transfer of Value From Fit. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *84*(6), 1140–1153.

Higgins, E. T., Roney, C. J. R., Crowe, E., & Hymes, C. (1994). Ideal Versus Ought Predilections for Approach and Avoidance: Distinct Self-Regulatory Systems. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *66*(2), 276–286.

Hirschorn, S., & Hefferon, K. (2013). Leaving It All Behind to Travel: Venturing Uncertainty as a Means to Personal Growth and Authenticity. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, *53*(3), 283–306.

Holt, D. B. (2002). Why Do Brands Cause Trouble? A Dialectical Theory of Consumer Culture and Branding. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *29*(1), 70–90.

Holt, D. B. (1997). Poststructuralist Lifestyle Analysis: Conceptualizing the Social Patterning of Consumption in Postmodernity. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *23*(4), 326–350.

Holt, D. B. (1998). Does Cultural Capital Structure American Consumption? *Journal of Consumer Research*, *25*, 1–25.

Hoppe, R. A., Greene, M. S., & Kenny, J. W. (1972). Territorial Markers: Additional Findings. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *88*, 305–306.

Howard, C. A. (2016). Touring the consumption of the Other: Imaginaries of authenticity in the Himalayas and beyond. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, *16*(2), 354–373.

Huo, W., Cai, Z., Luo, J., Men, C., & Jia, R. (2016). Antecedents and intervention mechanisms: a multi-level study of R&D team's knowledge hiding behavior. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *20*(5), 880–897.

Ibarra, H. & Andrews, S. B. (1993). Power, Social Influence, and Sense Making: Effects of Network Centrality and Proximity on Employee Perceptions. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38(2), 277–303.

Idson, L. C., Liberman, N., & Higgins, E. T. (2000). Distinguishing Gains from Nonlosses and Losses from Nongains: A Regulatory Focus Perspective on Hedonic Intensity. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *36*(3), 252–274.

Ilies, R., Wilson, K. S., & Wagner, D. T. (2009). The Spillover Of Daily Job Satisfaction Onto Employees' Family Lives: The Facilitating Role of Work-Family Integration. *Academy of Management Journal*, *52*(1), 87–102.

Impett, E. A., Javam, L., Le, B. M., Asyabi-Eshghi, B., & Kogan, A. (2013). The joys of genuine giving: Approach and avoidance sacrifice motivation and authenticity. *Personal Relationships*, *20*, 740–754.

Jacobsen, B. (2007). Authenticity and Our Basic Existential Dilemmas. *Existential Analysis*, *18*(2), 288–296

Janakiraman, N., Meyer, R. J., & Morales, A. C. (2006). Spillover Effects: How Consumers Respond to Unexpected Changes in Price and Quality. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *33*(3), 361–369.

Janakiraman, R., Sismeiro, C., & Dutta, S. (2009). Perception Spillovers Across Competing Brands: A Disaggregate Model of How and When. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *46*(4), 467–481.

Jang, S., & Ha, J. (2015). The Influence of Cultural Experience: Emotions in Relation to Authenticity at Ethnic Restaurants. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, *18*, 287–306.

Jang, S., Ha, J., & Park, K. (2012). Effects of ethnic authenticity: Investigating Korean restaurant customers in the U.S. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *31*(3), 990–1003.

Jason, L. A., Reichler, A., & Rucker, W. (1981). Territorial Behavior on Beaches. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, *114*, 43–50.

Jones, S. (2010). Negotiating Authentic Objects and Authentic Selves: Beyond the Deconstruction of Authenticity. *Journal of Material Culture*, *15*(2), 181–203.

Jongman-Sereno, K. P., & Leary, M. R. (2018). The Enigma of Being Yourself: A Critical Examination of the Concept of Authenticity. *Review of General Psychology*, 1–10.

Kang, S. K., & Inzlicht, M. (2014). Stereotype Threat Spillover: Why Stereotype Threat Is More Useful for Organizations Than It Seems. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *7*(3), 452–456.

Keller, P. A., Lee, A. Y., & Sternthal, B. (2003). Stability versus Change: The Effects of Regulatory Focus Compatibility on Behavior Change. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *30*, 83.

Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a Conceptualization of Optimal Self-Esteem. *Psychological Inquiry*, *14*(1), 1–26.

Kernis, M. H., & Goldman, B. M. (2006). A Multicomponent Conceptualization of Authenticity: Theory and Research. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *38*, 283–357.

Kifer, Y., Heller, D., Perunovic, W. Q. E., & Galinsky, A. D. (2013). The Good Life of the Powerful: The Experience of Power and Authenticity Enhances Subjective Well-Being. *Psychological Science*, *24*(3), 280–288.

Kim, K., & Baker, M. A. (2017). The Impacts of Service Provider Name, Ethnicity, and Menu Information on Perceived Authenticity and Behaviors. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *58*(3), 312–318.

Kim, H., & Bonn, M. A. (2016). Authenticity: Do tourist perceptions of winery experiences affect behavioral intentions? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *28*(4), 839–859.

Kim, J.-H., & Jang, S. (2016). Determinants of authentic experiences: An extended Gilmore and Pine model for ethnic restaurants. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *28*(10), 2247–2266.

Kim, J.-H., Youn, H., & Rao, Y. (2017). Customer responses to food-related attributes in ethnic restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *61*, 129–139.

Kim, K., & Baker, M. A. (2017). The Impacts of Service Provider Name, Ethnicity, and Menu Information on Perceived Authenticity and Behaviors. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *58*(3), 312–318.

King, S. A. (2006). Memory, Mythmaking, and Museums: Constructive Authenticity and the Primitive Blues Subject. *Southern Communication Journal*, *71*(3), 235–250.

Kirk, C. P., Peck, J., & Swain, S. D. (2018). Property Lines in the Mind: Consumers' Psychological Ownership and Their Territorial Responses. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *0*, 1–21.

Knapp, A.-K., Hennig-Thurau, T., & Mathys, J. (2014). The importance of reciprocal spillover effects for the valuation of bestseller brands: Introducing and testing a contingency model. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *42*(2), 205–221.

Knowles, E. S. (1973). Boundaries Around Group Interaction: The Effect of Group Size and Membr Status on Boundary Permeability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *26*(3), 327–331.

Kokkoris, M. D., Hoelzl, E., & Alós-Ferrer, C. (2019). True to Which Self? Lay Rationalism and Decision Satisfaction in Self-Control Conflicts. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1–31.

Kotarba, J. A. (2009). Pop Music as a Resource for Assembling an Authentic Self: A Phenomenological-Existential Perspective. In P. Vannini & J. P. Williams (Eds.), *Authenticity in Culture, Self, and Society* (1st ed.). London: Routledge.

Kovács, B. (2019). Authenticity Is in the Eye of the Beholder: The Exploration of Audiences' Lay Associations to Authenticity Across Five Domains. *Review of General Psychology*, *23*(1), 32–59.

Kovács, B., Carroll, G. R., & Lehman, D. W. (2014). Authenticity and Consumer Value Ratings: Empirical Tests from the Restaurant Domain. *Organization Science*, *25*(2), 458–478.

Kraus, M. W., & Chen, S. (2014). Relational Self-verification through Self-presentation: Implications for Perceptions of One's Honesty and Authenticity. *Self and Identity*, *13*(1), 45–57.

Krishna, A., & Rajan, U. (2009). Cause Marketing: Spillover Effects of Cause-Related Products in a Product Portfolio. *Management Science*, *55*(9), 1469–1485.

Ku, H.-H., Kuo, C.-C., & Kuo, T.-W. (2012). The Effect of Scarcity on the Purchase Intentions of Prevention and Promotion Motivated Consumers. *Psychology & Marketing*, *29*(8), 541–548.

Kuchmaner, C. A., Wiggins, J., & Grimm, P. E. (2019). The Role of Network Embeddedness and Psychological Ownership in Consumer Responses to Brand Transgressions. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *47*, 129–143.

Kühnen, U., & Hannover, B. (2010). Culture, Self-Construal, and Regulatory Focus: How and What to Promote or Prevent? *Psychological Inquiry*, *21*(3), 233–238.

Kulik, C. T., Bainbridge, H. T. J., & Cregan, C. (2008). Known By the Company We Keep: Stigma-By-Association Effects in the Workplace. *Academy of Management Review*, *33*(1), 216–230.

Kumar, A., & Tan, Y. (Ricky). (2015). The Demand Effects of Joint Product Advertising in Online Videos. *Management Science*, *61*(8), 1921–1937.

Kuznetsov, S., & Paulos, E. (2010). Rise of the Expert Amateur: DIY Projects, Communities, and Cultures. In *Proceedings of the 6th Nordic Conference on Human-Computer Interaction* (pp. 1–10). Reykjavik, Iceland.

Lalwani, A. K., Shrum, L. J., & Chiu, C. (2009). Motivated Response Styles: The Role of Cultural Values, Regulatory Focus, and Self-Consciousness in Socially Desirable Responding. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *96*(4), 870–882.

Leary, M. R. (2003). Interpersonal Aspects of Optimal Self-Esteem and the Authentic Self. *Psychological Inquiry*, *14*(1), 52–54.

Leary, M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). The nature and function of self-esteem: Sociometer theory. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, Volume 32* (pp. 1–62). San Diego: Academic Press.

Lee, S. Y., & Rim, H. (2016). Negative spillover in corporate–nonprofit partnerships: Exploring the effects of company–cause congruence and organization–public relationships. *Public Relations Review*, *42*(4), 710–712.

Lehman, D. W., Kovács, B., & Carroll, G. R. (2014). Conflicting Social Codes and Organizations: Hygiene and Authenticity in Consumer Evaluations of Restaurants. *Management Science*, *60*(10), 2602–2617.

Lei, J., Dawar, N., & Lemmink, J. (2008). Negative Spillover in Brand Portfolios: Exploring the Antecedents of Asymmetric Effects. *Journal of Marketing*, *72*(3), 111–123.

Lei, J., Dawar, N., & Lemmink, J. (2006). The Impact of Information Characteristics on Negative Spillover Effects in Brand Portfolios. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *33*, 324–325.

Leigh, T. W., Peters, C., & Shelton, J. (2006). The Consumer Quest for Authenticity: The Multiplicity of Meanings Within the MG Subculture of Consumption. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *34*(4), 481–493.

Lenglet, F., & Giannelloni, J.-L. (2016). Does a TerroirProduct Tell the Same Story to Tourists, Day-trippers and Local Consumers? The Moderating Role of Variety-seeking Tendency and Perceived Authenticity. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *18*, 494–505.

Lenton, A. P., Bruder, M., Slabu, L., & Sedikides, C. (2013a). How Does "Being Real" Feel? The Experience of State Authenticity. *Journal of Personality*, *81*(3), 276–289.

Lenton, A. P., Slabu, L., & Sedikides, C. (2016). State Authenticity in Everyday Life. *European Journal of Personality*, *30*(1), 64–82.

Lenton, A. P., Slabu, L., Sedikides, C., & Power, K. (2013b). I feel good, therefore I am real: Testing the causal influence of mood on state authenticity. *Cognition and Emotion*, *27*(7), 1202–1224.

Levy, S. J. (1959). Symbols for sale. *Harvard Business Review*, *37*, 117-124.

Lewin, P., & Williams, J. P. (2009). The Ideology and Practice of Authenticity in Punk Subculture. In P. Vannini & J. P. Williams (Eds.), *Authenticity in Culture, Self, and Society* (1st ed.). London: Routledge.

Leyhausen, P. (1971). Dominance and territoriality as complements in mammalian social structure. In A. H. Esser (Ed.), *Behavior and Environment*. New York: Plenum.

Li, N., Zheng, X., Harris, T. B., Liu, X., & Kirkman, B. L. (2016). Recognizing "Me" Benefits "We": Investigating the Positive Spillover Effects of Formal Individual Recognition in Teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(7), 925–939.

Liberman, N., Idson, L. C., Camacho, C. J., & Higgins, E. T. (1999). Promotion and Prevention Choices Between Stability and Change. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *77*(6), 1135–1145.

Liberman, N., Molden, D. C., Idson, L. C., & Higgins, E. T. (2001). Promotion and Prevention Focus on Alternative Hypotheses: Implications for Attributional Functions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *80*(1), 5–18.

Lieberman, M. A., Yalom, I. D., & Miles, M. B. (1973). *Encounter Groups: First Facts*. Basic Books.

Lindholm, C. (2008). *Culture and Authenticity* (1st ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.

Liu, H., Liu, Q., & Chintagunta, P. K. (2017). Promotion Spillovers: Drug Detailing in Combination Therapy. *Marketing Science*, *36*(3), 382–401.

Locher, P., Krupinski, E., & Schaefer, A. (2015). Art and Authenticity: Behavioral and Eye-Movement Analyses. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts*, *9*(4), 356–367.

Lockwood, P., Jordan, C. H., & Kunda, Z. (2002). Motivation by Positive or Negative Role Models: Regulatory Focus Determines Who Will Best Inspire Us. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*(4), 854–864.

Lott, A., & Lott, B. A. (1965). Group cohesiveness as interpersonal attraction: A review of relationship with antecedent and consequent variables. *Psychological Bulletin*, *4*, 259–309.

Lozanski, K. (2010). Defining "real India": Representations of authenticity in independent travel. *Social Identities*, *16*(6), 741–762.

Lu, A. C. C., Gursoy, D., & Lu, C. Y. (2015). Authenticity perceptions, brand equity and brand choice intention: The case of ethnic restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *50*, 36–45.

Lyman, S. M., & Scott, M. B. (1967). Territoriality: A Neglected Sociological. *Social Problems*, *15*(2), 236–249.

MacCannell, D. (1973). Staged Authenticity: Arrangements of Social Space in Tourist Settings. *American Journal of Sociology*, *79*(3), 589–603.

Macdonald, J. E., & Gifford, R. (1989). Territorial Cues and Defensible Space Theory: The Burglar's Point of View. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *9*, 193–205.

Marsden, P. V. & Friedkin, N. E. (1993). Network Studies of Social Influence. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 22(1), 127–51.

McCracken, G. (1988). *Culture and Consumption*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

McCracken, G. (1989). Who Is the Celebrity Endorser? Cultural Foundations of the Endorsement Process. *Journal of Consumer Research, 16*(3), 310-321.

Meisels, M., & Dosey, M. A. (1971). Personal space, anger-arousal, and psychological defense. *Journal of Personality*, *39*(3), 333–344.

Michael, J. (2015). Its really not hip to be a hipster: Negotiating trends and authenticity in the cultural field. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, *15*(2), 163–182.

Minor, M., & LeBoeuf, R. (2011). "Keeping It Real": Marketing Implications of Brand Authenticity. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *38*, 647–648.

Moisio, R., Arnould, E. J., & Gentry, J. W. (2013). Productive Consumption in the Class-Mediated Construction of Domestic Masculinity: Do-It-Yourself (DIY) Home Improvement in Men's Identity Work. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *40*, 298–316.

Moisio, R., Arnould, E. J., & Price, L. L. (2004). Between Mothers and Markets: Constructing family identity through homemade food. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, *4*(3), 361–384.

Molden, D. C., & Hui, C. M. (2011). Promoting De-Escalation of Commitment: A Regulatory-Focus Perspective on Sunk Costs. *Psychological Science*, *22*(1), 8–12.

Molden, D. C., Lucas, G. M., Gardner, W. L., Dean, K., & Knowles, M. L. (2009). Motivations for Prevention or Promotion Following Social Exclusion: Being Rejected Versus Being Ignored. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *96*(2), 415–431.

Moody, J. & White, D. R. (2003). Structural Cohesion and Embeddedness: A Hierarchical Concept of Social Groups. *American Sociological Review*, 68, 103–27.

Moran, P. (2005). Structural vs. Relational Embeddedness: Social Capital and Managerial Performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 26, 1129–51.

Morhart, F., Malär, L., Guèvremont, A., Girardin, F., & Grohmann, B. (2015). Brand authenticity: An integrative framework and measurement scale. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *25*(2), 200–218.

Moulard, J. G., Raggio, R. D., & Garretson Folse, J. A. (2016). Brand Authenticity: Testing the Antecedents and Outcomes of Brand Management's Passion for its Products. *Psychology & Marketing*, *33*(6), 421–436.

Moulard, J. G., Rice, D. H., Garrity, C. P., & Mangus, S. M. (2014). Artist Authenticity: How Artists' Passion and Commitment Shape Consumers' Perceptions and Behavioral Intentions across Genders. *Psychology & Marketing*, *31*(8), 576–590.

Mourali, M., Bockenholt, U., & Laroche, M. (2007). Compromise and Attraction Effects Under Prevention and Promotion Focus. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *34*(2), 234–247.

Mullen, E., & Nadler, J. (2008). Moral spillovers: The effect of moral violations on deviant behavior. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *44*(5), 1239–1245.

Munoz, C. L., & Wood, N. T. (2006). It's Not Just What You Eat , But Where You Eat: Regional Perceptions of Authenticity in Mexican Restaurants. *Latin American Advances in Consumer Research*, *1*, 54–55.

Munoz, C. L., Wood, N. T., & Solomon, M. R. (2006). Real or blarney? A cross-cultural investigation of the perceived authenticity of Irish pubs. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *5*, 222–234.

Napoli, J., Dickinson-Delaporte, S., & Beverland, M. B. (2016). The brand authenticity continuum: strategic approaches for building value. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *32*(13/14), 1201–1229.

Neves, P. (2012). Organizational cynicism: Spillover effects on supervisor-subordinate relationships and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *23*(5), 965–976.

Newman, G. E. (2016). An Essentialist Account of Authenticity. *Journal of Cognition and Culture*, *16*(3/4), 294–321.

Newman, G. E. (2018). The Psychology of Authenticity. *Review of General Psychology*, 1–11.

Newman, G. E., & Bloom, P. (2012). Art and Authenticity: The Importance of Originals in Judgments of Value. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, *141*(3), 558–569.

Newman, G. E., & Dhar, R. (2014). Authenticity Is Contagious: Brand Essence and the Original Source of Production. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *51*(3), 371–386.

Newman, G. E., Diesendruck, G., & Bloom, P. (2011). Celebrity Contagion and the Value of Objects. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *38*(2), 215–228.

Newman, G. E., & Smith, R. K. (2016). The need to belong motivates demand for authentic objects. *Cognition*, *156*, 129–134.

Newman, O. (1972). *Defensible Space: Crime Prevention through Urban Design*. New York: Macmillan.

Nguyen, H., & Gunasti, K. (2011). Authenticity is in the Eye of the Beholder: From Changes in Attitudes and Preferences to Placebo Effects. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *39*, 517–518.

Novello, S., & Fernandez, P. M. (2016). The Influence of Event Authenticity and Quality Attributes on Behavioral Intentions. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *40*(6), 685–714.

Noy, C. (2004). This Trip Really Changed Me: Backpackers' Narratives of Self-Shange. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(1), 78–102.

Ordabayeva, N., & Chandon, P. (2011). Getting Ahead of the Joneses: When Equality Increases Conspicuous Consumption among Bottom-Tier Consumers. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *38*(1), 27–41.

Oyserman, D. (2009). Identity-based motivation: Implications for action-readiness, procedural-readiness, and consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *19*(3), 250–260. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2009.05.008

Oyserman, D., Elmore, K., & Smith, G. (2012). Self, Self-Concept, and Identity. In M. R. Leary & J. P. Tangney (Eds.), *Handbook of Self and Identity* (Second, pp. 69–104). New York: The Guilford Press.

Park, C. W., MacInnis, D. J., Priester, J., Eisingerich, A. B., & Iacobucci, D. (2010). Brand Attachment and Brand Attitude Strength: Conceptual and Empirical Differentiation of Two Critical Brand Equity Drivers, *74*, 1–17.

Peng, H. (2013). Why and when do people hide knowledge? *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *17*(3), 398–415.

Perkins, D. D., Wandersman, A., Rich, R. C., & Taylor, R. B. (1993). The Physical Environment of Street Crime: Defensible Space, Territoriality and Incivilities. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *13*, 29–49.

Perry, F. (2015). 'Keeping it real': tryhards, clones and youth discourses of authentic identity from Hollywood to high school. *Journal of Youth Studies*, *18*(7), 914–931.

Peters, C., Bodkin, C. D., & Fitzgerald, S. (2012). Toward an understanding of meaning creation via the collective co-production process. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *11*, 124–135.

Peterson, R. A. (2005). In Search of Authenticity. *Journal of Management Studies*, *42*(5), 1083–1098.

Peterson, R. A. (1997). *Creating Country Music: Fabricating Authenticity* (1st ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Petriglieri, J. L. (2011). Under Threat: Responses To the Consequences of Threats To Individuals' Identities. *Academy of Management Review*, *36*(4), 641–662.

Pham, M. T., & Chang, H. H. (2010). Regulatory Focus, Regulatory Fit, and the Search and Consideration of Choice Alternatives. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *37*(4), 626–640.

Pham, M. T., & Higgins, E. T. (2006). Promotion and Prevention in Consumer Decision Making: A Propositional Inventory. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *33*, 532–533.

Pham, M. T., & Trudel, R. (2008). Advances in Regulatory Focus and Regulatory Fit Theory: Effects on Consumer Search, Consumer Satisfaction, and Self-Control. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *35*, 229–232.

Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. (2003). The State of Psychological Ownership: Integrating and Extending a Century of Research. *Review of General Psychology*, *7*(1), 84–107. http://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.7.1.84

Pina, J. M., Dall'Olmo Riley, F., & Lomax, W. (2013). Generalizing spillover effects of goods and service brand extensions: A meta-analysis approach. *Journal of Business Research*, *66*(9), 1411–1419. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2012.05.008

Ramanathan, S., & Dhar, S. K. (2010). The Effect of Sales Promotions on the Size and Composition of the Shopping Basket: Regulatory Compatibility from Framing and Temporal Restrictions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *47*(3), 542–552.

Ramarajan, L., Bezrukova, K., Jehn, K. A., & Euwema, M. (2011). From the outside in: The negative spillover effects of boundary spanners' relations with members of other organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *32*, 886–905.

Reisel, W. D., Chia, S.-L., & Maloles III, C. M. (2005). Job insecurity spillover to key account management: Negative effects on performance, effectiveness, adaptiveness, and esprit de corps. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *19*(4), 483–503.

Reynolds, D. (2016). Consumers or witnesses? Holocaust tourists and the problem of authenticity. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, *16*(2), 334–353.

Richins, M. L. (1994). Valuing Things: The Public and Private Meanings of Possessions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *21*(3), 504–521.

Richman, J. (1972). The Motor Car and the Territorial Aggression Thesis: Some Aspects of the Sociology of the Street, 5–27.

Riley, S. C. E., & Cahill, S. (2005). Managing Meaning and Belonging: Young Women's Negotiation of Authenticity in Body Art. *Journal of Youth Studies*, *8*(3), 261–279.

Rivera, G. N., Christy, A. G., Kim, J., Vess, M., Hicks, J. A., & Schlegel, R. J. (2018). Understanding the Relationship Between Perceived Authenticity and Well-Being. *Review of General Psychology*, 1–14.

Roberson, Q. M. & Williamson, I. O. (2012). Justice in Self- Managing Teams: The Role of Social Networks in the Emergence of Procedural Justice Climates. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(3), 685–701.

Robinson, S. R., Irmak, C., & Jayachandran, S. (2012). Choice of Cause in Cause-Related Marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, *76*(July), 126–139.

Rodrigue, C. S., & Biswas, A. (2004). Brand alliance dependency and exclusivity: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *13*(7), 477–487.

Roehm, M. L., & Tybout, A. M. (2006). When Will a Brand Scandal Spill Over, and How Should Competitors Respond? *Journal of Marketing Research*, *43*(3), 366–373.

Rogers, C. R. (1961). *On Becoming a person: A psychotherapists view of psychotherapy*. Houghton Mifflin.

Ruback, R. B., Pape, K. D., & Doriot, P. (1989). Waiting for a Phone: Intrusion on Callers Leads to Territorial Defense. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *52*(3), 232–241.

Ruback, R. B., & Juieng, D. (1997). Territorial Defense in Parking Lots: Retaliation Against Waiting Drivers. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *27*(9), 821–834.

Ryan, R. M. (1993). Agency and organization: Intrinsic motivation, autonomy, and the self in psychological development. In J. E. Jacobs (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation: Vol. 40. Developmental perspectives on motivation* (pp. 1–56). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

Ryan, R. M., & Brown, K. W. (2003). Why We Don't Need Self-Esteem: On Fundamental Needs, Contingent Love, and Mindfulness. *Psychological Inquiry*, *14*(1), 71–76.

Ryan, R. M., LaGuardia, J. G., & Rawsthorne, L. J. (2005). Self-complexity and the authenticity of self-aspects: effects on well being and resilience to stressful events. *North American Journal of Psychology*, *7*(3), 431–447.

Sack, R. D. (1983). Human Territoriality: A Theory. *Annals of the Association of American Geography*, *73*(1), 55–74.

Sartre, J. P. (1948). *Existentialism and Humanism*. London: Methuen and Co. Ltd.

Schmader, T., & Sedikides, C. (2018). State Authenticity as Fit to Environment: The Implications of Social Identity for Fit, Authenticity, and Self-Segregation. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *22*(3), 228–259.

Scholer, A. A., Zou, X., Fujita, K., Stroessner, S. J., & Higgins, E. T. (2010). When Risk Seeking Becomes a Motivational Necessity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *99*(2), 215–231.

Schwabe, M., Dose, D. B., & Walsh, G. (2018). Every Saint has a Past, and Every Sinner has a Future: Influences of Regulatory Focus on Consumers' Moral Self-Regulation. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *28*(2), 234–252.

Scully, M. (2015). The Problem of a Subjective Authenticity and the Articulation of Belonging among the Irish in England — A Psychosocial Approach. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *12*, 34–44.

Sedikides, C., Lenton, A. P., Slabu, L., & Thomaes, S. (2018). Sketching the Contours of State Authenticity. *Review of General Psychology*, 1–16.

Sedikides, C., Slabu, L., Lenton, A., & Thomaes, S. (2017). State Authenticity. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *26*(6), 521–525.

Shaffer, D. R., & Sadowski, C. (1975). This Table is Mine: Respect for Marked Barroom Tables as a Function of Gender or Spatial Marker and Desirability of Locale. *Sociometry*, *38*(3), 408–419.

Shah, J., Higgins, E. T., & Friedman, R. S. (1998). Performance Incentives and Means: How Regulatory Focus Influences Goal Attainment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*(2), 285–293.

Shalvi, S., Reijseger, G., Handgraaf, M. J. J., Appelt, K. C., ten Velden, F. S., Giacomantonio, M., & De Dreu, C. K. W. (2013). Pay to walk away: Prevention buyers prefer to avoid negotiation. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *38*, 40–49.

Sheldon, K. M., Ryan, R. M., Rawsthorne, L. J., & Ilardi, B. (1997). Trait Self and True Self: Cross-Role Variation in the Big Five Personality Traits and Its Relations with Psychological

Authenticity and Subjective Well-Being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *73*(6), 1380–1393.

Shmargad, Y. & Watts, J. K. M. (2016). When Online Visibility Deters Social Interaction: The Case of Digital Gifts. *Journal of Interactive Marketing,* 36, 1–14.

Simonin, B. L., & Ruth, J. A. (1998). Is a Company Known by the Company It Keeps? Assessing the Spillover Effects of Brand Alliances on Consumer Brand Attitudes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *35*(1), 30–42.

Smallenbroek, O., Zelenski, J. M., & Whelan, D. C. (2017). Authenticity as a eudaimonic construct: The relationships among authenticity, values, and valence. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *12*(2), 197–209.

Sobh, R., & Martin, B. (2008). Hoped-for Selves and Feared Selves: How Positive and Negative Reference Values in Self-Regulation Moderate Consumer Goal-Directed Efforts. *European Advances in Consumer Research*, 350–352.

Solomon, M. R. (2001). Realer than Real: Retail Hyperreality and the Encoding of "Authentic" Cultural Symbolism. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *28*, 397.

Sommer, R. (1969). *Personal Space: The Behavioral Basis of Design*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Stets, J. E., & Burke, P. J. (2014). Self-Esteem and Identities. *Sociological Perspectives*, *57*(4), 409–433.

Stryker, S., & Serpe, R. T. (1994). Identity Salience and Psychological Centrality: Equivalent, Overlapping, or Complementary Concepts? *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *57*(1), 16–35.

Sullivan, M. (1990). Measuring Image Spillovers in Umbrella-branded Products. *The Journal of Business*, *63*(3), 309–329.

Supphellen, M., & Troye, S. V. (2009). Effects of Consumer Co-Production on Perceived Authenticity of Consumption Experience and Input Product. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *36*, 654–655.

Swaminathan, V., Reddy, S. K., & Dommer, S. L. (2012). Spillover effects of ingredient branded strategies on brand choice: A field study. *Marketing Letters*, *23*(1), 237–251.

Taylor, C. (1991). *The Ethics of Authenticity* (1st ed.). Harvard University Press.

Taylor, R. B., & Brooks, D. K. (1980). Temporary Territories?: Responses to Intrusions in a Public Setting. *Population and Environment*, *3*(2), 135–145.

Theran, S. A. (n.d.). Authenticity with authority figures and peers : Girls ' friendships , self-esteem , and depressive symptomatology, *27*(4), 519–534.

Thøgersen, J., & Olander, F. (2002). Human values and the emergence of a sustainable consumption pattern: A panel study. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *23*(5), 605–630.

Thorbjørnsen, H., Dahlén, M., & Lee, Y. H. (2016). The Effect of New Product Preannouncements on the Evaluation of Other Brand Products. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, *33*(3), 342–355.

Thornton, S. (1996). *Club Cultures: Music, Media and Subcultural Capital*. Middletown, CT: Wesleyan University Press.

Troye, S. V., & Supphellen, M. (2012). Consumer Participation in Coproduction: "I Made It Myself" Effects on Consumers' Sensory Perceptions and Evaluations of Outcome and Input Product. *Journal of Marketing*, *76*(2), 33–46.

Trump, R. K., & Newman, K. P. (2017). When do unethical brand perceptions spill over to competitors? *Marketing Letters*, *28*(2), 219–230.

Truscott, J. C., Parmelee, P., & Werner, C. (1977). Plate Touching in Restaurants: Preliminary Observations of a Food-Related Marking Behavior in Humans. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *3*(3), 429–433.

Uhlmann, E. L., Zhu, L., Pizarro, D. A., & Bloom, P. (2012). Blood is thicker: Moral spillover effects based on kinship. *Cognition*, *124*(2), 239–243.

Vannini, P. (2006). The Changing Meanings of Authenticity: An Interpretive Biography of Professors' Work Experiences. In N. K. Denzin (Ed.), *Studies in Symbolic Interaction, Volume 29* (pp. 63–90). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Vannini, P., & Burgess, S. (2009). Authenticity as Motivation and Aesthetic Experience. In P. Vannini & J. P. Williams (Eds.), *Authenticity in Culture, Self, and Society* (1st ed.). London: Routledge.

Kernis, M. H., & Goldman, B. M. (2006). A Multicomponent Conceptualization of Authenticity: Theory and Research. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *38*, 283–357.

Vannini, P., & Williams, J. P. (2009). Framing Authenticity. In P. Vannini & J. P. Williams (Eds.), *Authenticity in Culture, Self, and Society* (1st ed., pp. 1–20). London: Routledge.

Veblen, T. (1899). *The Theory of the Leisure Class*. New York: Macmillan.

Venaglia, R. B., & Lemay Jr., E. P. (2017). Hedonic Benefits of Close and Distant Interaction Partners: The Mediating Roles of Social Approval and Authenticity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *43*(9), 1255–1267.

Vess, M. (2019). Varieties of Conscious Experience and the Subjective Awareness of One 's "True" Self. *Review of General Psychology*, *23*(1), 89–98.

Waller, J., & Lea, S. E. G. (1998). Seeking the Real Spain? Authenticity in Motivation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *25*(4), 110–129.

Wang, N. (1999). Rethinking Authenticity in Tourism Experience. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *26*(2), 349–370.

Wang, Y. N. (2015). Authenticity and Relationship Satisfaction: Two Distinct Ways of Directing Power to Self- Esteem. *PLoS ONE*, *10*(12), 1–12.

Wang, C.-Y., & Mattila, A. S. (2015). The Impact of Servicescape Cues on Consumer Prepurchase Authenticity Assessment and Patronage Intentions to Ethnic Restaurants. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *39*(3), 346–372.

Wang, J., & Wallendorf, M. (2006). Materialism, Status Signaling, and Product Satisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *34*(4), 494–505.

Wang, W., & Korschun, D. (2015). Spillover of social responsibility associations in a brand portfolio. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *24*(6), 596–609.

Waskul, D. D. (2009). The Importance of Insincerity and Inauthenticity for Self and Society: Why Honesty is Not the Best Policy. In P. Vannini & J. P. Williams (Eds.), *Authenticity in Culture, Self, and Society* (1st ed.). London: Routledge.

Watson, M., & Shove, E. (2008). Product, Competence, Project and Practice: DIY and the dynamics of craft consumption. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, *8*(1), 69–89.

Wayne, S. J., Lemmon, G., Hoobler, J. M., Cheung, G. W., & Wilson, M. S. (2017). The ripple effect: A spillover model of the detrimental impact of work-family conflict on job success. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *38*, 876–894.

Weigert, A. J. (2009). Self Authenticity as Master Motive. In P. Vannini & J. P. Williams (Eds.), *Authenticity in Culture, Self, and Society* (1st ed., pp. 37–50). London: Routledge.

Weninger, C., & Williams, J. P. (2017). The Interactional Construction of Social Authenticity: "Real" Identities and Intergroup Relations in a Transylvania Internet Forum. *Symbolic Interaction*, *40*(2), 169–189.

Wenzel, A. J., & Lucas-thompson, R. G. (2012). Authenticity in College-Aged Males and Females, How Close Others are Perceived, and Mental Health Outcomes. *Sex Roles*, *67*, 334–350.

Werner, C. M., Brown, B. B., & Damron, G. (1981). Territorial Marking in a Game Arcade. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *41*(6), 1094–1104.

Wessling, K. S., Huber, J., & Netzer, O. (2017). MTurk Character Misrepresentation: Assessment and Solutions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *44*(1), 211–230.

White, K., & Argo, J. J. (2009). Social identity threat and consumer preferences. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *19*(3), 313–325.

White, K., Argo, J. J., & Sengupta, J. (2012). Dissociative versus Associative Responses to Social Identity Threat: The Role of Consumer Self-Construal. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*(4), 704–719.

White, K., & Dahl, D. W. (2006). To Be or Not Be? The Influence of Dissociative Reference Groups on Consumer Preferences. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *16*(4), 404–414.

White, K., & Dahl, D. W. (2007). Are All Out-Groups Created Equal? Consumer Identity and Dissociative Influence. *European Advances in Consumer Research*, *8*, 459–460.

Widdicombe, S., & Wooffitt, R. (1990). "Being" Versus "Doing" Punk: On Achieving Authenticity as a Member. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *9*(4), 257–277.

Williams, J. P. (2006). Authentic Identities: Straightedge Subculture, Music, and the Internet." *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography, 35*, 173-200.

Winterheld, H. A., & Simpson, J. A. (2011). Seeking Security or Growth: A Regulatory Focus Perspective on Motivations in Romantic Relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *101*(5), 935–954.

Wise, J. M. (2000). Home: Territory and Identity. *Cultural Studies*, *14*(2), 295–310.

Wolf, M., & McQuitty, S. (2011). Understanding the do-it-yourself consumer: DIY motivations and outcomes. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, *1*(3/4), 154–170.

Wood, A. M., Linley, P. A., Maltby, J., Baliousis, M., & Joseph, S. (2008). The Authentic Personality: A Theoretical and Empirical Conceptualization and the Development of the Authenticity Scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *55*(3), 385–399.

Wortley, R., & McFarlane, M. (2011). The role of territoriality in crime prevention: A field experiment. *Security Journal*, *24*(2), 149–156.

Wu, L. (Laurie), Mattila, A. S., & Han, J. (Rachel). (2014). Territoriality revisited: Other customer's perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *38*, 48–56.

Xie, C., Bagozzi, R. P., & Troye, S. V. (2008). Trying to prosume: toward a theory of consumers as co-creators of value. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *36*(1), 109–122.

Xie, P. F. (2003). The Bamboo-beating Dance in Hainan, China: Authenticity and Commodification. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *11*(1), 5–16.

Yeoman, I., Durie, A., McMahon-Beattie, U., & Palmer, A. (2005). Capturing the essence of a brand from its history: The case of Scottish tourism marketing. *Journal of Brand Management*, *13*(2), 134–147.

Zhang, J.-Y., Nie, M., Yan, B.-S., & Wang, X.-D. (2014). Effect of Network Embeddedness on Brand-Related Behavior Intentions: Mediating Effects of Psychological Ownership. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *42*(5), 721–730.

Zhang, S., Cornwell, J. F. M., & Higgins, E. T. (2014). Repeating the Past: Prevention Focus Motivates Repetition, Even for Unethical Decisions. *Psychological Science*, *1*(25), 179–187.

Zhang, S., Higgins, E. T., & Chen, G. (2011). Managing Others Like You Were Managed: How Prevention Focus Motivates Copying Interpersonal Norms. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *100*(4), 647–663.

Zheng, X., Baskin, E., & Peng, S. (2018). The spillover effect of incidental social comparison on materialistic pursuits: The mediating role of envy. *European Journal of Marketing*, *52*(5/6), 1107–1127.

Zhu, R. (Juliet), & Meyers-Levy, J. (2007). Exploring the Cognitive Mechanism that Underlies Regulatory Focus Effects. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *34*, 89–96.

Zou, P., & Li, G. (2016). How emerging market investors' value competitors' customer equity: Brand crisis spillover in China. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(9), 3765–3771.

Zou, X., Scholer, A. A., & Higgins, E. T. (2014). In pursuit of progress: Promotion motivation and risk preference in the domain of gains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *106*(2), 183–201.