



Review of Marketing Research

Consumer Experience and Experiential Marketing: A Critical Review
Bernd Schmitt, , Lia Zarantonello,

Article information:

To cite this document: Bernd Schmitt, , Lia Zarantonello, "Consumer Experience and Experiential Marketing: A Critical Review" *In* Review of Marketing Research. Published online: 09 Mar 2015; 25-61.

Permanent link to this document:

[https://doi.org/10.1108/S1548-6435\(2013\)0000010006](https://doi.org/10.1108/S1548-6435(2013)0000010006)

Downloaded on: 11 September 2017, At: 12:03 (PT)

References: this document contains references to 158 other documents.

To copy this document: permissions@emeraldinsight.com

The fulltext of this document has been downloaded 5126 times since 2015*

Users who downloaded this article also downloaded:

(2010),"Customer experience management: a critical review of an emerging idea", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 24 Iss 3 pp. 196-208 https://doi.org/10.1108/08876041011040604

(2012),"Customer experience modeling: from customer experience to service design", *Journal of Service Management*, Vol. 23 Iss 3 pp. 362-376 https://doi.org/10.1108/09564231211248453

Access to this document was granted through an Emerald subscription provided by emerald-srm:296033 []

For Authors

If you would like to write for this, or any other Emerald publication, then please use our Emerald for Authors service information about how to choose which publication to write for and submission guidelines are available for all. Please visit www.emeraldinsight.com/authors for more information.

About Emerald www.emeraldinsight.com

Emerald is a global publisher linking research and practice to the benefit of society. The company manages a portfolio of more than 290 journals and over 2,350 books and book series volumes, as well as providing an extensive range of online products and additional customer resources and services.

Emerald is both COUNTER 4 and TRANSFER compliant. The organization is a partner of the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE) and also works with Portico and the LOCKSS initiative for digital archive preservation.

*Related content and download information correct at time of download.

CONSUMER EXPERIENCE AND EXPERIENTIAL MARKETING: A CRITICAL REVIEW

Bernd Schmitt and
Lia Zarantonello

ABSTRACT

Purpose – This chapter provides a critical review of the emerging field of consumer experience and experiential marketing.

Design/methodology/approach – We review definitions, perspectives, and key research areas on the topics of consumer experience, product and service experiences, off-line and online experiences, as well as consumption and brand experiences. We report empirical findings, seminal studies, and insight into the experience process (e.g., how consumers process experiential attributes, how they process experiences over time, and whether positive and negative experiences can co-occur). We present research on experiential dimensions, experiential themes, and the nature of extraordinary experiences.

Value/originality – The chapter provides value by discussing the key measurement and marketing management issues of experiential

marketing and discusses the original issue whether it is rational for consumers to include experiences in their decision making.

Keywords: Experience marketing; customer experience management; brand equity; branding

EXPERIENCE

Introduction

Understanding consumers and their consumption experiences with products and services, with brands, both in retail and online environments, is one of the core tasks of marketing. However, experience, as a concept and empirical phenomenon, is not as well-established as other constructs and phenomena in the areas of consumer behavior and marketing such as consumer choice, attitudes, satisfaction, or brand equity. Although we have learned a lot about this new and exciting topic, judging by the number of articles published over the last two decades, marketing research on experience is still relatively underdeveloped.

Understanding consumer experiences is not only of interest to academics. Marketing practitioners, too, have come to realize that insights into how consumers experience products and their brands and, in turn, how marketers can provide appealing experiences for their customers, is critical for positioning and differentiating their offerings in the competitive environment. This thinking has led to the creation of a new marketing management area, which is commonly referred to as “experiential marketing” (Schmitt, 1999).

One of the key ideas of experiential marketing is that value does not only reside in the objects of purchase (products and services), and their utilitarian and functional benefits. Value also lies in the hedonic and experiential elements surrounding the product and service, and in the experience of consumption itself. Companies such as Apple and Samsung exemplify experiential marketing approach in consumer electronics; the New Beetle and the Mini brands in the automotive business; and Abercrombie & Fitch in mass apparel (among many others) (Schmitt, 2003). Accordingly, researchers and practitioners have distinguished between utilitarian (or functional) and hedonic (or experiential) value (Gentile, Spiller, & Noci, 2007).

In an influential book, titled *The Experience Economy*, Pine and Gilmore (1999) have argued that experiential value has been gradually increasing over time. At a societal level, economic value progressed through three stages. The earliest stage, the commodity economy, was concerned with the extraction of substances from the world around us. Next, starting with the Industrial Revolution in the nineteenth century came the manufacturing economy, where the primary economic offering was the making of products. The manufacturing economy did not replace the commodity economy entirely, but added an additional economic offering. In the twentieth century followed the service economy, where the offerings of highest value were the delivery of intangible services. Now, in the twenty-first century, many developed societies are entering the experience economy, where the highest-value economic offerings are experiences. In the experience economy, businesses stage memorable experiences for customers, which are entertaining and educational rather than functional and utilitarian in nature.

It is questionable whether many societies, even the most developed ones, have entered the experience-economy stage. In most economies, products and services still contribute the bulk of the economic value. Rather than entering a new economic stage, it may be more appropriate to view what is happening in today's economies and markets as a new way of marketing products and services, and perhaps even commodities such as salt, pepper, or produce, as the food retailer Whole Foods does. The experiential value would then not exist in the commodities, products, or services per se, but in the marketing of these items.

In this review, we first define the concept of experience. We then discuss five research areas on experience in marketing and the key research issues, followed by measurement and marketing management issues. We conclude with a discussion on whether it is rational for consumers to include experiences as part of making decisions in marketing contexts. The present review relies, in part, on another review of the experience literature published recently (Schmitt, 2010); however, this review also extends the coverage of the experience literature and in identifying future research issues.

Defining Experience

The term "experience" has been defined in multiple ways. Broadly speaking, these definitions may be categorized broadly as falling into two distinct, yet

related categories. The first usage of the term refers to ongoing perceptions, feelings, and direct observations. Webster's Third New International Dictionary defines experience in that vein as "direct observation of or participation in events: an encountering, undergoing, or living through things in general as they take place in the course of time." The second definition refers to the past, referring to knowledge and accumulated experiences over time – or, as the Webster's Third New International Dictionary states, to "knowledge, skill, or practice derived from direct observation of or participation in events: practical wisdom resulting from what one has encountered, undergone, or lived."

The business and marketing vocabulary reflects these two distinct meanings. Some of the experience terms in business and marketing refer to experience in the sense of direct observation (e.g., "experience goods"); others refer to accumulated knowledge (e.g., "experience curve"). Moreover, while in English and in many Romanic language (French, Spanish, and Italian) the same word refers to both meanings, other languages have two separate lexicalized items – for example, *Erfahrung* and *Erlebnis* (in German); or *keiken* and *taiken* (in Japanese).

It is also instructive to look at the different meanings that experience has in various disciplines and scientific field (Carù & Cova, 2003). In the philosophy of science and in science itself, experience is seen as objective and closely associated with experimentation. Experiments are based on objective facts and data that can be generalized. In fact, science contrasts the notion of experience through experimentation with the common experience of the individual ("folk psychology"). In philosophy, in contrast, an experience is seen as subjective. For Danish philosopher Søren Kierkegaard (2009 [1849]) subjectivity is the unique relation that a person has with the outside, objective world. Subjectivity includes the consciousness of a self which has a past, a present, and a future. For Kierkegaard not only objective matters have truth; phenomenologically, subjective experience also has truth for an individual. Because experience is subjective, it is singular knowledge (of a given individual) and not universal knowledge (outside the individual). In sociology and psychology, an experience is a cognitive and affective process and activity. It is a means to construct reality and represent it. Sociology and some European social psychologists view this process of construction and representation as a social and societal one – that is, as "social representations" (Moscovici, 1988). For most American psychologists, in contrast, this process is part of an individual self and its history (Richardson, 1999). Finally, the concept of experience in anthropology and ethnology refers to the way in which individuals live their lives as part of

a culture (Throop, 2003; Turner & Bruner, 2004). Experience is group-based and tied to traditions and rituals. Because experiences are culture-bound, researchers must interpret experiences by anchoring them within their informants' cultural context (Thompson, Locander, & Pollio, 1989).

These disciplinary perspectives have influenced how marketers conceptualize experiences. Some of the research focuses on how experiences result from direct observation and participation (e.g., experiences of products and services, or shopping environments) and identifies feelings and cognitions in the here-and-now. Other research focuses on the past – memories of past experiences and the knowledge and learning from them. Some researchers assume that experiences are directly accessible and can be studied objectively through experimentation. Other researchers view experiences as subjective and as needing to be interpreted, in the subjective world of the individual consumer or as part of a community, society, or culture.

Next, we present and review the major research areas on experience and subsequently findings related to key research issues.

Marketing Research Areas on Experience

Research areas on experience include the following: consumer, product and service, off-line and online, consumption, and brand experiences. As we will see, the concept of consumer experience is relatively general, providing broad-based frameworks and orientations on how to think about experience. In comparison, product and service experiences focus on specific experiential targets, and off-line and online experiences refer to specific consumer activities during which experiences arise. Research on the consumption experience and on the brand experience, again, provides a more general level of analysis, abstracting from individual target elements and activities to examine experiences across consumer touchpoints.

Consumer Experience

The broadest and most general research area on experience in marketing is consumer experience (Arnould, Price, & Zinkhan, 2002). Rather than focusing on analyzing marketing elements (product or service) or activities (in-store or online shopping or browsing), or creating specific findings on the nature, dimensions, or the consumption process of experience, this research has created general frameworks and categorizations of experience and the experience process.

For example, in an influential paper Arnould et al. (2002) have identified and conceptualized as phases all the possible interactions with marketing objects that can result in experiences. These so-called “consumption interactions” have been categorized and labeled as follows: (1) *anticipated consumption*, which includes searching, planning for future purchases, daydreaming, budgeting, fantasizing; (2) *purchase experience*, which refers to choice, payment, bundling product, service encounter, and atmospherics; (3) *consumption experiences*, which regards sensory experiences, satiation, satisfaction/dissatisfaction, arousal/flow, and transformation; and (4) *remembered consumption* which is related to reliving past experiences, often in nostalgic ways by telling stories, comparing old and new times, talking with friends of days gone by, playing “what if,” daydreaming, sorting through memorabilia and other mementos. Traditionally, marketing scholars have concentrated on the first two phases of consumer experience – anticipated consumption and purchase experience. However, over the last two decades, interest in interactions on how consumers use and remember the products that they purchased has increased.

The term “consumer experience” (or rather “customer experience”) has also been used widely in managerial writings to refer generally to commercial and marketing-related experiences (Schmitt, 1999, 2003). Whereas in the case of consumer experiences the focus is the consumer, and how he or she senses, perceives, and evaluates marketing activities, for customer experiences the focus is the company and how it can create experiences for its customers using different techniques and tools. The origins of this research stream can be traced back to an article by Carbone and Haeckel (1994) titled “Engineering Customer Experiences.” They viewed customer experience as “the ‘take-away’ impression formed by people’s encounters with products, services and businesses – a perception produced when humans consolidate sensory information” (Carbone & Haeckel, 1994, p. 1). Later publications falling into this tradition proposed classifications of elements (or “cues”) that can be used to create satisfactory customer experiences, as well as practical frameworks to manage experiences (Carbone, 2004; Chattopadhyay & Laborie, 2005; Goodman, 2009; Schmitt, 2003; Shaw, 2007; Shaw, Dibeichi, & Walden, 2010; Smith & Wheeler, 2002).

Product and Service Experience

Product experience refers to the interaction between the consumer and the product, either before or after purchase. The focus of the research is on how consumers perceive and process product attributes in verbal, visual, and

multisensory form, as well as how they form product judgments, attitudes, preferences, purchase intent, and recall based on these stimuli.

Product experiences can be direct or indirect. Direct experiences result from a physical interaction between the consumer and the product. Indirect experiences, on the other hand, result from a mediated interaction between the two subjects, for example, when consumers are exposed to products via advertising (Hoch & Ha, 1986; Kempf & Smith, 1998). Over the last few years, research has been done on virtual product experiences as well – in this case, the mediation occurs through technologies (Daugherty, Li, & Biocca, 2008). Scholars working within this research stream are interested in understanding how product design, aesthetics, and technology influence consumers' perceptions, processing, evaluations, and behaviors (Honea & Horsky, 2012).

Because products are often accompanied by services, and because services are also sold on their own, the service experience has emerged as another key concept that is used widely in the marketing literature. Service experience refers to the interaction between the company and the consumer when a service is provided to the consumer. According to Helkkula (2011), service experiences have been analyzed in the service marketing literature according to three perspectives: (1) a phenomenological perspective (which addresses the value provided by the service experience); (2) a process-based perspective (which relates to understanding the service experience as a sequential process); and (3) an outcome-based service-experience perspective (which relates to understanding the service experience as one critical element in models linking a number of service variables or attributes to marketing outcomes).

Off-Line and Online Experiences

Experiences may occur online (e.g., “online shopping” or “browsing” experiences) or off-line (e.g., in retail stores). The latter have been studied for decades. Research on off-line experiences is associated primarily with the retailing literature, referring to the consumer's experience in shopping environments such as stores, boutiques, supermarkets, or mega-markets. Studies on off-line shopping experience investigate, for example, how environmental variables, such as music, lighting, scents, and so on, influence consumer perception, attitudes, and behavior inside the store. This stream of research stems from a well-known article by Kotler (1973), where he advanced the idea that “one of the most significant features of the total product is the place where it is bought or consumed” (p. 48). Kotler argued further that “in some cases, the place, more specifically the atmosphere of

the place, is more influential than the product itself on the product decision. In some cases, the atmosphere is the primary product” (p. 48).

Following Kotler (1973), research has focused on the shopping environment, for example, “atmospherics” (Babin & Attaway, 2000; Bitner, 1992; Turley & Milliman, 2000) as well as service, assortment, and merchandising (Bäckström & Johansson, 2006; Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon, 2002; Spies, Hesse, & Loesch, 1997). Verhoef et al. (2009) identified a wide range of future research issues related to experiential aspects in sales environments. Other contributions focused on different types of environmental variables (for a review, see Turley & Milliman, 2000). The most influential model used in literature to interpret the shopping experience – the so-called “PAD model” – originated in social psychology (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). According to the “PAD” model, environmental stimuli generate affective states (i.e., Pleasure, Arousal, Dominance) which, in turn, generate approach or avoidance types of behavior.

In today’s digital world, there is an emerging range of new media that create new consumer experiences before and after purchase (referred to as “online” experiences). Understanding online experiences and the interactions with, and consumption of, these media is of critical importance. For example, an influential paper on online experiences has addressed the question, What makes a Web site an attractive experience for users? Novak, Hoffman, and Yung (2000) used a structural modeling approach to measure the customer experience in online environments. At the center of their model is the “flow” construct (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). They conceptualize flow as a cognitive state experienced during internet navigation where the consumer is entirely immersed in the activity and tunes out any thoughts not relevant to navigation. Flow is also characterized by a high level of skill and control; a high level of challenge and arousal; and can be enhanced by interactivity. Browsers lose their sense of time and self-consciousness, and they experience flow as a gratifying and rewarding state. The empirical model that the authors constructed and validated in a Web-based consumer survey provided additional insight into direct and indirect influences of flow. For example, based on the result that challenge was positively related to focused attention (the more the Web provided a challenge and stretched a user’s capabilities, the more deeply engrossed and fully concentrated the user became), the authors recommended that Web site designs provide some challenges to get people excited so that they stay logged on, but not so many challenges that consumers become frustrated navigating through the site. They also showed empirical relationships to online shopping. Easy ordering, easy contact, easy cancellations, easy payment, easy returns, quick delivery,

and, above all, customer support, emerged as key criteria of a compelling online shopping experience.

Mathwick and Rigdon (2004) have further illuminated the online flow experience. Similar to Novak et al. (2000), they found that three factors affect the quality of the experience: navigational challenge, skills to deal with them, and the consumer's perceived control. They also showed that flow is a critical link to transform an ordinary online information search into what they call "play," a highly positive experience that provides experiential value to the consumer.

Consumer culture researchers have also examined new online platforms and created new methodologies such as online ethnography (referred to as "netnography") to study these platforms (Kozinets, 2002). New online platforms studied include online brand communities, video sites such as YouTube, and virtual worlds such as Second World. Research has explored how consumers use these sites to relate to, reinforce, contribute to, and shape contemporary consumer culture.

Darmody and Kedzior (2009) have identified four pertinent themes based on the existing literature. First, online environments present a stage for identity construction and identity play where consumers use brands to represent their own selves online (Schau & Gilly, 2003). Second, experiences online are often tied to non-physical consumption and virtual products and services, leading to a growing dematerialization of objects and commodities (Slater, 1997). Third, relationships among consumers are growing, facilitated by the fast increase of user-generated content; as consumers interact in their own networks, their relationship to brands changes (Cova & Pace, 2006; Muniz & O'Guinn, 2001). Finally, the social landscape of consumers is changing as a result of social networking sites and the intersection of off-line and online reality; this changes consumer self-presentations, impression management, friendship formation, and relationship management.

Extending beyond the internet, another new consumer practice is the consumption of reality television. Rose and Wood (2005) have used reality television as a way to study consumers' quest for the experience of authenticity. Authenticity has been presented as a frequently desired experience given the prevalence of inauthenticity – the sense of meaninglessness and superficiality in modern society (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). Rose and Wood (2005) show, using the reality television context, that consumers must negotiate and reconcile paradoxes of identification (beautiful people vs. "people like me"), situation (common goals vs. uncommon surroundings), and production (unscripted vs. necessary

manipulation) to arrive at an experience of authenticity. The programming itself does not lead to authenticity; rather, it creates “utopian places where the viewer can engage in creative play space” (p. 295). This leads to the important insight that experiences and experiential value can be, at times, extremely subjective and constructed when consumers “accept as authentic the fantasy that they coproduce” (p. 295).

Consumption Experience

The concept of consumption experience is broader than the product and service, or off-line and online experience. It has been defined as “an emergent property that results from a complex system of mutually overlapping interrelationships in constant reciprocal interaction with personal, environmental, and situational inputs” (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986, p. 220). The literature has focused primarily on the emotional (or “hedonic”) aspects of consumption.

The concept of experiential consumption was introduced in an influential paper titled “The Experiential Aspects of Consumption: Consumer Fantasies, Feelings, and Fun,” published in 1982. It was a transformative paper, which arguably launched the entire academic research stream on experience. Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) positioned their research against the “hegemony” of the information-processing perspective in consumer research. The authors wrote, “by focusing single mindedly on the consumer as information processor, recent consumer research has tended to neglect the equally important experiential aspects of consumption, thereby limiting our understanding of consumer behavior. Future research should work toward redressing this imbalance by broadening our area of study to include some consideration of consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun” (p. 139).

Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun included, in the authors’ view, playful leisure activities, sensory pleasures, daydreams, aesthetic enjoyment, and a full range of emotions (such as love, hate, fear, joy, boredom, anxiety, pride, anger, lust, and guilt). In contrast to the information-processing perspective, which stresses product attributes, utilitarian functions, and conscious verbal thought processes, Holbrook and Hirschman’s experiential view emphasized the symbolic meanings, subconscious processes, and nonverbal cues resulting from consumption.

Among the models of consumption experiences developed further by the two authors over the years (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1986; Holbrook, 1986), the so-called “TEAV” (Thoughts, Emotions, Activities, Values) model is the

most complete. Based on this model, the interaction between the environment (information) and the person (motivation) generates, and is generated by, consumption processes including consumer's Thoughts (i.e., mental activity), Emotions (i.e., "responding," "interpreting," "expressing," and "feeling"), Activities (i.e., actions and reactions), and Values (i.e., economic, social, hedonic, and deontological).

Brand Experience

Research on brand experience is relatively recent, resulting, in part, from the emphasis on branding and brand management in the marketing field since the mid-1990s. Like consumption experience, brand experience is a broad concept including many subcomponents. Accordingly, brand experience has been defined as "subjective, internal consumer responses (sensations, feelings, and cognitions) and behavioral responses evoked by brand-related stimuli that are part of a brand's design and identity, packaging, communications, and environments" (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009, p. 53). Brand experiences result from all sorts of consumer interactions with a brand at various touchpoints. The construct therefore relates to the summary impression of the brand as a whole, and not only its subcomponents.

Brand experience is, in part, related to but also conceptually distinct from, other constructs in the branding and consumer behavior literatures. Specifically, as Brakus et al. (2009) have argued, the brand-experience construct differs from evaluative, affective, and associative constructs such as attitudes, involvement, attachment, and brand associations.

Attitudes are general positive or negative evaluations based on beliefs or automatic, nonconscious affective reactions (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Murphy & Zajonc, 1993). Brand experiences, in contrast, are not just general evaluative judgments about the product or brand (e.g., "I like this product," "I like this brand"); they include specific sensations, feelings, cognitions, and behavioral responses triggered by specific stimuli in the consumer's environment. At times, these specific experiences may result in general evaluations and attitudes, for example, of the experience itself (e.g., "I like the experience"). Yet, the overall attitude toward the experience captures only part of the entire experience.

Brand experience also differs from involvement, brand attachment, or customer delight. These constructs are motivational and affective in nature; they are based on needs, values, and interests that motivate a consumer toward an object. Antecedents of involvement include the perceived importance and personal relevance of a brand (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Brand experience does not necessarily include a motivational state. Experiences can

even happen when consumers do not show interest in, or have a personal connection with, the brand. Moreover, brands with which consumers are highly involved are not necessarily those brands that trigger the strongest experiences. Brand experience also differs from brand attachment, defined as a strong emotional bonds between a consumer and a brand (Park & MacInnis, 2006; Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005). Unlike brand attachment, experience is not an emotional relationship concept. Most experiences include ordinary sensations, feelings, cognitions, and behavioral responses evoked by brand-related stimuli. Over time, brand experiences may result in emotional bonds, but emotions are only one internal outcome of the stimulation that evokes experiences. In contrast to customer delight (Oliver, Rust, & Varki, 1997), experiences do not have to disconfirm expectations and be surprising; they may be expected or unexpected.

Finally, brand experiences are distinct from brand image (Keller, 1993). Consumers associate brands with benefits, products, people, places, and many other objects as part of an associative network (Keller, 2003). For example, they may associate a brand with traits and human characteristics (such as “warm” or “competent”) or evaluate the brand along brand personality dimensions of sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, or ruggedness (Aaker, 1997; Aaker, Vohs, & Mogilner, 2010). When consumers engage in these processes, they infer something about the brand (Johar, Sengupta, & Aaker, 2005). They do not *feel* sincere or excited about the brand; they merely project traits and other characteristics onto the brand. A brand may contribute to consumer knowledge and meaning, but may or may not create an experience (Berry, 1999). Brand experiences are therefore not just associations. Brand experiences are dynamic sensations, feelings, cognitions, and behavioral responses. Like brand associations, they may be stored in consumer memory. Most likely, experiences are stored not only semantically, but episodically, thus preserving a trace, for example, of the sensations and emotions that made up the experience with the brand.

Critical Summary and Future Research

While prior research on experience in marketing has provided some frameworks and insights in each of the five areas, there has been little integration of findings. Instead, each area has been associated with different research traditions (e.g., the retail, service, or brand literatures) as well as frameworks and methodologies. As a result, experience issues have been researched rather narrowly within each area. In the future, it will be important to conceptually link findings and to identify general principles that are common to all experiences in commercial contexts, thus

generalizing from findings in specific domains such as retailing or online, or brand and consumption experiences to overarching principles of experience.

One particularly fruitful area of research for years to come will be online and, more broadly speaking, digital experiences on mobile devices and social-media platforms. The increased integration of consumer impressions and experiences will pose methodological challenges in terms of how such experiences can be appropriately represented in lab or field experiments, or with quantitative modeling methodologies. It also remains to be seen how new methods for investigating “big data” – such as text and, in the future, visual mining can add to the experience literature.

Next, we review core research issues on experience. We first discuss process issues (how consumers process experiential attributes, how they process experiences over time, and whether positive and negative experiences can co-occur). Afterwards, we review research on experience dimensions, experiential themes, and what research has revealed about extraordinary and transcendent experiences.

Experience Process Issues

The Processing of Experiential Attributes

We know a lot about how consumers process functional attributes. Research has shown that people process functional attributes and benefits deliberately, step-by-step, goal-directed, reason-based, and that they engage in trade-offs among these attributes (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Brown & Carpenter, 2000; Chernev, 2001; Fischer, Carmon, Ariely, & Zauberaman, 1999; Shafir, Simonson, & Tversky, 1993; Simonson, 1989). But how do consumers process experiential attributes – colors, shapes, emoticons, and imagery-rich words, which appear in logos, in ads, and in online communications? Do they process them like functional attributes, or differently? And how do these experiential attributes create value, relative to functional attributes?

Brakus, Schmitt, and Zhang (2008) examined how consumers process experiential attributes and how these attributes create value in consumer decision making. Using computer diskettes, they showed four choice situations to consumers: (1) a control condition where the decision was between two functional disks; (2) one where the decision included a decision between a purely functional disk with superior function and a disk that was functionally inferior but had a sensory experiential attribute (a nice translucent green instead of the standard black); (3) one where the decision

included a functionally superior disk and a functionally inferior but affectively experiential disk (with a smiley face on the diskette); and (4) a situation where the two diskettes were functionally identical, but one had the green color and the other the smiley. In addition, they also varied so-called “contextual cues” through a banner advertisement.

As expected, consumers engaged in deliberate, analytical, comparison-like processing for the functional attributes in the control condition. In contrast, in the conditions where an experiential attribute was present, consumers also sometimes engaged in deliberate processing, just as they did for functional attributes; however, they often also circumvented deliberate processing by responding in an immediate way to the stimulus. The authors proposed that for experiential attributes, consumers engaged in “fluent processing” (Winkielman, Schwarz, Fazendeiro, & Reber, 2003).

Fluent processes are fast. They are involved, for example, in spontaneous visual categorization and discrimination (Grunert, 1996; Schneider & Shiffrin, 1977; Tulving & Schacter, 1990). Fluent processes also occur when people engage in simple congruency matching tasks (Kelley & Jacoby, 1998; Roediger, 1990), for example, when individuals discriminate one stimulus type from another (e.g., color from shape) or when they distinguish one stimulus category from another (e.g., visually presented experiential stimuli from textually presented functional information) (Edell & Staelin, 1983; Houston, Childers, & Heckler, 1987; Shepard, 1967). Fluent processing of stimuli results in more positive judgments for a variety of stimuli (Schwarz, 2004; Winkielman et al., 2003). To test the fluency hypothesis directly, Brakus, Schmitt, and Zhang (2013) conducted an experiment where they presented functional and experiential stimuli for different durations. Confirming the fluency hypothesis, presentation duration did not affect the processing of experiential attributes but did affect the processing of functional attributes.

In sum, whereas functional attributes are always processed deliberately, consumers show flexibility in processing experiential attributes: at times they process experiential attributes deliberately; at other times, they process these attributes fluently. It turns out that there are two factors that determine how experiential attributes are processed. The first factor relates to the set of alternatives – specifically the nature of the functional attributes that are part of the product description: whether they are diagnostic or not (Shafir et al., 1993; Simonson, 1989). The second factor relates to the judgment context (the environment in which the judgment takes place) – specifically the type of contextual cues that can prime experiential attributes: whether they are of a matching or non-matching stimulus type.

How Do Consumers Process Experiences Over Time?

Some experiences only last for a brief moment. However, more frequently, experiences extend over time. How do consumers process and evaluate such extended experiences?

Presenting so-called “experience profiles” that show experiences over time to consumers, researchers have found that when consumers process these profiles they do not simply average or combine the experiences in the entire sequence – for example, by following a discounted utility model. Rather, when consumers summarize and evaluate these experiences in memory, they extract certain defining or salient features – or gestalt characteristics – of these sequences.

Specifically, overall evaluations seem to be most strongly influenced by momentary experiences at the most intense (i.e., peak) moments and final moments (Ariely & Carmon, 2000; Fredrickson & Kahneman, 1993; Varey & Kahneman, 1992). Moreover, individuals also greatly care about improvements or deteriorations over time.

Do individuals prefer experiences that unfold over set time intervals to be interrupted or to be continuous? Nelson and Meyvis (2008) ask you to imagine undergoing a painful physical therapy session or enjoying a relaxing massage. They also ask you to imagine, whether you would rather like to break up the therapy session and, if you did, whether the break would make the session more painful or less painful. And they ask you to imagine the same for the pleasant experience of the massage.

If you are like the participants in their six studies, you will indicate, before you have the experience, to break it up if it is a negative experience but to keep a positive experience intact. But you are fooling yourself because, as Nelson and Meyvis (2008) also found that inserting a break into a negative experience makes it worse and taking a break in a positive experience makes it better. This effect seems to occur because breaks disrupt adaptation and intensify the experience following the break. That’s great for positive experiences but not good for negative experiences.

Moreover, unexpected memory-driven effects have been reported for variety seeking of experiences as well. Traditional variety seeking models assume that individuals choose, each day, the experience that provides the most pleasure. However, Ratner, Kahn, and Kahneman (1999) showed that consumers switch away from a favorite experience even if they get less pleasure from the switch than they would from a stay. The reason for their effect seems to be that individuals favor building memories of variety sequences. Take the example of a vacation. A person may anticipate that the pleasure from the overall vacation, when looking back, may be greater if there is some variety.

Can Positive and Negative Experiences Co-Occur?

Affect and emotions are considered to be important experiences that guide consumer decision making (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999). Positive experiences are those that make people feel good, and they usually result in a specific positive emotion (joy, pride, happiness); on the other hand, negative experiences are usually associated with negative emotions (frustration, anger, fear) (Richins, 1997).

Marketing and consumer research have overwhelmingly focused on consumers' positive experiences and emotions: how to elicit them and their outcomes. The concepts of brand attachment (Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010; Thomson et al., 2005), and brand love (Albert, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2008; Batra, Ahuvia, & Bagozzi, 2012; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006) are examples. Interestingly, other fields, such as philosophy, have discussed negative experiences and emotions in abundance (see, e.g., Kierkegaard's discussion of existential negative emotions such as anxiety and despair in his *Sickness unto Death* published in 1849). However, there has been some research on negative consumer emotions as well. D'Astous (2000) investigated negative shopping experiences and identified the environmental elements that irritate consumers and negatively impact on their experience within the store. With regards to brands, Romani, Grappi, and Dalli (2012) investigated the negative emotions that consumers experience toward brands.

Besides examining positive or negative experiences and the resulting emotions, a key question is whether positive and negative experiences can co-occur? A fundamental principle from behaviorism holds that people pursue pleasure and avoid pain. But how can this hedonistic assumption be reconciled with the obvious enjoyment of certain experiences that elicit negative feelings of fear, disgust, and terror – such as horror movies? Can individuals experience negative and positive affect at the same time?

In several experiments, Andrade and Cohen (2007) have shown that individuals can indeed co-activate negative and positive affect. This happens when individuals are in a so-called “protective frame” – they detach themselves from the danger that seems to be present, and are confident they can handle it or understand that the situation poses no real danger. Although the authors empirically limited themselves to horror movies, they argue that their findings are relevant as well for all experiences that encompass fearfulness (e.g., some of the extreme sports and other extraordinary experiences discussed earlier).

Feeling both good and bad at the same time also seems to be quite common in indulgent experiences. When we buy a luxury good, or indulge in a creamy,

high-calorie dessert, or waste time doing nothing, we may feel good but also experience feelings of stress, guilt, and regret at the same time. In a food consumption context, Ramanathan and Williams (2007) gave students an indulgent cookie and showed that the emotions that the college students experienced were quite complex. While both impulsive and prudent people experience ambivalent emotions (both positive and negative emotions at the same time), they were ambivalent for different reasons: impulsive people are ambivalent because of the presence of these already existing conflicting emotions but prudent people are ambivalent because of the emotions and negative self-conscious emotions. Also, while both impulsive and prudent people experience less ambivalence after a delay, impulsive people experience a sharp decline of the negative emotions but prudent people experience a drop of the positive emotions. This in turn affects the propensity to indulge again: impulsive people seem to be resigned to such ambivalence happening again (after having indulged in a cookie, they still choose potato chips) but prudent people want to launder their negative emotions (after a cookie they choose a notebook rather than potato chips).

Critical Summary and Future Research

As other processing research in consumer behavior and marketing, research on the experience process is extremely detailed, highly stylized, and distinctly psychological in nature. It is high on internal validity, but, in our view, it has low external and ecological validity. It provides little guidance for marketing practitioners. Practitioners are concerned about content and solutions (the *what* of experience) rather than process and causation (the *how* of experience). Understanding processes is, no doubt, important because it provides causal links and explanations of why experience effects occur; in turn, changing the process may result in different outcomes. However, in future research, the stimuli and settings used in such research should more closely model a relevant marketing context. A good example of how academic research on experience in marketing could achieve this goal can be found in the multidisciplinary structural and content-driven research focused on the dimensionality of experiences, on experiential themes, and on extraordinary experiences, which we discuss next.

Experiential Dimensions, Themes, and Extraordinary Experiences

Research on structural and content issues has addressed the following questions: first, what are the key experience dimensions that can be isolated

across multiple stimuli? Second, what are the most important and recurring themes used in experiential marketing? Finally, how can we best characterize extraordinary product and service purchases and consumption experiences (such as once-in-a-lifetime experiences, meditation and yoga, or extreme leisure and sports activities)?

Experiential Dimensions

American philosopher John Dewey, belonging to the philosophical tradition of pragmatism, argued that knowledge (classifying, analyzing, and reasoning) is only one part of an individual's experience with the world (Dewey, 1925). In addition to intellectual experiences, resulting from knowledge, individuals also have experiences tied to sensory perceptions, feelings, and actions. Pinker (1997) has distinguished similar "modules of the mind." Dewey's and Pinker's ideas have led marketers to propose that there are different types of experiences that can be empirically distinguished and measured.

In his managerial writings, Schmitt (1999) presented five types of experiential marketing approaches, referred to as "strategic experiential modules": "sense," "feel," "think," "act," and "relate." According to Schmitt, "sense marketing" appeals to consumers' senses (sight, sound, touch, taste, and smell). "Feel marketing" appeals to customers' inner feelings and emotions, ranging from mildly positive moods linked to a brand (e.g., for a noninvolving, nondurable grocery brand or service or industrial product) to strong emotions of joy and pride (e.g., for a consumer durable, technology, or social marketing campaign). "Think marketing" appeals to the intellect in order to deliver cognitive, problem-solving experiences that engage customers creatively. "Act marketing" targets physical behaviors, lifestyles, and interactions. Finally, "relate marketing" creates experiences taking into account individuals' desire to be part of a social context (e.g., to their self-esteem, being part of a subculture, or a brand community). Dubé and LeBel (2003) have distinguished four "pleasure dimensions" – emotional, intellectual, physical, and social pleasures. Dubé and LeBel's (2003) pleasure dimensions map closely to four of Schmitt's experience modules (namely, feel, think, act, and relate, respectively).

Gentile et al. (2007) distinguished conceptually the following six experiential components:

- Sensorial (sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell experiences and how they arouse aesthetic pleasure, excitement, satisfaction, and a sense of beauty)
- Emotional (moods, feelings, and emotional experiences that create an affective relation with the company, its brands, and products)

- Cognitive (experiences related to thinking and conscious mental processes to get customers to use their creativity or problem solving so that they revise assumptions about a product)
- Pragmatic (experiences resulting from the practical act of doing something and usability)
- Lifestyle (experiences resulting from the affirmation of values and personal beliefs)
- Relational (experiences, emerging from social contexts and relationships, that occur during common consumption as part of a real or imagined community or to affirm social identity)

As can be seen, [Gentile et al. \(2007\)](#) incorporated [Schmitt's \(1999\)](#) *act* component into the sensory/sensorial component. They also added a new dimension, the pragmatic component, based on the design-oriented literature on user experience and human–object interactions. However, they did not empirically test the model (in terms of its dimensionality and in terms of the discriminant validity of the pragmatic component, for example). In fact, in their empirical research with actual brands (e.g., iPod), not all components could be verified as independent through a factor analysis but showed overlaps (e.g., between sensorial components and lifestyle, or between pragmatic, cognitive, and lifestyle components).

[Gentile et al. \(2007\)](#) also provided the results of a survey that showed that the sensorial component was the most important one across several experiential brands (Swatch, Pringles, Harley-Davidson, Smart, iPod, Nike, HC Brands Bar, Playstation, Gatorade, McDonald's, Ikea, Swarovski). Moreover, “complex experiences,” which involve more than a single component, emerged for many brands. An interpretive analysis revealed that each product leveraged on more than one component, and the particular combination depended on the characteristics of the product itself. The components are, according to the authors, not activated independently; rather there are overlapping areas and interrelations. The study may be considered rather exploratory, but raises intriguing possibilities regarding the highly interactive nature of complex – or “holistic” – experiences.

[Brakus et al. \(2009\)](#) based their work on brand experiences, in part, on this prior work, and specifically on the five modules distinguished by [Schmitt \(1999\)](#). Adopting a consumer, rather than company perspective, they viewed these modules not as strategic devices but as internal and behavioral outcomes. They constructed a scale to measure experiences and conducted empirical studies to explore the dimensionality of the scale using exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Four experiential dimensions

could be validated in qualitative and quantitative research: sensory, affective, intellectual, and behavioral experiences. [Zarantonello and Schmitt \(2010\)](#) used the four dimensions to identify individual differences among consumers and to profile them. Using cluster analysis, five clusters emerged: “hedonistic consumers,” “action-oriented consumers,” “holistic consumers,” “inner-directed consumers,” and “utilitarian consumers.”

In sum, in the experience literature, there is a consensus that it is useful to conceptualize experiences along multiple experience dimensions. These experience dimensions include sensory-affective, cognitive-intellectual, and behavior-and-action oriented components. Moreover, because experiences are evoked by environmental cues, social and relational elements are also important aspects of experiences. From a research perspective, it is thus critical to examine the impact of experiences not only in the aggregate but to examine as well how dimensions of experiences are related with certain outcome variables.

Experiential Themes

What themes can marketers use to trigger or portray experiences? “Theming” or “staging” an experience concerns the content that may evoke an experience. It has been a topic in the more practically oriented experience literature in marketing, although there is also some academic research on this topic. Research has shown that providing a theme for an experience means scripting a story and narrative that triggers thoughts and imaginations ([Gottdiener, 1997](#); [Lukas, 2007](#)). A well-defined theme sets consumer expectations and guides consumers whereas a poorly conceived theme does not help consumers to organize their impressions and creates no lasting memory ([Pine & Gilmore, 1999](#)). An effective theme must also be concise and compelling; too much detail clutters its effectiveness in serving as an organizing principle for staging experiences. The theme must drive all the design elements and staged events of the experience toward a unified story that fully captivates the customer’s attention.

[Schmitt and Simonson \(1997\)](#) have argued that themes can be found in history, religion, fashion, politics, psychology, philosophy, the physical world, popular culture, and the arts.

Moreover, [Gottdiener \(1997\)](#) has categorized themes and given examples of experience themes for symbols, narratives, and cultural icons defined by space and time – such as Status, Tropical Paradise, The Wild West, Classical Civilization, Nostalgia, Arabian Fantasy, Urban Motif, Fortress Architecture and Surveillance, Modernism and Progress, and Representations of the Unrepresentable.

The Nature of Extraordinary Experiences

Extraordinary experiences can be distinguished from ordinary experience based on their lower frequency of occurrence yet greater memory impact (Abrahams, 1986). While ordinary experiences are routine and are part of everyday life, extraordinary experiences are intense and stylized. They are usually highly memorable and can transform an individual. The distinction between extraordinary versus ordinary experiences is reminiscent of the distinction between the “sacred” and the “profane” in consumer culture theory (Belk, Wallendorf, & Sherry, 1989). The sacred in consumption is the opposite of the ordinary routine of everyday life. The sacred is beyond analytics and rationalization and can only be understood through devotion. Similar to the sacred, extraordinary experiences can be devotional and momentarily ecstatic.

Extraordinary experiences have attracted scholars’ attention, and have been investigated in particular in the field of psychology. In the 1960s, human psychologist Abraham Maslow (1968) developed the concept of “peak experiences.” These are sudden, short, unique, and rare, and are capable of generating a state of ecstasy in individuals. They represent a rupture from routine and daily life, and satisfy the need for “self-actualization,” a need found at the top of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. Peak experiences can be inspired by deep meditation, intense feelings of love, exposure to great art or music, or the overwhelming beauty of nature. Similar to “peak experience” is the concept of “flow” developed several years later (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975, 1990, 1997). As described earlier, flow experience are described as mental states in which an individual is fully immersed in an activity; during flow, the individual is in a feeling of energized focus, full involvement, and success in the process of the activity. Among the different conditions identified by Csikszentmihalyi as essential for the emergence of flow, the most important one refers to the balance between the individual’s abilities and the challenges provided in an environment.

In marketing and consumer research, interpretive scholars have illuminated further the nature of extraordinary experiences (e.g., intense leisure activities) – referred to, as we saw, as “peak experiences” (Privette, 1983), “epiphanies” (Denzin, 1992), or transcendent customer experiences (Schouten, McAlexander, & Koenig, 2007). They found that extraordinary experiences are achieved through intense and focused activity, and absorption or immersion in those activities, and accompanied by extreme emotions. In contrast to flow, peak experiences are more likely to originate from the outside. For example, overwhelmed by nature, or an unexpected emotional

gesture, individuals may feel connected with a “larger-than-life” phenomenon. In moments of epiphanies, individuals redefine themselves. Transcendent customer experiences provoke radical re-definitions of the self, resulting from major upheavals, crisis situations, or an intense memory and relived moment.

Detailed analyses of extraordinary experiences have been conducted through interpretive research – among river rafters (Arnould & Price, 1993), sky divers (Loeffler, 2004), Harley Davidson motorcyclists (Schouten & McAlexander, 1995), or individuals who value aesthetic experiences (Charters & Pettigrew, 2005; Holbrook, 1980). For example, Schouten et al. (2007) have characterized “transcendent customer experiences” (TCE) as including feelings such as self-transformation, separation from the ordinary and mundane, and connectedness to larger phenomena outside one’s self. “TCEs are marked by emotional intensity, epiphany, singularity, and newness of experience, extreme enjoyment, oneness, ineffability, extreme focus of attention, and the testing of personal limits” (p. 358). They have developed a TCE scale and shown that TCEs are critical for the integration of a brand community and for building brand loyalty among brand community members. Arnould and Price (1993) studied the extraordinary experience of multi-day river rafting trips in the Colorado River basin, a growing component of the Colorado leisure services industry. Using multiple methods, they showed that extraordinary experiences such as river rafting provide personal growth and self-renewal, create a sense of “communitas” (a “sacred” sense of community and camaraderie), and a strong feeling of harmony with nature. In Loeffler’s (2004) study of high-risk leisure consumption (such as skydiving, climbing, and BASE jumping), they found similar motivations and themes and laid out the evolution of different motives (from thrill to achievement to personal identity, flow, and communitas). In this set of extraordinary experiences, even death is seen as part of life. As one of the skydivers interviewed put it, “We do not have a death wish, we have a life wish! A wish to live life to the fullest, and if by chance we do die skydiving, then at least we died doing what we loved” (Loeffler, 2004, p. 19).

Critical Summary and Future Research

Clearly, research on the dimensions of experiences as well as specific themes and certain unusual experiences has been quite valuable for better understanding the topic of experience as a whole. However, such research should not just introduce more and more constructs and expand terminologies. What is needed is a broader, more integrative framework that shows how experience dimensions are interlinked with other constructs

from which they differ (e.g., using structural equation modeling). Also, rather than excluding certain experiences (e.g., ordinary ones) as less relevant, or perhaps less worthy of research attention, researchers should investigate them as well. In that vein, Carù and Cova (2003) have criticized the concept of extraordinary experiences as an American ideology and a “cult of strong emotions” (p. 279). They suggest that researchers should focus on simpler and more contemplative consumption experiences such as walking and having time with oneself, instead of expecting consumers to fill each moment of life with extraordinary product and service experiences. Rather than planning experiences for consumers, this alternative view also calls for letting consumers construct their own experiences.

Besides exploring process as well as structural and content issues of experience, researchers have also focused on measurement issues and conducted empirical studies to demonstrate the impact of experience on outcome measures. Moreover, managerial frameworks have been developed for managing experiences. We next review these two areas of interest and research.

Measuring Experience and Its Impact

Measurement has focused on scale development for hedonic or experiential values (in contrast to utilitarian values) and for experience dimensions. In addition, several empirical studies have been conducted that have shown and measured the impact of experience on consumer satisfaction, loyalty, and happiness.

Babin, Darden, and Griffin (1994) have argued that shopping’s utilitarian value results from task completion and that its hedonic value results from enjoyment and entertainment. Shoppers who focus on the activity’s utilitarian value consider it to be “work”; those focusing on its hedonic value consider it to be “fun.” In line with their thinking, they developed a scale to measure utilitarian and hedonic values as outcomes of shopping activities. Similarly, Voss, Spangenberg, and Grohmann (2003) have constructed a scale that measures the utilitarian and hedonic dimensions of attitudes toward product categories and brands. The scale includes 10 seven-point semantic differential items; 5 refer to utilitarian attitudes and the other 5 refer to hedonic attitudes. The utilitarian items are effective/ineffective, helpful/unhelpful, functional/not functional, necessary/unnecessary, and practical/impractical. The hedonic items are not fun/fun, dull/exciting, not delightful/delightful, not thrilling/thrilling, and enjoyable/unenjoyable.

There are many specific scales and measurement tools available for measuring the sensory, affective, intellectual, and behavioral aspects of experiential dimensions. The Visual Product Aesthetics Scale (Bloch, Brunel, & Arnold, 2003) measures sensory experiences, in particular, individual differences in skill and sensitivity toward visual design. With this scale, it is possible to examine how much a consumer values design, responds to design and, in general, evaluates design with skill and taste. Scale items include, for example, “I enjoy seeing displays of products that have superior design,” “being able to see subtle differences in product designs is one skill that I have developed over time,” or “when I see a product that has a really great design, I feel a strong urge to buy it” (Bloch et al., 2003).

There are numerous scales that measure the emotion dimension of experience (Izard, 1978), ranging from simple mood measures to measures of strong emotions. Of particular interest in an experiential context are those scales that measure strong emotions because they can result in strong “feel” experiences. For example, Thomson et al. (2005) have designed a scale that measures brand attachment, the emotional bond that consumers have with a brand, which goes beyond simple liking. The scale has three sub-dimensions – connection, affection, and passion, of which passion, in particular, may result in a strong “feel” experience.

There are also scales that focus on the other experience dimensions. Regarding intellectual experiences, the well-known Need for Cognition Scale may be of particular interest (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982). Items include “I would prefer complex to simple problems,” or “the notion of thinking abstractly appeals to me.” Finally, for the behavioral experiences dimension, there are multiple lifestyle scales (such as VALS), and for “relate,” there are measures, developed in the fields of social psychology and sociology, that address issues of groups and social roles.

While these scales measure specific experiential dimensions in depth, Brakus et al. (2009) have also developed a simple scale that measures all experiential dimensions in one scale. The scale is short consisting of 12 items only and easy to administer, and thus the most efficient way of measuring brand experiences as a whole. Psychometrically, the scale is internally consistent and has been tested with multiple samples. The scale also successfully passed all standard reliability and validity tests. Most importantly, the Brand Experience Scale displays discriminant validity from some of the most widely used branding measures and scales including brand evaluations, brand involvement, brand attachment, customer delight, and brand personality.

The scale is not only useful in academic research but also in marketing practice. As marketers engage in projects to understand and improve the experience that their brands provide for their customers, they can use the scale for assessment, planning, and tracking purposes. In management practice, the brand experience may also be related quantitatively to customer equity (Rust, Zeithaml, & Lemon, 2000). This can be done via regression analyses or structural equation modeling to measure the effect of individual experience components, and of integration, on customer equity. Regression weights can indicate the degree of importance of each experience component and of integration for the business. Additional analyses may focus on subcomponents of customer equity, related to customer acquisition, retention, or add-on selling.

Several studies have shown that experience predicts consumer satisfaction and loyalty. Brakus et al. (2009), for example, showed that brand experience impacts these dimensions both directly and indirectly, through brand personality. Based on their study, brand experience seems to be a stronger predictor of actual buying behavior than brand personality, which in turn is a better predictor of satisfaction. Iglesias, Singh, and Batista-Foguet (2011) found that brand experience affects brand loyalty through the stimulation of affective commitment. Similarly, Lee and Kang (2012) demonstrated the influence of brand experience on brand loyalty through the creation of quality relationships between brand and consumers.

Finally, Zarantonello, Schmitt, and Brakus (2012) investigated whether the experience dimensions referred to as sensory, emotional, intellectual, and behavioral experiences can impact different types of happiness – pleasure, meaning, and engagement (Peterson, Park, & Seligman, 2005). Results indicated that sensory and behavioral experiences impacted both pleasure and engagement happiness, and affective and intellectual experiences impacted meaning happiness.

Research and Frameworks for Managing Experiences

As mentioned earlier, marketing practitioners have come to realize that understanding how consumers experience brands and, in turn, how to provide appealing brand experiences for them is critical for positioning and differentiating their brands. As a result, numerous marketing management writings focused on experience have appeared within the area of experiential marketing. These articles and books present useful frameworks, concepts, and tools for managing customer experiences (Chattopadhyay & Laborie,

2005; Davis & Longoria, 2003; Pine & Gilmore, 1999; Schmitt, 1999; 2003; Shaw & Ivens, 2002; Smith & Wheeler, 2002).

A key issue in experience management has been the management of so-called “customer touchpoints.” This is in line with the phenomenological tradition in philosophy, for example, Husserl (1931) and Brentano (1973), which stresses that experiences are “of” or “about” something; they have reference and intentionality. Because experiences are private events that occur in response to some stimulation, they are often not self-generated (as some thoughts and cognitions) but induced. Following such phenomenological insights, marketing practitioners have focused attention on the stimuli that induce consumer experiences.

LaSalle and Britton (2002) have presented an experience engagement model consisting of five stages, similar to the consumer decision model in marketing by Howard and Sheth (1969). At each stage, there are touchpoints between the company, and its products and services, and consumers, which may result in experiences. Davis and Longoria (2003) present a “brand touchpoint wheel” including pre-purchase, purchase and post-purchase experience phases, and have identified key touchpoints within each phase. Pre-purchase touchpoints include advertising, public relations, Web sites, new media, direct mail/samples, coupons and incentives, deals, and promotions. Purchase touchpoints include packaging, point-of-purchase displays, store and shelf placements, salespeople, and sales environments. Post-purchase touchpoints include product and package performance, customer service, newsletters, and loyalty programs. Finally, Frow and Payne (2007) list methodologies for identifying and mapping touchpoints including process mapping (Shostack, 1987), service-blueprinting (Kingman-Brundage, 1989), and customer-firm touchpoint analysis (Sawhney, Balasubramanian, & Krishnan, 2004).

Experience touchpoints may be broken down further into specific stimuli that evoke experiences (e.g., names, logos, packaging, designs, and so on). They are often referred to as *experiential stimuli*. These experiential stimulus in and of themselves can be quite complex with respect to their structure and experiential impact, and many be further broken down into dimensions or components. Take typeface, for example, Henderson, Giese, and Cote (2004) have shown that typeface design has six underlying design dimensions: elaborate, harmony, natural, flourish, weight, and compressed. Or consider logos. Studying 195 logos, Henderson and Cote (1998) found that multiple dimensions determine the impact of logos: high-recognition logos should be very natural, very harmonious, and moderately elaborate whereas high image logos should be moderately elaborate and natural.

Henderson, Cote, Leong, and Schmitt (2003) have replicated the results in an international context. There are also various dimensions and constituent components for colors (Bellizzi, Crowley, & Hasty, 1983; Bellizzi & Hite, 1992; Degeratu, Rangaswamy, & Wu, 2000; Gorn, Chattopadhyay, Yi, & Dahl, 1997; Meyers-Levy & Peracchio, 1995) and shapes (Veryzer & Hutchinson, 1998). Typefaces, logos, colors, and shapes appear at experience touchpoints as part of the graphic designs of slogans and messages and as graphic elements on Web sites and in shopping environments. Thus, to pinpoint which stimuli evoke experiences at various touchpoints is a complex research task, and selecting the right touchpoint stimuli a challenging management task.

The planning of experiences requires a project-based framework. Schmitt (2003) presented the five-step CEM (Customer Experience Management) framework, including an analysis, research-based step (“Analyzing the experiential world of the customer”), a strategy step (“Building the experience platform”), and three implementation steps (brand, customer interface, and innovation). The first two steps are the most important. The first step of the CEM framework requires customer insight into the customer’s world and his or her perception of a brand. The second step, the experience platform, includes the formulation of a core thematic experience concept and the dynamic, multisensory, multidimensional depiction of the desired experience.

In addition, management research has shown that to deliver an attractive experience for customers over time requires organizational alignment and putting the entire organization on an experience footing (Labovitz & Rosansky, 1997). Alignment is especially important in service businesses where employees directly interface customers. Finally, managing the internal and “employee” experience has emerged as a key topic in the human resources literature (Heska, 2009).

It has been suggested that the concept of experience can be useful to address perennial marketing issues by providing a fresh and new perspective (Schmitt, 2003). For example, understanding the customer experience is useful for segmentation and targeting decisions. Most segmentation in business is not done from the customer’s point of view but from the perspective of products (by segmenting by features, price or distribution channel, for example). Adequate segmentation and targeting decisions should be supplemented by using a variety of customer insight techniques that elucidate the consumer experience, ranging from traditional research techniques to ethnography and data mining. Another key strategic issue for companies is how to position the corporate brand, and individual product

brands in a competitive context. For that purpose, many companies perform brand-architecture analyses and commission perceptual maps, which are based on similarity data and analyzed using multidimensional scaling techniques. The maps are usually based on verbal input and dimensions are often generic (e.g., “high price – low price,” or “high quality – low quality,” or “strong image – weak image”). The alternative from an experience perspective is the introduction of a customer relevant new concept or a new dimension. Moreover, a creative and innovative implementation theme may be used to execute the new positioning. Finally, innovation is often viewed narrowly as technical innovation, residing in the R&D department. From an experience perspective, however, customers value not just features-and-benefits-oriented technical innovation but also small innovations that simplify their lives as well as design and lifestyle innovations.

CONCLUSION

At the 2009 Association for Consumer Research Conference, Chris Janiszewski, in his Presidential Address, presented a passionate plea for an increased study of consumer experiences (Janiszewski, 2009). “So what is our opportunity? In what substantive areas do we, as a discipline, have a special interest and a competitive advantage?” he asked. “The answer is ‘consumer experience.’”

We agree. And as this review has shown, as a field we have already learned quite a lot about experiences. The topic has been researched from multiple perspectives to gain insight into its multifaceted nature. We have a good understanding of the importance and effects of experience for product and services and in various other settings (e.g., stores and digital environments). Several studies have been conducted on how consumers process experiential attributes, how they process experiences over time, and whether positive and negative experiences can coexist. We have gained insight into different experience dimensions, themes, and extraordinary experiences. We have also addressed measurement and marketing management issues.

Yet, the research area on experience in marketing is still emerging. More research is needed on the process by which specific cues in experiential touchpoints create specific consumer experiences, and the process by which experiences impact consumer behavior. We also need to better understand how cultural contexts shape experiences and to what degree experiences are universal or culture-bound.

There is a debate in academic circles concerning whether consumers rely too much on experience to make decisions. Conversely, the question arises whether marketers provide experiential marketing to manipulate consumers by encouraging them to deviate from rational decision making. Indeed, from a rational and normative point of view, one might argue that the idea of experience should be viewed with suspicion. Behavioral decision theorists have provided ample evidence that individuals neglect or insufficiently consider statistically presented “base-rate” information and are unduly affected by vividly or saliently presented, experiential information (Gilovich, Griffin, & Kahneman, 2002). Carpenter, Glazer, and Nakamoto (1994) have labeled experiential attributes as irrelevant and as meaningless differentiation and were surprised that they seemed to be valued by consumers. Hoch (2002) has viewed experiences as “seductive” and argued that consumers put more value on experience than they should. The argument that experiences should be viewed with suspicion dates back more than 200 years to German philosopher Immanuel Kant (2008) who contrasted experience with reason. In Book 1, Section 1 of the *Critique of Pure Reason*, Kant (2008 [1781]) wrote, “nothing, indeed, can be more harmful or more unworthy of the philosopher, than the vulgar appeal to so-called experience.”

We disagree with the Kantian view and those that following in its footsteps today. We endorse the views of other scholars who have argued and shown that experiences have their own logic and rationality. Pham (2004, 2007) proposed that feelings may tap into a separate, but not necessarily less logical system of judgment and that any generalized statement about the rationality or irrationality of feelings may not be valid. Also, there is evidence that under certain conditions too much reasoning is not good for decision making. Wilson, Lisle, Hodges, Klaaren, and LaFleur (1993) have shown that when choosing among certain objects – posters of paintings by Monet and Van Gogh, for example – people were less satisfied with their personal choice when they were asked to think about their reason of choice because they focused on attributes that were easy to verbalize rather than on the experiential reasons for their choice. Thus, it is questionable which information should be considered as relevant and rational, or irrelevant and irrational. Moreover, feelings can provide information, and consumers can use the informational value of feelings as a heuristic: “I feel good about it: I must like it” (Schwarz, 1990). Feelings also allow for faster judgments, and their preferences have been shown to be more consistent (Lee, Amir, & Ariely, 2009; Pham, Cohen, Pracejus, & Hughes, 2001). Finally, people who have high trust in their feelings and experiences seem to be able to make more money in the ultimatum game and

be able to predict the stock market index more accurately than those who do not (Pham, Lee, & Stephen, 2011; Stephen & Pham, 2008).

As a result, experiences can be, should be, and must be trusted. They are not only helpful in making good decisions and potentially make us a little bit richer, but they are also enriching our daily lives. Most importantly, consumer products and services, and the marketing of these products and services, seem to play a significant role in helping us lead satisfying, exciting, and happy lives.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimension of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 34(3), 347–356.
- Aaker, J., Vohs, K. D., & Mogilner, C. (2010). Nonprofits are seen as warm and for-profits as competent: Firm stereotypes matter. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(2), 224–237.
- Abrahams, R. D. (1986). Ordinary and extraordinary experience. In V. W. Turner & E. M. Bruner (Eds.), *The anthropology of experience* (pp. 45–73). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Albert, N., Merunka, M., & Valette-Florence, P. (2008). When consumers love their brands: Exploring the concept and its dimensions. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(10), 1062–1075.
- Andrade, E. B., & Cohen, J. B. (2007). On the consumption of negative feelings. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34(3), 283–300.
- Ariely, D., & Carmon, Z. (2000). Gestalt characteristics of experiences: The defining features of summarized events. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 13(December), 191–201.
- Arnould, E. J., & Price, L. L. (1993). River magic: Extraordinary experience and the extended service encounter. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20, 24–45.
- Arnould, E. J., Price, L. L., & Zinkhan, G. (2002). *Consumers*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Babin, B. J., & Attaway, J. S. (2000). Atmospheric affect as a tool for creating value and gaining share of customer. *Journal of Business Research*, 49, 91–99.
- Babin, B. J., Darden, W., & Griffin, M. (1994). Work and/or fun: Measuring hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20, 644–656.
- Backstrom, K., & Johansson, U. (2006). Creating and consuming experiences in retail store environments: Comparing retailer and consumer perspectives. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 13, 417–430.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P. U. (1999). The role of emotions in marketing. *Academy of Marketing Science*, 27(2), 184–206.
- Batra, R., Ahuvia, A., & Bagozzi, R. (2012). Brand love. *Journal of Marketing*, 76(March), 1–16.
- Belk, R. W., Wallendorf, M., & Sherry, J. F., Jr. (1989). The sacred and the profane: Theodicy on the odyssey. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16, 1–38.
- Bellizzi, J. A., Crowley, A. E., & Hasty, R. W. (1983). The effects of color in store design. *Journal of Retailing*, 59(1), 21–43.

- Bellizzi, J. A., & Hite, R. E. (1992). Environmental color, consumer feelings, and purchase likelihood. *Psychology and Marketing*, 9(5), 347–363.
- Berry, L. (1999). *Discovering the soul of service*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Bitner, M. J. (1992). The impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees. *The Journal of Marketing*, 56, 57–71.
- Bloch, P. H., Brunel, F. F., & Arnold, T. J. (2003). Individual differences in the centrality of visual product aesthetics: Concept and measurement. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29(March), 551–565.
- Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zarantonello, L. (2009). Brand experience: What is it? How is it measured? Does it affect loyalty? *Journal of Marketing*, 73(3), 52–68.
- Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zhang, S. (2008). Experiential attributes and consumer judgments. In B. H. Schmitt & D. L. Rogers (Eds.), *Handbook on brand and experience management* (pp. 174–187). Boston, MA: Edward Elgar.
- Brakus, J. J., Schmitt, B. H., & Zhang, S. (2013). Experiential product attributes and preferences for new products: The role of processing fluency. *Journal of Business Research*.
- Brentano, F. (1973). *Psychology from an empirical standpoint*. London: Routledge.
- Broniarczyk, S. M., & Alba, J. W. (1994). The role of consumers' intuitions in inference making. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21(December), 393–407.
- Brown, C. L., & Carpenter, G. S. (2000). Why is the trivial important? A reasons-based account for the effects of trivial attributes on choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 26(March), 372–385.
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Petty, R. E. (1982). The need for cognition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42(1), 116–131.
- Carbone, L. P. (2004). *Clued in: How to keep customers coming back again and again*. New York, NY: Prentice Hall.
- Carbone, L., & Haeckel, S. (1994). Engineering customer experiences. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 3, 8–19.
- Caroll, B. A., & Ahuvia, A. C. (2006). Some antecedents and outcomes of brand love. *Marketing Letters*, 17(2), 79–89.
- Carpenter, G. S., Glazer, R., & Nakamoto, K. (1994). Meaningful brands from meaningless differentiation: The dependence on irrelevant attributes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31(August), 339–350.
- Carù, A., & Cova, B. (2003). Revisiting consumption experience: A more humble but complete view of the concept. *Marketing Theory*, 3(2), 267–286. Sage Publications, London.
- Charters, S., & Pettigrew, S. (2005). Is wine consumption an aesthetic experience? *Journal of Wine Research*, 16(2), 121–136.
- Chattopadhyay, A., & Laborie, J. (2005). Managing brand experience: The market contact audit. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 45(1), 9–16.
- Chernev, A. (2001). The impact of common features on consumer preferences: A case of confirmatory reasoning. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27(March), 475–488.
- Cova, B., & Pace, S. (2006). Brand community of convenience products: New forms of customer empowerment – The case “My Nutella the Community”. *European Journal of Marketing*, 40(9/10), 1087–1105.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1975). *Beyond boredom and anxiety*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). *Flow: The psychology of optimal experience*. New York, NY: Harper and Row.

- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997). *Finding flow: The psychology of engagement with everyday life*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Darmody, A., & Kedzior, R. (2009). Production and reproduction of consumer culture in virtual communities. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 36, 20–26.
- d'Astous, A. (2000). Irritating aspects of the shopping environment. *Journal of Business Research*, 49(2), 149–156.
- Daugherty, T., Li, H., & Biocca, F. (2008). Consumer learning and the effects of virtual experience relative to indirect and direct product experience. *Psychology & Marketing*, 25(7), 568–586.
- Davis, S., & Longoria, T. (2003). Harmonizing your touch points. *Brand Packaging Magazine*, January/February.
- Degeratu, A. M., Rangaswamy, A., & Wu, J. (2000). Consumer choice behavior in online and traditional supermarkets: The effects of brand name, price, and other search attributes. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 17(1), 55–78.
- Denzin, N. K. (1992). *Symbolic interactionism and cultural studies: The politics of interpretation*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell Publishers.
- Dewey, J. (1925). *Experience and nature* (Rev. ed.). New York, NY: Dover.
- Dubé, L., & LeBel, J. L. (2003). The content and structure of laypeople's concept of pleasure. *Cognition and Emotion*, 17(3), 263–296.
- Edell, J. A., & Staelin, R. (1983). The information processing of pictures in print advertisements. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10(June), 45–60.
- Firat, A. F., & Venkatesh, A. (1995). Liberatory postmodernism and the reenchantment of consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(December), 239–267.
- Fischer, G. W., Carmon, Z., Ariely, D., & Zauberaman, G. (1999). Goal-based construction of preference: Task goals and the prominence effect. *Management Science*, 45(August), 1057–1075.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior. An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fredrickson, B. L., & Kahneman, D. (1993). Duration neglect in retrospective evaluations of affective episodes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65, 45–55.
- Frow, P., & Payne, A. (2007). Towards the 'perfect' customer experience. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(2), 89–101.
- Gentile, C., Spiller, N., & Noci, G. (2007). How to sustain the customer experience: An overview of experience components that co-create value with the customer. *European Management Journal*, 25(5), 395–410.
- Gilovich, T., Griffin, D., & Kahneman, D. (Eds.). (2002). *Heuristics and biases: The psychology of intuitive judgment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Goodman, J. A. (2009). *Strategic customer service: Managing the customer experience to increase positive word of mouth, build loyalty, and maximize profits*. New York, NY: AMACOM.
- Gorn, G. J., Chattopadhyay, A., Yi, T., & Dahl, D. W. (1997). Effects of color as an executional cue in advertising: They are in the shade. *Management Science*, 43(October), 1387–1400.
- Gottdiener, M. (1997). *The theming of America: Dreams, vision, and commercial spaces*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
- Grunert, K. G. (1996). Automatic and strategic processes in advertising effects. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(October), 88–101.

- Helkkula, A. (2011). Characterising the concept of service experience. *Journal of Service Management*, 22(3), 367–389.
- Henderson, P. W., Cote, J. A., Leong, S. M., & Schmitt, B. (2003). Building strong brands in Asia: Selecting the visual components of image to maximize brand strength. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 20(4), 297–313.
- Henderson, P. W., & Cote, J. A. (1998). Guidelines for selecting or modifying logos. *Journal of Marketing*, 62(April), 14–30.
- Henderson, P. W., Giese, J. L., & Cote, J. A. (2004). Impression management using typeface design. *Journal of Marketing*, 68(4), 60–72.
- Heska, L. (2009). *Enhancing the employee experience: Organizational practices that contribute to employee engagement*. Saarbrücken: VDM Verlag.
- Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1986). Expanding the ontology and methodology of research on the consumption experience. In D. Brinberg & R. J. Lutz (Eds.), *Perspectives on methodology in consumer research* (pp. 213–251). New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.
- Hoch, S. J. (2002). Product experience is seductive. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29(3), 448–454.
- Hoch, S. J., & Ha, Y.-W. (1986). Consumer learning: Advertising and the ambiguity of product experience. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13(September), 221–233.
- Holbrook, M. B. (1980). Some preliminary notes on research in consumer esthetics. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 7(1), 104–108.
- Holbrook, M. B. (1986). Emotion in the consumption experience: Toward a new model of the human consumer. In R. A. Peterson, W. D. Hoyer & W. R. Wilson (Eds.), *The role of affect in consumer behavior: Emerging theories and applications* (pp. 17–52). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(September), 132–140.
- Honea, H., & Horsky, S. (2012). The power of plain: Intensifying product experience with neutral aesthetic context. *Marketing Letters*, 23(1), 223–235.
- Houston, M. J., Childers, T. L., & Heckler, S. E. (1987). Picture-word consistency and the elaborative processing of advertisements. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24(November), 359–369.
- Howard, J., & Sheth, N. J. (1969). *Theory of buyer behavior*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Husserl, E. (1931). *Ideas: General introduction to a pure phenomenology*. London: Allen and Unwin.
- Iglesias, O., Singh, J., & Batista-Foguet, J. M. (2011). The role of brand experience and affective commitment in determining brand loyalty. *Journal of Brand Management*, 18(8), 570–582.
- Izard, C. E. (1978). *Human emotions* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Janiszewski, C. (2009). *The consumer experience*. University of Florida: Association for Consumer Research. Presidential Address.
- Johar, G., Sengupta, J., & Aaker, J. (2005). Two roads to updating brand personality impressions: Trait vs. evaluative inferencing. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 42(November), 458–469.
- Kant, I. (2008 [1781]). *Critique of pure reason* (Rev. ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 1–22.

- Keller, K. L. (2003). Brand synthesis: The multidimensionality of brand knowledge. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 29(4), 595–600.
- Kelley, C. M., & Jacoby, L. L. (1998). Subjective reports and process dissociation: Fluency, knowing, and feeling. *Acta Psychologica*, 98(April), 127–140.
- Kempf, D. S., & Smith, R. E. (1998). Consumer processing of product trial and the influence of prior advertising: A structural modeling approach. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 35(3), 325–338.
- Kierkegaard, S. (2009 [1849]). *Sickness unto death: A Christian psychological exposition for upbuilding and awakening*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Kingman-Brundage, J. (1989). The ABC's of service system blueprinting. In M. J. Bitner & L. A. Crosby (Eds.), *Designing a winning service strategy*. American Marketing Association Proceedings Series (pp. 30–33). Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.
- Kotler, P. (1973). Atmospheric as a marketing tool. *Journal of Retailing*, 49(4), 48–64.
- Kozinets, R. V. (2002). The field behind the screen: Using netnography for marketing research in online communities. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 39(February), 61–72.
- Labovitz, G., & Rosansky, V. (1997). *The power of alignment: How great companies stay centered and accomplish extraordinary things*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Lasalle, D., & Britton, T. A. (2002). *Priceless: Turning ordinary products into extraordinary experiences*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Lee, L., Amir, O., & Ariely, D. (2009). In search of homo economicus: Cognitive noise and the roll of emotion in preference consistency. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 36, 173–187.
- Lee, H. J., & Kang, M. S. (2012). The effect of brand experience on brand relationship quality. *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 16(1), 87–98.
- Loeffler, T. (2004). A photo elicitation study of the meanings of outdoor adventure experiences. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 36(4), 536–557.
- Lukas, S. A. (Ed.). (2007). *The themed space: Locating culture, nation, and self*. New York, NY: Lexington Books.
- Maslow, A. H. (1968). *Toward a psychology of being*. New York, NY: D. Van Nostrand Company.
- Mathwick, C., Malhotra, N. K., & Rigdon, E. (2002). The effect of dynamic retail experience on experiential perceptions of value: An internet and catalog comparison. *Journal of Retailing*, 78, 51–60.
- Mathwick, C., & Rigdon, E. (2004). Play, flow, and the online search experience. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31, 324–332.
- Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). *An approach to environmental psychology*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Meyers-Levy, J., & Peracchio, L. A. (1995). How the use of color in advertising affects attitudes: The influence of processing motivation and cognitive demands. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(September), 121–138.
- Moscovici, S. (1988). Notes towards a description of social representations. *Journal of European Social Psychology*, 18(3), 211–250.
- Muniz, A., & O'Guinn, T. O. (2001). Brand communities. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27(March), 412–432.
- Murphy, S. T., & Zajonc, R. B. (1993). Affect, cognition and awareness: Affective priming with optimal and suboptimal stimulus exposures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64(5), 723–739.

- Nelson, L. D., & Meyvis, T. (2008). Interrupted consumption: Disrupting adaptation to hedonic experiences. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 45(6), 654–664.
- Novak, T. P., Hoffman, D. L., & Yung, Y. (2000). Measuring the customer experience in online environments: A structural modeling approach. *Marketing Science*, 19(1), 22–42.
- Oliver, R. L., Rust, R. T., & Varki, S. (1997). Customer delight: Foundations, findings, and managerial insight. *Journal of Retailing*, 73(3), 311–336.
- Park, C. W., & MacInnis, D. J. (2006). What's in and what's out: Questions over the boundaries of the attitude construct. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 33(1), 16–18.
- Park, C. W., MacInnis, D. J., Priester, J., Eisingerich, A., & Iacobucci, D. (2010). Brand attachment and brand attitude strength: Conceptual and empirical differentiation of two critical brand equity drivers. *Journal of Marketing*, 74(6), 1–17.
- Peterson, C., Park, N., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2005). Orientations to happiness and life satisfaction: The full life versus the empty life. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 6, 25–41.
- Pham, M. T. (2004). The logic of feeling. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 14(4), 360–369.
- Pham, M. T. (2007). Emotion and rationality: A critical review and interpretation of empirical evidence. *Review of General Psychology*, 11(2), 155–178.
- Pham, M. T., Cohen, J. B., Pracejus, J., & Hughes, D. G. (2001). Affect monitoring and the primacy of feelings in judgment. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 28, 167–188.
- Pham, M. T., Lee, L., & Stephen, A. T. (2011). *Feeling the future: The emotional oracle effect*. Working Paper.
- Pine, J., & Gilmore, J. (1999). *The experience economy*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Pinker, S. (1997). *How the mind works*. New York, NY: Norton.
- Privette, G. (1983). Peak experience, peak performance and flow: A comparative analysis of positive human experience. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45, 1361–1368.
- Ramanathan, S., & Williams, P. (2007). Immediate and delayed emotional consequences of indulgence: The moderating influence of personality type on mixed emotions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34(2), 212–223.
- Ratner, R. K., Kahn, B. E., & Kahneman, D. (1999). Choosing less-preferred experiences for the sake of variety. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 26(1), 1–15.
- Richardson, A. (1999). Subjective experience: Its conceptual status, method of investigation, and psychological significance. *The Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied*, 133(5), 469–485.
- Richins, M. L. (1997). Measuring emotions in the consumption experience. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(2), 127–146.
- Roediger, H. L. (1990). Implicit memory: Retention without remembering. *American Psychologist*, 45(September), 1043–1056.
- Romani, S., Grappi, S., & Dall'Aglio, D. (2012). Emotions that drive consumers away from brands: Measuring negative emotions toward brands and their behavioral effects. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 29(1), 55–67.
- Rose, R. L., & Wood, S. L. (2005). Paradox and the consumption of authenticity through reality television. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 32(2), 284–296.
- Rust, R., Zeithaml, V., & Lemon, K. (2000). *Driving customer equity*. Boston, MA: The Free Press.
- Sawhney, M., Balasubramanian, S., & Krishnan, V. (2004). Creating growth with services. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 45, 34–43.

- Schau, H. J., & Gilly, M. C. (2003). We are what we post? Self-presentation in personal web space. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30(December), 385–404.
- Schmitt, B. H. (1999). *Experiential marketing*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Schmitt, B. H. (2003). *Customer experience management*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Schmitt, B. H. (2010). Experience marketing: Concepts, frameworks and consumer insights. *Foundations and Trends in Marketing*, 5(2), 55–112.
- Schmitt, B. H., & Simonson, A. (1997). *Marketing aesthetics: The strategic management of brands, identity, and image*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Schneider, W., & Shiffrin, R. M. (1977). Controlled and automatic human information processing: I. Detection, search, and attention. *Psychological Review*, 84(1), 1–66.
- Schouten, J., & McAlexander, J. H. (1995). Subcultures of consumption: An ethnography of the new bikers. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22(June), 43–61.
- Schouten, J. W., McAlexander, J. H., & Koenig, H. F. (2007). Transcendent customer experience and brand community. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 35(3), 357–358.
- Schwarz, N. (1990). Feelings as information: Information and motivational functions of affective states. In R. M. Sorrentino & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation and cognition*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Schwarz, N. (2004). Meta-cognitive experiences in consumer judgment and decision making. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 14, 332–348.
- Shafir, E., Simonson, I., & Tversky, A. (1993). Reason-based choice. *Cognition*, 49(October–November), 11–36.
- Shaw, C. (2007). *The DNA of customer experience: How emotions drive value*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Shaw, C., Dibeehi, Q., & Walden, S. (2010). *Customer experience: Future trends and insights*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Shaw, C., & Ivens, J. (2002). *Building great customer experiences*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Shepard, R. N. (1967). Recognition memory for words, sentences and pictures. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 6, 156–163.
- Shostack, G. L. (1987). Service positioning through structural change. *Journal of Marketing*, 51(January), 34–43.
- Simonson, I. (1989). Choice based on reasons: The case of attraction and compromise effects. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(September), 158–174.
- Slater, D. (1997). *Consumer culture and modernity*. Oxford, UK; Cambridge, MA: Polity Press.
- Smith, S., & Wheeler, J. (2002). *Managing the customer experience: Turning customers into advocates*. London: FT Prentice Hall.
- Spies, K., Hesse, F., & Loesch, K. (1997). Store atmosphere, mood, and purchasing behavior. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 14(1), 1–17.
- Stephen, A. T., & Pham, M. T. (2008). On feelings as a heuristic for making offers in ultimatum negotiations. *Psychological Science*, 19, 1051–1058.
- Thompson, C., Locander, W., & Pollio, H. R. (1989). Putting consumer experience back into consumer research: The philosophy and method of existential-phenomenology. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(2), 133–146.
- Thomson, M., MacInnis, D. J., & Park, C. W. (2005). The ties that bind: Measuring the strength of consumers' emotional attachments to brands. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 15(1), 77–91.

- Throop, C. J. (2003). Articulating experience. *Anthropological Theory*, 3(2), 219–241.
- Tulving, E., & Schacter, D. L. (1990). Priming and human memory. *Science*, 247(January), 301–306.
- Turley, L. W., & Milliman, R. E. (2000). Atmospheric effects on shopping behavior: A review of the experimental evidence. *Journal of Business Research*, 49, 193–211.
- Turner, V. W., & Bruner, E. M. (Eds.). (2004). *The anthropology of experience*. Urbana, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Varey, C. A., & Kahneman, D. (1992). Experiences extended across time: Evaluation of moments and episodes. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 5, 169–185.
- Verhoef, K., Lemon, N., Parasuraman, A., Roggeveend, A., Tsiros, M., & Schlesinger, L. A. (2009). Customer experience creation: Determinants, dynamics and management strategies. *Journal of Retailing*, 85(1), 31–41.
- Veryzer, R. W., Jr., & Hutchinson, J. W. (1998). The influence of unity and prototypicality on aesthetic responses to new product designs. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(March), 374–394.
- Voss, K. E., Spangenberg, E. R., & Grohmann, B. (2003). Measuring the hedonic and utilitarian dimensions of consumer attitude. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 40(3), 310–320.
- Wilson, T. D., Lisle, D. J., Hodges, S. D., Klaaren, K. J., & LaFleur, S. J. (1993). Introspecting about reasons can reduce post-choice satisfaction. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 19, 331–339.
- Winkielman, P., Schwarz, N., Fazendeiro, T. A., & Reber, R. (2003). The hedonic marking of processing fluency: Implications for evaluative judgment. In J. Musch & K. C. Klauer (Eds.), *The psychology of evaluation: Affective processes in cognition and emotion* (pp. 189–217). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12(3), 341–352.
- Zarantonello, L., & Schmitt, B. H. (2010). Using the brand experience scale to profile consumers and predict consumer behavior. *Journal of Brand Management*, 17, 532–540.
- Zarantonello, L., Schmitt, B. H., & Brakus, J. J. (2012). *Experience and happiness*. Working Paper.

This article has been cited by:

1. Linda E. Couwenberg, Maarten A.S. Boksem, Roeland C. Dietvorst, Loek Worm, Willem J.M.I. Verbeke, Ale Smidts. 2017. Neural responses to functional and experiential ad appeals: Explaining ad effectiveness. *International Journal of Research in Marketing* **34**:2, 355-366. [[CrossRef](#)]
2. Gianna Moscardo. Stories as a Tourist Experience Design Tool 97-124. [[CrossRef](#)]
3. ChanShiu Fai, Shiu Fai Chan, BarnesBradley R., Bradley R. Barnes, FukukawaKyoko, Kyoko Fukukawa. 2016. Consumer control, dependency and satisfaction with online service. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics* **28**:4, 594-615. [[Abstract](#)] [[Full Text](#)] [[PDF](#)]
4. Juhee Kang, Aikaterini Manthiou, Norzuwana Sumarjan, Liang (Rebecca) Tang. 2016. An Investigation of Brand Experience on Brand Attachment, Knowledge, and Trust in the Lodging Industry. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management* 1-22. [[CrossRef](#)]
5. Carmela Bosangit, Catherine Demangeot. 2016. Exploring reflective learning during the extended consumption of life experiences. *Journal of Business Research* **69**:1, 208-215. [[CrossRef](#)]
6. Eleonora Pantano, Milena Viassone. 2015. Engaging consumers on new integrated multichannel retail settings: Challenges for retailers. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services* **25**, 106-114. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Leila Hurmerinta, Birgitta Sandberg. 2015. Sadness bright as glass: the acceptance of emotionally sensitive radical innovation. *Journal of Marketing Management* **31**:9-10, 918-939. [[CrossRef](#)]
8. Darwin A. Guevarra, Ryan T. Howell. 2015. To have in order to do: Exploring the effects of consuming experiential products on well-being. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* **25**:1, 28-41. [[CrossRef](#)]
9. Bernd Schmitt, J. Joško Brakus, Lia Zarantonello. 2015. From experiential psychology to consumer experience. *Journal of Consumer Psychology* **25**:1, 166-171. [[CrossRef](#)]
10. Siwon Cho, Jane E. Workman. 2014. Relationships among Gender, Fashion Leadership, Need for Affect, and Consumers' Apparel Shopping Preference. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal* **42**:4, 369-385. [[CrossRef](#)]
11. Mario Gonzalez-Fuentes. The Organization of the Future and the Marketing Function: 126-145. [[CrossRef](#)]
12. Thorben Haelen, Wilhelm Loibl, Hui Wang. Technology-Enabled Experiential Marketing: 210-235. [[CrossRef](#)]