

<<CH14>>

<<12 AB HEADS, REFERENCES, 1 NUMBERED LIST, 1 FIGURE>>

CHAPTER 14

## LUXURY BRANDING

VANESSA M. PATRICK AND HENRIK HAGTVEDT

### <<A>>THE CHANGING FACE OF THE LUXURY MARKET AND THE EMERGENCE OF NEW LUXURY

The headline of a recent ad for Pegasus, a line of bathroom fittings by Home Depot, says “Luxury is only for the privileged? What gave you that idea?” Today, the promise of the good life, the ultimate experience of luxurious living, is made to mass-market consumers by products in virtually every category. Silverstein and Fiske (2003) refer to this as the emerging “new luxury” market and describe it as a recent socioeconomic trend in which middle-market consumers trade up to “products and services which possess higher levels of quality, taste, and aspiration than [other] goods in the [same] category but are not so expensive as to be out of reach” (Silverstein and Fiske 2003, p. 1). Thus, the new luxury market is not restricted to conventional luxury goods such as diamonds, furs, and expensive cars (referred to by Silverstein and Fiske as “old luxury”), but may include any products at the top of their category, from sandwiches (e.g., Panera Bread) to body washes (e.g., Bath and Body Works). According to Silverstein and Fiske (2003), new luxury products are premium goods that connect with consumers on an emotional level.

With the emergence of the new luxury phenomenon, luxury branding is an increasingly important domain for research in marketing. Although there are some notable exceptions (e.g., Park, Milberg and Lawson 1991; Vigneron and Johnson 2004), the concept of luxury, the marketing of luxury products, and the management of luxury brands have for the most part been ignored in the extant literature. The central aim of this chapter is to present the current state of knowledge with regard to luxury branding and to identify gaps in this knowledge that pertain to (1) the conceptualization of luxury brands, (2) the understanding of how consumers relate to and

process information about luxury brands, and (3) the identification of the benefits and risks inherent to managing the luxury brand concept.

In the remainder of the chapter, we first distinguish between the notions of new luxury and old luxury. Next we present a brief review of the state of the knowledge about the marketing of luxury products and brands. A great deal of this research investigates how a luxury brand should be managed from a marketer's point of view, a notion consistent with old luxury branding. Notably, however, some recent research has provided insight into the motivations driving luxury brand choice. After reviewing the relevant literature, we identify some critical gaps, with a focus on the reconceptualization of luxury brands, the need for an increased understanding of consumer processing of the luxury brand concept, and benefits and risks inherent to managing the luxury brand concept. Please see Figure 14.1 for a diagrammatic summary of extant and future research.

<<FIGURE 14.1 NEAR HERE>>

#### <<A>>HOW DIFFERENT IS NEW LUXURY FROM OLD LUXURY?

Traditionally, underlying the consumption of luxury goods was the principle of rarity (Veblen 1899). However, Silverstein and Fiske (2003) identified a new type of luxury-goods consumer responsible for democratizing the luxury market (Tsai 2005). These middle-market consumers selectively trade up to "higher levels of quality, taste and aspiration." Indeed, these luxury brands have helped the middle class attain the perception of prosperity (Schwartz 2002). Not only is luxury being democratized, but the goods traditionally considered luxury are also changing. Traditional luxury categories such as furs, watches, and jewelry, are being replaced by home appliances, fine dining, bath soap, and travel. Indeed, according to Danziger (2005), the old luxury was defined by product category, while the new luxury is independent of product category and is all about the experience.

The total market for luxury products and services in 2007 contributed to \$321.9 billion in consumer spending (Unity Marketing 2008). Notably, this did not include the ever-expanding new luxury marketplace. Indeed, the emergence of new luxury in virtually every product category and the democratization of luxury (Tsai 2005), making the luxury experience accessible to more consumers, is viewed by many observers as a radical transformation of the luxury

market. However, if the terms *old luxury* and *new luxury* are to facilitate understanding and discussion of this transformation rather than confuse the issue of what luxury really is, the relationship between the two concepts should be clarified. The latter concept is differentiated from the former concept in that it is not restricted to specific product categories. Further, the aspect of conspicuous consumption is less important for the latter concept, giving way to a more complete focus on experience, affect, and hedonism. Notwithstanding this trend in the marketplace, old luxury clearly exists alongside new luxury. Further, consumers' perceptions of old luxury inform their perceptions of new luxury, and the clear distinction between the two concepts is somewhat arbitrary. However, the distinction may nonetheless be useful for brand management in the current marketplace. While the old luxury market focused on the status and prestige of the brand, the new luxury market focuses on the pleasure and emotional connection the consumer has with the brand. In the old luxury market, brand management entailed managing the attributes, features, and image of the brand so as to convey the perception of luxury to consumers.

Notably, what constitutes luxury today is reflective of the changing nature of consumer needs, specifically the evolution of utilitarian or basic needs to hedonic or higher order needs. Many consumers no longer struggle to meet basic needs of survival, security, and comfort but strive toward enhancing their pleasure and broadening their life experiences. As the face of the luxury market rapidly changes, the issue of how luxury brands can and should be strategically and dynamically managed so they connect with consumers on an emotional level, ensuring that the consumer derives pleasure from the brand experience at each encounter, becomes an important issue to academic researchers and marketers.

## **<<A>>REVIEW OF THE EXTANT LITERATURE ON LUXURY BRANDING**

### **<<B>>What Is a Luxury Brand?**

Merriam-Webster's dictionary (2009) defines luxury as "a condition of abundance or great ease and comfort" or "something adding to pleasure or comfort but not absolutely necessary." This popular notion illustrates a clear link between the concept of luxury and the concept of hedonic consumption (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). Indeed, Vigneron and Johnson (2004), citing

Kapferer (1997), describe luxury products as those that provide extra pleasure and flatter all senses at once. They expand on this description to argue that psychological benefits, rather than functional benefits, are the main factor distinguishing luxury products from nonluxury products. Berry (1994) distinguishes luxury products from necessities by suggesting that necessities are utilitarian objects that help relieve the unpleasant state of discomfort while luxuries are seen as desirable objects that provide pleasure. Others have defined luxury products as those for which the ratio of functionality to price is low, but for which the ratio of intangible and situational utility to price is high (Nueno and Quelch 1998).

In this chapter, we put forward a consumer-focused definition of luxury brands that is reflective of current market trends and the emergence of new luxury. We conceptualize a luxury brand as one that is at the top of its category in terms of premiumness and connects with consumers on an emotional level, providing pleasure as a central benefit (Hagtvedt and Patrick 2008a). We suggest that this formulation of a luxury brand captures the prerequisite of premiumness for luxury but emphasizes the delivery of emotional benefits that constitute the primary benefit obtained by the consumer.

### **<<B>>What Are the Correlates of Luxury Brands?**

Extant research has investigated the different aspects of a brand that signal luxury to consumers. Although this research has largely examined what might be considered most relevant for old luxury, some of these brand correlates remain important for new luxury as well, although empirical research is needed to determine which ones they are.

Phau and Prendergast (2000) suggest that luxury brands are those that imply exclusivity, have a strong brand identity, have high brand awareness, and are perceived to be high quality. Indeed, other research systematically investigates the multidimensional nature of the luxury brand concept and suggests how these dimensions should be managed for creating lasting luxury brand value. Vigneron and Johnson (2004), for instance, propose five key dimensions of a luxury brand: perceived quality, perceived conspicuousness, perceived uniqueness, perceived extended self, and perceived hedonism. The first of these dimensions simply refers to the expectation that luxury brands should offer superior performance (Gentry et al. 2001). While an important source of revenue expansion for firms is increased purchase intent induced by increased perceptions of

quality (Rust, Moorman, and Dickson 2002), luxury also implies premium pricing that could deter some consumers who might prefer a value-for-money proposition that connotes more quality per dollar spent. For the next three dimensions of luxury, a high price is, in fact, desirable. The concept of conspicuous consumption suggests that consumers purchase conspicuous goods because of their social signaling effect. These consumers thus achieve an enhanced level of status or prestige that sets them apart from others (Veblen 1899). Indeed, some research has even suggested that consumers' propensity to purchase a luxury brand is dependent on their susceptibility to interpersonal influence (Bearden and Etzel 1982). Perceived uniqueness or scarcity of the products adds to this social signaling effect, and firms sometimes incorporate this into brand strategies. For instance, Ferrari promised not to produce more than 4,300 vehicles despite a more than a two-year waiting list for its cars, and Christian Dior even sued supermarkets for carrying its products, fearing that wide availability could hurt its exclusive image (cited in Amaldoss and Jain 2005). The underlying assumption here is that luxury brands may serve to classify or distinguish consumers in relation to others. Consumers may also integrate the symbolic meaning of these brands into their own identity (Holt 1995). Belk's (1988) concept of extended self suggests that possessions may form part of a consumer's identity, and the construction of the self thus seems to be a factor in luxury consumption (Vigneron and Johnson 2004).

The last dimension, perceived hedonism, refers to the sensory gratification, as opposed to the social context, of luxury consumption. The hedonic aspect of luxury consumption thus refers to the intrinsic pleasure and emotional reward derived from the consumption experience itself (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). This notion also is in line with Silverstein and Fiske's (2003) new luxury, that is, premium goods that connect with consumers on an emotional level, and it allows for luxury branding across a wide variety of product categories. After all, pleasure is not only a fundamental human drive (Higgins 1997), but it is universally applicable in that a consumer may be delighted and feel sensory and emotional gratification through the consumption of virtually any product category. Indeed, the "luxury fever" (Frank 1999) that has purportedly swept the nation is proposed to be not the pursuit of furs, diamonds, and cars, but of traditionally functional items like grills, washing machines, and lawnmowers. Further, although the rarity principle underlying conspicuous consumption (Dubois and Paternault 1995; Veblen 1899) may be counteracted by a high availability of products belonging to a luxury brand, there

is no evident reason why consumers would be averse to sensory and emotional gratification in abundance.

### **<<B>>Consumer Choice of Luxury Brands**

Although research on luxury branding from a consumer's perspective is still at an early stage, some extant literature sheds light on motivations that drive consumers to choose luxury products and on conditions that facilitate choice of a luxury brand option. Early research motivated by economic theory has analyzed the consumption choices of affluent consumers (Dubois and Duquesne 1993; Dubois and Laurent 1993; Veblen 1899), the role of snobbery and conspicuousness in consumption choices (Leibenstein 1950), and the economic and political factors that drive luxury purchases (Vigneron and Johnson 1999). Other research has investigated consumer characteristics that predispose them to luxury consumption. Bearden and Etzel (1982) have shown that for consumers susceptible to interpersonal influence, approval from their reference group is a strong motivator for luxury brand choice. Dubois and Laurent (1994) suggest that individuals with high hedonistic and perfectionist motives are more likely to purchase luxury products, but feelings of guilt, on the other hand, dissuade consumers from making these purchases (Kivetz and Simonson 2002). Wong and Ahuvia (1998) illustrate that Asians and Westerners differ in their motivations to purchase status goods and luxury brands, implicating cultural differences as a driver of luxury consumption. They assert that since East Asian culture is based on an interpersonal construal of self, Asians (vs. Westerners) tend to be influenced by group norms and goals, leading to a preference for public and visible possessions that communicate financial achievement. Conversely, Asians appear less likely than Westerners to display materialistic behavior based on personal tastes, traits, or goals. In a similar vein, Tsai (2005) discusses the differences between socially oriented and personally oriented consumers in terms of the luxury market, and also provides recommendations for enhancing luxury-brand purchase value for personally oriented consumers.

There are also scattered research findings that illuminate some situational factors that drive brand choice. Mandel, Petrova, and Cialdini (2006) demonstrate that when a depicted media personality is perceived to be similar and the media depiction is one of success (vs. failure) consumers tend to exhibit increased expectations of their own future wealth along with a

preference for luxury brands. Chartrand and colleagues (2008) demonstrate that primed exposure to a premium/luxury concept (e.g., walking past Nordstrom) activates a prestige goal and results in an increased propensity to choose a luxury product (choice of a more expensive pair of socks). Kivetz and Simonson (2002) illustrate that when making a choice between a hedonic experience (going on a cruise) and a utilitarian one (saving for college), feelings of guilt often result in consumers choosing the latter. Interestingly, however, these researchers show that knowledge about these feelings of guilt results in individuals precommitting to luxury over necessities. These researchers show that people do prefer indulgent awards and that these awards are more effective than cash as an incentive to participate in a lottery, underscoring the appeal of luxury and its power to influence consumer behavior.

Dubois and Paternault (1995) discuss how the appeal of luxury can also change in a cycle of aspiration and consumption. These authors suggest that the luxury concept has “dream value.” The paradox of luxury marketing is revealed through a regression analysis that shows that for luxury brands, awareness feeds the dream of owning the brand, but purchase makes the dream come true, thereby contributing to destroy it.

## **<<A>>SUMMARY OF THE EXTANT LITERATURE AND IDENTIFICATION OF GAPS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

Extant literature has focused a great deal on definitions and conceptualizations of the luxury brand and the correlates of luxury that connote luxury status. This was a reasonable approach since the purpose of the research was to enable better strategic decisions related to management of luxury brands and to determine the extent to which product features and attributes (like price or quality) determined luxury brand status. Early research also investigated the personality-related and social factors that drove luxury brand choice. Recent research in consumer behavior has begun to investigate the choice of a luxury brand as a dependent variable and the conditions under which this occurs. In this chapter, we identify three key sets of issues that represent gaps in the current knowledge: how luxury is conceptualized today, how consumers process luxury brand information, and what benefits and risks are associated with the luxury brand concept. These are pertinent today given the changing face of luxury in the marketplace and its emergence in diverse product categories.

First, we suggest a reconceptualization of what constitutes luxury in today's marketplace. We propose that luxury is pursued for its own sake and that the hedonic potential of luxury brands is what primarily distinguishes them from other brands within their category. We assert that the processing style and manner in which consumers respond to the luxury concept remains a "black box" even today. One might derive some insight into this black box from related research on hedonic consumer behavior, but an in-depth understanding of consumer response to the luxury brand concept is lacking in the current literature. Further, this understanding of consumer responses to luxury lends insight to a related issue of how managers can strategically and effectively manage luxury brands with a focus on the benefits and risks a luxury brand affords.

To summarize, we identify three key gaps in the literature and call for future research to illuminate these gaps:

<<NL>>

1. To reconceptualize the luxury concept in the context of current market trends and conditions and to determine the source from which consumers derive value from luxury consumption.
2. To understand how luxury brands are evaluated, in other words, how consumers process luxury brand information.
3. To determine the benefits and risks of managing luxury brands and to provide insights to enable a more effective and strategic management of these brands.

<<END NL>>

### <<B>>Gap 1: Reconceptualizing Luxury Brands

It is assumed in marketing thought that the greater the benefits are that consumers derive, the more they are willing to pay. Thus, luxury brands have been able to command a premium price for the benefits of status, conspicuousness, and exclusivity. Indeed, extant research demonstrates that consumers view premium prices as indicators of higher quality (Quelch 1987; Garfein 1989; Arghavan and Zaichkowsky 2000; O'Cass and Frost 2002). Further, it is often said that luxury products often are purchased simply because they cost more, without providing additional direct utility over cheaper counterparts (Dubois and Duquesne 1993).

However, the real utility a consumer derives from a luxury product is largely psychological, and it is the psychological benefits that distinguish luxury products from nonluxury products and counterfeits (Arghavan and Zaichkowsky 2000). Increasingly, consumers are more willing to spend on luxury experiences, especially for holiday accommodations, home furnishings, food for dinner parties, restaurants, and so on, in other words, for hedonic experiences, status-related items, and products that are going to last a lifetime (Allsopp 2005). Given this, we conceptualize a luxury brand as one that is at the top of its category in terms of premiumness and connects with consumers on an emotional level, providing pleasure as a central benefit.

To better understand consumer response to luxury, we propose that the notion of luxury for its own sake should also be highlighted. Little or no research has been conducted or even proposed in this regard, but there is a growing stream of research in arts and aesthetics that may shed light on the subject. Dissanayake (1995) discusses art in relation to the concept of “making special” or “artifying,” tied to religion and ritualistic behavior. In other words, humans have a drive, developed through the process of evolution, to make and experience the extraordinary, and this is what underlies our impulse for artistic creation and consumption. It seems reasonable to propose a parallel for the creation and consumption of luxury. Indeed, Kapferer (1997) refers to luxury as art applied to functional items. Similarly, Hagtvedt and Patrick (2008b) discuss the luxury perceptions inherent in the concept of art, noting that both are tied to a special kind of quest for excellence. Of course, this does not imply that luxury is the most salient or important aspect of art, but that an underlying drive that gives rise to both these expressions of human ingenuity stems from the same source, that is, the desire to experience the extraordinary.

Extant literature asserts that artworks, in the pure sense of the word, are valued in and of themselves and possess no utilitarian value (Hagtvedt and Patrick 2008b; Hirschman 1983). Indeed, it is argued that aesthetic experiences in general must be intrinsically motivated (Averill, Stanat, and More 1998). This intrinsic value is tied to the experience of the extraordinary for its own sake, and thus, following the above argument, pertains also to the concept of luxury. This insight further clarifies the role of hedonism in luxury consumption and exemplifies the relation to and relevance for research on luxury of several separate streams of research, such as those pertaining to arts, aesthetics, design, and hedonic products. Indeed, research in luxury might

greatly benefit from the development of an overarching framework that captures the commonalities between these related areas.

## **<<B>>Gap 2: Understanding Consumer Processing of the Luxury Brand Concept**

Although there has not been much research that explicitly investigates the processing of luxury brand concepts, we can draw on the emerging stream of literature that investigates consumer responses to hedonic products as a starting point. Hedonic goods are multisensory and associated with fun, feelings, pleasure, excitement, and fantasy (Hirschman and Holbrook 1982). Previous research has suggested that hedonic products are evaluated by a different set of criteria (c.f. Yeung and Wyer 2004, 2005) and elicit a different set of consumption goals compared to functional products (Pham 1998).

We propose that luxury brands are also likely to be evaluated based on a different set of criteria than other brands. Given that a luxury brand is defined in terms of the emotional and hedonic benefits it delivers, the extent to which a luxury brand is able to meet affective expectations is more likely to influence evaluation than its performance along a series of attributes (c.f. Patrick, MacInnis, and Park 2007). Consequently, we might posit that if the brand delivers emotional gratification from consumption, the re-experience of this benefit may also be a key driver for repurchase as opposed to satisfaction in terms of specific performance criteria (Hagtvedt and Patrick 2008a). This notion has been supported in the literature in the context of hedonic products, in which Chitturi, Raghunathan, and Mahajan (2008) suggest that while functional products satisfy, hedonic products delight. We would argue that this experience of delight is likely to be a key driver of future purchase, not mere satisfaction, and re-experiencing emotional gratification becomes the consumption goal, not merely repurchase.

As Thomson, MacInnis, and Park (2005) point out, emotional attachment is indeed the tie that binds. Luxury brands constitute a unique context in which to examine some of the key findings in the attachment literature. We would argue that this is a category in which functionality and performance is less important than the emotional connection. The implications for brand loyalty within this category are also an important area for future investigation. Finally, recent research has emphasized the differential processing of brands among different populations, such as, for instance the holistic processing prevalent in Eastern societies versus the

analytic processing prevalent in Western societies (Chapter 13). Future research may investigate other cross-cultural differences in the processing of the luxury brand concept.

### **<<B>>Gap 3: Identifying the Benefits and Risks of the Luxury Brand Concept**

Given the recent trends in the marketplace of “trading up” and the emergence of new luxury products in virtually every product category (Silverstein and Fiske 2003), a systematic understanding of the benefits and risks of the luxury brand concept as conceptualized here is needed. Based on the earlier discussion, the hedonic properties inherent in a luxury proposition represent benefits for the luxury brand that merit further investigation. After all, hedonic benefits are desirable in and of themselves, with the implications this has for brand and brand extension evaluations, attachment to the brand, purchase behavior, and so on. For instance, this aspect of hedonism implies that a luxury brand is inherently desirable, that luxury brand extensions may be judged on a less strictly rational basis than other brand extensions, that consumer attachment may be easier to achieve with luxury brands, and so on (see also Park, Milberg, and Lawson 1991). Indeed, the centrality of pleasure and emotional connection in the current conceptualization of luxury suggests that the feelings-as-information approach (Schwarz and Clore 1983) may be useful for the investigation of consumer responses to luxury branding (Hagtvedt and Patrick 2008a).

The management of a luxury brand portfolio is also an area in which a great deal of future research might be conducted. The issues of whether a brand should line extend within its category or extend across categories, and the overall impact of the brand on marketing-related criteria such as market share and shareholder value (see Park and Eisingerich 2008), are important for future investigation. Indeed, placing a monetary valuation on the emotional benefits delivered by a brand and translating this emotional brand value into a dollar value is important for future research.

It should also be noted, however, that there may be specific risks inherent in the luxury brand concept. Brand management entails, in part, maintaining consistency and positive brand associations in brand communication (Keller 1993; Park, Jaworski, and MacInnis 1986). The commitment to a specific brand concept entails providing brand cues consistent with that brand concept. For example, cues such as premium pricing and exclusive distribution may be

considered consistent with a luxury brand concept (Amaldoss and Jain 2005; Silverstein and Fiske 2003). Further, cheap extensions may have an adverse impact on a parent luxury brand (Kirmani, Sood, and Bridges 1999). Research on brand dilution suggests that providing cues that are inconsistent with a brand concept decreases brand evaluation and consequently might have an impact on brand extendibility (Buchanan, Simmons, and Bickart 1999). In fact, even positively valued attributes, if they occur in a product in unexpected combinations, may lead to incoherence and uncertainty, which in turn may have an unfavorable influence on brand evaluation (Kayande et al. 2007).

Based on our assertion that hedonic associations are central to the luxury brand concept, a potential downside to this is that these perceptions are difficult to maintain and have to be carefully managed. Indeed, it seems reasonable that a luxury brand is sensitive to inconsistencies in brand cues, and that a disruption or interference of hedonic perceptions may cause unfavorable consumer evaluations and brand dilution. Further, inconsistencies in brand cues in extension categories are likely to have negative feedback effects on the parent brand.

Similarly, brand evaluation is enhanced by associating the brand with positive brand cues, while it is diminished by associating the brand with negative brand cues (Park et al. 1986). Several brand cues may influence how a brand is evaluated, for instance, advertising images, celebrity endorsement, product packaging, or word-of-mouth. In general, negative information about a product's attributes influences brand perceptions more than positive information does (Herr, Kardes, and Kim 1991) since consumers weigh negative information more heavily than positive information when forming overall brand attitudes (Herr et al. 1991). It seems reasonable that different brand concepts may be differentially sensitive to negative brand cues, and that consumers may be particularly sensitive to negative cues associated with the luxury brand concept, if the evaluation of this brand is based more on a general positive emotional connection than on specific performance criteria.

## **<<A>>CONCLUSIONS**

This chapter gives a brief introduction to recent research pertaining to luxury branding. Indeed, brevity is not difficult to achieve here, because only a few scholars have, as of yet, focused on this area. To better understand the domain of luxury, one might draw on previous research on

prestige, conspicuous consumption, premium products, and so on, but luxury branding also merits a great deal of further attention. In this chapter, we have outlined some of the major issues in most immediate need of further research. Issues thus discussed pertain to the evaluation of luxury brands, processing of luxury brand information, and risks and benefits associated with luxury branding. Future research might also illuminate issues such as the possible moderating role of consumer goals on luxury brand evaluations and purchase intent, or the role of specific emotions in consumer response to luxury branding. Further, in line with recent literature (e.g., Silverstein and Fiske 2003), the current chapter emphasizes the democratization and changing face of the luxury market, with the notion that the luxury concept may apply to virtually any product category. However, future research may investigate whether new luxury and old luxury afford the same experience to consumers, and whether the inclusion of specific product types to a luxury brand may add to or detract from the favorable influence of a luxury brand proposition on, for instance, brand evaluation or purchase intent. Finally, while extant literature highlights cultural differences in the appeal of luxury (Wong and Ahuvia 1998), it seems clear that luxury also has universal appeals. Future research might disentangle cultural influences from biological predispositions in regard to luxury consumption, thus also providing insights for the strategic management of luxury brands across nations and cultures.

## <<A>>REFERENCES

- Allsopp, Jamie (2005). "Premium Pricing: Understanding the Value of Premium," *Journal of Revenue and Pricing Management*, 4 (July), 185–194.
- Amaldoss, Wilfred, and Sanjay Jain (2005). "Conspicuous Consumption and Sophisticated Thinking," *Management Science*, 51 (October), 1449–1466.
- Arghavan, Nia, and Judy L. Zaichkowsky (2000). "Do Counterfeits Devalue the Ownership of Luxury Brands?" *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 9 (7), 485–497.
- Averill, James R., Petra Stanat, and Thomas A. More (1998). "Aesthetics and the Environment," *Review of General Psychology*, 2 (2), 153–174.
- Bearden, William O., and Michael J. Etzel (1982). "Reference Group Influence on Product and Brand Purchase Decisions," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9 (September), 183–194.

- Belk, Russell W. (1988). "Possessions and the Extended Self," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15 (September), 139–168.
- Berry, Christopher J. (1994). "The Idea of Luxury: A Conceptual and Historical Investigation," Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Buchanan, Lauranne, Carolyn J. Simmons, and Barbara A. Bickart (1999). "Brand Equity Dilution: Retailer Display and Context Brand Effects," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 36 (August), 345–355.
- Chartrand, Tanya L., Joel Huber, Baba Shiv, and Robin J. Tanner (2008). "Nonconscious Goals and Consumer Choice," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35 (August), 189–201.
- Chitturi, Ravindra, Rajagopal Raghunathan, and Vijay Mahajan (2008). "Delight by Design: The Role of Hedonic versus Utilitarian Benefits," *Journal of Marketing*, 72 (May), 48–63.
- Danziger, Pamela N. (2005). *Let Them Eat Cake: Marketing Luxury to the Masses—As well as the Classes*. Chicago, IL: Dearborn Trade Publishing.
- Dissanayake, Ellen (1995). *Homo Aestheticus: Where Art Comes From and Why*. Seattle, WA: University of Washington Press.
- Dubois, Bernard, and Patrick Duquesne (1993). "The Market for Luxury Goods: Income versus Culture," *European Journal of Marketing*, 27 (1), 35–44.
- Dubois, Bernard, and Gilles Laurent (1994). "Attitudes Toward the Concept of Luxury: An Exploratory Analysis," *Asia-Pacific Advances in Consumer Research*, 1 (2), 273–278.
- Dubois, Bernard, and Claire Paternault (1995). "Observations: Understanding the World of International Luxury Brands: The 'Dream Formula,'" *Journal of Advertising Research*, 35 (4), 69–76.
- Frank, Robert H. (1999). *Luxury Fever*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Garfein, Richard T. (1987). "Cross-Cultural Perspectives on the Dynamics of Prestige," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 3 (3), 17–33.
- Gentry, James W., Sanjay Putrevu, Clifford Shultz, and S. Commuri (2001). "How Now Ralph Lauren? The Separation of Brand and Product in a Counterfeit Culture," *Advances in Consumer Research*, 28 (1), 258–265.
- Hagtvedt, Henrik, and Vanessa M. Patrick (2008a). "The Broad Embrace of Luxury: Hedonic Potential as a Driver of Brand Extendibility." Working paper, University of Georgia.

- (2008b). “Art Infusion: The Influence of Visual Art on the Perception and Evaluation of Consumer Products,” *Journal of Marketing Research*, 45 (June), 379–389.
- Herr, Paul M., Frank R. Kardes, and John Kim (1991). “Effects of Word-of-Mouth and Product-Attribute Information on Persuasion: An Accessibility-Diagnosticity Perspective,” *Journal of Consumer Research*, 17 (March), 454–462.
- Higgins, E. Tory (1997). “Beyond Pleasure and Pain,” *American Psychologist*, 52 (December), 1280–1300.
- Hirschman, Elizabeth C. (1983). “Aesthetics, Ideologies and the Limits of the Marketing Concept,” *Journal of Marketing*, 47 (Summer), 45–55.
- Hirschman, Elizabeth C., and Morris B. Holbrook (1982). “Hedonic Consumption: Emerging Concepts, Methods and Propositions,” *Journal of Marketing*, 46 (Summer), 92–101.
- Holt, Douglas B. (1995). “How Consumers Consume: A Typology of Consumption Practices,” *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22 (June), 1–16.
- Kapferer, Jean-Noel (1997). “Managing Luxury Brands,” *Journal of Brand Management*, 4 (4), 251–260.
- Kayande, Ujwal, John H. Roberts, Gary L. Lilien, and Duncan K.H. Fong (2007). “Mapping the Bounds of Incoherence: How Far Can You Go and How Does It Affect Your Brand?” *Marketing Science*, 26 (4), 504–513.
- Keller, Kevin L. (1993). “Conceptualizing, Measuring, and Managing Customer-Based Brand Equity,” *Journal of Marketing*, 57 (January), 1–22.
- Kirmani, Amna, Sanjay Sood, and Sheri Bridges (1999). “The Ownership Effect in Consumer Responses to Brand Line Stretches,” *Journal of Marketing*, 63 (1), 88–101.
- Kivetz, Ran, and Itamar Simonson (2002). “Self-Control for the Righteous: Toward a Theory of Precommitment to Indulgence,” *Journal of Consumer Research*, 29 (September), 199–217.
- Leibenstein, Harvey (1950). “Bandwagon, Snob, and Veblen Effects in the Theory of Consumers’ Demand,” *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 64 (May), 183–207.
- Mandel, Naomi, Petia K. Petrova, and Robert B. Cialdini (2006). “Images of Success and the Preference for Luxury Brands,” *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 16 (1), 57–69.
- Merriam-Webster (2009), “Luxury,” <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/luxury>

- Nueno, Jose Luis, and John A. Quelch (1998). "The Mass Marketing of Luxury," *Business Horizons*, 41 (November/December), 61–68.
- O’Cass, Aron, and Hmily Frost (2002). "Status Brands: Examining the Effects of Non-Product-Related Brand Associations on Status and Conspicuous Consumption," *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 11 (2), 67–88.
- Park, C. Whan, and Andreas B. Eisingerich (2008). "Managing a Brand’s Extension Portfolio for Market Share Leadership and Shareholder Value." Working paper, University of Southern California.
- Park, C. Whan, Bernard J. Jaworski, and Deborah J. MacInnis (1986). "Strategic Brand Concept-Image Management," *Journal of Marketing*, 50 (October), 135–145.
- Park, C. Whan, Sandra Milberg, and Robert Lawson (1991). "Evaluation of Brand Extensions: The Role of Product Feature Similarity and Brand Concept Consistency," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18 (September), 185–193.
- Patrick, Vanessa M., Deborah J. MacInnis and C. Whan Park (2007). "Not as Happy as I Thought I’d Be: Affective Misforecasting and Product Evaluations," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 33 (4), 479–490.
- Pham, Michel Tuan (1998). "Representativeness, Relevance, and the Use of Feelings in Decision Making," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 25 (September), 144–159.
- Phau, Ian, and Gerard Prendergast (2000). "Consuming Luxury Brands: The Relevance of the ‘Rarity Principle,’” *Journal of Brand Management*, 7 (5), 366–75.
- Quelch, John A. (1987). "Marketing the Premium Product," *Business Horizons*, 30 (3), 38–45.
- Rust, Roland T., Christine Moorman, and Peter R. Dickson (2002). "Getting Return on Quality: Revenue Expansion, Cost Reduction, or Both?" *Journal of Marketing*, 66 (October), 7–24.
- Schwartz, John (2002). "Supersize American Dream: Expensive? I’ll Take It," *The New York Times*, December 16, 8.
- Schwarz, Norbert, and Gerald L. Clore (1983). "How Do I Feel About It? Informative Functions of Affective States." In *Affect, Cognition and Social Behavior*, ed. K. Fiedler and J.P. Forgas. Toronto: Hogrefe International, 44–62.

- Silverstein, Michael J., and Neil Fiske (2003). *Trading Up: The New American Luxury*. New York: Portfolio Penguin Group.
- Thomson, Matthew, Deborah J. MacInnis, and C. Whan Park (2005). "The Ties That Bind: Measuring the Strength of Consumers' Emotional Attachment to Brands," *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 15(1), 77–91.
- Tsai, Shu-pei (2005). "Impact of Personal Orientation on Luxury-Brand Purchase Value," *International Journal of Market Research*, 47 (4), 429–54.
- Unity Marketing (2008). "Luxury Report 2008: Who Buys Luxury, What They Buy and Why They Buy."  
[http://www.unitymarketingonline.com/cms\\_luxury/luxury/Luxury\\_Report\\_2008.php](http://www.unitymarketingonline.com/cms_luxury/luxury/Luxury_Report_2008.php)
- Veblen, Thorstein (1899). *The Theory of the Leisure Class*. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Vigneron, Franck, and Lester W. Johnson (2004). "Measuring Perceptions of Brand Luxury," *Brand Management*, 11 (July), 484–506.
- Wong, Nancy Y., and Aaron C. Ahuvia (1998). "Personal Taste and Family Face: Luxury Consumption in Confucian and Western Societies," *Psychology and Marketing*, 15 (5), 423–441.
- Yeung, Catherine W.M. and Robert S. Wyer Jr. (2004). "Affect, Appraisal, and Consumer Judgment," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (September), 412–424.
- . (2005). "Does Loving a Brand Mean Loving Its Products? The Role of Brand-Elicited Affect in Brand Extension Evaluations," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 42 (November), 495–506.