UNIVERSITY OF LJUBLJANA
SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS AND BUSINESS

PETAR GIDAKOVIĆ

MARKETING ASSETS' DEVELOPMENT AND THEIR MANAGEMENT DURING A BRAND CRISIS

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

Ljubljana, 2022

AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

The undersigned Petar Gidaković, a student at the University of Ljubljana, School of Economics and Business, (hereafter: SEB), author of this written final work of studies with the title Marketing assets' development and their management during a brand crisis, prepared under supervision of prof. dr. Vesna Žabkar.

D E C L A R E

1. this doctoral dissertation to be based on the results of my own research;
2. the printed form of this written final work of studies to be identical to its electronic form;
3. the text of this doctoral dissertation to be language-edited and technically in adherence with the SEB's Technical Guidelines for Written Works, which means that I cited and / or quoted works and opinions of other authors in this doctoral dissertation in accordance with the SEB's Technical Guidelines for Written Works;
4. to be aware of the fact that plagiarism (in written or graphical form) is a criminal offence and can be prosecuted in accordance with the Criminal Code of the Republic of Slovenia;
5. to be aware of the consequences a proven plagiarism charge based on this doctoral dissertation could have for my status at the SEB LU in accordance with the relevant SEB LU Rules;
6. to have obtained all the necessary permits to use the data and works of other authors which are (in written or graphical form) referred to in this doctoral dissertation and to have clearly marked them;
7. to have acted in accordance with ethical principles during the preparation of this doctoral dissertation and to have, where necessary, obtained permission of the Ethics Committee;
8. my consent to use the electronic form of this doctoral dissertation for the detection of content similarity with other written works, using similarity detection software that is connected with the SEB LU Study Information System;
9. to transfer to the University of Ljubljana free of charge, non-exclusively, geographically and time-wise unlimited the right of saving this doctoral dissertation in the electronic form, the right of its reproduction, as well as the right of making this doctoral dissertation available to the public on the World Wide Web via the Repository of the University of Ljubljana;
10. to have acquired from publishers, to whom I have previously exclusively transferred material copyrights for articles, all the necessary permissions for the inclusion of articles in the printed and electronic forms of this dissertation. These permissions enable the University of Ljubljana to save this doctoral dissertation in the electronic form, to reproduce it, as well as to make it publicly available on the World Wide Web via the Repository of the University of Ljubljana free of charge, non-exclusively, geographically and time-wise unlimited;
11. my consent to publication of my personal data that are included in this doctoral dissertation and in this declaration, when this doctoral dissertation is published.

Ljubljana, November 11th, 2022 Author's signature: _________________________

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I am extremely grateful to my supervisor, Professor Vesna Žabkar for her invaluable advice, continuous support, and patience during my PhD study. I also wish to thank Professors Adamantios Diamantopoulos, Barbara Čater, and, Maja Arslanagić-Kalajdžić, Martin Eisend, and Irena Vida for their invaluable methodological assistance and feedback on various parts of this dissertation. I would also like to acknowledge the support of Slovenian Research Agency and the School of Economics and Business University of Ljubljana, whose financial assistance enabled me to collect data for some of the studies included in this dissertation. Finally, I would like to express my gratitude to my family and friends. Without their tremendous understanding and encouragement in the past few years, it would be impossible for me to complete this PhD process.

SUMMARY

This dissertation attempts to answer numerous calls to enhance the relevance of marketing, both as a business function and as a scientific discipline. To improve the relevance of marketing scholarship, we investigate the role of construct clarity in the development of marketing research programs. We recognize that developing useful theories requires that the constructs that make up a theory have to be clear. Unfortunately, many marketing constructs suffer from conceptual confusion, which has detrimental consequences for marketing scholars, who waste limited research resources, and for marketing practitioners, who do not find the scholarly output useful. To address the relevance of marketing as a business function in companies, we investigate the development of marketing assets and their management during brand crises. We recognize that one of the most common roles of marketing practitioners is to develop, grow, and manage marketing assets. Brands and customer relationships represent two fundamental types of marketing assets. Marketing managers have to be able to explain how executing different marketing strategies, such as social and environmental responsibility or offering quality, can improve brand-related and customer-related marketing assets. Moreover, marketing managers also need to demonstrate that marketing assets transform marketing investments into firm's financial performance. However, brand crises, such as product-harm crises, ethical scandals, and data breaches, are becoming more frequent and costlier, which means that they pose a threat to firms' marketing assets and hurt a firm's financial performance.

The dissertation is structured in three chapters. In the first chapter, we address the role of construct clarity in progress and accumulation of marketing knowledge. We note that scholars from various disciplines have proposed several methodological approaches that can be used to assess and improve clarity of a construct. However, each specific approach has its limitations. To address this gap, we develop a literature review methodology, which integrates existing reviewing literature techniques and metatheoretical analysis tools and can be used to assess and improve construct clarity. We apply the proposed methodology to the fundamental marketing construct of perceived value and extract four dominant conceptualizations (i.e., acquisition value, experiential value, value-in-exchange, and value-in-use), which we organize into a theoretical typology. We also expose three questionable conceptualization practices (i.e., construct stretching, construct mixology, and deficient structural validity of higher-order multidimensional conceptualizations) that create conceptual confusion in the perceived value research program. We conclude the first chapter with an empirical study in which we compare different aspects of construct validity of four dominant conceptualizations of perceived value. The empirical study supports the proposed typology and reveals that more complex conceptualizations do not necessarily improve predictive validity in terms of purchase intentions and willingness to pay a price premium. However, more complex conceptualizations are better able to predict consumers' intentions to recommend the brand and to help other consumers acquire and use the brand's offerings.

We devote the second and third chapters to developing and testing the conceptual model that relates marketing investments, marketing assets and the firm's financial performance. In the second chapter, we lay out the psychological microfundations of the proposed model, which explains how marketing assets develop in the minds of consumers. Drawing on the impression formation theory, we propose that consumers form differentiated impressions of a brand's warmth based on information about the brand's treatment of employees (i.e., good employer association), customers (i.e., customer orientation association), and society at large (i.e., social and environmental responsibility association). On the other hand, consumers form impressions of the brand's competence based on information about the brand's performance on product/service market (i.e., corporate ability association) and in the financial market (i.e., financial performance association). The model predicts that warmth and competence impressions will affect brand trust. This enables us to link these impressions to the trust-value-loyalty model, extending the chain of effects from the knowledge and beliefs about a brand that consumers hold all the way to customer loyalty. Using experimental methods and surveys, we tested these propositions in three empirical studies, which support the proposed conceptual model.

In the third chapter, we study how to manage brand crises so that they have minimal negative effects on marketing assets and firm value. The multidisciplinary and fragmented literature offers mixed empirical results on the effects of the most common brand crisis response options—adopting an accommodative or defensive response strategy—on consumer and investor reactions. Therefore, we conduct a meta-analysis of vast multidisciplinary literature that compares the effects of accepting responsibility and repairing the harm (i.e., accommodative) vs. denying responsibility and delaying harm repair (i.e., defensive) response strategies. We find that accommodative response strategies generally outperform defensive ones. Moderation analysis shows that the positive effects of response strategies on marketing assets are stronger when firms combine ceremonial (e.g., apology) and technical (e.g., product recall) tactics and when the brand crisis is related to brand's competence (e.g., data breach) as opposed to brand's warmth (e.g., corporate social irresponsibility). We also find that firm's choice of a response strategy has no overall effect on firm value. We explain this nonsignificant finding by decomposing the total effect of response strategies on firm performance into a direct negative and an indirect positive effect, mediated by brand-related and customer-related marketing assets. Therefore, we also provide the first meta-analytic evidence that investments in marketing strategies contribute to shareholder value by growing and protecting marketing assets.

This dissertation contributes to several streams of literature (i.e., perceived value, branding, and crisis management), provides methodological contributions related to the construct clarity, and offers important implications for marketing scholars and managers.

Keywords: managerial relevance, marketing assets, brand associations, brand impressions, trust, value, loyalty, brand crisis, response strategy, firm performance

POVZETEK

Ta disertacija poskuša odgovoriti na številne pozive k boljši uporabnosti in večjemu pomenu trženja kot poslovne funkcije in znanstvene discipline. Da bi izboljšali uporabnost trženja kot znanstvene discipline, raziščemo vlogo jasnosti konstruktov v razvoju trženjskih znanstvenih programov. Pripoznamo, da razvoj uporabnih teorij zahteva, da so konstrukti, ki sestavljajo teorijo, jasni. Žal so mnogi trženjski konstrukti vir konceptualne zmede, kar ima škodljive posledice za trženjske znanstvenike, ki zapravljajo redke raziskovalne vire, in za trženjske praktike, ki se jim znanstvena dognanja ne zdijo uporabna. Za izboljšanje uporabnosti trženja kot poslovne funkcije v podjetjih raziščemo razvoj trženjskih sredstev in njihovo uravnavanje v krizah blagovnih znamk. Zavedamo se, da med najpogostejše naloge tržnikov v podjetjih sodijo razvoj, rast in uravnavanje trženjskih sredstev. Blagovne znamke in odnosi z odjemalci predstavljajo temeljni vrsti tržnih sredstev. Trženjski managerji morajo razložiti, kako lahko izvajanje različnih trženjskih strategij, kot sta na primer družbena in okoljska odgovornost ali kakovost izdelkov in storitev, okrepi trženjska sredstva, povezana z blagovno znamko in odjemalci. Poleg tega morajo trženjski managerji dokazati, da trženjska sredstva pretvorijo naložbe v trženjske strategije v finančno uspešnost podjetja. Ob tem pa so krize blagovnih znamk, kot so krize zaradi odpoklica izdelkov, etični škandali in kršitve varnosti osebnih podatkov, vse pogostejše in dražje, kar pomeni, da ogrožajo trženjska sredstva in škodijo finančni uspešnosti podjetij.

Disertacija je sestavljena iz treh poglavij. V prvem poglavju obravnavamo vlogo jasnosti konstruktov pri napredku in akumulaciji trženjskega znanja. Opažamo, da so znanstveniki iz različnih strok razvili več metodoloških pristopov, ki so uporabni za analizo in izboljšanje jasnosti konstruktov. Vendar ima vsak posamezen pristop svoje omejitve. Da bi odpravili to vrzel, razvijemo metodologijo za pregled literature, ki integrira obstoječe tehnike pregleda literature z orodji za metateoretično analizo in je uporabna za oceno ter izboljšanje jasnosti konstruktov. Predlagano metodologijo apliciramo na temeljni konstrukt zaznane vrednosti in izluščimo štiri prevladujoče konceptualizacije (pridobitvena vrednost, izkustvena vrednost, vrednost v menjavi in vrednost v uporabi), ki jih organiziramo v teoretično tipologijo. Izpostavimo tudi tri sporne pristope h konceptualizaciji (tj. raztezanje konstruktov, mešanje konstruktov in pomanjkljiva strukturna veljavnost večdimenzionalnih konstruktov višjega reda), ki ustvarjajo konceptualno zmedo v znanstvenem programu zaznane vrednosti. Prvo poglavje zaključimo z empirično študijo, v kateri primerjamo različne vidike veljavnosti štirih prevladujočih konceptualizacij zaznane vrednosti. Empirična študija podpira predlagano tipologijo in razkriva, da kompleksnejše konceptualizacije niso nujno boljše z vidika napovedne veljavnosti nakupnih namer in pripravljenosti plačati cenovno premijo. Vendar pa so bolj kompleksne konceptualizacije zaznane vrednosti sposobne bolje napovedati namere porabnikov, da priporočijo blagovno znamko in pomagajo drugim porabnikom pri pridobivanju in uporabi izdelkov in storitev blagovne znamke.

Drugo in tretje poglavje posvečamo razvoju in testiranju konceptualnega modela, ki povezuje trženjske strategije, trženjska sredstva in finančno uspešnost podjetja. V drugem poglavju vzpostavimo psihološke mikrofundacije predlaganega modela, ki pojasnjuje, kako se trženjska sredstva oblikujejo v očeh porabnikov. Na podlagi teorije oblikovanja vtisov predlagamo, da porabniki oblikujejo različne vtise o toplini blagovne znamke na podlagi informacij o ravnanju blagovne znamke z različnimi deležniki – porabniki (asociacije naravnanosti k odjemalcem), zaposlenimi (asociacije dobrega delodajalca) in družbe kot celote (asociacije družbene in okoljske odgovornosti). Po drugi strani pa porabniki oblikujejo vtise o kompetentnosti blagovne znamke na podlagi informacij o uspešnosti znamke na porabniškem trgu (asociacije korporativne zmožnosti) in na finančnem trgu (asociacije finančne uspešnosti). Model predvideva, da vtisi topline in kompetentnosti vplivajo na zaupanje v blagovno znamko. To nam omogoča, da te vtise povežemo z modelom zaupanje-vrednost-zvestoba, s čimer razširimo verigo učinkov od porabniških informacij in prepričanj o blagovni znamki vse do zvestobe odjemalcev. Z uporabo eksperimentalnih in anketnih podatkov preizkusimo predlagane povezave med konstrukti v treh empiričnih študijah, ki podpirajo predlagani konceptualni model.

V tretjem poglavju proučujemo, kako uravnavati krize blagovnih znamk tako, da bodo imele minimalne negativne učinke na trženjska sredstva in finančno vrednost podjetja. Multidisciplinarna in razdrobljena literatura o uravnavanju poslovnih kriz ponuja nedoločne empirične rezultate o učinkih dveh osnovnih strategij na uravnavanje kriz blagovnih znamk – sprejetje prilagodljive ali obrambne strategije – na odzive porabnikov in vlagateljev. Zato izvedemo metaanalizo obsežne literature, ki primerja učinke sprejetja odgovornosti in popravila škode (prilagodljiva strategija) proti zanikanju odgovornosti in odlašanju prizadevanj za odpravo škode (obrambna strategija). Ugotovimo, da so prilagodljive strategije v povprečju bolj učinkovite od obrambnih strategij. Analiza moderacije pokaže, da so pozitivni učinki prilagodljivih strategij (v primerjavi z obrambnimi) na trženjska sredstva močnejši, če podjetja hkrati uporabijo ceremonialne (npr. opravičilo) in tehnične (npr. odpoklic izdelka) taktike, kot pa če uporabijo samo eno vrsto taktik (ceremonialne ali tehnične). Poleg tega so pozitivni učinki prilagodljivih strategij (v primerjavi z obrambnimi) na trženjska sredstva močnejši, ko je kriza blagovne znamke povezana s kompetentnostjo blagovne znamke (npr. kršitev varstva osebnih podatkov), ter šibkejši, ko je kriza povezana s toplino blagovne znamke (npr. etični škandal). Prav tako ugotavljamo, da izbira prilagodljive ali obrambne strategije nima značilnega vpliva na finančno vrednost podjetja. Ta rezultat razložimo z dekompozicijo celotnega učinka strategij za uravnavanje krize blagovne znamke na uspešnost podjetja na neposreden negativni in posreden pozitivni učinek, ki ga posredujejo trženjska sredstva, povezana z blagovno znamko in odjemalci. Tako prispevamo tudi prve metaanalitične dokaze, da naložbe v trženjske strategije prispevajo k finančni vrednosti podjetja skozi rast in zaščito trženjskih sredstev.

Ta disertacija prispeva k številnim tokovom literature (zaznani vrednosti, znamčenju in kriznem uravnavanju), nudi metodološke prispevke, povezane z jasnostjo konstruktov in prinaša pomembne implikacije za trženjske znanstvenike in praktike.

Ključne besede: managerska uporabnost, trženjska sredstva, vtisi o blagovni znamki, zaupanje, vrednost, zvestoba, kriza blagovne znamke, strategija uravnvanja krize blagovne znamke, uspešnost podjetja

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF APPENDICES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

sl. – Slovene

B2B – (sl. medorganizacijski trg); business-to-business

B2C – (sl. porabniški trg); business-to-consumer

CAM – (sl. metoda konceptualne analize); conceptual analysis method

CMO – (sl. trženjski manager); chief marketing officer

CRM – (sl. management odnosov z odjemalci); customer relationship management

CSR – (sl. družbena odgovornost korporacij); corporate social responsability

HLM – (sl. hierarhično linearno modeliranje); hierarchical linear modeling

M – (sl. aritmetična sredina); arithmetic mean value

PV – (sl. zaznana vrednost); perceived value

PWOM – (sl. pozitivne govorice); positive word of mouth

SD – (sl. standardni odklon); standard deviation

SEM – (sl. modeliranje strukturnih enačb); structural equation modelling

TVLM – (sl. model zaupanje-vrednost-zvestoba); trust-value-loyalty model

VIF – (sl. faktor povečanja variance); variance inflation factor

WTP – (sl. pripravljenost plačati cenovno premijo); willingness to pay a price premium

INTRODUCTION

Research background and dissertation topic area

The relevance and credibility of marketing—both as a business function and academic discipline—have been repeatedly questioned and scrutinized (Eisend, 2015; Haenlein, Bitner, Kohli, Lemon, & Reibstein, 2021; Key, Clark, Ferrell, Stewart, & Pitt, 2020; Sheth & Sisodia, 1995). The case of Tesla shows that firms can be very successful even if they do not have a chief marketing officer (CMO) and marketing department and they do not invest in marketing research and advertising (Koetsier, 2019; Mautz, 2019; Rahman, 2020). Moreover, even in firms that are market oriented (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990) and organized for marketing excellence (Homburg, Theel, & Hohenberg, 2020; Moorman & Day, 2016), CMOs and their departments are "under increasing pressure to perform" (Kumar, 2018b, p. 2) and "to demonstrate their economic value to the firm" (Hanssens & Pauwels, 2016, p. 173). To be taken seriously, "marketing needs metrics that demonstrate its economic value" (Ding et al., 2020, p. 182) and CMOs must be able to explain the processes and mechanisms that transform investments in marketing into firm performance (Ambler et al., 2002; Diorio, 2017; Sunil Gupta & Zeithaml, 2006; N. A. Morgan, 2012; N. A. Morgan, Whitler, Feng, & Chari, 2019; Petersen et al., 2009; Pimenta da Gama, 2011; Sheth & Sisodia, 2002; Stewart, 2009).

A common way for marketing to improve firms' operational and financial performance is by establishing, growing, and managing *marketing assets*. A marketing asset is defined as a "value-producing resource" that is "intangible; apparently measurable only in intermediate terms such as brand awareness or sales force productivity; normally created only through the investment of resources; largely outwith the normal scope of financial evaluation, other than crudely as 'goodwill'" (Piercy, 1986, pp. 9-10). Marketing assets can be considered "customer-focused measures of the value of the firm and its offerings" (Rust, Ambler, Carpenter, Kumar, & Srivastava, 2004, p. 78) that "arise from the commingling of the firm with entities in its external environment" (Srivastava, Shervani, & Fahey, 1998, p. 2). *Brand-related marketing assets*, such as trademarks and consumers' positive attitudes toward the brand[1], and *customer-related marketing assets*, such as customer relationship management (CRM) systems and customer[2] loyalty, are two important types of marketing assets (Lukas, Whitwell, & Doyle, 2005; Oblander, Gupta, Mela, Winer, & Lehmann, 2020; Oh, Keller,

[1] Although there has been much debate on how to define the term *brand* (D. A. Aaker, 1991; Conejo & Wooliscroft, 2014a, 2014b; Davcik, Vinhas da Silva, & Hair, 2015; de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; de Lencastre & Côrte-Real, 2010; Gaski, 2014, 2020; Hankinson & Cowking, 1995; C. Jones & Bonevac, 2013; Keller, 1993; Ko, Costello, & Taylor, 2019; Manning, 2010; Merz, He, & Vargo, 2009; Stern, 2006), we use the definition from Avis and Henderson (2022, p. 636): "A brand is a trade name/logo that identifies a product or firm, usage of which may be limited by legal structures and practice."

[2] We define the term *customer* as the "purchaser of a product or service" (Marketing Accountability Standards Board, 2020b) and distinguish it from the term consumer, defined as "the ultimate user or consumer of goods, ideas, and services" (Marketing Accountability Standards Board, 2020a).

Neslin, Reibstein, & Lehmann, 2020; S. Srinivasan, Vanhuele, & Pauwels, 2010; Srivastava, Fahey, & Christensen, 2001). Thus, it is unsurprising that developing and managing brands and customer relationships are among the most common strategic priorities for CMOs and important tasks for their departments (Balis, 2021; Boston Consulting Group, 2022; Gartner, 2021a; N. A. Morgan et al., 2019; Rodriguez-Villá, Bharadwaj, Morgan, & Mitra, 2020). Brands and customer relationships are also two of the largest areas of investment of marketing budgets (CMO Survey, 2021; Gartner, 2021b; Hanssens, Thorpe, & Finkbeiner, 2008). Furthermore, branding and customer relationship management are two of the most desired skills of today's marketers (Brenner, 2022; Claessens, 2021; Nicastro, 2020). In this dissertation, we define brand-related marketing assets as consumers' positive perceptions of and attitudes toward a brand (S. Srinivasan & Hanssens, 2009). We define customer-related marketing assets as customers' positive behavioral tendencies or behaviors toward a brand (Edeling & Fischer, 2016)

Due to several reasons, measuring and demonstrating the effects of marketing investments on firm performance "remains an elusive goal for most companies" (Hanssens & Pauwels, 2016, p. 173), which means that these effects "are systematically underreported in external reports" (Bendle & Wang, 2017, p. 605). First, the chain of effects from a marketing investment or action to firm's financial value as the ultimate indicator of firm's performance (e.g., marketing investment → brand related marketing asset → customer-related marketing assets → firm performance) is quite complex (B. H. Clark, 2007; Katsikeas, Morgan, Leonidou, & Hult, 2016; D. R. Lehmann, 2004; N. A. Morgan, 2012; Rust et al., 2004) as it includes actions and/or reactions from at least three different actors (i.e., firm, its customers, and investors). Second, an informative analysis of this chain of effects "requires causality to be shown among marketing actions and multiple performance outcomes (e.g., customer attitudes, product markets, financial markets)" (Hanssens & Pauwels, 2016, p. 174). Third, establishing causality between reactions of different actors demands microfoundational explanations of actors' psychological and behavioral processes (Akaka, Vargo, Nariswari, & O'Brien, 2021; Moorman & Day, 2016). Lastly, there is a "lack of generally accepted measurement standards. On the one hand, the value of brands and customers can be measured in monetary terms. On the other hand, there are perceptual measures available, such as brand image or customer satisfaction, which describe the strength of the assets in psychological terms" (Edeling & Fischer, 2016, p. 516).

In addition to measuring the variance (i.e., strength) of brand-related and customer-related marketing assets in psychological terms, CMOs also need to explain how marketing investments and actions affect brand-related marketing assets and how these assets transform marketing efforts into customer-related marketing assets (Edeling, Srinivasan, & Hanssens, 2021; N. A. Morgan et al., 2021; Stahl, Heitmann, Lehmann, & Neslin, 2012). This means that marketing scholars need to identify the psychological, social, and physiological processes that turn potential customers into actual customers (Ashley, Noble, Donthu, & Lemon, 2011; Ashraf & Thongpapanl, 2015; Chatzipanagiotou, Veloutsou, &

Christodoulides, 2016; Fetscherin, Guzman, Veloutsou, & Cayolla, 2019; Jahn & Kunz, 2012).

To this end, scholars have proposed various constructs to represent the psychological aspect of brand-related and customer-related marketing assets. For instance, brand-related marketing assets have been conceptualized as:

- *brand equity* (Baalbaki & Guzmán, 2016; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2010; Keller, 1993; Netemeyer et al., 2004; Pappu, Cooksey, & Quester, 2005; Vázquez, del Río, & Iglesias, 2002; Y.-C. Wang, Hsu, Hsu, & Hsieh, 2011; Yoo & Donthu, 2001),
- *brand image* (Bravo, Montaner, & Pina, 2010; Cho, Fiore, & Russell, 2015; Patterson, 1999; Stern, Zinkhan, & Jaju, 2001),
- *brand associations* (T. J. Brown, 1998; Keller, 2003; Low & Lamb, 2000; Mann & Ghuman, 2014; Romaniuk & Nenycz-Thiel, 2013),
- *brand personality* (J. L. Aaker, 1997; Freling, Crosno, & Henard, 2011; Geuens, Weijters, & De Wulf, 2009; Sung, Choi, Ahn, & Song, 2015),
- *brand trust* (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Delgado-Ballester, Munuera-Alemán, & Yagüe-Guillén, 2003; Gurviez & Korchia, 2003; Hegner & Jevons, 2016; Koschate-Fischer & Gartner, 2015; F. Li, Kashyap, Zhou, & Yang, 2008), and
- *brand credibility* (Erdem & Swait, 2004) among others.

Similarly, customer-related marketing assets have been conceptualized as various constructs, such as:

- *loyalty* (Dapena-Baron, Gruen, & Guo, 2020; Jacob Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Watson, Beck, Henderson, & Palmatier, 2015),
- *customer commitment* (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Keiningham, Frennea, Aksoy, Buoye, & Mittal, 2015; Shuv-Ami, 2012),
- *customer engagement* (Hollebeek & Macky, 2019; Kumar & Pansari, 2016; van Doorn et al., 2010),
- *positive word of mouth* (PWOM; de Matos & Rossi, 2008; Rosario, Sotgiu, De Valck, & Bijmolt, 2016; Ya, Vadakkepatt, & Joshi, 2015), and
- *brand fidelity* (Grace, Ross, & King, 2020) among others.

In this dissertation, we rely on five constructs to develop a model that explains how brand-related marketing assets transform into customer-related marketing assets: corporate (brand) associations, brand impressions, brand trust, perceived value (PV), and customer loyalty. Corporate associations are defined as "the information about a company that a person holds" (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997, p. 69) and represent consumer's knowledge and beliefs about how a brand acts in relation to different stakeholders (e.g., employees) and markets (e.g., financial market). Brand impressions, which we define as a consumer's mental representation of brand's traits, denote a consumer's perception of the brand's warmth and competence. A warmth impression is defined as a consumer's assessment of the brand's intentions toward the society, while a competence impression is defined as a consumer's assessment of the brand's ability to act on its intentions (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007; Kervyn, Fiske, & Malone, 2012, 2021). Consumer impressions of brand's warmth and competence are reflected in traits, such as friendly, honest, and well-intentioned or capable, intelligent, and efficient, respectively.

Brand trust, defined as a consumer's willingness to rely on a brand in which they have confidence (Moorman et al., 1992), represents a consumer's positive motivational disposition toward a brand. Perceived value (PV), which we provisionally[3] define as "an overall assessment of the utility based on perceptions of what is received and what is given" (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 14), represents a consumer's evaluation of the exchange that is necessary to obtain access to a marketing offering. Among customer-related marketing assets, we focus on customer loyalty, defined as "a series of purchase behaviors that systematically favor one entity over competing entities" (Watson et al., 2015, p. 793). We explain why we selected these five constructs to capture the *process* of brand-related marketing assets' transformation into customer-related marketing assets momentarily.

No matter how brand-related or customer-related marketing assets are conceptualized, several factors may impede firms' abilities to implement necessary marketing investments and/or buffer their effects marketing assets and firm value. For instance, there is an increased concentration and intense competition in many industries and product categories, which shifts managerial attention to strategies and actions that prioritize short-term profitability over long-term growth (B. H. Clark & Montgomery, 1998; D. R. Lehmann, 2004; Luo, 2010; N. A. Morgan, Clark, & Gooner, 2002). The power of marketing departments in comparison to departments that represent other business functions (e.g., finance and operations) is diminishing, which means that it is difficult for CMOs to ensure the budgets for marketing investments (Feng, Morgan, & Rego, 2015; Homburg, Vomberg, Enke, & Grimm, 2015; Mattsson, Ramaseshan, & Carson, 2006; Whitler, Krause, & Lehmann, 2018). There is a quick turnover (i.e., "revolving door") of CMOs, which means that they do not stay around long enough to implement the necessary marketing strategies and track their effects (Nath & Mahajan, 2008, 2011, 2017; O'Brien, Veenstra, & Murphy, 2019; R. Wang, Saboo, & Grewal, 2015; G. Welch, 2021). Many firms engage in myopic management practices, such as cutting marketing budgets, which prevents them from developing their marketing assets (Bendig, Willmann, Strese, & Brettel, 2018; Chung & Low, 2017, 2022; Kaur, Ramaswami, & Bommaraju, 2021; Mizik, 2010; Mizik & Jacobson, 2007; R. Srinivasan & Ramani, 2019). Lastly, today's "marketers operate in a crisis-laden world" (Grewal et al., 2021, p. 1), which means that various crises are surprising firms' ability to establish and grow their marketing assets (Bages-Amat, Harrison, Spillecke, & Stanley, 2020; Grewal et al., 2021; Hoekstra &

[3] There are numerous definitions of PV and it is not apparently evident, which one is the most appropriate for the context of this dissertation, which is why we devote a large part of the first chapter to this construct.

Leeflang, 2020; Kozinets, Gershoff, & White, 2020; Pomerance, Light, & Williams, 2020; Sneader & Singhal, 2020; Swaminathan, Sorescu, Steenkamp, O'Guinn, & Schmitt, 2020).

In this dissertation, we focus on a specific type of a crisis called *brand crisis*, which we define as a situation caused by a negative public event(s) that has the potential to affect the collective perception, evaluation, and behavior of a brand's stakeholders. We focus on brand crises because this phenomenon has become more frequent and costlier in recent decades (Institute for Crisis Management, 2018; Kalavar & Mysore, 2017; PwC, 2019). Since crisis management is a topic of interest for many scientific disciplines, such as management, finance, economics, health sciences, and marketing, we situate the brand crisis construct within a hierarchy of crisis constructs (Figure 1) in order to explain how it relates to other crisis constructs. First, the above definition implies that brand crises refer to negative events that are related to a particular brand and thus exclude crises that affect the society as a whole, such as economic or health crises. Second, brand crisis is only one type of organizational or business crises, defined as a "low-probability, high-impact event that threatens the viability of the organization and is characterized by ambiguity of cause, effect, and means of resolution, as well as by a belief that decisions must be made swiftly" (Pearson & Clair, 1998, p. 60), as organizational crises are not necessarily public. Third, brand crises are a specific case of marketing crises, defined as "an event or issue which tended to have the following characteristics: threatens marketing goals, reduces the marketer's ability to control or direct the marketing environment, and decision or response time is short" (T. Clark, 1988, p. 47) as marketing crises also include non-public issues, such as problematic relationships with distributions or suppliers. Fourth, brand crises are a specific type of reputational crisis, defined as "a major event that has the potential to threaten collective perceptions and estimations held by all relevant stakeholders of an organization and its relevant attributes" (Sohn & Lariscy, 2014) as reputational crises may refer to organizations that do not correspond to our definition of a brand, such as political parties or governmental institutions.

However, our conceptualization of brand crises subsumes several crisis constructs that capture specific crisis situations, such as product-harm or service crises (Cleeren, Dekimpe, & van Heerde, 2017; Rasoulian, Grégoire, Legoux, & Sénécal, 2017), different types of scandals or accidents (Gomulya & Boeker, 2016; B. Park & Rogan, 2019; von Walter, Wentzel, & Tomczak, 2016), and social media firestorms (Herhausen, Ludwig, Grewal, Wulf, & Schoegel, 2019) or product tampering (Sora Kim & Sung, 2014). Although these constructs correspond to our definition of a brand crisis, Figure 1 shows that these crisis instances differ along (at least) three dimensions that represent *situational characteristics* of a brand crisis. For instance, financial scandals are caused by a firm's managers (i.e., internally) who have control over the negative event (i.e., preventable) and cause it with the intention to cheat brand's stakeholders (i.e., intentionally – depicted with red color).

When firms encounter a brand crisis, they face several important decisions. First, management has to choose what type of a brand crisis *response strategy*, defined as a "set of coordinated communication and actions used to influence evaluators' crisis perceptions"

(Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015, p. 346) to deploy. Crisis management literature describes two types of response strategies: accommodative and defensive (Benoit, 2014; Bundy, Pfarrer, Short, & Coombs, 2017; T. W. Coombs, 2007; Hersel, Helmuth, Zorn, Shropshire, & Ridge, 2019; Marcus & Goodman, 1991). A firm's decision to take on more responsibility and attempt to resolve the negative situation earlier in the course of a brand crisis represents a strategic decision to adopt an accommodative rather than a defensive response strategy. Second, crisis managers have to decide which *response tactics*, defined as the specific actions and communications through which firms enact brand crisis response strategies, to deploy. Response tactics may include product recalls, repairs, compensations, financial restatements, dismissals of managers, employees and endorsers, apologies, explanations, denials, excuses, etc.

Figure 1: A hierarchy of organizational crisis constructs

Source: Own work.

Akin to marketing practitioners, the credibility and relevance of marketing scholarship have also been extensively debated. As a relatively young and applied scientific discipline (Hunt, 2020; Savitt, 1980), marketing scholars needed decades of debate to:

- establish what the term marketing means (American Marketing Association, 2017; Cooke, Rayburn, & Abercrombie, 1992; Darroch, Miles, Jardine, & Cooke, 2004; Ferrell & Lucas, 1987; Grönroos, 1989, 2006; Gundlach, 2007; Gundlach & Wilkie, 2010; Mick, 2007; R. E. Morgan, 1996; Ringold & Weitz, 2007; Sheth & Uslay, 2007; Shultz, 2007; N. C. Smith, Drumwright, & Gentile, 2010; Wilkie & Moore, 2007; Zinkhan & Williams, 2007),

- determine the scientific scope of marketing (Arndt, 1978; Bagozzi, 1975; Buzzell, 1963; Converse, 1945; El-Ansary, Shaw, & Lazer, 2018; Holbrook & Hulbert, 2002; Hunt, 1992b, 2021; Kotler & Levy, 1969; Levy, 2002; McCole, 2004a; J. P. Peter & Olson, 1983; Woodall, 2007),
- institute various philosophies of science (Alba, 2011; Anderson, 1983; Arndt, 1985; Bagozzi, 1984; Hunt, 1990, 1991, 1992a; Janiszewski, Labroo, & Rucker, 2016; Kavanagh, 1994; Leong, 1985; R. Mayer, Job, & Ellis, 2000; J. P. Peter & Olson, 1983; Sharp, Wright, Kennedy, & Nguyen, 2017; Shaw & Jones, 2005), and
- show that it is a legitimate scientific discipline, comparable to those studying other business functions, such as accounting, management, or finance (Arndt, 1985; Bartels, 1951; Biehl, Kim, & Wade, 2006; Buzzell, 1963; T. Clark, Key, Hodis, & Rajaratnam, 2014; Converse, 1945; Eisend, 2015; Hult & Morgeson, 2020; Hunt, 1992b; Key et al., 2020; J. P. Peter & Olson, 1983; Taylor, 1965).

Today, these fundamental issues appear to be mostly settled. However, past two decades brought new disciplinary challenges, such as:

- poor construct validity, which means that for many marketing constructs there are inconsistencies between how they are conceptualized and operationalized (Houston, 2004; Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003; MacKenzie, 2003; Mochon & Schwartz, 2020; Morales, Amir, & Lee, 2017; H. J. van Heerde, Moorman, Moreau, & Palmatier, 2021),
- questionable research practices, which means that some marketing scholars do not conduct research ethically and many reported results are not true or accurate (Bergkvist, 2020; Herndon, 2016; Janiszewski & van Osselaer, 2021; Krishna, 2021; P. Simmons, D. Nelson, & Simonsohn, 2021; Pham & Oh, 2021),
- replication crisis, which means that many findings that are supposed to explain marketing phenomena cannot be independently reproduced by other researchers (Eisend, Franke, & Leigh, 2016; Kerr, Schultz, & Lings, 2016; Kwon Eun, Shan, Lee Joong, & Reid Leonard, 2017; S. Lehmann & Bengart, 2016; Lynch, Bradlow, Huber, & Lehmann, 2015; Meyvis & Van Osselaer, 2017; Uncles & Kwok, 2013),
- construct proliferation, which means that there are more and more marketing constructs with different labels that capture the same phenomenon but also a growing number of marketing constructs with the same label that actually represent different phenomena (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Bergkvist & Langner, 2019; Gilliam & Voss, 2013; Tähtinen & Havila, 2018),
- knowledge fragmentation, which means that most marketing scholars focus on narrow research topics (Eisend, 2017; Hunt, 2020; D. R. Lehmann, 2020; D. R. Lehmann, McAlister, & Staelin, 2011; Patsiaouras, 2019; Tamilia, 2011), leding to:
- lack of knowledge accumulation (Babin, Ortinau, Herrmann, & Lopez, 2021; Hubbard & Lindsay, 2002; Rossiter, 2012; Yadav, 2014, 2017), which means that,

over time, marketing scholars are able to explain less variance in their phenomena of interest (Eisend, 2015), and

- limited influence on other scientific disciplines, which means that marketing is often "borrowing" knowledge from other disciplines, while they rarely draw on marketing's indigenous theories (Biehl et al., 2006; T. Clark et al., 2014; Cote, Leong, & Cote, 1992; Pieters & Baumgartner, 2002; P. C. Vieira & Teixeira, 2010).

These issues diminish the credibility of marketing as an academic discipline (Haenlein et al., 2021). Moreover, most of these problems are inter-related (Kennedy & Hartnett, 2018; King, 2019; Malter, Holbrook, Kahn, Parker, & Lehmann, 2020; Meyer, 2015; Zaltman, 2000). For instance, construct proliferation contributes to knowledge fragmentation, while poor construct validity and questionable research practices both contribute to replication crisis. Although marketing scholars identified some of these problems decades ago (Jacob Jacoby, 1978; J. P. Peter, 1981; Singh, 1991), the scholarly community of marketers is only now beginning to systematically address them (R. N. Bolton, 2020; Haenlein et al., 2021; Krishna, 2021; H. J. van Heerde et al., 2021). However, the problems listed above are not endemic to marketing as they threaten the credibility of numerous scientific disciplines, such as management (Aguinis, Ramani, & Alabduljader, 2017; Banks et al., 2015; Köhler & Cortina, 2019; Shaffer, DeGeest, & Li, 2015; Tourish & Craig, 2018), medicine (Colliver, Conlee, & Verhulst, 2012; Cook, Mulrow, & Haynes, 1997; Ioannidis, 2005; Millstone & van Zwanenberg, 2000), and psychology (Fabrigar, Wegener, & Petty, 2020; Fiedler, 2017; Frith, 2020; Gopalakrishna et al., 2022; Hodson, 2021; John, Loewenstein, & Prelec, 2012; Motyl et al., 2017; Munafò et al., 2017; Nosek, Ebersole, DeHaven, & Mellor, 2018; Simmons, Nelson, & Simonsohn, 2011; Stroebe, 2016).

However, the problem of practical/managerial (un)relevance appears to be especially prominent in marketing as practicing medical doctors or psychologists usually do not complain about irrelevance of scholarly research in their respective fields. Managerial relevance is defined as "the degree to which a specific manager in an organization perceives academic knowledge to aid his or her job-related thoughts or actions in the pursuit of organizational goals" (Jaworski, 2011, p. 212). The concern "that the usefulness of research published in academic journals has diminished substantially" (Kohli & Haenlein, 2020, p. 1) is shared by many prominent marketing scholars (Deighton, Mela, & Moorman, 2020; Desai, Bell, Lilien, & Soberman, 2012; Fehrer, 2020; Janiszewski et al., 2016; Jaworski, 2011; Jedidi, Schmitt, Ben Sliman, & Li, 2021; Key et al., 2020; Kirmani, 2015; Kumar, 2016, 2017; D. R. Lehmann et al., 2011; Lilien, 2011; MacInnis et al., 2019; McCole, 2004b; Pham, 2013; Piercy, 2002; Reibstein, Day, & Wind, 2009; Roberts, Kayande, & Stremersch, 2014; Schmitt, Cotte, Giesler, Stephen, & Wood, 2022; Stremersch, Winer, & Camacho, 2021; Tellis, 2017; Varadarajan, 2003, 2020; Webster & Lusch, 2013; Wieland, Nariswari, & Akaka, 2021; Woodall, 2004).

Marketing scholars suggest various reasons as to why there "is an alarming and growing gap between the interests, standards, and priorities of academic marketers and the needs of marketing executives" (Reibstein et al., 2009, p. 1). For example, Jedidi et al. (2021) show that marketing scholars often chose to focus on research topics (e.g., construct measurement) that managers do not find important. Warren, Farmer, Gu, and Warren (2021, p. 42) suggest that academic writing may be too "difficult to understand." Stremersch et al. (2021) theorize that faculty incentives, such as research grants and tenure decisions, promote research quantity instead of quality, which has detrimental impact on managerial relevance of published research. D. R. Lehmann et al. (2011) argue that the academic profession (i.e., doctoral education and journal review/publication processes) puts much more emphasis on research rigor than relevance.

Research questions

Against this background, this dissertation aims to address four research questions. First, we agree with marketing scholars who argue that many (or even most) marketing constructs suffer from conceptual confusion (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; T. Clark & Key, 2021; Mikulić, 2018). We also agree with scholars and practitioners that conceptual confusion diminishes the managerial relevance of marketing scholarship (Caslin, 2021; Gaski, 2021; Jedidi et al., 2021; Key et al., 2020; Warren et al., 2021). Therefore, we focus on construct clarity. Among the constructs defined in this introduction, PV appears to have especially diminished construct clarity[4]. For instance, we have identified no less than 30 alternative conceptualizations with measurement scales that claim to capture this phenomenon. Therefore, we pose the following research question:

RQ1: What is the role of construct clarity in the process of knowledge accumulation?

We further qualify this broad research question by posing more specific questions, such as: When are constructs considered clear? How does conceptualization of a construct develop over time? What conceptualization practices do scholars use to introduce novel conceptualizations of a construct? Which methodological tools can be leveraged to assess and/or improve the clarity of a construct? Are more complex conceptualizations of a construct always progressive (i.e., improve the predictive validity)?

Second, we also aim to strengthen the managerial relevance of marketing scholarship by studying the psychological processes underlying the development of brand-related and customer-related marketing assets. Therefore, we focus on the formation of warmth and competence impressions because we recognize that they may act as a crucial gear within the mechanism that translates what consumers know and believe about a brand into customer loyalty (Keller, 2012; Kervyn et al., 2012; MacInnis, 2012). While we acknowledge that this topic has recently received some research attention (Gidaković et al., 2021; Kervyn et al.,

[4] We provide detailed evidence of conceptual confusion within the PV research program in the first chapter.

2021), several important research gaps, which we discuss subsequently, remain. Therefore, we pose the next research question:

RQ2: How do impressions of brand warmth and competence develop?

We additionally qualify this broad research question by posing more specific research questions: How do consumers integrate the information about a brand that is stored in their memory to form impressions of warmth and competence? What is the difference between stereotypical and individuated (i.e., differentiated) impressions of warmth and competence? Which brand associations are diagnostic for formation of consumers' impressions of brand warmth and which are diagnostic for formation of consumers' impressions of brand competence? Do consumers rely on multiple dimensions of brand associations simultaneously when forming their impressions of a brand's warmth and competence?

Third, we aim to explore the role of warmth and competence impressions in translating what consumers know and believe about a brand into customer loyalty. While recent literature has identified several constructs (including brand trust and PV) that may mediate the effects of brand impressions on customer-related marketing assets, these findings remain fragmented as the literature lacks a comprehensive model that would specify which constructs and how translate brand impressions into customer loyalty. Therefore, we pose the third research question:

RQ3: What is the role of consumer's warmth and competence impressions in translating brand associations into customer-related marketing assets?

Fourth, recent research shows that brand crises have detrimental effects on marketing assets and firm performance (Bundy et al., 2017; Khamitov, Grégoire, & Suri, 2020) and firms regularly adopt accommodative as well as defensive response strategies to manage brand crises with similar (or even the same) situational characteristics. Crisis management scholars have also suggested that deploying an accommodative (vs. a defensive) response strategy may have opposite effects on different groups of brand's stakeholders (Cleeren et al., 2017; Lamin & Zaheer, 2012). Moreover, different theories (i.e., trust repair theory and attribution theory) offer conflicting predictions as to when (i.e. under which situational characteristics) will an accommodative or a defensive response strategy be more effective. Therefore, we pose the following research question:

RQ4: What are the simultaneous effects of brand crisis response strategies on marketing assets and firm performance?

We additionally elaborate this broad research question with the following questions: Which response strategy should be used a default? Under which situational characteristics should a firm deploy a defensive or an accommodative response strategy? What is the optimal combination of different response tactics?

Theoretical background

To address these research questions, we developed the conceptual model of marketing assets' development and their management during brand crises (Figure 2), which draws on several theoretical frameworks. To answer RQ1, we employ a metatheoretical lens of scientific research programs (Lakatos, 1999; Leong, 1985), which enables us to view the literature that deals with alternative conceptualizations of a construct as a construct-focused scientific research program. This perspective also enables us to deconstruct extant conceptualizations of PV, identify sources of conceptual confusion, and reconstruct the PV research program so that (alternative) conceptualization(s) becomes clearer.

Horizontally, the conceptual model (Figure 2) depicts the process of formation of brand-related marketing assets and their transformation into customer-related marketing assets (RQ2 and RQ3). Specifically, the model predicts that impressions of warmth and competence mediate the effects of specific dimensions of corporate brand associations on trust, PV, and customer loyalty. Theoretically, we draw on the impression formation theory from psychology to predict how different dimensions of brand associations relate to warmth and competence impressions and to explain how these impressions mediate the effect of brand associations on brand (RQ2). Impression formation theory is a research program that investigates how people form mental representations of targets (e.g., other people, social groups, organizations, brands, animals, robots) that they encounter in their social and natural environments (D. L. Hamilton, Sherman, Way, & Percy, 2015; Uleman & Kressel, 2013).

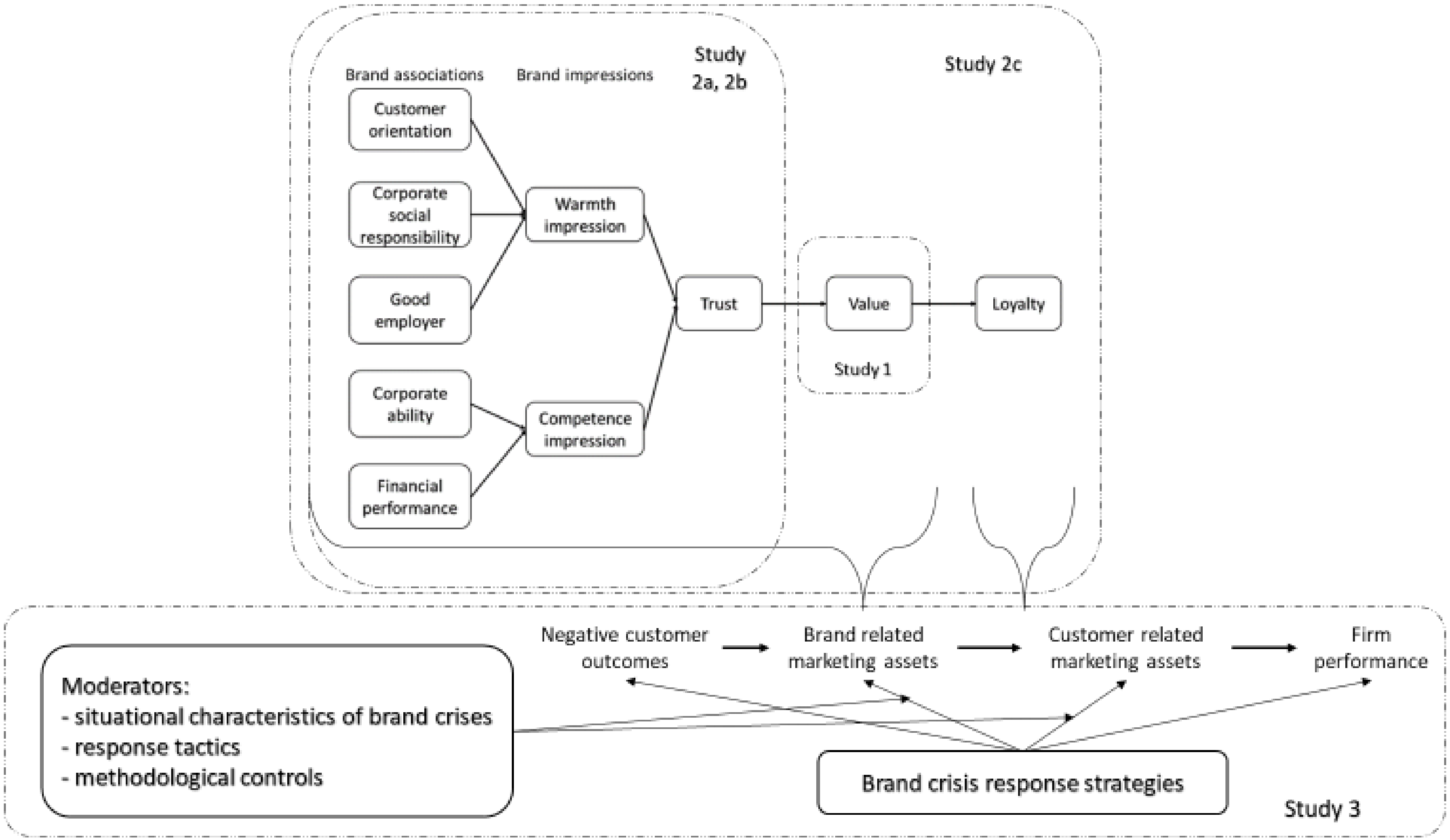
We rely on impression formation theory for several reasons. First, it can explain *how* people form impressions of targets. For instance, psychologists have shown that people's memory stores the information about a target in two ways – either by memorizing the target's behavior (e.g., John helped an old lady) or as a character trait (e.g., John is kind) (D. L. Hamilton & Sherman, 1996; Sherman & Hamilton, 1994). This is important because it implies that the information and beliefs we have about a target's behavior determines the character traits that we ascribe to the target. Second, impression formation theory predicts that people form impressions of targets based on two processes – *individuating* or *stereotyping* (Brewer, 1988). For instance, a perceiver can form an individuated impression that John is kind because they know that John has helped an old lady to carry her groceries. Alternatively, the perceiver may also form a stereotypical impression that John is kind because they categorize John into a social group that they consider to be kind (e.g., firefighters). This distinction is important because marketing literature seems to be using the terms brand impressions and brand stereotypes interchangeably (J. L. Aaker, Garbinsky, & Vohs, 2012; J. L. Aaker, Vohs, & Mogilner, 2010) although they denote distinct psychological processes (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990).

We note that scholars have proposed different literature reviewing techniques, such as bibliometric review, concept review, and a review of measurement instruments, as well as tools for metatheoretical analysis, such as ladder of abstraction or theory map, as useful to assess and improve the clarity of a construct. However, each of these techniques and tools has certain drawbacks. Therefore, we develop a methodology that integrates various literature review techniques and tools for metatheoretical analysis and hence overcomes the shortcomings associated with a specific approach. We demonstrate how to use the proposed methodology for conceptual clarification by applying it to the PV construct.

We also conducted five empirical studies to test the conceptual model of marketing assets' development and their management during brand crises (see Figure 2 for elaboration of relationships tested in each study). In Study 1 we surveyed two samples of consumers—one from Slovenia (N = 281) and one from the United States (US; N = 420) in order to compare various aspects of construct validity of alternative conceptualizations of PV. In Study 2a (N = 266) we used a between-subjects vignette experiment (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997) with a fictional brand and the goal of establishing the causal effects of brand associations on warmth and competence impressions. Studies 2b (N = 443) and 2c (N = 344) were surveys of consumers who evaluated real brands. We conducted these two studies to increase the external validity of Study 2a and to establish the mediating role of brand trust and PV in transferring the effects of warmth and competence impression on customer loyalty.

Finally, in Study 3 we employ a meta-analytic methodology to generalize the effects of brand crisis response strategies on marketing assets and firm performance, (Geyskens, Krishnan, Steenkamp, & Cunha, 2009; Grewal, Puccinelli, & Monroe, 2018). As these effects have been studied in numerous previous studies that have produced inconsistent findings, which we present subsequently, a meta-analysis enables us to generalize the results on the effectives of accommodative and defensive brand crisis response strategies. Meta-analysis also enables us to investigate, whether the same crisis response strategy has inverse effects on marketing assets and firm performance and whether brand-related and customer-related marketing assets mediate the effects of response strategies on firm performance. In total, we integrate 164 papers with 184 datasets and 811 effect sizes describing the effect of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on negative customer outcomes, firms' marketing assets, and financial performance. Using different methods in this dissertation enables us to establish validity of the proposed causal, mediating and moderating relationships (Pieters, 2017; Vancouver & Carlson, 2014), while it also allows us to demonstrate external validity (Winer, 1999) and generalizability (Grewal et al., 2018) of findings.

Figure 2: Conceptual model of marketing assets' development and their management during brand crises



Source: Own work.

Third, impression formation theory specifies the content (i.e., warmth and competence) of people's impressions of social targets (Abele, Ellemers, Fiske, Koch, & Yzerbyt, 2020; Dupree & Fiske, 2017; Koch, Yzerbyt, Abele, Ellemers, & Fiske, 2021). Warmth and competence have been termed as universal dimensions of social cognition because these dimensions have been identified in the domain of interpersonal perception (Brambilla, Rusconi, Sacchi, & Cherubini, 2011; Leach, Ellemers, & Barreto, 2007; Willis & Todorov, 2006), as well as in the domains of social group perception (Heflick, Goldenberg, Cooper, & Puvia, 2011; Oldmeadow, 2018), perception of organizations (Stiegert, Täuber, Leliveld, & Oehmichen, 2021), brands (van Prooijen & Bartels, 2019), service providers (Kirmani, Hamilton, Thompson, & Lantzy, 2017), robots (Grewal, Kroschke, Mende, Roggeveen, & Scott, 2020; S. Y. Kim, Schmitt, & Thalmann, 2019), and even animals (Sevillano & Fiske, 2019).

Universality of warmth and competence is also reflected in the fact that the content of these two dimensions has been conceptually and/or empirically identified in numerous constructs that capture perceptual phenomena. For instance, trust models include competence and integrity/benevolence dimensions of trusting beliefs as antecedents of conative trust (Hegner & Jevons, 2016; F. Li et al., 2008; R. C. Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Sirdeshmukh, Singh, & Sabol, 2002). Corporate reputation models include perceptual dimensions, such as capability and character (Mishina, Block, & Mannor, 2012), respectability and impressiveness (Diab & Highhouse, 2015; Highhouse, Brooks, & Gregarus, 2009), or competence and sympathy (Raithel & Schwaiger, 2015; Schwaiger, 2004), which correspond to competence and warmth impressions. Brand personality (J. L. Aaker, 1997; Geuens et al., 2009) and corporate character (Chun & Davies, 2006; Davies, Chun, da Silva, & Roper, 2004) models include dimensions, such as competence and sincerity or agreeableness. Models of perceived credibility include dimensions, such as expertise and trustworthiness (Eisend, 2006; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953). Lastly, some brand image models include dimensions of warmth and competence (Y. Chang, Li, Yan, & Kumar, 2019; Davies, Mete, & Whelan, 2018). This omnipresence of brand's intentions (i.e., warmth) and ability to enact its intentions (i.e., competence) in numerous theoretical constructs that aim to capture consumers' perceptions leads us to propose these two dimensions of social perception as the focal mediating construct in our conceptual model (Figure 2).

The fact that people have been shown to apply these two dimensions to form impressions of different targets (e.g., individuals, animals, organizations) from the social and natural world can be explained by both the functionalist and evolutionary perspective (Fiske et al., 2007; Stolier, Hehman, & Freeman, 2020). From the functionalist perspective, people constantly form impressions about other people, social groups, and organizations they encounter in the environment, and thereby develop trait knowledge (i.e., understanding the importance of warmth and competence and how to assess these elements) through social learning (Stolier, Hehman, & Freeman, 2018; Stolier et al., 2020). From the evolutionary perspective, throughout human history, people have had to quickly form impressions of other individuals, groups of people, or animals they encountered in their environment. To ensure survival, the most important perceptions are those of intentions (i.e., warmth) and ability to act on those intentions, i.e., competence (Fiske, 2018; Fiske et al., 2007). This is because people need to determine whether someone or something poses a threat (i.e., has bad intentions) and assess the probability of a threat (i.e., the ability to put their intentions into action). Thus, through evolutionary processes, human perception has been shaped to focus on warmth and competence (Koch et al., 2021).

The cumulative evidence from different streams of research spanning multiple scientific domains, together with the evolutionary and functionalist explanations, suggests that warmth, and competence are universal dimensions of human perception of any target (Abele, Cuddy, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2008; Abele et al., 2020; Fiske et al., 2007; Stolier et al., 2018). Accordingly, we chose the construct of brand impressions as the main construct that captures the strength of brand-related marketing assets and an important mediator that transform the information that consumers have about a brand into customer-related marketing assets. However, we are not making a personification argument (c.f., Avis, Forbes, & Ferguson, 2013) that consumers rely on these two dimensions because they use they perceived brands in a similar way as other people (Yoon, Gutchess, Feinberg, & Polk, 2006). Instead, we argue that people generally perceive all targets in the environment along these two dimensions and therefore rely on these dimensions as consumers when forming impressions of brands.

To address RQ3, we rely on the trust-value-loyalty model (TVLM) developed by Jagdip Singh and his colleagues (Agustin & Singh, 2005; Marinova & Singh, 2014; Nijssen, Singh, Sirdeshmukh, & Holzmüeller, 2003; Singh & Sirdeshmukh, 2000; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). This model predicts that trust and value act as serial mediators that transfer the effects of customer satisfaction on loyalty. We employ this model for three reasons. First, we select this model because brand trust is a conative outcome of warmth and competence impressions (Fournier & Alvarez, 2012; Japutra, Molinillo, & Wang, 2018). Theoretical models of trust posit that trust is an outcome of perceptions of competence and benevolence/integrity (Hegner & Jevons, 2016; F. Li et al., 2008), which conceptually correspond to warmth and competence impressions.

Second, the TVLM posits that when consumers trust a brand, this improves their perception of the overall utility of a brand because it simultaneously decreases the perceived sacrifices and benefits from transacting with a brand. We argue that it is important to include the concept of PV because when a person decides to become (and stay) a customer of a brand, they need to engage in an exchange and give up some resources (e.g., money and time) to obtain the access to the brand's offering. Hence, consumer's evaluation of this exchange plays a pivotal role in their decision to transact and to continue to do so (Grewal, Monroe, & Krishnan, 1998; Janiszewski & Van Osselaer, 2000; Kumar & George, 2007; Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, & Burton, 1990). Third, the TVLM has been successfully replicated in numerous settings (Gidaković & Zabkar, 2021), therefore we are confident in its explanatory power.

Furthermore, the lower part of the conceptual model (Figure 2) depicts the effects of brand-crisis response strategies on brand-related and customer-related marketing assets and on firm performance (vertically). We derive this part of the conceptual model from attribution theory, trust repair theory, and marketing-finance value chain models. Specifically, we draw on trust repair and attribution theories to propose the effects of the response strategy on marketing assets and to investigate how different types of response tactics and situational characteristics of a brand crisis moderate the effects of the response strategy on marketing assets (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015; T. W. Coombs, 2007; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Poppo & Schepker, 2010).

We draw on the marketing–finance value chain literature to (1) conceptualize the firm's marketing assets, (2) relate these assets to firm performance, and (3) decompose the total effect of the response strategy on firm performance into a negative direct and a positive indirect effect (Edeling & Fischer, 2016; Katsikeas et al., 2016; Rust et al., 2004).

Lastly, we adopt a scientific realist perspective as a philosophy of science that underlies this dissertation (Bagozzi, 1984; Easton, 2002; Eisend & Kuss, 2019; Hunt, 1990, 1992a, 2015; Kenworthy & Sparks, 2016; N. Lee & Cadogan, 2016; Niiniluoto, 1991). This perspective involves several assumptions, which we briefly outline. First, we assume that phenomena that we are interested in (e.g., brand crises and brand impressions) exist independently in the real world (i.e., physical and/or phenomenological). Second, we assume that through the process of conceptualization we can create constructs that represent these phenomena accurately. Third, we assume that there are universal laws and regularities in how phenomena relate to each. Fourth, we assume that the phenomena of interest can be measured with validity. Fifth, we employ and propose theories to describe the laws and regularities that relate various phenomena. Sixth, we can only attempt to empirically disprove (i.e., falsify) theoretical propositions and a single successful or unsuccessful falsification is not sufficient to support or disprove a theory. Lastly, we are especially interested in examining causal relationships, which means that one phenomenon (e.g., implementation of a defensive response strategy) causes a change in another phenomenon (e.g., brand-related marketing assets). In order to support a claim of causality, an empirical test has to meet three main criteria: cause and effect must covary, cause must precede the effect temporarily, and other explanations (e.g., alternative causes) must be ruled out (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Goldfarb, Tucker, & Wang, 2022; Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002; Shugan, 2007).

Methodology

We note that scholars have proposed different literature reviewing techniques, such as bibliometric review, concept review, and a review of measurement instruments, as well as tools for metatheoretical analysis, such as ladder of abstraction or theory map, as useful to assess and improve the clarity of a construct. However, each of these techniques and tools has certain drawbacks. Therefore, we develop a methodology that integrates various literature review techniques and tools for metatheoretical analysis and hence overcomes the shortcomings associated with a specific approach. We demonstrate how to use the proposed methodology for conceptual clarification by applying it to the PV construct.

We also conducted five empirical studies to test the conceptual model of marketing assets' development and their management during brand crises (see Figure 2 for elaboration of relationships tested in each study). In Study 1 we surveyed two samples of consumers—one from Slovenia (N = 281) and one from the United States (US; N = 420) in order to compare various aspects of construct validity of alternative conceptualizations of PV. In Study 2a (N = 266) we used a between-subjects vignette experiment (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997) with a fictional brand and the goal of establishing the causal effects of brand associations on warmth and competence impressions. Studies 2b (N = 443) and 2c (N = 344) were surveys of consumers who evaluated real brands. We conducted these two studies to increase the external validity of Study 2a and to establish the mediating role of brand trust and PV in transferring the effects of warmth and competence impression on customer loyalty.

Finally, in Study 3 we employ a meta-analytic methodology to generalize the effects of brand crisis response strategies on marketing assets and firm performance, (Geyskens, Krishnan, Steenkamp, & Cunha, 2009; Grewal, Puccinelli, & Monroe, 2018). As these effects have been studied in numerous previous studies that have produced inconsistent findings, which we present subsequently, a meta-analysis enables us to generalize the results on the effectives of accommodative and defensive brand crisis response strategies. Meta-analysis also enables us to investigate, whether the same crisis response strategy has inverse effects on marketing assets and firm performance and whether brand-related and customer-related marketing assets mediate the effects of response strategies on firm performance. In total, we integrate 164 papers with 184 datasets and 811 effect sizes describing the effect of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on negative customer outcomes, firms' marketing assets, and financial performance. Using different methods in this dissertation enables us to establish validity of the proposed causal, mediating and moderating relationships (Pieters, 2017; Vancouver & Carlson, 2014), while it also allows us to demonstrate external validity (Winer, 1999) and generalizability (Grewal et al., 2018) of findings.

Structure and contents of the dissertation

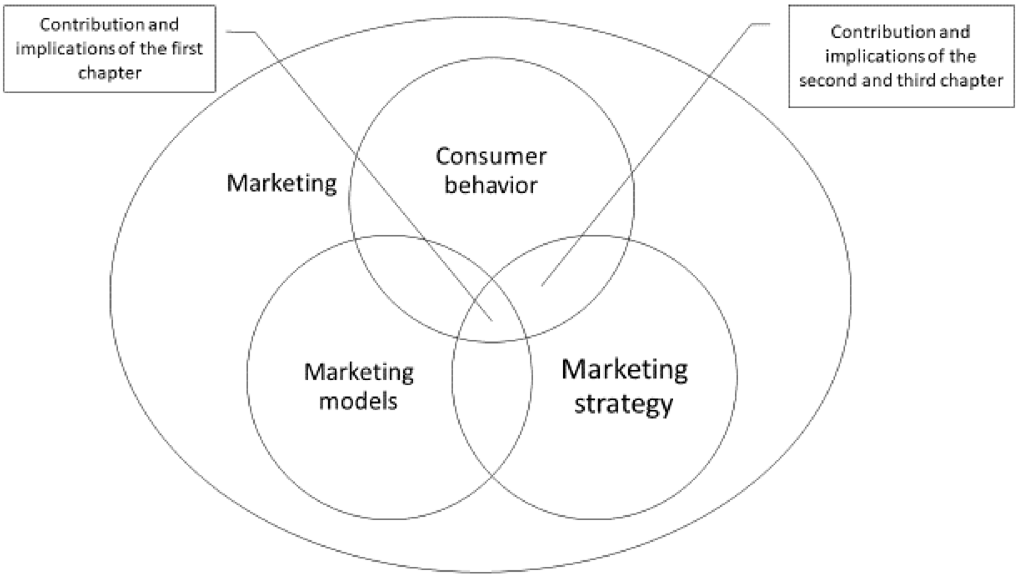
This dissertation is structured in three chapters. In the first chapter, we address RQ1 by developing a literature review methodology for conceptual clarification and conducting a construct validity study related to PV. In the second chapter, we lay out the theoretical foundation for the upper part of the conceptual model in Figure 2 and report on three empirical studies, which we conducted to test this part of the conceptual model. In the third chapter, we present detailed evidence of mixed findings from previous studies that examined the effects of response strategies on marketing assets and firm performance, develop the theoretical rationales for the bottom part of the conceptual model in Figure 2, and report on the meta-analytic study undertaken to test this part of the conceptual model.

The contents of this dissertation contribute to the marketing literature in several ways. We present detailed contributions in the respective discussion sections of each chapter of this dissertation. Here, we briefly outline how the topic and research questions of this dissertation map on the marketing literature[5]. The academic field of marketing may be divided in three main subareas (Baumgartner & Pieters, 2003) or subdisciplines (MacInnis & Folkes, 2010) – consumer behavior, marketing strategy, and marketing models. Consumer behavior refers to research on "the acquisition, consumption, and disposition of products, services, time, and ideas by decision making units" (J. Jacoby, Johar, & Morrin, 1998, p. 320). Marketing strategy[6] is "the study of organizational, inter-organizational and environmental phenomena which are of crucial importance to organizations from the standpoint of their long-term performance" (Varadarajan, 2015, p. 86). Marketing modelling "includes mathematical representations that answer important research questions in marketing" (Shugan, 2002, p. 223). Consumer behavior subarea typically assumes the perspective of a consumer, marketing strategy usually takes on the perspective of a firm, while marketing modelling attempts to mathematically represent both perspectives.

Figure 3 depicts the positioning and contributions of each chapter of this dissertation. Chapter 1 deals with the construct of PV, which is a fundamental marketing construct (Zeithaml, 1988; Zeithaml, Verleye, Hatak, Koller, & Zauner, 2020b). This construct hence represents a consumer-related phenomenon, which has important implications for marketing strategies (Kumar & Reinartz, 2016) and marketing models (Chandukala, Kim, Otter, Rossi, & Allenby, 2008). Chapters 2 and 3, however, lay at the intersection of consumer behavior and marketing strategy. In Chapter 2, we address the questions of formation of warmth and competence impressions and their role in translating the information consumers have into customer loyalty. Explaining this consumer-related phenomenon has important implications for marketing strategy as it can guide managerial allocation of resources and inform marketing communication content in a way that improves consumer impressions of warmth and competence and ultimately turns consumers into customers. In Chapter 3, we address the questions related to brand crisis response strategies' effects on consumers and investors, which thus directly links marketing actions and investments with marketing assets and firm value.

[5] Academic marketing literature refers to approximately 100,000 papers published in peer-reviewed marketing journals (T. Clark & Key, 2021).
[6] Although Varadarajan (2010) argues that this subarena of marketing discipline should be referred to as strategic marketing, we use the term marketing strategy for simplicity.

Figure 3: Dissertation's topic positioning in terms of subareas of marketing



Source: Adapted from MacInnis and Folkes (2010, p. 910).

1 CONSTRUCT CLARITY AND PERCEIVED VALUE[7]

Clear constructs are a prerequisite for useful theories. This chapter aims is (1) to advance literature review methods for construct clarity assessment and improvement, and (2) to examine empirically the construct validity implications of more complex (e.g., multidimensional) conceptualizations of a construct. We achieve the first aim by combining four literature review techniques (bibliometric review, concept review, umbrella review, and review of measurement instruments) with several tools for conceptual and metatheoretical analysis (concept map, ladder of abstraction, theory map, and methodology of scientific research programs). We demonstrate the proposed methodology with the construct of perceived value (PV). A review of previous 48 conceptual/review and 30 scale development papers for PV demonstrates how conceptual confusion undermines the advancement of PV research program. Thereby we pin down three sources of confusion that arise from questionable conceptualization practices of (1) construct stretching, (2) construct mixology, and (3) deficient structural validity of higher-order multidimensional conceptualizations. To elucidate this confusion, we extract four dominant conceptualizations of PV (acquisition value, experiential value, value-in-exchange, value-in-use) with idiosyncratic construct facets, theoretical backgrounds, and research questions. Furthermore, we propose a theoretical typology to reduce the conceptual confusion, recover the majority of existing conceptualizations, and help move the PV research programs forward. We achieve the second aim of the chapter (i.e., to examine the construct validity implications of a more

[7] Parts of this chapter are at the time of writing the thesis being prepared in collaboration with Professors Vesna Žabkar and Barbara Čater for submission to the International Journal of Management Reviews.

complex conceptualizations) by conducting two empirical studies, in which we compare different aspects of construct validity of the four dominant conceptualizations of PV. The findings of this chapter have important implications for conceptualization and use of marketing constructs in general and PV in particular.

Keywords: construct clarity, conceptual analysis, metatheoretical analysis, theory mapping, facet theory, ladder of abstraction, structural validity of higher-order multidimensional constructs, perceived value, customer value

1.1 Introduction

Constructs are the fabric of theories in social and behavioral sciences. Metatheorists of various epistemological orientations agree that the conception and use of constructs must not be ambiguous (Bagozzi, 1984; Fisher & Aguinis, 2017; Sandberg & Alvesson, 2020; Shepherd & Suddaby, 2016; Zeithaml et al., 2020a). “Clear constructs are simply robust categories that distil phenomena into sharp distinctions that are comprehensible to a community of researchers” (Suddaby, 2010, p. 346, p. 346). Clarity is important because it facilitates communication within a research community and helps advance theoretical understanding of substantive phenomena (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2016). It is also a prerequisite for construct validity (MacKenzie, 2003) that enables appropriate measurement procedures (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; J. P. Peter, 1981), empirical generalizations (Babin et al., 2021; Grewal et al., 2018), and a cumulative progress of scientific disciplines (Eisend, 2015; Rousseau, Manning, & Denyer, 2008).

Suddaby (2010) posits that construct clarity rests on four cornerstones: definitions, boundary conditions, relationships to other constructs, and logical coherence between the first three elements. Extant literature offers methodological tools and guidelines that address each of these cornerstones. For instance, scholars are advised on how to define constructs (Podsakoff et al., 2016; Teas & Palan, 1997); how to establish their boundary conditions (Busse, Kach, & Wagner, 2016; Zeithaml et al., 2020a); and how to delineate them from and relate them to other constructs (Bagozzi, 1984; Tähtinen & Havila, 2018). Despite the abundance of guidelines on how to achieve and/or improve clarity in constructs, scholars across business disciplines note that many (or even most) constructs suffer from conceptual confusion (Bisbe, Batista-Foguet, & Chenhall, 2007; T. Clark & Key, 2021; Colquitt, Sabey, Rodell, & Hill, 2019; Hill, Kern, & White, 2012; Mikulić, 2018). For instance, Bergkvist and Eisend (2020, p. 23) claim that it is difficult to identify marketing constructs for which “a single conceptualization—including a standard operationalization—dominates empirical studies.”

Literature reviews are an appealing and often used tool to evaluate the four cornerstones of construct clarity and therefore reduce conceptual confusion (Hulland & Houston, 2020; Palmatier, Houston, & Hulland, 2018; Post, Sarala, Gatrell, & Prescott, 2020). Scholars aiming to clarify constructs through literature reviews use a variety of techniques, including bibliometric reviews (Carpini, Parker, & Griffin, 2017; Wagenschwanz, 2021), umbrella reviews (Gond, Mena, & Mosonyi, 2020; Winters, Magalhaes, Kinsella, & Kothari, 2016), concept reviews (Brymer, Chadwick, Hill, & Molloy, 2018; Hulland, 2020; Tähtinen & Havila, 2018), and reviews of measurement instruments (Hillmann & Guenther, 2021; Larsen & Bong, 2016). Each of these techniques has its advantages and disadvantages. Our aim is to show how they can be used together and complemented with tools for conceptual and metatheoretical analysis to clarify a construct. This chapter offers four contributions.

First, we advance the methodology of literature reviews focused on the clarity of constructs. We demonstrate how to combine a bibliometric review, an umbrella review, a concept review, and a review of measurement instrument such that the literature review illuminates the conceptual confusion and clarifies a construct. Additionally, we show how insights from this process can serve as inputs for tools of conceptual and metatheoretical analysis, such as ladder of abstraction (Osigweh, 1989), theory mapping (Gray, 2017), and methodology of scientific research programs (Leong, 1985).

Second, we contribute to the marketing literature by applying the proposed methodology to clarify the construct of perceived value (PV). We chose PV because previous literature reviews find that it carries multiple meanings (e.g., Rivière & Mencarelli, 2012) and that it has been conceptualized under many different labels (e.g., Karababa & Kjeldgaard, 2014), which imply conceptual confusion (Y. Eyal, 2011; Tähtinen & Havila, 2018). This confusion persists despite continuous efforts to develop an all-acompassing definition of PV (e.g., Kumar & Reinartz, 2016; Woodall, 2003; Woodruff, 1997; Zeithaml, 1988), several typologies of PV (Holbrook, 1999; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991a; J. B. Smith & Colgate, 2007; Zeithaml et al., 2020b), and a variety of existing literature reviews summarized in Appendix 2[8]. The proposed methodology allows us to (1) deconstruct different meanings of PV, (2) extract four dominant conceptualizations of PV, and (3) reconstruct the growing body of research on PV.

Third, we contribute to the debate on questionable research practices related to theory development and construct conceptualization (Aguinis et al., 2017; Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Martinko, Harvey, & Mackey, 2014; Newman, Harrison, Carpenter, & Rariden, 2016; Wacker, 2004). Our literature review highlights how three questionable conceptualization practices can be detrimental to construct clarity. The first refers to *construct stretching* (Osigweh, 1989; Sartori, 1970), which "can occur as individual researchers try to 'enrich' a concept" (Wacker, 2004, p. 635), resulting in additional, often context-specific features of a construct. Stretching can result from *construct mixology*, defined as "developing new constructs by combining (elements of) older constructs" (Newman et al., 2016, p. 945). The third questionable conceptualization practice refers to establishing the *structural validity* of higher-order multidimensional constructs (R. E. Johnson, Rosen, Chang, Djurdjevic, & Taing, 2012). While structural validity procedures involve several conceptual and empirical steps, we focus only on the conceptual steps. These are related to providing a strong

[8] We explain how we retrieved and coded these literature reviews in the subsequent sections.

theoretical rationale for combining the constituent constructs into a higher-order multidimensional construct, specifying the inclusion criteria, and justifying the reflective or formative nature of the higher-order multidimensional conceptualizations (J. R. Edwards, 2001; R. E. Johnson et al., 2012).

Fourth, we advance the literature on PV by comparing the four dominant conceptualizations of PV in two empirical studies. We find that different conceptualizations of and measurement instruments for PV exhibit discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Rönkkö & Cho, 2020; Voorhees, Calantone, Brady, & Ramirez, 2016), which suggests that these conceptualizations capture different phenomena (Bagozzi, 1984; Diamantopoulos, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2016) and should thus not be used interchangeably. Moreover, we also find that more complex conceptualizations of PV do not necessarily improve the predictive validity of the construct, which casts doubts on theoretical and practical usefulness of multidimensional conceptualizations of PV.

The rest of the chapter is structured so that we first define constructs and briefly discuss the development of constructs through the process of conceptualization and its implications for construct clarity. We then outline the advantages and drawbacks of various literature review techniques in terms of assessing and establishing construct clarity and discuss how these techniques can complement each other. Next, we illustrate the conceptual confusion surrounding PV and illustrate how the proposed review methodology can be used to clarify the construct. We then report on an empirical study, which we conducted to examine various aspects of construct validity for the four dominant conceptualizations of PV. We conclude with a discussion of the proposed review methodology and the implications of our findings for conceptualization practices in general and PV in particular.

1.2 A literature review methodology for conceptual clarification

1.2.1 Constructs and conceptualization

Constructs are defined as “cognitive symbols (or abstract terms) that specify the features, attributes, or characteristics of the phenomenon in the real or phenomenological world that they are meant to represent and that distinguish them from other related phenomena” (Podsakoff et al., 2016, p. 161). This definition implies that a construct is merely a label intended to denote “robust categories” (Suddaby, 2010, p. 346) of features, attributes, or characteristics of a phenomenon[9] that exists in the physical and/or phenomenological world. When phenomena are complex, their features, attributes, or characteristics can be represented by multiple dimensions of a construct (Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998; M. Zhang, Gable, & Rai, 2016). A construct is considered *superordinate* when the phenomenon of

[9] Phenomena may “be objects, states, processes, events, and other types of entities” (Borsboom, van der Maas, Dalege, Kievit, & Haig, 2021, p. 765).

interest is reflected in its constituent dimensions, while a construct is considered *aggregate* when its dimensions determine the phenomenon that a construct represents (J. R. Edwards, 2001).

We distinguish between the conceptualization of constructs and the development of constructs. Conceptualization is a part of the research process whereby a definition is proposed, a measure is validated, and the nomological network of a construct is examined (Bagozzi, 1984; Bartunek & Spreitzer, 2006; Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020). Note that this process also addresses Suddaby's (2010) cornerstones of construct clarity: definitions, boundary conditions, relationships to other constructs, and logical coherence between the first three elements. However, construct development is a scientific and social endeavor through which scholars propose and debate alternative conceptualizations and (ideally) agree on the best conceptualization of a construct (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Leong, 1985; Sandberg & Alvesson, 2020; Shepherd & Suddaby, 2016). In this sense, constructs connect communities of scholars who are interested in a particular phenomenon and the development of a construct can be viewed as a scientific research program devoted to a specific phenomenon (Lakatos, 1999).

However, studies that examine construct development over time find that construct clarity often decreases as more effort is invested in a construct-focused research program (Bartunek & Spreitzer, 2006; Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Hirsch & Levin, 1999). Suddaby (2010, p. 348) claims that the development of a construct sometimes leads to an "accumulation of surplus meaning", resulting in conceptual confusion that can jeopardize theoretical progress. Conceptual confusion can take the form of *homonymy*, which means that "the same term is used to describe different concepts and phenomena" (Y. Eyal, 2011, p. 590), or s*ynonymy*, which refers to "using the same definitions but attaching different labels" (Tähtinen & Havila, 2018, p. 537). Homonymy and synonymy are problematic because they lead to construct redundancy (Singh, 1991) and construct proliferation (Shaffer et al., 2015), which in turn "waste researcher time, impede the accumulation of scientific findings, and contribute to widespread issues like the replicability crisis" (Lawson & Robins, 2021, p. 346).

1.2.2 Literature reviews and construct clarity

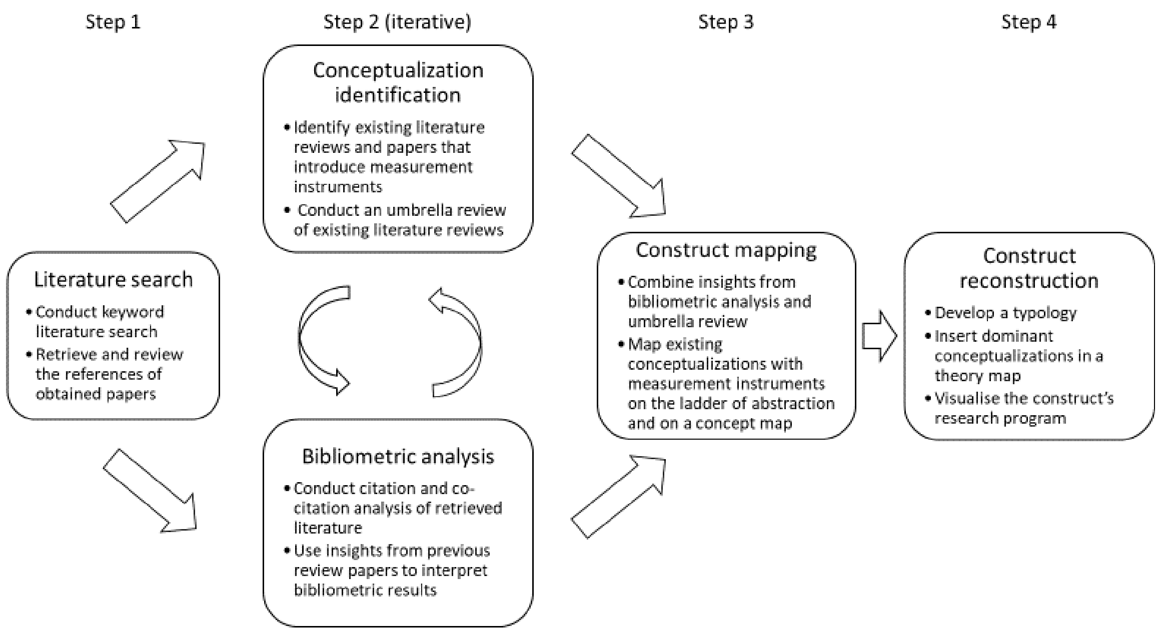
Scholars interested in clarifying a construct have shown that several techniques (e.g., bibliometric reviews, concept reviews, reviews of measurement instruments, umbrella reviews) for reviewing the literature can be useful in achieving this goal. For instance, *bibliometric reviews* can "provide evidence of theoretically derived categories in a review article" (Zupic & Čater, 2014, p. 431) and if the review is focused on different conceptualizations of a phenomenon (Hulland, 2020), these theoretically derived categories may represent construct conceptualizations that dominate the literature (i.e., dominant conceptualizations; Carpini et al., 2017; Lange, Lee, & Dai, 2011; Wagenschwanz, 2021). The dominant conceptualizations can then be compared and contrasted to interrogate their features, attributes, or characteristics. *Concept reviews*, sometimes referred to as conceptual analysis method (CAM; Tähtinen & Havila, 2018) are useful because they focus on construct definitions and their correspondence with the phenomenon that a construct is supposed to represent (Brymer et al., 2018). Main outputs of this type of literature review are concept maps (Tähtinen & Havila, 2018) and typologies (Brymer et al., 2018), which distil and organize the features of a phenomenon and corresponding construct conceptualizations.

Reviews of measurement instruments are relevant because operationalization represents an important step in the conceptualization process (Bartunek & Spreitzer, 2006; Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020). Therefore, when scholars report on their measurement development processes, they are expected to address the cornerstones of construct clarity – provide an explicit definition, relate and delineate the construct from other constructs, and discuss its boundary conditions (Baumgartner & Weijters, 2019; Churchill, 1979; Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; J. P. Peter, 1981). Reviews of measurement instruments can thus assess the semantic content of scale and/or index items (Larsen & Bong, 2016) and evaluate the specified measurement models (Hillmann & Guenther, 2021; Jarvis et al., 2003). The latter is useful for examining construct clarity because it allows scholars to investigate the degree of semantic overlap between alternative conceptualizations of the focal construct and other constructs and thus determine the degree of synonymy and homonymy (Colquitt et al., 2019; Larsen & Bong, 2016). The former are useful in assessing the logical coherence of alternative conceptualizations (Hillmann & Guenther, 2021; Jarvis et al., 2003; Newman et al., 2016). Lastly, *umbrella reviews* synthesize extant literature reviews on a narrow topic (Paré, Trudel, Jaana, & Kitsiou, 2015). When the topic is a construct, umbrella reviews can be useful for investigating construct clarity because one can examine what previous literature reviews have concluded about construct's definition, boundary conditions and relationships with other construct (Winters et al., 2016).

However, each review technique also has its weaknesses. For instance, review papers using only bibliometric techniques "tend to be over-descriptive in their analysis, and fail to step back from their findings to consider what the various trends discovered might mean for theory" (Breslin & Bailey, 2020, p. 220). Concept reviews are "usually selective in that they do not involve a systematic and comprehensive search of all of the relevant literature" (Paré et al., 2015, p. 186). Reviews of measurement instruments often lack "clarity and thoroughness in describing the procedures used to conduct the review and derive the recommendations presented therein" (Aguinis, Ramani, & Alabduljader, 2020, p. 2). The usefulness of umbrella reviews "depends on the quality of the systematic reviews/meta-analyses" that are included (De Spiegeleer et al., 2018, p. 732). Therefore, we propose that the four methodological approaches to reviewing literature can be used in a complementary way, which minimizes the shortcomings associated with a specific technique. The findings of this complementary literature review process can then serve as inputs for metatheoretical analysis tools, such as ladder of abstraction (Osigweh, 1989), theory mapping (Gray, 2017) and research program reconstruction through the methodology of scientific research programs (Leong, 1985).

Figure 4 summarizes the proposed methodology, its steps, and outcomes of each step. In the first step, keyword literature search is performed in online databases, such as Web of Science™ Core Collection. Keywords should represent the common construct labels and the citing references of retrieved documents should also be obtained for the purposes of the next steps in the analysis (i.e., bibliometric analysis and identification of construct conceptualizations). The next step is an iterative one, where bibliometric review is blended with an umbrella review and a review of measurement instruments. Bibliometric techniques, such as co-citation analysis, are used to identify the "intellectual structure" (Zupic & Čater, 2014, p. 439) of the research program that has developed around a construct. An umbrella review is used to ident previous literature reviews and meta-analyses that investigated a construct and potentially addressed (some of) the four cornerstones of construct clarity (Hulland, 2020). A review of measurement instruments is employed to identify extant conceptualizations of a construct and contrast them with the content of scales or indexes and specified measurement models. The iterative nature of this step helps in overcoming the weaknesses of each specific method. Namely, the bibliometric methods assure a systematic and empirically-based analysis of the body of literature dealing with a construct, while an umbrella review and review of measurement instruments allow scholars to go beyond the descriptive insights of bibliometric analyses and enable them to interpret the theoretical perspectives underpinning the dominant conceptualizations of a construct.

Figure 4: A literature review methodology for conceptual clarification



Source: Own work.

The insights from the second (iterative) step are then combined and used as inputs in the third step, where all identified conceptualizations of a construct are mapped on the ladder of abstraction (Osigweh, 1989) and concept map (Tähtinen & Havila, 2018). We use concept maps to interrogate definitions, dimensionality, and measurement model specifications of extant conceptualizations in order to categorize them into dominant conceptualizations and depict them on a two dimensional map (Tähtinen & Havila, 2018). Identification of dominant conceptualizations, which often represent *different* phenomena, also enables us to develop a theoretical typology of a construct, which summarizes the differences between dominant conceptualizations in terms of the four cornerstones of construct clarity (Suddaby, 2010). We use the ladder of abstraction to determine how each conceptualization contributes to the progressiveness of a construct-focused research program (Leong, 1985). We employ the ladder of abstraction to investigate two conceptual properties – the "extensional coverage (breadth)" and "connotative precision (depth)" (Osigweh, 1989, p. 582) of all extant construct conceptualizations. The former represents the generalizability of a conceptualization (Teas & Palan, 1997), while the latter indicates the number of construct's properties or features, which may be represented by construct dimensions (Bagozzi, 1984; M. Zhang et al., 2016). Organizing extant conceptualizations of a construct on the ladder of abstraction offers guidelines for future scholars to employ the most progressive (i.e., generalizable and precise) conceptualizations.

In the fourth and final step of the proposed literature review methodology, the dominant conceptualizations are organized in a theory map, which offers a "way for connecting ideas, building knowledge structures, and making concrete what once was vague" (Gray, 2017, p. 738). Theory maps are particularly useful for depicting the dominant conceptualizations of a construct because different *types* of relationships (e.g., antecedents, outcomes, different levels of analysis) among these dominant conceptualizations can be depicted graphically. A construct's theory map can be complemented with a visual representation of its scientific research program (Lakatos, 1999). Leong (1985) proposes that scientific research programs can be represented in four spheres. The *hard core* sphere consists of "guiding research questions, general propositions/assumptions, integrated models, and classification schemas", while the *protective belt* represents "collectivity of distinct but related research programs" (Leong, 1985, p. 29). In the context of a construct, the basic assumptions regarding the importance and relevance of the phenomenon that is represented by the construct may serve as its hard core. A protective belt of a construct's hard core can be comprised of theories from basic scientific disciplines (e.g., psychology) that inform our understanding of the phenomenon.

The two outer spheres are *midrange theories* as the "intermediate to the minor working hypotheses evolved in abundance during the day-to-day routines of research" and *working hypotheses* sphere that denotes the "individual research efforts" (Leong, 1985, p. 29). In the context of a construct, the midrange theories represent the explanations of a phenomenon that scholars develop either by building on theories from other disciplines (i.e., protective belt) or organically (Kohli, 2009; Zeithaml et al., 2020a). Lastly, the working hypotheses sphere includes conceptualizations of a construct that are used in substantive empirical studies.

1.2.3 An application of the proposed literature review methodology on the construct of perceived value

In this section, we demonstrate how to use the proposed methodology (as outlined in the previous section) by applying it to the PV construct. However, we first provide evidence of conceptual confusion within the PV research program. Scholars should establish the need for conceptual clarification of a construct before employing the proposed methodology by providing evidence of homonymy and/or synonymy. We offer evidence of both homonymy and synonymy and the confusion they generate within the PV research program. We demonstrate the former with Table 1[10], which summarizes 30 papers that conceptualize and develop measurement instruments for PV construct (Alves, 2011; W. Chen, 2013; Parente, Costa, & Leocádio, 2015; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) and constructs with similar labels, such as experiential value (Mathwick, Malhotra, & Rigdon, 2001; Varshneya & Das, 2017) or service value (Brady et al., 2005; Gallarza, Arteaga, Del Chiappa, Gil-Saura, & Holbrook, 2017; Roy Sanjit, Paul, Quazi, & Nguyen, 2018; Ruiz, Gremler, Washburn, & Carrión, 2008). Indicating homonymy, *each construct label* (e.g., PV) denotes *more than one conceptualization* in terms of its *level of abstraction*, *dimensionality*, and *measurement model specification* (i.e., aggregate vs. superordinate; see Table 1).

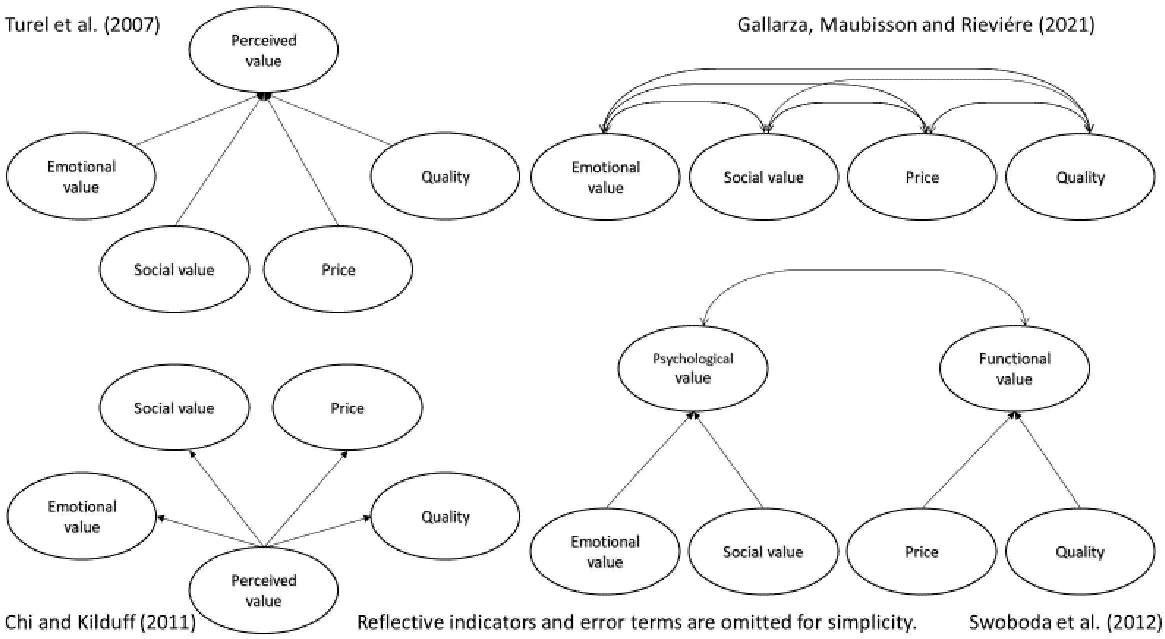
To illustrate the synonymy, we again consult Table 1, where several constructs (i.e., Merle, Chandon, Roux, & Alizon, 2010; Netemeyer et al., 2004; Parente et al., 2015; Petrick, 2002; Roy Sanjit et al., 2018; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) with *different* labels (e.g., PV, service value, value for the cost), dimensionality (e.g., one dimension vs. four dimensions), and measurement model specifications share the *same* definition (Zeithaml, 1988). Moreover, the majority of papers in Table 1 does not discuss the conceptual similarities and differences of their and pre-existing conceptualizations and only two of the 30 papers attempted to empirically assess discriminant validity of conceptualizations they proposed (Merz, Zarantonello, & Grappi, 2018; K. E. Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003). This lack of discussion of conceptual similarities and differences along with the absence of empirical tests of discriminant validity raises several questions. What (if any) are the conceptual differences between utilitarian dimensions of consumer's attitudes (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; K. E. Voss et al., 2003) and utilitarian value (Babin, Darden, & Griffin, 1994; Bradley & LaFleur, 2016)? Do hedonic attitudes (K. E. Voss et al., 2003), hedonic value (Varshneya & Das, 2017), emotional value (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001), and passion (Merz et al., 2018) represent the same or different phenomena? Are co-created value (Busser & Shulga, 2018),

[10] We explain how we developed Table 1 in the next section as we use it here only to demonstrate the conceptual confusion of PV research program.

experiential value (Varshneya, Das, & Khare, 2017), service value (Gallarza et al., 2017), and value-in-use (Ranjan & Read, 2016) distinct constructs?

Confusion also transcends into substantive empirical research (i.e., working hypotheses sphere) within the PV research program (Leong, 1985). For example, four papers that investigate a construct labelled PV (Chi & Kilduff, 2011; Gallarza, Maubisson, & Rivière, 2021; Swoboda, Pennemann, & Taube, 2012; Turel, Serenko, & Bontis, 2007), define it as "an overall assessment of the utility based on perceptions of what is received and what is given" (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 14). All four papers conceptualize PV as a four-dimensional construct and operationalize it with the measurement instrument from Sweeney and Soutar (2001), however, each paper employs a different measurement model specification of PV (see Figure 5), implying that they study four different phenomena (Diamantopoulos, 2010).

Figure 5: Different measurement model specifications of the same conceptualization and measurement instrument for perceived value



Source: Own work.

The last indicator of conceptual confusion are the very limited empirical generalizations regarding the nomological network of PV (Babin et al., 2021; Sharp et al., 2017). Other constructs that capture the psychological strength of marketing assets (Edeling & Fischer, 2016), such as *perceived quality* (Blut, Chowdhry, Mittal, & Brock, 2015; Carrillat, Jaramillo, & Mulki, 2009; Hogreve, Iseke, Derfuss, & Eller, 2017; Ranjan, Sugathan, & Rossmann, 2015; Rao & Monroe, 1989; Völckner & Hofmann, 2007), *satisfaction* (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011; Geyskens, Steenkamp, & Kumar, 1999; Orsingher, Valentini, & de Angelis, 2010; Szymanski & Henard, 2001), and *trust* (Khamitov, Wang, & Thomson, 2019; Y. Kim & Peterson, 2017; Palmatier, Dant, Grewal, & Evans, 2006; Swan, Bowers, &

Richardson, 1999; Vanneste, Puranam, & Kretschmer, 2014), have been extensively meta-analyzed. Yet, only three meta-analyses of PV have been published (Babin & Krey, 2020; V. A. Vieira, 2013; V. A. Vieira, Santini, & Araujo, 2018). This lack of empirical generalizations related to PV suggests that while the literature on this construct is vast and growing quickly (Eggert, Ulaga, Frow, & Payne, 2018), the findings about its antecedents and outcomes are fragmented (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020).

1.2.3.1 Perceived value literature search

In the Web of Science™ Core Collection, we searched by topic, where we included keywords related to PV: "perceived value", "customer value", "consumer value", "experiential value", "product value", "service value", "shopping value", "relationship value", "exchange value", "value in use", "value in exchange", "transaction value", "emotional value", "use value", "hedonic value", "utilitarian value", "consumption value*" and combined search "value AND "consumer perceptions"". To focus the database on perceptions of value we added Boolean operation NOT for the following search terms: "customer lifetime value", "personal values", "social values" and "consumer values". The search was narrowed down to cover academic articles (i.e., article, review or editorial material) published in journals covered by Web of Science, indexed in SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, and A&HCI. Journal articles not covered by Web of Science™ Core collection, books/monographs, and book chapters, were not included. To increase the relevancy, the search was further narrowed down to include only WoS categories, where research on PV is most prominent: business, ethics, management, "hospitality leisure sport tourism", telecommunications, "computer science information systems", "green sustainable science technology", psychology multidisciplinary, "computer science interdisciplinary applications", and psychology applied. The search was conducted on July 3, 2020.

First, we present the analysis of the number of papers by years and sources of publication. We had not confined our search to any specific period; the first paper recorded in the database that matched our search conditions was from 1962. Analysis of the years in which the articles were published shows that initially there was a scant interest in the field (only 14 articles altogether matched search criteria before the 1990s, while from 1990 until 2000 fewer than 30 articles per year were published). The field started growing fast in 2011, when the number of papers first exceeded 200 per year. The largest take-off was noticed in 2015 and the peak was reached in 2019 with 621 articles. According to source titles, papers appeared in 516 different journals, with top-ten journals accounting for over 26% of published articles. Papers on PV most frequently appeared in *Sustainability*, *Journal of Business Research*, *Industrial Marketing Management*, *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, and *Journal of Services Marketing*.

Table 1: Review of perceived value conceptualizations with measurement instruments

Author	Construct / scale name	Explicit construct definition offered[a]	Cited theories	Number of first order dimensions	Names of the construct's dimensions	Measurement model specification	Tests of discriminant validity
Batra and Ahtola (1991)	Utilitarian and hedonic dimension of consumer attitudes	No	Attitude theory (Millar & Tesser, 1986)	2	Utilitarian and hedonic dimensions of attitude	Two 1st order reflective models	No
Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991)	Perceived value	No	Economic theory of exchange (Stiglitz, 1987)	1	Perceived value	1st order reflective model	No
Babin et al. (1994)	Utilitarian and hedonic shopping value	No	Attitude theory (Batra & Ahtola, 1991); Axiology (Perry, 1950)	2	Perceived utilitarian shopping value; Perceived hedonic shopping value	Two 1st order reflective models	No
Grewal et al. (1998)	Acquisition value	Yes (own)	Utility theory (Thaler, 1985)	1	Perceived acquisition value	1st order reflective model	No
Mathwick et al. (2001)	Experiential value	No	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999); Theory of consumption values (Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991b)	7	Aesthetics (visual appeal & entertainment); Playfulness (escapism & enjoyment); Service excellence; Customer ROI (efficiency & economic value)	Three 2nd order superordinate constructs reflected in three 1st order reflective constructs and an additional 1st order model	No
Sweeney and Soutar (2001)	Consumer perceived value	Yes (Zeithaml, 1988)	Theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b)	4	Functional value - quality; Functional value - price; Emotional value; Social value	Four 1st order reflective models	No
Petrick (2002)	Perceived value of a service	Yes (Zeithaml, 1988)	Not specified	5	Behavioral price; Monetary price; Emotional response; Quality; Associations	Five 1st order reflective constructs	No

(table continues)

(continued)

K. E. Voss et al. (2003)	Utilitarian and hedonic dimension of consumer attitudes	No	Attitude theory (Batra & Ahtola, 1991); Axiology (Perry, 1950)	2	Hedonic and utilitarian attitude dimensions	Two 1st order reflective models	Yes (Batra & Ahtola, 1991)
Netemeyer et al. (2004)	Perceived value for the cost	Yes (Zeithaml, 1988)	Means-end theory (Woodruff, 1997)	1	Perceived value for the cost	1st order reflective model	No
Brady et al. (2005)	Service value	No	Not specified	1	Service value	1st order reflective model	No
Lin, Sher, and Shih (2005)	Perceived value	Yes (own)	Not specified	5	Perceived overall value; Monetary sacrifice; Website design; Fulfilment/reliability; Security/privacy; Customer service	2nd order aggregate construct determined by 1st order reflective models	No
Ulaga and Eggert (2005)	Relationship value	Yes (own)	Not specified	7	Product; Service; Know-how; Time-to-market; Social; Process costs; Price	Single 3rd order aggregate construct, determined by two 2nd order aggregate constructs, which are determined by five and two 1st order reflective models respectively	No
Sánchez, Callarisa, Rodríguez, and Moliner (2006)	Perceived overall value	No	Theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b)	6	Functional value of the travel agency (installations); Functional value of the personnel of the travel agency (professionalism); Functional value of the tourism package (quality); Functional value price; Emotional value of the purchase; Social value	Six first order reflective models	No

(table continues)

(continued)

Ulaga and Eggert (2006b)	Relationship value	Yes (own)	Not specified	6	Core benefits; Sourcing benefits; Operations benefits; Direct costs; Acquisition costs; Operation costs	Single 2^{nd} order aggregate construct (with four reflective items for identification), determined by three 1^{st} order formative models	No
J. B. Smith and Colgate (2007)	Customer value	No	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999); Means- end model (Woodruff, 1997); Theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b)	4	Functional/instrumental value; Experiential/hedonic value; Symbolic/expressive value; Cost/sacrifice value	Not specified	No
Ruiz et al. (2008)	Service value	Yes (Zeithaml, 1988)	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999); ; Theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b)	4	Service quality; Service equity; Confidence benefits; Perceived sacrifice.	2^{nd} order (reflective) construct that is determined by three first order reflective models and one composite variable	No
Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2009)	Economic value	Yes (own)	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999)	2	Efficiency; Excellence	2^{nd} order superordinate model with two first order reflective models	No
Merle et al. (2010)	Perceived value	Yes (Zeithaml, 1988)	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999)	5	Utilitarian value; Uniqueness value; Self-expressiveness value; Hedonic value; Creative achievement value	Two 2^{nd} order superordinate constructs, reflected in five 1^{st} order reflective models	No
Alves (2011)	Perceived value	Yes (own)	Not specified	1	Perceived value	Single first order reflective model	No
W. Chen (2013)	Perceived value	Yes (Zeithaml, 1988)	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999); Theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b)	5	Product benefits; Emotional benefits; Social benefits; Inconvenience; Risk	3^{rd} order aggregate of formed by two 2^{nd} order aggregates (perceived benefits and sacrifices), which are formed by first order reflective models	No

(table continues)

(continued)

Puustinen, Maas, and Karjaluoto (2013)	Perceived investment value (PIV)	No	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999)	6	Economic value—Monetary savings; Economic value—Efficiency, Functional value, Emotional value—Emotions and Experiences; Symbolic value—Altruism; Symbolic value—Esteem	2nd order superordinate model with six first order reflective models	No
Parente et al. (2015)	Customer perceived value	Yes (Zeithaml, 1988)	Theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b)	4	Associations; Service quality; Convenience; Monetary sacrifice	Four 1st order reflective constructs	No
Bradley and LaFleur (2016)	Hedonic and utilitarian value	No	Attitude theory (K. E. Voss et al., 2003)	2	Hedonic value; Utilitarian value	Two 1st order reflective models	No
Ranjan and Read (2016)	Value-in-use	Yes (own)	Service dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004)	9	Experience; Personalization; Relationship	A 2nd order aggregate constructs, which is determined by three 1st order formative constructs	No
Gallarza et al. (2017)	Service-value scale	Yes (Holbrook, 1999)	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999)	8	Efficiency; Excellence, Status; Esteem; Play; Aesthetics; Ethics; Spirituality	Single 3rd order aggregate construct, determined by two 2nd order aggregate constructs, which are each determined by three 1st order formative constructs	No
Varshneya and Das (2017)	Experiential value scale	Yes (own)	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999); Theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b)	4	Cognitive value; Hedonic value; Social value; Ethical value:	2nd order aggregate construct determined by four 1st order reflective models	No
Busser and Shulga (2018)	Co-created value	Yes (own)	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999); Service dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004)	5	Meaningfulness; Collaboration; Contribution; Recognition; Affective response	2nd order superordinate construct, reflected in five 1st order reflective constructs	No

(table continues)

(continued)

Merz et al. (2018)	Customer co-creation value scale	Yes (Ranjan & Read, 2016)	Service dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004)	7	Brand knowledge; Brand skills; Brand creativity; Brand connectedness; Brand passion; Brand trust; Brand commitment	Single 3rd order aggregate construct, determined by two 2nd order aggregate constructs, which are determined by four and three 1st order formative constructs respectively	Yes (Ranjan & Read, 2016; Yi & Gong, 2013)
Roy Sanjit et al. (2018)	Service value	Yes (Zeithaml, 1988)	Theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b)	7	Service quality; Service equity; Customer intimacy; Operational effectiveness; Product leadership; Customer communication; Perceived sacrifice	Seven 1st order reflective constructs.	No
Kréziak, Prim-Allaz, and Robinot (2020)	Perceived residual value	Yes (own)	Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999)	3	Utilitarian; Financial; Affective	Three 1st order reflective constructs	No

[a] The definitions appear in Appendix 3. We consider a definition explicit if the description of a construct includes wording like "we conceptualize/define/see X as", "X is defined/conceptualized as" or "X can be defined/conceptualized as".

Among the total of 4,493 papers in our database, the most cited one is that of Zeithaml (1988) from the *Journal of Marketing* (with 5,485 citations overall in the WoS database on July 8, 2020), followed by Cronin, Brady, and Hult (2000) from the *Journal of Retailing* (2,507 citations), Babin et al. (1994) from the *Journal of Consumer Research* (2,083), Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) from the *Journal of Marketing* (1,852 citations), and Sweeney and Soutar (2001) from the *Journal of Retailing* (1,836 citations).

1.2.3.2 Conceptualization identification

To identify papers that introduce PV conceptualizations, we combined a review of measurement instruments with an umbrella review. To identify papers that develop measurement instruments for PV, we searched the titles and abstracts of 4,493 papers (and their references) from our database with the following keywords: "scale", "measurement", "measuring", and "index", which we combined with a Boolean operator OR. This search returned 410 documents, for which we screened their titles and abstracts and retained 30 papers, where authors claim a contribution in terms developing a measurement instrument for PV (see Table 1). For each paper, we coded the name of a construct or scale, whether the paper provided an explicit construct definition, the theoretical frameworks that authors referred to, the number of first order dimensions of the constructs, names of the construct's dimensions, the measurement model specification, and whether the authors conducted any tests of discriminant validity between the conceptualization they propose and other conceptualizations of PV.

To conduct an umbrella review, we employed two search strategies to identify existing literature reviews. First, we filtered the total of 4,493 papers in our database by document type to include only review papers and editorial materials, which returned 180 results. Second, we searched the titles and abstracts of 4,493 PV documents with keywords "literature review", "meta-analysis", "conceptuali*", and "defin*", which we combined with a Boolean operator OR. This search returned 513 results, which we combined with the 180 documents that we have identified through document type filtering. After removing duplicates, we obtained 658 unique papers and screened their titles and abstracts, which led us to retain 40 documents (see Appendix 2). We read each of these documents and coded document type (e.g., review paper vs. meta-analysis), whether the focus of a review was on PV in business-to-consumer (B2C) or business-to-business (B2B) context and summarized their main findings.

1.2.3.3 Bibliometric analysis

Among various bibliometric methods, we use co-citation analysis because it is the most appropriate to answer questions, such as: "What is the intellectual structure of literature X? How has the diffusion of the concept through research literature taken place? What is the structure of the scientific community in a particular field?" (Zupic & Čater, 2014, p. 439).

For co-citation analysis of papers in VOSviewer (van Eck & Waltman, 2010), we included 356 papers that had at least 45 citations and were not purely methodological in nature (e.g., Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The analysis extracted five clusters. Each circle in Figure 6 characterizes a paper, while the size of the circle denotes the number of citations of that paper. Labels of nodes are shown only for selected nodes to prevent overlapping of labels. The papers that are positioned close to each other in Figure 6 are more strongly related by co-citations than those papers that are located further away from each other (van Eck & Waltman, 2014). Although Figure 6 includes the labels for each cluster (e.g., Acquisition value), we derived the labels for dominant conceptualizations only after we completed the next step in the review process (i.e., construct mapping). Hence, we describe the intellectual structures behind each conceptualization of PV in the next section.

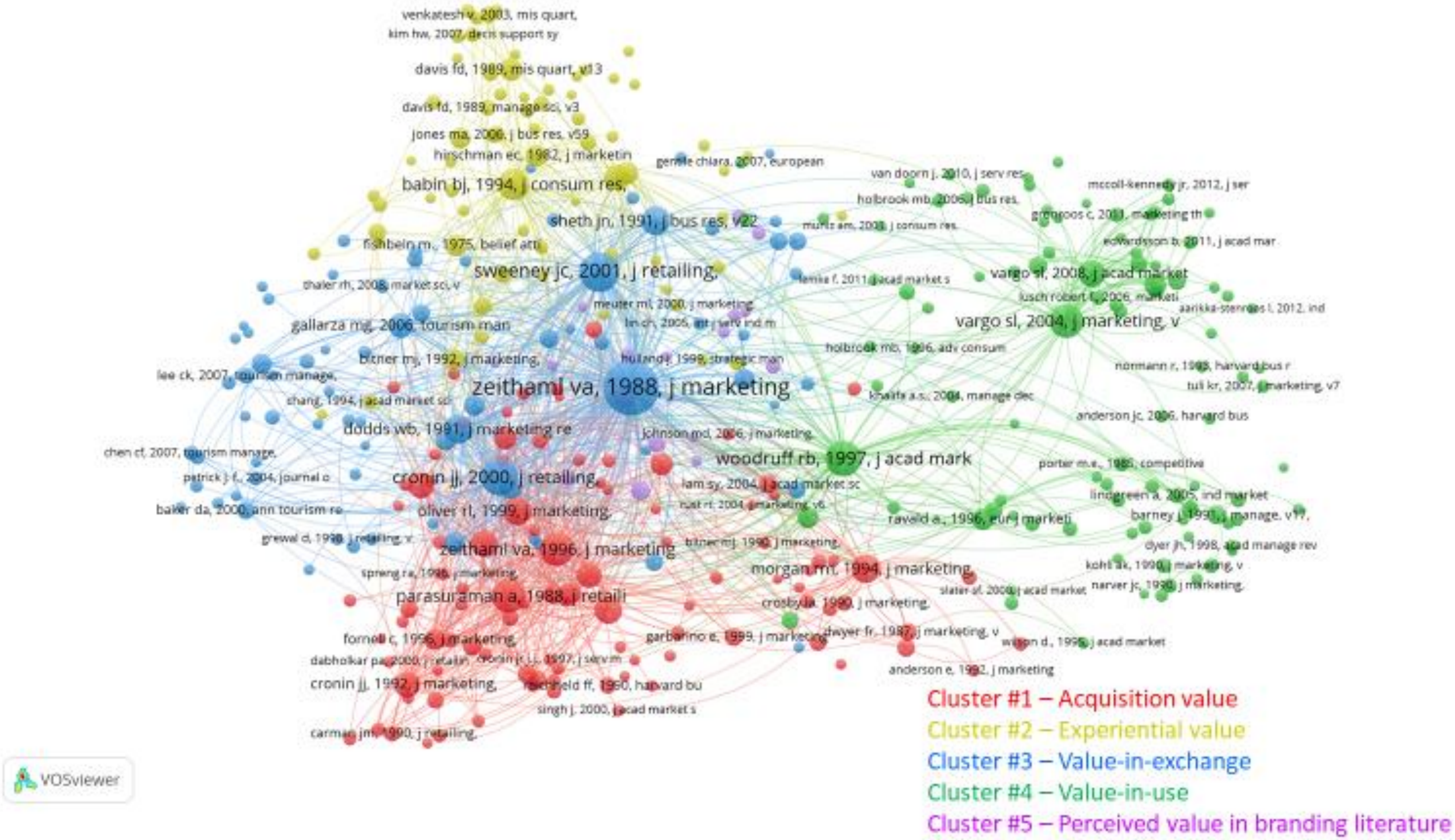
Table 2 summarizes top-ten representative papers from each cluster based on the number of citations and total link strength. We read each of these papers to determine if they introduce a PV conceptualization and/or review the PV literature. Those papers that met either of the criteria appear in italics. At this point, we iteratively combined the insights from the second step: bibliometric review (Figure 6 and Table 2), review of measurement instruments (Table 1), and umbrella review (Appendix 2). Namely, we used the findings from Table 1 and Appendix 2 to *label* and *describe* the dominant conceptualizations of PV, which correspond to clusters identified through co-citation analysis.

Table 2: Top ten cited documents in each cluster

Cluster	**Papers**
Acquisition value	Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988); Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996); R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994); Oliver (1997); Oliver (1980); Cronin and Taylor (1992); R. N. Bolton and Drew (1991); Cronin and Taylor (1992); R. N. Bolton and Drew (1991); Sirdeshmukh et al. (2002)
Value-in-exchange	*Zeithaml (1988)*; *Sweeney and Soutar (2001)*; Cronin et al. (2000); Dodds et al. (1991); *Sheth et al. (1991b)*; Gallarza and Gil Saura (2006); Sweeney, Soutar, and Johnson (1999); *Parasuraman and Grewal (2000)*; Grewal et al. (1998); Holbrook (1994)
Experiential value	*Babin et al. (1994)*; Holbrook and Hirschman (1982); Davis, Bagozzi, and Warshaw (1989); *Mathwick et al. (2001)*; Fishbein and Ajzen (1975); Hirschman and Holbrook (1982); Bitner (1992); Ajzen (1991); Mehrabian and Russell (1974); Baker, Parasuraman, Grewal, and Voss (2002)
Value-in-use	*Woodruff (1997)*; Vargo and Lusch (2004); Vargo and Lusch (2008); Payne, Storbacka, and Frow (2008); *Ravald and Grönroos (1996)*; *Eggert and Ulaga (2002)*; Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004); Barney (1991); *Lapierre (2000)*; Vargo and Lusch (2008)
Perceived value in branding	Keller (1993); Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001); D. A. Aaker (1991); Fournier (1998); Belk (1988); Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello (2009); Yoo, Donthu, and Lee (2000); Yoo and Donthu (2001) ; Bhattacharya and Sen (2003a); J. L. Aaker (1997)

Source: Own work.

Figure 6: Results of co-citation analysis



Source: Own work.

1.2.3.3.1 Acquisition value

The first cluster consists of 98 papers focusing on perceptions of value at the point of *exchange*, which is the most commonly adopted conceptualization in early PV writings (R. N. Bolton & Drew, 1991; Zeithaml, 1988). In this cluster, PV is conceptualized as customer's global appraisal of an offering in terms the exchange that enables access to the offering. The appraisal results from a comparison of benefits obtained vis-à-vis costs incurred during an exchange (Ravald & Grönroos, 1996; Zeithaml, 1988). We label this conceptualization *acquisition value* to clearly communicate that customers' evaluations of offerings are based on the outcome of an exchange (i.e., acquisition of an offering).

We classified five conceptualizations from Table 1 as acquisition value as they all feature unidimensional factor models (Alves, 2011; Brady et al., 2005; Dodds et al., 1991; Grewal et al., 1998; Netemeyer et al., 2004). This literature stream often examines PV as a mediator between customer's perceptions of price or quality and customer satisfaction (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha, & Bryant, 1996) or between trust and loyalty (Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). A meta-analyses of acquisition value outcomes finds that this conceptualization acts as an important determinant of managerially-relevant outcomes, such as commitment, loyalty, word-of-mouth, and purchase intentions (V. A. Vieira, 2013).

The conceptualization of acquisition value is consistent across contexts (cultures, customers, offerings, research designs, etc.) and is thus an example of a well-travelling construct, meaning that it is highly abstract but also applicable across research contexts without loss of precision or changes in its meaning (Osigweh, 1989). As an illustration of an attempt to stretch this construct, consider the argumentation from Alves (2011, p. 1946; emphasis added): "…the value perceived by the student is a broad concept that includes *more* than a trade-off between what is given and what is received and thus includes other components that may be relevant in higher education." However, through empirical testing she concludes that "other components" do not function as indicators of PV, extending some support to the general idea of falsificationism (i.e., empirically rejecting false theoretical propositions; Leong, 1985).

1.2.3.3.2 Experiential value

The second cluster includes 68 papers, which examine consumers' shopping, consumption, or service experiences (Bitner, 1992; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). This literature stream focuses strictly on value derived from use of an offering and examines how customers feel (i.e., hedonic value) and think (i.e., utilitarian value) when they experience an offering. Therefore, we label this conceptualization *experiential value*. We categorized four of the 30 conceptualizations summarized in Table 1 into this cluster. Two of them correspond to the high level of abstraction since they can be applied across contexts (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; K. E. Voss et al., 2003), while the other two conceptualize experiential value in retail context (Babin et al., 1994; Bradley & LaFleur, 2016).

This conceptualization typically views experience from the standpoint of consumer psychology (Alba & Williams, 2013) and has its theoretical roots in research on attitudes (Batra & Ahtola, 1991; Dubé, Cervellon, & Jingyuan, 2003). Experiential value is consistently conceptualized as a two-dimensional disaggregate construct, consisting of utilitarian and hedonic dimensions (Babin et al., 1994; Bradley & LaFleur, 2016; Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; M. A. Jones, Reynolds, & Arnold, 2006; K. E. Voss et al., 2003). This two-dimensional conceptualization is also an example of a well-travelling construct, since experiential value is applicable across contexts while permitting its meaning to retain the same precision (Osigweh, 1989).

Two meta-analyses examine experiential value (see Appendix 1). Babin and Krey (2020) find that both utilitarian and hedonic dimension of experiential value correlate positively with satisfaction, while V. A. Vieira et al. (2018) find significant positive correlations between both dimensions of experiential value and satisfaction, purchase intentions, loyalty, and word-of-mouth intentions.

1.2.3.3.3 Value-in-exchange

The third cluster contains 75 documents, including the most-cited PV paper and definition (Zeithaml, 1988), which is commonly used in conjunction with the theory of consumption values developed by Sheth et al. (1991a) and/or consumer value framework proposed by Holbrook (1999). These two frameworks propose five and eight PV dimensions, respectively. However, the conceptualizations of PV dimensions in both theories are largely overlapping (J. B. Smith & Colgate, 2007). While these dimensions capture value derived from use of an offering (e.g., hedonic, utilitarian, social value), the conceptual focus remains on evaluation of these dimensions in the context of an exchange. For instance, Sheth et al. (1991b, pp. 160-162) write about PV as "perceived utility of an alternative" and Holbrook (1999, p. 5) talks about a "preference experience". Hence, these theories conceptualize various dimensions of value derived from use of an offering as determinants of value perceptions during an exchange. Note that this conceptualization shifts the conceptual focus from the "overall assessment of the utility" (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 14) to an appraisal of specific facets of an offering that (in combination with the costs or sacrifices) determine the overall utility of an offering. Therefore, we label this conceptualization *value-in-exchange*.

The value-in-exchange literature stream causes the most conceptual confusion because the majority (i.e., 18 out of 30 from Table 1) of extant conceptualizations (W. Chen, 2013; Gallarza et al., 2017; Kréziak et al., 2020; Lin et al., 2005; Mathwick et al., 2001; Merle et al., 2010; Parente et al., 2015; Petrick, 2002; Puustinen et al., 2013; Roy Sanjit et al., 2018; Ruiz et al., 2008; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2009; Sánchez et al., 2006; J. B. Smith & Colgate, 2007; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Ulaga & Eggert, 2005, 2006b; Varshneya & Das, 2017) captures value-in-exchange. However, these conceptualizations are very diverse in terms of construct definitions, levels of abstraction, construct dimensions, and measurement model specifications (see Table 1). Moreover, value-in-exchange is often conceptualized through construct mixology, it has poor structural validity, and is a stretched construct. Value-in-exchange is by definition a *compound construct*, created through construct mixology (Newman et al., 2016), whereby pre-existing (i.e., *constituent*) constructs, such as price, quality and hedonic value, that were once considered antecedents of PV (Zeithaml, 1988) are posited to be dimensions of PV. For construct mixology to be scientifically progressive, the constituent constructs need to be acknowledged and the compound construct has to be specified as a higher-order construct (Newman et al., 2016). Yet, this is often not the case with value-in-exchange, as authors disavow or even ignore the constituent constructs. For example, quality is disavowed by casting it as a PV dimension by relabeling it as functional value (Parente et al., 2015; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) or as excellence (Gallarza et al., 2017; Mathwick et al., 2001). When scholars conceptualize quality as a dimension of value-in-exchange in service contexts (e.g., Puustinen et al., 2013; Roy Sanjit et al., 2018; Sánchez et al., 2006), they also ignore that service quality is itself a multidimensional construct (Grönroos, 1984; Parasuraman et al., 1988).

The review of measurement model specifications for value-in-exchange (Table 1 and Figure 5) reveals how issues of structural validity create conceptual confusion regarding this conceptualization. Since this is a compound construct, its measurement model has to be specified as a higher-order model (Newman et al., 2016) and the structural validity procedures should be applied (see R. E. Johnson et al., 2012). The first step of structural validity procedures refers to providing a deductive or inductive theoretical rationale for combining the constituent first-order constructs, which both theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b) and consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999) do. The next step relates to establishing precise inclusion criteria for first-order constituent constructs as indicators of a higher-order compound (R. E. Johnson et al., 2012). Because the two frameworks disagree on some of the dimensions of value-in-exchange (Holbrook, 1999; Sheth et al., 1991b), only common dimensions of hedonic, utilitarian, and social value offer solid inclusion criteria (J. B. Smith & Colgate, 2007). However, the third structural validity step refers to specifying aggregate or superordinate nature of a higher-order multidimensional construct (J. R. Edwards, 2001; R. E. Johnson et al., 2012). The fundamental propositions of theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b, p. 160) clearly state that value-in-exchange is an *aggregate* by claiming that "value dimensions are independent"[11] and "make differential contributions in any given choice situation." These two propositions along with Figure 1 of Sheth et al. (1991b, p. 160) characterize value-in-exchange as an aggregate second-order construct, yet most value-in-exchange conceptualizations from Table 1 specify superordinate measurement models.

[11] This proposition has been misinterpreted so that constituent constructs should be uncorrelated (e.g., Sweeney and Soutar, 2001), when it simply means that they can be influenced independently (Sheth, personal correspondence).

Finally, conceptual stretching of value-in exchange occurs when scholars attempt to conceptualize it in particular settings and therefore introduce context-specific dimensions. This results in largely redundant value-in-exchange conceptualizations for financial services (Parente et al., 2015; Puustinen et al., 2013; Roy Sanjit et al., 2018) or leisure services (Gallarza et al., 2017; Petrick, 2002; Sánchez et al., 2006). These conceptualizations introduce several additional contextual dimensions of value-in-exchange, which reduces the construct to a *taxonomic domain* and makes it a stretched construct on a low abstraction level (Osigweh, 1989).

1.2.3.3.4 Value-in-use

The fourth cluster includes 98 papers that are relatively distant from the rest of the network in Figure 6, with Woodruff (1997) serving as primary bridging reference. The theoretical foundation of this cluster is service-dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004), which is also the main driver of the recent growth of PV literature (Eggert et al., 2018). However, this literature stream, which focuses exclusively on perceptions of value during the use of offerings, also includes relationship marketing (Ganesan, 1994; Ravald & Grönroos, 1996) and B2B marketing (Eggert & Ulaga, 2002; Lapierre, 2000) contributions to the PV research program. The two "sub-clusters" within this cluster (relationship value and value creation processes) are captured in the conceptualizations of *value-in-use* with dimensions such as relationship, interaction, knowledge, and personalization (Ranjan & Read, 2016); skills, knowledge, creativity, trustworthiness, and commitment (Merz et al., 2018); collaboration and contribution (Busser & Shulga, 2018).

Although value-in-use seems to overlap with experiential value (Lemke, Clark, & Wilson, 2011), it treats customer experience from a phenomenological perspective of value-creating practices (Grönroos & Voima, 2013; Helkkula, Kelleher, & Pihlström, 2012). Value-in-use is consistently conceptualized as a multidimensional construct, which pertains to the *process* of offering use, the abilities, motivations, and resources applied within that process, and the relationships that contextualize that process (Busser & Shulga, 2018; Macdonald, Kleinaltenkamp, & Wilson, 2016; Merz et al., 2009; Ranjan & Read, 2016). We classified three conceptualizations from Table 1 as value-in-use (Busser & Shulga, 2018; Merz et al., 2018; Ranjan & Read, 2016). These typically employ aggregate higher-order specifications.

If examined from the perspective of conceptualization practices, value-in-use also emerges as a compound construct created through construct mixology (Newman et al., 2016). Similarly, as value-in-exchange, value-in-use is sometimes derived from questionable practices of disavowing the constituent constructs. For example, Merz et al. (2018, p. 80) disavow the constituent construct of brand equity by stating: "The concept of brand value, as defined in this study, is similar to the concept of brand equity in that they both deal with customer perceptions. However, while a brand's value is about customer perceptions of the brand's use-value (i.e., experience), brand equity is about customer perceptions of how well known a brand is (i.e., brand awareness) and what it represents (i.e., brand image) (Keller, 1993).” This argumentation simply ignores the fact that Keller’s (1993, p. 4) conceptualization of brand image includes *experiential benefits*, which “relate to what it feels like to use the product or service and also usually correspond to the product-related attributes.” Moreover, some scholars have questioned if value-in-use is conceptually distinct from other established constructs, such as service quality. For instance, Medberg and Grönroos (2020, p. 522) conclude “that in the minds of service customers, value defined as value-in-use and service quality may represent the same empirical phenomenon. Although there are theoretical differences between the concepts in the literature, the findings of this study indicate that a distinction between value-in-use and service quality may have little or no relevance in service practice.”

It is exemplary that all value-in-use conceptualizations from Table 1 rely on higher-order specifications (Newman et al., 2016), but structural validity procedures are still ignored (R. E. Johnson et al., 2012). While service dominant logic seems to provide a theoretical rationale for combining the constituent constructs (e.g., resource integration), it does not offer precise inclusion criteria for its first-order dimensions (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2016, 2017). Consequently, there is not much overlap between the dimensions of each conceptualization of value-in-use (Busser & Shulga, 2018; Merz et al., 2018; Ranjan & Read, 2016). Hence, structural validity of value-in-use could be improved by theories-in-use or case study approach to identify and establish inclusion criteria (R. E. Johnson et al., 2012; C. Welch, Rumyantseva, & Hewerdine, 2015; Zeithaml et al., 2020a). The same holds for specification of aggregate or superordinate nature of value-in-use, where existing conceptualizations again disagree (Busser & Shulga, 2018; Merz et al., 2018; Ranjan & Read, 2016). Here, works of Lemke et al. (2011) and Macdonald et al. (2016) can serve as starting points.

1.2.3.3.5 Perceived value in branding literature

The last cluster is comprised of 17 papers from branding literature and includes constructs like brand equity (D. A. Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993; Yoo & Donthu, 2001; Yoo et al., 2000), brand personality (J. L. Aaker, 1997) brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009), and consumer-brand identification (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003a). This stream of literature does not develop additional conceptualizations of PV but adopts one of the conceptualizations introduced in previous clusters. For instance, Netemeyer et al. (2004) consider acquisition value as one of dimensions of brand equity, while Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) examine the effects of experiential value on brand trust. Since the literature from this cluster does not contribute to conceptual confusion but rather represents a part of the working hypotheses sphere of the PV research program (Leong, 1985), we will not discuss it further.

1.2.3.4 Construct mapping

By combining the insights from the previous step—review of PV conceptualizations with measurement instruments in Table 1, umbrella review in Appendix 2, cocitation results in Figure 6, and the descriptions of dominant PV conceptualizations), we developed the concept map of PV (Figure 7). We positioned a PV conceptualization (Table 1) horizontally on Figure 7 according to its focus on perceptions of value on the basis of exchange (left handside) or use (right handside) of an offering. The vertical position of a PV conceptualization in Figure 7 depends on its number of dimensions such that conceptualizations with fewer dimensions appear at the bottom and conceptualizations with more dimensions appear at the top. Figure 7 also depicts the theoretical backgrounds of four dominant conceptualizations of PV (i.e., acquisition value, experiential value, value-in-exchange, and value-in-use). Lastly, the concept map of PV also indicates that two of the dominant conceptualizations (i.e., acquisition value and experiential value) conceptualize PV as *outcomes* (i.e., overall utility and utilitarian and hedonic attitudes, respectively) of an exchange or experience/use of an offering, while the other two dominant conceptualizations (i.e., value-in-exchange and value-in-use) attempt to capture the *process* (i.e., drivers or antecedents of acquisition value and experiential value) of evaluation.

Figure 8 presents the ladder of abstraction, where we positioned a conceptualization vertically on the ladder according to its breadth (Osigweh, 1989). For example, if a conceptualization is applicable across different types of brands, products and services, we classified it as having a high level of abstraction. If it is applicable for specific type of customers (e.g., B2B) but can be used for different types of offerings, we placed it at the middle level of abstraction. When a conceptualization is context specific (e.g., financial services), we positioned it at the low level of abstraction. Next, we determined the horizontal position of a conceptualization according to its depth (Osigweh, 1989), which is indicated by the number of construct dimensions (Bagozzi, 1984). Scholars, reviewers, and editors should be skeptical of PV conceptualizations with configurative, taxonomic or stretched conceptual domains because they limit the possibility of empirical generalizations (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Eisend, 2017) and hence prevent the accumulation of knowledge (Osigweh, 1989).

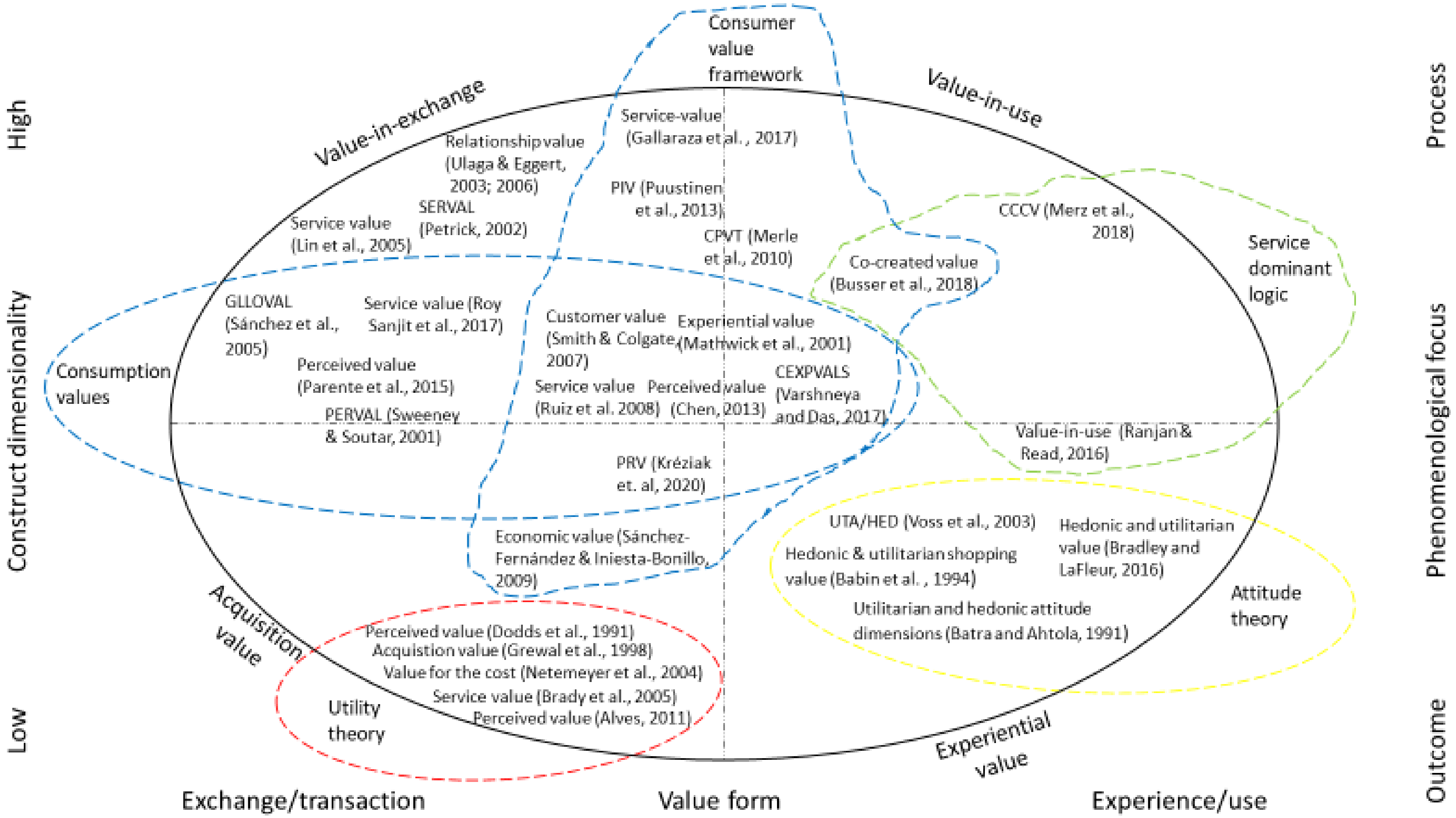
The ladder of abstraction in Figure 8 also reveals that none of value-in-use conceptualizations appears in the upper left quadrant, which means that this dominant conceptualization currently cannot be generalized across different contexts. Therefore, more theoretical and conceptual research is needed to determine the inclusion criteria of value-in-use constituent constructs and its aggregate or superordinate nature. Moreover, both value-in-exchange and value-in-use are compound constructs and should hence rely on higher-order measurement models (Newman et al., 2016), which has important implications for PV theory testing (Wong, Law, & Huang, 2008). Consider, for example, a scholar that is interested in how consumer trust in frontline employees and management policies and practices affects value-in-exchange (e.g., Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). This scholar should model the effects of these trust facets on the second-order construct of value-in-exchange and should not include effects on the constituent constructs.

1.2.3.1 Construct reconstruction

The last step in the proposed literature review methodology for conceptual clarification is devoted to reconstructing a construct-focused research program. While previous steps aimed to (1st step) conduct a systematic search of the literature, (2nd step) identify and analyze extant construct conceptualizations, and (3rd step) illuminate the similarities and differences among extant conceptualizations in order to extract dominant conceptualizations of a construct, the last step aims to integrate the dominant conceptualizations and thereby reconstruct a construct-focused research program. To facilitate this reconstruction process, we first developed a theoretical typology of PV (summarized in Table 3), which addresses the cornerstones of construct clarity–definitions, boundary conditions, relationships with other constructs, and logical coherence (Suddaby, 2010)–for all four dominant conceptualizations of PV. As our analysis of extant PV conceptualizations (Table 1 and Figure 5) indicate that current definitions enable ambiguity in conceptualization and are hence not in line with methodological guidelines on how to clearly define constructs (Colquitt et al., 2019; Gilliam & Voss, 2013; Podsakoff et al., 2016; Teas & Palan, 1997; K. Voss, E., Zablah, Huang, & Chakraborty, 2020), we developed definitions for all four dominant conceptualizations of PV.

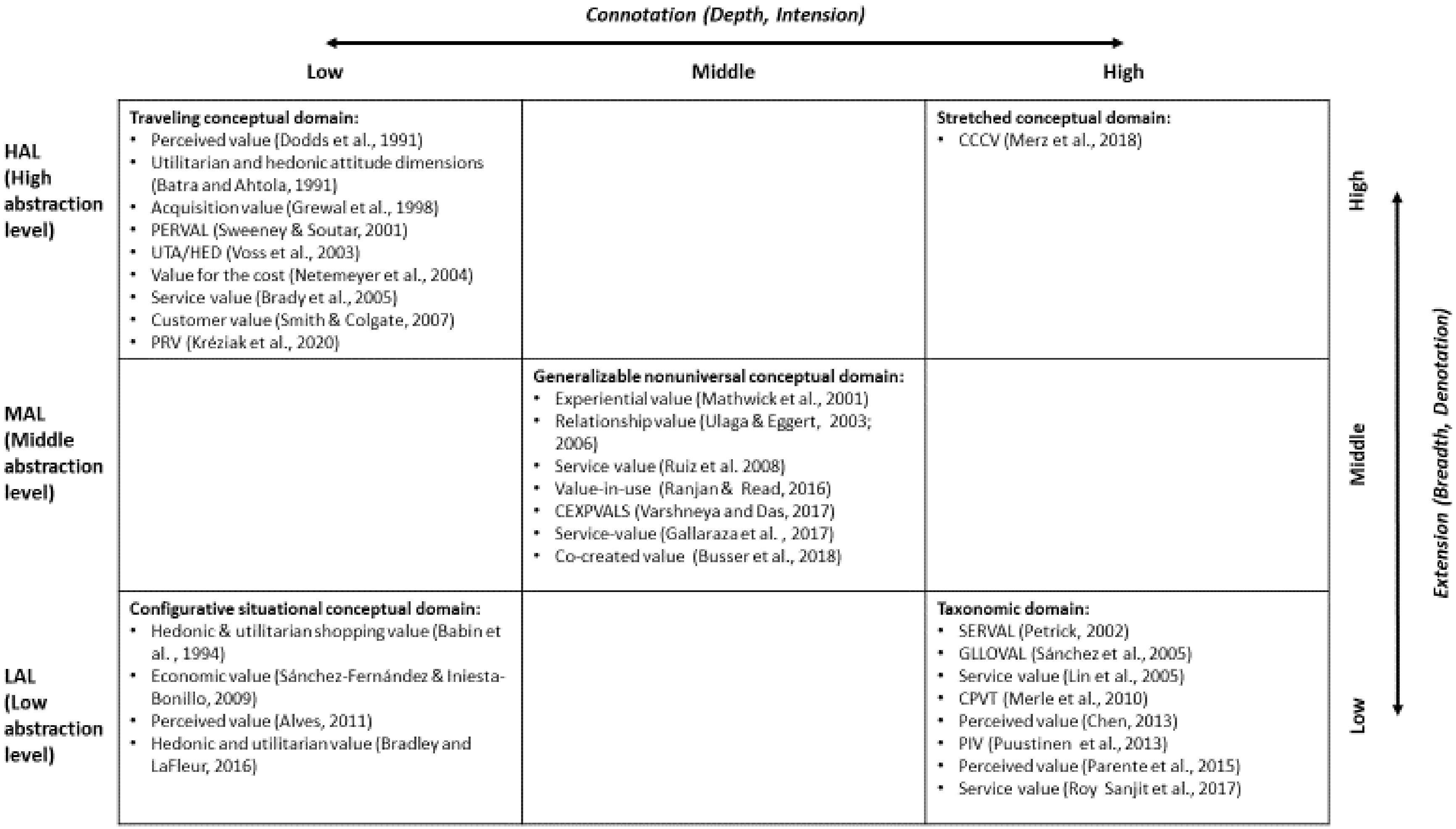
Table 3 indicates that four dominant conceptualizations of PV examine different phenomena (i.e., process or outcome of exchange or use of an offering) at different stages of customer journeys, "which break decisions into a series of steps that constitute a path to purchase and beyond" (R. Hamilton, Ferraro, Haws, & Mukhopadhyay, 2020, p. 69). While there are different conceptualizations of customer journeys, they all distinguish between pre-transaction (e.g., need recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives) and post-transaction (e.g., use, postpurchase evaluation, repurchase) stages (S. M. Edwards, 2011; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Lemon & Verhoef, 2016; Puccinelli et al., 2009; Wiesel, Pauwels, & Arts, 2010). Each dominant conceptualization of PV is thus particularly useful for capturing customer evaluations at a certain point in the customer journey and enables scholars to answer specific research question. This is important, because existing guidelines (Leroi-Werelds, 2019; Leroi-Werelds, Streukens, Brady, & Swinnen, 2014) assume that different PV conceptualizations actually capture the *same* phenomenon and, instead of relying on conceptual and theoretical grounds, advise scholars to select a conceptualization according to empirical nature of their study. This distinction illuminates the boundary conditions of PV and clarifies its relationships with other constructs (Suddaby, 2010).

Figure 7: Concept map of perceived value



Source: Own work.

Figure 8: Ladder of abstraction



Source: Own work

Table 3: A theoretical typology of perceived value

PV conceptualization and corresponding cluster	**Acquisition value** (1)	**Experiential value** (2)	**Value-in-exchange** (3)	**Value-in-use** (4)
Proposed definition of respective PV conceptualizations	A customer's global evaluation of an offering based on the exchange needed to access this offering.	A customer's evaluation of instrumentality and affect associated with an offering.	A customer's evaluation of elements of an offering, salient to the decision to the access the offering.	A customer's evaluation of motivations activated and resources integrated during use of an offering.
Underlying theory	Utility theory (Thaler, 1985)	Attitude theory (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993)	Theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991b) and/or Consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999)	Service dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004)
Measurement model specification	A single latent variable with reflective measurement model.	Two first-order latent variables with reflective measurement models.	Second-order aggregate construct with multiple first-order latent variables with reflective measurement models.	Second-order superordinate construct with multiple first order latent variables with reflective measurement models.
Construct origin	Constituent construct	Constituent construct	Compound construct	Compound construct
Point of customer journey	At the time of transaction	After use of an offering	Before a transaction	During use of an offering
Focus is on the	Outcome of an exchange	Outcome of use	Process of exchange	Process of use
Underlying research question	Do customers think an offering is a good deal?	What do customers think and feel about use of an offering?	What makes an offering a good deal?	What motivates customers to use an offering?

Source: Own work.

Furthermore, Table 3 summarizes the theoretical frameworks that support each dominant conceptualization of PV and provides guidelines on how to specify the measurement model according to the origin of a dominant conceptualization of PV that they employ. The constituent conceptualizations (i.e., acquisition value and experiential value) should be modeled as first-order, reflective constructs, while compound conceptualizations (i.e., value-in-exchange and value-in-use) should be modeled as higher-order constructs. These guidelines should improve the logical coherence of PV conceptualizations (Suddaby, 2010).

To integrate the four dominant conceptualizations of PV, we inserted them in a theory map (Figure 9). Theory maps can aide theory development "by providing specificity and synthesis" (Gray, 2017, p. 737). The former is achieved "by formalizing associations between constructs", while the latter is accomplished by evaluating "both the coherence of grand ideas and the contribution of specific studies" (Gray, 2017, pp. 737-738). The theory map of PV indicates that all conceptualizations of PV (along with customer lifetime value – CLV) can be treated as building blocks of customer value theory (Kumar & Reinartz, 2016). However, the positive association between PV and CLV is likely moderated by which dominant conceptualization of PV is employed (Vogel, Evanschitzky, & Ramaseshan, 2008). Moreover, theory map also clarifies the relationships among four dominant conceptualizations, which emerge from the reconstruction process as *sibling constructs*, defined as "constructs that are conceptually and/or empirically related, but distinct" (Lawson & Robins, 2021, p. 345). For instance, acquisition value and value-in-exchange appear conceptually distinct, but we expect them to be strongly correlated (i.e., empirically equivalent). Theory map also reveals that conceptual similarities between the dominant conceptualizations of PV stem from the fact that these conceptualizations share some of the features (e.g., benefits and sacrifices), however, these facets are conceptualized at different stages of customer journey and with regards to different aspects of an evaluation (i.e., process vs. outcome).

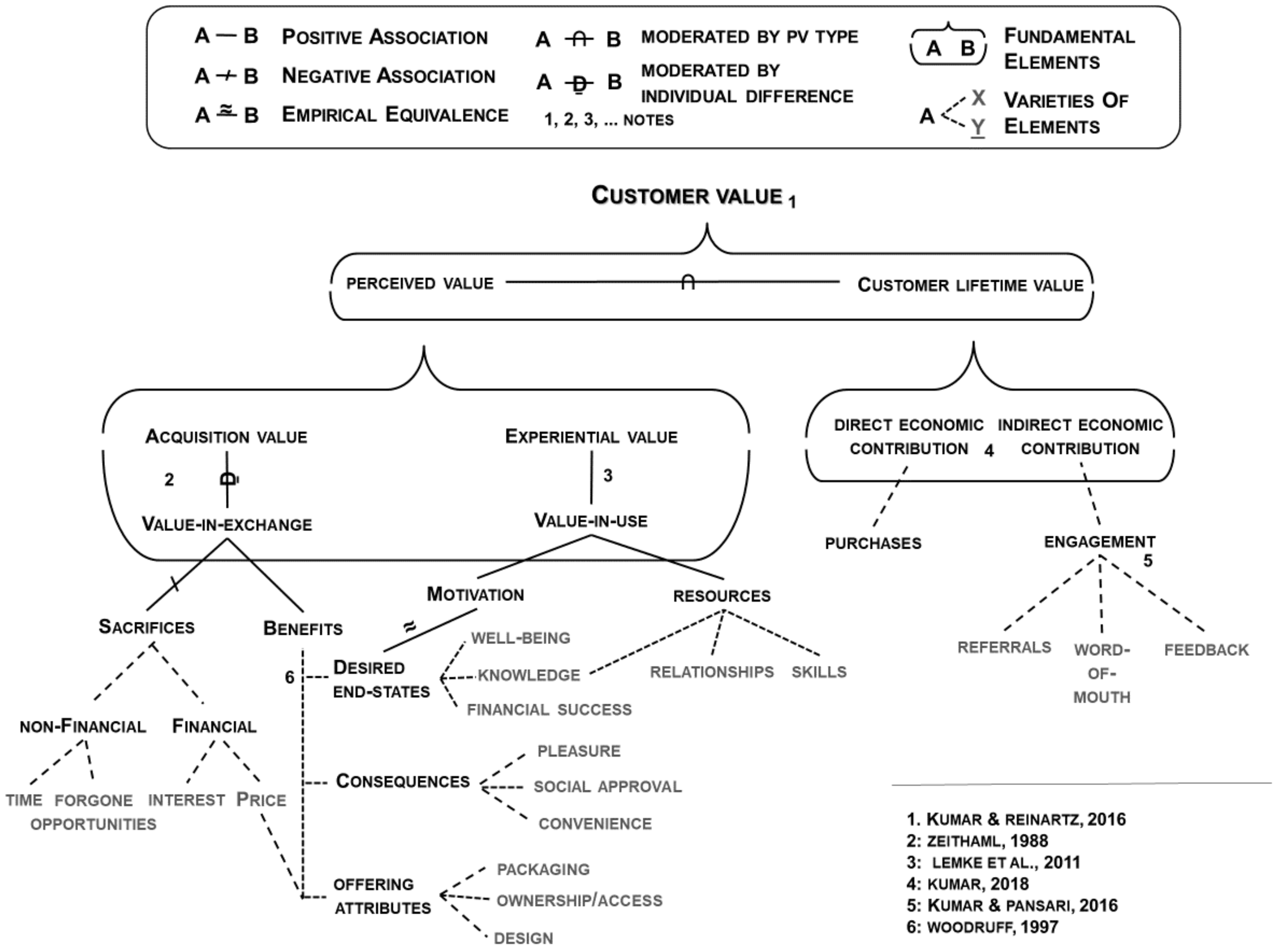
Combining the insights from the theoretical typology of PV (Table 3) and concept map of PV (Figure 9) also provides grounds for future typology-driven theorizing (Snow & Ketchen, 2014), since it meets all three criteria proposed by Doty and Glick (1994, p. 231): it features "explicitly defined constructs that can be quantified, (2) relationships among the constructs are articulated, and (3) predictions associated with the typology are testable and subject to disconfirmation." For instance, combining the theoretical typology PV with engagement theory (Kumar & Pansari, 2016; Pansari & Kumar, 2017) and customer valuation theory (Kumar, 2018a) provides testable propositions about the effects of acquisition value, experiential value, value-in-exchange, and value-in-use on financial and nonfinancial customer contributions to firm performance. As acquisition-value and value-in-exchange capture value derived from an exchange, they should have a stronger impact on customer financial contributions (Kumar & Reinartz, 2016). However, experiential value and value-in-use should have stronger effects on nonfinancial customer contributions (Pansari & Kumar, 2017).

Another set of testable propositions can be derived if the proposed typology is combined with the theory of semantic survey response (Arnulf, Larsen, Martinsen, & Bong, 2014), which claims that relationships between independent variables (i.e., dominant PV conceptualizations) and dependent variables (e.g., purchase intentions, customer engagement) can be predicted on the basis of the semantic properties of scale items. Here, our typology predicts that value-in-exchange and value-in-use should explain more variance in dependent variables than acquisition value and experiential value simply because they share more semantic content with the dependent variables. Testing different aspects of construct validity of PV conceptualizations, while controlling for the shared semantic content is also a promising avenue for future research (see Arnulf, Dysvik, & Larsen, 2019).

By applying the methodology of scientific research programs, introduced by Lakatos (1999) and used in marketing by Leong (1985), we developed Figure 10. The positive heuristic of this research program's hard core is captured in Holbrook's (1999) assertion that PV is the main driver of all marketing activity. Of course, more detailed tenants and fundamental propositions of PV's hard core should be developed (for a first attempt, see Leroi-Werelds, 2019). However, our primary interest lies in in the outer spheres, where construct clarity issues are located (as demonstrated in Table 1 and Figure 5). The protective belt of PV is formed by research programs from economics, humanities, philosophy, psychology, and sociology as theories from these fields underpin many conceptualizations of PV. Mid-range theories sphere consists of conceptualizations of PV in marketing that are often derived from theoretical propositions of research programs located in the protective belt. The working hypotheses sphere includes examples of substantive applications of PV conceptualizations across marketing literature, such as those from Figure 5. Finally, scale development papers (Table 1) act as a link between mid-range theories and working hypotheses spheres because they provide measurement instruments that enable empirical tests of working hypotheses (Lakatos, 1999; Leong, 1985).

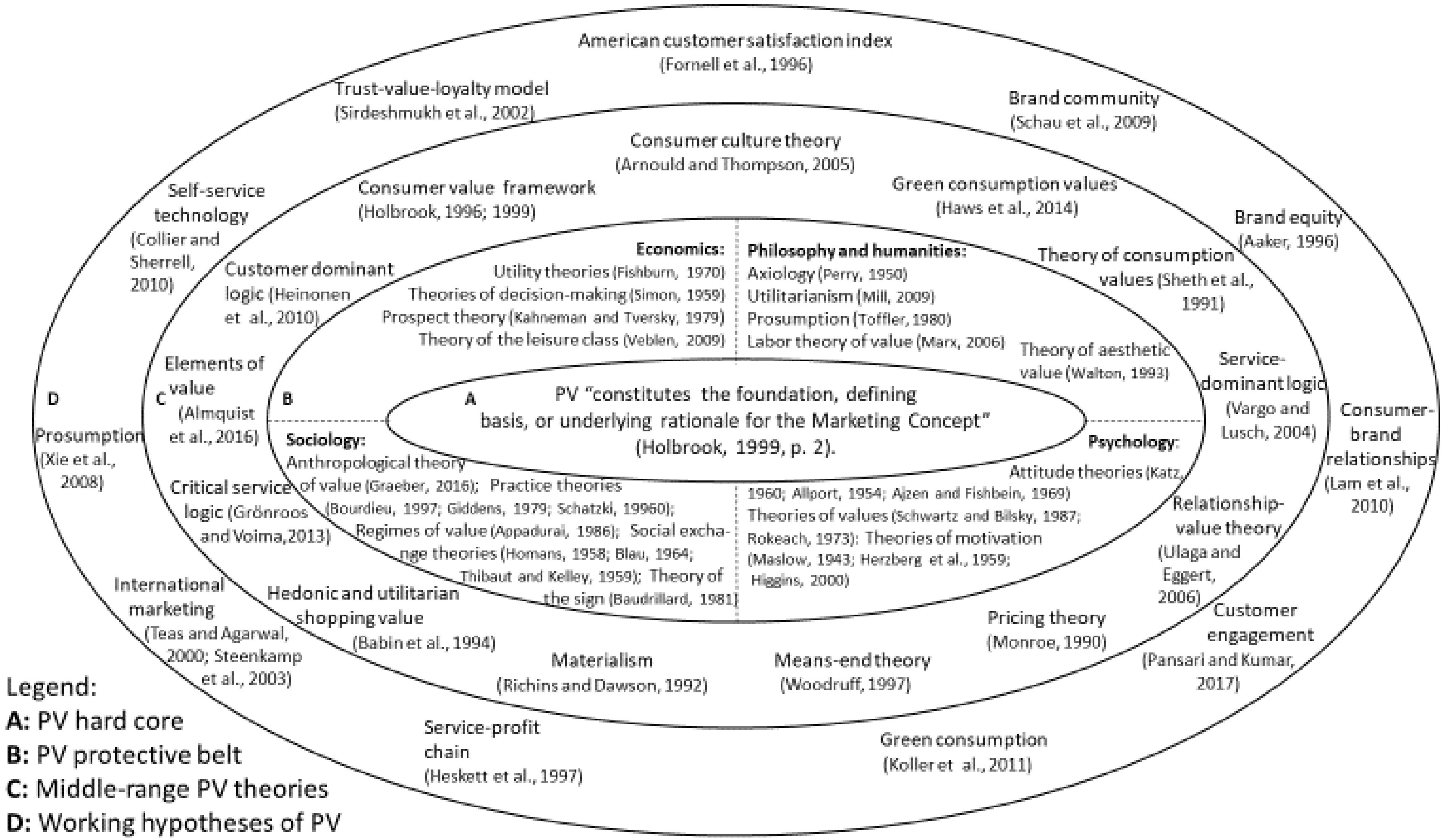
Graphical representation of the research program of PV thus enables us to track different conceptualizations of PV back to their theoretical foundations in economics, philosophy and humanities, psychology, and sociology. The review of the theoretical foundations of PV reveals a range of theoretical lenses indigenous to marketing (Kohli, 2009), including consumer culture theory (Arnould & Thompson, 2005), hedonic and utilitarian shopping values (Babin et al., 1994), relationship-value theory (Ulaga & Eggert, 2006a), service dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004), theory of consumption values (Sheth et al., 1991a, 1991b), and consumer value framework (Holbrook, 1999). These often build on the theoretical foundations of value, which go back to utility theories in economics (e.g., Fishburn, 1970), theories in philosophy and the humanities, attitude theories in psychology (e.g., Ajzen & Fishbein, 1969), and social exchange theories in sociology (e.g., Blau, 1964). The two fundamental perspectives (exchange and use of offerings) on the concept of value (Domegan et al., 2012; Hietanen, Andéhn, & Bradshaw, 2018) can be examined through diverse theoretical lenses. Exchange-focused PV conceptualizations primarily draw from transaction utility theory (van der Merwe, Berthon, Pitt, & Barnes, 2007), while use/experience-focused PV conceptualizations rest on the psychology of motivation and attitude theories but also on phenomenology and practice theory.

Figure 9: Theory map of perceived value



Source: Own work.

Figure 10: A reconstruction of the perceived value research program



Source: Own work.

However, PV research program seems to lack any clarity about how different theoretical perspectives underlying PV relate to each other (c.f. Mishra, Dash, & Malhotra, 2015; Woodall, 2003). Therefore, we call for additional research to better integrate these different theoretical perspectives.

1.3 An empirical examination of dominant conceptualizations of perceived value

To extend the findings from the literature review and validate some of the propositions following from the theoretical typology (Table 3) and theory map (Figure 9) of PV, we conducted an empirical study. The main aim of the study was to examine different aspects of construct validity of four dominant conceptualization of PV (Morrow, 1983; Shaffer et al., 2015; Singh, 1991). To this end, we conducted two surveys with samples of consumers from the United States (US) and Slovenia. We used this data to assess the discriminant validity of dominant PV conceptualizations (Singh, 1991) and compare their predictive validity in different settings (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014). Therefore, we selected four PV scales from Table 1: the value for cost scale (Netemeyer et al., 2004), a short version of the consumer perceived value scale (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Walsh, Shiu, & Hassan, 2014b), the HED/UT scale (K. E. Voss et al., 2003), and the Customer Co-Creation Value (CCCV) scale (Merz et al., 2018). We choose these instruments because each corresponds to one of the four dominant conceptualizations of PV that we identified through the literature review (see Table 1 and Figure 7). Moreover, each scale has been developed and validated on multiple samples, following standard scaling procedures. All of them have been widely applied in the literature – each has more than 1,000 citations on Google Scholar, except for more recent CCCV scale (Merz et al., 2018), which has been cited over 200 times. Finally, all four instruments were designed to measure PV with brand as a referent, which makes them directly comparable

1.3.1 Study 1 – samples and method

Methodologically, we followed Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) and collected data with an online questionnaire, where each respondent evaluated a single brand from one of the four categories (smartphone, soft-drink, insurance, and music streaming service). The selection of these categories enables us to compare the predictive validity of dominant PV conceptualizations across different settings, such as products-services (smartphone and soft-drink vs. insurance and streaming), think-feel offerings (i.e., insurance and smartphone vs. soft-drink and music streaming), and low-high involvement. For high-low involvement comparisons, we measured product category involvement (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) and performed a median split (Iacobucci, Posavac, Kardes, Schneider, & Popovich, 2014). However, unlike Leroi-Werelds et al. (2014) we decided for within-subject comparison of PV scales, which allows us to investigate the discriminant validity of these constructs (Shaffer et al., 2015; Singh, 1991).

To account for cultural differences in consumer evaluations (Chan, Yim, & Lam, 2010; Overby, Woodruff, & Gardial, 2005; Steenkamp & Geyskens, 2006) we collected data in two culturally different countries - Slovenia and the US. Professionally managed online panels were used in both cases and samples are roughly representative of countries' populations in terms of gender and age groups. Detailed sample characteristics appear in Table 4. Although we relied on established scales, pretests (each country n = 40) of both questionnaires were conducted before data collection (Hulland, Baumgartner, & Smith, 2018). This led to some minor changes in the wording of the Slovenian version of the questionnaire.

Table 4: Samples' characteristics in Study 1 (validity assessment of dominant conceptualizations of perceived value)

	US (N = 420)		Slovenia (N = 281)	
Mean age and SD	33.4 (12.9)		45.4 (13.7)	
Gender	53% female		49% female	
Disposable yearly income	Less than 20,000 $	29 5 %	Less than 5,000 $	6.8 %
	20,000 – 34,999 $	17.6 %	5000 – 9,999 $	20.6 %
	35,000 – 49,999 $	15.7 %	10,000 – 12,499 $	12.8 %
	50,000 – 74.999 $	17.6 %	12,500 – 17,999 $	27.8 %
	75,000 – 99,999 $	8.6 %	18,000 – 24,999 $	11.4 %
	More than 100,000 $	7.4 %	More than 25,000 $	3.6 %
	Prefer not to say	4.0 %	Prefer not to say	17.1 %

Source: Own work.

The study design was the same in both countries. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the four categories and were asked to name a brand from this category that they were familiar with. The rest of the questionnaire referred to that brand. This design assured that participants provided evaluations of brands they were familiar with (Keller, 2003). As an instructional manipulation check, participants were asked to indicate how familiar they were with the selected brand on a slider from 0 ("Not familiar at all") to 100 ("Totally familiar"). Average brand familiarity in the pooled sample was 79.65 (SD = 20.81). Moreover, 84.7 % percent of participants indicated that they bought or used the products or services of the brand they selected. Analysis of brands selected by the participants reveals that they most often selected brands with largest market shares in both countries (Coca-Cola, Pepsi, Apple, Samsung, Spotify, Pandora, State Farm, and Progressive). However, smaller brands were chosen as well.

In the next section of the questionnaire, participants were surveyed on four behavioral outcomes: willingness to pay a price premium (Netemeyer et al., 2004), and intentions to purchase, offer feedback, and help other customers (Hsieh & Chang, 2016). In the following section, responses on PV scales were collected and the questionnaire concluded with product category involvement and demographic questions. Thus, we tried to control for common method bias by physically separating dependent and independent variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). All scales were assessed on 7-point Likert scale, except for the HED/UT scale (K. E. Voss et al., 2003), which was measured on a 7-point semantic differential scale. Furthermore, the order of scales for different dimensions was randomized within both substantive sections of the questionnaire to control for carry-over effects (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014). To assure data quality, we included two types of attention checks to disqualify inattentive participants (Abbey & Meloy, 2017).

1.3.2 Study 1 – results

1.3.2.1 Convergent and discriminant validity, common method bias, and measurement invariance

In order to pool the data from two countries, we conducted measurement invariance tests (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 1998). These indicated that all scales exhibit configural invariance and least partial metric invariance (Appendix 4). Therefore, we performed all analyses on a pooled sample. As an post-hoc assessment of common method bias, we applied both the method factor procedure (Bagozzi, 2011) and the marker variable technique (L. J. Williams, Hartman, & Cavazotte, 2010). Adding a method factor to the measurement model did not change the statistical significance or size of the indicator loadings and introducing social desirability bias (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972) as a marker variable did not significantly affect the correlations among the constructs of interest (see Appendix 4). Therefore, we concluded that common method bias is not a threat to the validity of this study.

To assess the validity of dominant PV conceptualizations, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis[12] (CFA), which included all four PV scales and the behavioral outcomes. Table 5 summarizes the wording of all measurement items and their factor loadings. The measurement model converged in adequate fit (χ^2 = 4273.467; d.f. = 1516; χ^2 / df = 2.819; RMSEA = .051; SRMR = .057; CFI = .93; TLI = 923). As Table 5 demonstrates, all measures exhibit convergent validity because all factor loadings are statistically significant. Convergent validity is further supported by results reported in Table 6, which shows that all composite reliabilities exceed .8 and the average variance extracted (AVE) exceeds the .5 threshold. Moreover, we find support for the discriminant validity of all CV measures (see Table 6), since the square roots of AVE for all constructs are greater than any of the inter-construct correlations (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). We additionally examined discriminant validity by the HTMT method (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015), which was found to be a good indicator of discriminant validity (Voorhees et al., 2016). In support of discriminant validity, all constructs pass the HTMT threshold of 0.85 (see Table 6 above the diagonal). These results imply that the four dominant conceptualizations of PV capture different

[12] We favor covariance-based structural equation modelling, as it enables us to approach theory testing in a confirmatory manner (McIntosh, Edwards, & Antonakis, 2014), which is better aligned with a critical realist philosophical perspective (Cadogan & Lee, 2022). Moreover, our samples sizes are large and all first-order constructs are based on the factor model (Sarstedt, Hair, Ringle, Thiele, & Gudergan, 2016)

phenomena and provide empirical support for the distinctions between dominant conceptualizations proposed by the theoretical typology of PV (Table 3).

1.3.2.1 Predictive validity assessment

To examine the predictive validity of dominant PV conceptualization, we estimated four structural models, whereby the dimensions of each PV scale were modelled as exogenous (i.e., correlated) latent variables[13] impacting all of the four outcome constructs. We report detailed results on structural model estimates in Appendix 5. All models converged in acceptable fit. Therefore, we compared the coefficients of determination for endogenous variables as indicators of the predictive ability of dominant PV conceptualizations (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014). In Table 7, we compare the predictive ability between the two countries. We find that all four dominant conceptualizations function consistently in both settings when it comes to explaining purchase intentions. However, there are considerable differences between the two countries when other PV outcomes are considered. For example, in the Slovenian (vs. US) sample, the unidimensional acquisition value conceptualization (Netemeyer et al., 2004) explains about 10 percentage points more of the variance in willingness to pay a price premium (WTP) helping others, and feedback intentions. This conceptualization also seems to be the best predictor of purchase intentions in both countries. On the other hand, value-in-use conceptualization (Merz et al., 2018) is the strongest predictor of helping others and feedback intentions in both countries. The experiential value conceptualization (K. E. Voss et al., 2003) is consistently the weakest predictor across all CV outcomes in both settings.

[13] Due to the use of covariance-based structural equation modelling, we did not model value-in-use based on the CCCV scale (Merz et al., 2018) as a third-order aggregate construct, but performed the analysis on the level of the first-order dimension.

Table 5: Measurement items and factor loadings in Study 1 (validity assessment of dominant conceptualizations of perceived value)

Construct	Measurement item	Standardized loading
Purchase intentions →	PI1 - The probability that I would consider buying BRAND is high.	.940
Purchase intentions →	PI2 - I would purchase BRAND.	.965
Purchase intentions →	PI3 - I would consider buying BRAND at its current price.	.639
Willingness to pay a price premium →	WTP1 - The price of BRAND would have to go up quite a bit before I would switch to another music streaming service.	.670
Willingness to pay price premium →	WTP2 - I am willing to pay a higher price for BRAND than for other music streaming services.	.815
Willingness to pay price premium →	WTP3 - I am willing to pay a lot more for BRAND's services.	.873
Feedback intentions →	FI1 - I would fill out customer satisfaction surveys to BRAND.	.880
Feedback intentions →	FI2 - I would provide helpful feedback to BRAND to improve the service.	.902
Feedback intentions →	FI3 - I would inform BRAND about the great usage experience I have received.	.904
Helping other customers intentions →	HO1 - I would assist other customers in finding BRAND's services.	.844
Helping other customers intentions →	HO2 - I would help others with their questions about BRAND".	.930
Helping other customers intentions →	HO3 - I would explain to other customers how to use BRAND correctly.	.871
Social value (value-in-exchange) →	SoV1 - BRAND would help me to feel acceptable.	.905
Social value (value-in-exchange) →	SoV2 - BRAND would improve the way I am perceived.	.911
Social value (value-in-exchange) →	SoV3 - BRAND would make a good impression on other people.	.884
Emotional value (value-in-exchange) →	EmV1 - BRAND is the one that I would enjoy.	.873
Emotional value (value-in-exchange) →	EmV2 - BRAND would make me want to use it.	.928
Emotional value (value-in-exchange) →	EmV3 - BRAND would make me feel good.	.937
Functional value – Price (value-in-exchange) →	PrV1 - BRAND is reasonably priced.	.853
Functional value – Price (value-in-exchange) →	PrV2 - BRAND offers value for money.	.924
Functional value – Price (value-in-exchange) →	PrV3 - BRAND is a good service for the price.	.952
Functional value – quality (value-in-exchange) →	FuV1 - BRAND has consistent quality.	.857
Functional value – quality (value-in-exchange) →	FuV2 - BRAND is well made.	.925
Functional value – quality (value-in-exchange) →	FuV3 - BRAND has an acceptable standard of quality.	.896
Hedonic value (experiential value) →	HED1 - Not fun / Fun	.854
Hedonic value (experiential value) →	HED2 - Dull / Exciting	.857

(table continues)

(continued)

Hedonic value (experiential value) →	HED3 - Not delightful / Delightful	.918
Hedonic value (experiential value) →	HED4 - Not thrilling / Thrilling	.828
Hedonic value (experiential value) →	HED5 - Unenjoyable / Enjoyable	.849
Utilitarian value (experiential value) →	UTA1 - Ineffective / Effective	.848
Utilitarian value (experiential value) →	UTA2 - Unhelpful / Helpful	.887
Utilitarian value (experiential value) →	UTA3 - Not functional / Functional	.871
Utilitarian value (experiential value) →	UTA4 - Unnecessary / Necessary	.540
Utilitarian value (experiential value) →	UTA5 - Impractical / Practical	.837
Trustworthiness (value-in-use) →	TRU1 - I trust BRAND.	.764
Trustworthiness (value-in-use) →	TRU2 - BRAND addresses my concerns honestly.	.738
Trustworthiness (value-in-use) →	TRU3 - I rely on BRAND when I have a problem.	.755
Trustworthiness (value-in-use) →	TRU4 - I depend on BRAND to satisfy my needs.	.800
Commitment (value-in-use) →	COM1 - My goal is to make BRAND a success.	.929
Commitment (value-in-use) →	COM2 - I am driven to make BRAND a success.	.966
Commitment (value-in-use) →	COM3 - I am committed to making BRAND a success.	.934
Commitment (value-in-use) →	COM4 - I am enthusiastic about making BRAND a success.	.868
Passion (value-in-use) →	PASS1 - I am addicted to BRAND.	.602
Passion (value-in-use) →	PASS2 - I am a fan of BRAND.	.896
Passion (value-in-use) →	PASS3 - I love BRAND.	.932
Passion (value-in-use) →	PASS4 - I admire BRAND.	.843
Skills (value-in-use) →	SKIL1 - I think analytically when I deal with BRAND.	.918
Skills (value-in-use) →	SKIL2 - I think logically when I deal with BRAND.	.914
Skills (value-in-use) →	SKIL3 - I think critically when I deal with BRAND.	.824
Knowledge (value-in-use) →	KNO1 - I am informed about what BRAND has to offer.	.830
Knowledge (value-in-use) →	KNO2 - I am knowledgeable about BRAND.	.933
Knowledge (value-in-use) →	KNO3 - I am an expert of BRAND.	.731
Connectedness (value-in-use) →	CON1 - I am networked with other consumers of BRAND.	.913
Connectedness (value-in-use) →	CON2 - I am connected to other consumers of BRAND.	.946
Connectedness (value-in-use) →	CON3 - I belong to one or more brand communities related to BRAND.	.708
Connectedness (value-in-use) →	CON4 - I socialize with other consumers of BRAND.	.794

(table continues)

(continued)

Creativity (value-in-use) →	CRE1 - I become imaginative when I interact with BRAND.	.927
Creativity (value-in-use) →	CRE2 - I become curious when I interact with BRAND.	.886
Value for the cost (exchange value) →	VC1 - What I get from BRAND is worth the cost.	.887
Value for the cost (exchange value) →	VC2 - All things considered (price, time, and effort), BRAND is a good buy.	.939
Value for the cost (exchange value) →	VC3 - Compared to other brands, BRAND is a good value for the money.	.892
Value for the cost (exchange value) →	VC4 - When I use a BRAND, I feel I am getting my money's worth	.933

Notes: All factor loadings are statistically significant at p > .001. Source: Own work.

Table 6: Validity matrix for Study 1 (validity assessment of dominant conceptualizations of perceived value)

	CR	**AVE**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**
1 Purchase intentions	.893	.741	**.861**	.623	.288	.445	.708	.636	.584	.293	.582	.383	.346	.477	.287	.245	.139	.539	.241	.485
2 Willingness to pay a price premium	.832	.625	.565***	**.791**	.403	.496	.628	.528	.540	.606	.519	.424	.468	.520	.464	.469	.195	.686	.482	.559
3 Feedback intentions	.924	.802	.297***	.407***	**.895**	.645	.353	.281	.293	.374	.451	.336	.355	.376	.289	.439	.289	.406	.524	.462
4 Helping intentions	.915	.783	.449***	.469***	.624***	**.885**	.489	.431	.379	.420	.591	.430	.446	.532	.389	.501	.250	.509	.483	.550
5 Value for the cost (exchange value)	.952	.834	.690***	.572***	.360***	.488***	**.913**	.757	.872	.475	.726	.542	.536	.536	.306	.454	.157	.654	.403	.644

(table continues)

(continued)

6 Functional value – quality (value-in-exchange)	.922	.798	.618***	.482***	.286***	.425***	.749***	**.893**	.680	.373	.689	.494	.533	.572	.264	.383	.108	.624	.300	.572
7 Functional value – price (value-in-exchange)	.936	.829	.571***	.497***	.299***	.382***	.873***	.693***	**.911**	.380	.622	.432	.417	.444	.204	.366	.110	.560	.336	.554
8 Social value (value-in-exchange)	.928	.810	.313***	.524***	.372***	.404***	.474***	.368***	.388***	**.900**	.535	.326	.435	.455	.454	.507	.613	.624	.613	.666
9 Emotional value (value-in-exchange)	.938	.833	.582***	.580***	.454***	.575***	.726***	.686***	.637***	.534***	**.913**	.535	.533	.696	.551	.396	.636	.170	.554	.670
10 Utilitarian value (experiential value)	.901	.651	.365***	.370***	.325***	.420***	.525***	.500***	.432***	.390***	.531***	**.807**	.495	.433	.214	.443	.321	.478	.365	.654
11 Hedonic value (experiential value)	.935	.743	.356***	.457***	.347***	.421***	.525***	.542***	.441***	.443***	.689***	.504***	**.862**	.418	.352	.603	.083	.620	.457	.442
12 Knowledge (value-in-use)	.873	.698	.472***	.460***	.355***	.505***	.524***	.552***	.442***	.419***	.524***	.409***	.390***	**.836**	.462	.502	.346	.208	.348	.581
13 Connectedness (value-in-use)	.908	.715	.272***	.424***	.271***	.366***	.300***	.260***	.202***	.462***	.377***	.185***	.333***	.412***	**.846**	.532	.272	.558	.517	.452

(table continues)

(continued)

14 Creativity (value-in-use)	.902	.822	.255***	.492***	.441***	.489***	.459***	.391***	.372***	.614***	.641***	.419***	.597***	.464***	.509***	**.907**	.337	.650	.669	.584
15 Skills (value-in-use)	.917	.786	.164***	.224***	.295***	.257***	.183***	.118*	.128**	.349***	.200***	.296***	.054	.345***	.262***	.351***	**.887**	.560	.612	.654
16 Passion (value-in-use)	.895	.686	.555***	.622***	.375***	.472***	.662***	.641***	.579***	.563***	.712***	.438***	.607***	.624***	.495***	.593***	.180***	**.828**	.443	.443
17 Commitment (value-in-use)	.959	.856	.248***	.491***	.508***	.456***	.391***	.292***	.330***	.606***	.540***	.319***	.437***	.386***	.459***	.660***	.364***	.530***	**.925**	.613
18 Trustworthiness (value-in-use)	.849	.585	.484***	.538***	.465***	.538***	.647***	.570***	.565***	.666***	.679***	.608***	.436***	.554***	.416***	.583***	.463***	.594***	.604***	**.765**

*Notes: CR = Composite reliability; AVE = Average variance extracted; Square root of AVE bolded on the diagonal; HTMT coefficients above the diagonal; inter-construct correlations below the diagonal with significance levels: *** p < .001; ** p < .01; * p < .05. Source: Own work.*

Table 7: Coefficients of determination for the US and Slovenian samples in Study 1 (validity assessment of dominant conceptualizations of perceived value)

	US				Slovenia			
PV conceptualization / outcome	Exchange value	Value-in-exchange	Experiential value	Value-in-use	Exchange value	Value-in-exchange	Experiential value	Value-in-use
Purchase intention	.463	.475	.236	.445	.538	.468	.136	.402
Willingness to pay a price premium	.273	.442	.264	.426	.410	.417	.174	.398
Helping others	.254	.370	.275	.469	.323	.350	.204	.374
Feedback intention	.157	.288	.172	.335	.242	.223	.144	.475

Source: Own work.

Comparisons of the predictive validity of dominant PV conceptualizations between product and service offerings appear in Table 8. Inspection of the coefficients of determination indicates that acquisition value conceptualization (Netemeyer et al., 2004) predicts purchase intentions almost as well (products) or even better (services) than other three dominant conceptualizations (Merz et al., 2018; K. E. Voss et al., 2003; Walsh et al., 2014b). However, the two more complex dominant conceptualizations (i.e., value-in-exchange and value-in-use) outperform other two dominant conceptualizations (i.e., acquisition value and experiential value) in predicting WTP, helping intentions, and feedback intentions. Interestingly, the value-in-use conceptualization (Merz et al., 2018) outperforms the value-in-exchange conceptualization (Walsh et al., 2014b) in product categories while differences in the context of services are negligible.

Table 8: Coefficients of determination for product and service categories in Study 1 (validity assessment of dominant conceptualizations of perceived value)

	Products (soft drink & smartphone)				Services (insurance & streaming service)			
PV conceptualization / outcome	Exchange value	Value-in-exchange	Experiential value	Value-in-use	Exchange value	Value-in-exchange	Experiential value	Value-in-use
Purchase intention	.451	.558	.207	.495	.496	.427	.193	.414
Willingness to pay a price premium	.337	.449	.264	.505	.326	.398	.184	.406
Helping others	.236	.352	.238	.451	.256	.386	.233	.409
Feedback intention	.138	.281	.187	.382	.141	.233	.129	.293

Source: Own work.

Next we compared the predictive ability of dominant PV conceptualizations between "think" (i.e., insurance and smartphone) and "feel" (i.e., soft drink and music streaming platform) offerings (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014). The results are reported in Table 9. For purchase intentions of "think" offerings, the value-in-exchange conceptualization (Walsh et al., 2014b) explains 10 percentage points more variance than other conceptualizations, while for "feel" offerings the acquisition value conceptualization (Netemeyer et al., 2004) explains about 8% more of variance in Purchase intentions than other conceptualizations. For other three outcomes, the value-in-use conceptualization (Merz et al., 2018) is the best predictor for both "think" and "feel" offerings. However, its advantage over value-in-exchange conceptualization (Walsh et al., 2014b) in predicting WTP and intentions to help others are very small. Most notable relative advantage of value-in-use conceptualization appears in the case of feedback intentions, where it explains 12 percentage points ("think" offerings) and 9.5 percentage points ("feel" offerings) of variance more than value-in-exchange conceptualization.

Table 9: Coefficients of determination for think and feel offerings in Study 1 (validity assessment of dominant conceptualizations of perceived value)

	"Think" offerings (insurance & smartphone)				"Feel" offerings (soft drink & music stream. service)			
PV conceptualiz ation / outcome	Exch-ange value	Value-in-exchange	Exper-iential value	Value-in-use	Exch-ange value	Value-in-exchange	Exper-iential value	Value-in-use
Purchase intention	.470	.593	.390	.479	.517	.435	.066	.400
Willingness to pay a price premium	.280	.452	.291	.493	.413	.425	.200	.470
Helping others	.220	.331	.244	.404	.269	.386	.243	.412
Feedback intention	.098	.180	.111	.300	.160	.315	.195	.438

Source: Own work.

Finally, we examined the predictive ability of dominant PV conceptualizations between low and high involvement categories (for results, see Table 10), where we find that acquisition value (Netemeyer et al., 2004) and value-in-exchange (Walsh et al., 2014b) conceptualizations predict purchase intentions equally well, while value-in-use conceptualization (Merz et al., 2018) predicts purchase intentions equally well when consumer involvement with the category is low. On the other hand, the value-in-use conceptualization is again the best predictor of other PV outcomes in both low- and high-involvement categories, although the value-in-exchange conceptualization predicts WTP and helping intentions in high-involvement categories almost equally well. Again, across all settings, the experiential value conceptualization (K. E. Voss et al., 2003) is almost always the weakest predictor for all PV outcomes.

Overall, all PV conceptualizations exhibit predictive validity across different settings and dependent variables. With the exception of the experiential value conceptualization, which sometimes produces small effect sizes (Funder & Ozer, 2019), all PV scales exhibit medium to large effect sizes, depending on the context and dependent variable examined. On average, value-in-use conceptualization (Merz et al., 2018) seems to produce the largest effects, however, it is more than twice the length (25 items) of the second longest PV scale (Walsh et al., 2014b; 12 items). Moreover, while acquisition value and experiential value conceptualizations (Netemeyer et al., 2004; K. E. Voss et al., 2003) consistently produce significant effects across different settings and dependent variables, the effects of various CV dimensions from the two more complex conceptualizations (Merz et al., 2018; Walsh et al., 2014b) vary across different settings (see Appendix 4).

Table 10: Coefficients of determination for low- and high-involvement categories in Study 1 (validity assessment of dominant conceptualizations of perceived value)

	Low-involvement categories				High-involvement categories			
PV conceptualization / outcome	Exchange value	Value-in-exchange	Experiential value	Value-in-use	Exchange value	Value-in-exchange	Experiential value	Value-in-use
Purchase intention	.516	.524	.138	.498	.393	.402	.176	.339
Willingness to pay a price premium	.387	.438	.25	.498	.243	.396	.16	.407
Helping others	.299	.376	.221	.471	.16	.303	.188	.327
Feedback intention	.127	.212	.143	.304	.092	.192	.075	.306

Source: Own work.

1.4 Discussion of the first chapter

1.4.1 Research implications

This chapter contributes to the debate on construct clarity several ways (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Y. Eyal, 2011; Howell, 2013; R. E. Johnson et al., 2012; Lawson & Robins, 2021; Patsiaouras, 2019; Suddaby, 2010; Tähtinen & Havila, 2018; Ulaga, Kleinaltenkamp, Kashyap, & Eggert, 2021; M. Zhang et al., 2016). We develop a literature review methodology that can be used for conceptual clarification. We demonstrate how to combine different techniques for reviewing the literature (i.e., bibliometric review, concept review, umbrella review, and a review of measurement instruments) in order to evaluate the clarity of a construct. Moreover, we show how to blend the insights from this review process with various tools for metatheoretical and conceptual analysis and demonstrate how they can be used to improve the clarity of a construct. Lakatosian metatheoretical methodology (Leong, 1985) offers insights into a research program surrounding a construct (e.g., its assumptions, theoretical backgrounds and potential sources of confusion). Theory mapping (Gray, 2017) provides tools to graphically clarify relationships among constructs and relate dominant conceptualizations of a construct, while ladder of abstraction (Osigweh, 1989) can be used to order competing conceptualizations according to their progressiveness, that is the ability to travel across contexts and thus contribute to knowledge accumulation (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Leong, 1985).

The proposed methodology can (and should) be applied to clarify other marketing and management constructs, which have been shown to suffer from conceptual confusion, such as social responsibility (Bansal & Song, 2016; Gond, El Akremi, Swaen, & Babu, 2017), brand equity (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020), and corporate reputation (Dowling, 2016) among others. The review methodology for conceptual clarification would be useful for these important constructs as recent literature reviews have documented that there exist numerous competing definitions and measurement instruments, which are often used without a justification or explanation why a certain conceptualization and measurement instrument is appropriate for the context of a study. By applying the proposed methodology, scholars can thus analyze, deconstruct, and reconstruct the vast research programs that being developed around these constructs, which will lead to improved construct clarity and facilitate creation of new theoretical knowledge.

Furthermore, this chapter contributes to the debate on questionable research practices, which has largely revolved around empirical aspects (e.g., measurement) of the research process (Aguinis, Banks, Rogelberg, & Cascio, 2020; Banks et al., 2015; Bergkvist, 2020; Fiedler & Schwarz, 2015; Gopalakrishna et al., 2022; Hensel, 2021; Tourish & Craig, 2018). Some scholars have suggested that replication crisis may be partially caused by theoretical shortcomings (Gervais, 2021; Hunt, 2020; Parvatiyar & Sheth, 2021; Scheel, Tiokhin, Isager, & Lakens, 2020; Szollosi & Donkin, 2021) and poor conceptualization (Colquitt et al., 2019; S. Forbes & Avis, 2020; Newman et al., 2016; Schaller, 2016), but little research has examined how construct development and different conceptualization practices contribute to these issues. Instead, scholars often see conceptualization issues "as a nuisance and ignore them altogether" (Lawson & Robins, 2021, p. 357). To this end, we pinpoint three conceptualization practices that can generate conceptual confusion. Construct stretching (Osigweh, 1989), which occurs when new meanings, usually in form of additional dimensions, are attached to a construct. This if often achieved with construct mixology (Newman et al., 2016) so that pre-existing constructs (which were previously considered to be antecedents or outcomes of the focal construct) are recanted as "new" dimensions of the focal construct. When a compound construct is introduced, insufficient attention is paid to establishing its structural validity (R. E. Johnson et al., 2012). This results in a quagmire of incompatible and inconsistent conceptualizations and operationalization of the same construct, which can prevent successful replication of empirical findings (Schaller, 2016).

Identification of three questionable conceptualization practices has important implications for journal gatekeepers (i.e., editors and reviewers), who should aim to identify such practices in manuscripts that develop or revise conceptualizations of marketing phenomena. When such a conceptualization practice is identified, gatekeepers should request that authors strictly follow general methodological recommendations for construct clarity (Suddaby, 2010) as well as specific recommendations for compound and multidimensional constructs (R. E. Johnson et al., 2012; Newman et al., 2016).

With this chapter we also advance the literature on PV. We first demonstrated the homonymy and synonymy in the PV research program and the conceptual confusion that they generate. As PV is one of the fundamental marketing concepts, the lack of construct clarity can have serious negative consequences for progress of research in this area. Next, we applied various review techniques to the vast (i.e., 4,493 papers in our review) and quickly growing (i.e., several hundred papers published yearly) PV literature (see also Eggert et al., 2018). By applying a bibliometric review, concept review, umbrella review, and a review of measurement instruments to the PV literature on, we were able to identify and compare extant conceptualizations of PV and combine them into four dominant conceptualizations, which reduces the conceptual confusion simply by decreasing the number of conceptualizations from (at least) 30 to four. We developed a theoretical typology of PV, which can guide future research and empirical integration (e.g., meta-analyses) by providing clarity regarding definitions of PV, boundary conditions, and relationships with other constructs. Moreover, the proposed typology can support future typology-driven theorizing about related to dominant conceptualizations of PV. In the last step of our review, we developed a theory map and reconstructed the PV research program, which can aide future integrations among the numerous theoretical perspectives employed by PV scholars. The fact that the four dominant conceptualizations of PV capture four different phenomena (i.e., exchange/use of offerings and process/outcome of evaluation) emerges as the main finding of our review. Therefore, future scholars should better elaborate, which phenomenon are they interested in and select the appropriate PV conceptualization.

Finally, we conducted an empirical study with samples from Slovenia and the US. This study represents the first attempt to empirically compare dominant conceptualizations of PV. This is important because previous studies that compared different PV scales assumed that different scales and underlying conceptualizations capture *the same* phenomenon (Gallarza et al., 2021; Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014). However, we obtain evidence of discriminant validity among acquisition value, experiential value, value-in-exchange, and value-in-use, which implies that these conceptualizations capture *different* phenomena. This finding corroborates the propositions of our theoretical typology of PV and has important implications for future research on PV. While, extant literature advises that PV scale (Leroi-Werelds et al., 2014) and measurement model specification (Leroi-Werelds, 2019) should be selected on the basis of study context (e.g., think vs. feel products) and on the position of PV in the conceptual model (e.g., endogenous vs. exogenous), we argue that PV *conceptualization*, *corresponding scale*, and *measurement model specification* have to be selected based on conceptual considerations as outlined in Table 3.

These findings have important implications for future theory development on PV as extant literature often treats dominant conceptualizations of PV as interchangeable. However, our clarification process reveals (Table 3) and empirical study validates (Table 6) the proposition that four dominant conceptualizations capture different phenomena, suggesting that these constructs may have different antecedents, relationships with outcomes, and specific moderators of these relationships (as evidenced in Table 7, Table 8, Table 9, and Table 10). Therefore, we see great opportunities for PV theorists to develop novel and/or adapt existing theories that can better explain, distinguish, and integrate the four phenomena that are represented by dominant conceptualizations of PV.

1.4.2 Managerial implications

Moreover, the issues related to the four dominant conceptualizations of PV go beyond discriminant validity and measurement issues and relate to their predictive validity, mediational ability, and practical usefulness. This is due to the main interest of marketing scholarship, which lies primarily in understanding managerial levers that influence PV (Almquist et al., 2016; Kumar & Reinartz, 2016; Payne, Frow, & Eggert, 2017; Richards & Jones, 2008) and how PV affects relevant outcomes (Macdonald et al., 2016; Pansari & Kumar, 2017). It also suggests that we need to go beyond depicting how valuation occurs and to understand how well different PV conceptualizations perform at relating antecedents and outcomes of PV. Related to this is the question of theoretical parsimony, since our review clearly shows that conceptualizations of PV are becoming very complex both in terms of the number of dimensions and the model structure. Added complexity is justified only if it improves the prediction of relevant CV outcomes and increases applicability across different research settings (Newman et al., 2016).

Dominant conceptualizations of PV help us relate different underlying theories of value to their empirical applications. The empirical assessment of four dominant PV conceptualizations indicates that simple, one-dimensional acquisition value (Netemeyer et al., 2004) predicts purchase intentions as well or even better than more complex conceptualizations (Merz et al., 2018; Walsh et al., 2014), which demand much longer measurement instruments. This finding certainly has managerial implications, enabling a relatively simple measurement instrument to be used in market research and CV measurement. However, the empirical assessment also reveals that the complex conceptualizations outperform both acquisition value and experiential value conceptualizations in predicting other managerially-relevant variables, such as WTP and feedback intentions. An additional argument in favor of simpler PV conceptualizations (Netemeyer et al., 2004; K. E. Voss et al., 2003) is that they consistently produce significant effects across different settings and dependent variables. The effects of various PV dimensions from the two more complex dominant conceptualizations (Merz et al., 2018; Walsh et al., 2014b), on the other hand, vary significantly.

1.4.3 Limitations and future research

The proposed methodology is not without limitations and should be developed further. For instance, it seems particularly useful for constructs representing "psycho-social entities, such as attitudes, behavioral intentions, etc." and might be less applicable for "objective entities, such as demographics, product prices, etc." (T. Clark & Key, 2021, p. 425). However, the distinction between "objective" and "psycho-social" phenomena is problematic (Borsboom, 2008) and even constructs that represent supposedly objective phenomena often suffer from conceptual confusion (Bendle & Butt, 2018; Katsikeas et al., 2016). Moreover, the methodology is especially useful for clarifying constructs that are in the state of fragmentation, that is when "measurements are customized, and missing definitions or poor consistency in correspondence between definitions and measurement operationalizations persist" (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020, p. 527). However, the proposed methodology may be less useful for constructs that are in the earlier evolutionary stages (Patsiaouras, 2019). Future studies should also consider incorporating additional construct clarification techniques, such as case studies (C. Welch et al., 2015) or theories-in-use (Zeithaml et al., 2020a), into the methodology developed in this chapter.

We also emphasize the limitations of the literature retrieval process that the proposed methodology depends on. While Web of Science is a comprehensive database, it is not exhaustive. It includes top-tier journals, yet journals that are not part of SSCI are not included and our results are only valid within that scope. While we do not claim to cover all contributions to the field of PV because of the search terms used and the restricted secondary sources included, it is unlikely that including other databases would uncover additional dominant conceptualizations of PV. Furthermore, bibliometric citation analysis is still subjective to some degree because one has to decide on the search terms and the WoS categories as well as identify and label the core research streams.

2 HOW BRAND IMPRESSIONS, BRAND TRUST, AND PERCEIVED VALUE TRANSFORM BRAND-RELATED MARKETING ASSETS INTO CUSTOMER-RELATED MARKETING ASSETS[14]

As discussed in the introduction of this dissertation, warmth and competence impressions represent the fundamental dimensions of human perception (Abele et al., 2020; Fiske et al., 2007; Kervyn et al., 2021; Koch et al., 2021). Despite a growing body of evidence showing that consumers' impressions of corporate brands' warmth and competence lead to managerially relevant outcomes, the cognitive processes by which consumers form such impressions remain poorly understood. Moreover, the literature still lacks a comprehensive theoretical framework that would explain the mechanism whereby these impressions drive customer loyalty. Against this background, this chapter draws on theories from the cognitive and social psychology fields to develop a conceptual model that explains the formation of differentiated (i.e., non-stereotypical) warmth and competence impressions based on specific dimensions of corporate associations. We also draw on the trust-value-loyalty model to posit that brand trust and perceived value mediate the effects of warmth and competence impressions on loyalty. We tested the conceptual model in three studies. We manipulated the different dimensions of corporate associations in a randomized between-subjects experiment in order to establish the causal effects and mediating role of warmth and competence impressions (Study 2a). To increase the external validity of Study 2a, we conducted a survey (Study 2b) in which participants rated real corporate brands. Finally, we conducted Study 2c to test the whole chain of effects from corporate associations to loyalty. The implications of the findings for consumer impression formation theory are discussed, and managerial recommendations for both influencing warmth and competence impressions and fostering brand trust, perceived value, and loyalty are provided.

2.1 Introduction

Over the past decade, the business literature has recognized the critical importance of stakeholders' impressions of firms' warmth and competence. Such impressions have been found to influence investors' decision making (M. A. Johnson, Stevenson, & Letwin, 2018; M. Lee & Huang, 2018); impact employees' satisfaction, engagement, and turnover intentions (Bufquin, DiPietro, Orlowski, & Partlow, 2017; Davies, 2018; Orlowski, Bufquin, & Nalley, 2020); and drive customers' transactions, relationships, and word-of-mouth (Bernritter, Verlegh, & Smit, 2016; Güntürkün, Haumann, & Mikolon, 2020; Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, & Diamantopoulos, 2019; Kolbl, Diamantopoulos, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, & Zabkar, 2020). Given that they represent fundamental dimensions of social judgment, the importance of warmth and competence in the business context is unsurprising (Abele et al., 2008; Fiske et al., 2007). Moreover, it has been established that people apply

[14] Parts of this chapter were published in the European Management Review (Gidaković & Zabkar, 2022).

their warmth and competence impressions when evaluating different targets, including social groups, individuals, animals, robots, brands, and firms (Fiske, 2018; Kervyn et al., 2012). Therefore, understanding how stakeholders form these impressions is both theoretically and practically important. In this chapter, we focus on consumers' impressions of corporate brands' warmth and competence.

Social-psychological theories of impression formation suggest that people may infer the warmth and competence of a social target based on *categorical* or *individuating* information concerning that target (Brewer, 1988; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). For example, consumers might form stereotypical impressions of Apple's competence by categorizing the firm within the global or for-profit brand categories (J. L. Aaker et al., 2010; Davvetas & Halkias, 2019). Alternatively, consumers could evaluate Apple's competence by relying on their memory of the individuating information that Apple is the most valuable brand in the world (Forbes, 2020). The first scenario is not particularly rewarding from a managerial perspective because thousands of firms are both global and for-profit brands, which means that they share the same stereotypical competence impression. Only individuating knowledge and beliefs concerning a brand enable the formation of the differentiated brand impressions that can lead to a competitive advantage (Suraksha Gupta, Gallear, Rudd, & Foroudi, 2020; Keller, 1993; Rutter, Chalvatzis, Roper, & Lettice, 2018).

Given the importance of differentiated brand impressions, it is surprising that prior studies appear to have paid more attention to warmth and competence stereotypes (J. L. Aaker et al., 2010; Bernritter et al., 2016; Connors, Khamitov, Thomson, & Perkins, 2020; Davvetas & Halkias, 2019; Hess & Melnyk, 2016; Ivens, Leischnig, Muller, & Valta, 2015; Japutra et al., 2018; Kolbl et al., 2019; Kolbl et al., 2020) than to individuated warmth and competence impressions (Z. S. Johnson, Mao, Lefebvre, & Ganesh, 2019; Kervyn et al., 2012; Lepthien, Papies, Clement, & Melnyk, 2017; Portal, Abratt, & Bendixen, 2019; J. Wu, Chen, & Dou, 2017). This disproportionate focus on categorical (versus individuating) information in relation to consumers' impression formation represents a research gap that we aim to address. Moreover, the literature on differentiated impressions is fragmented, as most studies have chosen to focus on a single antecedent, which is typically assumed to be equally predictive of both warmth and competence. A notable exception here is the study by Z. S. Johnson et al. (2019), who examined corporate ability and corporate social responsibility (CSR) associations as the drivers of competence and warmth impressions, respectively.

However, to accurately capture *corporate associations*, which are defined as "the information about a company that a person holds" (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997, p. 69), more than two dimensions must be considered (Fombrun, Ponzi, & Newburry, 2015; Walsh & Beatty, 2007). This raises a number of important questions. How do consumers integrate what they know and believe about a firm when forming warmth and competence impressions? Which corporate associations are diagnostic when judging warmth and which when judging competence? What role do warmth and competence impressions play in translating consumers' knowledge and beliefs about a brand into behavioral outcomes? To address these questions, we draw on the theory of person memory and judgment (Srull & Wyer, 1989; Wyer, 2007) as well as the research on corporate associations (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997; Fombrun et al., 2015; Walsh & Beatty, 2007). We propose that consumers rely on corporate ability and financial performance associations to form their competence impression, while their warmth impression is formed on the basis of customer orientation, CSR, and good employer associations. We find support for these propositions in two studies: a between-subjects experiment (Study 2a) and survey (Study 2b).

Extant literature on consumers' warmth and competence impressions of brands is also lacking a unifying theoretical explanation of *how* these impressions drive customer loyalty. While previous studies consistently find positive effects of these impressions on purchasing behavior and customer loyalty (for a review of various outcomes, see Gidaković et al., 2021), each study posits a *different* mechanism that translates warmth and competence impressions into loyalty and thereby transforms brand-related marketing assets into customer-related marketing assets. For instance, scholars have proposed that perceived value (Gidaković et al., 2021; Kolbl et al., 2020), brand attitude (Diamantopoulos, Szőcs, Florack, Kolbl, & Egger, 2021; Ivens et al., 2015), brand trust (Japutra et al., 2018; Portal et al., 2019; Xue, Zhou, Zhang, & Majeed, 2020), brand attachment (Japutra, Molinillo, & Ekinci, 2021; J. Wu et al., 2017), and consumer-brand identification (Kolbl et al., 2019; Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar, & Sen, 2012) may mediate the effects of warmth and competence impressions on loyalty. Apparently, there is a need for a coherent theoretical framework that would explain, which constructs (and how) mediate the effects of warmth and competence impressions on customer loyalty. Therefore, we draw on TVLM developed by Jagdip Singh and his colleagues (Agustin & Singh, 2005; Marinova & Singh, 2014; Nijssen et al., 2003; Singh & Sirdeshmukh, 2000; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002) to posit that *trust* and *PV* serve as sequential mediators and transfer the effects of warmth and competence on loyalty. We test this proposition with survey data (Study 2c).

This chapter contributes to the literature by (1) clarifying the differences between warmth and competence impressions and related constructs, including brand personality and corporate character (J. L. Aaker, 1997; Davies et al., 2004); (2) developing a theoretical model that explains the formation of differentiated warmth and competence impressions based on individuating information; (3) showing how such impressions transform consumers' information about a corporate brand into brand trust; and (4) explaining how warmth and competence impressions drive loyalty. We also use these theoretical contributions to develop recommendations for managers regarding which strategic areas to invest in and communicate about in order to establish relevant corporate associations, create positive impressions, increase brand trust, boost PV, and ultimately foster customer loyalty.

2.2 Conceptual background and hypotheses

2.2.1 Two fundamental dimensions of social judgment

Social psychologists agree that people evaluate social targets (e.g., social groups, individuals, organizations) by forming impressions of their warmth and competence (Abele et al., 2008; Fiske et al., 2007). A warmth impression is defined as the perceiver's assessment of the target's intentions toward the perceiver, while a competence impression is defined as the perceiver's assessment of the target's ability to act on its intentions (Fiske et al., 2007). Targets are judged to be warm when they appear to possess warmth-related traits (e.g., friendly, honest, well-intentioned), whereas targets are judged to be competent when they are perceived to possess competence-related traits (e.g., capable, intelligent, efficient; Abele et al., 2008; Fiske, 2018).

Paulhus and Trapnell (2008) referred to warmth and competence as the "Big Two" of social cognition, alluding to the Big Five personality dimensions. Indeed, as Uleman and Saribay (2012, p. 337) explain, "Impressions are about personalities." However, there are important differences between the Big Two (warmth and competence) and personality models such as the Big Five (Uleman & Kressel, 2013). We highlight two distinctions (for further distinctions, see Kolbl et al., 2020) to differentiate consumer warmth and competence impressions from constructs such as brand personality (J. L. Aaker, 1997) and corporate character (Davies et al., 2004). While warmth and competence impressions are evaluative, personality dimensions are descriptive (Paulhus & Trapnell, 2008; Rosenberg, Nelson, & Vivekananthan, 1968). For instance, the perception of a firm as chic or rugged describes the personality of that firm without specific evaluative connotations (e.g., being chic is not necessarily positive). In contrast, warmth and competence are universally desirable characteristics that imply evaluative meanings (Abele et al., 2008; Uleman & Kressel, 2013). A second important difference between the Big Two and the Big Five arises relates to the roles of the perceiver and the target (Geuens et al., 2009; Kervyn et al., 2012). Personality inventories were developed as self-assessment instruments in which the perceiver and the target are the same (Matthews, Deary, & Whiteman, 2009). Meanwhile, warmth and competence capture the perceiver's evaluations of external targets (Fiske, 2018; Fiske et al., 2007). This distinction is echoed in brand personality research, which shows that many brand personality dimensions are likely projections (i.e., personifications) of consumers' personalities (Avis et al., 2013; Huang, Mitchell, & Rosenaum-Elliott, 2012).

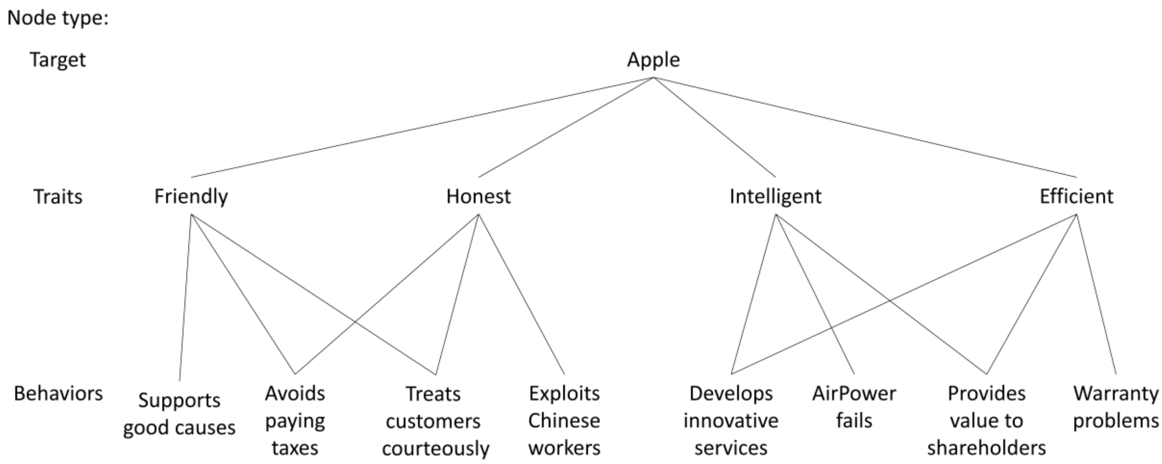
People may infer warmth and competence impressions through categorization processes (i.e., stereotyping) or by considering individuating information about a target (Brewer, 1988; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990; Kunda & Thagard, 1996). Social psychologists have long believed that categories (e.g., age, gender, race) are crucial in impression formation (Uleman & Saribay, 2012). Marketing scholars have adopted this psychological perspective and studied how consumers form stereotypical warmth and competence impressions by ascribing brands or firms to categories such as for-profit/non-profit (J. L. Aaker et al., 2010; Bernritter et al., 2016), local/global (Davvetas & Halkias, 2019; Kolbl et al., 2019; Kolbl et al., 2020), and male/female (Hess & Melnyk, 2016; Pogacar, Angle, Lowrey, Shrum, & Kardes, 2021).

However, recent research from social psychology shows that individuating information is relatively more important for interpersonal impressions (B. M. Monroe et al., 2018; Rubinstein, Jussim, & Stevens, 2018). The existing literature on the formation of consumers' warmth and competence impressions from the individuating perspective is fragmented. Previous studies propose a specific antecedent and relate it to both warmth and competence. For example, Portal et al. (2019) examine brand authenticity, Lepthien et al. (2017) focus on a firm's demarketing actions, C. Peter and Ponzi (2018) examine advertising, and J. Wu et al. (2017) study brand positioning. The most comprehensive model to date was proposed by Z. S. Johnson et al. (2019), who showed that consumers derive warmth impressions from associations with corporate-social responsibility, while competence impressions are derived from associations with corporate ability. These two corporate associations only represent a fraction of the previously identified dimensions (Fombrun et al., 2015; Walsh & Beatty, 2007). Existing studies thus provide valuable insights into the operational levers (e.g., advertising, positioning, demarketing) used to influence warmth and competence impressions. However, there literature lacks a theoretical framework that would account for psychological processes linking corporate associations, consumers' warmth and competence impressions, and their behavioral outcomes. To address this gap, we draw on a theory that explains the role of memory in impression formation (Srull & Wyer, 1989; Wyer, 2007).

2.2.2 Relationships between corporate associations and warmth or competence impressions

The model of person memory and judgment predicts that perceivers construct impressions by relying on their memory, which is conceptualized as an associative network of connections between nodes (Srull & Wyer, 1989). The model presents a target, its traits, and the corresponding behaviors as three types of nodes that are clustered hierarchically so that traits are nested within a target and behaviors are nested within traits (Wyer, 2007). When a perceiver develops the associative memory network representing a target, specific traits (e.g., aggressive) are linked with behaviors that are indicative of such traits (e.g., punched someone; Kunda & Thagard, 1996, p. 292). In this process, the traits and behaviors that are not indicative of a trait (e.g., returned extra change at the store for the aggressive trait) are not linked, however, both positive and negative indicative behaviors can be linked (D. L. Hamilton & Sherman, 1996). When a perceiver forms an impression of a target, the focal memory network of traits and behaviors is activated and accessed (Srull & Wyer, 1989). Figure 11 presents a hypothetical example of a consumer's associative memory network, based on illustrations from the psychological literature (e.g., Klein & Loftus, 1990).

Figure 11: Hypothetical target–trait–behavior memory network



Source: Own work.

Such a conceptualization of memory corresponds with general models of consumer knowledge (e.g., Keller, 1993) and, in particular, with the construct of corporate associations (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997), sometimes referred to as corporate associations (T. J. Brown, Dacin, Pratt, & Whetten, 2006; De Roeck, Maon, & Lejeune, 2013). However, the literature distinguishes between corporate associations and corporate associations, where associations is a higher-order construct that underlies (Fombrun et al., 2015; Walsh & Beatty, 2007) or is formed by (Agarwal, Osiyevskyy, & Feldman, 2015; Walsh, Bartikowski, & Beatty, 2014a) various dimensions of corporate associations. We focus exclusively on corporate associations because we conceptualize warmth and competence impressions as evaluative constructs, and corporate associations is an inadequately defined construct (Dowling, 2016).

We adopt the conceptualization of Walsh and Beatty (2007), who propose that consumers organize corporate associations along five dimensions. The first dimension, *customer orientation*, is defined as a consumer's knowledge and belief that a firm cares about customers' interests (Walsh & Beatty, 2007). Customer orientation manifests in corporate actions, such as asking consumers about their needs and satisfaction (Deshpandé, Farley, & Webster, 1993), or the extra-role behaviors of frontline employees (Schepers, Falk, de Ruyter, de Jong, & Hammerschmidt, 2012). These actions and behaviors imply good intentions and should be memorized by consumers with an association to warmth-related traits (Lepthien et al., 2017).

Corporate-social responsibility is the second dimension of corporate associations, defined as a consumer's knowledge and beliefs about a firm's actions and policies related to social and environmental performance (Walsh & Beatty, 2007). When consumers learn that a firm supports non-selfish causes (e.g., philanthropy) and is committed to environmental protection, they associate this information with warmth-related traits. Two recent studies directly link corporate-social responsibility activities and associations to consumers' impressions of a firm's warmth. Shea and Hawn (2019) show that a firm's commitment to such activities influences consumers' impressions of warmth, and Z. S. Johnson et al. (2019) show that established corporate-social responsibility associations drive warmth impressions.

The third dimension of corporate associations is referred to as *good employer* and is defined as consumers' knowledge and beliefs about the firm's treatment of employees (Walsh & Beatty, 2007). Consumers may observe working conditions directly or learn about them from secondary sources. For instance, many firms engage in employer branding that emphasizes good working conditions (Mosley, 2016). Research on organizational behavior shows that good employer associations influence potential employees' impressions of the warmth and competence of the employer (Slaughter, Cable, & Turban, 2014). However, we hypothesize that good employer associations influence consumers' impressions of warmth only because, from the consumer's perspective, treating employees well primarily signals that the firm is well-intentioned. In line with the model of person memory and judgment (Srull & Wyer, 1989) and principles of impression formation (D. L. Hamilton & Sherman, 1996; Kunda & Thagard, 1996), we propose that corporate associations about customer orientation, corporate-social responsibility, and good employer drive consumers' impressions of a firm's warmth. We expect consumers to develop a warmth-related part of the brand-associative network that links these three associations to warmth-related traits (Figure 3). This part of the network will be activated and accessed when the impression of warmth is formed. Formally, we propose the following hypotheses:

H1: Consumers derive warmth impressions from corporate associations of (a) customer orientation, (b) corporate-social responsibility, and (c) good employer.

The next dimension of corporate associations is referred to as *corporate ability* and is defined as consumers' knowledge and belief that a firm provides innovative and high-quality offerings (Walsh & Beatty, 2007). Consumers develop corporate ability associations from their experiences with the firm's products/services, advertising, and word of mouth (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997; Keller, 1993). We expect that corporate ability associations influence competence impressions because consumers develop memory links between innovative actions or operational excellence and competence-related traits (Z. S. Johnson et al., 2019). *Financial performance*, defined as consumers' knowledge and beliefs about a firm's competitiveness, profitability, and growth prospects (Walsh & Beatty, 2007), is the final dimension of corporate associations. Consumers can learn about firm performance from financial reports or media coverage (e.g., Forbes, 2020). We hypothesize that when consumers acquire information and form beliefs about a firm's financial success or failure, this will influence their impressions of the firm's competence.

We again rely on the model of person memory and judgment (Srull & Wyer, 1989) and principles of impression formation (D. L. Hamilton & Sherman, 1996; Kunda & Thagard, 1996) to predict that corporate ability and financial performance associations determine competence impressions. Specifically, we expect consumers to develop a memory network of links between nodes that characterize information about corporate ability or financial performance and competence-related traits (Figure 11). This network is activated and accessed when consumers construct competence impressions. Accordingly, we hypothesize the following:

H2: Consumers derive competence impressions from corporate associations of (a) corporate ability and (b) financial performance.

2.2.3 Relationships between corporate associations, impressions, and brand trust

We define brand trust as the willingness of consumers to rely on a brand in which they have confidence (Moorman, Zaltman, & Deshpande, 1992). This is a conative conceptualization of trust characterized by consumers' motivational disposition to depend on a firm (Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). It should be distinguished from cognitive and affective trust (e.g., Ozdemir, Zhang, Gupta, & Bebek, 2020). We base this distinction on the fact that warmth and competence impressions are cognitive judgments (Fiske et al., 2007). We focus on trust for several reasons. First, trust is very important from a managerial perspective because it influences consumer loyalty (Khamitov et al., 2019) and firm performance (Watson et al., 2015). Second, trust occurs when consumers judge a firm as benevolent and having expertise (Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). These judgments correspond with conceptualizations of warmth and competence impressions (Fournier & Alvarez, 2012). Third, the conative conceptualization of trust is consistent with theories of intergroup relations, which predict that a social group that is judged as both warm and competent will elicit supportive behavioral tendencies (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2007). Fourth, other constructs that capture consumer-brand relationships, such as brand attachment (C. W. Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010; Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005), consumer-brand identification (Ahearne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003b; Escalas & Bettman, 2005; Lam, Ahearne, Mullins, Hayati, & Schillewaert, 2013), and brand love (Albert, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2008, 2009; Batra, Ahuvia, & Bagozzi, 2012; Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006) imply a high level of psychological closeness that is not achievable for the vast majority of consumer-brand relationships (Connors et al., 2020; Freeman, Spenner, & Bird, 2012) Finally, recent studies support the direct effects of warmth and competence impressions on consumer trust (Japutra et al., 2018; Portal et al., 2019), meaning that there is preliminary evidence to relate warmth and competence impressions to the TVLM. Similarly, studies on corporate associations document direct effects of corporate associations on consumer trust (E. Park, Kim, & Kwon, 2017; Walsh & Beatty, 2007; Walsh, Beatty, & Shiu, 2009a). However, the effects of multiple corporate associations on warmth and competence impressions and their mediating role remain unexplored.

Building on the theoretical predictions of the model of person memory and judgment (Wyer, 2007) and the previous discussion on the relationships between dimensions of corporate associations and warmth or competence impressions, we propose that each impression mediates the effects of the corresponding dimensions of corporate associations on consumer trust. This proposition is also consistent with previous studies documenting how either warmth or competence impressions mediate the effects of specific dimensions of corporate image (L. E. Bolton & Mattila, 2015; Diab & Highhouse, 2015; Shea & Hawn, 2019). Accordingly, we propose the following hypothesis.

H3: Warmth impression mediates the effects of (a) customer orientation, (b) corporate-social responsibility, and (c) good employer associations, while competence impression mediates the effects of (d) corporate ability and (e) financial performance associations on consumer trust.

2.2.4 Trust-value-loyalty model

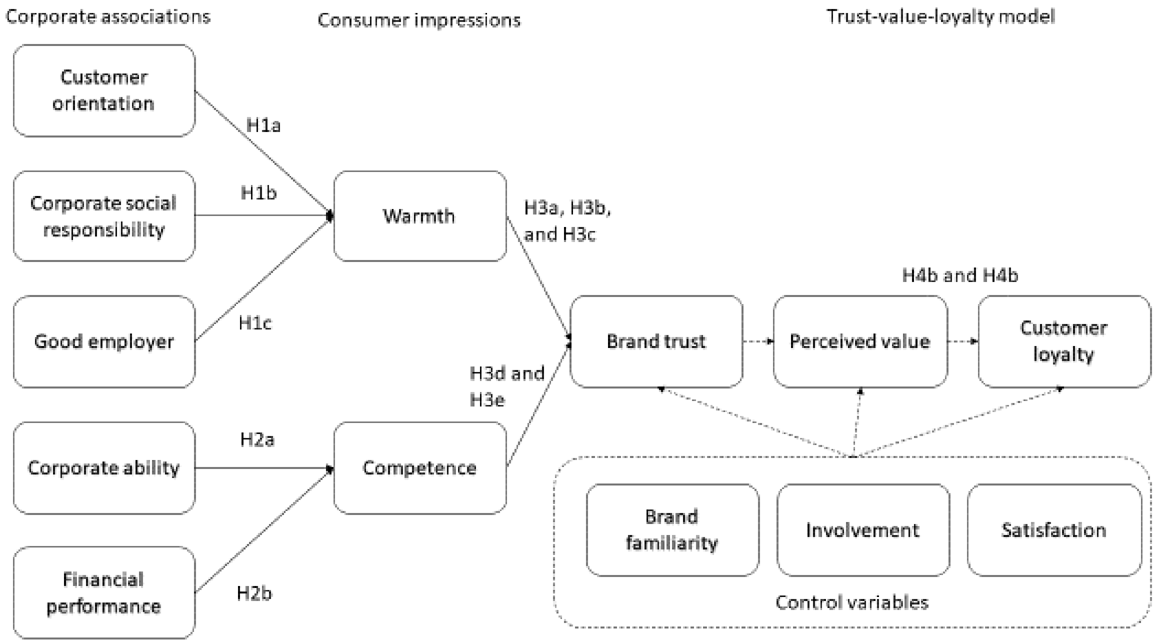
Conceptualizing consumer impressions as antecedents of brand trust enables us to employ the TVLM (Agustin & Singh, 2005; Nijssen et al., 2003; Singh & Sirdeshmukh, 2000; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). The development of customer loyalty, which is defined as a "collection of attitudes aligned with a series of purchase behaviors that systematically favor one entity over competing entities" (Watson et al., 2015, p. 793), represents a key strategic goal for most firms (Kumar, 2018a) due to the beneficial effects of loyalty on firms' operational and financial market performance (Fornell, Morgeson, & Hult, 2016; Petersen, Kumar, Polo, & Sese, 2018). Marketing scholars have accordingly proposed several models to explain how customer loyalty develops (Dick & Basu, 1994; Fornell et al., 1996; Oliver, 1999; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). However, most of these models suggest that customer satisfaction is the primary (and often the only) driver of customer loyalty. This is problematic because customer satisfaction can only exist after a customer experiences the offering and compares this experience to their expectations or some other standard of disconfirmation judgments (Oliver, 1980, 1997; Spreng, MacKenzie, & Olshavsky, 1996; Szymanski & Henard, 2001; Tse & Wilton, 1988). Therefore, loyalty models that primarily rely on satisfaction, cannot explain the first purchase or use of an offering and cannot explain how brand-related marketing assets are transformed into customer-related marketing assets. Accordingly, we rely on the TVLM because it posits additional antecedents (i.e., trust and PV along with customer satisfaction) of customer loyalty. Moreover, the main propositions of the TVLM have received empirical support (see Table 11).

Building on goal and action identification theories, the TVLM posits that consumers' perceptions of value, defined as a customer's global evaluation of an offering based on the exchange needed to access this offering (Table 3), mediate the effects of satisfaction and trust on loyalty (Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). The rationale behind the mediating role of PV is that trust reduces relational risk and other costs while simultaneously increasing relational benefits such as convenience, efficiency, and enjoyment (Agustin & Singh, 2005; Chai, Malhotra, & Alpert, 2015; Singh & Sirdeshmukh, 2000). Early TVLM studies present mixed results, with some observing the complementary mediation of PV (Nijssen *et al*., 2003) and others finding more evidence of indirect-only mediation (Sirdeshmukh *et al.*, 2002). More recent studies, however, provide clear evidence of indirect-only mediation (Chai et al., 2015; Molinillo, Gómez-Ortiz, Pérez-Aranda, & Navarro-García, 2017; Nijssen & van Herk, 2009). We follow this more recent stream of the TVLM literature and model PV as an indirect-only mediator (Xinshu Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010) of the effects of corporate associations, consumer impressions, and brand trust on loyalty. As the direct effects between trust, value, and loyalty are well documented (see Table 11), we treat them as a replication and only hypothesize indirect effects.

H4: Brand trust and perceived value mediate the indirect effects of (a) warmth and (b) competence impressions on customer loyalty.

Figure 12 summarizes the conceptual model of formation of brand-related marketing assets and their transformation into customer-related marketing assets and depicts hypotheses H1-H4.

Figure 12: Conceptual model of formation of brand-related marketing assets and their transformation into customer-related marketing assets



Source: Own work.

Table 11: A summary of prior studies investigating the trust-value-loyalty model

Study	Study context	Antecedents of trust studied	Main findings
Singh and Sirdeshmukh (2000)	Conceptual paper	Satisfaction, price premiums, price fairness,	The authors propose a dynamic relationship between trust and satisfaction, where consumers' encounter-specific satisfaction updates their trust beliefs of benevolence and competence in the service brand.
Sirdeshmukh *et al.* (2002)	Airline, apparel retailer	Problem-solving orientation, operational benevolence and competence of frontline employees, and management policies and practices.	The authors demonstrate that trust and value mediate the effects of trusting beliefs and show that negative trusting perceptions exhibit stronger effects on trust than positive ones.
Nijssen *et al.* (2003)	Airline, apparel retailer	Satisfaction and consumer dispositions toward firms in terms of valence and marketplace efficacy	The authors demonstrate that both consumer disposition and satisfaction affect the TVLM constructs and find the moderating effects of consumer dispositions in the trust–value chain.
Agustin and Singh (2005)	Airline, apparel retailer	Satisfaction	The authors find that trust and value partially mediate the effects of satisfaction on loyalty. They also show that satisfaction and value have a decreasing rate of return, while trust exhibits an increasing rate of return in terms of predicting loyalty.
Nijssen and van Herk (2009)	Cross-national relational exchanges (Dutch-German), bank customers	Satisfaction	The authors find strong support for the TVLM model, but find no moderating effects of tax benefits or consumer ethnocentrism. They find only partial support for the moderating effects of consumer beliefs about a foreign industry.
Singh, Lentz, and Nijssen (2011)	Insurance industry in three countries (Germany, the Netherlands, and the US)	Satisfaction and shared socially constructed mental model for the structure of marketplace exchanges	The authors find that CLIMA has direct effects on trust, satisfaction, and value; it also moderates their effects on customer loyalty.
Marinova and Singh (2014)	A zoological society in the US	Identity salience, perceived benefits, perceived costs	The authors find that neither trust nor value affect membership renewal decisions; only trust predicts a membership upgrade decision.
Chai et al. (2015)	Banking industry in New Zealand	None	The authors propose two-dimensional conceptualizations of trust (cognitive and emotional), perceived value (utilitarian ad hedonic), and loyalty (repurchase and advocacy intentions).
El-Manstrly (2016)	Hairdressers and fast-food restaurants in Scotland	None	The author finds that only procedural and financial switching costs moderate the direct relationships of the TVLM, such that the effects of trust and value on loyalty become more important as the switching costs increase.
Molinillo et al. (2017)	Online apparel retail in Spain	Satisfaction, affective experiential state	The authors conclude that both satisfaction and affective experiential state positively affect trust, which further carries their effects to value and loyalty.
Gidaković and Zabkar (2021)	Airline, apparel retail, insurance, hotel, and telecom in the US	Satisfaction, occupational and industry stereotypes	The authors find that occupational stereotypes predict the trusting of frontline employees, while industry stereotypes predict the trusting of management policies and practices.

Source: Own work.

2.2.5 Empirical studies testing the conceptual model of customer-related marketing assets formation

We conducted three studies to test the conceptual model from Figure 12. The first study was a between-subjects experiment aimed at establishing causal and mediating relationships. Following previous research on corporate associations (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997) and consumer impressions (Z. S. Johnson et al., 2019), we used descriptions of a fictitious corporate brand to exogenously manipulate dimensions of corporate associations in Study 2a. In Study 2b, we conducted a survey in which participants evaluated real corporate brands in order to increase the external validity of results of Study 2a (Winer, 1999). Finally, in Study 2c, we conducted another survey of participants with actual experiences with a corporate brand, which enabled us to examine the whole chain of effects from corporate associations to customer loyalty while controlling for customer satisfaction.

2.2.5.1 Study 2a – design and participants

We set up a randomized online experiment (a single between-subjects factor with 5 treatment groups and a control group) and used Prolific Academic to recruit 266 participants from the UK (M_{age} = 34.7; SD_{age} = 11.2; 43.2% men). The procedure was similar to that of Alniacik, Alniacik, and Erdogmus (2012), who manipulated corporate associations by giving participants negative information about a particular dimension. Because negative information has asymmetric effects on warmth and competence impressions (Kervyn, Chan, Malone, Korpusik, & Ybarra, 2014; Shea & Hawn, 2019), we manipulated corporate associations by giving the participants positive information. To control for the effects of stereotyping on warmth and competence impressions, all participants received the same categorical information (e.g., a global brand) about the target they were evaluating (J. L. Aaker et al., 2010; Davvetas & Halkias, 2019)

After obtaining their informed consent to participate in the study, the participants were presented with a scenario indicating that several global telecommunications providers were considering entering the UK market and that they would be evaluating one of them. All of the participants actually read the same general description of a fictitious firm, B-Linked (for details, see Table AT6.1 in Appendix 6). After reading this general description, the participants in the control group provided their scores for trust, warmth, and competence impressions and were debriefed. The participants in the control group only read the basic information about the fictitious firm and were not provided with any information related to the dimensions of corporate associations. However, we provided the participants in the five treatment groups with an additional paragraph containing the experimental manipulations. We adapted the manipulations of Fennis and Stroebe (2014), who varied corporate associations by describing the firm as winning various business awards. For example, the participants in the customer orientation treatment group were informed that B-Linked won the Stevie® Award for customer service (for details, see AT6.1 in Appendix 6). We varied the award category and description (adapted from the Stevie® Award website) between treatment groups to manipulate each dimension of corporate associations.

We pretested the manipulations (N = 138) to ensure their validity. As a manipulation check in the main study, we measured corporate associations using the scale of Walsh et al. (2009a). To ensure data quality, we included two attention checks (a directed query and logical statement; see Abbey & Meloy, 2017). We used established scales to measure trust (Hegner & Jevons, 2016) and warmth and competence impressions (Halkias, Davvetas, & Diamantopoulos, 2016). Table AT6.2 in Appendix 6 summarizes the measurement items and scale reliabilities. We conducted a CFA, which supported the discriminant and convergent measurement validity (see Table AT6.3 in Appendix 6). Therefore, we calculated factor score weights, which we used to test the hypotheses.

To ensure valid causal inference, we manipulated the independent variables exogenously (Pieters, 2017). However, we measured both mediators, the final dependent variable, and the attention checks with the same measurement instrument. As common method bias could diminish the validity of these measurements, we used the marker variable approach proposed by Malhotra, Kim, and Patil (2006) to determine whether common method bias posed a validity threat. After we partialed out the second smallest positive correlation coefficient, 299 (of initially 325) significant zero-order correlations remained significantly different from zero. Because more than 90% of the zero-order correlation coefficients remained significant, we concluded that common method bias did not impact the measurement validity (Malhotra et al., 2006).

2.2.5.2 Study 2a – results and discussion

To test whether the randomization of participants between experimental groups was successful, we compared the participants' age using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) model and compared their gender and income with chi-square tests. We found no significant differences between the experimental groups in terms of the participants' age ($F[5, 260] = .63$; $p = .68$), gender (χ^2 [15, N = 266] = 16.83; $p = .329$), or income (χ^2 [50, N = 266] = 47.02; $p = .594$), indicating that randomization was successful. To examine the manipulation checks, we estimated five one-way ANOVA models, in which we compared the mean scores on corporate associations scales of the participants in the focal treatment group with those of the participants in all other groups. The experimental manipulations (for means and standard deviations, see Table AT6.4 in Appendix 6) were successful for the customer orientation associations ($F[1, 264] = 14.51$; $p < .001$), corporate-social responsibility associations ($F[1, 264] = 33.52$; $p < .001$), good employer associations ($F[1, 264] = 40.98$; $p < .001$), corporate ability associations ($F[1, 264] = 6.71$; $p < .01$), and financial performance associations ($F[1, 264] = 13.61$; $p < .001$).

To test the hypotheses about the direct effects of corporate associations on warmth and competence impressions (H1 and H2), we estimated two regression models in which we specified five dummy variables capturing participants' membership in a treatment group (e.g., corporate ability = 1, other = 0) as predictors of warmth and competence factor scores. The results are summarized in Table 12. The customer orientation associations (β = .14; p = .071), CSR associations (β = .21; p = .008), and good employer associations (β = .17; p = .028) had statistically significant and positive effects on warmth impression, supporting H1a–c. In support of H2a and H2b, respectively, we found statistically significant and positive effects of corporate ability (β = .14; p = .031) and financial performance (β = .17; p = .009) associations on competence impression. Beyond that, we found no empirical evidence of crossover effects (e.g., corporate ability association → warmth impression).

Table 12: Results from regression models testing the direct effects of corporate associations on consumer impressions in Study 2a (experimental test of formation of brand-related marketing assets)

	Warmth		**Competence**	
	Standardized regression coefficient	**P-value**	**Standardized regression coefficient**	**P-value**
Intercept	50.85 (1.85)	.001	54.67 (1.86)	.001
Customer orientation	.14 (2.53)	.071	.05 (2.544)	.538
Corporate social responsibility	.17 (2.66)	.008	.10 (2.67)	.209
Good employer	.21 (2.60)	.028	.04 (2.61)	.617
Corporate ability	-.08 (2.58)	.333	.14 (2.60)	.031
Financial performance	-.01 (2.58)	.930	.17 (2.60)	.091

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. Source: Own work.

To test the set of mediation hypotheses (H3), we used PROCESS to estimate five regression models (Model 4; Hayes, 2018) and bootstrapped 5000 samples to construct 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals. A dummy variable that captured a treatment group (e.g., corporate ability association = 1) versus the control group (= 0) was entered as a predictor. Warmth or competence factor scores were entered as mediators or covariates (e.g., warmth was the mediator for H3a, and competence was a covariate), while trust factor scores served as the dependent variable. The results are summarized in Table 13. In support of H3a–c, we found that the warmth impression serves as a mediator, evidenced by statistically significant and positive indirect effects of customer orientation (β_M = .11; CI [.01; .22]), corporate-social responsibility (β_M = .11; CI [.004; .74]), and good employer associations (β_M = .13; CI [.06; .44]) on consumer trust. Moreover, when accounting for the indirect effects of warmth impression, the direct effects of these three dimensions of corporate associations on consumer trust were not statistically significant because their confidence intervals contained zeros. In support of H3d and H3e, competence also acts as a mediator, evidenced by the statistically significant and positive indirect effects of corporate ability (β_M = .25; CI [.06; .44]) and financial performance associations (β_M = .25; CI [.05; .45]) on consumer trust. Finally, in addition to indirect effects, the direct effects of corporate ability (β_X = .27; CI [.01; .54] and financial performance associations (β_X = .49; CI [.21; .77] on consumer trust were statistically significant.

Table 13: Results of mediation analysis for indirect effects of corporate associations on brand trust via consumer impressions in Study 2a (experimental test of formation of brand-related marketing assets)

Hypothesis	**Direct effect**	**Indirect effect**	**Trust R^2**	**Mediation type**
H3a: Customer orientation → Warmth → Trust	β_x = .22 [-.06; .5]	β_M = .11 [.01; .22]	.60	Indirect-only mediation
H3b: Corporate social responsibility → Warmth → Trust	β_x = .11 [-.18; .41]	β_M = .11 [.004; .74]	.59	Indirect-only mediation
H3c: Good employer → Warmth → Trust	β_x = .09 [-.19; .38]	β_M = .13 [.01; .29]	.67	Indirect-only mediation
H3d: Corporate ability → Competence → Trust	β_X = .27* [.01; .54]	β_M = .25 CI [.06; .44]	.59	Complementary mediation
H3e: Financial performance → Competence → Trust	β_X = .49*** [.21; .77]	β_M = .25 CI [.06; .45]	.58	Complementary mediation

*Notes: Significance of regression coefficients: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. Bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals in square brackets. Source: Own work.*

Study 2a validates the first part of the proposed model and provides causal evidence for the hypothesized relationships between corporate associations and impressions of warmth or competence (H1a–c and H2a–b). Study 2a also supports the mediating role of warmth and competence impressions in transferring the effects of corporate associations on trust (H3a–b). For warmth, we found indirect-only mediation for all three dimensions of corporate associations (customer orientation, corporate-social responsibility, and good employer), while competence acts as a complementary mediator of corporate ability and financial performance associations (Xinshu Zhao et al., 2010). With respect to corporate ability, this finding is consistent with previous studies documenting the strong direct effects of these associations on consumer outcomes (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997). The experimental design of Study 2a ensures the internal validity of our findings. However, it has two limitations.

First, we manipulated descriptions of a fictitious firm, which raises questions about external validity. Second, while the between-subjects design allowed us to isolate the effects of each dimension of corporate associations, it did not allow us to examine whether and how consumers integrate multiple dimensions when forming warmth and competence impressions. To address these limitations, we conducted another study.

2.2.5.3 Study 2b – design and participants

We prepared an online survey and again relied on Prolific Academic to recruit 443 participants from the United States (M_{age} = 33.03; SD_{age} = 11.45; 43.1% men). Following research designs of previous studies with models of similar size and complexity (Davvetas & Halkias, 2019; Kolbl, Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, & Diamantopoulos, 2018), we selected seven well-known US firms: Amazon, American Airlines, Bank of America, Honda, Nestlé, Papa John's, and T-Mobile. We selected these firms because they operate in different industries, including durable and nondurable products and subscription-based and noncontract services. Moreover, these corporate brands also differ in the dimensions of corporate associations according to various rankings (e.g., $\text{RepTrak}_{\text{TM}}$). This selection of corporate brands should ensure the generalizability of our findings.

After providing informed consent to participate in the study, each participant was randomly assigned to a single firm for evaluation. We included the same attention checks (Abbey & Meloy, 2017) and used the same measurement scales as in Study 2a (see Table AT7.1 in Appendix 7 for details). To control for heterogeneity due to the relevance of different product categories or industries to the participants, we measured product category involvement (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). We also measured the participants' familiarity with a brand to control for differences in their knowledge about a firm.

2.2.5.4 Study 2b – results and discussion

To test whether the randomization of participants across different firms was successful, we compared the participants' ages using a one-way ANOVA model and their gender and income using chi-square tests. We found no significant differences in the participants' age ($F[6, 436] = .88$; $p = .51$), gender (χ^2 [18, N = 443] = 10.09; $p = .929$), or income (χ^2 [96, N = 443] = 101.49; $p = .331$), indicating that randomization was successful. We used structural equation modelling to estimate a measurement model that converged with an acceptable fit ($\chi^2_{(361)} = 983.12$; CFI = .95; TLI = .94; SRMR = .05; RMSEA = .06). All measurement scales were reliable (for details, see Table AT7.1 in Appendix 7) and met the criteria of convergent and discriminant validity, as shown in Table 14 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Given the cross-sectional nature of the data, we tested for common-method bias using the marker variable technique (Podsakoff et al., 2012). We used social desirability (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972) as a marker variable, and its inclusion did not affect the zero-order correlations. Moreover, all the correlation coefficients between the marker variable and other constructs in the CFA ere not statistically significant (for estimation results, see Table AT7.2 in Appendix 7). Therefore, we concluded that common-method bias did not pose a validity threat.

Next, we estimated a structural model consistent with effects from corporate associations to brand trust (see the left side of Figure 12) and obtained satisfactory fit indices ($\chi^2_{(371)}$ = 1,154.67; CFI = .93; TLI = .92; SRMR = .09; RMSEA = .07). The model explained considerable variance in the endogenous latent variables ($R^2_{Competence}$ = .48; R^2_{Warmth} = .44; R^2_{Trust} = .39). All hypothesized direct effects were statistically significant and in the expected direction (Table 15). In support of hypotheses H1a–c, we found significant positive effects of the customer orientation (γ = .14; $p < .01$), corporate-social responsibility (γ = .26; $p < .001$), and good employer (γ = .33; $p < .001$) associations on warmth impression. We also observed significant and positive effects of corporate ability (γ = .44; $p < .001$) and financial performance (γ = .26; $p < .001$) associations on competence impression, supporting H2a and H2b, respectively.

To test the mediation hypotheses (H3a–e), we used bootstrapping with 5000 samples to construct 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the expected indirect effects (Iacobucci, Saldanha, & Deng, 2007). The results are summarized in Table 15. As predicted by hypotheses H3a–c, we found significant indirect effects of customer orientation (β_M = .06; CI [.01; .19]), corporate-social responsibility (β_M = .12; CI [.06; .27]), and good employer associations (β_M = .15; CI [.07; .27]) on consumer trust. Moreover, we also found support for H3d and H3e, as the indirect effects of corporate ability (β_M = .09; CI [.03; .20]) and financial performance associations (β_M = .05; CI [.01; .13]) on consumer trust were statistically significant and positive.

As a robustness check, we examined potential crossover effects (e.g., Shea & Hawn, 2019) for non-hypothesized relationships between corporate associations and warmth or competence impressions (e.g., corporate ability → warmth). We sequentially released each zero constraint and found that customer orientation (γ = -.019; p = .733), corporate-social responsibility (γ = .008; p = .907), and good employer (γ = .017; p = .791) associations had no effect on competence impression. However, there were statistically significant effects of the corporate ability (γ = .130; p = .029) and financial performance (γ = .113; p = .034) associations on warmth impression. These crossover effects are consistent with previous findings on halo effects (e.g., Raithel & Schwaiger, 2015) and appear to be substantially small, increasing the explained variance of warmth impression by just 1%.

Table 14: Validity matrix for Study 2b (cross-sectional test of formation of brand-related marketing assets)

	CR	**AVE**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**
Competence (1)	.95	.82	**.91**									
Customer orientation (2)	.91	.79	.42***	**.89**								
Good employer (3)	.92	.79	.40***	.65***	**.89**							
Corporate ability (4)	.91	.77	.66***	.64***	.70***	**.88**						
Financial performance (5)	.87	.69	.64***	.51***	.43***	.78***	**.83**					
Corporate social responsibility (6)	.80	.64	.41***	.62***	.78***	.65***	.47***	**.80**				
Brand trust (7)	.94	.84	.49***	.63***	.69***	.79***	.56***	.66***	**.92**			
Warmth (8)	.95	.83	.60***	.52***	.61***	.55***	.42***	.61***	.57***	**.91**		
Involvement (9)	.88	.71	.02	.09	.10*	.02	.04	.12*	.06	.12*	**.84**	
Familiarity (10)	-	-	.25***	.17**	.01	.21***	.33***	.07	.24***	.11*	.09	-

*Notes: CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted. Square root of the AVE in bold on the diagonal, inter-construct correlations below the diagonal. Significance of correlation coefficients: * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. Source: Own work*

Table 15: Structural model results of Study 2b (cross-sectional test of formation of brand-related marketing assets)

Effect	Standardized path coefficient	95% confidence interval	Hypothesis supported
Customer orientation → Warmth	.14**	.02–.27	H1a
Corporate social responsibility → Warmth	.26***	.11–.40	H1b
Good employer → Warmth	.33***	.18–.48	H1c
Corporate ability → Competence	.44***	.28–.59	H2a
Financial performance → Competence	.26***	.09–.43	H2b
Customer orientation → Warmth → Trust	.06*	.01–.19	H3a
Corporate social responsibility → Warmth → Trust	.12**	.06–.27	H3b
Good employer → Warmth → Trust	.15***	.07–.27	H3c
Corporate ability → Competence → Trust	.09**	.03–.20	H3d
Financial performance → Competence → Trust	.05**	.01–.13	H3e

*Note: Significance of path coefficients: * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. Source: Own work*

Study 2b provides further support for the conceptual model and replicates the results of Study 2a in the context of real firms. Therefore, it provides external validity to our theorizing about the formation of warmth and competence impressions based on corporate associations. In addition, Study 2b again demonstrates the mediating role of warmth and competence impressions in transferring the effects of respective corporate associations on consumer trust in a firm. Moreover, Study 2b provides evidence that consumers simultaneously rely on multiple dimensions of corporate associations to derive warmth and competence impressions. However, Study 2b also has two important limitations. Firstly, we did not include the whole TVLM chain as we did not measure perceived value and loyalty. Secondly, as we randomly assigned participants to evaluate corporate brands (with which they may not have any experience), we could not control for customer satisfaction, which is an important antecedent of the TVLM (see Table 11). We designed Study 2c to address these two issues.

2.2.5.5 Study 2c – design and participants

The design of Study 2c differed from design of Study 2b in two ways. First, instead of randomly assigning participants to evaluate a pre-selected corporate brand, we asked participants to name an apparel brand that they visited a store of. This design assured that each participant had first-hand experience with the corporate brand they evaluated. Second, we also measured customer satisfaction, PV, and customer loyalty. For PV (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree), we used four items from Karpen, Bove, Lukas, and Zyphur (2015). For customer satisfaction, we used three items (1–10 semantic differential) from Sirdeshmukh et al. (2002). To measure customer loyalty (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree), we used three items from Rosengren and Dahlén (2015). The survey was the same as in Study 2b in all other aspects. We included the same attention checks (Abbey & Meloy, 2017) and used the same measurement scales as in Study 2b (see Table AT8.1 in Appendix 8 for details) to capture the constructs that we measured in the previous study (i.e., corporate associations, warmth and competence impressions, brand trust, involvement, and brand familiarity). We again created an online survey and used Prolific Academic to recruit 344 participants from the United States (M_{age} = 34.48; SD_{age} = 13.13; 49.4% men).

2.2.5.6 Study 2c – results and discussion

To validate our measures, we conducted a CFA and obtained an acceptable model fit ($\chi^2_{(713)}$ = 1342.90; CFI = .95; TLI = .94; SRMR = .06; RMSEA = .05). All measurement scales again proved to be reliable (for details, see Table AT8.1 in Appendix 8) and, as shown in Table 16, met the criteria of convergent and discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). We again examined potential common-method bias with the marker variable technique (Podsakoff et al., 2012). We added social desirability (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972) as a marker variable in the CFA, and most of correlation coefficients between the marker variable and other constructs in the CFA were not statistically significant (for detailed results, see Table AT8.2 in Appendix 8). We accordingly concluded that common-method bias did not pose a validity threat.

To test hypotheses H1–H4, we estimated a structural model as depicted in Figure 12. The model converged acceptable fit indices ($\chi^2_{(742)}$ = 1,534.65; CFI = .94; TLI = .93; SRMR = .08; RMSEA = .06) and explains considerable variance in the endogenous latent variables ($R^2_{Competence}$ = .296; R^2_{Warmth} = .267; R^2_{Trust} = .263; R^2_{PV}= .336; $R^2_{Loyalty}$ = .380). As evidenced in Table 17 and in support of hypotheses H1a–c, we found significant positive effects of the customer orientation (γ = .16 $p < .05$), corporate-social responsibility (γ = .23; $p < .001$), and good employer (γ = .11; $p < .05$) associations on warmth impression. We also observed significant and positive effects of corporate ability (γ = .49; $p < .001$) and financial performance (γ = .11; $p < .05$) associations on competence impression, supporting H2a and H2b, respectively.

Table 16: Validity matrix for Study 2c (cross-sectional test of transformation of brand-related marketing assets in customer-related marketing assets)

	CR	AVE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Customer orientation (1)	.84	.64	**.80**											
Corporate responsibility (2)	.86	.60	.60***	**.78**										
Good employer (3)	.88	.72	.75***	.75***	**.85**									
Corporate ability (4)	.79	.56	.63***	.62***	.67***	**.75**								
Financial performance (5)	.85	.59	.46***	.47***	.48***	.60***	**.77**							
Competence (6)	.92	.73	.43***	.47***	.46***	.48***	.46***	**.85**						
Warmth (7)	.92	.74	.44***	.51***	.52***	.36***	.37***	.74***	**.87**					
Brand trust (8)	.82	.61	.49***	.55***	.58***	.60***	.34***	.32***	.29***	**.78**				
Perceived value (9)	.90	.70	.42***	.45***	.44***	.45***	.31***	.23***	.22***	.52***	**.84**			
Loyalty (10)	.80	.57	.44***	.57***	.48***	.55***	.41***	.29***	.34***	.70***	.53***	**.76**		
Satisfaction (11)	.96	.83	.40***	.44***	.41***	.21***	.39***	.43***	.45***	.64***	.65***	.60***	**.91**	
Involvement (12)	.97	.92	.13*	.29***	.27***	.24***	.06	.24***	.28***	.19**	.07	.23***	.21***	**.96**

*Notes: CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted. Square root of the AVE in bold on the diagonal, inter-construct correlations below the diagonal. Significance of correlation coefficients: * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. Source: Own work*

Table 17: Results of Study 2c (cross-sectional test of transformation of brand-related marketing assets in customer-related marketing assets)

Effect	**Standardized path coefficient**	**95% confidence interval**	**Hypothesis supported**
Customer orientation → Warmth	.16*	.02–.27	H1a
Corporate social responsibility → Warmth	.23***	.11–.40	H1b
Good employer → Warmth	.11**	.18–.48	H1c
Corporate ability → Competence	.49***	.28–.59	H2a
Financial performance → Competence	.11*	.09–.43	H2b
Customer orientation → Warmth → Trust	.04*	.01–.07	H3a
Corporate social responsibility → Warmth → Trust	.02*	.01–.12	H3b
Good employer → Warmth → Trust	.03*	.02–.14	H3c
Corporate ability → Competence → Trust	.19**	.06–.37	H3d
Financial performance → Competence → Trust	.04*	.01–.11	H3e
Warmth → Trust → PV → Loyalty	.03*	.01–.10	H4a
Competence → Trust → PV → Loyalty	.06*	.02–.12	H4b
Warmth → Trust	.12*	.03–.26	replication
Competence → Trust	.26***	.14–.43	replication
Trust → PV	.42***	.19–.58	replication
PV → Loyalty	.43***	.22–.62	replication
Satisfaction → PV	.27***	.17–.46	control
Satisfaction → Loyalty	.25***	.14–.52	control
Satisfaction → Trust	.27***	.08–.39	control
Involvement → PV	-.03	.-06–.09	control
Involvement → Loyalty	.18**	.03–.29	control
Involvement → Trust	.10*	.02–.17	control
Brand familiarity → PV	.04	-08–.26	control
Brand familiarity → Loyalty	.09*	.02–.16	control
Brand familiarity → Trust	.13*	.04–.19	control

*Note: Significance of path coefficients: * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. Source: Own work.*

To test the mediation hypotheses (H3a–e), we again employed bootstrapping with 5000 samples and obtained 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the predicted indirect effects (Iacobucci et al., 2007). As shown in Table 17 and predicted by hypotheses H3a–c, we observe significant indirect effects of customer orientation (β_M = .04; CI [.01; .07]), corporate-social responsibility (β_M = .02; CI [.01; .06]), and good employer associations (β_M = .03; CI [.02; .14]) on consumer trust. Moreover, we also found support for H3d and H3e, as the indirect effects of corporate ability (β_M = .19; CI [.06; .37]) and financial performance Table 17

2.3 Discussion of the second chapter

The aim of this chapter was to answer research questions regarding the role of consumer impressions of warmth and competence in transforming brand-related marketing assets into customer-related marketing assets. To address this question, we investigated how consumers integrate what they know and believe about a brand to form impressions of warmth and competence. Furthermore, the chapter aimed to identify which corporate associations are diagnostic for judging warmth and which for competence and what role impressions of warmth and competence play in translating consumers' knowledge and beliefs into brand trust, PV and customer loyalty. To address these research questions, we relied on the model of person memory and judgment (Srull & Wyer, 1989) and research on corporate associations (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997; Fombrun et al., 2015; Walsh & Beatty, 2007). We proposed that consumers integrate multiple dimensions of corporate associations to evaluate warmth and competence dimensions. However, we also argued that three dimensions of corporate associations—customer orientation, corporate-social responsibility, and good employer—are more relevant for warmth judgments, while corporate ability and financial performance associations are diagnostic for competence judgments.

We also hypothesized that impressions of warmth and competence mediate the effects of corporate associations on consumers' willingness to rely on a corporate brand, which enabled us to theoretically relate these impressions to the TVLM (Table 11) and investigate how brand trust and PV mediate the effects of consumer impressions on customer loyalty. We tested these theoretical propositions in three empirical studies, which provided support for the proposed conceptual model (Figure 12). In Study 2a, we experimentally established causal relationship between corporate associations and warmth and competence impressions. Study 2a also provides evidence of mediation between corporate associations and brand trust via consumer impressions of warmth and competence. Study 2b replicated the results of Study 2a on a set of real corporate brands from different industries and thus extended the generalizability and external validity of our findings. Lastly, Study 2c replicated the findings of Studies 2a and 2b on a sample of consumers with first-hand experiences with a corporate brand and demonstrated how brand trust and PV mediate the effects of consumer impressions on customer loyalty. Next, we discuss the implications of these findings for research and practice.

2.3.1 Research implications

This chapter offers several implications for the emerging theory of consumer impression formation. First, we draw on the long history of social psychological research on impression formation (see Uleman & Kressel, 2013) to delineate related, yet distinct constructs of impression, stereotype, and personality. Marketing scholars sometimes confuse these terms, leading to paradoxical claims (e.g., brand personality competence predicts brand competence stereotypes; Ivens et al., 2015). Second, building on research from cognitive and social psychology (Brewer, 1988; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990; Srull & Wyer, 1989), we offer a theoretical explanation of how consumers form differentiated (i.e., non-stereotypical) impressions of warmth and competence. We emphasize the importance of individuating information in forming distinct impressions of warmth and competence by showing how consumers derive warmth impressions from their knowledge and beliefs about a firm's actions toward various stakeholders (consumers, employees, and the society at large). In contrast, consumers form competence impressions by looking at the firm's behavior in financial and product or service markets. Overall, we observed moderate to strong effects, which has implications for future studies examining warmth and competence stereotypes with real brands (e.g., Davvetas & Halkias, 2019; Kolbl et al., 2019). Such studies should control for pre-existing corporate/brand associations to properly isolate the effects of categorical information.

Third, we follow a theoretical perspective that views impression formation as a dual-process model (Brewer, 1988; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990), implying that impressions are either stereotypical or individualized. Alternative theoretical perspectives assume that people integrate both stereotypical and individuating information (e.g., Kunda & Thagard, 1996). Future studies could therefore examine the relative importance of stereotypes (e.g., local/global or for-profit/non-profit) compared to corporate or brand associations for consumers' impressions of warmth and competence. Such studies should also examine whether stereotypes influence warmth and competence impressions directly or through consumers' beliefs and knowledge (Klein & Loftus, 1990). In this context, we call for the investigation of conditions that moderate whether and to what extent consumers construct stereotypical or individualized impressions of warmth and competence. Consumers' knowledge of a brand and their motivation to engage in piecemeal processing appear to be obvious candidates (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990; Kunda & Thagard, 1996).

Fourth, we found very limited evidence of crossover effects, which we detected only in Study 2b. Moreover, both crossover effects that were statistically significant affected consumers' warmth impressions. This is consistent with the results of previous studies (Diab & Highhouse, 2015; Raithel & Schwaiger, 2015). However, Shea and Hawn (2019) also found a crossover effect of actions related to a firm's corporate-social responsibility on the impression of competence. These mixed findings about the crossover effects between corporate actions or consumer corporate associations and the resulting warmth/competence impressions call for additional research on the nature of such effects. Consumer impression formation theory would benefit from a better understanding of when stakeholders rely on halos and when they rely on stereotypes to infer warmth or competence impressions in the absence of individuating information.

Fifth, our study has implications for the literature examining the relative importance of warmth and competence impressions in the development of consumer–brand relationships. While some studies conclude that warmth is the primary driver (Güntürkün et al., 2020; Kolbl et al., 2019; J. Wu et al., 2017), others consider competence to be more important (Ozdemir et al., 2020; Portal et al., 2019; Valta, 2013). Consistent with the findings of Japutra et al. (2018), we show that both warmth and competence are important in fostering trust in a firm. Since trust is a precursor for the development of closer consumer–brand relationships (Aurier & N'Goala, 2010), such as consumer–brand identification (Kolbl et al., 2019), brand attachment (J. Wu et al., 2017), and customer loyalty (Khamitov et al., 2019), questions about the relative importance of warmth and competence appear irrelevant.

Finally, our integration of consumer impression formation theory with the TVLM provides a comprehensive account of the mechanism that translates favorable impressions of warmth and competence into customer loyalty. By demonstrating that brand trust and PV sequentially mediate the effects of these impressions on customer loyalty, we extend the current literature which proposed a myriad of different constructs (including PV and trust) as sole mediators. We show that TVLM offers a solid theoretical ground to incorporate and organize (i.e., sequential mediation) these intervening constructs. Thereby, we also answer recent calls to document the mechanisms that translate the effects of marketing strategies, such as investing in quality of offerings and/or CSR initiatives into brand-related and customer-related marketing assets (Edeling et al., 2021; N. A. Morgan et al., 2021).

2.3.2 Managerial implications

Based on our findings, we can provide practitioners with recommendations on how to strategically influence consumers' warmth and/or competence impressions and thereby enhance brand trust, PV, and customer loyalty. For example, those seeking to improve warmth impressions could invest in informing and educating stakeholders about the firm's philanthropic efforts (Szőcs, Schlegelmilch, Rusch, & Shamma, 2016) and pay particular attention to the quality of their ethics statements (Stanaland, Lwin, & Murphy, 2011) or marketing communications (Sora Kim, 2019). This will create corporate-social responsibility associations, which will improve consumers' warmth impressions. Another way to improve warmth impressions is to foster an employee orientation climate, which should lead to more customer-oriented frontline employees (J. Zhang, 2010) and establish beliefs about the firm as a good employer (Lievens & Slaughter, 2016). Such behaviors of frontline employees, combined with satisfaction surveys (Deshpandé et al., 1993) and employer branding (Mosley, 2016), should foster customer orientation and good employer associations, which will translate into warmth impressions.

Meanwhile, managers who want to improve their firm's competence impression should focus on establishing corporate ability associations in consumers' minds. This can be achieved, for instance, by offering guarantees (Boulding & Kirmani, 1993) or by ensuring high satisfaction with products and services (Walsh, Mitchell, Jackson, & Beatty, 2009b). In this context, firms should communicate the innovative solutions that their offerings provide (Brexendorf, Bayus, & Keller, 2015). Another route to improving competence impressions leads through financial performance associations. These are often influenced by media reports of the firm's financial success or failure (Einwiller, Carroll, & Korn, 2010). Finally, managers are advised to pay attention to both warmth and competence impressions, as both are necessary to foster brand trust, which then translates into improved perceptions of value and results in customer loyalty.

2.3.3 Limitations and future research

This chapter has limitations that provide opportunities for future research. First, we only studied corporate brands, which raises the question of whether and how our findings apply to product or service brands. Some dimensions of corporate associations (e.g., corporate ability or CSR) are transferable to product brands and service providers, while others may not be relevant. Accordingly, consumers might use different brand associations in these circumstances. For example, consumers might use beliefs about a brand's market share (Ziano & Pandelaere, 2018) instead of financial performance to establish ability association. Second, we focused only on consumers as a stakeholder group, although our model can be readily applied to other stakeholder groups. Accordingly, we selected specific dimensions of corporate associations that are relevant to consumers (Walsh & Beatty, 2007). Future studies should therefore consider additional dimensions of corporate associations (e.g., governance; Fombrun et al., 2015) that may be relevant to other stakeholder groups (e.g., investors, media, employees). For instance, we expect that governance associations (i.e., ethical leadership) would be more relevant for investors and employees and would primarily drive warmth impressions.

Third, in all three studies, all dependent variables were measured at the same time. Thus, future studies should test our model with longitudinal data from multiple sources (e.g., corporate associations from Associations Quotient, competence and sincerity scores from Brand Asset Valuator, and objective performance measures). Such studies would contribute valuable insights on the temporal dynamics of warmth and competence impression formation. Fourth, although we did not control for any effects of stereotypes on warmth and competence impressions in Studies 2b and 2c (J. L. Aaker et al., 2010; Davvetas & Halkias, 2019), these effects were accounted for by design in Study 2a. Therefore, we remain confident in our results. Fifth, we see opportunities for future research to extend the chain of effects examined in this chapter. For instance, a firm's actions and/or investments should be established as determinants of corporate associations, while the consequences of loyalty, such firm performance (Watson et al., 2015), should also be investigated.

Finally, we did not include any moderators in the conceptual model, as our focus was on establishing causal and mediating relationships. However, future studies could advance consumer impression formation theory by illuminating the boundary conditions of the proposed conceptual model. Scholars should consider how the magnitude of the effects of corporate associations on consumer impressions of warmth and competence depends on individual differences or situational factors. As research shows that the strength of corporate associations varies across consumers (Puligadda, Ross, & Grewal, 2012), we would expect that the effects on consumer impressions are stronger for consumers with more elaborate corporate associations. Similarly, previous research demonstrates that the situational context shapes how people form impressions (Uleman & Kressel, 2013). For example, T. Eyal, Hoover, Fujita, and Nussbaum (2011) established that psychological distance moderates how perceivers aggregate traits into impressions. Future studies should thus examine how different dimensions of psychological distance moderate the effects of corporate associations on consumer impressions of warmth and competence.

3 A META-ANALYSIS OF BRAND CRISIS RESPONSE STRATEGIES[15]

Although brand crises have detrimental consequences for firms, prior research offers inconclusive findings regarding the outcomes of a firm's response strategy choice. Moreover, alternative theoretical models provide contradictory recommendations regarding which response strategy to choose for a specific crisis situation. This meta-analysis integrates 164 papers with 184 datasets and 811 effect sizes describing the effect of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on negative customer outcomes, firms' marketing assets, and financial performance. The results show that response strategies do not mitigate negative customer outcomes or influence firm performance. However, accommodative response strategies recover marketing assets better than defensive ones and are even more efficient in competence (e.g., data breaches) than in benevolence (e.g., ethical scandals) crises and when implemented with a combination of ceremonial (e.g., apologies) and technical (e.g., product recalls) response tactics. This chapter consolidates the fragmented brand crisis management literature and offers important implications for brand crisis managers.

3.1 Introduction

When the personal information of 150 million MyFitnessPal users was hacked in 2018, Under Armour quickly notified victims and took corrective action. Equifax experienced a similar data breach in 2017 but delayed notifying victims and taking corrective action for months (Leonhardt, 2019). Citigroup, JP Morgan, and Merrill Lynch apologized for the unethical business practices that led to the 2008 financial crisis, while Goldman Sachs denied any wrongdoing (Pfeffer, 2015). Samsung quickly apologized and recalled exploding Galaxy Note smartphones, but Toyota concealed and denied deadly car defects for months (Cleeren et al., 2017). AT&T, Gatorade, and TAG Heuer suspended their endorsement contracts when the Tiger Woods scandal broke in 2009, while Nike decided to retain Woods (Hock & Raithel, 2020). Firms respond differently to brand crises, and their responses lead to different reactions from customers and investors. The purpose of this paper is to examine which and under what conditions response strategies to a brand crisis are most successful.

Data breaches, corporate social irresponsibility, product-harm crises, and endorser scandals are examples of brand crises that are becoming more frequent and costly (Kalavar & Mysore, 2017; PwC, 2019). The anecdotal evidence of different responses to a similar or even the same brand crisis is consistent with research showing that different firms adopt either

[15] This chapter was written under the supervision of Professors Martin Eisend and Vesna Žabkar, and is at the time of submission of this dissertation under review at the Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science.

accommodative or *defensive* response strategies to deal with similar crisis situations (Arendt, LaFleche, & Limperopulos, 2017; Y. Chen, Ganesan, & Liu, 2009). An accommodative response strategy involves accepting more responsibility more quickly, while a defensive response strategy involves denying or minimizing responsibility and delaying corrective action (Benoit, 2014; Cleeren et al., 2017; T. W. Coombs, 2007; Hersel et al., 2019; Marcus & Goodman, 1991).

The extant literature on brand crisis response strategies reveals several research gaps. First, the inconsistent use of accommodative and defensive response strategies in brand crisis management practice, as illustrated in the introductory examples, corresponds with existing research (see Appendix 10), which offers "inconsistent" (Singh, Crisafulli, Quamina, & Xue, 2020b, p. 465) evidence regarding the effects of response strategies on stakeholder reactions. Thus, there is little guidance for managers and scholars regarding which response strategy to use as a default option or benchmark when managing a brand crisis.

Second, the variation in empirical findings indicates that the effectiveness of an accommodative or defensive response strategy may depend on boundary conditions, particularly how a firm implements the response strategy and the situational characteristics of the brand crisis. As the introductory anecdotes illustrate, firms can use various actions and communications, such as product recalls, dismissals of brand endorsers, apologies, and denials, to implement response strategies. However, extant studies tend to "focus only on crisis communication *or* on organizational actions directed at stakeholders" (Bundy et al., 2017, p. 1673; emphasis in original), making it unclear "which action combinations are most effective" (Hersel et al., 2019, p. 572). For instance, was Samsung's accommodative response strategy, which combined a corrective action (i.e., product recall) with an apology, more effective than the accommodative response strategies of Citigroup or JP Morgan, which apologized without taking any corrective actions?

Brand crises are complex situations that can differ in several ways, and these situational characteristics can moderate the effectiveness of the response strategies (Cleeren et al., 2017; Khamitov et al., 2020). However, two major theoretical frameworks offer conflicting predictions regarding the effectiveness of accommodative or defensive response strategies in the same brand crisis situation. For example, Goldman Sachs' denial of wrongdoing follows the advice of *trust repair theory*, which predicts that defensive response strategies will be more effective than accommodative ones in the wake of ethical violations (P. H. Kim, Ferrin, Cooper, & Dirks, 2004; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Poppo & Schepker, 2010). Yet, apologies by Citigroup, JP Morgan, and Merrill Lynch are in line with *attribution theory*, which predicts that accommodative response strategies will be more effective than defensive ones for internally caused and preventable brand crises, such as corporate social irresponsibility (Bradford & Garrett, 1995; Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015; T. W. Coombs, 2007). The empirical evidence for predictions of both theories is "inconsistent" (Ma & Zhan, 2016, p. 103; Singh, Crisafulli, & Quamina, 2020a, p. 841). Therefore, the questions of which theoretical framework provides more explanatory power and, consequently, which response strategy to choose in a specific brand crisis situation and how to optimally implement the selected response strategy remain unresolved.

Third, brand crisis management scholars suggest that implementing an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy may have *opposite* and *simultaneous* effects on different stakeholder groups (Cleeren et al., 2017; Hersel et al., 2019). The brand crisis literature also shows that the reaction of one stakeholder group may influence how other stakeholder groups react to a brand crisis (Borah & Tellis, 2016; Hsu & Lawrence, 2016; Stäbler & Fischer, 2020). However, extant studies typically examine the effects of response strategies on the reactions of a single stakeholder group (Khamitov et al., 2020). The literature thus lacks a conceptual model and empirical insights that would explain the simultaneous effects of response strategies on the reactions of customers and investors (Bundy et al., 2017).

Previous literature reviews have investigated specific brand crisis instances, such as product-harm crises (Cleeren et al., 2017; Khamitov et al., 2020), or organizational crises in general (Bundy et al., 2017; Hersel et al., 2019; James, Wooten, & Dushek, 2011) but have failed to address the research questions outlined above. We utilize a meta-analysis to address these research gaps, which is a suitable method for reconciling inconsistent empirical findings and testing relationships that have not yet been investigated (Geyskens et al., 1999). Our multidisciplinary review includes the fields of accounting, communications, finance, management, and marketing and thus consolidates the fragmented and stakeholder-specific literature on brand crisis management. We integrate 824 effect sizes from 184 datasets appearing in 164 papers that examine the effects of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on the reactions of customers and investors. Our contribution is threefold.

First, building on Khamitov et al. (2020) integrative review of negative events in marketing, we conceptualize negatively valenced customer reactions, such as negative emotions or blame attributions, as *negative customer outcomes*. We also follow the marketing–finance value chain literature (Edeling & Fischer, 2016; Edeling et al., 2021; S. Srinivasan & Hanssens, 2009) and conceptualize positively valenced customer reactions as a firm's *brand-related* (e.g., brand trust) and *customer-related* (e.g., customer loyalty) *marketing assets* and define these assets as "customer-focused measures of the value of the firm and its offerings" (Rust et al., 2004, p. 78). These conceptualizations enable us to integrate the effects of response strategies across a range of customer-level dependent variables employed in different streams of research on brand crisis management and to identify whether accommodative or defensive response strategies are generally more effective in mitigating negative customer outcomes and protecting marketing assets.

Second, we explain how the variability of effects describing the impact of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on marketing assets depends on a combination of different types of actions and communications used to implement the response strategy. Moreover, we examine which and how the situational characteristics of a brand crisis moderate the effectiveness of response strategies in protecting marketing assets. This analysis reconciles the opposing theoretical predictions and inconsistent empirical results and reveals which crisis management models (i.e., based on trust repair or attribution theory) provide more explanatory power. The findings also inform managerial recommendations on how and when to implement response strategies to brand crises to optimally protect marketing assets.

Third, drawing on marketing–finance value chain models (Edeling & Fischer, 2016; Katsikeas et al., 2016), we examine the effects of response strategies on the reactions of consumers and investors. We find that when firms implement accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies, they recover their marketing assets and do not undermine their financial performance. We explain the non-significant effect on firm performance by showing that the direct negative effect of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on firm performance is neutralized by the indirect positive effect, which is mediated by negative customer outcomes and marketing assets. Thus, we contribute to the brand crisis management literature by developing and testing a model that accounts for the simultaneous effects of response strategies on different stakeholder groups.

3.2 Theoretical background

3.2.1 Construct definitions and conceptual model

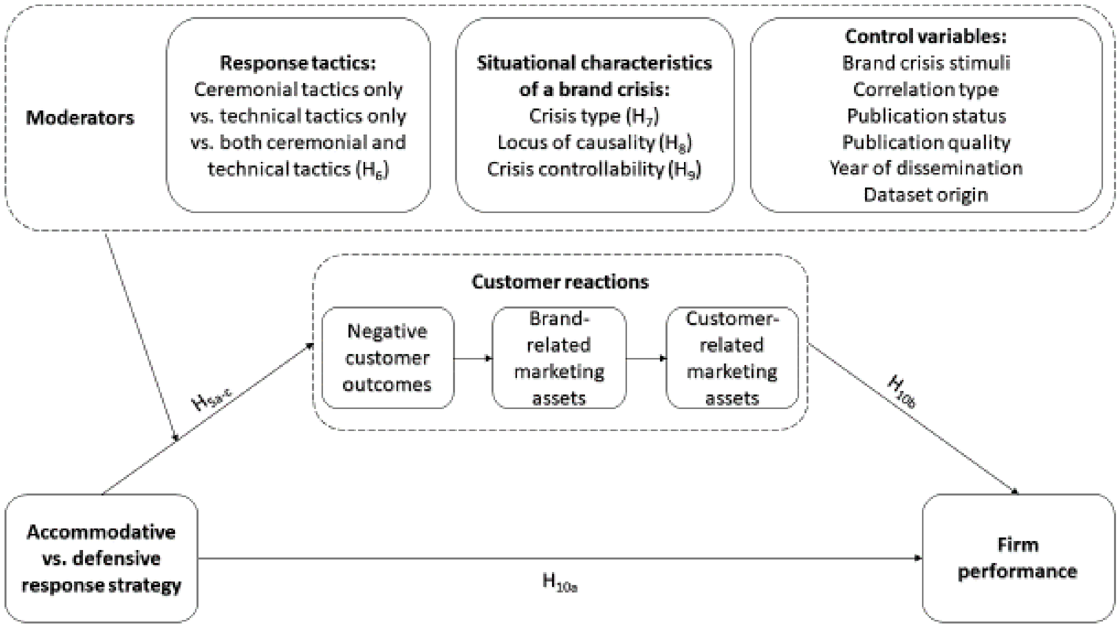
A brand crisis is a situation caused by a negative public event(s) that has the potential to affect the collective perception, evaluation, and behavior of a brand's stakeholders. This definition has five properties that are relevant to the conceptualization of our meta-analysis. First, *negative events* indicate that a brand's stakeholder(s) has suffered harm (e.g., psychological, physical, monetary, environmental). Second, by *public events*, we mean that there exists a freely available record of the negative event (e.g., a press release, news report, legal document, online content). Third, to be considered as a trigger, the negative event must have the potential to influence the perception, evaluation, or behavior of multiple stakeholder groups (i.e., *collective*). Fourth, among *stakeholders*, we focus on the perception, evaluation, and behavior of two dominant groups: customers and investors, both potential and current. Finally, we use the term *brand* to refer to product, service, and corporate brands.

A brand crisis response strategy is defined as a "set of coordinated communication and actions used to influence evaluators' crisis perceptions" (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015, p. 346). The literature distinguishes between accommodative and defensive response strategies (Benoit, 2014; Bundy et al., 2017; T. W. Coombs, 2007; Hersel et al., 2019; Marcus & Goodman, 1991). We conceptualize a firm's decision to take on more responsibility and attempt to resolve the negative situation earlier in the course of a brand crisis as a strategic decision to adopt an accommodative rather than a defensive response strategy. We refer to the specific actions and communications (e.g., product recalls, repairs, compensations, financial restatements, dismissals of managers, employees and endorsers, apologies, explanations, denials, excuses) through which firms accept or minimize/deny responsibility as *response tactics.*

We premise this meta-analysis on a conceptual model (Figure 13) that integrates the marketing–finance value chain models with trust repair and attribution theories. Specifically, we draw on trust repair and attribution theories to (1) conceptualize negative customer outcomes, (2) propose that they mediate the effect of the response strategy on marketing assets, and (3) investigate how different types of response tactics and situational characteristics of a brand crisis moderate the effects of the response strategy on marketing assets (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015; T. W. Coombs, 2007; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Poppo & Schepker, 2010). We draw on the marketing–finance value chain literature to (1) conceptualize the firm's marketing assets, (2) relate these assets to firm performance, and (3) decompose the total effect of the response strategy on firm performance into a negative direct and a positive indirect effect (Edeling & Fischer, 2016; Katsikeas et al., 2016; Rust et al., 2004).

The conceptual model suggests that the implementation of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy affects four sets of dependent variables. We conceptualize these four constructs following the call from Khamitov et al. (2020, p. 529), who urge brand crisis "scholars to better categorize their mechanism variables into simpler and broader building blocks." Since following a brand crisis "most processes entail negative variables" (Khamitov et al., 2020, p. 529), we conceptualize *negative customer outcomes* as customers' negative reactions to a brand crisis. These include *blame attributions*, *negative emotions,* and *negative behavioral dispositions*. Drawing on the marketing–finance value chain models, we separate positively valenced customer reactions into two categories (Katsikeas et al., 2016; Rust et al., 2004). We conceptualize *brand-related marketing assets* as customers' positive perceptions of and attitudes toward a brand (S. Srinivasan & Hanssens, 2009). These consist of the *brand's crisis response attitude*, *brand attitude*, *brand associations,* and *brand trust*. We conceptualize *customer-related marketing assets* as customers' positive behavioral tendencies or behaviors toward a brand (Edeling & Fischer, 2016), which include *customer loyalty, positive word-of-mouth communications* (PWOM), and *purchase intentions.* Finally, we conceptualize *firm performance* as the financial value of the firm as determined by investors (Edeling et al., 2021). While the first three categories of constructs reflect a firm's operational performance, the last category indicates a firm's organizational performance (Katsikeas et al., 2016). Table 18 summarizes the definitions of all of the dependent variables in the meta-analysis.

Figure 13: Conceptual model of brand crisis response strategies



Source: Own work.

Although the constructs from the first three categories refer to the same object (i.e., brand) and have the same raters (i.e., customers), we distinguish them for several reasons. First, scholars argue that positively and negatively valenced phenomena, such as emotions, (dis)trust, or WOM, should be conceptualized as distinct constructs because they have “different routes of activation” (Alexandrov, Lilly, & Babakus, 2013, p. 542), “asymmetric effects” (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999, p. 197), and “can coexist” (Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998, p. 449), which implies a potential coincidence between negative customer outcomes and marketing assets (i.e., ambivalence). Second, various theoretical models suggest that negative customer outcomes act as a mechanism (discussed in more detail later) that mediates the effect of response strategies on brand-related marketing assets, such as brand trust and associations (T. W. Coombs, 2007; Khamitov et al., 2020; Tomlinson & Maryer, 2009). Third, marketing–finance value chain models propose a hierarchy of effects, whereby a firm’s strategy first impacts the hearts and minds of customers (i.e., brand-related marketing assets), which in turn affects customer behavior, establishing customer-related marketing assets (Edeling & Fischer, 2016; Katsikeas et al., 2016; Rust et al., 2004).

The conceptual model suggests that implementing an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy mitigates negative customer outcomes and has positive effects on marketing assets. The model further implies a serial mediation of the positive effects of response strategies on firm performance through negative customer outcomes and marketing assets. Moreover, the model posits a direct negative effect of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on firm performance. Finally, the model includes two sets of theoretical moderators that capture different types of response tactics and situational characteristics of brand crises that might determine the effectiveness of response strategies in protecting marketing assets (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015; Cleeren et al., 2017). We also account for several control variables that could explain the variability in the effects of response strategies on marketing assets and provide useful insights for brand crisis scholars and managers.

3.2.2 The effects of response strategies on customer reactions

From an attribution theory perspective, crisis-triggering events influence customers' perceptions of brand responsibility and expectations of resolving a negative situation (Folkes, 1984; Khamitov et al., 2020). When brands assume responsibility and do so early in the course of a crisis, they act in line with customers' expectations. This makes accommodative response strategies more acceptable, mitigates customers' negative cognitions and feelings, and restores their positive perceptions, evaluations, and behavioral dispositions toward the brand (T. W. Coombs, 2007; Folkes, 1988).

From a trust repair perspective, brand crises are negative events that diminish customers' trust and induce negative emotions, such as fear and anger (Tomlinson & Maryer, 2009). A brand's timely acceptance of responsibility and/or attempts to repair the harm should both regulate (i.e., decrease) distrust and negative emotions and provide evidence of trustworthiness that can restore customers' confidence in a brand (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Poppo & Schepker, 2010). Moreover, accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies should also foster more customer forgiveness, which can repair brand trust (Xie & Peng, 2009). Generalizing the predictions of these theories, we propose that accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies generally have an attenuating effect on negative customer outcomes (T. W. Coombs, 2007; Gillespie & Dietz, 2009) and a restorative effect on brand-related and customer-related marketing assets (Cleeren et al., 2017; Khamitov et al., 2020).

H5: An accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy (a) has negative effects on negative customer outcomes and positive effects on (b) brand-related marketing assets and (c) customer-related marketing assets.

3.2.3 Explaining variations in the effects of response strategies

We first introduce the theoretical moderators and develop corresponding hypotheses. Next, we explain the rationale for including methodological control moderators. Table 19 summarizes the descriptions and operationalizations of all moderators.

Table 18: Outcomes of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy

Dependent variable	Definition	Related variables	Hypotheses and expected effects
Negative customer outcomes			H5a ✓
Blame attributions	The customer's beliefs about crisis responsibility, controllability, and/or stability (Van Vaerenbergh, Orsingher, Vermeir, & Lariviere, 2014).	Blame attributions, organizational responsibility, locus of control attributions	-
Negative behavioral dispositions	The customer's negative actions and behavioral intentions toward the brand (Kumar & Pansari, 2016; van Doorn et al., 2010).	Negative word of mouth, revenge intentions, brand avoidance	-
Negative emotions	The customer's negative post-crisis affect (Van Vaerenbergh et al., 2014).	Anger, feelings of betrayal	-
Brand-related marketing assets			H5b ✓
Brand's crisis response attitude	The customer's positive evaluation of a brand's crisis response strategy or tactics.	Attitude toward organizational response, account acceptance, forgiveness	+
Brand attitude	The customer's favorable evaluation of a brand (Rosengren, Eisend, Koslow, & Dahlen, 2020).	Brand attitude, company attitude, consumer attitude	+
Brand trust	The customer's willingness to rely on a brand in which they have confidence (Moorman et al., 1992).	Brand trust, consumer trust, trustworthiness, credibility	+
Brand associations	The information about a company that a person holds (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997, p. 69).	Reputation, corporate associations, organizational reputation	+
Customer-related marketing assets			H5c ✗
Customer loyalty	A collection of attitudes aligned with a series of purchase behaviors that systematically favor one entity over competing entities (Watson et al., 2015).	Loyalty, commitment	+
Purchase intentions	Repeated purchases that stem from a conation or action orientation involving a readiness to act and favoring one entity (Watson et al., 2015).	Purchase intentions, behavioral intentions	+
Positive word of mouth communications	A customer's positive referral or endorsement of a brand to others (Watson et al., 2015).	Positive word of mouth, supportive behaviors	+
Firm performance outcome			H10 ✓
Firm financial performance	Investors' evaluation of firm stock (Edeling & Fischer, 2016).	Cumulative abnormal returns, buy and hold abnormal returns, market reaction	0

Note: +/- indicate the direction of a hypothesized effect, while ✓ and ✗ indicate whether the meta-analysis results support or reject a hypothesis. Source: Own work.

Table 19: Meta-analytic moderators

Moderator variable	Description	Operationalization	Intercoder agreement rate	Hypothesis
Response tactics				
Ceremonial only (ceremonial and technical as baseline)	Ceremonial tactics (e.g., apologies or CSR initiatives) emphasize the brand's positive character traits and mitigate psychological harm.	0 = Ceremonial and technical or Technical only (61.8% effects) 1 = Ceremonial only (37.6% effects)	97.6%	H_2 (-) ✓
Technical only (ceremonial and technical as baseline)	Technical tactics (e.g., product recalls or compensations) address the source of wrongdoing and prevent or repair substantive harm.	0 = Ceremonial and technical or Ceremonial only (70.4% effects) 1 = Technical only (29.0% effects)	96.8%	
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis				
Crisis type	Benevolence crises affect stakeholders' perceptions of the brand's intentions toward society. Competence crises influence stakeholders' perceptions regarding the brand's ability to enact its intentions.	0 = Benevolence crisis (28.8% effects) 1 = Competence crisis (71.2% effects)	98.4%	H_3 (+) ✓/✗
Locus of causality	The brand or its representatives (i.e., managers, employees or endorsers) cause internal crises. Outside actors (e.g., hackers or customers) cause external crises.	0 = External crisis (16.4% effects) 1 = Internal crisis (83.6% effects)	97.2%	H_4 (-)✗
Crisis controllability	The brand has the ability to prevent controllable crises (e.g., product failures or ethical scandals). The brand has no ability to prevent uncontrollable crises (e.g., accidents or natural events).	0 = Controllable crisis (36.5% effects) 1 = Uncontrollable crisis (36.5% effects)	96.3%	H_5 (+) ✗
Methodological control				
Crisis stimuli	Is the dataset based on a real or fictitious brand crisis?	0 = Fictitious (55.6% datasets) 1 = Real (45.4% datasets)	—	—
Correlation type	Is the effect size based on a bivariate or partial correlation coefficient?	0 = Bivariate (98.3% effects) 1 = Partial (1.7% effects)	—	—
Publication status	Is the paper published in an academic journal?	0 = Unpublished (10.8% datasets) 1 = Published (89.2% datasets)	—	—
Publication quality	Is the journal included on the Financial Time's top 50 list and/or classified as A* on the Academic Journal Guide for 2018?	0 = Else (65.6% datasets) 1 = Top journal (34.6% datasets)	—	—
Year of dissemination	The year the paper became publicly available (continuous variable).	M = 2013.94 SD = 5.93	—	—
Dataset origin	Does the dataset originate in the United States?	0 = No (42.2% datasets) 1 = Yes (57.8% datasets)	—	—

Note: + and – indicate a positive or negative direction of the hypothesized effect, while ✓or ✗indicate if a hypothesis is supported by the meta-analytic results, and ✓/✗ indicates partial support. Source: Own work.

3.2.3.1 Moderating effects of response tactics

Firms can use numerous actions and communications to implement an accommodative or defensive response strategy, and many typologies have been proposed to organize response tactics (Benoit, 2014; Bradford & Garrett, 1995; T. W. Coombs, 2007; Hersel et al., 2019; Marcus & Goodman, 1991). These typologies attempt to identify particular actions or communications and classify them as indicative of an accommodative or a defensive response strategy. While they bring some order to the brand crisis management literature, they are not exhaustive. Our meta-analysis reveals that firms use tactics that are not included in any of the existing typologies. For example, we found that firms use financial restatements to correct the harm of financial scandals (Arthaud-Day, Certo, Dalton, & Dalton, 2006; Janney & Gove, 2011), dismiss scandalized celebrity endorsers or ordinary employees (Hock & Raithel, 2020; A. R. Johnson, V. S. Folkes, & J. Wang, 2018), and invest in CSR (Kang, Germann, & Grewal, 2016; Noack, Miller, & Smith, 2019). Prior typologies capture none of these tactics. Moreover, "researchers rarely examine how multiple corrective actions work together" (Hersel et al., 2019, p. 574).. A qualitative comparison of effects observed in studies that use a combination of both types of response tactics (vs. a single type of tactic) to operationalize response strategies is rather difficult, as these studies simultaneously differ in the situational characteristics of the brand crises in which these effects are measured (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017).

We thus develop a new typology in which we distinguish between different types of response tactics by referring to Zavyalova, Pfarrer, Reger, and Shapiro (2012), who suggest that response tactics can be ceremonial or technical in nature. Ceremonial tactics aim "to alter stakeholder perceptions of the firm by emphasizing its positive, alternative character traits," while technical tactics "are perceived as having the potential to address the cause of wrongdoing" (Zavyalova et al., 2012, p. 1084). However, firms may also use a combination of both ceremonial and technical tactics to implement the chosen response strategy. For example, firms can enact an accommodative response strategy through ceremonial tactics, such as apology advertising campaigns, expressions of remorse in public statements, and/or investments in CSR *along* with a proactive product recall, voluntary financial restatement, or dismissal of an unethical executive to address the substantive harm of a brand crisis (Borah & Tellis, 2016; Y. Chen et al., 2009; Cleeren, van Heerde, & Dekimpe, 2013; Noack et al., 2019). We classify post-crisis CSR as ceremonial because firms invest in these activities "to protect the image of the organization" (Groza, Pronschinske, & Walker, 2011, p. 641), which corresponds to the definition of ceremonial tactics. Similarly, we consider the dismissals of responsible executives as accommodative technical tactics because they signal "a willingness to remedy governance weaknesses. Conversely, retaining leaders that engaged in or allowed misconduct signals apathy and commitment to the status quo" (Hersel et al., 2019, p. 556).

When firms implement defensive response strategies, they always include both ceremonial and technical tactics because stonewalling (i.e., not responding verbally nor taking any corrective action) is "the most extreme version" of a defensive response strategy (Hersel et al., 2019, p. 558), as it signals that the firm does "not care about either the relationship or the consequences to the victim" (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017, p. 298). This means that even when firms deploy only defensive technical tactics, such as passive product recalls or involuntary financial restatements (Arthaud-Day et al., 2006; Y. Chen et al., 2009), they are actually combining them with a defensive ceremonial defensive tactic of "silence" (Poppo & Schepker, 2010). Similarly, if a firm verbally denies responsibility and does not take any relevant technical action to mitigate the harm, it actually combines ceremonial (i.e., a denial) and technical (i.e., no remediation) tactics in its implementation of a defensive response strategy (Hersel et al., 2019).

Our typology, distinguishing between accommodative response strategies, which can be implemented with technical-only, ceremonial-only, or ceremonial and technical response tactics, and defensive response strategies, is summarized in Table 20. However, it remains unclear "which combinations of actions are most effective for producing specific outcomes" (Hersel et al., 2019, p. 574; see also Appendix 9). On one hand, ceremonial tactics can be seen as a way "to distract stakeholders' attention or shift stakeholders' negative perception of the firm" (Hersel et al., 2019, p. 567), and implementing them on their own or in combination with accommodative technical tactics may thus decrease the overall effectiveness of an accommodative response strategy. On the other hand, trust repair theory suggests that ceremonial tactics, such as apologies, may mitigate the psychological harm caused by a brand crisis (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017). Moreover, when accommodative response strategies include both technical and ceremonial tactics, they can indicate a more convincing reparative effort (Tomlinson & Maryer, 2009; Xie & Peng, 2009). These propositions of trust repair theory lead us to offer the following hypothesis:

H6: The positive effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are smaller when the accommodative response strategy is implemented (a) only with ceremonial tactics or (b) only with technical tactics and larger when the accommodative response strategy is implemented with a combination of both ceremonial and technical tactics (baseline).

Table 20: A typology of brand crisis response strategy and tactics

	Ceremonial response tactics	Technical response tactics	Ceremonial and technical response tactics
Accommodative response strategy	Apology – public statement (Puzakova, Hyokjin, & Rocereto, 2013) Apology – advertising campaign (Borah & Tellis, 2016) Blame acknowledgment (Cleeren et al., 2013) Corporate social responsibility initiatives (Noack et al., 2019)	Compensation (Puzakova et al., 2013) Early recall (A. X. Liu, Liu, & Luo, 2016) Proactive product recall (Y. Chen et al., 2009; Y. Liu, Shankar, & Yun, 2017) Voluntary financial restatement (Arthaud-Day et al., 2006) CEO dismissal (A. R. Johnson et al., 2018) Corrective actions – policy changes (Cianci, Clor-Proell, & Kaplan, 2019) Endorsement contract suspension (Hock & Raithel, 2020)	Unambiguous support – product recall and apology (Dawar & Pillutla, 2000) Rebuild strategy – apology and compensation (Hegner, Beldad, & Kamphuis op Heghuis, 2014) Rebuild strategy – apology and product recall (Hegner, Beldad, & Kraesgenberg, 2016) Corrective actions – apology and remedial measures (Dutta & Pullig, 2011)
Defensive response strategy	Denial (Puzakova et al., 2013) No blame acknowledgment (Cleeren et al., 2013) Ambiguous response (Dawar & Pillutla, 2000) Diminish strategy (Hegner et al., 2016) Attack the accuser, scapegoat, excuse (T. W. Coombs, 2007)	Late recall (A. X. Liu et al., 2016) Passive product recall (Y. Chen et al., 2009; Y. Liu et al., 2017) Involuntary financial restatement (Arthaud-Day et al., 2006) No CEO dismissal (A. R. Johnson et al., 2018) No corrective actions (Cianci et al., 2019) Endorsement contract maintenance (Hock & Raithel, 2020)	Stonewalling – no verbal response, no remedial measures (Dawar & Pillutla, 2000) No response – no apology, no product recall (Hegner et al., 2014)

Source: Own work.

3.2.3.2 *Moderating effects of the situational characteristics of a brand crisis*

Crisis management scholars have proposed two types of models to predict whether an accommodative or a defensive response strategy will be more effective given the particular situational characteristics of a brand crisis. These models rely either on attribution theory (Bradford & Garrett, 1995; Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015; T. W. Coombs, 2007) or trust repair theory (Ferrin, Kim, Cooper, & Dirks, 2007; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Poppo & Schepker, 2010). The two theories argue that customers rely on different situational characteristics of a negative event as they engage in the processes of cognitive sensemaking during a brand crisis (Tomlinson & Maryer, 2009). Trust repair theory proposes the process of *causal ascription*, in which customers associate the negative event with perceptions of the brand's competence or benevolence (Kervyn et al., 2014; P. H. Kim et al., 2004). Attribution theory suggests the process of *causal attribution*, in which customers interpret the negative event in terms of the locus of causality and controllability attributions (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015; T. W. Coombs, 2007; Folkes, 1988). To reconcile the conflicting predictions of both theories, we develop and test hypotheses of moderating effects of brand crisis' situational characteristics that are consistent with both causal ascriptions and attributions.

Both strategy and consumer behavior scholars argue that stakeholders form brand perceptions based on the dimensions of competence (i.e., capability or ability) and benevolence (i.e., warmth or character; Kervyn et al., 2012; Mishina et al., 2012). Benevolence is defined as customers' evaluation of the brand's intentions toward society, while competence refers to customers' perception of the brand's ability to enact its intentions (Kervyn et al., 2012). Accordingly, crisis management scholars have proposed two types of brand crises: *benevolence crises*, also referred to as moral-harm or value-related crises, and *competence crises*, also referred to as product-harm or performance-related crises (Cleeren et al., 2017; Kübler, Langmaack, Albers, & Hoyer, 2020). For instance, widespread failures of a brand's product or service, data breaches, and industrial accidents are considered competence crises because they occur due to the firm's inability to control its production processes or internal systems. However, when a brand or its representatives violate legal, ethical, moral, or social norms, customers perceive the situations as benevolence crises because these violations imply malevolent intentions (Dutta & Pullig, 2011; Kervyn et al., 2014).

Benevolence and competence perceptions also correspond with dimensions of customers' trusting beliefs (Fournier & Alvarez, 2012; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). Trust repair theory suggests that accommodative response strategies better restore trust after competence violations, while defensive response strategies are more effective for benevolence violations (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Tomlinson & Maryer, 2009). This is because the negative benevolence-related information is more diagnostic than negative competence-related information, which results in a greater decrease in trustworthiness (P. H. Kim et al., 2004). Furthermore, when taking responsibility for a benevolence violation, perceivers question the violator's true motives, whereas taking responsibility for a competence violation is seen as an honest attempt to rectify the problem (Tomlinson & Maryer, 2009). Finally, some trust repair scholars argue that denying a benevolence violation leads customers to give the brand the benefit of the doubt (Ferrin et al., 2007; Poppo & Schepker, 2010). According to Singh et al. (Singh et al., 2020a, p, 843), "Such interaction effect has been only partially investigated in prior research, with mixed findings."

H7: The effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are (a) negative in benevolence crises and (b) positive in competence crises.

According to attribution theory, customers first make locus of control attributions by asking "who caused the negative event" and inferring an internal or external locus (Folkes, 1988). The literature suggests that particular brand crisis situations imply either an internal or external locus (T. W. Coombs & Holladay, 1996; James et al., 2011). For instance, widespread product or service failures due to human or technical errors and immoral, unethical, or illegal behavior by a brand's representatives imply an internal locus (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015). When a brand crisis is caused by actors who are not representatives of a brand, the locus is perceived as external (Folkes, 1988). Typical examples include data breaches (Rasoulian et al., 2017), product tampering (T. W. Coombs, 2007), and consumer brand sabotage (Kähr, Nyffenegger, Krohmer, & Hoyer, 2016).

Attributions of the locus of causality influence customer expectations of the brand's response, so the brand is expected to offer solutions, especially in crises with an internal locus (T. W. Coombs & Holladay, 1996; Folkes, 1984). When a firm takes responsibility and adopts an accommodative response strategy in a brand crisis caused by its representatives, it signals that it is willing to resolve the negative situation, which is more consistent with customer expectations and is thus more likely to lead to positive customer reactions. Conversely, when a firm denies or minimizes its responsibility for a brand crisis caused by external actors, such a response is also consistent with customers' understanding of the negative event and leads to more positive reactions due to a lower perception of the brand's culpability (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015; T. W. Coombs, 2007). Attribution theory thus predicts that accommodative response strategies will be more effective when customers attribute the responsibility for a brand crisis to an internal cause, while defensive response strategies will be more effective when customers attribute the responsibility for a brand crisis to an external cause. However, the extant literature offers "mixed findings about the role attribution of responsibility and response strategies" play in protecting marketing assets (Ma & Zhan, 2016, p. 102).

H8: The effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are (a) positive in brand crises with an internal locus of causality and (b) negative in brand crises with an external locus of causality.

Another dimension of causal attributions relates to the controllability of a brand crisis, where customers decide whether a crisis-triggering event was under the firm's volitional control (Folkes, 1988). Customers attribute volitional control to a brand when they believe that the brand could have prevented the negative event (T. W. Coombs & Holladay, 1996). Although this appears similar to the benevolence–competence distinction, ascriptions of intentionality (i.e., benevolence crises) and attributions of controllability (i.e., preventable crises) are distinct cognitions (Yao & Siegel, 2021). Customers perceive most brand crises as preventable (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015). Exceptions include accidents (T. W. Coombs, 2007) and crises caused by natural factors, such as weather (Gijsenberg, Van Heerde, & Verhoef, 2015). When a brand crisis is perceived as controllable, an accommodative response strategy signals that the firm is willing to prevent similar incidents in the future, which reduces the perceived likelihood of the negative event's reoccurrence (Folkes, 1988). When a firm denies or excuses its responsibility for an uncontrollable brand crisis, such a response corresponds with customers' attributions regarding the negative event and should reduce their perception of the brand's culpability (T. W. Coombs, 2007). Attribution theory thus predicts that accommodative response strategies will be more effective for controllable brand crises, while defensive response strategies should be more effective for uncontrollable brand crises. However, the extant research that tested this prediction "has found mixed results" (Gistri, Corciolani, & Pace, 2019, p. 611).

H9: The effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are (a) positive in controllable brand crises and (b) negative in uncontrollable brand crises.

3.2.3.3 Control variables

In addition to the theoretical moderators introduced so far, we include several method- and publication-related moderators to control for various factors that may introduce variability in the effects of response strategies. First, we control for the type of brand crisis stimuli, as some primary studies use fictitious (e.g., Dawar & Pillutla, 2000) while others focus on real (e.g., A. R. Johnson et al., 2018) brand crisis situations. We include this moderator because Ma and Zhan (2016, p. 115) argue that "attribution of responsibility in reality is vague, as compared to what is described in fictitious crisis vignettes," which implies that the type of crisis stimuli may confound the moderating effects of causal attributions. Second, as we explain in more detail later, we calculated some effects in our meta-analytic database from regression coefficients. We thus control for the type (i.e., bivariate vs. partial) of correlation coefficient underlying the effect (Rosengren et al., 2020). Third, we account for a paper's publication status (i.e., published vs. unpublished) and publication quality (i.e., top journal vs. other) to investigate potential publication bias (Eisend, 2015; Watson et al., 2015). Fourth, as research shows that customer reactions to brand crises vary across countries (e.g., Barbarossa & Mandler, 2020) and many datasets included in the meta-analysis come from the United States (US), we control for dataset origin (i.e., US vs. elsewhere).

Finally, we include the paper's year of dissemination to explore potential trends in customer reactions to brand crisis response strategies. Brand crises have become more frequent in recent decades (Institute for Crisis Management, 2018; Kalavar & Mysore, 2017), which could increase customers' awareness and expectations of accommodative response strategies. This would imply that the positive effects of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on marketing assets have become even stronger over time. However, defensive response strategies are used more frequently than accommodative ones (Arendt et al., 2017; Y. Chen et al., 2009; Claeys & Coombs, 2020), which could have a sensitizing effect on customers, making them more accustomed to defensive response strategies. This would imply that the positive effect of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies has been diluted over time.

3.3 How response strategies influence a firm's marketing assets and financial performance

The conceptual model (Figure 13) implies a serial mediation, whereby customer reactions (i.e., negative customer outcomes and marketing assets) transfer the effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on firm performance. This indirect mechanism can be explained from both micro (i.e., psychological/behavioral/short term) and macro (i.e., strategy/long term) perspectives. From the micro perspective, various theoretical frameworks agree that brand crises trigger negative customer reactions, which are thus the first outcome that response strategies aim to impact. For instance, the process model of negative events in marketing (Khamitov et al., 2020; see their Figure 1) posits that customers' negatively valenced affect and cognitions act as process variables that transfer the effects of response strategies on downstream consequences, such as attitudes and behavioral intentions. Similarly, trust repair models propose that accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies repair brand trust because they neutralize the negative emotions and distrust induced by negative events (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Tomlinson & Maryer, 2009). Attribution theory-based models argue that accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies recover brand associations by reducing the blame that customers attribute to the brand (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015; T. W. Coombs, 2007). Hence, these theoretical frameworks jointly predict that accommodative response strategies reduce negative customer outcomes better than defensive response strategies, also acting as a mechanism that helps recover marketing assets. However, these theoretical frameworks do not provide clear predictions about the type of mediation (Xinshu Zhao et al., 2010). For instance, the model of Tomlinson and Maryer (2009) implies an indirect-only form of mediation through negative emotions, while Coombs' (2007) model suggests a complementary mediation through blame attributions. We thus consider the determination of the mediation type an empirical question.

The chain of effects among customer reactions can also be explained from a macro perspective. For instance, the echoverse model of brand buzz suggests that brand-related marketing assets (i.e., brand awareness and attitudes) mediate the impact of negative customer outcomes (i.e., negative buzz) on customer-related marketing assets, such as purchase intentions and purchases (Han, Feit, & Srinivasan, 2020; Hewett, Rand, Rust, & van Heerde, 2016). In other words, this model implies that negative customer outcomes and brand-related marketing assets mediate the effect of the response strategy on customer-related marketing assets.

We again provide explanations for the direct and indirect effects of response strategies on firm performance from both micro and macro perspectives. From a micro perspective, efficient market hypothesis suggests that announcements of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies provide new information to investors, who interpret them as indicators of negative cash flows (due to legal, repair, or other costs), which leads them to devaluate a firm's stock (Cleeren et al., 2017; Khamitov et al., 2020). Efficient market hypothesis thus predicts a direct negative effect of response strategies on firm performance. According to signaling theory (Hersel et al., 2019; Marcus & Goodman, 1991), however, investors interpret an announcement of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy as a signal of the firm's ability to solve problems and preserve its marketing assets. As investors may also monitor the positive effects of response strategies on customer reactions in real time with consumer surveys or through social and traditional media (Borah & Tellis, 2016; Hsu & Lawrence, 2016; Rust et al., 2021; Stäbler & Fischer, 2020), we expect that customer reactions mediate the positive effect of the response strategy on firm performance.

Marketing-finance value chain models can explain the direct and indirect effects of response strategies on firm value from a macro perspective (Edeling et al., 2021; Katsikeas et al., 2016). These models propose that firms' investments in marketing activities create costs, which reduce the current profits and thus have direct negative effects on firms' financial value (Edeling & Fischer, 2016). However, these investments also trigger a hierarchy of effects, in which firms' marketing efforts positively influence customers' perceptions of and attitudes toward brands, thereby creating brand-related marketing assets. In turn, brand-related marketing assets help firms attract new and retain existing customers, which builds firms' customer-related marketing assets and improves their financial performance (Edeling & Fischer, 2016; Katsikeas et al., 2016; Rust et al., 2004). Therefore, both micro and macro perspectives lead us to predict a competitive mediation (Xinshu Zhao et al., 2010).

H10: An accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy has (a) a direct negative effect on firm performance and (b) an indirect positive effect on firm performance, which is mediated by negative customer outcomes, brand-related marketing assets, and customer-related marketing assets.

3.4 Study 3 – method

3.4.1 Database development

3.4.1.1 Collection of papers

To identify all relevant papers (e.g., journal and conference articles, theses, book chapters), we followed the methodological recommendations and practice of recent systematic literature reviews on marketing (Khamitov et al., 2020; Roschk & Hosseinpour, 2020). First, we retrieved the cited and citing references of previous literature reviews (Bundy et al., 2017; Cleeren et al., 2017; Hersel et al., 2019; James et al., 2011; Khamitov et al., 2020; Ma & Zhan, 2016) from Web of Science and Google Scholar, respectively. Second, we conducted a Boolean search in full-text electronic databases (EBSCO, Science Direct, Emerald, Scopus, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, and SSRN) using a combination of keywords[16] related to brand crises and response strategies. Third, we took steps to identify gray literature beyond keyword searches in the SSRN and ProQuest Dissertations and Theses databases. For example, we manually searched the conference proceedings of major academic conferences (e.g., AMA Educator's conferences, AMS Annual Conference, and ACR conference), posted a call for papers on ELMAR, and reviewed the websites of leading crisis management scholars. Fourth, we performed a manual issue-by-issue search of leading journals in research on brand crisis management (*Journal of Marketing*, *Journal of Marketing Research*, *Marketing Science*, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *Academy of Management Journal*, *Strategic Management Journal*, and *Public Relations Review*). Fifth, we reviewed the references of all relevant papers we had identified in the previous steps. We concluded the literature review with papers available by June 2021.

3.4.1.2 Selection of papers and coding

We then applied three inclusion criteria to the papers in our database. First, a paper must compare a defensive and an accommodative response strategy as defined in this meta-analysis and measure its association with a customer or investor reaction. Second, the empirical setting of a paper must meet our definition of a brand crisis, which excludes certain events (e.g., management of negative customer reviews), stakeholder groups (e.g., employees or the press), and non-profit and place brands. Third, a paper or its authors must provide a correlation coefficient or the statistical information necessary to calculate it. We contacted the authors of all papers deemed appropriate for the meta-analysis that did not

[16] These were: ("brand crisis" OR "brand transgression" OR "brand wrongdoing" OR "organizational crisis" OR "brand scandal" OR "corporate crisis" OR "business crisis" OR "product-harm crisis" OR "product harm crisis" OR "service crisis" OR "corporate scandal" OR "corporate social irresponsibility" OR "business scandal" OR "organizational wrongdoing") AND ("crisis management strategy" OR "crisis response").

meet this criterion with 119 requests for additional information and sent 99 reminder emails to those who did not respond to our initial inquiry.

The final database consists of 164 papers (Appendix 10), dated between 1991 and 2021, which include 184 independent datasets, 133 from experimental studies and 51 from financial event studies. The effects from datasets with experimental research designs capture the variation in dependent variables (i.e., negative customer outcomes, brand- and customer-related marketing assets, and firm performance) across individual participants that is due to an accommodative or defensive response strategy. The effects from datasets with financial event study designs capture the variation in firm performance in firms' responses to brand crisis instances (e.g., data breaches) that is due to an accommodative or defensive response strategy. The experimental studies include 34,321 participants, while the financial event studies span a total of 11,586 brand crisis instances and the corresponding firm response strategies. The datasets come from 20 countries, with the US (107 datasets), China (17 datasets), and the Netherlands (14 datasets) being the most common research contexts. Our meta-analytic database includes journal articles, unpublished theses, and conference papers, which reduces the potential for biased meta-analytic integration due to publication bias (Eisend & Tarrahi, 2014).

Following the conceptual model (Figure 13), we developed a classification scheme for dependent variables (Table 18) and a coding scheme for moderators (Table 19). Two authors independently classified all dependent variables and coded the moderators. The overall inter-coder agreement rate was 95.7%, and disagreements were resolved through discussion. We assigned the dependent variables to 11 categories according to the definitions Table 18. To ensure minimum generalizability, we excluded eight effects related to perceived risk, as they only appeared in three datasets (e.g., Dutta & Pullig, 2011). We also excluded four effects from two papers that operationalized financial performance with firm idiosyncratic risk (e.g., Rasoulian et al., 2017), which is closely related but conceptually distinct from firm value outcomes (Edeling & Fischer, 2016). This resulted in the final database of 811 effects, out of which 354 effect sizes correspond to product-harm crises, 212 effect sizes represent ethical scandals, 121 effect sizes represent data breaches, 84 effect sizes represent industrial accidents, and six effect sizes represent endorser scandals. The remaining 34 effect sizes correspond to multiple/mixed brand crisis instances.

3.4.2 Meta-Analytic procedures

3.4.2.1 Effect size integration and publication bias assessment

We use the correlation coefficient as the effect size metric. Correlation coefficients are easy to interpret—a positive (negative) correlation coefficient means that implementation of an accommodative as opposed to a defensive response strategy results in an increase (decrease) of the focal dependent variable. The majority of papers with financial event study designs in our database reports correlation coefficients, while papers with experimental studies usually provide the means and standard deviations of dependent variables. We transformed all effect sizes that were not reported as correlation coefficients (e.g., means and standard deviations, t-tests, or F-ratios with one degree of freedom) using the formulas provided by Lipsey and Wilson (2001). As some authors did not respond to our requests for statistical information, we converted 23 effect sizes from multivariate regression coefficients using the formula of Peterson and Brown (2005). These effect sizes are based on partial correlation coefficients, so we control for their potentially confounding influence on the moderation analysis by including dummy variables in both moderator models (c.f., Rosengren et al., 2020). Next, we adjusted the correlations for measurement error with the procedure proposed by Hunter and Schmidt (2004). If a paper did not report reliability information or used a single-item measure, we applied the mean reliability coefficient for that dependent variable across all datasets in our database (Rosengren et al., 2020). We did not adjust firm performance measures, as these studies do not report reliability coefficients or measurement errors.

Since the vast majority of datasets reported multiple effect sizes, we integrated them in the following way. We treated the effect sizes from the same dataset as independent as long as they corresponded to distinct constructs from Table 18. However, most datasets provided multiple effect sizes related to the same construct. We treated these effect sizes as dependent and accounted for the nested data structure by integrating the effect sizes with hierarchical linear modeling (HLM). We specified a mixed-effects model for each dependent variable from Table 18, with the effect sizes nested in datasets. Appendix 11 provides detailed information regarding the effect size integration and HLM procedures.

We investigated publication bias by computing the fail-safe Ns (Rosenthal, 1979) for all statistically significant relationships ($p < .05$). Fail-safe N provides the number of additional non-significant effect sizes that would turn a significant integrated effect non-significant at the .05 level (Rosenthal, 1979). Because the appropriateness of fail-safe N for assessing publication bias has been questioned (e.g., Sun & Pan, 2020), we conducted additional tests of publication bias, which are summarized in Web Appendix 4. We also performed homogeneity tests, including the Q statistic, which is distributed similarly to a chi-square distribution with $K - 1$ degrees of freedom (Hedges & Olkin, 1985). A significant Q statistic indicates that the integrated effect size is more heterogeneous than would be expected from sampling error alone and warrants further investigation of moderators.

3.4.2.2 Meta-regression

As the Q statistics indicated significant heterogeneity, we proceeded with the moderator analysis, as implied by our conceptual model (Figure 13). We estimated separate multi-level models in HLM for effects sizes corresponding to either brand- or customer-related marketing assets, as both have a sufficient number of effect sizes and datasets to run multi-level models (see Appendix 11 for model specifications). We did not perform a moderation analysis for effect sizes related to firm performance, as financial event studies capture the variation in firms' response strategies to multiple events (i.e., different brand crises). This means that we could not assign response tactics and situational characteristics of brand crises to individual effect sizes from these datasets.

Because we pooled all effect sizes corresponding to brand- or customer-related marketing assets, we included dummy variables representing the specific dependent variables (e.g., brand trust or customer loyalty), following the approach applied in other meta-analyses (e.g., Roschk & Hosseinpour, 2020). To check for multicollinearity, we first computed bivariate correlation coefficients between moderator variables from both HLM models (see Appendix 12). At least one correlation coefficient in each model exceeded the 0.5 threshold, indicating potential multicollinearity issues (W. Chang & Taylor, 2016). However, variance inflation factors (VIFs) did not indicate multicollinearity issues for either the brand- (largest VIF = 2.82) or customer-related marketing assets (largest VIF = 2.07) models, so we decided to retain all moderators (Sethuraman, Tellis, & Briesch, 2011). For further details, see Appendix 12.

3.4.2.3 Meta-analytic correlation matrix and structural equation modeling

In order to examine the direct and indirect effects of response strategy on marketing assets and firm performance, we developed a meta-analytic correlation matrix (see Appendix 14). We followed the methodological recommendations (Bergh et al., 2016) and searched the papers in our database for correlation coefficients between the four groups of dependent variables (i.e., negative customer outcomes, brand- and customer-related marketing assets, and firm performance). We identified at least seven correlation coefficients for each cell of the meta-analytic correlation matrix. The correlation coefficients among dependent variables were corrected for reliability and integrated in the same way as those between the response strategy and dependent variables (as described above and in Appendix 11). We used the harmonic mean of sample sizes across all cells of the correlation matrix (4,024) to estimate a structural equation model (SEM; see Appendix 11, Equation 7). We specified all constructs as single-indicator latent variables, with measurement errors fixed to zero because the integrated correlation coefficients had already been adjusted for unreliability (Bergh et al., 2016).

3.4.3 Results

3.4.3.1 Effect size integration and publication bias

The integrated, reliability-corrected correlation coefficients between the response strategy and dependent variables appear in Table 21. The integrated correlation coefficient between the response strategy and blame attributions, negative behavioral dispositions, and negative emotions are not significantly different from zero. The same holds for the negative customer outcomes as a category, which leads us to reject H5a. However, we find statistically significant and positive effects of the response strategy on a brand's crisis response attitude, brand attitude, brand trust, brand associations, and the combined brand-related marketing assets, which supports H5b. We also find statistically significant and positive effects of the response strategy on customer loyalty, purchase intentions, PWOM, and customer-related marketing assets as a category, supporting H5c. Moreover, the 95% confidence intervals of all effect sizes corresponding to each of the three categories that represent customer reactions overlap, which suggests that the effects of the response strategy on constructs from each category do not differ. These results provide empirical support (along with the theoretical arguments of trust repair theory, attribution theory, and the marketing–finance value chain) for combining the specific constructs into negative customer outcomes, brand-, and customer-related marketing assets.

We also find that a firm's choice of response strategy generally does not affect its financial performance, as the corresponding integrated correlation coefficient is not statistically significant. However, all integrated effect sizes in Table 21 exhibit significant heterogeneity, which justifies the investigation of moderators. Finally, the fail-safe Ns (Table 21) suggest that publication bias is not concerning (Rosenthal, 1979). We reach the same conclusion based on the additional publication bias tests reported in Appendix 13.

3.4.3.1 Meta-regression

Table 22 summarizes the results of the two multilevel regression models. In support of H6a, we find significant moderating effects of ceremonial-only response tactics in both the brand-related marketing assets (β = -.082; p < .05) and customer-related marketing assets (β = -.141; p < .05) models. As the predicted values indicate, the effects on brand-related marketing assets (.187 vs .289) and on customer-related marketing assets (.097 vs. 238) are weaker when an accommodative response strategy is implemented using only ceremonial tactics. We also find support for H6b, as we observe at least marginally significant moderating effects of technical-only response tactics in both brand-related marketing assets (β = -.106; p < .05) and customer-related marketing assets (β = -.131; p < .1) models. The predicted values again suggest that the effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on brand-related marketing assets (.208 vs .293) and on customer-related marketing assets (.084 vs. 215) are weaker when an accommodative response strategy is implemented using only technical tactics.

Table 21: Meta-analytic correlations

Dependent Variables	**# Papers**	**# Datasets**	**# Effect sizes**	**Total sample size**	**Average r[a]**	**95% confidence interval**	**Homogeneity test Q**	**Fail-safe N**	**Unadjusted mean[b]**
Negative customer outcomes (H_{1a})	35	37	106	9,538	-.046	-.142; .049	205.91***	—	-.043
Blame attributions	16	17	49	4,516	-.047	-.205; .112	129.31***	—	-.040
Negative behavioral dispositions	12	16	32	4,203	-.097	-.238; .044	80.17***	—	-.085
Negative emotions	11	12	25	4,079	-.055	-.145; .035	91.01***	—	-.054
Brand-related marketing assets (H_{1b})	106	112	437	28,599	.251***	.199; .304	2,033.38***	562,772	.231***
Brand's crisis response attitude	20	21	56	7,069	.192***	.081; .304	132.15***	23,431	.183***
Brand attitude	33	35	85	9,020	.192***	.104; .280	306.43***	11,366	.183***
Brand trust	38	41	154	9,293	.326***	.240; .412	226.63***	11,409	.297***
Brand associations	42	47	142	12,505	.198***	.128; .268	502.23***	23,324	.190***
Customer-related marketing assets (H_{1c})	48	52	156	17,732	.194***	.138; .249	283.34***	33,385	.179***
Customer loyalty	9	9	25	2,772	.211**	.116; .306	39.384***	851	.192**
Purchase intentions	32	34	85	10,542	.196***	.119; .273	170.82***	13,988	.182***
Positive word-of-mouth communications	15	15	46	4,394	.124***	.080; .168	23.04*	1,245	.114***
Firm performance									
Firm financial performance	51	56	112	12,564	-.003	-.061; .056	130.05***	—	—

*Notes: [a] Refers to reliability-corrected, variance-weighted mean correlation coefficient. [b] Refers to variance-weighted mean correlation coefficient without reliability correction. Significance of correlation coefficients and homogeneity tests (Q) * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001. Source: Own work.*

We find evidence of the moderating influences of brand crisis type in both brand-related marketing assets ($\beta = .171$; $p < .01$) and customer-related marketing assets ($\beta = .176$; $p < .01$) models. In support of H7a, the predicted values suggest that, in competence crises, an accommodative response strategy is more protective of brand-related marketing assets (.302) and customer-related marketing assets (.245) than a defensive response strategy. However, the predicted values do not support H7b, as accommodative response strategies better recover brand-related marketing assets (.130) and customer-related marketing assets (.063) than defensive response strategies, even in benevolence crises. We also do not find evidence of moderating influences of the locus of causality and crisis controllability, as the regression coefficients of both moderators are not statistically significant in either model, leading us to reject H8 and H9.

We observe a statistically significant moderating effect of correlation coefficient type in both moderator models; however, these moderating influences are in the opposite directions. As the predicted values indicate, the effects on brand-related marketing assets are larger when based on partial (.411) as opposed to bivariate (.260) correlation coefficients. While the effects on customer-related marketing assets are larger when based on bivariate (.190) as opposed to partial (.128) correlation coefficients. We do not observe any moderating influences of brand crisis stimuli, publication status, publication quality, year of dissemination, or dataset origin. Finally, we do not find any significant effects of dummies for the dependent variables in either model, supporting our interpretation of the integrated effect sizes in Table 21 that the effects of response strategies do not depend on the specific brand- or customer-related marketing asset variable under investigation.

We assessed the robustness of the moderation results in two ways. First, due to the significant moderating influence of correlation type, we excluded all effect sizes based on partial correlation coefficients from both models. As shown in Appendix 15, using only the effect sizes based on bivariate correlation coefficients leads to the same conclusions regarding the moderating influences of response tactics, situational characteristics of brand crises, and control variables. Second, we examined the interactions of moderators capturing the response tactics and situational characteristics of brand crises with dummies for the dependent variables in both moderator models. We added the interaction terms sequentially, and none of them was significant in either model (see Appendix 15). Moreover, all moderation results remained stable, leading us to conclude that the moderating effects of response tactics and brand crisis type generalize across specific conceptualizations of brand- and customer-related marketing assets.

Table 22: Hierarchical linear modelling moderation results

Moderator (coding)	Hypotheses	Brand-related marketing assets			Customer-related marketing assets	
		β (SE)	Predicted values		β (SE)	Predicted values
Intercept		.250 (.132)†			.225 (.062)***	
Response tactics[a]						
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	H6a (-)	-.082 (.038)*	✓ .289 vs. .208 ✓		-.141 (.069)*	✓ .238 vs. .097 ✓
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	H6b (-)	-.106 (.052)*	✓ .293 vs. 187 ✓		-.131 (.077)†	✓ .215 vs. .084 ✓
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis						
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	H7a (-) / H7b (+)	.171 (.049)**	✗ .130 vs. .302 ✓		.176 (.052)**	✗ .063 vs. .245 ✓
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	H8a (+) / H8b (-)	-.068 (.105)	n.s.		-.094 (.075)	n.s.
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	H9a (+) / H9b (-)	.044 (.072)	n.s.		.032 (.051)	n.s.
Control variables						
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)		.091 (.064)	n.s.		-.085 (.084)	n.s.
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)		.156 (.086)†	.260 vs. .411		-.318 (.122)*	.190 vs. -.128
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)		-.108 (.079)	n.s.		-.022 (.070)	n.s.
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)		.018 (.069)	n.s.		.062 (.092)	n.s.
Year of dissemination (continuous)		.003 (.006)	n.s.		-.006 (.007)	n.s.
Dataset origin (else = 0 vs. US = 1)		.018 (.055)	n.s.		-.059 (.063)	n.s.
Brand trust dummy[b] (else = 0 vs. Brand trust = 1)		.071 (.114)	n.s.		—	
Brand associations dummy[b] (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)		-.088 (.089)	n.s.		—	
Brand attitude dummy[b] (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude = 1)		-.065 (.068)	n.s.		—	
Customer loyalty dummy[b] (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty = 1)		—			-.030 (.073)	n.s.
PWOM dummy[b] (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)		—			-.031 (.029)	n.s.
		k = 104; n = 402			k = 45; n = 143	

Notes: [a] moderator with three categories (i.e., ceremonial only, technical only, ceremonial and technical); ceremonial and technical category serves as the baseline.

[b] A moderator with four categories in the brand-related marketing assets model (i.e., brand trust, brand associations, brand attitude, and brand's crisis response attitude) and three categories (i.e., customer loyalty, purchase intentions, and PWOM) in the customer-related marketing assets model. The brand's crisis response attitude is the baseline in the former model, while purchase intentions are the baseline in the latter model.

+ and – indicate the hypothesized direction of a beta coefficient (H5) or predicted values (H6-H9), ✓ or ✗ indicate if the direction of a predicted value is as hypothesized, and n.s. indicates that the effect of a moderator is not statistically significant.

k = number of datasets; n = number of effect sizes.

Significance of beta coefficients † = p < .10; * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001. Source: Own work.

3.4.3.2 Meta-analytic structural equation modeling

Table 23 summarizes the SEM results. The model converged with excellent fit ($\chi^2_{(d.f. = 1)}$ = .026; p = .873; goodness-of-fit-index = 1; adjusted goodness-of-fit-index = 1; comparative fit index = 1; root mean square error of approximation = .000; standardized root mean residual = .001), so we proceeded with an inspection of the parameter estimates. As shown in Table 23, all estimated path coefficients were at least marginally statistically significant ($p < .1$) and in the expected directions. The model accounts for 0.2% of the variance in negative customer outcomes, 24.9% of the variance in brand-related marketing assets, 25.0% of the variance in customer-related marketing assets, and 6.8% of the variance in firm performance.

To test H10, we followed methodological recommendations (e.g., Iacobucci et al., 2007) and computed the indirect effects (see Table 23). These results provide support to H10a, as the direct effect of response strategy on firm performance is negative and statistically significant ($\gamma = -.059$; $p < .01$). The results support H10b as well, as the indirect effect of response strategy on firm performance is significant and positive (total indirect effect = .056; $p < .001$). As the indirect positive effect and direct negative effect are of similar magnitudes but in opposite directions, the total effect of the response strategy is close to zero and not statistically significant. These results provide evidence of competitive mediation (Xinshu Zhao et al., 2010) and explain why scholars often observe very small and insignificant effects of response strategies on firm performance.

We find significant positive indirect effects of the response strategy on brand- (total indirect effect = .020; $p < .01$) and customer-related marketing assets (total indirect effect = .120; $p < .001$), and we observe significant positive direct effects of the response strategy on brand- ($\gamma = .231$; $p < .001$) and customer-related ($\gamma = .074$; $p < .001$) marketing assets. Therefore, we obtain evidence of complementary mediation via negative customer outcomes and brand-related marketing assets (Xinshu Zhao et al., 2010). To better understand the degree of mediation, we calculated the ratios of indirect-to-total effects with the formula proposed by Iacobucci et al. (2007, p. 152). We find that negative customer outcomes mediate a small proportion of the response strategy's effects on brand related- (7.9%) and customer-related (8.3%) marketing assets. The response strategy thus mainly exhibits direct effects on brand-related marketing assets, which also transfer the majority (61.4%) of the response strategy's indirect effect on customer-related marketing assets. To demonstrate the robustness of the suggested model and to rule out alternative explanatory models and possible endogeneity (Bergh et al., 2016, p. 481), we compared the proposed serial mediation model (Figure 13) with three plausible competing models (for details on these models, see Appendix 16). All three alternative structural models exhibit a worse model fit, which provides empirical support for the explanation implied by the proposed serial mediation model.

Table 23: Results of meta-analytic structural equation model

Path / Construct	Estimate	95% confidence interval
Direct effects		
Response strategy → Negative customer outcomes	-.046**	-.072; -.020
Response strategy → Brand-related marketing assets	.231**	.208; .253
Response strategy → Customer-related marketing assets	.074***	.048; .096
Response strategy → Firm performance (H10a ✓)	-.059***	-.084; -.031
Negative customer outcomes → Brand-related marketing assets	-.431***	-.453; -.408
Negative customer outcomes → Firm performance	-.055**	-.082; -.026
Brand-related marketing assets → Customer-related marketing assets	.476***	.452; .499
Brand-related marketing assets → Firm performance	.036†	.006; .068
Customer-related marketing assets → Firm performance	.227***	.198; .255
Total indirect effects		
Response strategy → Brand-related marketing assets	.020***	.010; .032
Response strategy → Customer-related marketing assets	.120***	.106; .133
Response strategy → Firm performance (H10b ✓)	.056***	.046; .056
Negative customer outcomes → Customer-related marketing assets	-.205***	-.220; -.191
Negative customer outcomes → Firm performance	-.062***	-.076; -.050
Brand-related marketing assets → Firm performance	.108***	.093 .123
Specific indirect effects		
Response strategy → Negative customer outcomes → Brand-related marketing assets → Customer-related marketing assets	.009**	.005; .015
Response strategy → Brand-related marketing assets → Customer-related marketing assets	.110***	.098; .123
Response strategy → Negative customer outcomes → Brand-related marketing assets → Customer-related marketing assets → Firm performance	.002**	.001; .003
Response strategy → Negative customer outcomes → Firm performance	.003***	.001; .005
Response strategy → Negative customer outcomes → Brand-related marketing assets → Firm performance	.001*	.000; .002
Response strategy → Brand-related marketing assets → Firm performance	.008†	.001; .016
Response strategy → Brand-related marketing assets → Customer-related marketing assets → Firm performance	.025***	.021; .030
Response strategy → Customer-related marketing assets → Firm performance	.017***	.012; .023
Explained variance		
R^2 Negative customer outcomes	.002	.000; .005
R^2 Brand-related marketing assets	.249	.229; .268
R^2 Customer-related marketing assets	.250	.230; .269
R^2 Firm performance	.068	.055; .080

*Notes: Significance of path coefficients and indirect effects † = p < .10; * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001. ✓indicates that the effect supports a hypothesis. Source: Own work.*

3.5 Discussion of the third chapter

There is widespread agreement among scholars that brand crises have negative consequences for firms (Bundy et al., 2017; Cleeren et al., 2017; Khamitov et al., 2020). However, there has been no agreement on whether, when, and how these negative consequences can be mitigated with accommodative or defensive response strategies (Appendix 9). The aims of this chapter were to (1) consolidate the fragmented brand crisis management literature and examine the overall effects of response strategies on customer reactions, (2) explain the variation in the effects of response strategies on marketing assets and resolve the contradicting prescriptions of trust repair and attribution theories, and (3) examine the simultaneous effects of response strategies on customer and investor reactions. The study offers several contributions to theory and provides implications for brand crisis scholars and managers.

3.5.1 Research implications

Regarding the first research question—*whether* response strategies even have an impact on customer reactions—we find no significant effects on negative customer outcomes and significant positive effects on brand- and customer-related marketing assets. The findings thus support normative and ethical approaches to crisis management (Bundy et al., 2017; K. Xu & Li, 2013), which argue that accommodative response strategies *should* be a default option when managing a brand crisis. The results also imply that customers may forgive (i.e., restore positive attitudes and behaviors toward the brand) but do not forget (i.e., negative dispositions persist) the negative event, even after the firm accepts responsibility and attempts to repair the harm. Future research should thus identify brand crisis responses that can alleviate customer ambivalence following a brand crisis and document how this remaining ambivalence influences the effectiveness of the firm's future marketing efforts.

To investigate *how* accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies recover marketing assets, we developed a conceptual model (Figure 13) that introduces three broad categories of constructs representing various customer reactions. We thus respond to the call "to develop an integrative framework that focuses on unifying the different mediators" (Khamitov et al., 2020, p. 529). Our empirical tests provide support for the proposed serial mediation model (Table 23) and rule out the alternative explanations that negative customer outcomes and brand-related marketing assets operate as unrelated, parallel mediators (Appendix 16). Extending the results on effect size integration, response strategies not only have a negligible effect on negative customer outcomes; reducing negative customer outcomes also plays a very marginal role in recovering marketing assets and firm performance. Future studies should focus on explaining the limited role of negative customer outcomes in the process of stakeholder sensemaking following a brand crisis.

Regarding the second research question—explaining the variations in the effect sizes of marketing assets and resolving the contradicting prescriptions of trust repair and attribution theories—the meta-analysis provides several new and intriguing insights. The new typology extends previous attempts to typify firms' responses to brand crises (Benoit, 2014; Bradford & Garrett, 1995; T. W. Coombs, 2007; Hersel et al., 2019; Marcus & Goodman, 1991) by providing a more granular perspective, which distinguishes between different *types* of strategies and tactics. By applying the new typology, we show that accommodative response strategies work best when they include both ceremonial and technical tactics. We thus answer recent calls to investigate what combinations of response tactics constitute an effective response strategy (Hersel et al., 2019; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017). Our typology can also guide future research on brand crisis management, as it can inform new theorizing about the profiles of response strategies and help scholars to better manipulate or measure response strategies.

To reconcile the "conflicting prescriptions" (Bundy et al., 2017, p. 1662) and mixed results of previous empirical tests of trust repair and attribution theories (Appendix 9), we find partial support for predictions of the former and no support for predictions of the latter. These findings suggest that trust repair theory has higher utility than attribution theory when it comes to predicting customer reactions to brand crisis response strategies. Furthermore, the results show that causal ascriptions moderate the effectiveness of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies but not in the way predicted by trust repair theory. Namely, accommodative response strategies outperform defensive ones even in benevolence crises, although their positive effects become very small. This divergence may be explained by the fact that brand crises violate trust in commercial (as opposed to interpersonal) relationships (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017), where people have lower expectations of benevolence in the first place (J. L. Aaker et al., 2010). Hence, when brands (vs. individuals) engage in legal, moral, or ethical violations, customers find this information less diagnostic. The findings also imply that the advantage of accommodative over defensive response strategies diminishes only when customers ascribe the cause of the crises to the malevolent intentions of a brand or its representative(s). Moderation analyses and formal tests indicate that publication bias is not concerning in the brand crisis management literature. Moreover, we did not detect any moderating impact of time trends, which suggests that the ability of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy to recover marketing assets has been stable for the past 30 years.

Our answer to the third research question—whether (and how) the response strategy choice has simultaneous effects on investor and customer reactions—is "yes." By integrating and generalizing propositions from multiple theoretical frameworks, we show that customer reactions mediate the effects of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on investor reactions. This positive indirect effect also neutralizes the direct negative effect of response strategies on firm performance. We thus respond to recent calls for conceptual models of brand crisis management that incorporate both customer and investor reactions

(Bundy et al., 2017; Khamitov et al., 2020). Moreover, the decomposition of indirect effects (Table 23) suggests that brand- and customer-related marketing assets account for the majority of the indirect effect of the response strategy on firm performance. Considering the moderation results, we expect that the indirect effect via marketing assets will be stronger, for instance, for competence than for benevolence crises, and thus might even lead to a positive total effect of the response strategy on firm performance. This proposition awaits future empirical tests.

3.5.2 Practical implications

Our study has several important implications for brand crisis managers. First, our results challenge the current practice of brand crisis management, which uses defensive response strategies more frequently than accommodative ones (Arendt et al., 2017; Y. Chen et al., 2009; Claeys & Coombs, 2020). We advise brand crisis managers to adopt accommodative response strategies as a default because they seek to meet the needs of crisis-affected stakeholders and have positive effects on marketing assets. Moreover, our findings show that managers should not view the choice between accommodative and defensive response strategies as a moral dilemma between the interests of shareholders and customers (Lamin & Zaheer, 2012; Marcus & Goodman, 1991).

Marketing managers advocating the use of accommodative response strategies are likely to face backlash from other C-suite members. Research on firms' decision-making regarding response strategies shows that the adoption of an accommodative or defensive strategy often depends on interdepartmental dynamics and especially on the power of marketing and public relations departments in comparison to finance and legal departments (Claeys & Opgenhaffen, 2021; Kashmiri, Nicol, & Hsu, 2017). Accordingly, this study offers robust empirical evidence that marketing managers can use when advocating the implementation of accommodative response strategies.

With regard to responding to brand crises, we alert managers to the need to repair both psychological (i.e., ceremonial tactics) and substantive (i.e., technical tactics) harm that stakeholders experience due to the crisis. They can achieve the former by acknowledging responsibility, expressing regret, and explaining why and how the brand crisis occurred (Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017). They can achieve the latter by implementing tactics that mitigate and repair substantive harm, such as informing the stakeholders about potential threats, promptly recalling defective products, removing responsible representatives (e.g., managers, employees or endorsers) from their positions, repairing the damage, and compensating stakeholders for the inequities caused by a brand crisis (T. W. Coombs, 2007; Hersel et al., 2019). Therefore, brand crisis managers need to identify all forms of substantive harm (e.g., physical, monetary, ecological, social) that crisis-affected stakeholders suffered in order to implement appropriate technical tactics.

Our findings also have implications for the development of effective crisis communications, such as public statements or apology advertising campaigns (Borah & Tellis, 2016; Dawar & Pillutla, 2000). These communication efforts recover marketing assets better when firms convey both ceremonial and technical tactics. The findings further show that serving customers and shareholders is not necessarily a contradiction, but managers implementing accommodative response strategies can focus on the effects on marketing assets, as they will eventually lead to positive evaluations by shareholders. We advise them to highlight these positive effects on marketing assets in firm communications with shareholders, such as earnings calls or quarterly reports.

Regarding when to respond to brand crises, our results indicate that accommodative response strategies are more protective of marketing assets than defensive ones in all brand crisis instances. However, the ability to recover customer-related marketing assets in benevolence crises is very limited. Since managers are often the ones who instigate (or should at least prevent) such crises, they may be tempted to implement defensive response strategies (Bundy et al., 2017). We advise against such decisions since, in benevolence crises, accommodative response strategies still recover brand-related marketing assets better than defensive ones.

Lastly, the meta-analysis provides relevant implications for policy makers as current legislative frameworks provide substantial leeway for companies to adopt defensive or accommodative response strategies. For instance, firms can choose to delay product recalls during product-harm crises (Eilert, Jayachandran, Kalaignanam, & Swartz, 2017; Yong, Yubo, & Shankar, 2012), refuse to provide appropriate clean-up and restoration following environmental disasters (L. C. Smith, Smith, & Ashcroft, 2011), and resist changing corporate policies in wake of ethical scandals (Zheng, Luo, & Wang, 2014). Moreover, extant research concludes that defensive response strategies are used more frequently than accommodative ones (Arendt et al., 2017; Y. Chen et al., 2009; Claeys & Coombs, 2020). As we find that that there is no difference for shareholder wealth with respect to which response strategy is used, it appears necessary to implement legislative changes that would stimulate or ensure that companies adopt accommodative response strategies by default.

3.5.3 Limitations and future research

This study has some limitations inherent to the meta-analytic methodology, such as the lack of data in primary studies needed to investigate important research questions. These limitations provide new research opportunities and can guide future brand crisis research. For example, recent research on brand sociopolitical activism shows that brands increasingly take sides on sensitive social and political issues (Bhagwat, Warren, Beck, & Watson, 2020; Hydock, Paharia, & Blair, 2020). The recent examples of Target, Nike, and Hobby Lobby show that brand sociopolitical activism can spark controversy, which has detrimental effects on marketing assets (Mukherjee & Althuizen, 2020; Swaminathan et al., 2020). However, response strategies to such crises have yet to be investigated. Sociopolitical brand crises are interesting because there are no obvious victims; rather, any response strategy a brand employs favors one stakeholder group over another. Similarly, research on brands' interventions in social media shows that they are often improvised (Borah, Banerjee, Lin, Jain, & Eisingerich, 2020), which can cause communication failures and trigger social media firestorms (Hansen, Kupfer, & Hennig-Thurau, 2018). As very little research has explored how to manage social media firestorms (c.f., Herhausen et al., 2019), we see many opportunities to broaden our knowledge on the management of such brand crises. The typology of brand crisis response strategies and tactics along with the conceptual model proposed in this paper can serve as a starting point.

Due to data limitations, we could not examine the interplay between different types of response tactics and situational characteristics of a brand crisis. Hence, we call for more research attention to this question, as the findings would extend the theory on brand crisis management and offer crisis managers additional guidance on how to develop more effective response strategies. Future scholars could refer to the typology of brand crisis response strategies and tactics to derive testable predictions about how situational characteristics moderate the effectiveness of different types of response tactics. Although we show that a combination of ceremonial and technical response tactics outperforms any of the two types of tactics alone, one might expect that technical tactics may carry more weight in competence crises, while ceremonial tactics may be more important in a benevolence crisis.

We could not study the dynamics of brand crisis management, which has received very limited research attention (for exceptions, see Borah & Tellis, 2016; Rubel, Naik, & Srinivasan, 2011; H. Van Heerde, Helsen, & Dekimpe, 2007). Although we define brand crises as situations—implying that they have a temporal dimension—the research on response strategies primarily deals with firms' first responses. Hence, the brand crisis management literature would benefit from additional insights on how to combine and employ technical and ceremonial tactics as brand crises evolve. Understanding how to change or adapt the response strategy (e.g., from defensive to accommodative) during a brand crisis is also a promising avenue for future research.

The event studies reviewed in this meta-analysis mostly did not report all of the brand crisis events included in their samples, which prevented us from assessing the possibility of survivor bias. As recent examples of J.C. Penny, Guitar Center, Aunt Jemima, and Uncle Ben's illustrate, brand crises can ultimately result in firm bankruptcy or brand discontinuance. We thus call for more methodological transparency and urge the authors of event studies to report the lists of brand crisis instances they investigate so that future meta-analyses on brand crisis management can investigate this issue empirically. Similarly, the adoption of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies can also be influenced by legal considerations, as firms prefer to "avoid legal liability" (Claeys & Opgenhaffen, 2021, p. 3). Yet, the primary studies integrated in this meta-analysis do not account for this factor. While some qualitative research suggests that accommodative response strategies may be crafted in a way that minimizes the firm's legal liability (Myers, 2016; Patel & Reinsch, 2003), it remains unclear how stakeholders react to such response strategies.

Finally, we see several opportunities to extend our conceptual model. For instance, scholars should investigate the interplay of response strategies and tactics with marketing mix elements. Previous research has established the important roles of advertising and pricing in navigating brand crises (Gao, Xie, Wang, & Wilbur, 2015a; Kübler et al., 2020; Rubel et al., 2011; H. Van Heerde et al., 2007), but little is known about how these marketing mix elements interact with brand crisis response strategies (for an exception, see Cleeren et al., 2013). Similarly, our model could be extended by including the reactions of additional stakeholders. While previous studies have shown that brand crises and response strategies affect employees (Landsman & Stremersch, 2020; von Walter et al., 2016) and the press (Lamin & Zaheer, 2012; Zavyalova et al., 2012), we lack insights regarding the roles of these stakeholder groups in translating brand crisis response strategies into firm performance. Moreover, the roles of certain stakeholder groups, such as non-governmental organizations, in brand crisis management have not received any empirical attention.

GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This dissertation attempted to address four research questions that can reinforce the credibility and relevance of marketing as a business function and scientific discipline. Our philosophical and empirical investigations of these four research questions were guided by the Conceptual model of marketing assets' development and their management during brand crises (Figure 2) that we developed by integrating several theoretical frameworks. We began by noting that conceptual confusion often diminishes the managerial usefulness of marketing scholarship. Building on the premise that construct clarity is essential for a progressive science (i.e., generating useful theories and accumulating knowledge), we devoted the first chapter of the dissertation to the role of construct development and its influence on construct clarity. Drawing on previous research (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Patsiaouras, 2019; Tähtinen & Havila, 2018), which found that construct clarity often diminishes as more research resources are devoted to studying a construct, we developed a literature review methodology that can be used to assess and improve construct clarity. The proposed methodology integrates several existing literature review techniques (i.e., bibliometric review, concept review, umbrella review, and review of measurement instruments) and metatheoretical analysis tools (i.e., ladder of abstraction, theory map, and methodology of scientific research programs). We demonstrated how to use the proposed methodology on the case of PV, which suffers of conceptual confusion from both homonymy and synonymy. By applying the proposed methodology (Figure 4), we were able to reduce the number of alternative conceptualizations of PV from 30 to four (i.e., acquisition value, experiential value, value-in-exchange, and value-in-use). We also developed a typology of four dominant PV conceptualizations which clarifies the construct by providing scholars and managers with definitions, corresponding research questions, and operationalizations for each dominant conceptualization. Furthermore, we identified three questionable conceptualization practices (i.e., construct stretching, construct mixology, and deficient structural validity of higher-order multidimensional conceptualizations) that lead to conceptual confusion in the PV research program.

We also conducted an empirical study with samples of consumers from Slovenia and the US, in which we compared different aspects of construct validity. We found that scales that correspond to different dominant conceptualizations of PV exhibit discriminant validity, which suggests that they represent different phenomena (i.e., use or exchange of offerings and process or outcome of an evaluation). Furthermore, we also found that all four dominant conceptualizations predict managerially relevant outcomes, such as purchase intentions, WTP, and intentions to recommend the brand and help other consumers in obtaining and u sing the brand's offerings. However, the four dominant conceptualizations of PV differed in the degree to which they were able to explain these outcomes. While acquisition value was equally predictive of purchase intentions and WTP as the two more complex conceptualizations (i.e., value-in-exchange and value-in-use), these two conceptualizations were able to explain more variance in intentions to recommend the brand and help other consumers in obtaining and using the brand's offerings.

In the second chapter, we examined consumers' psychological processes that underlie the development of marketing assets. As CMOs need to explain how investments in marketing activities contribute to firm performance (N. A. Morgan et al., 2021), we developed a conceptual model of brand-related marketing asset development and their transformation into customer-related marketing assets. Specifically, by drawing on the impression formation theory (Uleman & Kressel, 2013), we delineated the construct of consumer impressions of a brand from related but distinct constructs of brand stereotypes and brand personality and developed a conceptual model (Figure 12), which relates what consumers know and believe about a brand with customer loyalty. The model predicts that consumers form differentiated (i.e., non-stereotypical) impressions of a brand's warmth based on the information about the brand's treatment of employees (i.e., good employer association), customers (i.e., customer orientation association), and society at large (i.e., social and environmental responsibility association). On the other hand, consumers form impressions of brand's competence based on the information about brand's performance on product/service (i.e., corporate ability association) and financial (i.e., financial performance association) markets. Based on the impression formation theory (Cuddy et al., 2007), we linked warmth and competence impression to brand trust, which in turn enables us to utilize the TVLM (Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002) and include PV as a mediator between brand trust and customer loyalty.

We tested the proposed hypotheses (H1-4 as summarized in Table 24) in three complementary empirical studies. We used experimental methodology in Study 2a to establish the causal effects of brand associations on warmth and competence impressions and the mediating effect of these impressions between corporate associations and brand trust.

In Study 2b, we replicated these effects on a sample of consumers that evaluated real corporate brands. We also extended the findings from Study 2a by showing that consumers rely on multiple dimensions of corporate associations simultaneously to form impressions of warmth and competence. In Study 2c, we replicated the findings of previous two studies and extended them by testing the whole conceptual model from Figure 12. We found that brand trust and PV mediate the effects of brand impressions on customer loyalty and thus found support for the proposed mechanism that transforms brand-related marketing assets into customer-related marketing assets.

In the third chapter, we investigated how to manage brand crises so that they have a minimal negative impact on marketing assets and firm value. Brand crises, such as data breaches, product-harm crises, or endorser scandals, have become more frequent and costlier, making brand crisis management a pressing practical issue. The multidisciplinary and fragmented literature offers mixed empirical results on the effects of the most common brand crisis response options—adopting an accommodative or defensive response strategy—on consumer and investor reactions. We address these research gaps and practical issues and contribute a meta-analysis that integrates more than 800 effect sizes from more than 100 papers examining the effects of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on consumer reactions and firm financial performance. As shown in Table 24, we find mixed empirical support for the some of the predicted main (H5a) and moderating (H7a, H8b, and H9b) effects. Specifically, we find that brand crisis response strategy choice does not have a statistically significant effect on negative customer outcomes. We also find very limited empirical support for the moderating effects on the relationships between response strategies and marketing assets predicted by trust repair theory and empirical support for moderating effects predicted by attribution theory.

Research contributions

This dissertation provides methodological contributions for scholars in social sciences as well as theoretical implications for various streams of marketing literature. For scholars in social sciences, we develop a methodological tool for conceptual clarification, which they can apply to other important constructs that might be suffering from conceptual confusion. We also illustrate which conceptualization practices should not be used if the goal is to maintain construct clarity. When scholars develop new conceptualizations or select an existing conceptualization to represent their phenomenon of interest, they should consider if they are creating or using a compound construct (i.e., a construct created from other pre-existing constructs). If they decide to use a compound conceptualization, they need to theoretically justify why the selected constituent constructs should be combined (Newman et al., 2016). Next, scholars using compound constructs need to follow the procedures of establishing the structural validity of higher-order multidimensional constructs (R. E. Johnson et al., 2012).

Table 24: A summary of hypotheses tested in the dissertation

Hypothesis	**Empirically supported**
H1a: Consumers derive warmth impressions from corporate associations of customer orientation	Yes (Study 2a-c)
H1b: Consumers derive warmth impressions from corporate associations of corporate-social responsibility.	Yes (Study 2a-c)
H1c: Consumers derive warmth impressions from corporate associations of good employer.	Yes (Study 2a-c)
H2a: Consumers derive competence impressions from corporate associations of corporate ability.	Yes (Study 2a-c)
H2b: Consumers derive competence impressions from corporate associations of financial performance.	Yes (Study 2a-c)
H3a: Warmth impression mediates the effects of customer orientation associations on consumer trust.	Yes (Study 2a-c)
H3b: Warmth impression mediates the effects of corporate-social responsibility associations on consumer trust.	Yes (Study 2b-c)
H3c: Warmth impression mediates the effects of good employer associations on consumer trust.	Yes (Study 2b-c)
H3d: Competence impression mediates the effects of corporate ability associations on consumer trust.	Yes (Study 2b-c)
H3e: Competence impression mediates the effects of financial performance associations on consumer trust.	Yes (Study 2b-c)
H4a: Brand trust and perceived value mediate the indirect effect of warmth impression on customer loyalty.	Yes (Study 2c)
H4b: Brand trust and perceived value mediate the indirect effect of competence impressions on customer loyalty.	Yes (Study 2c)
H5a: An accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy has negative effects on negative customer outcomes.	No (Study 3)
H5b: An accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy has positive effects on brand-related marketing assets.	Yes (Study 3)
H5c: An accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy has positive effects on customer-related marketing assets.	Yes (Study 3)
H6a: The positive effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are smaller when the accommodative response strategy is implemented only with ceremonial tactics and larger when the accommodative response strategy is implemented with a combination of both ceremonial and technical tactics (baseline).	Yes (Study 3)
H6b: The positive effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are smaller when the accommodative response strategy is implemented only with technical tactics and larger when the accommodative response strategy is implemented with a combination of both ceremonial and technical tactics (baseline).	Yes (Study 3)
H7a: The effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are negative in benevolence crises.	No (Study 3)
H7b: The effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are positive in competence crises.	Yes (Study 3)

(table continues)

(continued)

H8a: The effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are positive in brand crises with an internal locus of causality.	Yes (Study 3)
H8b: The effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are negative in brand crises with an external locus of causality.	No (Study 3)
H9a: The effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are positive in controllable brand crises.	Yes (Study 3)
H9b: The effects of an accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy on marketing assets are negative in uncontrollable brand crises.	No (Study 3)
H10a: An accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy has a direct negative effect on firm performance.	Yes (Study 3)
H10b: An accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy has an indirect positive effect on firm performance, which is mediated by negative customer outcomes, brand-related marketing assets, and customer-related marketing assets.	Yes (Study 3)

Source: Own work.

We offer several contributions to the vast literature on PV. First, we review and integrate four sub streams of PV literature in a theoretical typology of PV (Table 3), which can inform and guide future research. It clearly distinguishes the characteristics of four dominant conceptualizations of PV (i.e., acquisition value, experiential value, value-in-exchange, and value-in-use) and acknowledges that these four dominant conceptualizations represent distinct phenomena (i.e., outcomes vs. processes and use vs. exchange) related to consumer evaluation of marketing offerings. By proposing specific definitions of four dominant conceptualizations of PV and elaborating their boundary conditions (Table 3) as well as their relationships with other constructs in the theory map of PV (Figure 9), we reduce the conceptual confusion of the PV research program (Suddaby, 2010). Second, we develop a concept map of PV (Figure 7) and arrange extant conceptualizations with measurement scales on the ladder of abstraction (Figure 8). The former can serve as a guide to meta-analytical integration of the PV research stream, while the latter may guide PV scholars in selecting more progressive conceptualizations and measurement instruments for their substantive research applications. Third, we provide a graphical reconstruction of the PV research program (Figure 10), which can theoretically inform future research on PV and may serve as a common ground to integrate different epistemological perspectives on PV (Zeithaml et al., 2020b). Fourth, we develop a theory map of PV (Figure 9), which integrates the PV construct into a broader customer value theory (Kumar, 2018a; Kumar & Reinartz, 2016). Lastly, our empirical comparison of the four dominant conceptualizations of PV provides the first evidence in support of the proposed theoretical typology and shows that more complex conceptualizations of PV do not necessarily lead to better predictive validity.

We also extend theory on branding and consumer-brand relationships. First, we provide a conceptualization of brand impressions, which is derived from rich body of psychological research on impression formation and advances our knowledge on how consumers perceive brands. It has the potential to unify several research streams that have developed around constructs that include dimensions corresponding to judgments of warmth and competence (e.g., brand trust, brand personality, corporate reputation, and brand image). Second, our conceptualization of brand impressions improves the clarity of this construct by clearly distinguishing between individuated/differentiated and categorical/stereotypical impressions. Third, by linking more abstract impressions of warmth and competence to specific dimensions of brand associations, we provide a more precise theoretical account of how to grow the strength of brand-related marketing assets in a psychological sense (Edeling & Fischer, 2016). Fourth, the conceptual model that we developed (Figure 12) also explains how brand-related marketing assets become customer-related marketing assets, which advances the knowledge on consumer-brand relationships (Albert & Thomson, 2018; Fetscherin et al., 2019; Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015; Khamitov et al., 2019).

Furthermore, we provide theoretical and methodological contributions to multidisciplinary literature on crisis management and marketing-finance interface. Methodologically, the meta-analysis shows that crisis management scholars may use fictitious crisis stimuli as these produce similar effect sizes as real ones. We also find that consumers react to brand crisis management strategies irrespective of their origin and we do not detect any publication bias. Theoretically, our meta-analysis introduces the marketing–finance value chain as a useful model allowing the simultaneous investigation of effects of response strategies on various constructs representing brand- and customer-related marketing assets as well as firm's financial performance. The results show that existing brand crisis management models that rely on specific theories to explain the effects of response strategies on marketing assets (trust repair theory or attribution theory) and firm performance (the efficient market hypothesis or signaling theory) offer only partial insights and unwarranted propositions. Through moderation and mediation analyses, we demonstrate that models that combine existing brand crisis management models provide a better explanation of how and when brand crisis response strategies work. Next, we develop a typology of brand crisis response strategies and tactics (Table 20), which can guide future research on brand crisis management. The results of moderation analyses support basic propositions of our typology and thus present its initial empirical validation. We also provide the first meta-analytic evidence of mediating roles of brand-related and customer-related marketing assets in transferring the positive effects of marketing investments and actions into firm value. Therefore, we answer the calls to demonstrate the economic value of marketing (Edeling et al., 2021; Hanssens & Pauwels, 2016).

In summary, this dissertation offers numerous conceptual contributions to marketing discipline. MacInnis (2011) developed a framework for conceptual contributions in marketing, which distinguished between types of *conceptual contributions* (i.e., envisioning, explicating, relating, and debating) and entities (i.e., constructs, theories, domains, disciplines, and science) around which conceptual contributions can be made. Table 25 summarizes the conceptual contributions of the dissertation. The first type of conceptual contributions refers to *envisioning*, which occur through *identifying* "a construct, theory, procedure, domain, discipline, or aspect of science that has yet to be apprehended or given serious study" as well as through *revising*, "reconfiguring or taking a novel perspective on something that has already been identified" (MacInnis, 2011, p. 143). Building on theories of impression formation, this dissertation identifies the construct of differentiated (i.e., non-stereotypical) brand impressions of warmth and competence as important constructs that facilitate transformation of brand-related marketing assets into customer-related marketing assets. Moreover, our theoretical typology of perceived value (Table 3) revises this fundamental domain of marketing as a scientific discipline.

Table 25: A summary of dissertation's conceptual contributions

General conceptual goal / Entities around which conceptualization occurs	**Envisioning**	**Explicating**	**Relating**	**Debating**
Constructs (measurable theoretical concepts)	Differentiated brand impressions	Perceived value – concept map	Hierarchy of organizational crisis constructs	Accommodative vs. defensive brand crisis response strategies
Relationships/theories (linkages among constructs)	Marketing assets development	Brand impression formation	Typology of brand crisis response strategies and tactics	Marketing-finance value chain
Procedures (ways of conducting research)	/	/	Literature review methodology for conceptual clarification	/
Domains (areas of study that include constructs, theories, and procedures)	Perceived value - theoretical typology	Perceived value - research program reconstruction	/	/
Disciplines (collections of domains that specify what a discipline studies)	/	/	Meta-analysis of brand crisis response strategies	/

Source: Adapted from MacInnis (2011).

The second type of conceptual contribution refers to explicating, which can be achieved either through delineating, which "entails the goal of detailing, articulating, charting, describing, or depicting an entity" and/or through summarizing, which entails "digesting, recapping, and reducing what is known to a manageable set of key takeaways" (MacInnis, 2011, p. 144). An example of explicating a domain through delineation is our depiction of reconstructed research program of perceived value (Figure 10) which details its four spheres (i.e., hard core, protective belt, middle-range theories, and working hypotheses). This dissertation also provides conceptual contributions in terms of summarizing. For example, we reduce 30 alternative conceptualizations of PV (Table 1) into four dominant conceptualizations (Figure 7 and Table 3). Another example of a conceptual contribution based on summarization is our theoretical elaboration of specific antecedents of differentiated impressions of brand competence and warmth (Figure 12).

The third type of conceptual contributions refers to *relating*, which is done by *differentiating* that "involves conceptual advances that add insight by distinguishing, parsing, dimensionalizing, classifying, or categorizing an entity (e.g., construct, theory, domain) under study" and/or by *integrating*, which "draws connections between previously differentiated phenomena, finding a novel, simplified, and higher-order perspective on how these entities are related" (MacInnis, 2011, pp. 145-146). The hierarchy of organizational crisis constructs (Figure 1) offers a conceptual contribution as it differentiates brand crisis constructs from other related constructs, such as marketing crisis or reputational crisis. The hierarchy (Figure 1) also provides a conceptual contribution in regards to integrating as it demonstrates how distinct brand crisis instances, such as data breaches, product-harm crises, and ethical scandals, correspond to definition of a brand crisis. Moreover, the proposed methodology for conceptual clarification can be seen as a conceptual contribution as it integrates different tools and techniques into a more comprehensive procedure for literature reviews. Finally, our meta-analysis of outcomes of brand crisis response strategies (Chapter 3) secures a conceptual contribution as it integrates effect sizes from several disciplines (e.g., marketing, finance, management).

The last type of conceptual contributions refers to *debating*, which can be established by *advocating* that "involves argumentation to justify or support a given conclusion" and/or *refuting* that "involves argumentation aimed at rebutting, challenging, disputing, or contesting a given perspective" (MacInnis, 2011, p. 147). This dissertation secures a conceptual contribution in form of advocating as it provides the first meta-analytical evidence in support of propositions of marketing-finance value chain models, which suggest that marketing assets mediate the effects of marketing strategies on firm value. Furthermore, the meta-analytical findings also offer a conceptual contribution as it refutes the proposition that accommodative (vs. defensive) brand crisis response strategies have positive effects on marketing assets and negative effects on firm value (Cleeren et al., 2017).

Practical implications

For marketing practitioners, the findings of this dissertation show that they can rely on simple and short scales to measure PV of their brands, when the goal is to predict the transactional outcomes, such as WTP and purchase intentions. However, if they wish to predict non-transactional customer engagement outcomes (e.g., PWOM), they should consider using longer measurement scales and specify more complex measurement models.

Furthermore, we identify the strategic areas (e.g., social and environmental responsibility and offering quality) that marketing practitioners need to invest in and communicate about in order to foster favorable impressions of their brand's warmth and competence. We also show that both warmth and competence impressions are equally important predictors of brand trust, which together with PV mediates their effects on customer loyalty. Marketing practitioners should therefore pay attention to both warmth and competence dimensions (and their respective antecedents) as brand impressions play a crucial role in transforming brand-related marketing assets into customer-related marketing assets. Furthermore, marketing practitioners can use the findings from this dissertation to justify investments in different areas of brand's impact on various stakeholders (e.g., employees, customers, local communities) and in improvements of performance of their offerings, which should establish and/or reinforce respective brand associations and trigger the chain of effects from brand associations to brand impressions, trust, value, and loyalty.

Lastly, the dissertation offers recommendation to brand crisis managers on how to respond to brand crises. The meta-analysis challenges the common practice of using defensive response strategies more often than accommodative ones, as the results suggest that the latter are more protective of firms' marketing assets. Moreover, our results suggest that accommodative response strategies outperform defensive ones irrespective of the situational characteristics of a brand crisis. However, the effects of response strategies on marketing assets are minimal in benevolence crises, which indicates that prevention is the only cure for ethical and moral violations. Meta-analytic findings also reveal that accommodative response strategies are more effective when managers attempt to address both the psychological (e.g., distress) and substantive (e.g., defective products) harm with ceremonial and technical tactics, which has important implications for design and implementation of effective accommodative response strategies.

Limitations and future research

Any newly developed methodology or a set of empirical studies have inherent limitations, which should be addressed by future research. We discussed the limitations of each study in their respective chapters, so we just briefly summarize the opportunities for future research that stem from the limitations of this dissertation. Firstly, the proposed literature review methodology for conceptual clarification is particularly suitable for constructs that represent and measure phenomena in the phenomenological world, and are in the state of permanent competition or fragmentation (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020). Therefore, future research should attempt to incorporate other techniques, such as case studies, into the proposed methodology for conceptual clarification in order to make it applicable also for constructs that are not measured psychometrically. Moreover, the proposed typology was tested only on two samples and with one measurement scale for each dominant conceptualization of PV. Therefore, we call for additional empirical research to examine the proposed typology of PV, which can be tested in several ways. Firstly, scholars should establish the convergent validity of various scales that correspond to each dominant conceptualization of PV (see Figure 7). Second, future demonstrations of discriminant validity among measurement scales that represent distinct dominant conceptualizations of PV would additionally reinforce the proposed typology. Third, more empirical research is needed to examine the predictive validity of dominant conceptualizations of PV. Meta-analysis would be the best methodological approach to systematically contrast the explanatory power of dominant PV conceptualizations.

Furthermore, although we successfully replicated the results related to mediating role of warmth and competence impressions in transferring the effects of brand associations on brand trust using both experimental and cross-sectional data, these processes imply temporal dynamics (including feedback loops), which we could not study. Therefore, future research should use panel data to test the model we developed in Figure 12. Moreover, we decided to focus only on the formation of individuated impressions of warmth and competence because they represent a way to establish differentiated brand-related marketing assets. However, our theoretical elaboration of differences between individuated and stereotypical impression provides a solid ground for future research so systematically explore differences in variation of brand warmth and competence impressions due to categorical and individuating processes. The proposed model (Figure 12) was developed particularly for corporate brands and we thus see great potential for future research to adapt it to other types (e.g., product) brands.

Lastly, the meta-analysis of brand crisis response strategies is limited by the quality of primary empirical studies and the relationships and brand crisis circumstances that were examined in the literature. In the moderator analysis and supplemental analyses, we investigated the methodological soundness (e.g., publication bias and types of crisis stimuli used) and did not detect any issues. However, we were not able to study the management of certain types of brand crises, such as those that are due to brand taking a stance on a sensitive political issue, as well as dynamic aspects of brand crisis response strategies. Therefore, we see great potential for future research on brand crisis management to (1) investigate novel brand crisis instances, (2) examine the temporal dynamics and interplay of brand crisis response strategies or tactics and elements of marketing mix, such as price and promotion, and (3) to incorporate reactions of additional stakeholders, such as media and non-governmental organizations, in the conceptual model presented in Figure 13. The proposed typology of brand crisis response strategies and tactics (Table 20) can guide theoretical extensions of the conceptual model and inform future empirical investigations.

REFERENCE LIST

1. Aaker, D. A. (1991). *Managing brand equity : Capitalizing on the value of a brand name*. New York [N.Y.]: Free Press.
2. Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. *Journal of Marketing Research, 34*(3), 347-356.
3. Aaker, J. L., Garbinsky, E. N., & Vohs, K. (2012). Cultivating admiration in brands: Warmth, competence, and landing in the “golden quadrant”. *Journal of consumer psychology, 22*(2), 191-194.
4. Aaker, J. L., Vohs, K., & Mogilner, C. (2010). Nonprofits are seen as warm and for-profits as competent: Firm stereotypes matter. *Journal of Consumer Research, 37*(2), 224-237.
5. Abbey, J. D., & Meloy, M. G. (2017). Attention by design: Using attention checks to detect inattentive respondents and improve data quality. *Journal of Operations Management*, *53-56*, 63-70.
6. Abele, A. E., Cuddy, A. J. C., Judd, C. M., & Yzerbyt, V. Y. (2008). Fundamental dimensions of social judgment. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 38*(7), 1063-1065.
7. Abele, A. E., Ellemers, N., Fiske, S. T., Koch, A., & Yzerbyt, V. (2020). Navigating the social world: Toward an integrated framework for evaluating self, individuals, and groups. *Psychological Review*, *128*(2), 290-314.
8. Agarwal, J., Osiyevskyy, O., & Feldman, P. M. (2015). Corporate reputation measurement: Alternative factor structures, nomological validity, and organizational outcomes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *130*(2), 485-506.
9. Aguinis, H., Banks, G. C., Rogelberg, S. G., & Cascio, W. F. (2020). Actionable recommendations for narrowing the science-practice gap in open science. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *158*, 27-35.
10. Aguinis, H., & Bradley, K. J. (2014). Best practice recommendations for designing and implementing experimental vignette methodology studies. *Organizational Research Methods*, *17*(4), 351-371.
11. Aguinis, H., Ramani, R. S., & Alabduljader, N. (2017). What you see is what you get? Enhancing methodological transparency in management research. *Academy of Management Annals*, *12*(1), 83-110.
12. Aguinis, H., Ramani, R. S., & Alabduljader, N. (2020). Best-practice recommendations for producers, evaluators, and users of methodological literature reviews. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1094428120943281.
13. Agustin, C., & Singh, J. (2005). Curvilinear effects of consumer loyalty determinants in relational exchanges. *Journal of Marketing Research, 42*(1), 96-108.
14. Ahearne, M., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Gruen, T. (2005). Antecedents and consequences of customer-company identification: Expanding the role of relationship marketing. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(3), 574-585.
15. Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), 179-211.
16. Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1969). The prediction of behavioral intentions in a choice situation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 5*(4), 400-416.

17. Akaka, M. A., Vargo, S. L., Nariswari, A., & O'Brien, M. (2021). Microfoundations for macromarketing: A metatheoretical lens for bridging the micro-macro divide. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 02761467211054349.
18. Alba, J. W. (2011). In defense of bumbling. *Journal of Consumer Research, 38*(6), 981-987.
19. Alba, J. W., & Williams, E. F. (2013). Pleasure principles: A review of research on hedonic consumption. *Journal of consumer psychology, 23*(1), 2-18.
20. Albert, N., Merunka, D., & Valette-Florence, P. (2008). When consumers love their brands: Exploring the concept and its dimensions. *Journal of Business Research, 61*(10), 1062-1075.
21. Albert, N., Merunka, D., & Valette-Florence, P. (2009). The feeling of love toward a brand: Concept and measurement. *Advances in Consumer Research, 36*, 300-307.
22. Albert, N., & Thomson, M. (2018). A synthesis of the consumer-brand relationship domain: Using text mining to track research streams, describe their emotional associations, and identify future research priorities. *Journal of the Association for Consumer Research, 3*(2), 130-146.
23. Alexandrov, A., Lilly, B., & Babakus, E. (2013). The effects of social- and self-motives on the intentions to share positive and negative word of mouth. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 41*(5), 531-546.
24. Allport, G. W. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Garden City: Doubleday.
25. Almquist, E., Cleghorn, J., & Sherer, L. (2018). The b2b elements of value. *Harvard Business Review, 96*(2), 72-81.
26. Almquist, E., Senior, J., & Bloch, N. (2016). The elements of value. *Harvard Business Review, 94*(9), 46-92.
27. Alniacik, E., Alniacik, U., & Erdogmus, N. (2012). How do the dimensions of corporate reputation affect employment intentions? *Corporate Reputation Review, 15*(1), 3-19.
28. Alves, H. (2011). The measurement of perceived value in higher education: A unidimensional approach. *The Service Industries Journal, 31*(12), 1943-1960.
29. Alves, H., Fernandes, C., & Raposo, M. (2016). Value co-creation: Concept and contexts of application and study. *Journal of Business Research, 69*(5), 1626-1633.
30. Ambler, T., Bhattacharya, C. B., Edell, J., Keller, K. L., Lemon, K. N., & Mittal, V. (2002). Relating brandand customer perspectives on marketing management. *Journal of Service Research, 5*(1), 13-25.
31. American Marketing Association. (2017). Definition of marketing. Retrieved 5.9.2018, from https://www.ama.org/AboutAMA/Pages/Definition-of-Marketing.aspx
32. An, S.-K., Park, D.-J., Cho, S., & Berger, B. (2010). A cross-cultural study of effective organizational crisis response strategy in the united states and south korea. *International Journal of Strategic Communication, 4*(4), 225-243.
33. Anderson, P. F. (1983). Marketing, scientific progress, and scientific method. *Journal of Marketing, 47*(4), 18-31.
34. Antonetti, P., & Baghi, I. (2019). When blame-giving crisis communications are persuasive: A dual-influence model and its boundary conditions. *Journal of Business Ethics, 172*(7), 59–78.
35. Antonetti, P., & Baghi, I. (2021). How the sender’s positioning and the target’s csr record influence the effectiveness of scapegoating crisis communications. *Marketing Letters, 32*(4), 411-423.
36. Antonetti, P., & Valor, C. (2021). A theorisation of discrete emotion spillovers: An empirical test for anger. *Journal of Marketing Management, 37*(7-8), 599-625.
37. Appadurai, A. (1986). *The social life of things : Commodities in cultural perspective*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

38. Arendt, C., LaFleche, M., & Limperopulos, M. A. (2017). A qualitative meta-analysis of apologia, image repair, and crisis communication: Implications for theory and practice. *Public Relations Review, 43*(3), 517-526.
39. Arndt, J. (1978). How broad should the marketing concept be?: Should it be developed into a full-fledged behavioral science? *Journal of Marketing, 42*(1), 101-103.
40. Arndt, J. (1985). On making marketing science more scientific: Role of orientations, paradigms, metaphors, and puzzle solving. *Journal of Marketing, 49*(3), 11-23.
41. Arnould, E. J., & Thompson, C. J. (2005). Consumer culture theory (cct): Twenty years of research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 31*(4), 868-882.
42. Arnulf, J. K., Dysvik, A., & Larsen, K. R. (2019). Measuring semantic components in training and motivation: A methodological introduction to the semantic theory of survey response. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 30*(1), 17-38.
43. Arnulf, J. K., Larsen, K. R., Martinsen, Ø. L., & Bong, C. H. (2014). Predicting survey responses: How and why semantics shape survey statistics on organizational behaviour. *PLOS ONE, 9*(9), e106361.
44. Arpan, L. M., & Roskos-Ewoldsen, D. R. (2005). Stealing thunder: Analysis of the effects of proactive disclosure of crisis information. *Public Relations Review, 31*(3), 425-433.
45. Arthaud-Day, M. L., Certo, S. T., Dalton, C. M., & Dalton, D. R. (2006). A changing of the guard: Executive and director turnover following corporate financial restatements. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*(6), 1119-1136.
46. Ashley, C., Noble, S. M., Donthu, N., & Lemon, K. N. (2011). Why customers won't relate: Obstacles to relationship marketing engagement. *Journal of Business Research, 64*(7), 749-756.
47. Ashraf, A. R., & Thongpapanl, N. (2015). Connecting with and converting shoppers into customers: Investigating the role of regulatory fit in the online customer's decision-making process. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 32*, 13-25.
48. Aurier, P., & N'Goala, G. (2010). The differing and mediating roles of trust and relationship commitment in service relationship maintenance and development. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 38*(3), 303-325.
49. Avis, M., Forbes, S., & Ferguson, S. (2013). The brand personality of rocks: A critical evaluation of a brand personality scale. *Marketing Theory, 14*(4), 451-475.
50. Avis, M., & Henderson, I. L. (2022). A solution to the problem of brand definition. *European Journal of Marketing, 56*(2), 351-374.
51. Ayaburi, E. W., & Treku, D. N. (2020). Effect of penitence on social media trust and privacy concerns: The case of facebook. *International Journal of Information Management, 50*, 171-181.
52. Baalbaki, S., & Guzmán, F. (2016). A consumer-perceived consumer-based brand equity scale. *Journal of Brand Management, 23*(3), 229-251.
53. Babin, B. J., Darden, W. R., & Griffin, M. (1994). Work and/or fun: Measuring hedonic and utilitarian shopping value. *Journal of Consumer Research, 20*(4), 644-656.
54. Babin, B. J., & Krey, N. (2020). Meta-analytic evidence on personal shopping value. *Recherche et Applications en Marketing (English Edition), 35*(3), 124-132.
55. Babin, B. J., Ortinau, D. J., Herrmann, J.-L., & Lopez, C. (2021). Science is about corroborating empirical evidence, even in academic business research journals. *Journal of Business Research, 126*, 504-511.
56. Backhaus, M., & Fischer, M. (2016). Brand damage from product harm and corporate social irresponsibility: How deep and how long. *Marketing Science Institute Working Paper Series, 16*(133), 1-63.

57. Bages-Amat, A., Harrison, L., Spillecke, D., & Stanley, J. (2020). These eight charts show how covid-19 has changed b2b sales forever. *McKinsey Insights*. https://www.mckinsey.com/business-functions/marketing-and-sales/our-insights/these-eight-charts-show-how-covid-19-has-changed-b2b-sales-forever
58. Bagozzi, R. P. (1975). Marketing as exchange. *Journal of Marketing, 39*(4), 32-39.
59. Bagozzi, R. P. (1984). A prospectus for theory construction in marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 48*(1), 11-29.
60. Bagozzi, R. P. (2011). Measurement and meaning in information systems and organizational research: Methodological and philosophical foundations. *MIS Quarterly, 35*(2), 261-292.
61. Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P. U. (1999). The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(2), 184-206.
62. Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (2012). Specification, evaluation, and interpretation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 40*(1), 8-34.
63. Baker, J., Parasuraman, A., Grewal, D., & Voss, G. B. (2002). The influence of multiple store environment cues on perceived merchandise value and patronage intentions. *Journal of Marketing, 66*(2), 120-141.
64. Balis, J. (2021). 10 truths about marketing after the pandemic. *Harvard Business Review Digital Articles*, 1-11.
65. Banks, G. C., O'Boyle, E. H., Pollack, J. M., White, C. D., Batchelor, J. H., Whelpley, C. E., . . . Adkins, C. L. (2015). Questions about questionable research practices in the field of management: A guest commentary. *Journal of Management*, *42*(1), 5-20.
66. Bansal, P., & Song, H.-C. (2016). Similar but not the same: Differentiating corporate sustainability from corporate responsibility. *Academy of Management Annals*, *11*(1), 105-149.
67. Barbarossa, C., & Mandler, T. (2020). Not all wrongdoers are equal in the public eye: A moderated mediation model of country stereotypes, condemning emotions, and retaliatory intent in corporate crises. *Journal of International Marketing*, *29*(2), 26-44.
68. Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, *17*(1), 99-120.
69. Barroso Castro, C., Cepeda-Carrión, G., & Martelo Landroguez, S. (2013). Developing an integrated vision of customer value. *Journal of Services Marketing, 27*(3), 234-244.
70. Bartels, R. (1951). Can marketing be a science? *Journal of Marketing*, *15*(3), 319-328.
71. Bartunek, J. M., & Spreitzer, G. M. (2006). The interdisciplinary career of a popular construct used in management: Empowerment in the late 20th century. *Journal of Management Inquiry, 15*(3), 255-273.
72. Batra, R., & Ahtola, O. T. (1991). Measuring the hedonic and utilitarian sources of consumer attitudes. *Marketing Letters, 2*(2), 159-170.
73. Batra, R., Ahuvia, A., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2012). Brand love. *Journal of Marketing*, *76*(2), 1-16.
74. Baudrillard, J. (1981). *For a critique of the political economy of the sign*. St. Louis: Telos Press.
75. Baumgartner, H., & Pieters, R. (2003). The structural influence of marketing journals: A citation analysis of the discipline and its subareas over time. *Journal of Marketing*, *67*(2), 123-139.
76. Baumgartner, H., & Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M. (1998). Assessing measurement invariance in cross-national consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 25*(1), 78-90.
77. Baumgartner, H., & Weijters, B. (2019). Measurement in marketing. *Foundations and Trends® in Marketing, 12*(4), 278-400.

78. Béal, M., & Grégoire, Y. (2021). How do observers react to companies’ humorous responses to online public complaints? *Journal of Service Research, 25*(2), 242-259.
79. Beldad, A. D., van Laar, E., & Hegner, S. M. (2018). Should the shady steal thunder? The effects of crisis communication timing, pre-crisis reputation valence, and crisis type on post-crisis organizational trust and purchase intention. *Journal of Contingencies & Crisis Management, 26*(1), 150-163.
80. Belk, R. W. (1988). Possessions and the extended self. *Journal of Consumer Research, 15*(2), 139-168.
81. Bendig, D., Willmann, D., Strese, S., & Brettel, M. (2018). Share repurchases and myopia: Implications on the stock and consumer markets. *Journal of Marketing, 82*(2), 19-41.
82. Bendle, N. T., & Butt, M. N. (2018). The misuse of accounting-based approximations of tobin’s q in a world of market-based assets. *Marketing Science, 37*(3), 484-504.
83. Bendle, N. T., & Wang, X. (2017). Marketing accounts. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 34*(3), 604-621.
84. Benoit, W. L. (2014). *Accounts, excuses, and apologies: Image repair theory and research*: SUNY Press.
85. Benoit, W. L. (2018). Crisis and image repair at united airlines: Fly the unfriendly skies. *Journal of International Crisis and Risk Communication Research, 1*(1), 11-26.
86. Bergh, D. D., Aguinis, H., Heavey, C., Ketchen, D. J., Boyd, B. K., Su, P., . . . Joo, H. (2016). Using meta-analytic structural equation modeling to advance strategic management research: Guidelines and an empirical illustration via the strategic leadership-performance relationship. *Strategic Management Journal, 37*(3), 477-497.
87. Bergkvist, L. (2020). Preregistration as a way to limit questionable research practice in advertising research. *International Journal of Advertising, 39*(7), 1172-1180.
88. Bergkvist, L., & Eisend, M. (2020). The dynamic nature of marketing constructs. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 49*(3), 521–541.
89. Bergkvist, L., & Langner, T. (2019). Construct heterogeneity and proliferation in advertising research. *International Journal of Advertising, 38*(8), 1286-1302.
90. Bernritter, S. F., Verlegh, P. W. J., & Smit, E. G. (2016). Why nonprofits are easier to endorse on social media: The roles of warmth and brand symbolism. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 33*, 27-42.
91. Bhagwat, Y., Warren, N. L., Beck, J. T., & Watson, G. F. (2020). Corporate sociopolitical activism and firm value. *Journal of Marketing, 84*(5), 1-21.
92. Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2003a). Consumer-company identification: A framework for understanding consumers' relationships with companies. *Journal of Marketing, 67*(2), 76-88.
93. Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2003b). Consumer–company identification: A framework for understanding consumers’ relationships with companies. *Journal of Marketing, 67*(2), 76-88.
94. Biehl, M., Kim, H., & Wade, M. (2006). Relationships among the academic business disciplines: A multi-method citation analysis. *Omega, 34*(4), 359-371.
95. Bijmolt, T. H. A., & Pieters, R. G. M. (2001). Meta-analysis in marketing when studies contain multiple measurements. *Marketing Letters, 12*(2), 157-169.
96. Bisbe, J., Batista-Foguet, J.-M., & Chenhall, R. (2007). Defining management accounting constructs: A methodological note on the risks of conceptual misspecification. *Accounting, Organizations and Society, 32*(7), 789-820.
97. Bitner, M. J. (1992). Servicescapes: The impact of physical surroundings on customers and employees. *Journal of Marketing, 56*(2), 57-71.

98. Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York; London; Sydney: John Wiley & Sons,Inc.
99. Blut, M., Chowdhry, N., Mittal, V., & Brock, C. (2015). E-service quality: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Retailing, 91*(4), 679-700.
100. Blut, M., Wang, C., Wünderlich, N. V., & Brock, C. (2021). Understanding anthropomorphism in service provision: A meta-analysis of physical robots, chatbots, and other ai. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 49*(4), 632-658.
101. Boksberger, P. E., & Melsen, L. (2011). Perceived value: A critical examination of definitions, concepts and measures for the service industry. *Journal of Services Marketing, 25*(3), 229-240.
102. Bolton, L. E., & Mattila, A. S. (2015). How does corporate social responsibility affect consumer response to service failure in buyer–seller relationships? *Journal of Retailing, 91*(1), 140-153.
103. Bolton, R. N. (2020). First steps to creating high impact theory in marketing. *AMS Review, 10*(3), 172-178.
104. Bolton, R. N., & Drew, J. H. (1991). A multistage model of customers' assessments of service quality and value. *Journal of Consumer Research, 17*(4), 375-384.
105. Borah, A., Banerjee, S., Lin, Y., Jain, A., & Eisingerich, A. B. (2020). Improvised marketing interventions in social media. *Journal of Marketing, 84*(2), 69-91.
106. Borah, A., & Tellis, G. J. (2016). Halo (spillover) effects in social media: Do product recalls of one brand hurt or help rival brands? *Journal of Marketing Research, 53*(2), 143-160.
107. Borsboom, D. (2008). Latent variable theory. *Measurement: Interdisciplinary Research and Perspectives, 6*(1-2), 25-53.
108. Borsboom, D., van der Maas, H. L. J., Dalege, J., Kievit, R. A., & Haig, B. D. (2021). Theory construction methodology: A practical framework for building theories in psychology. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 16*(4), 756-766.
109. Bortoli, L. V., & Freundt, V. (2017). Effects of voluntary product recall on consumer's trust. *Brazilian Business Review (Portuguese Edition), 14*(2), 204-224.
110. Boston Consulting Group. (2022). Cmo agenda. Retrieved 22.22022, from https://www.bcg.com/capabilities/marketing-sales/cmo-agenda
111. Boulding, W., & Kirmani, A. (1993). A consumer-side experimental examination of signaling theory: Do consumers perceive warranties as signals of quality? *Journal of Consumer Research, 20*(1), 111-123.
112. Bourdieu, P. (1997). *Outline of a theory of practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
113. Bowen, M., Freidank, J., Wannow, S., & Cavallone, M. (2018). Effect of perceived crisis response on consumers' behavioral intentions during a company scandal – an intercultural perspective. *Journal of International Management, 24*(3), 222-237.
114. Boyer, L. P. (2002). *Extending the crisis -management response repertoire: Using impression management, attribution, and public relations theories to help deal with organizational threats.* (3083973 Ph.D.), University of Florida, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/305577631?accountid=16468 ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.

115. Bradford, J. L., & Garrett, D. E. (1995). The effectiveness of corporate communicative responses to accusations of unethical behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics, 14*(11), 875-892.

116. Bradley, G. T., & LaFleur, E. K. (2016). Toward the development of hedonic-utilitarian measures of retail service. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 32*, 60-66.
117. Brady, M., Knight, G., Cronin, J. J., Tomas, G., Hult, M., & Keillor, B. (2005). Removing the contextual lens: A multinational, multi-setting comparison of service evaluation models. *Journal of Retailing, 81*(3), 215-230.
118. 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.
119. Brambilla, M., Rusconi, P., Sacchi, S., & Cherubini, P. (2011). Looking for honesty: The primary role of morality (vs. Sociability and competence) in information gathering. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 41*(2), 135-143.
120. Bravo, R., Montaner, T., & Pina, J. M. (2010). Corporate brand image in retail banking: Development and validation of a scale. *The Service Industries Journal, 30*(8), 1199-1218.
121. Brenner, M. (2022). Top 10 skills every cmo needs. *Marketing Insider*. https://marketinginsidergroup.com/content-marketing/top-10-skills-every-future-cmo-will-need/
122. Breslin, D., & Bailey, K. (2020). Expanding the conversation through 'debate essays' and 'review methodology' papers. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 22*(3), 219-221.
123. Brewer, M. B. (1988). A dual process model of impression formation. In T. K. Srull & R. S. Wyer Jr (Eds.), *Advances in social cognition* (pp. 1-36). Hillsdale, NJ, US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
124. Brexendorf, T. O., Bayus, B., & Keller, K. L. (2015). Understanding the interplay between brand and innovation management: Findings and future research directions. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43*(5), 548-557.
125. Brown, K. A., & White, C. L. (2010). Organization-public relationships and crisis response strategies: Impact on attribution of responsibility. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 23*(1), 75-92.
126. Brown, T. J. (1998). Corporate associations in marketing: Antecedents and consequences. *Corporate Reputation Review, 1*(3), 215-233.
127. Brown, T. J., & Dacin, P. A. (1997). The company and the product: Corporate associations and consumer product responses. *Journal of Marketing, 61*(1), 68-84.
128. Brown, T. J., Dacin, P. A., Pratt, M. G., & Whetten, D. A. (2006). Identity, intended image, construed image, and reputation: An interdisciplinary framework and suggested terminology. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 34*(2), 99.
129. Brühl, R., Basel, J. S., & Kury, M. F. (2018). Communication after an integrity-based trust violation: How organizational account giving affects trust. *European Management Journal, 36*(2), 161-170.
130. Brymer, R. A., Chadwick, C., Hill, A. D., & Molloy, J. C. (2018). Pipelines and their portfolios: A more holistic view of human capital heterogeneity via firm-wide employee sourcing. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 33*(2), 207-233.
131. Bufquin, D., DiPietro, R., Orlowski, M., & Partlow, C. (2017). The influence of restaurant co-workers' perceived warmth and competence on employees' turnover intentions: The mediating role of job attitudes. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 60*, 13-22.
132. Bundy, J., & Pfarrer, M. D. (2015). A burden of responsibility: The role of social approval at the onset of a crisis. *Academy of Management Review, 40*(3), 345-369.

133. Bundy, J., Pfarrer, M. D., Short, C. E., & Coombs, T. W. (2017). Crises and crisis management: Integration, interpretation, and research development. *Journal of Management, 43*(6), 1661-1692.
134. Busse, C., Kach, A. P., & Wagner, S. M. (2016). Boundary conditions: What they are, how to explore them, why we need them, and when to consider them. *Organizational Research Methods, 20*(4), 574-609.
135. Busser, J. A., & Shulga, L. V. (2018). Co-created value: Multidimensional scale and nomological network. *Tourism Management, 65*, 69-86.
136. Buzzell, R. D. (1963). Is marketing a science? *Harvard Business Review, 41*(1), 32-40.
137. Cadogan, J. W., & Lee, N. (2022). A miracle of measurement or accidental constructivism? How pls subverts the realist search for truth. *European Journal of Marketing, ahead-of-print*(ahead-of-print).
138. Caldiero, C. T. (2006). *Crisis communication effectiveness in the context of the relational perspective of public relations and benoit's image repair strategies.* (3249278 Ph.D.), Rutgers The State University of New Jersey - New Brunswick, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/305276574?accountid=16468 ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.
139. Carpini, J. A., Parker, S. K., & Griffin, M. A. (2017). A look back and a leap forward: A review and synthesis of the individual work performance literature. *Academy of Management Annals, 11*(2), 825-885.
140. Carrillat, F. A., Jaramillo, F., & Mulki, J. P. (2009). Examining the impact of service quality: A meta-analysis of empirical evidence. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 17*(2), 95-110.
141. Carroll, B. A., & Ahuvia, A. C. (2006). Some antecedents and outcomes of brand love. *Marketing Letters*, *17*(2), 79-89.
142. Caslin, J. (2021). The language of marketing is so imprecise as to be almost meaningless. *Marketing Week*. https://www.marketingweek.com/jp-castlin-language-marketing/
143. Chai, J. C. Y., Malhotra, N. K., & Alpert, F. (2015). A two-dimensional model of trust–value–loyalty in service relationships. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *26*, 23-31.
144. Chan, F. K. Y., Yim, C. K., & Lam, S. S. K. (2010). Is customer participation in value creation a double-edged sword? Evidence from professional financial services across cultures. *Journal of Marketing, 74*(3), 48-64.
145. Chandukala, S. R., Kim, J., Otter, T., Rossi, P. E., & Allenby, G. M. (2008). Choice models in marketing: Economic assumptions, challenges and trends. *Foundations and Trends® in Marketing, 2*(2), 97-184.
146. Chang, H. H., Tsai, Y.-C., Wong, K. H., Wang, J. W., & Cho, F. J. (2015). The effects of response strategies and severity of failure on consumer attribution with regard to negative word-of-mouth. *Decision Support Systems*, *71*(2), 48-61.
147. Chang, W., & Taylor, S. A. (2016). The effectiveness of customer participation in new product development: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(1), 47-64.
148. Chang, Y., Li, Y., Yan, J., & Kumar, V. (2019). Getting more likes: The impact of narrative person and brand image on customer–brand interactions. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 47*(6), 1027-1045.
149. Chatzipanagiotou, K., Veloutsou, C., & Christodoulides, G. (2016). Decoding the complexity of the consumer-based brand equity process. *Journal of Business Research*, *69*(11), 5479-5486.

150. Chaudhuri, A., & Holbrook, M. B. (2001). The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: The role of brand loyalty. *Journal of Marketing, 65*(2), 81-93.
151. Chen, H. S., & Jai, T.-M. (2019). Trust fall: Data breach perceptions from loyalty and non-loyalty customers. *The Service Industries Journal*, 1-17.
152. Chen, W. (2013). Perceived value in community supported agriculture (csa): A preliminary conceptualization, measurement, and nomological validity. *British Food Journal, 115*(10), 1428-1453.
153. Chen, Y., Ganesan, S., & Liu, Y. (2009). Does a firm's product-recall strategy affect its financial value? An examination of strategic alternatives during product-harm crises. *Journal of Marketing, 73*(6), 214-226.
154. Chen, Z. (2013). *How publics in the united states and china respond to crisis communication strategies via social media ; a cross-cultural comparative study.* (Master thesis).
155. Cheng, X., & Walton, S. (2019). Do nonprofessional investors care about how and when data breaches are disclosed? *Journal of Information Systems, 33*(3), 163-182.
156. Chi, T., & Kilduff, P. P. D. (2011). Understanding consumer perceived value of casual sportswear: An empirical study. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 18*(5), 422-429.
157. Cho, E., Fiore, A. M., & Russell, D. W. (2015). Validation of a fashion brand image scale capturing cognitive, sensory, and affective associations: Testing its role in an extended brand equity model. *Psychology & Marketing, 32*(1), 28-48.
158. Choi, J. (2017). *Brand crisis management in the restaurant industry.* (10801696 Ph.D.), The Ohio State University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/2026266360?accountid=16468 ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.

159. Choi, J., & Chung, W. (2013). Analysis of the interactive relationship between apology and product involvement in crisis communication: An experimental study on the toyota recall crisis. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication, 27*(1), 3-31.
160. Choi, Y., & Lin, Y.-H. (2009). Individual difference in crisis response perception: How do legal experts and lay people perceive apology and compassion responses? *Public Relations Review, 35*(4), 452-454.
161. Christodoulides, G., & de Chernatony, L. (2010). Consumer-based brand equity conceptualisation and measurement: A literature review. *International Journal of Market Research, 52*(1).
162. Chun, R., & Davies, G. (2006). The influence of corporate character on customers and employees: Exploring similarities and differences. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 34*(2), 138.
163. Chung, T. S., & Low, A. (2017). The impact of investor impatience and environmental turbulence on myopic marketing management and stock performance. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 34*(3), 660-677.
164. Chung, T. S., & Low, A. (2022). Ceo regulatory focus and myopic marketing management. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 39*(1), 247-267.
165. Churchill, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research, 16*(1), 64-73.
166. Cianci, A. M., Clor-Proell, S. M., & Kaplan, S. E. (2019). How do investors respond to restatements? Repairing trust through managerial reputation and the announcement of corrective actions. *Journal of Business Ethics, 158*(2), 297-312.

167. Claessens, M. (2021). Essential marketing skills - what skills do you need for marketing? *Marketing Insider*. Retrieved from Marketing-Insider.eu website: https://marketing-insider.eu/essential-marketing-skills/
168. Claeys, A.-S., & Cauberghe, V. (2012). Crisis response and crisis timing strategies, two sides of the same coin. *Public Relations Review, 38*(1), 83-88.
169. Claeys, A.-S., & Cauberghe, V. (2014). What makes crisis response strategies work? The impact of crisis involvement and message framing. *Journal of Business Research, 67*(2), 182-189.
170. Claeys, A.-S., Cauberghe, V., & Leysen, J. (2013). Implications of stealing thunder for the impact of expressing emotions in organizational crisis communication. *Journal of Applied Communication Research, 41*(3), 293-308.
171. Claeys, A.-S., Cauberghe, V., & Vyncke, P. (2010). Restoring reputations in times of crisis: An experimental study of the situational crisis communication theory and the moderating effects of locus of control. *Public Relations Review, 36*(3), 256-262.
172. Claeys, A.-S., & Coombs, W. T. (2020). Organizational crisis communication: Suboptimal crisis response selection decisions and behavioral economics. *Communication Theory, 30*(3), 290-309.
173. Claeys, A.-S., & Opgenhaffen, M. (2021). Changing perspectives: Managerial and legal considerations regarding crisis communication. *Public Relations Review, 47*(4), 102080.
174. Clark, B. H. (2007). Measuring marketing performance: Research, practice and challenges. In A. Neely (Ed.), *Business performance measurement* (pp. 36-63).
175. Clark, B. H., & Montgomery, D. B. (1998). Deterrence, reputations, and competitive cognition. *Management Science, 44*(1), 62-82.
176. Clark, T. (1988). The concept of a marketing crisis. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 16*(2), 43-48.
177. Clark, T., & Key, T. M. (2021). The methodologies of the marketing literature: Mechanics, uses and craft. *AMS Review, 11*(3), 416-431.
178. Clark, T., Key, T. M., Hodis, M., & Rajaratnam, D. (2014). The intellectual ecology of mainstream marketing research: An inquiry into the place of marketing in the family of business disciplines. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 42*(3), 223-241.
179. Cleeren, K., Dekimpe, M. G., & van Heerde, H. J. (2017). Marketing research on product-harm crises: A review, managerial implications, and an agenda for future research. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 45*(5), 593-615.
180. Cleeren, K., van Heerde, H. J., & Dekimpe, M. G. (2013). Rising from the ashes: How brands and categories can overcome product-harm crises. *Journal of Marketing, 77*(2), 58-77.
181. Cline, B. N., Walkling, R. A., & Yore, A. S. (2018). The consequences of managerial indiscretions: Sex, lies, and firm value. *Journal of Financial Economics, 127*(2), 389-415.
182. CMO Survey. (2021). Managing and measuring marketing spending for growth and returns. In C. Moorman (Ed.), *CMO Survey*. Durham: Duke University.
183. Collier, J. E., & Sherrell, D. L. (2010). Examining the influence of control and convenience in a self-service setting. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 38*(4), 490-509.
184. Colliver, J. A., Conlee, M. J., & Verhulst, S. J. (2012). From test validity to construct validity … and back? *Medical Education, 46*(4), 366-371.
185. Colquitt, J. A., Sabey, T. B., Rodell, J. B., & Hill, E. T. (2019). Content validation guidelines: Evaluation criteria for definitional correspondence and definitional distinctiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 104*(10), 1243-1265.

186. Conejo, F., & Wooliscroft, B. (2014a). Brands defined as semiotic marketing systems. *Journal of Macromarketing, 35*(3), 287-301.
187. Conejo, F., & Wooliscroft, B. (2014b). The times (and brands) are a changin': A response to gaski's commentary. *Journal of Macromarketing, 35*(3), 391-396.
188. Connors, S., Khamitov, M., Thomson, M., & Perkins, A. (2020). They're just not that into you: How to leverage existing consumer–brand relationships through social psychological distance. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(5), 92-108.
189. Converse, P. D. (1945). The development of the science of marketing—an exploratory survey. *Journal of Marketing, 10*(1), 14-23.
190. Cook, D. J., Mulrow, C. D., & Haynes, R. B. (1997). Systematic reviews: Synthesis of best evidence for clinical decisions. *Annals of Internal Medicine, 126*(5), 376-380.
191. Cooke, E. F., Rayburn, J. M., & Abercrombie, C. L. (1992). The history of marketing thought as reflected in the definitions of marketing. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 1*(1), 10-21.
192. Coombs, T. W. (2007). Protecting organization reputations during a crisis: The development and application of situational crisis communication theory. *Corporate Reputation Review, 10*(3), 163-176.
193. Coombs, T. W., & Holladay, S. J. (1996). Communication and attributions in a crisis: An experimental study in crisis communication. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 8*(4), 279-295.
194. Coombs, T. W., & Holladay, S. J. (2009). Further explorations of post-crisis communication: Effects of media and response strategies on perceptions and intentions. *Public Relations Review, 35*(1), 1-6.
195. Coombs, W. T., Holladay Sherry, J., & Claeys, A.-S. (2016a). Debunking the myth of denial's effectiveness in crisis communication: Context matters. *Journal of Communication Management, 20*(4), 381-395.
196. Coombs, W. T., Holladay, S. J., & Claeys, A.-S. (2016b). Debunking the myth of denial's effectiveness in crisis communication: Context matters. *Journal of Communication Management, 20*(4), 381-395.
197. Cote, J. A., Leong, S. M., & Cote, J. (1992). Assessing the influence of marketing research on the social science literature. *Marketing Letters, 3*(3), 251-258.
198. Cowen, A. P., & Montgomery, N. V. (2020). To be or not to be sorry? How ceo gender impacts the effectiveness of organizational apologies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 105*(2), 196-208.
199. Crijns, H., Claeys, A.-S., Cauberghe, V., & Hudders, L. (2017). Who says what during crises? A study about the interplay between gender similarity with the spokesperson and crisis response strategy. *Journal of Business Research, 79*, 143-151.
200. Cronin, J. J., Brady, M. K., & Hult, G. T. M. (2000). Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments. *Journal of Retailing, 76*(2), 193-218.
201. Cronin, J. J., & Taylor, S. A. (1992). Measuring service quality: A reexamination and extension. *Journal of Marketing, 56*(3), 55-68.
202. Cuddy, A. J. C., Fiske, S. T., & Glick, P. (2007). The bias map: Behaviors from intergroup affect and stereotypes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92*(4), 631-648.
203. Cui, Y. B., Zhang, X. H., Peng, X. B., & Chu, J. X. (2018). How to use apology and compensation to repair competence-versus integrity-based trust violations in e-commerce. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications, 32*, 37-48.

204. Dahlen, M., Sjodin, H., Thorbjornsen, H., Hansen, H., Linander, J., & Thunell, C. (2013). "What will 'they' think?" Marketing leakage to undesired audiences and the third-person effect. *European Journal of Marketing, 47*(11-12), 1825-1840.
205. Daly, J. P., Pouder, R. W., & McNeil, C. R. (2017). Effects of explanations communicated in announcements of alleged labor abuses on valuation of a firm's stock. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 22*(1), 93-112.
206. Dapena-Baron, M., Gruen, T. W., & Guo, L. (2020). Heart, head, and hand: A tripartite conceptualization, operationalization, and examination of brand loyalty. *Journal of Brand Management, 27*(3), 355-375.
207. Dardis, F., & Haigh, M. M. (2009). Prescribing versus describing: Testing image restoration strategies in a crisis situation. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 14*(1), 101-118.
208. Darroch, J., Miles, M. P., Jardine, A., & Cooke, E. F. (2004). The 2004 ama definition of marketing and its relationship to a market orientation: An extension of cooke, rayburn, & abercrombie (1992). *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 12*(4), 29-38.
209. Davcik, N. S., Vinhas da Silva, R., & Hair, J. F. (2015). Towards a unified theory of brand equity: Conceptualizations, taxonomy and avenues for future research. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 24*(1), 3-17.
210. Davidson III, W. N., & Worrell, D. L. (1992). Research notes and communications: The effect of product recall announcements on shareholder wealth. *Strategic Management Journal, 13*(6), 467-473.
211. Davidson, W. N., & Worrell, D. L. (1992). The effect of product recall announcements on shareholder wealth. *Strategic Management Journal, 13*(6), 467-473.
212. Davidson, W. N., Worrell, D. L., & Dutia, D. (1993). The stock market effects of ceo succession in bankrupt firms. *Journal of Management, 19*(3), 517-533.
213. Davies, G. (2018). When employer brand image aids employee satisfaction and engagement. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance, 5*(1), 64-80.
214. Davies, G., Chun, R., da Silva, R. V., & Roper, S. (2004). A corporate character scale to assess employee and customer views of organization reputation. *Corporate Reputation Review, 7*(2), 125-146.
215. Davies, G., Mete, M., & Whelan, S. (2018). When employer brand image aids employee satisfaction and engagement. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance, 5*(1), 64-80.
216. Davis, F. D., Bagozzi, R. P., & Warshaw, P. R. (1989). User acceptance of computer technology: A comparison of two theoretical models. *Management Science, 35*(8), 982-1003.
217. Davvetas, V., & Halkias, G. (2019). Global and local brand stereotypes: Formation, content transfer, and impact. *International Marketing Review, 36*(5), 675-701.
218. Dawar, N., & Pillutla, M. M. (2000). Impact of product-harm crises on brand equity: The moderating role of consumer expectations. *Journal of Marketing Research, 37*(2), 215-226.
219. De Blasio, A., & Veale, R. (2009). Why say sorry? Influencing consumer perceptions post organizational crises. *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ), 17*(2), 75-83.
220. de Chernatony, L., & Dall'Olmo Riley, F. (1998). Defining a "brand": Beyond the literature with experts' interpretations. *Journal of Marketing Management, 14*(5), 417-443.
221. de Chernatony, L., Harris, F., & Dall'Olmo Riley, F. (2000). Added value: Its nature, roles and sustainability. *European Journal of Marketing, 34*(1/2), 39-56.

222. de Lencastre, P., & Côrte-Real, A. (2010). One, two, three: A practical brand anatomy. *Journal of Brand Management, 17*(6), 399-412.
223. de Matos, C. A., & Rossi, C. A. V. (2008). Word-of-mouth communications in marketing: A meta-analytic review of the antecedents and moderators. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 36*(4), 578-596.
224. De Roeck, K., Maon, F., & Lejeune, C. (2013). Taking up the challenge of corporate branding: An integrative framework. *European Management Review, 10*(3), 137-151.
225. De Spiegeleer, A., Beckwée, D., Bautmans, I., Petrovic, M., Bautmans, I., Beaudart, C., . . . Geriatrics. (2018). Pharmacological interventions to improve muscle mass, muscle strength and physical performance in older people: An umbrella review of systematic reviews and meta-analyses. *Drugs & Aging, 35*(8), 719-734.
226. De Waele, A., Claeys, A.-S., & Opgenhaffen, M. (2020). Preparing to face the media in times of crisis: Training spokespersons' verbal and nonverbal cues. *Public Relations Review, 46*(2), 101871.
227. De Waele, A., Claeys, A. S., & Cauberghe, V. (2019). The organizational voice: The importance of voice pitch and speech rate in organizational crisis communication. *Communication Research, 46*(7), 1026-1049.
228. Dean, D. H. (2004). Consumer reaction to negative publicity:Effects of corporate reputation, response, and responsibility for a crisis event. *The Journal of Business Communication, 41*(2), 192-211.
229. Decker, W. H. (2012). A firm's image following alleged wrongdoing: Effects of the firm's prior reputation and response to the allegation. *Corporate Reputation Review, 15*(1), 20-34.
230. Deighton, J. A., Mela, C. F., & Moorman, C. (2020). Marketing thinking and doing. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(1), 1-6.
231. Delgado-Ballester, E., Munuera-Alemán, J. L., & Yagüe-Guillén, M. J. (2003). Development and validation of a brand trust scale. *International Journal of Market Research, 45*(1), 35-53.
232. Desai, P. S., Bell, D., Lilien, G., & Soberman, D. (2012). Editorial: The science-to-practice initiative: Getting new marketing science thinking into the real world. *Marketing Science, 31*(1), 1-3.
233. Deshpandé, R., Farley, J. U., & Webster, F. E. (1993). Corporate culture, customer orientation, and innovativeness in japanese firms: A quadrad analysis. *Journal of Marketing, 57*(1), 23-37.
234. Diab, D. L., & Highhouse, S. (2015). Test of an impression formation model: An illustration with two well-known companies. *Corporate Reputation Review, 18*(3), 156-173.
235. Diamantopoulos, A. (2010). Reflective and formative metrics of relationship value: Response to baxter's commentary essay. *Journal of Business Research, 63*(1), 91-93.
236. Diamantopoulos, A., Szőcs, I., Florack, A., Kolbl, Ž., & Egger, M. (2021). The bond between country and brand stereotypes: Insights on the role of brand typicality and utilitarian/hedonic nature in enhancing stereotype content transfer. *International Marketing Review, 38*(6), 1143-1165.
237. Diamantopoulos, A., & Winklhofer, H. M. (2001). Index construction with formative indicators: An alternative to scale development. *Journal of Marketing Research, 38*(2), 269-277.
238. Dick, A. S., & Basu, K. (1994). Customer loyalty: Toward an integrated conceptual framework *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 22*(2), 99-113.

239. Ding, Y., DeSarbo, W. S., Hanssens, D. M., Jedidi, K., Lynch, J. G., & Lehmann, D. R. (2020). The past, present, and future of measurement and methods in marketing analysis. *Marketing Letters, 31*(2), 175-186.
240. Diorio, S. (2017). Closing the marketing performance credibility gap. *Forbes*. https://www.forbes.com/sites/forbesinsights/2017/05/02/the-marketing-performance-credibility-gap/?sh=3de3322a455a
241. Dodds, W. B., Monroe, K. B., & Grewal, D. (1991). Effects of price, brand, and store information on buyers' product evaluations. *Journal of Marketing Research, 28*(3), 307-319.
242. Domegan, C., Haase, M., Harris, K., Heuvel, W.-J. v. d., Kelleher, C., Maglio, P. P., . . . Peñaloza, L. (2012). Value, values, symbols and outcomes. *Marketing Theory, 12*(2), 207-211.
243. Doty, D. H., & Glick, W. H. (1994). Typologies as a unique form of theory building: Toward improved understanding and modeling. *The Academy of Management Review, 19*(2), 230-251.
244. Dowling, G. R. (2016). Defining and measuring corporate reputations. *European Management Review, 13*(3), 207-223.
245. Dubé, L., Cervellon, M.-C., & Jingyuan, H. (2003). Should consumer attitudes be reduced to their affective and cognitive bases? Validation of a hierarchical model. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 20*(3), 259-272.
246. Dupree, C. H., & Fiske, S. T. (2017). Universal dimensions of social signals: Warmth and competence. In A. Vinciarelli, J. K. Burgoon, M. Pantic & N. Magnenat-Thalmann (Eds.), *Social signal processing* (pp. 23-33). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
247. Dutta, S., & Pullig, C. (2011). Effectiveness of corporate responses to brand crises: The role of crisis type and response strategies. *Journal of Business Research, 64*(12), 1281-1287.
248. Duval, S., & Tweedie, R. (2000). A nonparametric "trim and fill" method of accounting for publication bias in meta-analysis. *Journal of the American Statistical Association, 95*(449), 89-98.
249. Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
250. Easton, G. (2002). Marketing: A critical realist approach. *Journal of Business Research, 55*(2), 103-109.
251. Edeling, A., & Fischer, M. (2016). Marketing's impact on firm value: Generalizations from a meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research, 53*(4), 515-534.
252. Edeling, A., Srinivasan, S., & Hanssens, D. M. (2021). The marketing–finance interface: A new integrative review of metrics, methods, and findings and an agenda for future research. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 38*(4), 857-876.
253. Edwards, J. R. (2001). Multidimensional constructs in organizational behavior research: An integrative analytical framework. *Organizational Research Methods, 4*(2), 144-192.
254. Edwards, S. M. (2011). A social media mindset. *Journal of Interactive Advertising, 12*(1), 1-3.
255. Eggert, A., Kleinaltenkamp, M., & Kashyap, V. (2019). Mapping value in business markets: An integrative framework. *Industrial Marketing Management, 79*, 13-20.
256. Eggert, A., & Ulaga, W. (2002). Customer perceived value: A substitute for satisfaction in business markets? *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, 17*(2/3), 107-118.

257. Eggert, A., Ulaga, W., Frow, P., & Payne, A. (2018). Conceptualizing and communicating value in business markets: From value in exchange to value in use. *Industrial Marketing Management, 69*, 80-90.
258. Eilert, M., Jayachandran, S., Kalaignanam, K., & Swartz, T. A. (2017). Does it pay to recall your product early? An empirical investigation in the automobile industry. *Journal of Marketing, 81*(3), 111-129.
259. Einwiller, S. A., Carroll, C. E., & Korn, K. (2010). Under what conditions do the news media influence corporate reputation? The roles of media dependency and need for orientation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *12*(4), 299-315.
260. Einwiller, S. A., & Steilen, S. (2015). Handling complaints on social network sites – an analysis of complaints and complaint responses on facebook and twitter pages of large us companies. *Public Relations Review, 41*(2), 195-204.
261. Eisend, M. (2006). Source credibility dimensions in marketing communication–a generalized solution. *Journal of Empirical Generalisations in Marketing Science, 10*(2).
262. Eisend, M. (2015). Have we progressed marketing knowledge? A meta-meta-analysis of effect sizes in marketing research. *Journal of Marketing, 79*(3), 23-40.
263. Eisend, M. (2017). Meta-analysis in advertising research. *Journal of Advertising, 46*(1), 21-35.
264. Eisend, M., Franke, G. R., & Leigh, J. H. (2016). Reinquiries in advertising research. *Journal of Advertising, 45*(1), 1-3.
265. Eisend, M., & Kuss, A. (2019). The philosophy of science viewpoint: Scientific realism. In M. Eisend & A. Kuss (Eds.), *Research methodology in marketing: Theory development, empirical approaches and philosophy of science considerations* (pp. 59-81). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
266. Eisend, M., & Tarrahi, F. (2014). Meta-analysis selection bias in marketing research. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 31*(3), 317-326.
267. El-Ansary, A., Shaw, E. H., & Lazer, W. (2018). Marketing's identity crisis: Insights from the history of marketing thought. *AMS Review, 8*(1), 5-17.
268. El-Manstrly, D. (2016). Enhancing customer loyalty: Critical switching cost factors. *Journal of Service Management, 27*(2).
269. Elliott, W. B., Hodge, F. D., & Sedor, L. M. (2012). Using online video to announce a restatement: Influences on investment decisions and the mediating role of trust. *Accounting Review, 87*(2), 513-535.
270. Erdem, T., & Swait, J. (2004). Brand credibility, brand consideration, and choice. *Journal of Consumer Research, 31*(1), 191-198.
271. Escalas, J. E., & Bettman, J. R. (2005). Self-construal, reference groups, and brand meaning. *Journal of Consumer Research, 32*(3), 378-389.
272. Etter, M., & Fleck, M. (2018). The influence of social media comments on the perception of crisis responses. *Conference Papers -- International Communication Association*, 1-15.
273. Eyal, T., Hoover, G. M., Fujita, K., & Nussbaum, S. (2011). The effect of distance-dependent construals on schema-driven impression formation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 47*(1), 278-281.
274. Eyal, Y. (2011). Construct clarity in theories of management and organization. *The Academy of Management Review*(3), 590.
275. Fabrigar, L. R., Wegener, D. T., & Petty, R. E. (2020). A validity-based framework for understanding replication in psychology. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 24*(4), 316-344.
276. Farber, D. B. (2005). Restoring trust after fraud: Does corporate governance matter? *Accounting Review, 80*(2), 539-561.

277. Fehrer, J. A. (2020). Rethinking marketing: Back to purpose. *AMS Review, 10*(3), 179-184.
278. Feng, H., Morgan, N. A., & Rego, L. L. (2015). Marketing department power and firm performance. *Journal of Marketing, 79*(5), 1-20.
279. Fennis, B. M., & Stroebe, W. (2014). Softening the blow: Company self-disclosure of negative information lessens damaging effects on consumer judgment and decision making. *Journal of Business Ethics, 120*(1), 109-120.
280. Ferguson, D. P., Wallace, J. D., & Chandler, R. C. (2018). Hierarchical consistency of strategies in image repair theory: Pr practitioners' perceptions of effective and preferred crisis communication strategies. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 30*(5-6), 251-272.
281. Ferrell, O. C., & Lucas, G. H. (1987). An evaluation of progress in the development of a definition of marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 15*(3), 12-23.
282. Ferrin, D. L., Cooper, C. D., Dirks, K. T., & Kim, P. H. (2018). Heads will roll! Routes to effective trust repair in the aftermath of a ceo transgression. *Journal of Trust Research, 8*(1), 7-30.
283. Ferrin, D. L., Kim, P. H., Cooper, C. D., & Dirks, K. T. (2007). Silence speaks volumes: The effectiveness of reticence in comparison to apology and denial for responding to integrity- and competence-based trust violations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*(4), 893-908.
284. Fetscherin, M., Guzman, F., Veloutsou, C., & Cayolla, R. R. (2019). Latest research on brand relationships: Introduction to the special issue. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 28*(2), 133-139.
285. Fetscherin, M., & Heinrich, D. (2015). Consumer brand relationships research: A bibliometric citation meta-analysis. *Journal of Business Research, 68*(2), 380-390.
286. Fiedler, K. (2017). What constitutes strong psychological science? The (neglected) role of diagnosticity and a priori theorizing. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 12*(1), 46-61.
287. Fiedler, K., & Schwarz, N. (2015). Questionable research practices revisited. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 7*(1), 45-52.
288. Fischer, Y. (2013). *The effectiveness of company's response strategies to negative publicity in social media.* (Master thesis), University of Vienna, Vienna.
289. Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading: Addison-Wesley.
290. Fishburn, P. C. (1970). *Utility theory for decision making*. New York, N.Y.: Wiley.
291. Fisher, G., & Aguinis, H. (2017). Using theory elaboration to make theoretical advancements. *Organizational Research Methods, 20*(3), 438-464.
292. Fiske, S. T. (2018). Stereotype content: Warmth and competence endure. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 27*(2), 67-73.
293. Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J. C., & Glick, P. (2007). Universal dimensions of social cognition: Warmth and competence. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 11*(2), 77-83.
294. Fiske, S. T., & Neuberg, S. L. (1990). A continuum of impression formation, from category-based to individuating processes: Influences of information and motivation on attention and interpretation. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 23, pp. 1-74): Academic Press.
295. Folkes, V. S. (1984). Consumer reactions to product failure: An attributional approach. *Journal of Consumer Research, 10*(4), 398-409.
296. Folkes, V. S. (1988). Recent attribution research in consumer behavior: A review and new directions. *Journal of Consumer Research, 14*(4), 548-565.

297. Fombrun, C. J., Ponzi, L. J., & Newburry, W. (2015). Stakeholder tracking and analysis: The reptrak® system for measuring corporate reputation. *Corporate Reputation Review, 18*(1), 3-24.
298. Forbes. (2020). The world's most valuable brands. Retrieved 25.07.2020, from https://www.forbes.com/powerful-brands/list/
299. Forbes, S., & Avis, M. (2020). Construct creation from research questions. *European Journal of Marketing, 54*(8), 1817-1838.
300. Fornell, C., Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E. W., Cha, J., & Bryant, B. E. (1996). The american customer satisfaction index: Nature, purpose, and findings. *Journal of Marketing, 60*(4), 7-18.
301. Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*(1), 39-50.
302. Fornell, C., Morgeson, F. V., & Hult, G. T. M. (2016). An abnormally abnormal intangible: Stock returns on customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(5), 122-125.
303. Fournier, S. (1998). Consumers and their brands: Developing relationship theory in consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 24*(4), 343.
304. Fournier, S., & Alvarez, C. (2012). Brands as relationship partners: Warmth, competence, and in-between. *Journal of consumer psychology, 22*(2), 177-185.
305. Frank, M. L., Grenier, J. H., & Pyzoha, J. S. (2019). How disclosing a prior cyberattack influences the efficacy of cybersecurity risk management reporting and independent assurance. *Journal of Information Systems, 33*(3), 183-200.
306. Freeman, K., Spenner, P., & Bird, A. (2012). Three myths about what customers want. *Harvard Business Review Digital Articles*. https://hbr.org/2012/05/three-myths-about-customer-eng
307. Freling, T. H., Crosno, J. L., & Henard, D. H. (2011). Brand personality appeal: Conceptualization and empirical validation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 39*(3), 392-406.
308. Frith, U. (2020). Fast lane to slow science. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 24*(1), 1-2.
309. Funder, D. C., & Ozer, D. J. (2019). Evaluating effect size in psychological research: Sense and nonsense. *Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science, 2*(2), 156-168.
310. Fuoli, M., van de Weijer, J., & Paradis, C. (2017). Denial outperforms apology in repairing organizational trust despite strong evidence of guilt. *Public Relations Review, 43*(4), 645-660.
311. Gale, B. T. (1994). *Managing customer value: Creating quality & service that customers can see*. New York: Free Press.
312. Gallarza, M. G., Arteaga, F., Del Chiappa, G., Gil-Saura, I., & Holbrook, M. B. (2017). A multidimensional service-value scale based on holbrook's typology of customer value: Bridging the gap between the concept and its measurement. *Journal of Service Management, 28*(4), 724-762.
313. Gallarza, M. G., Gil-Saura, I., & Holbrook, M. B. (2011). The value of value: Further excursions on the meaning and role of customer value. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 10*(4), 179-191.
314. Gallarza, M. G., & Gil Saura, I. (2006). Value dimensions, perceived value, satisfaction and loyalty: An investigation of university students' travel behaviour. *Tourism Management, 27*(3), 437-452.
315. Gallarza, M. G., Maubisson, L., & Rivière, A. (2021). Replicating consumer value scales: A comparative study of evs and perval at a cultural heritage site. *Journal of Business Research, 126*, 614-623.

316. Galvagnom, M., & Dalli, D. (2014). Theory of value co-creation: A systematic literature review. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 24*(6), 643-683.
317. Ganesan, S. (1994). Determinants of long-term orientation in buyer-seller relationships. *Journal of Marketing, 58*(2), 1-19.
318. Gangloff, K. A., Connelly, B. L., & Shook, C. L. (2016). Of scapegoats and signals: Investor reactions to ceo succession in the aftermath of wrongdoing. *Journal of Management, 42*(6), 1614-1634.
319. Gao, H., Xie, J., Wang, Q., & Wilbur, K. C. (2015a). Should ad spending increase or decrease before a recall announcement? The marketing–finance interface in product-harm crisis management. *Journal of Marketing, 79*(5), 80-99.
320. Gao, H., Xie, J., Wang, Q., & Wilbur, K. C. (2015b). Should ad spending increase or decrease before a recall announcement? The marketingfinance interface in product-harm crisis management (Vol. 79, pp. 80-99).
321. Garbarino, E., & Johnson, M. S. (1999). The different roles of satisfaction, trust, and commitment in customer relationships. *Journal of Marketing, 63*(2), 70-87.
322. Gartner. (2021a). 5 strategic priorities for cmos.
323. Gartner. (2021b). The state of marketing budgets 2021.
324. Gaski, J. F. (2014). On "brand"—whether a semiotic marketing system or not. *Journal of Macromarketing, 35*(3), 387-390.
325. Gaski, J. F. (2020). A history of brand misdefinition – with corresponding implications for mismeasurement and incoherent brand theory. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 29*(4), 517-530.
326. Gaski, J. F. (2021). Introducing the marketing accountability standards board (masb) and its common-language marketing dictionary: Background, description, vision, and prospects. *Journal of Macromarketing, 41*(4), 521-526.
327. Gelbrich, K., & Roschk, H. (2011). A meta-analysis of organizational complaint handling and customer responses. *Journal of Service Research, 14*(1), 24-43.
328. Gensler, S., Völckner, F., Liu-Thompkins, Y., & Wiertz, C. (2013). Managing brands in the social media environment. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 27*(4), 242-256.
329. Gervais, W. M. (2021). Practical methodological reform needs good theory. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 16*(4), 827-843.
330. Geuens, M., Weijters, B., & De Wulf, K. (2009). A new measure of brand personality. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 26*(2), 97-107.
331. Geyskens, I., Krishnan, R., Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., & Cunha, P. V. (2009). A review and evaluation of meta-analysis practices in management research. *Journal of Management, 35*(2), 393-419.
332. Geyskens, I., Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., & Kumar, N. (1999). A meta-analysis of satisfaction in marketing channel relationships. *Journal of Marketing Research, 36*(2), 223-238.
333. Gidaković, P., Szőcs, I., Diamantopoulos, A., Florack, A., Egger, M., & Žabkar, V. (2021). The interplay of brand, brand origin and brand user stereotypes in forming value perceptions. *British Journal of Management, n/a*(n/a).
334. Gidaković, P., & Zabkar, V. (2021). How industry and occupational stereotypes shape consumers' trust, value and loyalty judgments concerning service brands. *Journal of Service Management, 32*(6), 92-113.
335. Gidaković, P., & Zabkar, V. (2022). The formation of consumers' warmth and competence impressions of corporate brands: The role of corporate associations. *European Management Review, n/a*(n/a).
336. Giddens, A. (1979). *Central problems in social theory : Action, structure and contradiction in social analysis*. London: Macmillan.

337. Gijsenberg, M. J., Van Heerde, H. J., & Verhoef, P. C. (2015). Losses loom longer than gains: Modeling the impact of service crises on perceived service quality over time. *Journal of Marketing Research, 52*(5), 642-656.
338. Gillespie, N., & Dietz, G. (2009). Trust repair after an organization-level failure. *The Academy of Management Review, 34*(1), 127-145.
339. Gilliam, D. A., & Voss, K. E. (2013). A proposed procedure for construct definition in marketing. *European Journal of Marketing, 47*(1/2), 5-26.
340. Gistri, G., Corciolani, M., & Pace, S. (2019). Does the perception of incongruence hurt more? Customers' responses to csr crises affecting the main reputation dimension of a company. *Journal of Marketing Management, 35*(7-8), 605-633.
341. Giuffredi-Kähr, A., Nyffenegger, B., Hoyer, W. D., Khamitov, M., & Krohmer, H. (2020). *Consumer brand sabotage*. Paper presented at the AMA Winter Educator's Conference - Consumers and Firms in a Global World, San Diego.
342. Goldfarb, A., Tucker, C., & Wang, Y. (2022). Conducting research in marketing with quasi-experiments. *Journal of Marketing, 86*(3), 1-20.
343. Golfetto, F., Woodside, A. G., & Gibbert, M. (2008). Customer value: Theory, research, and practice. In F. Golfetto, A. G. Woodside & M. Gibbert (Eds.), *Creating and managing superior customer value* (Vol. 14, pp. 3-25). London: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
344. Gomulya, D., & Boeker, W. (2014). How firms respond to financial restatement: Ceo successors and external reactions. *Academy of Management Journal, 57*(6), 1759-1785.
345. Gomulya, D., & Boeker, W. (2016). Reassessing board member allegiance: Ceo replacement following financial misconduct. *Strategic Management Journal*(9), 1898.
346. Gomulya, D., & Mishina, Y. (2016). Signaler credibility, signal susceptibility, and relative reliance on signals: How stakeholders change their evaluative processes after violation of expectations and rehabilitative efforts. *Academy of Management Journal, 60*(2), 554-583.
347. Gond, J.-P., El Akremi, A., Swaen, V., & Babu, N. (2017). The psychological microfoundations of corporate social responsibility: A person-centric systematic review. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 38*(2), 225-246.
348. Gond, J.-P., Mena, S., & Mosonyi, S. (2020). The performativity of literature reviewing: Constituting the corporate social responsibility literature through re-presentation and intervention. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1094428120935494.
349. Goode, S., Hoehle, H., Venkatesh, V., & Brown, S. A. (2017). User compensation as a data breach recovery action: An investigation of the sony playstation network breach. *MIS Quarterly, 41*(3), 703-+.
350. Gopalakrishna, G., ter Riet, G., Vink, G., Stoop, I., Wicherts, J. M., & Bouter, L. M. (2022). Prevalence of questionable research practices, research misconduct and their potential explanatory factors: A survey among academic researchers in the netherlands. *PLOS ONE, 17*(2), e0263023.
351. Gordon, L. A., Loeb, M. P., & Sohail, T. (2010). Market value of voluntary disclosures concerning information security. *MIS Quarterly, 34*(3), 567-594.
352. Grace, D., Ross, M., & King, C. (2020). Brand fidelity: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 52*, 101908.
353. Graeber, D. (2016). *Toward an anthropological theory of value*. New York: Palgrave.
354. Grappi, S., & Romani, S. (2015). Company post-crisis communication strategies and the psychological mechanism underlying consumer reactions. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 27*(1), 22-45.

355. Gray, K. (2017). How to map theory: Reliable methods are fruitless without rigorous theory. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 12*(5), 731-741.
356. Gremler, D. D., Van Vaerenbergh, Y., Brüggen, E. C., & Gwinner, K. P. (2020). Understanding and managing customer relational benefits in services: A meta-analysis. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 48*(3), 565-583.
357. Grewal, D., Kroschke, M., Mende, M., Roggeveen, A. L., & Scott, M. L. (2020). Frontline cyborgs at your service: How human enhancement technologies affect customer experiences in retail, sales, and service settings. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 51*, 9-25.
358. Grewal, D., Mende, M., Guha, A., Ailawadi, K., Roggeveen, A., Scott, M., . . . Kahn, B. (2021). *Marketing in a crises-laden world*. Working papers. Marketing Science Institute. Retrieved from https://www.msi.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/04/MSI_Report_21-116.pdf
359. Grewal, D., Monroe, K. B., & Krishnan, R. (1998). The effects of price-comparison advertising on buyers' perceptions of acquisition value, transaction value, and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Marketing, 62*(2), 46-59.
360. Grewal, D., Puccinelli, N., & Monroe, K. B. (2018). Meta-analysis: Integrating accumulated knowledge. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 46*(1), 9-30.
361. Grönroos, C. (1984). A service quality model and its marketing implications. *European Journal of Marketing, 18*(4), 36-44.
362. Grönroos, C. (1989). Defining marketing: A market-oriented approach. *European Journal of Marketing, 23*(1), 52-60.
363. Grönroos, C. (2006). On defining marketing: Finding a new roadmap for marketing. *Marketing Theory, 6*(4), 395-417.
364. Grönroos, C., & Voima, P. (2013). Critical service logic: Making sense of value creation and co-creation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 41*(2), 133-150.
365. Groza, M. D., Pronschinske, M. R., & Walker, M. (2011). Perceived organizational motives and consumer responses to proactive and reactive csr. *Journal of Business Ethics, 102*(4), 639-652.
366. Guerber, A. J., Anand, V., Ellstrand, A. E., Waller, M. A., & Reychav, I. (2020). Extending the situational crisis communication theory: The impact of linguistic style and culture. *Corporate Reputation Review, 23*(2), 106-127.
367. Gummerus, J. (2013). Value creation processes and value outcomes in marketing theory: Strangers or siblings? *Marketing Theory, 13*(1), 19-46.
368. Gundlach, G. T. (2007). The american marketing association's 2004 definition of marketing: Perspectives on its implications for scholarship and the role and responsibility of marketing in society. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 26*(2), 243-250.
369. Gundlach, G. T., & Wilkie, W. L. (2010). Stakeholder marketing: Why “stakeholder” was omitted from the american marketing association's official 2007 definition of marketing and why the future is bright for stakeholder marketing. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 29*(1), 89-92.
370. Güntürkün, P., Haumann, T., & Mikolon, S. (2020). Disentangling the differential roles of warmth and competence judgments in customer-service provider relationships. *Journal of Service Research, 23*(4), 476-503.
371. Gupta, S., Gallear, D., Rudd, J., & Foroudi, P. (2020). The impact of brand value on brand competitiveness. *Journal of Business Research, 112*, 210-222.
372. Gupta, S., & Zeithaml, V. (2006). Customer metrics and their impact on financial performance. *Marketing Science, 25*(6), 718-739.

373. Gurviez, P., & Korchia, M. (2003). *Proposal for a multidimensional brand trust scale*. Paper presented at the 32nd EMAC Conference, ,Marketing: Responsible and Relevant, Glasgow.
374. Gwebu, K. L., Jing, W., & Li, W. (2018). The role of corporate reputation and crisis response strategies in data breach management. *Journal of Management Information Systems, 35*(2), 683-714.
375. Haenlein, M., Bitner, M. J., Kohli, A. K., Lemon, K. N., & Reibstein, D. J. (2021). Guest editorial: Responsible research in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*.
376. Haigh, M., M., & Brubaker, P. (2010). Examining how image restoration strategy impacts perceptions of corporate social responsibility, organization-public relationships, and source credibility. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 15*(4), 453.
377. Halkias, G., Davvetas, V., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2016). The interplay between country stereotypes and perceived brand globalness/localness as drivers of brand preference. *Journal of Business Research, 69*(9), 3621-3628.
378. Hamilton, D. L., & Sherman, S. J. (1996). Perceiving persons and groups. *Psychological Review, 103*(2), 336-355.
379. Hamilton, D. L., Sherman, S. J., Way, N., & Percy, E. J. (2015). Convergence and divergence in perceptions of persons and groups *Apa handbook of personality and social psychology, volume 2: Group processes.* (pp. 229-261). Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association.
380. Hamilton, R., Ferraro, R., Haws, K. L., & Mukhopadhyay, A. (2020). Traveling with companions: The social customer journey. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(1), 68-92.
381. Han, J. A., Feit, E. M., & Srinivasan, S. (2020). Can negative buzz increase awareness and purchase intent? *Marketing Letters, 31*(1), 89-104.
382. Hankinson, G., & Cowking, P. (1995). What do you really mean by a brand? *Journal of Brand Management, 3*(1), 43-50.
383. Hansen, N., Kupfer, A.-K., & Hennig-Thurau, T. (2018). Brand crises in the digital age: The short- and long-term effects of social media firestorms on consumers and brands. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 35*(4), 557-574.
384. Hanssens, D. M., & Pauwels, K. H. (2016). Demonstrating the value of marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(6), 173-190.
385. Hanssens, D. M., Thorpe, D., & Finkbeiner, C. (2008). Marketing when customer equity matters. *Harvard Business Review, 86*(5), 117-123.
386. Hashimoto, T., & Karasawa, K. (2018). Impact of consumer power on consumers' reactions to corporate transgression. *PLoS ONE, 13*(5).
387. Haws, K. L., Winterich, K. P., & Naylor, R. W. (2014). Seeing the world through green-tinted glasses: Green consumption values and responses to environmentally friendly products. *Journal of consumer psychology, 24*(3), 336-354.
388. Hayes, A. F. (2018). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis a regression-based approach*. New York: The Guilford Press.
389. Hedges, L. V., & Olkin, I. (1985). *Statistical methods for meta-analysis*. Orlando: Academic Press.
390. Heflick, N. A., Goldenberg, J. L., Cooper, D. P., & Puvia, E. (2011). From women to objects: Appearance focus, target gender, and perceptions of warmth, morality and competence. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 47*(3), 572-581.
391. Hegner, S. M., Beldad, A. D., & Hulzink, R. (2018). An experimental study into the effects of self-disclosure and crisis type on brand evaluations – the mediating effect of blame attributions. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*(5), 534.

392. Hegner, S. M., Beldad, A. D., & Kamphuis op Heghuis, S. (2014). How company responses and trusting relationships protect brand equity in times of crises. *Journal of Brand Management, 21*(5), 429-445.
393. Hegner, S. M., Beldad, A. D., & Kraesgenberg, A.-L. (2016). The impact of crisis response strategy, crisis type, and corporate social responsibility on post-crisis consumer trust and purchase intention. *Corporate Reputation Review, 19*(4), 357-370.
394. Hegner, S. M., & Jevons, C. (2016). Brand trust: A cross-national validation in germany, india, and south africa. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 25*(1), 58-68.
395. Heinonen, K., Strandvik, T., Mickelsson, K. J., Edvardsson, B., Sundström, E., & Andersson, P. (2010). A customer-dominant logic of service. *Journal of Service Management, 21*(4), 531-548.
396. Helgeson, J. G., & Supphellen, M. (2004). A conceptual and measurement comparison of self-congruity and brand personality:The impact of socially desirable responding. *International Journal of Market Research, 46*(2), 205-233.
397. Helkkula, A., Kelleher, C., & Pihlström, M. (2012). Characterizing value as an experience: Implications for service researchers and managers. *Journal of Service Research, 15*(1), 59-75.
398. Hensel, P. G. (2021). Reproducibility and replicability crisis: How management compares to psychology and economics – a systematic review of literature. *European Management Journal, 39*(5), 577-594.
399. Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43*(1), 115-135.
400. Herhausen, D., Ludwig, S., Grewal, D., Wulf, J., & Schoegel, M. (2019). Detecting, preventing, and mitigating online firestorms in brand communities. *Journal of Marketing, 83*(3), 1-21.
401. Herndon, N. C. (2016). Research fraud and the publish or perish world of academia. *Journal of Marketing Channels, 23*(3), 91-96.
402. Hersel, M. C., Helmuth, C. A., Zorn, M. L., Shropshire, C., & Ridge, J. W. (2019). The corrective actions organizations pursue following misconduct: A review and research agenda. *Academy of Management Annals, 13*(2), 547-585.
403. Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1959). *The motivation to work*. New York: Wiley.
404. Heskett, J. L., Sasser, W. E., & Schlesinger, L. A. (1997). The service profit chain: How leading companies link profit and growth to loyalty, satisfaction, and value. from http://catalog.hathitrust.org/api/volumes/oclc/35750450.html
405. Hess, A. C., & Melnyk, V. (2016). Pink or blue? The impact of gender cues on brand perceptions. *European Journal of Marketing, 50*(9/10), 1550-1574.
406. Hewett, K., Rand, W., Rust, R. T., & van Heerde, H. J. (2016). Brand buzz in the echoverse. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(3), 1-24.
407. Hietanen, J., Andéhn, M., & Bradshaw, A. (2018). Against the implicit politics of service-dominant logic. *Marketing Theory, 18*(1), 101-119.
408. Higgins, E. T. (2000). Making a good decision: Value from fit. *American Psychologist, 55*(11), 1217-1230.
409. Highhouse, S., Brooks, M. E., & Gregarus, G. (2009). An organizational impression management perspective on the formation of corporate reputations. *Journal of Management, 35*(6), 1481-1493.

410. Hill, A. D., Kern, D. A., & White, M. A. (2012). Building understanding in strategy research: The importance of employing consistent terminology and convergent measures. *Strategic Organization, 10*(2), 187-200.
411. Hillmann, J., & Guenther, E. (2021). Organizational resilience: A valuable construct for management research? *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *23*(1), 7-44.
412. Hirsch, P. M., & Levin, D. Z. (1999). Umbrella advocates versus validity police: A life-cycle model. *Organization Science, 10*(2), 199-212.
413. Hirschman, E. C., & Holbrook, M. B. (1982). Hedonic consumption: Emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing, 46*(3), 92-101.
414. Hock, S. J., & Raithel, S. (2020). Managing negative celebrity endorser publicity: How announcements of firm (non)responses affect stock returns. *Management Science, 66*(3), 1005-1507.
415. Hodson, G. (2021). Construct jangle or construct mangle? Thinking straight about (nonredundant) psychological constructs. *Journal of Theoretical Social Psychology, 5*(4), 576-590.
416. Hoekstra, J. C., & Leeflang, P. S. H. (2020). Marketing in the era of covid-19. *Italian Journal of Marketing, 2020*(4), 249-260.
417. Hofmann, D. A. (1997). An overview of the logic and rationale of hierarchical linear models. *Journal of Management*, *23*(6), 723-744.
418. Hogreve, J., Iseke, A., Derfuss, K., & Eller, T. (2017). The service–profit chain: A meta-analytic test of a comprehensive theoretical framework. *Journal of Marketing, 81*(3), 41-61.
419. Holbrook, M. B. (1994). The nature of customer value: An axiology of services in the consumption experience. In R. T. Rust & R. L. Oliver (Eds.), *Service quality: New directions in theory and practice* (pp. 21-71). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
420. Holbrook, M. B. (1996). *Special session summary customer value: A framework for analysis and research*. Paper presented at the Advances in Consumer Research, Provo.
421. Holbrook, M. B. (1999). *Consumer value a framework for analysis and research*. London: Routledge.
422. Holbrook, M. B., & Hirschman, E. C. (1982). The experiential aspects of consumption: Consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun. *Journal of Consumer Research, 9*(2), 132-140.
423. Holbrook, M. B., & Hulbert, J. M. (2002). Elegy on the death of marketing. *European Journal of Marketing, 36*(5/6), 706-732.
424. Holland, D., Seltzer, T., & Kochigina, A. (2021). Practicing transparency in a crisis: Examining the combined effects of crisis type, response, and message transparency on organizational perceptions. *Public Relations Review, 47*(2), 102017.
425. Hollebeek, L. D., & Macky, K. (2019). Digital content marketing's role in fostering consumer engagement, trust, and value: Framework, fundamental propositions, and implications. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *45*, 27-41.
426. Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology, 63*(6), 597-606.
427. Homburg, C., Theel, M., & Hohenberg, S. (2020). Marketing excellence: Nature, measurement, and investor valuations. *Journal of Marketing, 84*(4), 1-22.
428. Homburg, C., Vomberg, A., Enke, M., & Grimm, P. H. (2015). The loss of the marketing department's influence: Is it really happening? And why worry? *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43*(1), 1-13.
429. Houston, M. B. (2004). Assessing the validity of secondary data proxies for marketing constructs. *Journal of Business Research, 57*(2), 154-161.

430. Hovland, C. I., Janis, I. L., & Kelley, H. H. (1953). *Communication and persuasion; psychological studies of opinion change*. New Haven, CT, US: Yale University Press.
431. Howard, J. A., & Sheth, J. N. (1969). The theory of buyer behavior. *New York, 63*, 145.
432. Howell, R. D. (2013). Conceptual clarity in measurement—constructs, composites, and causes: A commentary on lee, cadogan and chamberlain. *AMS Review, 3*(1), 18-23.
433. Hsieh, S. H., & Chang, A. (2016). The psychological mechanism of brand co-creation engagement. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 33*, 13-26.
434. Hsu, L. (2012). *The role of social media and brand equity during a product recall crisis: A shareholder value perspective.* (3520215 Ph.D.), Boston University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/1033056114?accountid=16468 ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.

435. Hsu, L., & Lawrence, B. (2016). The role of social media and brand equity during a product recall crisis: A shareholder value perspective. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 33*(1), 59-77.
436. Huang, H. H., Mitchell, V.-W., & Rosenaum-Elliott, R. (2012). Are consumer and brand personalities the same? *Psychology & Marketing, 29*(5), 334-349.
437. Hubbard, R., & Lindsay, R. M. (2002). How the emphasis on 'original' empirical marketing research impedes knowledge development. *Marketing Theory, 2*(4), 381-402.
438. Hulland, J. (2020). Conceptual review papers: Revisiting existing research to develop and refine theory. *AMS Review, 10*(1), 27-35.
439. Hulland, J., Baumgartner, H., & Smith, K. M. (2018). Marketing survey research best practices: Evidence and recommendations from a review of jams articles. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 46*(1), 92-108.
440. Hulland, J., & Houston, M. B. (2020). Why systematic review papers and meta-analyses matter: An introduction to the special issue on generalizations in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*.
441. Hult, G. T. M., & Morgeson, F. V. (2020). Marketing's value propositions: A focus on exit, voice, and loyalty. *AMS Review, 10*(3), 185-188.
442. Hunt, S. D. (1990). Truth in marketing theory and research. *Journal of Marketing, 54*(3), 1-15.
443. Hunt, S. D. (1991). Positivism and paradigm dominance in consumer research: Toward critical pluralism and rapprochement. *Journal of Consumer Research, 18*(1), 32-44.
444. Hunt, S. D. (1992a). For reason and realism in marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 56*(2), 89-102.
445. Hunt, S. D. (1992b). Marketing is. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 20*(4), 301-311.
446. Hunt, S. D. (2015). Marketing theory : Foundations, controversy, strategy, resource-advantage theory. from http://public.eblib.com/choice/publicfullrecord.aspx?p=1900001
447. Hunt, S. D. (2020). For re-institutionalizing the marketing discipline in era v. *AMS Review, 10*(3), 189-198.
448. Hunt, S. D. (2021). The nature and origins of impactful research in marketing. *Journal of Global Scholars of Marketing Science, 31*(2), 130-141.
449. Hunter, J. E., & Schmidt, F. L. (2004). *Methods of meta-analysis : Correcting error and bias in research findings*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

450. Hydock, C., Paharia, N., & Blair, S. (2020). Should your brand pick a side? How market share determines the impact of corporate political advocacy. *Journal of Marketing Research, 57*(6), 1135-1151.
451. Iacobucci, D., Posavac, S. S., Kardes, F. R., Schneider, M. J., & Popovich, D. L. (2014). Toward a more nuanced understanding of the statistical properties of a median split. *Journal of consumer psychology, 25*(4), 652-665.
452. Iacobucci, D., Saldanha, N., & Deng, X. (2007). A meditation on mediation: Evidence that structural equations models perform better than regressions. *Journal of consumer psychology, 17*(2), 139-153.
453. Institute for Crisis Management. (2018). Icm annual crisis report. Denver: Institute For Crisis Management.
454. Ioannidis, J. P. A. (2005). Why most published research findings are false. *PLOS Medicine, 2*(8), e124.
455. Ivens, B. S., Leischnig, A., Muller, B., & Valta, K. (2015). On the role of brand stereotypes in shaping consumer response toward brands: An empirical examination of direct and mediating effects of warmth and competence. *Psychology & Marketing, 32*(8), 808.
456. Jacoby, J. (1978). Consumer research: How valid and useful are all our consumer behavior research findings?: A state of the art review1. *Journal of Marketing, 42*(2), 87-96.
457. Jacoby, J., Johar, G. V., & Morrin, M. (1998). Consumer behavior: A quadrennium. *Annu Rev Psych, 49*(1), 319-344.
458. Jacoby, J., & Kyner, D. B. (1973). Brand loyalty vs. Repeat purchasing behavior. *Journal of Marketing Research, 10*(1), 1-9.
459. Jahn, B., & Kunz, W. (2012). How to transform consumers into fans of your brand. *Journal of Service Management, 23*(3), 344-361.
460. Jahng, M., & Hong, S. (2017). How should you tweet?: The effect of crisis response voices, strategy, and prior brand attitude in social media crisis communication. *Corporate Reputation Review, 20*(2), 147.
461. Jahng, M. R., & Hong, S. (2017). How should you tweet?: The effect of crisis response voices, strategy, and prior brand attitude in social media crisis communication. *Corporate Reputation Review, 20*(2), 147-157.
462. James, E. H., Wooten, L. P., & Dushek, K. (2011). Crisis management: Informing a new leadership research agenda. *The Academy of Management Annals, 5*(1), 455-493.
463. Jang, W. Y., & Chen, C. T. (2009). Defendant firms and response to legal crises: Effect on shareholder value. *Journal of Contingencies & Crisis Management, 17*(2), 108-117.
464. Janiszewski, C., Labroo, A. A., & Rucker, D. D. (2016). A tutorial in consumer research: Knowledge creation and knowledge appreciation in deductive-conceptual consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 43*(2), 200-209.
465. Janiszewski, C., & van Osselaer, S. M. (2021). The benefits of candidly reporting consumer research. *Journal of consumer psychology*.
466. Janiszewski, C., & Van Osselaer, S. M. J. (2000). A connectionist model of brand–quality associations. *Journal of Marketing Research, 37*(3), 331-350.
467. Janney, J. J., & Gove, S. (2011). Reputation and corporate social responsibility aberrations, trends, and hypocrisy: Reactions to firm choices in the stock option backdating scandal. *Journal of Management Studies, 48*(7), 1562-1585.
468. Janney, J. J., & Gove, S. (2017). Do executive departures to signal the end of a scandal create or reduce uncertainty? An examination of market reaction in stock option backdating scandal events. *Business & Society, 58*(6), 1209-1233.

469. Japutra, A., Molinillo, S., & Ekinci, Y. (2021). Do stereotypes matter for brand attachment? *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, *39*(4), 501-515.
470. Japutra, A., Molinillo, S., & Wang, S. (2018). Aesthetic or self-expressiveness? Linking brand logo benefits, brand stereotypes and relationship quality. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *44*, 191-200.
471. Jarvis, C. B., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2003). A critical review of construct indicators and measurement model misspecification in marketing and consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *30*(2), 199-218.
472. Jaworski, B. J. (2011). On managerial relevance. *Journal of Marketing*, *75*(3), 211-224.
473. Jedidi, K., Schmitt, B. H., Ben Sliman, M., & Li, Y. (2021). R2m index 1.0: Assessing the practical relevance of academic marketing articles. *Journal of Marketing*, *85*(5), 22-41.
474. John, L. K., Loewenstein, G., & Prelec, D. (2012). Measuring the prevalence of questionable research practices with incentives for truth telling. *Psychological Science*, *23*(5), 524-532.
475. Johnen, M., & Schnittka, O. (2019). When pushing back is good: The effectiveness of brand responses to social media complaints. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *47*(5), 858-878.
476. Johnson, A., Folkes, V., & Wang, J. (2018). When one bad apple spoils consumers' judgment of the brand: Exposure to an employee's non-workplace transgression and potential remedies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *46*(4), 725-743.
477. Johnson, A. R., Folkes, V. S., & Wang, J. (2018). When one bad apple spoils consumers' judgment of the brand: Exposure to an employee's non-workplace transgression and potential remedies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *46*(4), 725-743.
478. Johnson, M. A., Stevenson, R. M., & Letwin, C. R. (2018). A woman's place is in the… startup! Crowdfunder judgments, implicit bias, and the stereotype content model. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *33*(6), 813-831.
479. Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., Chang, C.-H., Djurdjevic, E., & Taing, M. U. (2012). Recommendations for improving the construct clarity of higher-order multidimensional constructs. *Human Resource Management Review*, *22*(2), 62-72.
480. Johnson, Z. S., Mao, H., Lefebvre, S., & Ganesh, J. (2019). Good guys can finish first: How brand reputation affects extension evaluations. *Journal of consumer psychology*, *29*(4), 565-583.
481. Jones, C., & Bonevac, D. (2013). An evolved definition of the term "brand": Why branding has a branding problem. *Journal of Brand Strategy*, *2*(2), 112-120.
482. Jones, M. A., Reynolds, K. E., & Arnold, M. J. (2006). Hedonic and utilitarian shopping value: Investigating differential effects on retail outcomes. *Journal of Business Research*, *59*(9), 974-981.
483. Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica*, *47*(2), 263-291.
484. Kähr, A., Nyffenegger, B., Krohmer, H., & Hoyer, W. D. (2016). When hostile consumers wreak havoc on your brand: The phenomenon of consumer brand sabotage. *Journal of Marketing*, *80*(3), 25-41.
485. Kalaian, H. A., & Raudenbush, S. W. (1996). A multivariate mixed linear model for meta-analysis. *Psychological Methods*, *1*(3), 227-235.
486. Kalavar, S., & Mysore, M. (2017). Are you prepared for a corporate crisis? *McKinsey Quarterly*. https://www.mckinsey.com/business-functions/risk/our-insights/are-you-prepared-for-a-corporate-crisis

487. Kang, C., Germann, F., & Grewal, R. (2016). Washing away your sins? Corporate social responsibility, corporate social irresponsibility, and firm performance. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(2), 59-79.
488. Karababa, E., & Kjeldgaard, D. (2014). Value in marketing: Toward sociocultural perspectives. *Marketing Theory, 14*(1), 119-127.
489. Karpen, I. O., Bove, L. L., Lukas, B. A., & Zyphur, M. J. (2015). Service-dominant orientation: Measurement and impact on performance outcomes. *Journal of Retailing, 91*(1), 89-108.
490. Kashmiri, S., Nicol, C. D., & Hsu, L. (2017). Birds of a feather: Intra-industry spillover of the target customer data breach and the shielding role of it, marketing, and csr. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 45*(2), 208-228.
491. Katsikeas, C. S., Morgan, N. A., Leonidou, L. C., & Hult, G. T. M. (2016). Assessing performance outcomes in marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(2), 1-20.
492. Katz, D. (1960). The functional approach to study of attitudes. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 24*(2), 163-204.
493. Kaur, P., Ramaswami, S. N., & Bommaraju, R. (2021). The chief marketing officer: An antidote to myopic earnings management practices. *Marketing Letters, 32*(2), 165-178.
494. Kavanagh, D. (1994). Hunt versus anderson: Round 16. *European Journal of Marketing, 28*(3), 26-41.
495. Keiningham, T. L., Frennea, C. M., Aksoy, L., Buoye, A., & Mittal, V. (2015). A five-component customer commitment model: Implications for repurchase intentions in goods and services industries. *Journal of Service Research, 18*(4), 433-450.
496. Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing, 57*(1), 1-22.
497. Keller, K. L. (2003). Brand synthesis: The multidimensionality of brand knowledge. *Journal of Consumer Research, 29*(4), 595-600.
498. Keller, K. L. (2012). Understanding the richness of brand relationships: Research dialogue on brands as intentional agents. *Journal of consumer psychology, 22*(2), 186-190.
499. Kennedy, R., & Hartnett, N. (2018). Marketing is scrambled: All evidence-based theorists are invited to breakfast. *Australasian Marketing Journal, 26*(4), 303-306.
500. Kenworthy, T. P., & Sparks, J. R. (2016). A scientific realism perspective on scientific progress in marketing: An analysis of theory testing in marketing's major journals. *European Management Journal, 34*(5), 466-474.
501. Kerkhof, P., & Beugels, D. (2011). Crisis pr in social media an experimental study of the effects of organizational crisis responses on facebook. *Conference Papers -- International Communication Association*, 1.
502. Kerr, G., Schultz, D. E., & Lings, I. (2016). “Someone should do something”: Replication and an agenda for collective action. *Journal of Advertising, 45*(1), 4-12.
503. Kervyn, N., Chan, E., Malone, C., Korpusik, A., & Ybarra, O. (2014). Not all disasters are equal in the public's eye: The negativity effect on warmth in brand perception. *Social cognition, 32*(3), 256-275.
504. Kervyn, N., Fiske, S. T., & Malone, C. (2012). Brands as intentional agents framework: How perceived intentions and ability can map brand perception. *Journal of consumer psychology, 22*(2), 166-176.
505. Kervyn, N., Fiske, S. T., & Malone, C. (2021). Social perception of brands: Warmth and competence define images of both brands and social groups. *Consumer Psychology Review, 5*(1), 51– 68.

506. Key, T. M., Clark, T., Ferrell, O. C., Stewart, D. W., & Pitt, L. (2020). Marketing's theoretical and conceptual value proposition: Opportunities to address marketing's influence. *AMS Review, 10*(3), 151-167.
507. Khalifa, A. S. (2004). Customer value: A review of recent literature and an integrative configuration. *Management Decision, 42*(5), 645-666.
508. Khamitov, M., Grégoire, Y., & Suri, A. (2020). A systematic review of brand transgression, service failure recovery and product-harm crisis: Integration and guiding insights. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 48*(1), 519-542.
509. Khamitov, M., Wang, X., & Thomson, M. (2019). How well do consumer-brand relationships drive customer brand loyalty? Generalizations from a meta-analysis of brand relationship elasticities. *Journal of Consumer Research, 46*(3), 435–459.
510. Kharouf, H., & Lund, D. J. (2019). An empirical examination of organisational trust recovery: Influences and implications. *European Management Review, 16*(4), 1115-1128.
511. Ki, E.-J., & Brown, K. A. (2013). The effects of crisis response strategies on relationship quality outcomes. *Journal of Business Communication, 50*(4), 403-420.
512. Kiambi, D. M., & Shafer, A. (2016). Corporate crisis communication: Examining the interplay of reputation and crisis response strategies. *Mass Communication & Society, 19*(2), 127-148.
513. Kim, P. H., Ferrin, D. L., Cooper, C. D., & Dirks, K. T. (2004). Removing the shadow of suspicion: The effects of apology versus denial for repairing competence- versus integrity-based trust violations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(1), 104-118.
514. Kim, S. (2014). The role of prior expectancies and relational satisfaction in crisis. *Journalism & Mass Communication Quarterly, 91*(1), 139.
515. Kim, S. (2019). The process model of corporate social responsibility (csr) communication: Csr communication and its relationship with consumers' csr knowledge, trust, and corporate reputation perception. *Journal of Business Ethics, 154*(4), 1143-1159.
516. Kim, S., Choi, S. M., & Atkinson, L. (2017). Congruence effects of corporate associations and crisis issue on crisis communication strategies. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*(7), 1085.
517. Kim, S., & Sung, K. H. (2014). Revisiting the effectiveness of base crisis response strategies in comparison of reputation management crisis responses. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 26*(1), 62-78.
518. Kim, S. Y., Schmitt, B. H., & Thalmann, N. M. (2019). Eliza in the uncanny valley: Anthropomorphizing consumer robots increases their perceived warmth but decreases liking. *Marketing Letters, 30*(1), 1-12.
519. Kim, Y.-K., Lee, M.-Y., & Park, S.-H. (2014). Shopping value orientation: Conceptualization and measurement. *Journal of Business Research, 67*(1), 2884-2890.
520. Kim, Y., & Peterson, R. A. (2017). A meta-analysis of online trust relationships in e-commerce. *Journal of Interactive Marketing, 38*, 44-54.
521. King, A. A. (2019). Think critically about the wisdom of experts. *MIT Sloan Management Review, 60*(2), 1.
522. Kirmani, A. (2015). Neatly tied with a bow (Vol. 25, pp. 185-186): Wiley Online Library.
523. Kirmani, A., Hamilton, R. W., Thompson, D. V., & Lantzy, S. (2017). Doing well versus doing good: The differential effect of underdog positioning on moral and competent service providers. *Journal of Marketing, 81*(1), 103-117.

524. Klein, S. B., & Loftus, J. (1990). Rethinking the role of organization in person memory: An independent trace storage model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *59*, 400-410.
525. Ko, E., Costello, J. P., & Taylor, C. R. (2019). What is a luxury brand? A new definition and review of the literature. *Journal of Business Research*, *99*, 405-413.
526. Koch, A., Yzerbyt, V., Abele, A., Ellemers, N., & Fiske, S. T. (2021). Chapter one - social evaluation: Comparing models across interpersonal, intragroup, intergroup, several-group, and many-group contexts. In B. Gawronski (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 63, pp. 1-68): Academic Press.
527. Koehn, D., & Goranova, M. (2018). Do investors see value in ethically sound ceo apologies? Investigating stock market reaction to ceo apologies. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *152*(2), 311-322.
528. Koetsier, J. (2019). Tesla spends zero on ads. Here's where bmw, toyota, ford, and porsche spend digital ad dollars. *Forbes*. https://www.forbes.com/sites/johnkoetsier/2019/05/06/tesla-spends-zero-on-ads-heres-where-bmw-toyota-ford-and-porsche-spend-digital-ad-dollars/?sh=1a0c099511d4
529. Köhler, T., & Cortina, J. M. (2019). Play it again, sam! An analysis of constructive replication in the organizational sciences. *Journal of Management*, *47*(2), 488-518.
530. Kohli, A. K. (2009). From the editor: Reflections on the review process. *Journal of Marketing*, *73*(1), 1-2.
531. Kohli, A. K., & Haenlein, M. (2020). Factors affecting the study of important marketing issues: Implications and recommendations. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *38*(1), 1-11.
532. Kohli, A. K., & Jaworski, B. J. (1990). Market orientation: The construct, research propositions, and managerial implications. *Journal of Marketing*, *54*(2), 1-18.
533. Kolbl, Ž., Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, M., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2018). *Global brand stereotypes and consumer-brand identification: Is warmth more important than competence?* Paper presented at the AMA Winter Educators' Conference Proceedings, New Orleans.
534. Kolbl, Ž., Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, M., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2019). Stereotyping global brands: Is warmth more important than competence? *Journal of Business Research*, *104*, 614-621.
535. Kolbl, Ž., Diamantopoulos, A., Arslanagic-Kalajdzic, M., & Zabkar, V. (2020). Do brand warmth and brand competence add value to consumers? A stereotyping perspective. *Journal of Business Research*, *118*, 346-362.
536. Koller, M., Floh, A., & Zauner, A. (2011). Further insights into perceived value and consumer loyalty: A “green” perspective. *Psychology & Marketing*, *28*(12), 1154-1176.
537. Kong, S., & Tao, W. (2017). Sensing public sentiments: Media induced emotions and corporate response sidedness in a victim type of crisis. *Conference Papers -- International Communication Association*, 1.
538. Koschate-Fischer, N., & Gartner, S. (2015). Brand trust: Scale development and validation. *Schmalenbach Business Review*, *67*(2), 171-195.
539. Kotler, P., & Levy, S. J. (1969). Broadening the concept of marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, *33*(1), 10-15.
540. Kozinets, R. V., Gershoff, A. D., & White, T. B. (2020). Introduction to special issue: Trust in doubt: Consuming in a post-truth world. *Journal of the Association for Consumer Research*, *5*(2), 130-136.
541. Kramer, R. M., & Lewicki, R. J. (2010). Repairing and enhancing trust: Approaches to reducing organizational trust deficits. *Academy of Management Annals*, *4*(1), 245-277.

542. Kreger, B. K. (2019). *An analysis of brand rehabilitation: Consumer perception.* (13426146 D.B.A.), Capella University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/2185745488?accountid=16468 ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.

543. Kréziak, D., Prim-Allaz, I., & Robinot, E. (2020). The destiny of replaced technological products: The influence of perceived residual value. *Recherche et Applications en Marketing (English Edition), 35*(2), 24-47.
544. Krishna, A. (2021). The need for synergy in academic policies: An introduction to the dialogue on pre-registration. *Journal of consumer psychology, 31*(1), 146-150.
545. Kübler, R. V., Langmaack, M., Albers, S., & Hoyer, W. D. (2020). The impact of value-related crises on price and product-performance elasticities. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 48*(4), 776–794.
546. Kumar, V. (2016). My reflections on publishing in journal of marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(1), 1-6.
547. Kumar, V. (2017). Integrating theory and practice in marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 81*(2), 1-7.
548. Kumar, V. (2018a). A theory of customer valuation: Concepts, metrics, strategy, and implementation. *Journal of Marketing, 82*(1), 1-19.
549. Kumar, V. (2018b, 07//). Transformative marketing: The next 20 years, Editorial, *Journal of Marketing,* pp. 1-12. Retrieved from http://nukweb.nuk.uni-lj.si/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=buh&AN=130025367&lang=sl&site=eds-live
550. Kumar, V., & George, M. (2007). Measuring and maximizing customer equity: A critical analysis. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 35*(2), 157-171.
551. Kumar, V., & Pansari, A. (2016). Competitive advantage through engagement. *Journal of Marketing Research, 53*(4), 497-514.
552. Kumar, V., & Reinartz, W. (2016). Creating enduring customer value. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(6), 36-68.
553. Kunda, Z., & Thagard, P. (1996). Forming impressions from stereotypes, traits, and behaviors: A parallel-constraint-satisfaction theory. *Psychological Review, 103*(2), 284-308.
554. Kurt, D., Pauwels, K., Kurt, A. C., & Srinivasan, S. (2021). The asymmetric effect of warranty payments on firm value: The moderating role of advertising, r&d, and industry concentration. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 38*(4), 817-837.
555. Kwon Eun, S., Shan, Y., Lee Joong, S., & Reid Leonard, N. (2017). Inter-study and intra-study replications in leading marketing journals: A longitudinal analysis. *European Journal of Marketing, 51*(1), 257-278.
556. Lakatos, I. (1999). *The methodology of scientific research programmes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
557. Lam, S. K., Ahearne, M., Hu, Y., & Schillewaert, N. (2010). Resistance to brand switching when a radically new brand is introduced: A social identity theory perspective. *Journal of Marketing, 74*(6), 128-146.
558. Lam, S. K., Ahearne, M., Mullins, R., Hayati, B., & Schillewaert, N. (2013). Exploring the dynamics of antecedents to consumer–brand identification with a new brand. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 41*(2), 234-252.
559. Lamin, A., & Zaheer, S. (2012). Wall street vs. Main street: Firm strategies for defending legitimacy and their impact on different stakeholders. *Organization Science, 23*(1), 47-66.

560. Landis, R. S. (2013). Successfully combining meta-analysis and structural equation modeling: Recommendations and strategies. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 28*(3), 251-261.
561. Landsman, V., & Stremersch, S. (2020). The commercial consequences of collective layoffs: Close the plant, lose the brand? *Journal of Marketing, 84*(3), 122-141.
562. Lange, D., Lee, P. M., & Dai, Y. (2011). Organizational reputation: A review. *Journal of Management, 37*(1), 153-184.
563. Lapierre, J. (2000). Customer-perceived value in industrial contexts. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, 15*(2/3), 122-145.
564. Larsen, K. R., & Bong, C. H. (2016). A tool for addressing construct identity in literature reviews and meta-analyses. *MIS Q., 40*(3), 529-551.
565. Laurent, G., & Kapferer, J.-N. (1985). Measuring consumer involvement profiles. *Journal of Marketing Research, 22*(1), 41-53.
566. Law, K. S., Wong, C.-S., & Mobley, W. H. (1998). Toward a taxonomy of multidimensional constructs. *The Academy of Management Review*, *23*(4), 741-755.
567. Lawson, K. M., & Robins, R. W. (2021). Sibling constructs: What are they, why do they matter, and how should you handle them? *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *25*(4), 344-366.
568. Leach, C. W., Ellemers, N., & Barreto, M. (2007). Group virtue: The importance of morality (vs. Competence and sociability) in the positive evaluation of in-groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *93*(2), 234-249.
569. Lee, B. K. (2004). Audience-oriented approach to crisis communication: A study of hong kong consumers' evaluation of an organizational crisis. *Communication Research, 31*(5), 600.
570. Lee, M., & Huang, L. (2018). Gender bias, social impact framing, and evaluation of entrepreneurial ventures. *Organization Science, 29*(1), 1-16.
571. Lee, N., & Cadogan, J. (2016). Welcome to the desert of the real: Reality, realism, measurement, and c-oar-se. *European Journal of Marketing*, *50*(11), 1959-1968.
572. Lee, S., & Chung, S. (2012). Corporate apology and crisis communication: The effect of responsibility admittance and sympathetic expression on public's anger relief. *Public Relations Review*, *38*(5), 932-934.
573. Lee, S. Y. (2016). Weathering the crisis: Effects of stealing thunder in crisis communication. *Public Relations Review, 42*(2), 336-344.
574. Lee, S. Y., & Atkinson, L. (2018). Never easy to say “sorry”: Exploring the interplay of crisis involvement, brand image, and message appeal in developing effective corporate apologies. *Public Relations Review*.
575. Lehmann, D. R. (2004). Metrics for making marketing matter. *Journal of Marketing, 68*(4), 73-75.
576. Lehmann, D. R. (2020). The evolving world of research in marketing and the blending of theory and data. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 37*(1), 27-42.
577. Lehmann, D. R., McAlister, L., & Staelin, R. (2011). Sophistication in research in marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 75*(4), 155-165.
578. Lehmann, S., & Bengart, P. (2016). Replications hardly possible: Reporting practice in top-tier marketing journals. *Journal of Modelling in Management, 11*(2), 427-445.
579. Lemke, F., Clark, M., & Wilson, H. (2011). Customer experience quality: An exploration in business and consumer contexts using repertory grid technique. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 39*(6), 846-869.
580. Lemon, K. N., & Verhoef, P. C. (2016). Understanding customer experience throughout the customer journey. *Journal of Marketing*, *80*(6), 69-96.

581. Leong, S. M. (1985). Metatheory and metamethodology in marketing: A lakatosian reconstruction. *Journal of Marketing*, *49*(4), 23-40.
582. Leonhardt, M. (2019). The 10 biggest data hacks of the decade. *CNBC*. https://www.cnbc.com/2019/12/23/the-10-biggest-data-hacks-of-the-decade.html
583. Lepthien, A., Papies, D., Clement, M., & Melnyk, V. (2017). The ugly side of customer management – consumer reactions to firm-initiated contract terminations. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 34*(4), 829-850.
584. Leroi-Werelds, S. (2019). An update on customer value: State of the art, revised typology, and research agenda. *Journal of Service Management*, *30*(5), 650-680.
585. Leroi-Werelds, S., Streukens, S., Brady, M. K., & Swinnen, G. (2014). Assessing the value of commonly used methods for measuring customer value: A multi-setting empirical study. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 42*(4), 430-451.
586. Levy, S. J. (2002). Revisiting the marketing domain. *European Journal of Marketing, 36*(3), 299-304.
587. Lewicki, R. J., & Brinsfield, C. (2017). Trust repair. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 4*(1), 287-313.
588. Lewicki, R. J., McAllister, D. J., & Bies, R. J. (1998). Trust and distrust: New relationships and realities. *Academy of Management Review, 23*(3), 438-458.
589. Li, F., Kashyap, R., Zhou, N., & Yang, Z. (2008). Brand trust as a second-order factor. An alternative measurement model. *International Journal of Market Research, 50*(6), 817-839.
590. Li, Y., Yang, K., Chen, J., Gupta, S., & Ning, F. (2019). Can an apology change after-crisis user attitude? The role of social media in online crisis management. *Information Technology & People, 32*(4), 802.
591. Lichtenstein, D. R., Netemeyer, R. G., & Burton, S. (1990). Distinguishing coupon proneness from value consciousness: An acquisition-transaction utility theory perspective. *Journal of Marketing, 54*(3), 54-67.
592. Lievens, F., & Slaughter, J. E. (2016). Employer image and employer branding: What we know and what we need to know. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *3*(1), 407-440.
593. Lilien, G. L. (2011). Bridging the academic–practitioner divide in marketing decision models. *Journal of Marketing*, *75*(4), 196-210.
594. Lim, H. S., & Brown-Devlin, N. (2021). The value of brand fans during a crisis: Exploring the roles of response strategy, source, and brand identification. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 2329488421999699.
595. Lin, C. H., Sher, P. J., & Shih, H. Y. (2005). Past progress and future directions in conceptualizing customer perceived value. *International Journal of Service Industry Management, 16*(4), 318-336.
596. Lindgreen, A., Hingley, M. K., Grant, D. B., & Morgan, R. E. (2012). Value in business and industrial marketing: Past, present, and future. *Industrial Marketing Management, 41*(1), 207-214.
597. Lindgreen, A., & Wynstra, F. (2005). Value in business markets: What do we know? Where are we going? *Industrial Marketing Management, 34*(7), 732-748.
598. Lipsey, M. W., & Wilson, D. B. (2001). *Practical meta-analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.
599. Liu, A. X., Liu, Y., & Luo, T. (2016). What drives a firm's choice of product recall remedy? The impact of remedy cost, product hazard, and the ceo. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(3), 79-95.

600. Liu, X., Lischka, H. M., & Kenning, P. (2018). Asymmetric cognitive, emotional and behavioural effects of values-related and performance-related negative brand publicity. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 27*(2), 128-145.
601. Liu, Y., Shankar, V., & Yun, W. (2017). Crisis management strategies and the long-term effects of product recalls on firm value. *Journal of Marketing, 81*(5), 30-48.
602. Louie, T. A., & Obermiller, C. (2002). Consumer response to a firm's endorser (dis)association decisions. *Journal of Advertising, 31*(4), 41-52.
603. Low, G. S., & Lamb, C. W. (2000). The measurement and dimensionality of brand associations. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 9*(6), 350-370.
604. Lukas, B. A., Whitwell, G. J., & Doyle, P. (2005). How can a shareholder value approach improve marketing's strategic influence? *Journal of Business Research, 58*(4), 414-422.
605. Luo, X. (2010). Product competitiveness and beating analyst earnings target. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 38*(3), 253-264.
606. Lynch, J. G., Bradlow, E. T., Huber, J. C., & Lehmann, D. R. (2015). Reflections on the replication corner: In praise of conceptual replications. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 32*(4), 333-342.
607. Lyon, L., & Cameron, G. T. (2004). A relational approach examining the interplay of prior reputation and immediate response to a crisis. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 16*(3), 213-241.
608. Ma, L., & Zhan, M. (2016). Effects of attributed responsibility and response strategies on organizational reputation: A meta-analysis of situational crisis communication theory research. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 28*(2), 102-119.
609. Macdonald, E. K., Kleinaltenkamp, M., & Wilson, H. N. (2016). How business customers judge solutions: Solution quality and value in use. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(3), 96-120.
610. MacInnis, D. J. (2011). A framework for conceptual contributions in marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 75*(4), 136-154.
611. MacInnis, D. J. (2012). “Brands as intentional agents”: Questions and extensions. *Journal of consumer psychology, 22*(2), 195-198.
612. MacInnis, D. J., & Folkes, V. (2010). The disciplinary status of consumer behavior: A sociology of science perspective on key controversies. *Journal of Consumer Research, 36*(6), 899-914.
613. MacInnis, D. J., Morwitz, V. G., Botti, S., Hoffman, D. L., Kozinets, R. V., Lehmann, D. R., . . . Pechmann, C. (2019). Creating boundary-breaking, marketing-relevant consumer research. *Journal of Marketing*, 0022242919889876.
614. MacKenzie, S. B. (2003). The dangers of poor construct conceptualization. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*(3), 323.
615. Magno, F. (2012). Managing product recalls: The effects of time, responsible vs. Opportunistic recall management and blame on consumers' attitudes. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*.
616. Magno, F., Cassia, F., & Ugolini, M. (2017). Impact of voluntary product recalls on utilitarian and hedonic attitudes: Is it the same for all brands? *Australian Journal of Management*(1), 161.
617. Malhotra, N. K., Kim, S. S., & Patil, A. (2006). Common method variance in is research: A comparison of alternative approaches and a reanalysis of past research. *Management Science, 52*(12), 1865-1883.
618. Malter, M. S., Holbrook, M. B., Kahn, B. E., Parker, J. R., & Lehmann, D. R. (2020). The past, present, and future of consumer research. *Marketing Letters, 31*(2), 137-149.

619. Mann, B. J. S., & Ghuman, M. K. (2014). Scale development and validation for measuring corporate brand associations. *Journal of Brand Management*, *21*(1), 43-62.
620. Manning, P. (2010). The semiotics of brand. *Annual Review of Anthropology, 39*(1), 33-49.
621. Marciukaityte, D., Szewczyk, S. H., & Varma, R. (2009). Voluntary vs. Forced financial restatements: The role of board independence. *Financial Analysts Journal*, *65*(5), 51-65.
622. Marcus, A. A., & Goodman, R. S. (1991). Victims and shareholders: The dilemmas of presenting corporate policy during a crisis. *Academy of Management Journal*, *34*(2), 281-305.
623. Marinova, D., & Singh, J. (2014). Consumer decision to upgrade or downgrade a service membership. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *42*(6), 596-618.
624. Marketing Accountability Standards Board. (Ed.) (2020a) Common Language Marketing Dictionary.
625. Marketing Accountability Standards Board. (Ed.) (2020b) Common Language Marketing Dictionary.
626. Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., & Mackey, J. D. (2014). Conceptual and empirical confounds in the organizational sciences: An explication and discussion. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35*(8), 1052-1063.
627. Marx, K. (2006). *Wage-labour and capital & value, price, and profit*. New York: International Publishers.
628. Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review, 50*(4), 370-396.
629. Mathwick, C., Malhotra, N., & Rigdon, E. (2001). Experiential value: Conceptualization, measurement and application in the catalog and internet shopping environment. *Journal of Retailing, 77*(1), 39-56.
630. Matthews, G., Deary, I. J., & Whiteman, M. C. (2009). *Personality traits*. Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press.
631. Mattila, A. S. (2009). How to handle pr disasters? An examination of the impact of communication response type and failure attributions on consumer perceptions. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *23*(4), 211-218.
632. Mattsson, J., Ramaseshan, R., & Carson, D. (2006). Let marketers reclaim corporate strategy. *Journal of Strategic Marketing, 14*(2), 165-173.
633. Mautz, S. (2019). Elon musk completely ignores market research. Here's when you should too. *Inc.* https://www.inc.com/scott-mautz/elon-musk-completely-ignores-market-research-heres-when-you-should-too.html
634. Mayer, R., Job, K., & Ellis, N. (2000). Ascending separate stairways to marketing heaven (or careful with that axiom, eugene!). *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 18*(6/7), 388-399.
635. Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review, 20*(3), 709-734.
636. McCole, P. (2004a). Marketing is not dead: A response to “elegy on the death of marketing”. *European Journal of Marketing, 38*(11/12), 1349-1354.
637. McCole, P. (2004b). Refocusing marketing to reflect practice. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 22*(5), 531-539.
638. McDonald, L. M., Sparks, B., & Glendon, A. I. (2010). Stakeholder reactions to company crisis communication and causes. *Public Relations Review*, *36*(3), 263-271.
639. McIntosh, C. N., Edwards, J. R., & Antonakis, J. (2014). Reflections on partial least squares path modeling. *Organizational Research Methods, 17*(2), 210-251.

640. Medberg, G., & Grönroos, C. (2020). Value-in-use and service quality: Do customers see a difference? *Journal of Service Theory and Practice*, *30*(4/5), 507-529.
641. Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). *An approach to environmental psychology*. Cambridge, MA, US: The MIT Press.
642. Mencarelli, R., & Rivière, A. (2014). Perceived value in b2b and b2c: A comparative approach and cross-fertilization. *Marketing Theory, 15*(2), 201-220.
643. Merle, A., Chandon, J.-L., Roux, E., & Alizon, F. (2010). Perceived value of the mass-customized product and mass customization experience for individual consumers. *Production and Operations Management, 19*(5), 503-514.
644. Merz, M. A., He, Y., & Vargo, S. L. (2009). The evolving brand logic: A service-dominant logic perspective. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 37*(3), 328-344.
645. Merz, M. A., Zarantonello, L., & Grappi, S. (2018). How valuable are your customers in the brand value co-creation process? The development of a customer co-creation value (cccv) scale. *Journal of Business Research, 82,* 79-89.
646. Meyer, R. J. (2015). Editorial: A field guide to publishing in an era of doubt. *Journal of Marketing Research, 52*(5), 577-579.
647. Meyvis, T., & Van Osselaer, S. M. J. (2017). Increasing the power of your study by increasing the effect size. *Journal of Consumer Research, 44*(5), 1157-1173.
648. Mick, D. G. (2007). The end(s) of marketing and the neglect of moral responsibility by the american marketing association. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 26*(2), 289-292.
649. Mikulić, J. (2018). Towards an end of measurement misspecification in tourism research: Grammar of theoretical constructs, focus of thought and mind traps. *Tourism Management, 68,* 444-449.
650. Mill, J. S. (2009). *Utilitarianism*. Auckland: The Floating Press.
651. Millar, M. G., & Tesser, A. (1986). Effects of affective and cognitive focus on the attitude–behavior relation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(2), 270-276.
652. Millstone, E., & van Zwanenberg, P. (2000). A crisis of trust: For science, scientists or for institutions? *Nature Medicine, 6*(12), 1307-1308.
653. Mishina, Y., Block, E. S., & Mannor, M. J. (2012). The path dependence of organizational reputation: How social judgment influences assessments of capability and character. *Strategic Management Journal, 33*(5), 459-477.
654. Mishra, A., Dash, S., & Malhotra, N. K. (2015). An integrated framework for design perception and brand equity. *AMS Review, 5*(1), 28-44.
655. Mizik, N. (2010). The theory and practice of myopic management. *Journal of Marketing Research, 47*(4), 594-611.
656. Mizik, N., & Jacobson, R. (2007). Myopic marketing management: Evidence of the phenomenon and its long-term performance consequences in the seo context. *Marketing Science, 26*(3), 361-379.
657. Mochon, D., & Schwartz, J. (2020). The importance of construct validity in consumer research. *Journal of consumer psychology, 30*(1), 208-214.
658. Molinillo, S., Gómez-Ortiz, B., Pérez-Aranda, J., & Navarro-García, A. (2017). Building customer loyalty: The effect of experiential state, the value of shopping, and trust and perceived value of service on online clothes shopping. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 35*(3), 156-171.
659. Monroe, B. M., Koenig, B. L., Wan, K. S., Laine, T., Gupta, S., & Ortony, A. (2018). Re-examining dominance of categories in impression formation: A test of dual-process models. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 115*(1), 1-30.

660. Monroe, K. B. (1990). *Pricing : Making profitable decisions*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
661. Moorman, C., & Day, G. S. (2016). Organizing for marketing excellence. *Journal of Marketing, 80*(6), 6-35.
662. Moorman, C., Zaltman, G., & Deshpande, R. (1992). Relationships between providers and users of market research: The dynamics of trust within and between organizations. *Journal of Marketing Research, 29*(3), 314-328.
663. Morales, A. C., Amir, O., & Lee, L. (2017). Keeping it real in experimental research—understanding when, where, and how to enhance realism and measure consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research, 44*(2), 465-476.
664. Morgan, N. A. (2012). Marketing and business performance. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *40*(1), 102-119.
665. Morgan, N. A., Clark, B. H., & Gooner, R. (2002). Marketing productivity, marketing audits, and systems for marketing performance assessment: Integrating multiple perspectives. *Journal of Business Research, 55*(5), 363-375.
666. Morgan, N. A., Jayachandran, S., Hulland, J., Kumar, B., Katsikeas, C. S., & Somosi, A. (2021). Marketing performance assessment and accountability: Process and outcomes. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *39*(2), 462-481.
667. Morgan, N. A., Whitler, K. A., Feng, H., & Chari, S. (2019). Research in marketing strategy. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 47*(1), 4-29.
668. Morgan, R. E. (1996). Conceptual foundations of marketing and marketing theory. *Management Decision*, *34*(10), 19-26.
669. Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 58*(3), 20-38.
670. Morrow, P. C. (1983). Concept redundancy in organizational research: The case of work commitment. *The Academy of Management Review, 8*(3), 486-500.
671. Mosley, R. (2016). How the best global employers convince workers to join and stay. *Harvard Business Review Digital Articles*.
672. Motyl, M., Demos, A. P., Carsel, T. S., Hanson, B. E., Melton, Z. J., Mueller, A. B., . . . Skitka, L. J. (2017). The state of social and personality science: Rotten to the core, not so bad, getting better, or getting worse? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *113*(1), 34-58.
673. Mukherjee, S., & Althuizen, N. (2020). Brand activism: Does courting controversy help or hurt a brand? *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 37*(4), 772-788.
674. Munafò, M. R., Nosek, B. A., Bishop, D. V. M., Button, K. S., Chambers, C. D., Percie du Sert, N., . . . Ioannidis, J. P. A. (2017). A manifesto for reproducible science. *Nature Human Behaviour, 1*(1), 0021.
675. Myers, C. (2016). Apology, sympathy, and empathy: The legal ramifications of admitting fault in u.S. Public relations practice. *Public Relations Review, 42*(1), 176-183.
676. Nakayachi, K., & Watabe, M. (2005). Restoring trustworthiness after adverse events: The signaling effects of voluntary "hostage posting" on trust. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 97*(1), 1-17.
677. Narver, J. C., & Slater, S. F. (1990). The effect of a market orientation on business profitability. *Journal of Marketing*, *54*(4), 20-35.
678. Nath, P., & Mahajan, V. (2008). Chief marketing officers: A study of their presence in firms'top management teams. *Journal of Marketing*, *72*(1), 65-81.
679. Nath, P., & Mahajan, V. (2011). Marketing in the c-suite: A study of chief marketing officer power in firms' top management teams. *Journal of Marketing, 75*(1), 60-77.

680. Nath, P., & Mahajan, V. (2017). Shedding light on the cmo revolving door: A study of the antecedents of chief marketing officer turnover. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 45*(1), 93-118.
681. Nengzhi, Y., Jiuchang, W., Weiwei, Z., & Alexander, B. (2019). The quicker, the better? The antecedents and consequences of response timing strategy in the aftermath of a corporate crisis. *Baltic Journal of Management, 14*(1), 19-38.
682. Netemeyer, R. G., Krishnan, B., Pullig, C., Wang, G., Yagci, M., Dean, D., . . . Wirth, F. (2004). Developing and validating measures of facets of customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Business Research, 57*(2), 209-224.
683. Newman, D. A., Harrison, D. A., Carpenter, N. C., & Rariden, S. M. (2016). Construct mixology: Forming new management constructs by combining old ones. *Academy of Management Annals, 10*(1), 943-995.
684. Ni, J. Z., Flynn, B. B., & Jacobs, F. R. (2014). Impact of product recall announcements on retailers' financial value. *International Journal of Production Economics, 153*, 309-322.
685. Nicastro, D. (2020). 11 necessary skills and traits for the modern chief marketing officer. *CMS Wire*. https://www.cmswire.com/leadership/11-necessary-skills-and-traits-for-the-modern-chief-marketing-officer/
686. Niiniluoto, I. (1991). Realism, relativism, and constructivism. *Synthese, 89*(1), 135-162.
687. Nijssen, E., Singh, J., Sirdeshmukh, D., & Holzmüeller, H. (2003). Investigating industry context effects in consumer-firm relationships: Preliminary results from a dispositional approach. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 31*(1), 46-60.
688. Nijssen, E., & van Herk, H. (2009). Conjoining international marketing and relationship marketing: Exploring consumers' cross-border service relationships. *Journal of International Marketing, 17*(1), 91-115.
689. Noack, D., Miller, D. R., & Smith, D. (2019). Let me make it up to you: Understanding the mitigative ability of corporate social responsibility following product recalls. *Journal of Business Ethics, 157*(2), 431–446.
690. Nosek, B. A., Ebersole, C. R., DeHaven, A. C., & Mellor, D. T. (2018). The preregistration revolution. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 115*(11), 2600-2606.
691. O'Brien, D., Veenstra, J., & Murphy, T. (2019). What 575 c-level executives really think about cmos. *Harvard Business Review Digital Articles*, 2-4.
692. Oblander, E. S., Gupta, S., Mela, C. F., Winer, R. S., & Lehmann, D. R. (2020). The past, present, and future of customer management. *Marketing Letters, 31*(2), 125-136.
693. Oh, T. T., Keller, K. L., Neslin, S. A., Reibstein, D. J., & Lehmann, D. R. (2020). The past, present, and future of brand research. *Marketing Letters*.
694. Oldmeadow, J. A. (2018). Stereotype content and morality: How competence and warmth arise from morally significant interactions. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 57*(4), 834-854.
695. Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research, 17*(4), 460-469.
696. Oliver, R. L. (1997). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer*. New York: Printce Hill.
697. Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence consumer loyalty? *Journal of Marketing, 63*(4), 33-44.
698. Orlowski, M., Bufquin, D., & Nalley, M. E. (2020). The influence of social perceptions on restaurant employee work engagement and extra-role customer service behavior: A moderated mediation model. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 62*(2), 261-275.

699. Orsingher, C., Valentini, S., & de Angelis, M. (2010). A meta-analysis of satisfaction with complaint handling in services. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 38*(2), 169-186.
700. Osigweh, Y. C. A. B. (1989). Concept fallibility in organizational science. *The Academy of Management Review, 14*(4), 579-594.
701. Ouyang, Z., Wei, J., & Zhao, D. (2017). Stock market's reaction to self-disclosure of work safety accidents: An empirical study in china. *Quality & Quantity, 51*(4), 1611.
702. Overby, J. W., Woodruff, R. B., & Gardial, S. F. (2005). The influence of culture upon consumers' desired value perceptions: A research agenda. *Marketing Theory, 5*(2), 139-163.
703. Ozdemir, S., Zhang, S., Gupta, S., & Bebek, G. (2020). The effects of trust and peer influence on corporate brand—consumer relationships and consumer loyalty. *Journal of Business Research, 117*, 791-805.
704. P. Simmons, J., D. Nelson, L., & Simonsohn, U. (2021). Pre-registration: Why and how. *Journal of consumer psychology, 31*(1), 151-162.
705. Pace, K., M., Fediuk, T., A., & Botero, I., C. (2010). The acceptance of responsibility and expressions of regret in organizational apologies after a transgression. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 15*(4), 410-427.
706. Palmatier, R. W., Dant, R. P., Grewal, D., & Evans, K. R. (2006). Factors influencing the effectiveness of relationship marketing: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing, 70*(4), 136-153.
707. Palmatier, R. W., Houston, M. B., & Hulland, J. (2018). Review articles: Purpose, process, and structure. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 46*(1), 1-5.
708. Pansari, A., & Kumar, V. (2017). Customer engagement: The construct, antecedents, and consequences. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 45*(3), 294-311.
709. Pappas, N. (2020). *An experimental investigation into the impact of crisis response strategies and relationship management in the pharmaceutical industry*. (28023575 M.A.), University of South Florida, Ann Arbor. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.
710. Pappu, R., Cooksey, R. W., & Quester, P. G. (2005). Consumer-based brand equity: Improving the measurement – empirical evidence. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 14*(3), 143-154.
711. Parasuraman, A., & Grewal, D. (2000). The impact of technology on the quality-value-loyalty chain: A research agenda. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28*(1), 168-174.
712. Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1988). Servqual: A multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. *Journal of Retailing, 64*(1), 12-40.
713. Paré, G., Trudel, M.-C., Jaana, M., & Kitsiou, S. (2015). Synthesizing information systems knowledge: A typology of literature reviews. *Information & Management, 52*(2), 183-199.
714. Parente, E. S., Costa, F. J., & Leocádio, A. L. (2015). Conceptualization and measurement of customer perceived value in banks: A brazilian contribution. *International Journal of Bank Marketing, 33*(4), 494-509.
715. Park, B., & Rogan, M. (2019). Capability reputation, character reputation, and exchange partners' reactions to adverse events. *Academy of Management Journal, 62*(2), 553-578.
716. Park, C. W., MacInnis, D. J., Priester, J. R., Eisingerich, A. B., & 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.

717. Park, E., Kim, K. J., & Kwon, S. J. (2017). Corporate social responsibility as a determinant of consumer loyalty: An examination of ethical standard, satisfaction, and trust. *Journal of Business Research, 76,* 8-13.
718. Park, H., & Reber, B. H. (2011). The organization-public relationship and crisis communication: The effect of the organization-public relationship on publics' perceptions of crisis and attitudes toward the organization. *International Journal of Strategic Communication, 5*(4), 240-260.
719. Paruchuri, S., & Misangyi, V. F. (2015). Investor perceptions of financial misconduct: The heterogeneous contamination of bystander firms. *Academy of Management Journal, 58*(1), 169-194.
720. Parvatiyar, A., & Sheth, J. N. (2021). Toward an integrative theory of marketing. *AMS Review*.
721. Patel, A., & Reinsch, L. (2003). Companies can apologize: Corporate apologies and legal liability. *Business Communication Quarterly, 66*(1), 9-25.
722. Patsiaouras, G. (2019). Marketing concepts can have a life of their own: Representation and pluralism in marketing concept analysis. *Marketing Theory, 19*(4), 559-566.
723. Patterson, M. (1999). Re-appraising the concept of brand image. *Journal of Brand Management, 6*(6), 409-426.
724. Paulhus, D. L., & Trapnell, P. D. (2008). Self-presentation of personality: An agency-communion framework [Press release]
725. Payne, A., Frow, P., & Eggert, A. (2017). The customer value proposition: Evolution, development, and application in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 45*(4), 467-489.
726. Payne, A., & Holt, S. (1999). A review of the ‘value’ literature and implications for relationship marketing. *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ), 7*(1), 41-51.
727. Payne, A., & Holt, S. (2001). Diagnosing customer value: Integrating the value process and relationship marketing. *British Journal of Management, 12*(2), 159-182.
728. Payne, A., Storbacka, K., & Frow, P. (2008). Managing the co-creation of value. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 36*(1), 83-96.
729. Pearson, C. M., & Clair, J. A. (1998). Reframing crisis management. *The Academy of Management Review, 23*(1), 59-76.
730. Perry, R. B. (1950). *General theory of value: Its meaning and basic principles construed in terms of interest*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
731. Peter, C., & Ponzi, M. (2018). The risk of omitting warmth or competence information in ads: Advertising strategies for hedonic and utilitarian brand types. *Journal of Advertising Research, 58*(4), 423-432.
732. Peter, J. P. (1981). Construct validity: A review of basic issues and marketing practices. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*(2), 133-145.
733. Peter, J. P., & Olson, J. C. (1983). Is science marketing? *Journal of Marketing, 47*(4), 111-125.
734. Petersen, J. A., Kumar, V., Polo, Y., & Sese, F. J. (2018). Unlocking the power of marketing: Understanding the links between customer mindset metrics, behavior, and profitability. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 46*(5), 813–836.
735. Petersen, J. A., McAlister, L., Reibstein, D. J., Winer, R. S., Kumar, V., & Atkinson, G. (2009). Choosing the right metrics to maximize profitability and shareholder value. *Journal of Retailing, 85*(1), 95-111.
736. Peterson, R. A., & Brown, S. P. (2005). On the use of beta coefficients in meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(1), 175-181.

737. Petrick, J. F. (2002). Development of a multi-dimensional scale for measuring the perceived value of a service. *Journal of Leisure Research, 34*(2), 119-134.
738. Pfeffer, J. (2015). Corporate apologies: Beware the pitfalls of saying sorry. *Fortune*. https://fortune.com/2015/10/26/corporate-apologies-crisis-management/
739. Pham, M. T. (2013). The seven sins of consumer psychology. *Journal of consumer psychology, 23*(4), 411-423.
740. Pham, M. T., & Oh, T. T. (2021). Preregistration is neither sufficient nor necessary for good science. *Journal of consumer psychology, 31*(1), 163-176.
741. Piercy, N. F. (1986). Marketing asset accounting: Scope and rationale. *European Journal of Marketing, 20*(1), 5-15.
742. Piercy, N. F. (2002). Research in marketing: Teasing with trivia or risking relevance? *European Journal of Marketing, 36*(3), 350-363.
743. Pieters, R. (2017). Meaningful mediation analysis: Plausible causal inference and informative communication. *Journal of Consumer Research, 44*(3), 692-716.
744. Pieters, R., & Baumgartner, H. (2002). Who talks to whom? Intra- and interdisciplinary communication of economics journals. *Journal of Economic literature, 40*(2), 483-509.
745. Pimenta da Gama, A. (2011). An expanded model of marketing performance. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 29*(7), 643-661.
746. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annu Rev Psych, 63*(1), 539-569.
747. Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2016). Recommendations for creating better concept definitions in the organizational, behavioral, and social sciences. *Organizational Research Methods, 19*(2), 159-203.
748. Pogacar, R., Angle, J., Lowrey, T. M., Shrum, L. J., & Kardes, F. R. (2021). Is nestlé a lady? The feminine brand name advantage. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(6), 101-117.
749. Pomerance, J., Light, N., & Williams, L. E. (2020). In these uncertain times: Fake news amplifies the desires to save and spend in response to covid-19. *Journal of the Association for Consumer Research, 7*(1), 45-53.
750. Ponsonby, S., & Boyle, E. (2004). The 'value of marketing' and 'the marketing of value' in contemporary times –a literature review and research agenda. *Journal of Marketing Management, 20*(3-4), 343-361.
751. Poppo, L., & Schepker, D. J. (2010). Repairing public trust in organizations. *Corporate Reputation Review, 13*(2), 124-141.
752. Portal, S., Abratt, R., & Bendixen, M. (2019). The role of brand authenticity in developing brand trust. *Journal of Strategic Marketing, 27*(8), 714-729.
753. Post, C., Sarala, R., Gatrell, C., & Prescott, J. E. (2020). Advancing theory with review articles. *Journal of Management Studies, 57*(2), 351-376.
754. Prahalad, C. K., & Ramaswamy, V. (2004). Co-creating unique value with customers. *Strategy & Leadership, 32*(3), 4-9.
755. Puccinelli, N. M., Goodstein, R. C., Grewal, D., Price, R., Raghubir, P., & Stewart, D. (2009). Customer experience management in retailing: Understanding the buying process. *Journal of Retailing, 85*(1), 15-30.
756. Puligadda, S., Ross, W. T., & Grewal, R. (2012). Individual differences in brand schematicity. *Journal of Marketing Research, 49*(1), 115-130.
757. Puustinen, P., Maas, P., & Karjaluoto, H. (2013). Development and validation of the perceived investment value (piv) scale. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 36*, 41-54.

758. Puzakova, M., Hyokjin, K., & Rocereto, J. F. (2013). When humanizing brands goes wrong: The detrimental effect of brand anthropomorphization amid product wrongdoings. *Journal of Marketing*, *77*(3), 81-100.
759. PwC. (2019). Pwc's global crisis survey 2019.
760. Racine, M., Wilson, C., & Wynes, M. (2018). The value of apology: How do corporate apologies moderate the stock market reaction to non-financial corporate crises? *Journal of Business Ethics*.
761. Rahman, T. (2020). Why tesla pays $0 for their marketing. *Better Marketing*. https://bettermarketing.pub/why-tesla-pays-0-for-their-marketing-610781a23d63
762. Raithel, S., & Hock, S. J. (2021). The crisis-response match: An empirical investigation. *Strategic Management Journal*, *42*(1), 170-184.
763. Raithel, S., & Schwaiger, M. (2015). The effects of corporate reputation perceptions of the general public on shareholder value. *Strategic Management Journal*, *36*(6), 945-956.
764. Ramírez, R. (1999). Value co-production: Intellectual origins and implications for practice and research. *Strategic Management Journal*, *20*(1), 49-65.
765. Ranjan, K. R., & Read, S. (2016). Value co-creation: Concept and measurement. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *44*(3), 290-315.
766. Ranjan, K. R., Sugathan, P., & Rossmann, A. (2015). A narrative review and meta-analysis of service interaction quality: New research directions and implications. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *29*(1), 3-14.
767. Rao, A. R., & Monroe, K. B. (1989). The effect of price, brand name, and store name on buyers' perceptions of product quality: An integrative review. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *26*(3), 351-357.
768. Rasoulian, S., Grégoire, Y., Legoux, R., & Sénécal, S. (2017). Service crisis recovery and firm performance: Insights from information breach announcements. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *45*(6), 789-806.
769. Raudenbush, S. W., & Bryk, A. S. (2002). *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
770. Ravald, A., & Grönroos, C. (1996). The value concept and relationship marketing. *European Journal of Marketing*, *30*(2), 19-30.
771. Reed, R. T. (2014). *Recovering corporate consumer trust: A study of crisis response strategies and repairing damaged trust.* (3637483 Ph.D.), Fielding Graduate University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/1617525706?accountid=16468 ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.

772. Reibstein, D. J., Day, G., & Wind, J. (2009). Guest editorial: Is marketing academia losing its way? *Journal of Marketing*, *73*(4), 1-3.
773. Reinders Folmer, C. P., De Cremer, D., Wubben, M., & van Dijke, M. (2020). We can't go on together with suspicious minds: Forecasting errors in evaluating the appreciation of denials. *Journal of Trust Research*, *10*(1), 4-22.
774. Ren, H., & Gray, B. (2009). Repairing relationship conflict: How violation types and culture influence the effectiveness of restoration rituals. *Academy of Management Review*, *34*(1), 105-126.
775. Richards, K. A., & Jones, E. (2008). Customer relationship management: Finding value drivers. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *37*(2), 120-130.
776. Richardson, H. A., Simmering, M. J., & Sturman, M. C. (2009). A tale of three perspectives:Examining post hoc statistical techniques for detection and correction of common method variance. *Organizational Research Methods*, *12*(4), 762-800.

777. Richins, M. L., & Dawson, S. (1992). A consumer values orientation for materialism and its measurement: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Consumer Research, 19*(3), 303-316.
778. Ringold, D. J., & Weitz, B. (2007). The american marketing association definition of marketing: Moving from lagging to leading indicator. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 26*(2), 251-260.
779. Rivière, A., & Mencarelli, R. (2012). Towards a theoretical clarification of perceived value in marketing. *Recherche et Applications en Marketing (English Edition) (AFM c/o ESCP-EAP), 27*(3), 97-122.
780. Roberts, J. H., Kayande, U., & Stremersch, S. (2014). From academic research to marketing practice: Exploring the marketing science value chain. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 31*(2), 127-140.
781. Rodriguez-Villá, O., Bharadwaj, S., Morgan, N. A., & Mitra, S. (2020). Is your marketing organization ready for what's next? *Harvard Business Review*(6).
782. Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York, NY, US: Free Press.
783. Romaniuk, J., & Nenycz-Thiel, M. (2013). Behavioral brand loyalty and consumer brand associations. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(1), 67-72.
784. Rönkkö, M., & Cho, E. (2020). An updated guideline for assessing discriminant validity. *Organizational Research Methods, 25*(1), 6-14.
785. Rosario, A. B., Sotgiu, F., De Valck, K., & Bijmolt, T. H. A. (2016). The effect of electronic word of mouth on sales: A meta-analytic review of platform, product, and metric factors. *Journal of Marketing Research, 53*(3), 297–318.
786. Rosati, P., Deeney, P., Cummins, M., van der Werff, L., & Lynn, T. (2019). Social media and stock price reaction to data breach announcements: Evidence from us listed companies. *Research in International Business and Finance, 47*(1), 458-469.
787. Roschk, H., & Hosseinpour, M. (2020). Pleasant ambient scents: A meta-analysis of customer responses and situational contingencies. *Journal of Marketing, 84*(1), 125-145.
788. Rosenberg, S., Nelson, C., & Vivekananthan, P. S. (1968). A multidimensional approach to the structure of personality impressions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 9*(4), 283-294.
789. Rosengren, S., & Dahlén, M. (2015). Exploring advertising equity: How a brand's past advertising may affect consumer willingness to approach its future ads. *Journal of Advertising, 44*(1), 1-13.
790. Rosengren, S., Eisend, M., Koslow, S., & Dahlen, M. (2020). A meta-analysis of when and how advertising creativity works. *Journal of Marketing, 84*(6), 39-56.
791. Rosenthal, R. (1979). The file drawer problem and tolerance for null results. *The Psychological Bulletin, 86*(3), 638-641.
792. Rossiter, J. R. (2012). Advertising management principles are derived mostly from logic and very little from empirical generalizations. *Marketing Theory, 12*(2), 103-116.
793. Rousseau, D. M., Manning, J., & Denyer, D. (2008). 11 evidence in management and organizational science: Assembling the field's full weight of scientific knowledge through syntheses. *Academy of Management Annals, 2*(1), 475-515.
794. Roy Sanjit, K., Paul, R., Quazi, A., & Nguyen, B. (2018). Developing a service value measurement scale in retail banking services: Evidence from india. *International Journal of Bank Marketing, 36*(4), 616-633.
795. Rubel, O., Naik, P. A., & Srinivasan, S. (2011). Optimal advertising when envisioning a product-harm crisis. *Marketing Science, 30*(6), 1048-1065.
796. Rubinstein, R. S., Jussim, L., & Stevens, S. T. (2018). Reliance on individuating information and stereotypes in implicit and explicit person perception. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 75*, 54-70.

797. Ruiz-Molina, M.-E., Gallarza, M., & Gil-Saura, I. (2018). A review of value drivers in service settings. *Journal of Services Marketing, 32*(7), 850-867.
798. Ruiz, D. M., Gremler, D. D., Washburn, J. H., & Carrión, G. C. (2008). Service value revisited: Specifying a higher-order, formative measure. *Journal of Business Research, 61*(12), 1278-1291.
799. Rupp, N. G. (2001a). Are government initiated recalls more damaging for shareholders? Evidence from automotive recalls, 1973-1998. *Economics Letters, 71*(2), 265-270.
800. Rupp, N. G. (2001b). Are government initiated recalls more damaging for shareholders? Evidence from automotive recalls, 1973–1998. *Economics Letters, 71*(2), 265-270.
801. Rust, R. T., Ambler, T., Carpenter, G. S., Kumar, V., & Srivastava, R. K. (2004). Measuring marketing productivity: Current knowledge and future directions. *Journal of Marketing, 68*(4), 76-89.
802. Rust, R. T., Rand, W., Huang, M.-H., Stephen, A. T., Brooks, G., & Chabuk, T. (2021). Real-time brand reputation tracking using social media. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(4), 21-43.
803. Rutter, R., Chalvatzis, K. J., Roper, S., & Lettice, F. (2018). Branding instead of product innovation: A study on the brand personalities of the uk's electricity market. *European Management Review, 15*(2), 255-272.
804. Sánchez-Fernández, R., & Iniesta-Bonillo, M. Á. (2007). The concept of perceived value: A systematic review of the research. *Marketing Theory, 7*(4), 427-451.
805. Sánchez-Fernández, R., & Iniesta-Bonillo, M. Á. (2009). Efficiency and quality as economic dimensions of perceived value: Conceptualization, measurement, and effect on satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *16*(6), 425-433.
806. Sanchez-Fernandez, R., Iniesta-Bonillo, M. A., & Holbrook, M. B. (2009). The conceptualisation of and measurement of consumer value in services. *International Journal of Market Research*(1), 93.
807. Sánchez, J., Callarisa, L., Rodríguez, R. M., & Moliner, M. A. (2006). Perceived value of the purchase of a tourism product. *Tourism Management, 27*(3), 394-409.
808. Sandberg, J., & Alvesson, M. (2020). Meanings of theory: Clarifying theory through typification. *Journal of Management Studies, n/a*(n/a).
809. Sarstedt, M., Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., Thiele, K. O., & Gudergan, S. P. (2016). Estimation issues with pls and cbsem: Where the bias lies! *Journal of Business Research, 69*(10), 3998-4010.
810. Sartori, G. (1970). Concept misformation in comparative politics. *The American Political Science Review, 64*(4), 1033-1053.
811. Sato, S., Arai, A., Tsuji, Y., & Kay, M. (2020). When should a brand cut ties with a scandalized endorser? *Communication & Sport, 8*(2), 215-235.
812. Savitt, R. (1980). Historical research in marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 44*(4), 52-58.
813. Schaller, M. (2016). The empirical benefits of conceptual rigor: Systematic articulation of conceptual hypotheses can reduce the risk of non-replicable results (and facilitate novel discoveries too). *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 66*, 107-115.
814. Schatzki, T. R. (1996). *Social pracices : A wittgensteinian approach to human activity*. New York: Guilford Press.
815. Schau, H. J., Muñiz, J., Albert M. , & Arnould, E. J. (2009). How brand community practices create value. *Journal of Marketing, 73*(5), 30-51.

816. Scheel, A. M., Tiokhin, L., Isager, P. M., & Lakens, D. (2020). Why hypothesis testers should spend less time testing hypotheses. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 16*(4), 744-755.
817. Schepers, J., Falk, T., de Ruyter, K., de Jong, A., & Hammerschmidt, M. (2012). Principles and principals: Do customer stewardship and agency control compete or complement when shaping frontline employee behavior? *Journal of Marketing, 76*(6), 1-20.
818. Schmitt, B. H., Cotte, J., Giesler, M., Stephen, A. T., & Wood, S. (2022). Relevance—reloaded and recoded. *Journal of Consumer Research, 48*(5), 753-755.
819. Schoofs, L., Claeys, A.-S., De Waele, A., & Cauberghe, V. (2018). Empathy as a driver of consumers' attitudinal responses to organizational crises and crisis communication. *Conference Papers - International Communication Association*, 1-37.
820. Schwaiger, M. (2004). Components and parameters of corporate reputation — an empirical study. *Schmalenbach Business Review, 56*(1), 46-71.
821. Schwartz, S. H., & Bilsky, W. (1987). Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53*(3), 550-562.
822. Sethuraman, R., Tellis, G. J., & Briesch, R. A. (2011). How well does advertising work? Generalizations from meta-analysis of brand advertising elasticities. *Journal of Marketing Research, 48*(3), 457-471.
823. Sevillano, V., & Fiske, S. T. (2019). Stereotypes, emotions, and behaviors associated with animals: A causal test of the stereotype content model and bias map. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations, 22*(6), 879-900.
824. Shadish, W. R., Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Belmont: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
825. Shaffer, J. A., DeGeest, D., & Li, A. (2015). Tackling the problem of construct proliferation: A guide to assessing the discriminant validity of conceptually related constructs. *Organizational Research Methods, 19*(1), 80-110.
826. Sharp, B., Wright, M., Kennedy, R., & Nguyen, C. (2017). Viva la revolution! For evidence-based marketing we strive. *Australasian Marketing Journal, 25*(4), 341-346.
827. Shaw, E. H., & Jones, D. G. B. (2005). A history of schools of marketing thought. *Marketing Theory, 5*(3), 239-281.
828. Shea, C. T., & Hawn, O. (2019). Microfoundations of corporate social responsibility and irresponsibility. *Academy of Management Journal, 62*(5), 1609–1642.
829. Shepherd, D. A., & Suddaby, R. (2016). Theory building: A review and integration. *Journal of Management, 43*(1), 59-86.
830. Sherman, J. W., & Hamilton, D. L. (1994). On the formation of interitem associative links in person memory. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 30*(3), 203-217.
831. Sheth, J. N., Newman, B. I., & Gross, B. L. (1991a). *Consumption values and market choices : Theory and applications*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co.
832. Sheth, J. N., Newman, B. I., & Gross, B. L. (1991b). Why we buy what we buy: A theory of consumption values. *Journal of Business Research, 22*(2), 159-170.
833. Sheth, J. N., & Sisodia, R. S. (1995). More than ever before, marketing is under fire to account for what it spends. *Marketing Management, 4*(2), 13-14.
834. Sheth, J. N., & Sisodia, R. S. (2002). Marketing productivity: Issues and analysis. *Journal of Business Research, 55*(5), 349-362.
835. Sheth, J. N., & Uslay, C. (2007). Implications of the revised definition of marketing: From exchange to value creation. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 26*(2), 302-307.

836. Shin, H., Casidy, R., Yoon, A., & Yoon, S.-H. (2016). Brand trust and avoidance following brand crisis: A quasi-experiment on the effect of franchisor statements. *Journal of Brand Management, 23*(5), 1-23.
837. Shu, H., & Wong, S. M.-L. (2018). When a sinner does a good deed: The path-dependence of reputation repair. *Journal of Management Studies, 55*(5), 770-808.
838. Shugan, S. M. (2002). Editorial: Marketing science, models, monopoly models, and why we need them. *Marketing Science, 21*(3), 223-228.
839. Shugan, S. M. (2007). Editorial: Causality, unintended consequences and deducing shared causes. *Marketing Science, 26*(6), 731-741.
840. Shultz, C. J. (2007). Marketing as constructive engagement. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 26*(2), 293-301.
841. Shuv-Ami, A. (2012). Brand commitment: A new four-dimensional (4 es) conceptualisation and scale. *Journal of Customer Behaviour, 11*(3), 281-305.
842. Simmering, M. J., Fuller, C. M., Richardson, H. A., Ocal, Y., & Atinc, G. M. (2015). Marker variable choice, reporting, and interpretation in the detection of common method variance:A review and demonstration. *Organizational Research Methods, 18*(3), 473-511.
843. Simmons, J. P., Nelson, L. D., & Simonsohn, U. (2011). False-positive psychology: Undisclosed flexibility in data collection and analysis allows presenting anything as significant. *Psychological Science, 22*(11), 1359-1366.
844. Simon, H. A. (1959). Theories of decision-making in economics and behavioral science. *The American Economic Review, 49*(3), 253-283.
845. Singh, J. (1991). Redundancy in constructs: Problem, assessment, and an illustrative example. *Journal of Business Research, 22*(3), 255-280.
846. Singh, J., Crisafulli, B., & Quamina, L. T. (2019). 'Corporate image at stake': The impact of crises and response strategies on consumer perceptions of corporate brand alliances. *Journal of Business Research*.
847. Singh, J., Crisafulli, B., & Quamina, L. T. (2020a). 'Corporate image at stake': The impact of crises and response strategies on consumer perceptions of corporate brand alliances. *Journal of Business Research, 117*(4), 839-849.
848. Singh, J., Crisafulli, B., Quamina, L. T., & Xue, M. T. (2020b). 'To trust or not to trust': The impact of social media influencers on the reputation of corporate brands in crisis. *Journal of Business Research, 119*(10), 464-480.
849. Singh, J., Lentz, P., & Nijssen, E. (2011). First- and second-order effects of consumers' institutional logics on firm–consumer relationships: A cross-market comparative analysis. *Journal of International Business Studies, 42*(2), 307-333.
850. Singh, J., & Sirdeshmukh, D. (2000). Agency and trust mechanisms in consumer satisfaction and loyalty judgments. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28*(1), 150-167.
851. Sirdeshmukh, D., Singh, J., & Sabol, B. (2002). Consumer trust, value, and loyalty in relational exchanges. *Journal of Marketing, 66*(1), 15-37.
852. Slaughter, J. E., Cable, D. M., & Turban, D. B. (2014). Changing job seekers' image perceptions during recruitment visits: The moderating role of belief confidence. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 99*(6), 1146-1158.
853. Smith, J. B., & Colgate, M. (2007). Customer value creation: A practical framework. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 15*(1), 7-23.
854. Smith, L. C., Smith, M., & Ashcroft, P. (2011). Analysis of environmental and economic damages from british petroleum's deepwater horizon oil spill. *Albany Law Review, 74*(1), 563-585.

855. Smith, N. C., Drumwright, M. E., & Gentile, M. C. (2010). The new marketing myopia. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 29*(1), 4-11.
856. Sneader, K., & Singhal, S. (2020). Beyond coronavirus: The path to the next normal. *McKinsey Insights*. Retrieved from https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/healthcare-systems-and-services/our-insights/beyond-coronavirus-the-path-to-the-next-normal#:~:text=Our%20answer%20is%20a%20call,Return%2C%20Reimagination%2C%20and%20Reform.
857. Snow, C. C., & Ketchen, D. J. (2014). Typology-driven theorizing: A response to delbridge and fiss. *Academy of Management Review, 39*(2), 231-233.
858. Sohn, Y. J., & Lariscy, R. W. (2014). Understanding reputational crisis: Definition, properties, and consequences. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 26*(1), 23-43.
859. Souiden, N., & Pons, F. (2009). Product recall crisis management: The impact on manufacturer's image, consumer loyalty and purchase intention. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 18*(2), 106-114.
860. Spreng, R. A., MacKenzie, S. B., & Olshavsky, R. W. (1996). A reexamination of the determinants of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*(3), 15.
861. Srinivasan, R., & Ramani, N. (2019). With power comes responsibility: How powerful marketing departments can help prevent myopic management. *Journal of Marketing, 83*(3), 108-125.
862. Srinivasan, S., & Hanssens, D. M. (2009). Marketing and firm value: Metrics, methods, findings, and future directions. *Journal of Marketing Research, 46*(3), 293-312.
863. Srinivasan, S., Vanhuele, M., & Pauwels, K. (2010). Mind-set metrics in market response models: An integrative approach. *Journal of Marketing Research, 47*(4), 672-684.
864. Srivastava, R. K., Fahey, L., & Christensen, H. K. (2001). The resource-based view and marketing: The role of market-based assets in gaining competitive advantage. *Journal of Management, 27*(6), 777-802.
865. Srivastava, R. K., Shervani, T. A., & Fahey, L. (1998). Market-based assets and shareholder value: A framework for analysis. *Journal of Marketing, 62*(1), 2-18.
866. Srull, T. K., & Wyer, R. S. (1989). Person memory and judgment. *Psychological Review, 96*(1), 58-83.
867. Stäbler, S., & Fischer, M. (2020). When does corporate social irresponsibility become news? Evidence from more than 1,000 brand transgressions across five countries. *Journal of Marketing, 84*(3), 46-67.
868. Stahl, F., Heitmann, M., Lehmann, D. R., & Neslin, S. A. (2012). The impact of brand equity on customer acquisition, retention, and profit margin. *Journal of Marketing, 76*(4), 44-63.
869. Stanaland, A. J. S., Lwin, M. O., & Murphy, P. E. (2011). Consumer perceptions of the antecedents and consequences of corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Business Ethics, 102*(1), 47-55.
870. Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., Batra, R., & Alden, D. L. (2003). How perceived brand globalness creates brand value. *Journal of International Business Studies, 34*(1), 53-65.
871. Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., & Geyskens, I. (2006). How country characteristics affect the perceived value of web sites. *Journal of Marketing, 70*(3), 136-150.
872. Steinbach, A. L. (2016). *Climbing out of the hole or digging deeper: A model of customer reactions to product recalls and recalling firm responses.* (10117112 Ph.D.), Michigan State University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/1803308075?accountid=16468 ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.

873. Stern, B. B. (2006). What does brand mean? Historical-analysis method and construct definition. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *34*(2), 216-223.
874. Stern, B. B., Zinkhan, G. M., & Jaju, A. (2001). Marketing images: Construct definition, measurement issues, and theory development. *Marketing Theory, 1*(2), 201-224.
875. Stewart, D. W. (2009). Marketing accountability: Linking marketing actions to financial results. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(6), 636-643.
876. Stiegert, P., Täuber, S., Leliveld, M. C., & Oehmichen, J. (2021). The stereotype rub-off effect – organizational stereotypes modulate behavioural expectations, expectancy violation and punishment after transgressions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 165*, 127-138.
877. Stiglitz, J. E. (1987). The causes and consequences of the dependence of quality on price. *Journal of Economic literature, 25*(1), 1-48.
878. Stockmyer, J. (1996). Brands in crisis: Consumer help for deserving victims. In K. P. Corfman & J. G. Lynch (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research, vol 23: Research frame synergies* (Vol. 23, pp. 429-435).
879. Stokburger-Sauer, N., Ratneshwar, S., & Sen, S. (2012). Drivers of consumer–brand identification. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 29*(4), 406-418.
880. Stolier, R. M., Hehman, E., & Freeman, J. B. (2018). A dynamic structure of social trait space. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 22*(3), 197-200.
881. Stolier, R. M., Hehman, E., & Freeman, J. B. (2020). Trait knowledge forms a common structure across social cognition. *Nature Human Behaviour, 4*(4), 361-371.
882. Strahan, R., & Gerbasi, K. C. (1972). Short, homogeneous versions of the marlow-crowne social desirability scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 28*(2), 191-193.
883. Stremersch, S., Winer, R. S., & Camacho, N. (2021). Faculty research incentives and business school health: A new perspective from and for marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(5), 1-21.
884. Stroebe, W. (2016). Are most published social psychological findings false? *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 66*, 134-144.
885. Stuart, A. C., Bedard, J. C., & Clark, C. E. (2021). Corporate social responsibility disclosures and investor judgments in difficult times: The role of ethical culture and assurance. *Journal of Business Ethics, 171*(3), 565-582.
886. Suddaby, R. (2010). Editor's comments: Construct clarity in theories of management and organization. *Academy of Management Review, 25*(3), 346-357.
887. Sun, Y., & Pan, Z. (2020). Not published is not perished: Addressing publication bias in meta-analytic studies in communication. *Human Communication Research, 46*(2-3), 300-321.
888. Sung, Y., Choi, S. M., Ahn, H., & Song, Y.-A. (2015). Dimensions of luxury brand personality: Scale development and validation. *Psychology & Marketing, 32*(1), 121-132.
889. Swaminathan, V., Sorescu, A., Steenkamp, J.-B. E. M., O'Guinn, T. C. G., & Schmitt, B. (2020). Branding in a hyperconnected world: Refocusing theories and rethinking boundaries. *Journal of Marketing, 84*(2), 24-46.
890. Swan, J. E., Bowers, M. R., & Richardson, L. D. (1999). Customer trust in the salesperson: An integrative review and meta-analysis of the empirical literature. *Journal of Business Research, 44*(2), 93-107.
891. Sweeney, J. C., & Soutar, G. N. (2001). Consumer perceived value: The development of a multiple item scale. *Journal of Retailing, 77*(2), 203-220.

892. Sweeney, J. C., Soutar, G. N., & Johnson, L. W. (1999). The role of perceived risk in the quality-value relationship: A study in a retail environment. *Journal of Retailing, 75*(1), 77-105.
893. Swoboda, B., Pennemann, K., & Taube, M. (2012). The effects of perceived brand globalness and perceived brand localness in china: Empirical evidence on western, asian, and domestic retailers. *Journal of International Marketing, 20*(4), 72.
894. Szőcs, I., Schlegelmilch, B. B., Rusch, T., & Shamma, H. M. (2016). Linking cause assessment, corporate philanthropy, and corporate reputation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 44*(3), 376-396.
895. Szollosi, A., & Donkin, C. (2021). Arrested theory development: The misguided distinction between exploratory and confirmatory research. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *16*(4), 717-724.
896. Szymanski, D. M., & Henard, D. H. (2001). Customer satisfaction: A meta-analysis of the empirical evidence. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 29*(1), 16-35.
897. Tähtinen, J., & Havila, V. (2018). Conceptually confused, but on a field level? A method for conceptual analysis and its application. *Marketing Theory, 19*(4), 533-557.
898. Tamilia, R. D. (2011). Reflections on the history of marketing thought and theory development. *Marketing Theory, 11*(4), 507-512.
899. Tan, H.-T., & Yu, Y. (2018). Management's responsibility acceptance, locus of breach, and investors' reactions to internal control reports. *Accounting Review, 93*(6), 331-355.
900. Tasci, A. D. A. (2016). A critical review of consumer value and its complex relationships in the consumer-based brand equity network. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 5*(3), 171-191.
901. Taylor, W. J. (1965). “Is marketing a science?” revisited. *Journal of Marketing, 29*(3), 49-53.
902. Teas, R. K., & Agarwal, S. (2000). The effects of extrinsic product cues on consumers’ perceptions of quality, sacrifice, and value. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28*(2), 278-290.
903. Teas, R. K., & Palan, K. M. (1997). The realms of scientific meaning framework for constructing theoretically meaningful nominal definitions of marketing concepts. *Journal of Marketing, 61*(2), 52-67.
904. Tellis, G. J. (2017). Interesting and impactful research: On phenomena, theory, and writing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 45*(1), 1-6.
905. ten Brinke, L., & Adams, G. S. (2015). Saving face? When emotion displays during public apologies mitigate damage to organizational performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 130*, 1-12.
906. Thaler, R. (1985). Mental accounting and consumer choice. *Marketing Science*, *4*(3), 199-214.
907. Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). *The social psychology of groups*. Oxford, England: John Wiley.
908. 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.
909. Toffler, A. (1980). *The third wave*. New York: Morrow.
910. Tomlinson, E. C., & Maryer, R. C. (2009). The role of causal attribution dimensions in trust repair. *Academy of Management Review, 34*(1), 85-104.
911. Tourish, D., & Craig, R. (2018). Research misconduct in business and management studies: Causes, consequences, and possible remedies. *Journal of Management Inquiry, 29*(2), 174-187.

912. Triantafillidou, A., & Yannas, P. (2020). Social media crisis communication in racially charged crises: Exploring the effects of social media and image restoration strategies. *Computers in Human Behavior, 106*, 106269.
913. Triche, J. H., & Walden, E. (2018). The use of impression management strategies to manage stock market reactions to it failures. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems, 19*(4), 333-358.
914. Tsarenko, Y., & Tojib, D. (2015). Consumers' forgiveness after brand transgression: The effect of the firm's corporate social responsibility and response. *Journal of Marketing Management, 31*(17-18), 1851-1877.
915. Tse, D. K., & Wilton, P. C. (1988). Models of consumer satisfaction formation: An extension. *Journal of Marketing Research, 25*(2), 204-212.
916. Turel, O., Serenko, A., & Bontis, N. (2007). User acceptance of wireless short messaging services: Deconstructing perceived value. *Information & Management, 44*(1), 63-73.
917. Turk, J. V., Jin, Y., Stewart, S., Kim, J., & Hipple, J. R. (2012). Examining the interplay of an organization's prior reputation, ceo's visibility, and immediate response to a crisis. *Public Relations Review, 38*(4), 574-583.
918. Ulaga, W., & Eggert, A. (2005). Relationship value in business markets: The construct and its dimensions. *Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing, 12*(1), 73-99.
919. Ulaga, W., & Eggert, A. (2006a). Relationship value and relationship quality: Broadening the nomological network of business-to-business relationships. *European Journal of Marketing, 40*(3/4), 311-327.
920. Ulaga, W., & Eggert, A. (2006b). Value-based differentiation in business relationships: Gaining and sustaining key supplier status. *Journal of Marketing, 70*(1), 119-136.
921. Ulaga, W., Kleinaltenkamp, M., Kashyap, V., & Eggert, A. (2021). Advancing marketing theory and practice: Guidelines for crafting research propositions. *AMS Review*.
922. Uleman, J. S., & Kressel, L. M. (2013). A brief history of theory and research on impression formation. In D. E. Carlston (Ed.), *The oxford handbook of social cognition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
923. Uleman, J. S., & Saribay, S. A. (2012). Initial impressions of others [Press release]
924. Uncles, M. D., & Kwok, S. (2013). Designing research with in-built differentiated replication. *Journal of Business Research, 66*(9), 1398-1405.
925. Valta, K. S. (2013). Do relational norms matter in consumer-brand relationships? *Journal of Business Research, 66*(1), 98-104.
926. Van den Noortgate, W., López-López, J. A., Marín-Martínez, F., & Sánchez-Meca, J. (2015). Meta-analysis of multiple outcomes: A multilevel approach. *Behavior Research Methods, 47*(4), 1274-1294.
927. van der Meer, T. G. L. A., & Verhoeven, J. W. M. (2014). Emotional crisis communication. *Public Relations Review, 40*(3), 526-536.
928. van der Merwe, R., Berthon, P., Pitt, L., & Barnes, B. (2007). Analysing 'theory networks': Identifying the pivotal theories in marketing and their characteristics. *Journal of Marketing Management, 23*(3-4), 181-206.
929. van Doorn, J., Lemon, K. N., Mittal, V., Nass, S., Pick, D., Pirner, P., & Verhoef, P. C. (2010). Customer engagement behavior: Theoretical foundations and research directions. *Journal of Service Research, 13*(3), 253-266.
930. van Eck, N. J., & Waltman, L. (2010). Software survey: Vosviewer, a computer program for bibliometric mapping. *Scientometrics, 84*(2), 523-538.

931. van Eck, N. J., & Waltman, L. (2014). Visualizing bibliometric networks. In Y. Ding, R. Rousseau & D. Wolfram (Eds.), *Measuring scholarly impact: Methods and practice* (pp. 285-320). Cham: Springer International Publishing.
932. Van Heerde, H., Helsen, K., & Dekimpe, M. G. (2007). The impact of a product-harm crisis on marketing effectiveness. *Marketing Science, 26*(2), 230-245.
933. van Heerde, H. J., Moorman, C., Moreau, C. P., & Palmatier, R. W. (2021). Reality check: Infusing ecological value into academic marketing research. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(2), 1-13.
934. van Prooijen, A.-M., & Bartels, J. (2019). Anthropomorphizing brands: The role of attributed brand traits in interactive csr communication and consumer online endorsements. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 18*(6), 474-483.
935. Van Vaerenbergh, Y., Orsingher, C., Vermeir, I., & Lariviere, B. (2014). A meta-analysis of relationships linking service failure attributions to customer outcomes. *Journal of Service Research, 17*(4), 381-398.
936. van Zoonen, W., & van der Meer, T. (2015). The importance of source and credibility perception in times of crisis: Crisis communication in a socially mediated era. *Journal of Public Relations Research, 27*(5), 371-388.
937. Vancouver, J. B., & Carlson, B. W. (2014). All things in moderation, including tests of mediation (at least some of the time). *Organizational Research Methods, 18*(1), 70-91.
938. Vanneste, B. S., Puranam, P., & Kretschmer, T. (2014). Trust over time in exchange relationships: Meta-analysis and theory. *Strategic Management Journal, 35*(12), 1891-1902.
939. Varadarajan, P. R. (2003). Musings on relevance and rigor of scholarly research in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 31*(4), 368-376.
940. Varadarajan, P. R. (2010). Strategic marketing and marketing strategy: Domain, definition, fundamental issues and foundational premises. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 38*(2), 119-140.
941. Varadarajan, P. R. (2015). Strategic marketing, marketing strategy and market strategy. *AMS Review, 5*(3), 78-90.
942. Varadarajan, P. R. (2020). Relevance, rigor and impact of scholarly research in marketing, state of the discipline and outlook. *AMS Review, 10*(3), 199-205.
943. Vargo, S. L., & Lusch, R. F. (2004). Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing. *Journal of Marketing, 68*(1), 1-17.
944. Vargo, S. L., & Lusch, R. F. (2008). Service-dominant logic: Continuing the evolution. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 36*(1), 1-10.
945. Vargo, S. L., & Lusch, R. F. (2016). Institutions and axioms: An extension and update of service-dominant logic. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 44*(1), 5-23.
946. Vargo, S. L., & Lusch, R. F. (2017). Service-dominant logic 2025. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 34*(1), 46-67.
947. Varshneya, G., & Das, G. (2017). Experiential value: Multi-item scale development and validation. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 34*(1), 48-57.
948. Varshneya, G., Das, G., & Khare, A. (2017). Experiential value: A review and future research directions. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 35*(3), 339-357.
949. Vázquez, R., del Río, A. B., & Iglesias, V. (2002). Consumer-based brand equity: Development and validation of a measurement instrument. *Journal of Marketing Management, 18*(1-2), 27-48.
950. Veblen, T. (2009). *The theory of the leisure class* (M. Banta Ed.). Oxford: Oxford Univ Press.

951. Verhoeven, J. W. M., Van Hoof, J. J., Ter Keurs, H., & Van Vuuren, M. (2012). Effects of apologies and crisis responsibility on corporate and spokesperson reputation. *Public Relations Review, 38*(3), 501-504.
952. Verschoor, L. (2014). *Crisis communication : How to respond to the public :The effect of crisis response strategy and familiarity with the information source on the publics' perception of and reactions to crisis communication.* (Master thesis).
953. Vieira, P. C., & Teixeira, A. A. C. (2010). Are finance, management, and marketing autonomous fields of scientific research? An analysis based on journal citations. *Scientometrics, 85*(3), 627-646.
954. Vieira, V. A. (2013). Antecedents and consequences of perceived value: A meta-analytical perspective. *Journal of Customer Behaviour, 12*(2/3), 111-133.
955. Vieira, V. A., Santini, F. O., & Araujo, C. F. (2018). A meta-analytic review of hedonic and utilitarian shopping values. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 35*(4), 426-437.
956. Viswesvaran, C., & Ones, D. S. (1995). Theory testing: Combining psychometric meta-analysis and structural equations modeling. *Personnel Psychology, 48*(4), 865-885.
957. Vogel, V., Evanschitzky, H., & Ramaseshan, B. (2008). Customer equity drivers and future sales. *Journal of Marketing, 72*(6), 98-108.
958. Völckner, F., & Hofmann, J. (2007). The price-perceived quality relationship: A meta-analytic review and assessment of its determinants. *Marketing Letters, 18*(3), 181-196.
959. von Walter, B., Wentzel, D., & Tomczak, T. (2016). Securing frontline employee support after an ethical scandal:The moderating impact of response strategies. *Journal of Service Research, 19*(4), 417-432.
960. Voorhees, C. M., Calantone, R., Brady, M. K., & Ramirez, E. (2016). Discriminant validity testing in marketing: An analysis, causes for concern, and proposed remedies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 44*(1), 119-134.
961. Voss, K., E., Zablah, A., R., Huang, Y.-S., & Chakraborty, G. (2020). Conjunctionitis: A call for clarity in construct definitions. *European Journal of Marketing, 54*(5), 1147-1159.
962. 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.
963. Wacker, J. G. (2004). A theory of formal conceptual definitions: Developing theory-building measurement instruments. *Journal of Operations Management, 22*(6), 629-650.
964. Wagenschwanz, A. M. (2021). The identity of entrepreneurs: Providing conceptual clarity and future directions. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 23*(1), 64-84.
965. Walsh, G., Bartikowski, B., & Beatty, S. E. (2014a). Impact of customer-based corporate reputation on non-monetary and monetary outcomes: The roles of commitment and service context risk. *British Journal of Management, 25*(2), 166-185.
966. Walsh, G., & Beatty, S. E. (2007). Customer-based corporate reputation of a service firm: Scale development and validation. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 35*(1), 127-143.
967. Walsh, G., Beatty, S. E., & Shiu, E. M. K. (2009a). The customer-based corporate reputation scale: Replication and short form. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(10), 924-930.
968. Walsh, G., Mitchell, V.-W., Jackson, P. R., & Beatty, S. E. (2009b). Examining the antecedents and consequences of corporate reputation: A customer perspective. *British Journal of Management, 20*(2), 187-203.

969. Walsh, G., Shiu, E., & Hassan, L. M. (2014b). Replicating, validating, and reducing the length of the consumer perceived value scale. *Journal of Business Research, 67*(3), 260-267.
970. Walton, K. L. (1993). How marvelous! Toward a theory of aesthetic value. *The Journal of Aesthetics and Art Criticism, 51*(3), 499-510.
971. Wang, P. (2010). Restructuring to repair legitimacy – a contingency perspective. *Corporate Governance: An International Review, 18*(1), 64-82.
972. Wang, R., Saboo, A. R., & Grewal, R. (2015). A managerial capital perspective on chief marketing officer succession. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 32*(2), 164-178.
973. Wang, Y.-C., Hsu, K.-C., Hsu, S.-H., & Hsieh, P.-A. J. J. (2011). Constructing an index for brand equity: A hospital example. *The Service Industries Journal, 31*(2), 311-322.
974. Wang, Y., Zhang, M., Li, S., McLeay, F., & Gupta, S. (2021). Corporate responses to the coronavirus crisis and their impact on electronic-word-of-mouth and trust recovery: Evidence from social media. *British Journal of Management, n/a*(n/a).
975. Warren, N. L., Farmer, M., Gu, T., & Warren, C. (2021). Marketing ideas: How to write research articles that readers understand and cite. *Journal of Marketing, 85*(5), 42-57.
976. Watson, G. F., Beck, J. T., Henderson, C. M., & Palmatier, R. W. (2015). Building, measuring, and profiting from customer loyalty. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 43*(6), 790-825.
977. Webster, F. E., & Lusch, R. F. (2013). Elevating marketing: Marketing is dead! Long live marketing! *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 41*(4), 389-399.
978. Wei, J., Zhao, M., Wang, F., & Zhao, D. (2016). The effects of firm actions on customers' responses to product recall crises: Analyzing an automobile recall in china. *Journal of Risk Research, 19*(4), 425-443.
979. Wei, W., Zhang, L., & Hua, N. (2019). Error management in service security breaches. *Journal of Services Marketing, 31*(7), 783-797.
980. Welch, C., Rumyantseva, M., & Hewerdine, L. J. (2015). Using case research to reconstruct concepts: A methodology and illustration. *Organizational Research Methods, 19*(1), 111-130.
981. Welch, G. (2021). Cmo tenure study: Progress for women, less for racial diversity: Spencer Stuart,.
982. Whitler, K. A., Krause, R., & Lehmann, D. R. (2018). When and how board members with marketing experience facilitate firm growth. *Journal of Marketing, 82*(5), 86-105.
983. Wieland, H., Nariswari, A., & Akaka, M. A. (2021). On managerial relevance: Reconciling the academic-practitioner divide through market theorizing. *AMS Review, 11*(3), 252-271.
984. Wiersema, M. F., & Zhang, Y. (2013). Executive turnover in the stock option backdating wave: The impact of social context. *Strategic Management Journal, 34*(5), 590-609.
985. Wiesel, T., Pauwels, K., & Arts, J. (2010). Marketing's profit impact: Quantifying online and off-line funnel progression. *Marketing Science, 30*(4), 604-611.
986. Wilkie, W. L., & Moore, E. S. (2007). What does the definition of marketing tell us about ourselves? *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 26*(2), 269-276.
987. Williams, L. J., Hartman, N., & Cavazotte, F. (2010). Method variance and marker variables: A review and comprehensive cfa marker technique. *Organizational Research Methods, 13*(3), 477-514.

988. Williams, R. J., & Barrett, J. D. (2000). Corporate philanthropy, criminal activity, and firm reputation: Is there a link? *Journal of Business Ethics, 26*(4), 341-350.
989. Willis, J., & Todorov, A. (2006). First impressions: Making up your mind after a 100-ms exposure to a face. *Psychological Science, 17*(7), 592-598.
990. Winer, R. S. (1999). Experimentation in the 21st century: The importance of external validity. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 27*(3), 349.
991. Winters, S., Magalhaes, L., Kinsella, E. A., & Kothari, A. (2016). Cross-sector service provision in health and social care: An umbrella review. *International Journal of Integrated Care*, *16*(1).
992. Wong, C.-S., Law, K. S., & Huang, G.-h. (2008). On the importance of conducting construct-level analysis for multidimensional constructs in theory development and testing. *Journal of Management*, *34*(4), 744-764.
993. Wood, L. C., Wang, J. X., Duong, L. N. K., Reiners, T., & Smith, R. (2018). Stock market reactions to auto manufacturers' environmental failures. *Journal of Macromarketing, 38*(4), 364-382.
994. Wood, L. C., Wang, J. X., Olesen, K., & Reiners, T. (2017). The effect of slack, diversification, and time to recall on stock market reaction to toy recalls. *International Journal of Production Economics, 193*, 244-258.
995. Woodall, T. (2003). Conceptualising 'value for the customer': An attributional, structural and dispositional analysis. *Academy of Marketing Science Review, 12*(1), 1-42.
996. Woodall, T. (2004). Why marketers don't market: Rethinking offensive and defensive archetypes. *Journal of Marketing Management, 20*(5-6), 559-576.
997. Woodall, T. (2007). New marketing, improved marketing, apocryphal marketing. *European Journal of Marketing, 41*(11/12), 1284-1296.
998. Woodruff, R. B. (1997). Customer value: The next source for competitive advantage. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 25*(2), 139-153.
999. Woodruff, R. B., & Gardial, S. F. (1996). *Know your customer: New approaches to understanding customer value and satisfaction*. Malden: Blackwell.
1000. Wu, F. (2017). *Responsibility, recalls, and reputations of organizations: Theory-based experimental studies to improve food safety crisis communication.* (10753154 Ph.D.), Rutgers The State University of New Jersey - New Brunswick, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from https://search.proquest.com/docview/2002597579?accountid=16468 ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.
1001. Wu, F., & Cui, D. (2019). Making peace or holding a grudge? The role of publics' forgiveness in crisis communication. *International Journal of Communication, 13*, 2260-2286.
1002. Wu, J., Chen, J., & Dou, W. (2017). The internet of things and interaction style: The effect of smart interaction on brand attachment. *Journal of Marketing Management, 33*(1-2), 61-75.
1003. Wu, P., Gao, L., Chen, Z., & Li, X. (2016). Managing reputation loss in china: In-depth analyses of financial restatements. *Chinese Management Studies*, *10*(2), 312-345.
1004. Wyer, R. S. (2007). Principles of mental representation. In A. W. Kruglanski & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles* (2nd ed., pp. 285-307). New York: The Guilford Press.
1005. Wynes, M. J. (2021). "Just say you're sorry": Avoidance and revenge behavior in response to organizations apologizing for fraud. *Journal of Business Ethics*.
1006. Xia, L. (2013). Effects of companies' responses to consumer criticism in social media. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce, 17*(4), 73-100.

1007. Xie, Y., & Peng, S. (2009). How to repair customer trust after negative publicity: The roles of competence, integrity, benevolence, and forgiveness. *Psychology & Marketing, 26*(7), 572-589.
1008. Xu, H., Bolton, L. E., & Winterich, K. P. (2021). How do consumers react to company moral transgressions? The role of power distance belief and empathy for victims. *Journal of Consumer Research, 48*(1), 77-101.
1009. Xu, K., & Li, W. (2013). An ethical stakeholder approach to crisis communication: A case study of foxconn's 2010 employee suicide crisis. *Journal of Business Ethics, 117*(2), 371-386.
1010. Xue, J., Zhou, Z., Zhang, L., & Majeed, S. (2020). Do brand competence and warmth always influence purchase intention? The moderating role of gender. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*(248).
1011. Ya, Y., Vadakkepatt, G. G., & Joshi, A. M. (2015). A meta-analysis of electronic word-of-mouth elasticity. *Journal of Marketing, 79*(2), 19-39.
1012. Yadav, M. S. (2014). Enhancing theory development in marketing. *AMS Review, 4*(1), 1-4.
1013. Yadav, M. S. (2017). Disciplinary memory and theory development. *AMS Review, 7*(1), 1-3.
1014. Yang, S.-U., Kang, M., & Johnson, P. (2010). Effects of narratives, openness to dialogic communication, and credibility on engagement in crisis communication through organizational blogs. *Communication Research, 37*(4), 473-497.
1015. Yao, E., & Siegel, J. T. (2021). The influence of perceptions of intentionality and controllability on perceived responsibility: Applying attribution theory to people's responses to social transgression in the covid-19 pandemic. *Motivation Science, 7*(2), 199-206.
1016. Yi, Y., & Gong, T. (2013). Customer value co-creation behavior: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Business Research*, *66*(9), 1279-1284.
1017. Yin, C. Y., Yu, H. Y., & Poon, P. (2016). Consumers' attributions and brand evaluations in product-harm crises: The role of implicit theories of personality. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *15*(1), 87-95.
1018. Yong, L., Yubo, C., & Shankar, G. (2012). Product-harm crisis management and firm value

1019. handbook of marketing and finance. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.
1020. Yoo, B., & Donthu, N. (2001). Developing and validating a multidimensional consumer-based brand equity scale. *Journal of Business Research*, *52*(1), 1-14.
1021. Yoo, B., Donthu, N., & Lee, S. (2000). An examination of selected marketing mix elements and brand equity. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 28*(2), 195-211.
1022. Yoon, C., Gutchess, A. H., Feinberg, F., & Polk, T. A. (2006). A functional magnetic resonance imaging study of neural dissociations between brand and person judgments. *Journal of Consumer Research, 33*(1), 31-40.
1023. Yuan, D., Lin, Z., Filieri, R., Liu, R., & Zheng, M. (2020). Managing the product-harm crisis in the digital era: The role of consumer online brand community engagement. *Journal of Business Research, 115*, 38-47.
1024. Zaltman, G. (2000). Consumer researchers: Take a hike! *Journal of Consumer Research, 26*(4), 423-428.
1025. Zauner, A., Koller, M., & Hatak, I. (2015). Customer perceived value—conceptualization and avenues for future research. *Cogent Psychology, 2*(1), 1061782.

1026. Zavyalova, A., Pfarrer, M. D., Reger, R. K., & Shapiro, D. L. (2012). Managing the message: The effects of firm actions and industry spillovers on media coverage following wrongdoing. *Academy of Management Journal, 55*(5), 1079-1101.
1027. Zeithaml, V. A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing, 52*(3), 2-22.
1028. Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*(2), 31-46.
1029. Zeithaml, V. A., Jaworski, B. J., Kohli, A. K., Tuli, K. R., Ulaga, W., & Zaltman, G. (2020a). A theories-in-use approach to building marketing theory. *Journal of Marketing, 84*(1), 32-51.
1030. Zeithaml, V. A., Verleye, K., Hatak, I., Koller, M., & Zauner, A. (2020b). Three decades of customer value research: Paradigmatic roots and future research avenues. *Journal of Service Research, 23*(4), 409-432.
1031. Zhang, J. (2010). Employee orientation and performance: An exploration of the mediating role of customer orientation. *Journal of Business Ethics, 91*(1), 111-121.
1032. Zhang, M., Gable, G. G., & Rai, A. (2016). Toward principles of construct clarity: Exploring the usefulness of facet theory in guiding conceptualization. *Australasian Journal of Information Systems, 20*(0).
1033. Zhao, X., Li, Y., & Flynn, B. B. (2013). The financial impact of product recall announcements in china. *International Journal of Production Economics, 142*(1), 115-123.
1034. Zhao, X., Lynch, J., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering baron and kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research, 37*(2), 197-206.
1035. Zhao, X., Zhan, M., & Ma, L. (2020). How publics react to situational and renewing organizational responses across crises: Examining scct and dor in social-mediated crises. *Public Relations Review, 46*(4), 101944.
1036. Zheng, Q., Luo, Y., & Wang, S. L. (2014). Moral degradation, business ethics, and corporate social responsibility in a transitional economy. *Journal of Business Ethics, 120*(3), 405-421.
1037. Zhu, D.-H., & Chang, Y.-P. (2013). Negative publicity effect of the business founder's unethical behavior on corporate image: Evidence from china. *Journal of Business Ethics, 117*(1), 111-121.
1038. Ziano, I., & Pandelaere, M. (2018). The majority premium: Competence inferences derived from majority consumption. *Journal of Business Research, 92*, 339-349.
1039. Zinkhan, G. M., & Williams, B. C. (2007). The new american marketing association definition of marketing: An alternative assessment. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 26*(2), 284-288.
1040. Zupic, I., & Čater, T. (2014). Bibliometric methods in management and organization. *Organizational Research Methods, 18*(3), 429-472.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Summary in Slovenian language / Daljši povzetek disertacije v slovenskem jeziku

Ozadje in raziskovalno področje disertacije

Pomen in verodostojnost trženja kot poslovne funkcije in znanstvene discipline sta predmet številnih debat (Eisend, 2015; Haenlein et al., 2021; Key et al., 2020; Sheth & Sisodia, 1995). Primer Tesle kaže, da so podjetja lahko zelo uspešna, tudi če nimajo vodje trženja in trženjskega oddelka ter ne vlagajo v tržne raziskave in oglaševanje (Koetsier, 2019; Mautz, 2019; Rahman, 2020). Poleg tega so tudi v podjetjih, ki so tržno naravnana (Kohli & Jaworski, 1990; Narver & Slater, 1990) in organizirana za trženjsko odličnost (Homburg, Theel, & Hohenberg, 2020; Moorman & Day, 2016), vodje trženja in njihovi oddelki »pod vse večjim pritiskom, da dosežejo cilje« (Kumar, 2018b, str. 2) in »dokažejo ekonomsko vrednost svojega dela za podjetje« (Hanssens & Pauwels, 2016, str. 173). Če naj ga jemljemo resno, »trženje potrebuje merila, ki dokazujejo njegovo ekonomsko vrednost« (Ding et al., 2020, str. 182) in vodje trženja morajo biti sposobni razložiti procese in mehanizme, ki pretvorijo naložbe v trženje v uspešnost podjetja (Ambler et al., 2002; Diorio, 2017; S. Gupta & Zeithaml, 2006; Morgan, 2012; Morgan, Whitler, Feng, & Chari, 2019; Petersen et al., 2009; Pimenta da Gama, 2011; Sheth, 2020; Stewart, 2009).

Običajen način, kako trženje pripomore k operativni in finančni uspešnosti podjetij, je oblikovanje, rast in uravnavanje trženjskih sredstev. Trženjsko sredstvo je opredeljeno kot »vir, ki ustvarja vrednost« in je »neopredmeteno; merljivo le v posrednih kategorijah, kot sta prepoznavnost blagovne znamke ali produktivnost prodajnega osebja; običajno se oblikuje le z vlaganjem sredstev; je pretežno izvzeto iz podrobnega finančnega vrednotenja sredstev podjetja, razen v grobem, kot na primer dobro ime« (Piercy, 1986, str. 9–10). Trženjska sredstva lahko razumemo kot »merila vrednosti podjetja in njegove ponudbe, ki so osredotočena na odjemalce« (Rust et al., 2004, str. 78), ki »nastanejo zaradi stikov podjetja z akterji v zunanjem okolju« (Srivastava, Shervani, & Fahey, 1998, str. 2). Trženjska sredstva, povezana z blagovno znamko, kot so zaščiteni znaki in pozitivna stališča porabnikov do blagovne znamke, ter trženjska sredstva, povezana z odjemalci, kot so sistemi za uravnavanje odnosov z odjemalci in njihova zvestoba, predstavljajo dve pomembni vrsti trženjskih sredstev (Lukas, Whitwell, & Doyle, 2005; Oblander et al., 2020; Oh et al., 2020; Srinivasan, Vanhuele, & Pauwels, 2010; Srivastava et al. 2021). Zato ni presenetljivo, da sodita razvoj in uravnavanje blagovnih znamk ter odnosov z odjemalci med najpogostejše strateške prioritete za vodje trženja in pomembne naloge za njihove oddelke (Balis, 2021; Boston Consulting Group, 2022; Gartner, 2021a; Morgan et al., 2019; Rodriguez-Villá et al., 2020). Blagovne znamke in odnosi z odjemalci sta tudi dve izmed večjih investicijskih področij znotraj trženjskih proračunov (CMO Survey, 2021; Gartner, 2021b; Hanssens, Thorpe, & Finkbeiner, 2008) in zelo zaželeni veščini sodobnih tržnikov (Brenner, 2022; Claessens, 2021; Nicastro, 2020). V tej disertaciji trženjska sredstva, povezana z blagovno znamko, definiramo kot pozitivna stališča porabnikov do blagovne znamke (Srinivasan &

Hanssens, 2009). Trženjska sredstva, povezana z odjemalci, pa opredelimo kot pozitivne vedenjske namere ali vedenje odjemalcev do blagovne znamke (Edeling & Fischer, 2016)

Vrsta razlogov otežuje merjenje in izkaz učinkov naložb v trženje na uspešnost podjetja, zato to »za večino podjetij ostaja nedosegljiv cilj« (Hanssens & Pauwels, 2016, str. 173), kar pomeni, da so ti učinki »v poslovnih poročilih sistematično podcenjeni« (Bendle & Wang, 2017, str. 605). Prvič, veriga učinkov od naložbe v trženje ali trženjskega ukrepa do finančne vrednosti podjetja kot končnega kazalnika uspešnosti podjetja (npr. trženjska naložba → trženjsko sredstvo, povezano z blagovno znamko → trženjsko sredstvo, povezano z odjemalcem → uspešnost podjetja) je precej zapletena (Clark, 2007; Katsikeas et al., 2016; Lehmann, 2004; Morgan, 2012; Rust et al., 2004), ker vključuje dejanja in/ali reakcije vsaj treh različnih akterjev (podjetja, odjemalcev in vlagateljev). Drugič, uporabna analiza te verige učinkov »zahteva, da se vzpostavi vzročna zveza med trženjskimi dejanji in številnimi merili uspešnosti (odnosi z odjemalci, izdelčni in finančni trgi)« (Hanssens & Pauwels, 2016, str. 174). Tretjič, vzpostavitev vzročnih zvez med reakcijami različnih akterjev predvideva mikrofundacijske razlage psiholoških in vedenjskih procesov teh akterjev (Akaka et al., 2021; Moorman & Day, 2016). Nazadnje pa opažamo »pomanjkanje splošno sprejetih merskih standardov. Po eni strani je mogoče vrednost blagovnih znamk in odjemalcev izmeriti finančno. Po drugi strani pa obstajajo mere zaznav in stališč, kot sta podoba blagovne znamke ali zadovoljstvo odjemalcev, ki zajamejo moč trženjskih sredstev v psihološkem smislu« (Edeling & Fischer, 2016, str. 516).

Poleg merjenja variance (moči) trženjskih sredstev v psihološkem smislu morajo vodje trženja pojasniti tudi, kako njihove naložbe in dejanja vplivajo na trženjska sredstva, povezana z blagovno znamko, in kako se ta sredstva pretvorijo v trženjska sredstva, povezana z odjemalci (Edeling, Srinivasan, & Hanssens, 2021; Morgan et al., 2021; Stahl et al., 2012). To pomeni, da morajo trženjski znanstveniki identificirati psihološke, družbene in fiziološke procese, ki potencialne odjemalce spremenijo v dejanske odjemalce (Ashley et al., 2011; Ashraf & Thongpapanl, 2015; Chatzipanagiotou, Veloutsou, & Christodoulides, 2015; Fetscherin et al., 2019; Jahn & Kunz, 2012). Za ta namen so znanstveniki predlagali različne konstrukte, ki predstavljajo psihološki vidik trženjskih sredstev. Trženjska sredstva, povezana z blagovno znamko, so na primer konceptualizirana kot:

• premoženje blagovne znamke (Baalbaki & Guzmán, 2016; Christodoulides & de Chernatony, 2010; Keller, 1993; Netemeyer et al., 2004; Pappu, Cooksey, & Quester, 2005; Vázquez, del Río, & Iglesias; 2009; Wang et al., 2011; Yoo & Donthu, 2001),

• podoba blagovne znamke (Bravo, Montaner, & Pina, 2010; Cho, Fiore, & Russell, 2015; Patterson, 1999; Stern, Zinkhan, & Jaju, 2001),

• asociacije blagovne znamke (Brown, 1998; Keller, 2003; Low & Lamb, 2000; Mann & Ghuman, 2014; Romaniuk & Nenycz-Thiel, 2013),

• osebnost blagovne znamke (J.L. Aaker, 1997; Freling, Crosno & Henard, 2011; Geuens, Weijters, & De Wulf, 2009; Sung, Choi, Ahn, & Song, 2015),

• zaupanje v blagovno znamko (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Delgado-Ballester, Munuera-Alemán, & Yagüe-Guillén, 2003; Gurviez & Korchia, 2003; Hegner & Jevons, 2016; Koschate-Fischer & Gartner, 2015; Kashyap, Zhou, & Yang, 2008) in

• kredibilnost blagovne znamke (Erdem & Swait, 2004).

Podobno so tržna sredstva, povezana z odjemalci, lahko konceptualizirana kot različni konstrukti:

• zvestoba (Dapena-Baron, Gruen, & Guo, 2020; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Watson et al., 2015),

• zavezanost odjemalcev (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Keiningham et al., 2015; Shuv-Ami, 2012),

• zavzetost odjemalcev (Hollebeek & Macky, 2019; Kumar & Pansari, 2016; van Doorn et al., 2010),

• pozitivne govorice (de Matos & Rossi, 2008; Rosario et al., 2016; Ya, Vadakkepatt, & Joshi, 2015) in

• vdanost blagovni znamki (Grace, Ross, & King, 2020).

V tej disertaciji povežemo pet konstruktov v konceptualni model, ki pojasni, kako se trženjska sredstva, povezana z blagovno znamko, pretvorijo v trženjska sredstva, povezana z odjemalci: asociacije o korporativni znamki (angl. *corporate associations*), vtise o blagovni znamki (angl. *brand impressions*), zaupanje v blagovno znamko (angl. *brand trust*), zaznana vrednost (angl. *perceived value*) in zvestoba (angl. *loyalty*). Korporativne asociacije, ki jih opredelimo kot »informacije o podjetju, ki jih ima posameznik« (Brown & Dacin, 1997, str. 69), predstavljajo porabnikovo znanje in prepričanja o tem, kako se znamka vede v odnosu do različnih deležnikov (npr. zaposlenih) in kako deluje na različnih trgih (npr. finančni trg). Vtisi o blagovni znamki, ki jih opredelimo kot porabnikovo mentalno predstavo o značilnostih blagovne znamke, se odražajo v porabniških zaznavah topline in kompetentnosti znamke. Vtis topline je opredeljen kot porabnikova ocena namenov blagovne znamke do družbe, vtis kompetentnosti pa je opredeljen kot porabnikova ocena zmožnosti blagovne znamke, da udejanji svoje namene (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007; Kervyn, Fiske, & Malone, 2012, 2021). Vtisi porabnikov o toplini blagovne znamke se odražajo v lastnostih, kot so prijaznost, poštenost in dobronamernost, medtem ko se vtisi o kompetentnosti odražajo v lastnostih, kot so sposobnost, inteligenca in učinkovitost. Zaupanje v blagovno znamko, opredeljeno kot porabnikovo pripravljenost, da se zanese na blagovno znamko (Moorman et al., 1992), predstavlja porabnikovo pozitivno motivacijsko dispozicijo za blagovno znamko. Zaznana vrednost, ki jo opredelimo kot »splošna ocena koristnosti, ki temelji na zaznavah prejetega in danega« (Zeithaml, 1988, str. 14), predstavlja porabnikovo ovrednotenje menjave, ki je potrebna, da pridobi dostop do izdelka ali storitve. Med trženjskimi sredstvi, povezanimi s strankami, se osredotočimo na zvestobo odjemalcev, opredeljeno kot »skupek nakupnih vedenj in stališč, ki sistematično dajejo prednost enemu ponudniku« (Watson et al., 2015, str. 793). Kasneje pojasnimo, zakaj smo izbrali teh pet konstruktov, da bi za trenutek zajeli proces preoblikovanja trženjskih sredstev, povezanih z blagovno znamko, v trženjska sredstva, povezana z odjemalci.

Ne glede na to, kako so trženjska sredstva, povezana z blagovno znamko ali odjemalci, konceptualizirana, obstaja vrsta dejavnikov, ki podjetja ovirajo pri izvajanju potrebnih trženjskih naložb in/ali zavirajo pozitivne učinke uspešnih trženjskih sredstev podjetja. Na primer, v številnih gospodarskih panogah in izdelčnih kategorijah sta prisotni povečana koncentracija in intenzivna konkurenca, kar preusmeri pozornost managerjev na strategije in ukrepe, ki dajejo prednost kratkoročni dobičkonosnosti pred dolgoročno rastjo (Clark & Montgomery, 1998; Lehmann, 2004; Luo, 2010; Morgan, Clark, & Gooner, 2002). Vpliv trženjskih oddelkov v primerjavi z oddelki, ki predstavljajo druge poslovne funkcije (npr. finance in poslovanje), se zmanjšuje, kar pomeni, da vodje trženja težko zagotavljajo proračune, potrebne za trženjske naložbe (Feng, Morgan, & Rego, 2015; Homburg et al., 2015; Mattsson, Ramaseshan, & Carson, 2006; Whitler, Krause, & Lehmann, 2018). Vodje trženja se pogosto znajdejo v »vrtljivih vratih«, kar pomeni, da ne ostanejo dovolj dolgo na položaju, da bi izvedli potrebne strategije in spremljali njihove učinke (Nath & Mahajan, 2008, 2011, 2017; O'Brien, Veenstra, & Murphy, 2019; Wang, Saboo, & Grewal, 2015; Welch, 2021). Mnoga podjetja podležejo kratkovidnemu uravnavanju, ki se odraža v praksah, kot je zmanjšanje trženjskega proračuna za trženje, kar zavira razvoj trženjskih sredstev (Bendig et al., 2018; Chung & Low, 2017, 2022; Kaur, Ramaswami, & Bommaraju, 2021; Mizik, 2010; Mizik & Jacobson, 2007; Srinivasan in Ramani, 2019). Poleg tega pa sodobni »tržniki delujejo v svetu, zaznamovanem s krizami« (Grewal et al., 2021, str. 1), kar pomeni, da številne krize zamejijo sposobnost podjetij, da vzpostavijo in okrepijo svoja trženjska sredstva (Bages-Amat et al., 2020; Grewal et al., 2021; Hoekstra & Leeflang, 2020; Kozinets, Gershoff, & White, 2020; Pomerance, Light, & Williams, 2020; Sneader & Singhal, 2020; Swaminathan et al., 2020).

V disertaciji se osredotočamo na posebno vrsto krize, imenovano kriza blagovne znamke, ki jo opredelimo kot situacijo, povzročeno z negativnim(i) javnim(i) dogodkom(i), in ki lahko vpliva na kolektivne zaznave, stališča in vedenje deležnikov blagovne znamke. Osredotočamo se na krize blagovnih znamk, ker je ta pojav v zadnjih desetletjih vse pogostejši in predstavlja vse večji strošek za podjetja (Institute for crisis management, 2018; Kalavar & Mysore, 2017; PwC, 2019). Ker je krizno uravnavanje predmet obravnave različnih znanstvenih disciplin, kot so management, finance, ekonomija, zdravstvene vede in trženje, umestim konstrukt krize blagovne znamke v hierarhijo poslovnih kriznih konstruktov (Slika AF1.1), ki pojasni razmerja med različnimi kriznimi konstrukti. Prvič, opredelitev krize blagovne znamke nakazuje, da se tovrstne krize nanašajo na negativne dogodke, ki so povezani z določeno blagovno znamko in tako izključujejo krize, ki vplivajo na družbo kot celoto (npr. ekonomske ali zdravstvene krize). Drugič, kriza blagovne znamke je le ena vrsta organizacijskih ali poslovnih kriz, ki so opredeljene kot »dogodki z majhno verjetnostjo in velikim vplivom, kar ogroža sposobnost preživetja organizacije, in za katere je značilna dvoumnost vzrokov, posledic in načinov reševanja ter prepričanje, da je treba odločitve sprejemati hitro« (Pearson & Clair, 1998, str. 60), saj organizacijske krize niso nujno javne. Tretjič, krize blagovnih znamk so poseben primer trženjskih kriz, opredeljenih kot »dogodek, ki ima običajno naslednje značilnosti: ogroža trženjske cilje, zmanjšuje sposobnost trženja, nadzoruje ali usmerja trženjsko okolje, čas odločitve ali odziva pa je kratek« (T. Clark, 1988, str. 47), ker trženjske krize vključujejo tudi nejavna vprašanja, kot so težave v odnosih z distributerji ali dobavitelji. Četrtič, krize blagovnih znamk so posebna vrsta krize ugleda, ki je opredeljena kot »dogodek, ki ogroža kolektivne zaznave in stališča vseh pomembnih deležnikov organizacije« (Sohn & Lariscy, 2014), ker se krize ugleda lahko nanašajo na organizacije, ki ne ustrezajo naši definiciji blagovne znamke, kot so na primer politične stranke ali vladne institucije.

Slika AF1.1: Hierarhija organizacijskih kriznih konstruktov

Vir: Lastno delo.

Vendar pa naša konceptualizacija kriz blagovnih znamk zajema več posameznih kriznih konstruktov, ki predstavljajo specifične krizne situacije, kot so krize zaradi škodljivih izdelkov ali storitev (Cleeren, Dekimpe, & van Heerde, 2017; Rasoulian et al., 2017), različne vrste škandalov ali nesreč (Gomulya & Boeker, 2016; Park & Rogan, 2019; von Walter, Wentzel & Tomczak, 2016) ter družbeno-medijskih neviht (Herhausen et al., 2019) ali zunanjih posegov v izdelke (S. Kim & Sung, 2014). Čeprav ti konstrukti ustrezajo naši opredelitvi krize blagovne znamke, Slika AF1.1 kaže, da se ti primeri kriz razlikujejo v (vsaj) treh dimenzijah, ki odražajo situacijske značilnosti krize blagovne znamke. Finančne škandale na primer povzročijo managerji podjetja (interno), ki imajo nadzor nad negativnim dogodkom, preden se zgodi (predvidljive) in ga povzročijo z namenom ogoljufanja deležnikov (namerno – prikazano z rdečo barvo).

Ko se podjetja znajdejo v krizi blagovne znamke, se soočajo z več pomembnimi odločitvami. Prvič, vodstvo mora izbrati, katero strategijo za uravnavanje krize blagovne znamke, opredeljeno kot »skupek usklajenih komunikacij in dejanj, uporabljenih z namenom vplivati na zaznave deležnikov« (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015, str. 346), bo uporabilo. Literatura za krizno uravnavanje opisuje dve vrsti strategij: prilagodljive in obrambne (Benoit, 2014; Bundy et al., 2017; Coombs, 2007; Hersel et al., 2019). Odločitev podjetja, da v času krize blagovne znamke prevzame več odgovornosti in poskuša negativno situacijo rešiti čim hitreje, odraža prilagoditveno strategijo za uravnavanje krize blagovne znamke. Drugič, krizni managerji se morajo odločiti, katere odzivne taktike, opredeljene kot posamezna dejanja in komunikacije, prek katerih podjetja udejanjijo strategije uravnavanja krize blagovne znamke, bodo uporabili. Odzivne taktike lahko vključujejo odpoklic izdelkov, popravila, nadomestila, popravke računovodskih izkazov, zamenjavo vodilnih, zaposlenih in indosantov, opravičila, pojasnila, zanikanja, izgovore.

Podobno kot pri trženjskih praktikih sta uporabnost in pomen trženja predmet številnih debat med trženjskimi znanstveniki. Kot relativno mlada in aplikativno naravnana znanstvena skupnost (Hunt, 2020; Savitt, 1980) so trženjski znanstveniki potrebovali desetletja razprav, da bi:

• opredelili, kaj pomeni izraz trženje (American Marketing Association, 2017; Cooke, Rayburn, & Abercrombie, 1992; Darroch et al., 2004; Ferrell & Lucas, 1987; Grönroos, 1989, 2007, 2006; Gundlach & Wilkie, 2010; Mick, 2007; Morgan, 1996; Ringold & Weitz, 2007; Sheth & Uslay, 2007; Shultz, 2007; Smith et al., 2010; Moore & Wilkie, 2007),

• določili raziskovalne vsebine znanstvenega raziskovanja trženja (Arndt, 1978; Bagozzi, 1975; Buzzell, 1963; Converse, 1945; El-Ansary, Shaw, & Lazer, 2018; Holbrook & Hulbert, 2002; Levy, 1992b, 1969, 2002; McCole, 2004a; Peter & Olson, 1983; Woodall, 2007),

• uveljavili raznovrstne filozofije znanosti (Alba, 2011; Anderson, 1983; Arndt, 1985; Bagozzi, 1984; Hunt, 1990, 1991, 1992a; Janiszewski, Labroo, & Rucker, 2016; Mayer, Job, & Ellis, 2000; Peter & Olson, 1983; Sharp et al., 2017; Shaw & Jones, 2005) in

• pokazali, da je trženje legitimna znanstvena disciplina, primerljiva s tistimi, ki proučujejo druge poslovne funkcije, kot so na primer management, računovodstvo ali finance (Arndt, 1985; Bartels, 1951; Biehl, Kim, & Wade, 2006; Buzzell, 1963; Clark, et al., 2014; Converse, 1945; Eisend, 2015; Hult & Morgeson, 2020; Hunt, 1992b; Key et al., 2020; Peter & Olson, 1983; Taylor, 1965).

Danes se zdi, da so ta temeljna vprašanja večinoma razrešena. Vendar pa sta zadnji dve desetletji izrisali nove izzive za trženjsko znanost, kot so:

• šibka veljavnost trženjskih konstruktov, kar pomeni, da pri mnogih trženjskih konstruktih obstajajo nedoslednosti med njihovo konceptualizacijo in operacionalizacijo (Houston, 2004; Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003; MacKenzie, 2003; Mochon & Schwartz, 2020; Morales & Lee, 2017; van Heerde et al., 2021);

• sporne raziskovalne prakse, kar pomeni, da nekateri trženjski znanstveniki ne izvajajo raziskav skladno z raziskovalno etiko in številni objavljeni rezultati niso resnični ali točni (Bergkvist, 2020; Herndon, 2016; Janiszewski & van Osselaer, 2021; Krishna, 2021; Simmons, Nelson, & Simonsohn, 2021; Pham & Oh, 2021);

• replikacijska kriza, kar pomeni, da številnih ugotovitev, ki naj bi pojasnjevale trženjske pojave, raziskovalci ne morejo neodvisno reproducirati (Eisend, Franke, & Leigh, 2016; Kerr, Schultz, & Lings, 2016; Kwon et al., 2017; Lehmann & Bengart, 2016; Lynch et al., 2015; Meyvis & Van Osselaer, 2017; Stice & Kwok, 2013);

• čezmerno množenje konstruktov, kar pomeni, da se pojavlja vedno več trženjskih konstruktov z različnimi imeni, ki predstavljajo isti pojav, pa tudi vse več trženjskih konstruktov z isto oznako, ki predstavljajo različne pojave (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Bergkvist & Langner, 2019; Gilliam & Voss, 2013; Tähtinen & Havila, 2018);

• razdrobljenost trženjskega znanja, kar pomeni, da se znanstveniki osredotočajo na ozke raziskovalne teme (Eisend, 2017; Hunt, 2020; Lehmann, 2020; Lehmann, McAlister, & Staelin, 2011; Patsiaouras, 2019);

• omejena akumulacija trženjskega znanja (Babin et al., 2021; Hubbard & Lindsay, 2002; Rossiter, 2012; Yadav, 2014, 2017), kar pomeni, da lahko znanstveniki pojasnijo vse manj in manj variance v trženjskih pojavih (Eisend, 2015) in

• majhen vpliv na druge znanstvene discipline, zaradi česar si pri trženju običajno »izposojajo« teorije iz drugih disciplin in se redko naslanjajo na avtohtone trženjske teorije (Biehl et al., 2006; Clark et al., 2014; Cote, Leong, & Cote, 1992; Pieters & Baumgartner, 2002; Vieira & Teixeira, 2010).

Ti problemi zmanjšujejo verodostojnost trženja kot znanstvene discipline (Haenlein et al., 2021). Poleg tega je večina teh težav medsebojno povezanih (Kennedy & Hartnett, 2018; King, 2019; Malter et al., 2020; Meyer, 2015; Zaltman, 2000). Na primer, čezmerno množenje konstruktov prispeva k razdrobljenosti znanja, medtem ko šibka veljavnost konstruktov in sporne raziskovalne prakse prispevajo k replikacijski krizi. Čeprav so trženjski znanstveniki zaznali nekatere od teh težav že pred desetletji (Jacoby, 1978; Peter, 1981; Singh, 1991), jih trženjska znanstvena skupnost šele začenja sistematično obravnavati (Bolton, 2020; Haenlein et al., 2021; Krishna, 2021; van Heerde et al., 2021). Poleg tega zgoraj naštete težave niso značilne samo za trženje, saj ogrožajo verodostojnost številnih znanstvenih disciplin, kot je management (Aguinis, Ramani, & Alabduljade, 2017; Banks et al., 2015; Köhler & Cortina, 2019; Shaffer, DeGeest, & Li, 2015; Tourish & Craig, 2018), medicina (Colliver, Conlee, & Verhulst, 2012; Cook, Mulrow, & Haynes, 1997; Ioannidis, 2005; Millstone & van Zwanenberg, 2000) in psihologija (Fabrigar, Wegener, & Petty, 2020; Fiedler, 2017; Frith, 2020; Gopalakrishna et al., 2022; Hodson, 2021; John, Loewenstein in Prelec, 2012; Motyl et al., 2017; Ebersole, DeHaven, & Mellor, 2018; Simmons, Nelson in Simonsohn, 2011; Stroebe, 2016).

Vendar se zdi, da je problem praktične/managerske (ne)relevantnosti posebno izrazit v trženju, saj se zdravniki in psihologi ne pritožujejo nad neuporabnostjo znanstvenih raziskav na svojih področjih. Managerska relevantnost je opredeljena kot »stopnja, do katere posamezni vodja v organizaciji zaznava akademsko znanje kot pomoč pri svojih odločitvah ali naporih pri uresničevanju ciljev organizacije« (Jaworski, 2011, str. 212). Skrb, »da se je uporabnost ugotovitev, objavljenih v znanstvenih revijah, bistveno zmanjšala« (Kohli & Haenlein, 2020, str. 1) tare veliko uglednih trženjskih znanstvenikov (Deighton, Mela, & Moorman, 2020; Desai, Bell, Lilien, & Soberman, 2012; Fehrer, 2020; Janiszewski et al., 2016; Jaworski, 2011; Jedidi et al., 2021; Key et al., 2020; Kirmani, 2017; Lehmann et al., 2011; Lilien, 2011; MacInnis et al., 2019; McCole, 2004b; Pham, 2013; Piercy, 2002; Reibstein, Day, & Wind, 2009; Schmitt et al., 2022; Stremersch, Winer, & Camacho, 2021; Tellis, 2017; Varadarajan, 2003, 2020; Webster & Lusch, 2013; Wieland et al., 2020).

Trženjski znanstveniki ponujajo različne razlage, zakaj »obstaja zaskrbljujoča in naraščajoča vrzel med interesi, standardi in prednostnimi nalogami trženjskih znanstvenikov in potrebami vodij trženja v podjetjih« (Reibstein et al., 2009, str. 1). Na primer, Jedidi et al. (2021) ugotavljajo, da se trženjski znanstveniki pogosto osredotočajo na raziskovalne teme (npr. merjenje konstruktov), ki se managerjem ne zdijo pomembne. Warren et al., (2021, str. 42) menijo, da je akademsko pisanje »težko razumeti«. Stremersch in sodelavci (2021) pokažejo, da spodbude univerz, kot so financiranje raziskovanja in odločitve o zaposlitvi, spodbujajo količino raziskav namesto kakovosti, kar škodljivo vpliva na managersko uporabnost objavljenih raziskav. Lehmann in sodelavci (2011) trdijo, da trženjska znanost (tj. doktorsko izobraževanje in procesi objavljanja v znanstvenih revijah) daje veliko večji poudarek na metodološko ustreznost raziskav kot na njihovo relevantnost.

Raziskovalna vprašanja

Namen te disertacije je obravnavati štiri raziskovalna vprašanja. Prvič, strinjamo se s trženjskimi znanstveniki, ki trdijo, da mnogo (če ne večino) trženjskih konstruktov ogroža konceptualna zmeda (Bergkvist & Eisend, 2020; Clark & Key, 2021; Mikulić, 2018). Prav tako se strinjamo s trženjskimi znanstveniki in praktiki, da konceptualna zmeda zmanjšuje managersko uporabnost trženjskih raziskav (Caslin, 2021; Gaski, 2021; Jedidi et al., 2021; Key et al., 2020; Warren et al., 2021). Zato se osredotočamo na jasnost konstruktov. Med konstrukti, opredeljenimi v tem povzetku, se zdi, da konceptualna zmeda še posebej izstopa pri konstruktu zaznane vrednosti. Na primer, identificirali smo kar 30 alternativnih konceptualizacij z merskimi instrumenti, ki naj bi odražale ta pojav. Zato postavljamo naslednje raziskovalno vprašanje (RV):

RV1: Kakšna je vloga jasnosti konstruktov v procesu akumulacije znanja?

To široko raziskovalno vprašanje dodatno kvalificiramo tako, da oblikujemo bolj specifična podvprašanja: Kdaj se konstrukti štejejo za jasne? Kako se konceptualizacija konstrukta razvija skozi čas? Katere konceptualizacijske prakse uporabljajo znanstveniki, da uvedejo nove konceptualizacije konstrukta? Katera metodološka orodja so uporabna za oceno in/ali izboljšanje jasnosti konstrukta? Ali so bolj zapletene konceptualizacije konstrukta vedno napredne (tj. izboljšajo napovedno veljavnost)?

Drugič, ker želimo okrepiti managersko uporabnost trženjske znanosti, proučimo psihološke procese, na katerih temelji razvoj trženjskih sredstev, povezanih z blagovno znamko in z odjemalci. Osredotočimo se na oblikovanje vtisov topline in kompetentnosti, saj pripoznamo, da lahko delujejo kot ključni člen v mehanizmu, ki pretvori porabnikovo znanje in prepričanja o blagovni znamki v zvestobo (Keller, 2012; Kervyn et al., 2012; MacInnis, 2012). Čeprav se zavedamo, da je bila ta tema v zadnjem času deležna raziskovalne pozornosti (Gidaković et al., 2021; Kervyn et al., 2021), ostaja več pomembnih raziskovalnih vrzeli, ki jih želimo obravnavati. Zato postavljamo naslednje raziskovalno vprašanje:

RV2: Kako porabniki oblikujejo vtise o toplini in kompetentnosti blagovne znamke?

To široko raziskovalno vprašanje razčlenimo tako, da oblikujemo bolj podrobna podvprašanja: Kako porabniki integrirajo informacije o blagovni znamki, ki jih hranijo v spominu, da oblikujejo vtise topline in kompetentnosti? Kakšna je razlika med stereotipnimi in individualnimi (tj. diferenciranimi) vtisi topline in kompetentnosti? Katere asociacije o znamkah so uporabne za oblikovanje porabniških vtisov o toplini blagovne znamke in katere so uporabne za oblikovanje porabniških vtisov o kompetentnosti blagovne znamke? Ali se porabniki pri oblikovanju vtisov o toplini in kompetentnosti blagovne znamke hkrati zanašajo na več dimenzij asociacij o blagovnih znamkah?

Tretjič, naš namen je raziskati vlogo vtisov topline in kompetentnosti pri transformaciji porabniškega znanja in prepričanj o blagovni znamki v zvestobo. Medtem ko je nedavno raziskovanje identificiralo več konstruktov (vključno z zaupanjem v blagovno znamko in zaznano vrednostjo), ki lahko posredujejo učinke vtisov blagovne znamke na trženjska sredstva, povezana z odjemalci, to raziskovanje ostaja razdrobljeno, saj v literaturi ni celovitega modela, ki bi predvidel, kateri konstrukti spremenijo vtise o blagovni znamki v zvestobo strank in kako. Zato postavljamo tretje raziskovalno vprašanje:

RV3: Kakšna je vloga porabniških vtisov o toplini in kompetentnosti blagovne znamke pri pretvarjanju asociacij o blagovni znamki v trženjska sredstva, povezana z odjemalci?

Četrtič, nedavne raziskave kažejo, da imajo krize blagovnih znamk škodljive vplive na trženjska sredstva in uspešnost podjetja (Bundy et al., 2017; Khamitov, Grégoire, & Suri, 2020) ter da podjetja redno sprejemajo prilagodljive in obrambne strategije za uravnavanje kriz blagovnih znamk, ki imajo podobne (ali celo enake) situacijske značilnosti. Strokovnjaki za krizno uravnavanje menijo, da ima lahko uporaba prilagodljive (v primerjavi z obrambno) strategije nasprotne učinke na različne skupine deležnikov blagovne znamke (Cleeren et al., 2017; Lamin & Zaheer, 2012). Poleg tega različne teorije (tj. teorija obnove zaupanja in teorija atribucije) postavljajo nasprotujoče si napovedi o tem, kdaj (tj. pod katerimi situacijskimi značilnostmi) bo prilagoditvena ali obrambna strategija učinkovitejša pri uravnavanju krize blagovne znamke. Zato postavljamo naslednje raziskovalno vprašanje:

RV4: Kakšni so hkratni učinki strategij odzivanja na krizo blagovne znamke na tržna sredstva in uspešnost podjetja?

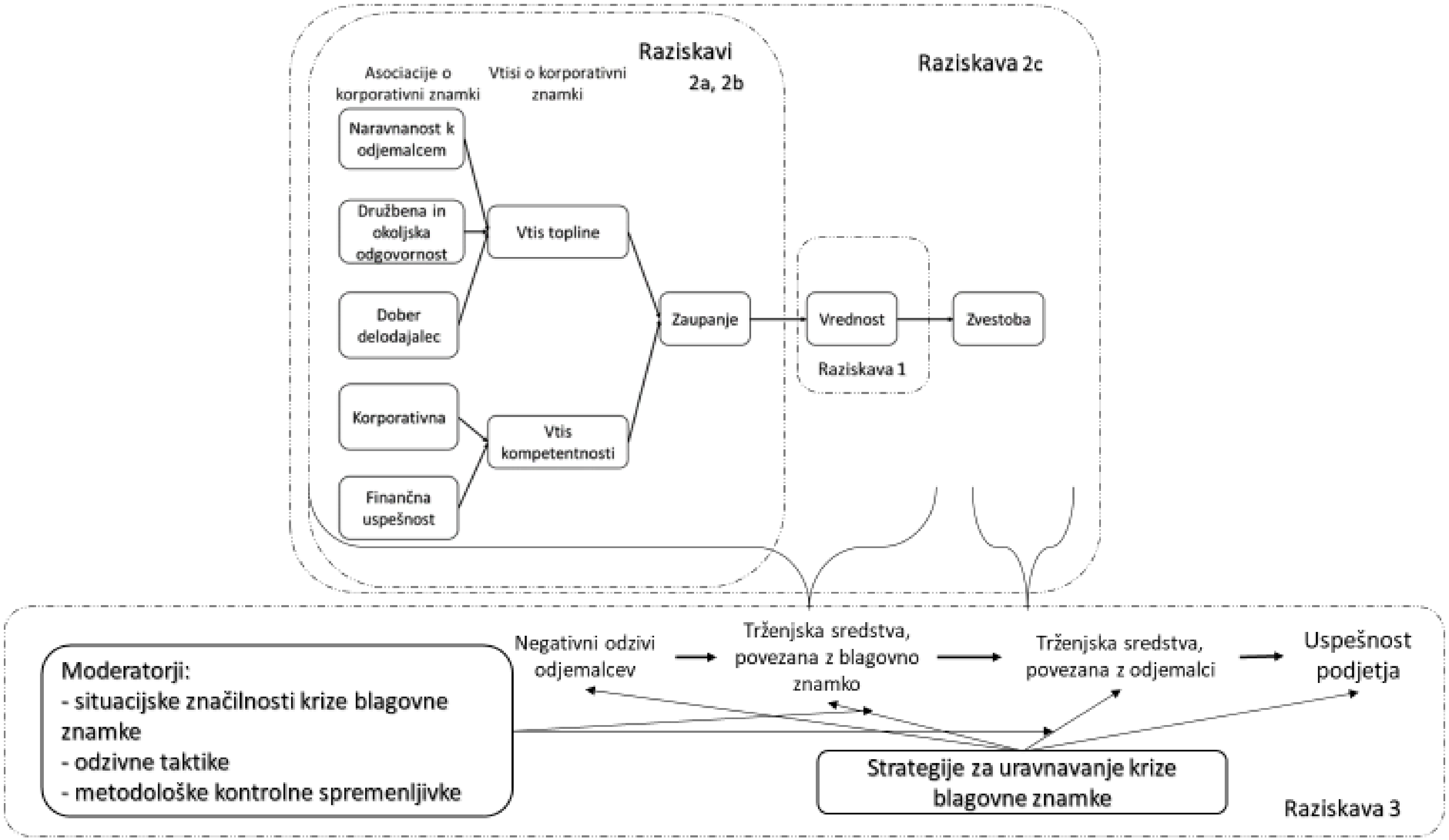
To široko raziskovalno vprašanje dodatno razčlenimo z naslednjimi podvprašanji: Katera strategija za uravnavanje krize blagovne znamke naj velja za privzeto? Pod katerimi situacijskimi značilnostmi naj podjetje uporabi prilagodljivo ali obrambno strategijo? Katera kombinacija taktik nudi optimalno implementacijo strategije za uravnavanje krize blagovne znamke?

Teoretično ozadje

Da bi raziskali ta raziskovalna vprašanja, smo razvili konceptualni model razvoja trženjskih sredstev in njihovega uravnavanja v času krize blagovnih znamk (Slika AF1.2), ki združuje več teoretičnih okvirov. Da bi odgovorili na RV1, uporabimo metateoretično lečo znanstveno-raziskovalnih programov (Lakatos, 1999; Leong, 1985), skozi katero konceptualiziramo literaturo, ki obravnava alternativne konceptualizacije konstrukta kot znanstveno-raziskovalni program, osredotočen na konstrukt. Ta perspektiva nam omogoča, da dekonstruiramo obstoječe konceptualizacije zaznane vrednosti, identificiramo vire konceptualne zmede in obnovimo raziskovalni program zaznane vrednosti, tako da konceptualizacije konstrukta postanejo jasnejše.

Horizontalno konceptualni model (Slika AF1.2) prikazuje proces oblikovanja trženjskih sredstev, povezanih z blagovno znamko, ter njihovo preoblikovanje v trženjska sredstva, povezana z odjemalci (RV2 in RV3). Natančneje, model predvideva, da vtisa topline in kompetentnosti posredujeta učinke posamičnih dimenzij asociacij o blagovni znamki na zaupanje, zaznano vrednost in zvestobo. Opremo se na teorijo oblikovanja vtisov iz psihologije in predvidimo, da različne dimenzije asociacij o blagovni znamki vplivajo bodisi na vtis topline bodisi na vtis kompetentnosti, ter razložimo, kako ti vtisi posredujejo učinek asociacij o blagovni znamki na zaupanje v blagovno znamko (RV2).

Slika AF12: Konceptualni model razvoja trženjskih sredstev in njihovega uravnavanja v času krize blagovnih znamk



Vir: Lastno delo

Za obravnavo RV3 se zanašamo na model zaupanje-vrednost-zvestoba, ki ga je razvili Jagdip Singh s sodelavci (Agustin & Singh, 2005; Marinova & Singh, 2014; Nijssen et al., 2000; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). Ta model predvideva, da zaupanje in zaznana vrednost delujeta kot zaporedna mediatorja, ki preneseta učinke zadovoljstva odjemalcev na zvestobo. Ta model uporabljamo iz treh razlogov. Prvič, model nam ustreza, ker je zaupanje v blagovno znamko konativna posledica pozitivnih vtisov topline in kompetentnosti (Fournier & Alvarez, 2012; Japutra, Molinillo, & Wang, 2018). Teoretični modeli zaupanja predvidevajo, da je zaupanje posledica zaznane kompetentnosti in dobronamernosti/integritete (Hegner & Jevons, 2016; Li et al., 2008), ki konceptualno ustrezajo vtisom topline in kompetentnosti.

Drugič, model zaupanje-vrednost-zvestoba predvideva, da ko porabniki zaupajo blagovni znamki, to izboljša njihovo dojemanje splošne koristnosti blagovne znamke, ker hkrati zmanjša zaznane žrtve in poveča zaznane koristi. Menimo, da je v naš konceptualni model treba vključiti konstrukt zaznane vrednosti, ker se mora posameznik, ki se odloči postati (in ostati) odjemalec blagovne znamke, vključiti v menjavo in se odreči nekaterim redkim virom (npr. denarju in času) v zameno za dostop do izdelkov/storitev blagovne znamke. Zato ima porabnikovo ovrednotenje te menjave ključno vlogo pri odločitvi za nakup in nadaljevanje odjemalskega razmerja (Grewal, Monroe, & Krishnan, 1998; Janiszewski & Van Osselaer, 2000; Kumar & George, 2007; Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, & Burton, 1990). Tretjič, model zaupanje-vrednost-zvestoba je empirično podprt v številnih raziskavah (Gidaković & Žabkar, 2021), zato smo prepričani v njegovo razlagalno moč.

Poleg tega spodnji del konceptualnega modela (Slika AF1.2) prikazuje (navpično) učinke strategij uravnavanja krize blagovne znamke na trženjska sredstva, povezana z blagovno znamko in odjemalci, ter na uspešnost podjetja. Ta del konceptualnega modela izpeljemo iz teorije atribucije, teorije obnove zaupanja in modelov trženjsko-finančne verige vrednosti. Za predlagane učinke strategij za uravnavanje krize blagovne znamke na trženjska sredstva in moderatorske učinke različne vrst taktik ter situacijskih značilnosti krize blagovne znamke se opiramo na teoriji obnove zaupanja in atribucije (Bundy & Pfarrer, 2015; Coombs, 2007; Lewicki & Brinsfield, 2017; Poppo & Schepker, 2010). Medtem ko se zanašamo na literaturo trženjsko-finančne verige vrednosti, da (1) konceptualiziramo trženjska sredstva podjetja, (2) povežemo ta sredstva s finančno uspešnostjo podjetja in (3) razdelimo celoten učinek strategije za uravnavanje krize blagovne znamke na uspešnost podjetja na negativen neposredni učinek in pozitiven posredni učinek (Edeling & Fischer, 2016; Katsikeas et al., 2016; Rust et al., 2004).

Metodologija

Ugotavljamo, da so znanstveniki uporabili različne tehnike pregledovanja literature, kot so bibliometrični pregled, konceptualni pregled, pregled merskih instrumentov in pregled pregledov, pa tudi različna orodja za metateoretično analizo, kot sta abstrakcijska lestev in teoretični zemljevid, za analizo in izboljšanje jasnosti konstruktov. A ima vsaka od teh tehnik in orodij določene pomanjkljivosti. Zato razvijemo metodologijo za konceptualno razjasnitev, ki združuje različne tehnike pregledovanja literature z orodji za metateoretično analizo in s tem premaga pomanjkljivosti, povezane s posameznim pristopom. Na primeru zaznane vrednosti pokažemo, kako uporabiti predlagano metodologijo za konceptualno razjasnitev.

Izvedemo tudi pet empiričnih raziskav, s katerimi preizkusimo konceptualni model razvoja trženjskih sredstev in njihovega uravnavanja v času krize blagovnih znamk (glej Sliko AF1.2 za prikaz povezav, ki jih preizkusimo v posamezni raziskavi). V Raziskavi 1 anketiramo dva vzorca porabnikov – enega iz Slovenije (N = 281) in enega iz Združenih držav Amerike (ZDA) (N = 420) ter primerjamo različne vidike veljavnosti alternativnih konceptualizacij zaznane vrednosti. V Raziskavi 2a (N = 266) smo uporabili eksperiment z vinjetami (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014; Brown & Dacin, 1997) o izmišljeni blagovni znamki in ciljem analizirati vzročno-posledične učinke asociacij o blagovni znamki in vtisov topline in kompetentnosti. Raziskavi 2b (N = 443) in 2c (N = 344) sta anketi porabnikov, ki so ocenjevali dejanske blagovne znamke. Ti dve raziskavi izvedemo, da bi okrepili eksterno veljavnost Raziskave 2a in ugotovili mediacijsko vlogo zaupanja v blagovno znamko in zaznane vrednosti pri posredovanju učinkov vtisa topline in kompetentnosti na zvestobo.

Nazadnje, v Raziskavi 3 uporabimo metaanalitično metodologijo, ki nam omogoča posploševanje učinkov strategij uravnavanja kriz blagovnih znamk na trženjska sredstva in uspešnost podjetja (Geyskens et al., 2009; Grewal, Puccinelli, & Monroe, 2018). Ker so bili ti učinki raziskani v številnih obstoječih raziskavah, ki nudijo nedosledne ugotovitve, nam metaanaliza omogoča posplošitev rezultatov o učinkovitosti prilagoditvenih in obrambnih strategij. Metaanaliza nam omogoča tudi, da raziščemo, ali ima posamezna strategija uravnavanja krize blagovne znamke nasprotujoče si učinke na trženjska sredstva in uspešnost podjetja. Skupno integriramo 164 člankov s 184 vzorci in 811 izmerjenimi učinki, ki opisujejo učinek prilagoditvenih strategij (v primerjavi z obrambnimi) na negativne odzive porabnikov, trženjska sredstva in finančno uspešnost.

Struktura in vsebina disertacije

Ta disertacija je sestavljena iz treh poglavij. V prvem poglavju obravnavamo RV1 tako, da razvijemo metodologijo pregledovanja literature za konceptualno razjasnitev in izvedemo študijo veljavnosti konstrukta na primeru zaznane vrednosti. V drugem poglavju razvijemo teoretično podlago za zgornji del konceptualnega modela (Slika AF1.2) in poročamo o ugotovitvah treh empiričnih raziskav, ki jih izvedemo za preizkus tega dela konceptualnega modela. V tretjem poglavju predstavimo podrobne dokaze nedoslednih ugotovitev iz obstoječih raziskav, ki proučujejo učinke strategij za uravnavanje kriz blagovnih znamk na trženjska sredstva in uspešnost podjetja, razvijamo teoretične podlage za spodnji del konceptualnega modela na Sliki AF1.2 in poročamo o ugotovitvah metaanalize, s katero preizkusimo ta del konceptualnega modela.

Appendix 2: Summary of reviews, commentaries, and books on perceived value

To review the vast PV literature we searched for previous reviews that topic (1st column). This table includes documents, where authors indicated that the goal of their work is to review the PV literature or PV conceptualizations, as well as papers that had other goals (e.g., scale development), but authors indicated that they performed a systematic literature review (2nd column). The 3rd column denotes whether the authors focus on business-to-business (B2B) or business-to-consumer (B2C), while the 4th column specifies which of the four dominant conceptualizations of PV the authors actually review (1 = acquisition value; 2 = value-in-exchange; 3 = experiential value; 4 = value-in-use). The last column summarizes main findings of a literature review, which we use as inputs for subsequent analyses (construct mapping and ladder of abstraction).

Author(s)	**Document type**	**Context**	**Conceptually related clusters from bibliometric analysis**	**Main findings / propositions**
Zeithaml (1988)	Journal article	B2B	1	The paper reviews early research on price, quality, and value perceptions of consumers. Based on a literature review and a qualitative study, the author proposes that each perception is a distinct construct, whereby price and quality perceptions act as antecedents to value perceptions, which can be defined in four different ways.
Sheth et al. (1991a)	Book	B2C	2	The authors develop the theory of consumption values, which conceptualizes customer value as 5-dimensional construct, whereas dimensions are independent and together add to the value of an offering/brand. The authors do not provide a measurement instrument.
Gale (1994)	Book	B2C	1	The author maintains that PV should be viewed as market-perceived quality versus competitors. The author proposes an approach to measuring PV.

(table continues)

(continued)

Woodruff and Gardial (1996)	Book	B2C	1 and 3	The authors develop a model of PV, which is based on means-end theory and proposes that PV can be seen as emerging from ability of offering's attributes to lead (via consequences of product attribute usage) to desired end states. The authors do not provide a measurement instrument. They suggest these should be developed (through laddering interviews) for every research context.
Holbrook (1999)	Book	B2C	2	The author develops a PV theory (consumer value framework), where he postulates that PV is comprised of the following dimensions: convenience, quality, fun, beauty, status, ethics, esteem and spirituality.
Payne and Holt (1999)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	1 and 3	The authors review the PV literature and relate it to the relationship marketing literature. However, instead of focusing on the exchange perspective, they rather consider the perceptual approach.
Ramírez (1999)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	4	The author provides an excellent review on etymology of value and its philosophical background. These backgrounds are used to contrast the use and exchange perspectives on PV.
de Chernatony, Harris, and Dall'Olmo Riley (2000)	Journal article	B2C	3	The authors examine the concept of "added value" in the branding setting and conclude that it is a multidimensional construct, where emotional value(s) are a source of sustainable competitive advantage.
Payne and Holt (2001)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	1, 2, and 3	The authors review the PV literature on value determination and relationship marketing. They develop a theoretical framework for relationship value management, which aims at relating value creation and value determination perspectives.
Woodall (2003)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	1, 2, 3, and 4	The author conducts a systematic review of the PV literature. He proposes five primary forms of PV: net PV, marketing PV, derived PV, rational PV, and sale PV. He also emphasizes the temporal dynamism of the construct.
Khalifa (2004)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	1, 2, and 3	The author conducts a systematic review of the PV literature and proposes three PV models: value exchange model, value build-up model, and value dynamics model.

(table continues)

(continued)

Ponsonby and Boyle (2004)	Journal article	B2C	1 and 4	The authors review the literature with special focus on experiential value. Special attention is given to contrasting consumer-culture theory perspective on PV with other "mainstream" perspectives.
Lindgreen and Wynstra (2005)	Journal article	B2B	1	The authors review literature in PV determination and creation in the context of B2B relationships. They conclude that PV is a higher-order aggregate construct, comprising of direct and indirect functions of a customer relationship.
Overby et al. (2005)	Journal article	B2C	1 and 3	The authors develop a research agenda for examining the impact of culture on the relationship between value creation and determination. They conclude that interactions of culture and various contexts of the PV research should be examined in the future.
Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2007)	Journal article	B2C	2 and 3	The authors conduct a systematic review and conclude that much more research has been exchange oriented and that future research should adopt multidimensional view of the construct, which should be modelled as an aggregate higher-order construct.
J. B. Smith and Colgate (2007)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	2 and 3	The authors review previous conceptualizations of PV and conclude that these forms of PV should be used: functional/instrumental value, experiential/hedonic value, symbolic/expressive value, and cost/sacrifice value. The framework also identifies five major sources of value (information, products, interactions, environment, and ownership) that are associated with central value-chain processes.
Golfetto, Woodside, and Gibbert (2008)	Book	B2B	1, 2, and 3	The book reviews the literature on value creation and determination in B2B markets and relationships.
Sanchez-Fernandez, Iniesta-Bonillo, and Holbrook (2009)	Journal article	B2C	3	The authors review the literature on value perception and based on Holbrook's and Sheth's theories develop a model where PV is a superordinate multidimensional construct, reflected in dimensions of efficiency, quality, social value, play, aesthetics, and altruistic value.

(table continues)

(continued)

Boksberger and Melsen (2011)	Journal article	B2C	1 and 2	The authors review the PV literature with respect to service industries. They advocate a multidimensional approach to PV conceptualizations and encourage development of better measures.
Gallarza, Gil-Saura, and Holbrook (2011)	Journal article	B2C	1, 2, and 4	The authors provide a comprehensive list of conceptual, methodological, and measurement issues related to the PV research. They call for future research in PV dimensionality and creation of PV.
Rivière and Mencarelli (2012)	Journal article	B2C	2, 3, and 4	The authors see PV as a polysemic concept and they compare the notions of customer, consumer, and shopping value. They identify three most common specifications of PV (aggregate unidimensional, aggregate multidimensional or analytical multidimensional).
Lindgreen, Hingley, Grant, and Morgan (2012)	Journal article	B2B	1, 2, and 3	The authors review B2B literature on PV, where they split it on before and after 2005. They argue that exchange perspective dominated the literature before 2005 and that a shift toward relational perspective is evident post 2005.
Barroso Castro, Cepeda-Carrión, and Martelo Landroguez (2013)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	1 and 2	The authors perform a literature review, and deduce that customer value can be seen both from the customer's point-of-view and from the firm's point-of-view, but an integrated vision of both perspectives must be established in order to study customer value. In this paper, they propose a model that links perceived value, value creation, and value appropriation and demonstrates that it is this relationship between the three views that really creates value for the service customer.
Gummerus (2013)	Journal article	B2C	1, 2, and 4	The author reviews the literature with the goal of connecting value creation and determination literatures. She develops a framework for relating value co-creation processes and value outcomes.
V. A. Vieira (2013)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	1	The author conducts a meta-analysis of 196 empirical studies. He finds support between PV antecedents (image, trust, quality, and expectations) and outcomes (satisfaction, loyalty, commitment, behavioral intentions, and WOM). Effect sizes were stronger for B2B studies.

(table continues)

(continued)

Galvagnom and Dalli (2014)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	4	The authors review theories underlying the PV creation literature and they identify service dominant logic literature as the theoretical foundation of this literature stream. However, they also identify relationship marketing literature as closely related area.
Karababa and Kjeldgaard (2014)	Journal article	B2C	4	The authors note that inconsistent terminology has been used in PV research, they identify following common notions: exchange value, perceived value, social value and social systems, experiential value, linking value, co-created value, and value as the co-creation of meaning.
Mencarelli and Rivière (2014)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	1, 2 and 4	The authors argue that research on PV in B2B and B2C fields has evolved in isolation from one another. They offer several propositions for synthesis of both fields, such as more non-rational dimensions of PV and new measurement tools in B2B PV literature. They also encourage more relational approaches and increased scope for value creation in B2C PV research.
Zauner, Koller, and Hatak (2015)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	1, 2 and 3	The authors review the literature and conclude that PV research can be organized in three stages. The first stage conceptualized PV as single factor construct, the second stage conceptualized PV as multidimensional disaggregate construct and the third stage has moved to a multidimensional higher-order conceptualization.
Alves, Fernandes, and Raposo (2016)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	4	The authors use bibliometric analysis to investigate the co-creation literature. Through co-citation analysis they identify four clusters of this literature stream: co-creation as a business logic, co-creation and new product/service development, co-creative experiences and loyalty, and co-creation and relationships.
Kumar and Reinartz (2016)	Journal article	B2C and B2B	1 and 2	The authors identified the following tasks for future research (p. 41): "- Broaden conceptualization and measurement of intangible attributes and benefits. - Define conceptualization and operationalization of a broader set of cost-related attributes - Examine influence of value perception by social network."

(table continues)

(continued)

Ranjan and Read (2016)	Journal article	B2C	4	The authors review the value co-creation literature and conclude that the construct is comprised of two second-order sub dimensions: co-production (knowledge sharing, equity, interaction) and value-in-use (experience, personalization, relationship).
Tasci (2016)	Journal article	B2C	1 and 3	The author reviews the PV literature with special focus on how it relates to brand equity. His main conclusions are that we need to develop mutually exclusive definitions of PV and unified measures of the construct.
Eggert et al. (2018)	Journal article	B2B	1, 3, and 4	The authors review B2B literature on PV. They demonstrate that the PV literature is growing rapidly and observe that B2B literature has shifted its focus from exchange to use PV. They propose that a value proposition is the element linking both conceptualizations.
Ruiz-Molina, Gallarza, and Gil-Saura (2018)	Journal article	B2C	1,2, and 3	The authors review the conceptualizations and measurement of PV in retail settings and identify 9 dimensions of PV, which they subsequently test in an empirical study. They conclude that emotional value, aesthetics and quality are the most important PV drivers.
V. A. Vieira et al. (2018)	Journal article	B2C	3	The authors conduct a meta-analysis of 190 studies of utilitarian and hedonic shopping value. They propose that utilitarian and hedonic value are antecedents of perceived value and customer satisfaction, which mediate their effects on loyalty and word of mouth.
Eggert, Kleinaltenkamp, and Kashyap (2019)	Journal article	B2B	1, 3, and 4	The authors review most cited papers on PV in Industrial Marketing Management and propose an integrative framework that link use and exchange value perceptions.
Leroi-Werelds (2019)	Journal article	B2C	3 and 4	The author reviews PV research and proposes that Holbrook's typology is the most developed. She then contrasts different approaches (disaggregate vs aggregate and formative vs reflective) to conceptualizing use and exchange value. Finally, she proposes guidelines for selecting appropriate conceptualization and operationalization of PV.

(table continues)

(continued)

Babin and Krey (2020)	Journal article	B2C	2	The authors perform a meta-analysis of 22 studies that measure the relationships among utilitarian and hedonic value and satisfaction. They find significant positive correlations for all three relationships.
Zeithaml et al. (2020b)	Journal article	B2C	1, 3, and 4	The authors review three decades of PV research and identify three main paradigms – positivist, interpretive, and social constructionist. They identify commonalities and differences among the three paradigms and offer propositions to move the research on PV forward.

Appendix 3: Definitions of perceived value

Author(s)	Construct label	Definition
Zeithaml (1988)	Perceived value	"… perceived value is the consumer's overall assessment of the utility of a product based on perceptions of what is received and what is given." (p. 14)
K. B. Monroe (1990)	Perceived value	"Buyers' perceptions of value represent the trade-off between the quality or benefits they perceive in the product relative to the sacrifice they perceive by paying the price" (p. 46)
Sheth et al. (1991b)	Functional value	"The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity for functional, utilitarian, or physical performance." (p. 160)
Sheth et al. (1991b)	Social value	"The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's association with one or more specific social groups." (p. 161)
Sheth et al. (1991b)	Emotional value	"The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse feelings or affective states." (p. 161)
Sheth et al. (1991b)	Epistemic value	"The perceived utility acquired from an alternative's capacity to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and/or satisfy a desire for knowledge." (p. 162)
Sheth et al. (1991b)	Conditional value	"The perceived utility acquired by an alternative as the result of the specific situation or set of circumstances facing the choice maker." (p. 162)
Babin et al. (1994)	Hedonic and utilitarian shopping value	"… consumers' evaluations of a shopping experience along two important dimensions: utilitarian and hedonic value." (p. 644)
Gale (1994)	Customer value	"Customer value is market perceived quality adjusted for the relative price of your product." (p. xiv)
Holbrook (1996)	Customer value	"I define customer value as an interactive relativistic preference experience." (p. 139)
Woodruff (1997)	Customer value	"Customer value is a customer's perceived preference for and evaluation of those product attributes, attribute performances and consequences arising from use that facilitate (or block) achieving the customer's goals and purposes in use situations." (p. 142)
Grewal et al. (1998)	Acquisition value	"… as the buyers' net gain (or trade-off) from acquiring the product or service" (p. 46)
Holbrook (1999)	Consumer value	"I define consumer value as an interactive relativistic preference experience" (p. 5)

(table continues)

(continued)

Eggert and Ulaga (2002)	Customer perceived value	"… customer perceived value as a trade-off between benefits and sacrifices perceived by the customer in a supplier's offering" (p. 109)
Woodall (2003)	Value for the customer	"Value for the customer (VC) is any demand-side, personal perception of advantage arising out of a customer's association with an organization's offering, and can occur as reduction in sacrifice; presence of benefit (perceived as either attributes or outcomes); the resultant of any weighed combination of sacrifice and benefit (determined and expressed either rationally or intuitively); or an aggregation, over time, of any or all of these." (p. 21)
Netemeyer et al. (2004)	Perceived value for the cost	"… is defined as the customer's overall assessment of the utility of the brand based on perceptions of what is received (e.g., quality, satisfaction) and what is given (e.g., price and nonmonetary costs) relative to other brands." (p. 211)
Ulaga and Eggert (2006b)	Relationship value	"… we define customer-perceived value in a key supplier relationship as a formative higher-order construct that represents the trade-off between the benefits and the costs perceived in the supplier's core offering, in the sourcing process, and at the level of a customer's operations, taking into consideration the available alternative supplier relationship." (p. 128)
Sánchez-Fernández and Iniesta-Bonillo (2009)	Economic value	"… is a bi-dimensional construct composed of two dimensions: (i) efficiency and (ii) excellence (or quality)." (p. 426)
Y.-K. Kim, Lee, and Park (2014)	Shopping value orientation	"…the consumer's orientation toward important shopping benefits and costs based on his/ her desire for both utilitarian and hedonic aspects of the shopping experience." (p. 2885)
Kumar and Reinartz (2016)	Perceived value	"…as customers' net valuation of the perceived benefits accrued from an offering that is based on the costs they are willing to give up for the needs they are seeking to satisfy." (p. 37)
Macdonald et al. (2016)	Value in use	"… as all customer-perceived consequences arising from a solution that facilitate or hinder achievement of the customer's goals." (p. 95)
Ranjan and Read (2016)	Value in use	"… is the customer's experiential evaluation of the product or service proposition beyond its functional attributes and in accordance with his/her individual motivation, specialized competences, actions, processes, and performances." (p. 293)

(table continues)

(continued)

Varshneya and Das (2017)	Experiential value	"…as a perceived, relativistic preference for product or service attributes arising via interaction within a purchase setting that expedites or hinders achievement of customers' purpose." (p. 49)
Busser and Shulga (2018)	Co-created value	"..as the actors' appraisal of the meaningfulness of a service by assessing what is contributed and what is realized through collaboration." (p. 70)
Kréziak et al. (2020)	Perceived residual value	"…as the value individuals place on an object after use." (p. 2)

Appendix 4: Study 1 measurement invariance and common method bias assessment

We conducted measurement invariance tests as outlined by Baumgartner and Steenkamp (1998) for the US and Slovenian samples for each of the four structural models that we compared in subsequent analyses. Each model consists of a PV scale (Model 1 – PVC scale from Netemeyer et al. (2004); Model 2 – short version of PV scale from Sweeney and Soutar (2001) and Walsh et al. (2014b); Model 3 – UTA/HED scale from K. E. Voss et al. (2003); and Model 4 – CCCV scale from Merz et al. (2018)) and four scales for endogenous constructs: willingness to pay a price premium (Netemeyer et al., 2004) and purchase intentions, feedback intentions, and helping other customers intentions (Hsieh & Chang, 2016). The results summarizes in Table AT4.1 suggest that we obtained at least partial metric invariance, which warrants pooling of both samples.

Table AT4.1: Measurement invariance between US and CE samples

Models	Configural invariance	Metric invariance	Error invariance	Factor variance invariance	Factor covariance invariance
Model 1	$\chi^2_{df=188}$ = 530.077; RMSEA = .051; CFI = .967; TLI = .957	$\Delta\chi^2_{df=9}$ = 2.62; P = .454; RMSEA = .044; CFI = .97; TLI = .96	not achieved	not achieved	$\Delta\chi^2_{df=12}$ = 44.957; P = .0945 RMSEA = .1; CFI = .972; TLI = .972
Model 2	$\chi^2_{df=156}$ = 974.910; RMSEA = .041; CFI .= 966; TLI = .958	$\Delta\chi^2_{df=13}$ = 19.356; P = .112; RMSEA = .043; CFI = .962; TLI = .954	not achieved	not achieved	$\Delta\chi^2_{df=33}$ = 44.957; P = .08; RMSEA = .047; CFI = .951; TLI = .945
Model 3	$\chi^2_{df=118}$ = 930.397; RMSEA = .044; CFI = 958; TLI = .95	$\Delta\chi^2_{df=14}$ = 22.007; P = .078; RMSEA = .049; CFI = .946; TLI = .938	not achieved	not achieved	$\Delta\chi^2_{df=18}$ = 16.194; P = .579; RMSEA = .044; CFI = .932; TLI = .938
Model 4	$\chi^2_{df=254}$ = 2554.614; RMSEA = .044; CFI = .935; TLI = .925	$\Delta\chi^2_{df=21}$ = 31.24; P = .07; RMSEA = .056; CFI = .935; TLI = .922	not achieved	not achieved	not achieved

Common method bias

To address potential bias due to common method, we employed two analytical approaches. First, we used unmeasured latent method factor procedure (Bagozzi, 2011; Richardson, Simmering, & Sturman, 2009), followed by marker variable technique (L. J. Williams et al., 2010), where we used social desirability bias as marker variable (Simmering, Fuller, Richardson, Ocal, & Atinc, 2015; L. J. Williams et al., 2010).

Unmeasured latent method factor procedure introduces latent method factor as an additional predictor of all indicators in the model, while covariances between the method factor and substantive factors are constrained to 0. If the introduction of the method factor does not change the loadings of indicator on their respective constructs and does not affect the correlations among substantive constructs, researcher can conclude that common method bias does not pose a serious threat to the validity of findings (Bagozzi, 2011). Results of this analysis are presented in Table AT4.2 and AT4.3.

Table AT4.2: Common method bias assessment with unmeasured latent factor

Measurement relationship			**Standardized loading**	**Standard error**	**t-value**	**P value**
Purchase intentions	→	PI1	.919	.047	31.424	.001
Purchase intentions	→	PI2	.937	.045	32.488	.001
Purchase intentions	→	PI3	.606	.058	17.444	.001
Willingness to pay a price premium	→	WTP1	.693	.061	19.819	.001
Willingness to pay price premium	→	WTP2	.806	.059	24.390	.001
Willingness to pay price premium	→	WTP3	.872	.053	27.100	.001
Feedback intentions	→	FI1	.861	.050	28.212	.001
Feedback intentions	→	FI2	.896	.047	29.916	.001
Feedback intentions	→	FI3	.896	.049	29.912	.001
Helping other customers intentions	→	HO1	.844	.047	27.115	.001
Helping other customers intentions	→	HO2	.931	.043	31.785	.001
Helping other customers intentions	→	HO4	.867	.047	28.348	.001
Social value	→	SoV1	.841	.054	26.978	.001
Social value	→	SoV2	.852	.053	27.527	.001
Social value	→	SoV3	.833	.053	26.606	.001
Emotional value	→	EmV1	-.871	.046	-28.803	.001
Emotional value	→	EmV2	-.928	.042	-32.100	.001
Emotional value	→	EmV3	-.937	.042	-32.647	.001
Functional value - Price	→	PrV1	.835	.045	27.026	.001
Functional value - Price	→	PrV2	.903	.041	30.697	.001
Functional value - Price	→	PrV3	.927	.038	32.173	.001
Functional value - quality	→	FuV1	-.788	.039	-24.389	.001
Functional value - quality	→	FuV2	-.877	.035	-28.797	.001

(table continues)

(continued)

Functional value - quality →	FuV3	-.838	.035	-26.734	.001
Hedonic value →	HED1	-.847	.050	-27.569	.001
Hedonic value →	HED2	-.863	.050	-28.361	.001
Hedonic value →	HED3	-.912	.046	-31.100	.001
Hedonic value →	HED4	-.853	.050	-27.785	.001
Hedonic value →	HED5	-.838	.049	-27.051	.001
Utilitarian value →	UTA1	.847	.042	27.370	.001
Utilitarian value →	UTA2	.888	.042	29.513	.001
Utilitarian value →	UTA3	.869	.042	28.525	.001
Utilitarian value →	UTA4	.554	.064	15.488	.001
Utilitarian value →	UTA5	.837	.043	26.865	.001
Trustworthiness →	TRU1	.796	.045	24.337	.001
Trustworthiness →	TRU2	.722	.048	21.239	.001
Trustworthiness →	TRU3	.657	.063	18.304	.001
Trustworthiness →	TRU4	.744	.055	22.008	.001
Commitment →	COM1	.824	.051	26.569	.001
Commitment →	COM2	.845	.052	27.716	.001
Commitment →	COM3	.835	.051	27.136	.001
Commitment →	COM4	.769	.058	23.844	.001
Passion →	PASS1	-.653	.060	-18.786	.001
Passion →	PASS2	-.874	.056	-28.426	.001
Passion →	PASS3	-.910	.055	-30.740	.001
Passion →	PASS4	-.861	.054	-28.205	.001
Skills →	SKIL1	.825	.047	27.154	.001
Skills →	SKIL2	.931	.047	27.777	.001
Skills →	SKIL3	.744	.051	23.630	.001
Knowledge →	KNO1	.892	.044	25.837	.001
Knowledge →	KNO2	.933	.042	30.990	.001
Knowledge →	KNO3	.642	.054	22.279	.001
Connectedness →	CON1	.793	.054	29.910	.001
Connectedness →	CON2	.889	.054	32.236	.001
Connectedness →	CON3	.843	.057	18.974	.001
Connectedness →	CON4	-.854	.060	24.788	.001
Creativity →	CRE1	-.918	.052	28.639	.001
Creativity →	CRE2	-.883	.055	26.456	.001
Value for the cost →	VC1	-.916	.045	-27.995	.001
Value for the cost →	VC2	.825	.040	-31.643	.001
Value for the cost →	VC3	.931	.041	-29.587	.001
Value for the cost →	VC4	.744	.041	-31.494	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	PI1	-.201	.080	-4.055	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	PI2	-.226	.078	-4.542	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	PI3	-.212	.075	-4.716	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	WTP1	-.141	.083	-2.986	.003
Unmeasured method factor →	WTP2	.056	.087	1.135	.256
Unmeasured method factor →	WTP3	.157	.084	3.120	.002
Unmeasured method factor →	FI1	.186	.076	2.392	.017
Unmeasured method factor →	FI2	.115	.079	2.496	.013
Unmeasured method factor →	FI3	.120	.074	.135	.893
Unmeasured method factor →	HO1	.007	.074	.313	.754

(table continues)

(continued)

Unmeasured method factor →	HO2	.016	.075	2.784	.005
Unmeasured method factor →	HO4	.136	.085	6.798	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	SoV1	.333	.085	6.561	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	SoV2	.323	.084	6.084	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	SoV3	.299	.076	2.392	.017
Unmeasured method factor →	EmV1	-.111	.079	-2.136	.033
Unmeasured method factor →	EmV2	-.017	.077	-.323	.746
Unmeasured method factor →	EmV3	-.017	.079	-.319	.750
Unmeasured method factor →	PrV1	-.172	.072	-3.514	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	PrV2	-.201	.069	-4.014	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	PrV3	-.215	.066	-4.271	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	FuV1	-.338	.059	-6.924	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	FuV2	-.296	.059	-5.835	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	FuV3	-.323	.056	-6.492	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	HED1	-.099	.082	-1.952	.051
Unmeasured method factor →	HED2	.024	.084	.468	.640
Unmeasured method factor →	HED3	-.110	.082	-2.116	.034
Unmeasured method factor →	HED4	.184	.082	3.625	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	HED5	-.220	.079	-4.384	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	UTA1	-.150	.068	-3.027	.002
Unmeasured method factor →	UTA2	.023	.071	.463	.644
Unmeasured method factor →	UTA3	-.104	.069	-2.075	.038
Unmeasured method factor →	UTA4	.291	.079	6.546	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	UTA5	.019	.069	.376	.707
Unmeasured method factor →	TRU1	.041	.071	.800	.424
Unmeasured method factor →	TRU2	.155	.070	3.122	.002
Unmeasured method factor →	TRU3	.484	.081	10.495	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	TRU4	.300	.080	6.070	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	COM1	.428	.079	8.935	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	COM2	.467	.082	9.734	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	COM3	.420	.080	8.711	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	COM4	.404	.086	8.567	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	PASS1	.269	.083	5.597	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	PASS2	-.290	.096	-5.488	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	PASS3	-.181	.100	-3.330	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	PASS4	.028	.094	.523	.601
Unmeasured method factor →	SKIL1	.390	.069	8.752	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	SKIL2	.355	.070	7.879	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	SKIL3	.317	.070	7.126	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	KNO1	-.067	.068	-1.365	.172
Unmeasured method factor →	KNO2	-.103	.071	-2.015	.044
Unmeasured method factor →	KNO3	.110	.077	2.290	.022
Unmeasured method factor →	CON1	.186	.088	3.804	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	CON2	.163	.092	3.296	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	CON3	.411	.074	9.332	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	CON4	.095	.090	1.991	.047
Unmeasured method factor →	CRE1	.266	.085	5.239	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	CRE2	.269	.086	5.408	.001
Unmeasured method factor →	VC1	-.252	.075	-4.980	.001

(table continues)

(continued)

Unmeasured method factor → VC2	-.196	.073	-3.766	.001
Unmeasured method factor → VC3	-.140	.071	-2.714	.007
Unmeasured method factor → VC4	-.178	.074	-3.426	.001

We additionally examined potential impact of common method bias by the marker variable technique (Bagozzi, 2011). We selected social desirability bias as a marker variable because we did not expect it to be correlated with any of the constructs in our study (Simmering et al., 2015). Asking consumers to evaluate brands is not considered a sensitive or socially very relevant to respondents (Helgeson & Supphellen, 2004). Therefore we excepted that social desirability bias as measured on a 7-point Likert scale with the following items from Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) (i.e., I like to gossip at times. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. At times, I have really insisted on having things my own way.) should function well as a marker variable. As evidenced in Table 4, social desirability bias is not significantly correlated to any of the substantive constructs except Feedback intentions and Commitment dimension of CV. However, both significant correlations are rather small and inclusion of marker variable does not change any of the correlations among other constructs. This leads us to conclude that common method bias was not a serious threat for the present study.

Table AT4.3: Common method bias assessment with marker variable

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**	**19**
1 Purchase int.	**1**																		
2 Feedback int.	.297***	**1**																	
3 Helping o. int.	.452***	.635***	**1**																
4 Social value	.313***	.372***	.408***	**1**															
5 Functional value (price)	.571***	.299***	.383***	.388***	**1**														
6 Functional value (quality)	.618***	.286***	.427***	.368***	.693***	**1**													
7 Hedonic	.356***	.348***	.425***	.443***	.441***	.542***	**1**												
8 Utilitarian	.365***	.325***	.418***	.390***	.432***	.500***	.504***	**1**											
9 Trustworthiness	.485***	.465***	.544***	.666***	.566***	.571***	.437***	.608***	**1**										

(table continues)

(continued)

10 Commitment	.248***	.508***	.468***	.606***	.330***	.292***	.437***	.319***	.604***	**1**									
11 Passion	.555***	.375***	.475***	.563***	.579***	.641***	.607***	.438***	.595***	.530***	**1**								
12 Skills	.164***	.295***	.262***	.349***	.128**	.118**	.054	.296***	.462***	.364***	.180***	**1**							
13 Emotional value	.582***	.454***	.582***	.534***	.637***	.686***	.689***	.531***	.680***	.540***	.712***	.200***	**1**						
14 Knowledge	.472***	.355***	.511***	.419***	.442***	.552***	.390***	.409***	.554***	.386***	.625***	.345***	.524***	**1**					
15 Connectedness	.272***	.271***	.370***	.462***	.202***	.260***	.333***	.185***	.416***	.459***	.495***	.262***	.377***	.412***	**1**				
16 Creativity	.255***	.441***	.494***	.614***	.372***	.391***	.597***	.419***	.583***	.660***	.593***	.351***	.640***	.464***	.509***	**1**			
17 Value for the cost	.690***	.360***	.490***	.474***	.874***	.749***	.525***	.525***	.648***	.391***	.662***	.183***	.726***	.524***	.300***	.458***	**1**		
18 Willingness to pay a price premium	.565***	.407***	.472***	.525***	.497***	.482***	.457***	.370***	.538***	.491***	.622***	.224***	.580***	.460***	.424***	.492***	.572***	**1**	
19 Social desirability bias	.045	-.112*	-.072	-.006	.045	.034	-.025	-.057	-.091†	-.101*	.008	-.072	.071	-.026	.003	-.006	.043	.009	**1**

Note: Significance of correlations: † $p < 0.10$; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Appendix 5: Detailed results from structural equation modeling

We estimated a series of structural models just as with measurement invariance tests reported in Appendix 4, where dimensions of each of the four CV scales (Merz et al., 2018; Netemeyer et al., 2004; K. E. Voss et al., 2003; Walsh et al., 2014b) acted as a sole predictor of four CV outcomes: willingness to pay a price premium (Netemeyer et al., 2004), purchase intentions, helping other customers intentions, and feedback intentions (Hsieh & Chang, 2016). Results are presented in Tables AT5.1 – AT5.16, significance of path coefficients in these tables is denoted as: † $p < 0.10$; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Table AT5.1: Comparison of Model 1 between US and Slovenia

US (N = 421)		**Slovenia (N = 281)**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Value for the cost → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .463)	.68*** (S.E. = .05; z = 16.092)	Value for the cost → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .538)	.733*** (S.E. = .062; z = 13.526)
Value for the cost → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .273)	.522*** (S.E. = .053; z = 10.311)	Value for the cost → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .41)	.64*** (S.E. = .068; z = 10.799)
Value for the cost → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .254)	.504*** (S.E. = .062; z = 8.146)	Value for the cost → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .323)	.568*** (S.E. = .052; z = 9.153)
Value for the cost → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .157)	.396*** (S.E. = .047; z = 8.555)	Value for the cost → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .242)	.492*** (S.E. = .038; z = 7.16)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=198}$ = 643.711; RMSEA = .057; SRMR: .095; CFI = 956; TLI = .947			

Table AT5.2: Comparison of Model 2 between US and Slovenia

US		**Slovenia**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Functional value (quality) → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .475)	.260*** (S.E. = .091; z = 4.218)	Functional value (quality) → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .468)	.26** (S.E. = .129; z = 2.889)
Functional value (price) → Purchase intentions	.118* (S.E. = .07; z = 2,037)	Functional value (price) → Purchase intentions	.311*** (S.E. = .094; z = 4.05)
Emotional value → Purchase intentions	.402*** (S.E. = .79; z = 5.858)	Emotional value → Purchase intentions	.0185* (S.E. = .088; z = 2.3)
Social value → Purchase intentions	-.039 n.s. (S.E. = .043; z = -.864)	Social value → Purchase intentions	.0115 n.s. (S.E. = .061; z = .178)

(table continues)

(continued)

Functional value (quality) → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .442)	.049 n.s. (S.E. = .065; z = .735)	Functional value (quality) → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .417)	.2* (S.E. = .144; z =2.017)
Functional value (price) → Willingness to pay a price premium	.001 n.s. (S.E. = 05; z = .012)	Functional value (price) → Willingness to pay a price premium	.313*** (S.E. = .053; z = 10.311)
Emotional value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.433*** (S.E. = .061; z = 5.303)	Emotional value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.074 n.s. (S.E. = .099; z = .836)
Social value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.277*** (S.E. = .033; z = 5.125)	Social value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.185** (S.E. = .07; z = 2.639)
Functional value (quality) → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .37)	.08 n.s. (S.E. = .092; z = 1.161)	Functional value (quality) → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .35)	.504 *** (S.E. = .062; z = 8.146)
Functional value (price) → Helping others intentions	-.018 n.s. (S.E. = .071; z = -.280)	Functional value (price) → Helping others intentions	.123 n.s. (S.E. = .079; z = 1.087)
Emotional value → Helping others intentions	.463*** (S.E = .081; z = 5.913)	Emotional value → Helping others intentions	.225* (S.E. = .055; z = 2.194)
Social value (quality) → Helping others intentions	.148** (S.E. = .044; z = 2.895)	Social value (quality) → Helping others intentions	.127 n.s. (S.E. = .038; z = 1.581)
Functional value (quality) → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .288)	-.016 n.s. (S.E. = .117; z = -.221)	Functional value (quality) → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .223)	.144 n.s. (S.E. = .107; z = 1.431)
Functional value (price) → Feedback intentions	-.054 n.s. (S.E. = .09; z = -.779)	Functional value (price) → Feedback intentions	.059 n.s. (S.E. = .077; z = .701)
Emotional value → Feedback intentions	.335*** (S.E. = .101; z = 4.127)	Emotional value → Feedback intentions	.408*** (S.E. = .075; z = 4.420)
Social value → Feedback intentions	.178*** (S.E. = .056; z = 3.282)	Social value → Feedback intentions	.060 n.s. (S.E. = .051; z = .851)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=460}$ = 1259.105; RMSEA = .05; SRMR: .078; CFI = 949; TLI = .939			

Table AT5.3: Comparison of Model 3 between US and Slovenia

US		**Slovenia**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Utilitarian value → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .236)	.279*** (S.E. = .073; z = 5.117)	Utilitarian value → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .136)	.223** (S.E. = .09; z = 3.076)
Hedonic value → Purchase intentions	.289 *** (S.E. = .054; z = 5.412)	Hedonic value → Purchase intentions	.195** (S.E. = .092; z = 2.682)
Utilitarian value → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .264)	.198*** (S.E. = .049; z = 3.472)	Utilitarian value → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .174)	.202** (S.E. = .092; z = 2.741)
Hedonic value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.390*** (S.E. = .041; z = 6.303)	Hedonic value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.271*** (S.E. = .096; z = 3.633)
Utilitarian value → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .275)	.266*** (S.E. = .066; z = 4.843)	Utilitarian value → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .204)	.353*** (S.E. = .066; z = 4.825)
Hedonic value → Helping others intentions	.344*** (S.E. = .05; z = 6.329)	Hedonic value → Helping others intentions	.147* (S.E. = 066; z = 2.061)
Utilitarian value → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .172)	.23*** (S.E. = .082; z = 4.059)	Utilitarian value → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .144)	.259*** (S.E. = .047; z = 3.282)
Hedonic value → Feedback intentions	.254*** (S.E. = .061; z = 4.573)	Hedonic value → Feedback intentions	.169* (S.E. = .047; z = 2.173)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=396}$ = 1042.179; RMSEA = .048; SRMR: .105; CFI = 949; TLI = .94			

Table AT5.4: Comparison of Model 4 between US and Slovenia

US		**Slovenia**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Knowledge → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .445)	.083 n.s. (S.E. = .079; z = 1.542)	Knowledge → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .402)	.349*** (S.E. = .105; z = 3.325)
Skills → Purchase intentions	-.188** (S.E. = .058; z = 2.965)	Skills → Purchase intentions	.091 .107 .089 1,205 .228
Creativity → Purchase intentions	.008 n.s. (S.E. = .051; z = .155)	Creativity → Purchase intentions	-.208* (S.E. = .102; z = -2.197)
Connectedness → Purchase intentions	.076 n.s. (S.E. = .042; z = 1.563)	Connectedness → Purchase intentions	-.18* (S.E. = .073; z = -2.474)
Trustworthiness → Purchase intentions	.254 *** (S.E. = .099; z = 3.674)	Trustworthiness → Purchase intentions	.348*** (S.E. = .127; z = 3.961=

(table continues)

(continued)

Passion → Purchase intentions	.588*** (S.E. = .131; z = 6.806)	Passion → Purchase intentions	.209* (S.E. = .117; z = 2.264)
Commitment → Purchase intentions	-.175** (S.E. = .06; z = -2.914)	Commitment → Purchase intentions	.068 n.s. (S.E. = .074; z = .091)
Knowledge → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .426)	.104 n.s. (S.E. = .054; z = 1.828)	Knowledge → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .398)	.091 n.s. (S.E. = .104; z = 1.037)
Skills → Willingness to pay a price premium	.057 n.s. (S.E. = .039; z = .872)	Skills → Willingness to pay a price premium	.056 n.s. (S.E. = .089; z = .744)
Creativity → Willingness to pay a price premium	.012 n.s. (S.E. = .034; z = -.239)	Creativity → Willingness to pay a price premium	-.097 n.s. (S.E. = .101; z = -1.02)
Connectedness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.141** (S.E. = .029; z = 2.742	Connectedness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.063 n.s. (S.E. = .073; z = .864)
Trustworthiness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.114 n.s. (S.E. = .067; z = 1.594)	Trustworthiness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.191* (S.E. = .125; z = 2.195)
Passion → Willingness to pay a price premium	.299*** (S.E. = .082; z = 3.585=	Passion → Willingness to pay a price premium	.476*** (S.E. = .123; z = 4.878)
Commitment → Willingness to pay a price premium	.121* (S.E. = .041; z = 1.931)	Commitment → Willingness to pay a price premium	-.034 n.s. (S.E = .091; z = -.401)
Knowledge → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .469)	.104 n.s. (S.E. = .054; z = 1.828)	Knowledge → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .374)	.412*** (S.E. = .081; z = 4.472)
Skills → Helping others intentions	0,104 n.s. (S.E.= .052; z = 1.657)	Skills → Helping others intentions	.011 n.s. (S.E. =.066; z = .143)
Creativity → Helping others intentions	.028 n.s. (S.E. = .046, z = .567)	Creativity → Helping others intentions	.057 n.s. (S.E. = .075; z = .593)
Connectedness → Helping others intentions	.13** (S.E. = .03; z= 2.69)	Connectedness → Helping others intentions	-.09 n.s. (S.E. = .055; z = -1.208)
Trustworthiness → Helping others intentions	.174** (S.E. = .089; z = 2.55)	Trustworthiness → Helping others intentions	.194* (S.E. = .094; z = 2.184)
Passion → Helping others intentions	.271*** (S.E. = .106; z = 3.529)	Passion → Helping others intentions	-.076 n.s. (S.E. = .086; z = -.807)
Commitment → Helping others intentions	-.055 n.s. (S.E. = .054; z = -.922)	Commitment → Helping others intentions	.178* (S.E. = .069; z = 2.055)

(table continues)

(continued)

Knowledge → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .335)	.101 n.s. (S.E. = .091; z = 1.751)	Knowledge → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .475)	.396*** (S.E. = .058; z = 3.934)
Skills → Feedback intentions	.061 n.s. (S.E. = .066; z = .905)	Skills → Feedback intentions	.195* (S.E. = .048; z = 2.311)
Creativity → Feedback intentions	.126** (S.E. = .059; z = 2.372)	Creativity → Feedback intentions	-.084 n.s. (S.E. = .054; z = -.807)
Connectedness → Feedback intentions	.023 n.s. (S.E. = .049; z = .44)	Connectedness → Feedback intentions	-.128 n.s. (S.E. = .039; z = -1.578)
Trustworthiness → Feedback intentions	.057 n.s. (S.E. = .113; z = .782)	Trustworthiness → Feedback intentions	.04 n.s. (S.E. = .066; z = .421)
Passion → Feedback intentions	.294*** (S.E. = .135; z = 3.563)	Passion → Feedback intentions	.049 n.s. (S.E. = .062; z = .479)
Commitment → Feedback intentions	.132* (S.E. = .069; z = 2.06)	Commitment → Feedback intentions	.193* (S.E. = .049; z = 2.051)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=1086}$ = 2589.358; RMSEA = .045; SRMR: .0627; CFI = 934; TLI = .924			

Table AT5.5: Comparison of Model 1 between product and service categories

Products (N = 364)		**Services (N = 337)**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Value for the cost → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .451)	.671*** (S.E. = .061; z = 12.779)	Value for the cost → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .496)	.705*** (S.E. = .05; z = 15.194)
Value for the cost → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .337)	.58*** (S.E. = .074; z = 9.118)	Value for the cost → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .326)	.571*** (S.E. = .048; z = 8.599)
Value for the cost → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .236)	.486*** (S.E. = .072; z = 8.739)	Value for the cost → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .256)	.506*** (S.E. = .044; z = 9.313)
Value for the cost → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .138)	.371*** (S.E. = .082; z = 6.8)	Value for the cost → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .141)	.375*** (S.E. = .049; z = 6.63)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=198}$ = 591.656; RMSEA = .053; SRMR: .084; CFI = 959; TLI = .951			

Table AT5.6: Comparison of Model 2 between product and service categories

Products		**Services**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Functional value (quality) → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .558)	.341*** (S.E. = .075; z = 5.873)	Functional value (quality) → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .427)	.134 n.s. (S.E. = .126; z = 1.563)

(table continues)

(continued)

Functional value (price) → Purchase intentions	.002 n.s. (S.E. = .052; z = .031)	Functional value (price) → Purchase intentions	.486*** (S.E. = .1; z = 6.139)
Emotional value → Purchase intentions	.536*** (S.E. = .066; z = 8.08)	Emotional value → Purchase intentions	.031 n.s. (S.E. = .088; z = .411)
Social value → Purchase intentions	-.107 n.s. (S.E. = .037; z = - 2.257)	Social value → Purchase intentions	.072 n.s. (S.E. = .055; z = 1.332)
Functional value (quality) → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .449)	.139* (S.E. = .087; z = 2.049)	Functional value (quality) → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .398)	-.115 (S.E. = .092; z =-1.212)
Functional value (price) → Willingness to pay a price premium	.088 n.s. (S.E. = .063; z = 1.356)	Functional value (price) → Willingness to pay a price premium	.313*** (S.E. = .053; z = 10.311)
Emotional value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.388*** (S.E. = .076; z = 4.358)	Emotional value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.231** (S.E. = .066; z = 2.706)
Social value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.265*** (S.E. = .096; z = -.316)	Social value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.334*** (S.E. = .044; z = 5.121)
Functional value (quality) → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .352)	-.021 n.s. (S.E. = .092; z = 1.161)	Functional value (quality) → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .386)	.504 *** (S.E. = .062; z = 8.146)
Functional value (price) → Helping others intentions	-.006 n.s. (S.E. = .07; z = -.085)	Functional value (price) → Helping others intentions	.178*** (S.E. = .102; z = 1.944)
Emotional value → Helping others intentions	.572*** (S.E = .087; z = 5.913)	Emotional value → Helping others intentions	.443*** (S.E. = .073; z = 5.388
Social value → Helping others intentions	.066 n.s. (S.E. = .049; z = 1.154)	Social value → Helping others intentions	.164 ** (S.E. = .045; z = 2.83)
Functional value (quality) → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .281)	-.095 n.s. (S.E. = .116; z = -1.358)	Functional value (quality) → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .233)	.007 n.s. (S.E. = .122; z = .069)
Functional value (price) → Feedback intentions	-.011 n.s. (S.E. = .116; z = -1.358)	Functional value (price) → Feedback intentions	.013 n.s. (S.E. = .095; z = .139)
Emotional value → Feedback intentions	.543*** (S.E. = .102; z = 6.769)	Emotional value → Feedback intentions	.294 *** (S.E. = .086; z = 3.249)
Social value → Feedback intentions	.077 n.s. (S.E. = .059; z = 1.31)	Social value → Feedback intentions	.242 *** (S.E. = .054; z = 3.719)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=460}$ = 1262.298; RMSEA = .05; SRMR: .077; CFI = 947; TLI = .937			

Table AT5.7: Comparison of Model 3 between product and service categories

Products		**Services**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Utilitarian value → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .207)	.226*** (S.E. = .065; z = 3.671)	Utilitarian value → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .193)	.444*** (S.E. = .089; z = 6.644)
Hedonic value → Purchase intentions	.295*** (S.E. = .067; z = 4.17)	Hedonic value → Purchase intentions	.-.001 n.s. (S.E. = .067; z = -.016)
Utilitarian value → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .264)	.274*** (S.E. = .069; z = 3.472)	Utilitarian value → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .184)	.168* (S.E. = .064; z = 2.417)
Hedonic value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.315*** (S.E. = .071; z = 4.711)	Hedonic value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.315*** (S.E. = .051; z = 4.413)
Utilitarian value → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .238)	.286*** (S.E. = .072; z = 4.595)	Utilitarian value → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .233)	.283*** (S.E. = .066; z = 4.366)
Hedonic value → Helping others intentions	.273*** (S.E. = .072; z = 4.595)	Hedonic value → Helping others intentions	.268*** (S.E. = 051; z = 3.069)
Utilitarian value → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .187)	.178** (S.E. = .084; z = 2.876)	Utilitarian value → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .129)	.211** (S.E. = .057; z = 2.935)
Hedonic value → Feedback intentions	.311*** (S.E. = .087; z = 4.933)	Hedonic value → Feedback intentions	.199** (S.E. = .047; z = 2.173)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=396}$ = 1090.57; RMSEA = .05; SRMR: .086; CFI = 943; TLI = .934			

Table AT5.8: Comparison of Model 4 between product and service categories

Products		**Services**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Knowledge → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .495)	-.036 n.s. (S.E. = .071; z = -.555)	Knowledge → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .414)	.275*** (S.E. = .095; z = 4.003)
Skills → Purchase intentions	-.123* (S.E. = .047; z = -2.124)	Skills → Purchase intentions	.095 n.s. (S.E. = .074; z = -.695)
Creativity → Purchase intentions	-.19* (S.E. = .066; z = -2.307)	Creativity → Purchase intentions	-.052 n.s. (S.E. = .071; z = 1.641)
Connectedness → Purchase intentions	.012 n.s. (S.E. = .037; z = .223)	Connectedness → Purchase intentions	-.003 n.s. (S.E. = .064; z = -.046)
Trustworthiness → Purchase intentions	.525*** (S.E. = .092; z = 6.345)	Trustworthiness → Purchase intentions	.209*** (S.E. = .121; z = 4.689)

(table continues)

(continued)

Passion → Purchase intentions	-.156* (S.E. = .051; z = -2.285)	Passion → Purchase intentions	-.169** (S.E. = .135; z = 2.533)
Commitment → Purchase intentions	.53*** (S.E. = .103; z = 5.711)	Commitment → Purchase intentions	.355** (S.E. = .078; z = -2.46)
Knowledge → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .505)	.007 n.s. (S.E. = .073; z = .107)	Knowledge → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .406)	.037 n.s. (S.E. = .067; z = .51)
Skills → Willingness to pay a price premium	-.07 n.s. (S.E. = .048; z = -1.154)	Skills → Willingness to pay a price premium	.064 n.s. (S.E. = .054; z = 1.587)
Creativity → Willingness to pay a price premium	.069 n.s. (S.E. = .068; z = .801)	Creativity → Willingness to pay a price premium	.127 n.s. (S.E. = .051; z = 1.03)
Connectedness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.09 n.s. (S.E. = .038; z = 1.636)	Connectedness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.06 n.s. (S.E. = .046; z = .911)
Trustworthiness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.337*** (S.E. = .09; z = 4.104)	Trustworthiness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.272 n.s. (S.E. = .085; z = 1.493)
Passion → Willingness to pay a price premium	.038 n.s. (S.E. = .052; z = .526)	Passion → Willingness to pay a price premium	.147*** (S.E. = .1; z = 2.991)
Commitment → Willingness to pay a price premium	.342*** (S.E. = .104; z = 3.584)	Commitment → Willingness to pay a price premium	.118 n.s. (S.E. = .056; z = 1.984)
Knowledge → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .451)	.118 n.s. (S.E. = .08; z = 1.753)	Knowledge → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .409)	.366*** (S.E. = .076; z = 5.069)
Skills → Helping others intentions	.036 n.s. (S.E. = .053; z = .599)	Skills → Helping others intentions	-.077*** (S.E. = .06; z = 3.38)
Creativity → Helping others intentions	-.078 n.s. (S.E. = .075; z = -.925)	Creativity → Helping others intentions	.264 n.s. (S.E. = .056; z = -1.292)
Connectedness → Helping others intentions	.087 n.s. (S.E. = .042; z = 1.597)	Connectedness → Helping others intentions	-.002 n.s. (S.E. = .05; z = -.032)
Trustworthiness → Helping others intentions	.068 n.s. (S.E. = .092; z = .91)	Trustworthiness → Helping others intentions	-.134* (S.E. = .092; z = 2.297)
Passion → Helping others intentions	.079 n.s. (S.E. = .057; z = 1.126)	Passion → Helping others intentions	.146 n.s. (S.E. = .105; z = -1.592)
Commitment → Helping others intentions	.485*** (S.E. = .116; z = 5.125)	Commitment → Helping others intentions	.175* (S.E. = .061; z = 2.065)

(table continues)

(continued)

Knowledge → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .382)	-.029 n.s. (S.E. = .095; z = -.432)	Knowledge → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .293)	.275*** (S.E. = .095; z = 4.003)
Skills → Feedback intentions	.136* (S.E. = .063; z = 2.232)	Skills → Feedback intentions	.095 n.s. (S.E. = .074; z = -.695)
Creativity → Feedback intentions	-.072 n.s. (S.E. = .088; z = -.836)	Creativity → Feedback intentions	-.052 n.s. (S.E. = .071; z = 1.641)
Connectedness → Feedback intentions	-.074 n.s. (S.E. = .05; z = -1.35)	Connectedness → Feedback intentions	-.003 n.s. (S.E. = .064; z = -.046)
Trustworthiness → Feedback intentions	.072 n.s. (S.E. = .109; z = .951)	Trustworthiness → Feedback intentions	.209*** (S.E. = .121; z = 4.689)
Passion → Feedback intentions	.278** (S.E. = .068; z = 3.895)	Passion → Feedback intentions	-.169*** (S.E. = .135; z = 2.533)
Commitment → Feedback intentions	.37** (S.E. = .134; z = 3.953)	Commitment → Feedback intentions	.355** (S.E. = .078; z = -2.46)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=1086}$ = 2724.405; RMSEA = .046; SRMR: .064; CFI = 926; TLI = .914			

Table AT5.9: Comparison of Model 1 between "think" and "feel" offerings

"Think" offerings (N = 352)		**"Feel" offerings (N = 349)**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Value for the cost → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .47)	.686*** (S.E. = .053; z = 13.864)	Value for the cost → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .517)	.719*** (S.E. = .056; z = 15.708)
Value for the cost → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .28)	.529*** (S.E. = .055; z = 8.362)	Value for the cost → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .413)	.629*** (S.E. = .061; z = 10.33)
Value for the cost → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .221)	.471*** (S.E. = .052; z = 8.461)	Value for the cost → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .269)	.519*** (S.E. = .055; z = 9.775)
Value for the cost → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .098)	.313*** (S.E. = .06; z = 5.631)	Value for the cost → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .16)	.4*** (S.E. = .06; z = 7.376)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=198}$ = 558.106; RMSEA = .051; SRMR: .09; CFI = 964; TLI = .956			

Table AT5.10: Comparison of Model 2 between "think" and "feel" offerings

"Think" offerings		**"Feel" offerings**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Functional value (quality) → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .593)	.347*** (S.E. = .09; z = 4.959)	Functional value (quality) → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .435)	.205*** (S.E. = .111; z = 2.996)

(table continues)

(continued)

Functional value (price) → Purchase intentions	.071 n.s. (S.E. = .06; z = 1.288)	Functional value (price) → Purchase intentions	.385*** (S.E. = .098; z = 5.301)
Emotional value → Purchase intentions	.461*** (S.E. = .068; z = 6.578)	Emotional value → Purchase intentions	.172*** (S.E. = .095; z = 2.512)
Social value → Purchase intentions	-.076 n.s. (S.E. = .042; z = -1.6)	Social value → Purchase intentions	-.039 n.s. (S.E. = .056; z = -.71)
Functional value (quality) → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .452)	.074 n.s. (S.E. = .086; z = .886)	Functional value (quality) → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .425)	.041 n.s. (S.E. = .094; z = .539)
Functional value (price) → Willingness to pay a price premium	.053 n.s. (S.E. = .059; z = .793)	Functional value (price) → Willingness to pay a price premium	.259*** (S.E. = .084; z = 3.159)
Emotional value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.371*** (S.E. = .067; z = 4.294)	Emotional value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.221** (S.E. = .083; z = 2.832)
Social value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.295*** (S.E. = .043; z = 4.865)	Social value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.272*** (S.E. = .049; z = 4.255)
Functional value (quality) → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .331)	.187* (S.E. = .097; z = 2.177)	Functional value (quality) → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .386)	-.017 n.s. (S.E. = .098; z = -.241)
Functional value (price) → Helping others intentions	-.09 n.s. (S.E. = .066; z = -1.317)	Functional value (price) → Helping others intentions	.032 n.s. (S.E. = .086; z = .423)
Emotional value → Helping others intentions	.419*** (S.E. = .073; z = 4.817)	Emotional value → Helping others intentions	.593*** (S.E. = .09; z = 7.744)
Social value → Helping others intentions	.099 n.s. (S.E. = .045; z = 1.682)	Social value → Helping others intentions	.095 n.s. (S.E. = .05; z = 1.654)
Functional value (quality) → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .18)	.03 n.s. (S.E. = .122; z = .322)	Functional value (quality) → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .315)	-.101 n.s. (S.E. = .115; z = -1.303)
Functional value (price) → Feedback intentions	-.008 n.s. (S.E. = .083; z = -.105)	Functional value (price) → Feedback intentions	.013 n.s. (S.E. = .101; z = .161)
Emotional value → Feedback intentions	.305*** (S.E. = .091; z = 3.275)	Emotional value → Feedback intentions	.499*** (S.E. = .103; z = 6.204)
Social value → Feedback intentions	.152** (S.E. = .057; z = 2.365)	Social value → Feedback intentions	.159*** (S.E. = .058; z = 2.548)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=460}$ = 1260.945; RMSEA = .05; SRMR: .076; CFI = 948; TLI = .938			

Table AT5.11: Comparison of Model 3 between "think" and "feel" offerings

"Think" offerings		"Feel" offerings	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Utilitarian value → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .39)	.373*** (S.E. = .061; z = 6.724)	Utilitarian value → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .066)	.101 n.s. (S.E. = .11; z = 1.368)
Hedonic value → Purchase intentions	.348*** (S.E. = .05; z = 6.32)	Hedonic value → Purchase intentions	.182 * (S.E. = .067; z = -.016)
Utilitarian value → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .921)	.143* (S.E. = .054; z = 2.322)	Utilitarian value → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .2)	.221** (S.E. = .112; z = 2.461)
Hedonic value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.454*** (S.E. = .05; z = 6.638)	Hedonic value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.276*** (S.E. = .092; z = 4.413)
Utilitarian value → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .244)	.194*** (S.E. = .057; z = 3.228)	Utilitarian value → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .243)	.307*** (S.E. = .066; z = 3.568)
Hedonic value → Helping others intentions	.367*** (S.E. = .049; z = 5.955)	Hedonic value → Helping others intentions	.240*** (S.E. = 09; z = 3.425)
Utilitarian value → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .111)	.148* (S.E. = .071; z = 2.322)	Utilitarian value → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .195)	.218** (S.E. = .028; z = 3.059)
Hedonic value → Feedback intentions	.234*** (S.E. = .059; z = 3.653)	Hedonic value → Feedback intentions	272** (S.E. = .099; z = 3.794)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=396}$ = 1041.949; RMSEA = .048; SRMR: .074; CFI = 948; TLI = .939			

Table AT5.12: Comparison of Model 4 between "think" and "feel" offerings

"Think" offerings		"Feel" offerings	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Knowledge → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .479)	.153* (S.E. = .087; z = 2,265)	Knowledge → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .403)	.181*** (S.E. = .089; z = 2.727)
Skills → Purchase intentions	-.084 n.s. (S.E. = .064; z = -1,526)	Skills → Purchase intentions	.003 n.s. (S.E. = .06; z = .052)
Creativity → Purchase intentions	.006 n.s. (S.E. = .068; z = .085)	Creativity → Purchase intentions	-.257*** (S.E. = .077; z = -3.309)
Connectedness → Purchase intentions	-.091 n.s. (S.E. = .047; z = -1,684)	Connectedness → Purchase intentions	.051 n.s. (S.E. = .056; z = .874)
Trustworthiness → Purchase intentions	.366*** (S.E. = .111; z = 4,558)	Trustworthiness → Purchase intentions	.554*** (S.E. = .134; z = 6.225)

(table continues)

(continued)

Passion → Purchase intentions	-.074 n.s. (S.E. = .059; z = -1,146)	Passion → Purchase intentions	-.143*** (S.E. = .075; z = -2)
Commitment → Purchase intentions	.404*** (S.E. = .094; z = 5,827)	Commitment → Purchase intentions	.152 n.s. (S.E. = .15; z = 1.555)
Knowledge → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .493)	.036 n.s. (S.E. = .07; z = .51)	Knowledge → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .44)	.066 n.s. (S.E. = .074; z = .932)
Skills → Willingness to pay a price premium	-.116* (S.E. = .052; z = -2)	Skills → Willingness to pay a price premium	.085 n.s. (S.E. = .05; z = 1.440)
Creativity → Willingness to pay a price premium	.091 n.s. (S.E. = .055; z = 1,229)	Creativity → Willingness to pay a price premium	-.033 n.s. (S.E. = .063; z = -.405)
Connectedness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.119* (S.E. = .039; z = 2,08)	Connectedness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.039 n.s. (S.E. = .047; z = .63)
Trustworthiness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.318*** (S.E. = .091; z = 3,773	Trustworthiness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.398*** (S.E. = .108; z = 4.333)
Passion → Willingness to pay a price premium	.187** (S.E. = .049; z = 2,754)	Passion → Willingness to pay a price premium	.023 n.s. (S.E. = .062; z = .3)
Commitment → Willingness to pay a price premium	.177** (S.E. = .074; z = 2,518)	Commitment → Willingness to pay a price premium	.21 n.s. (S.E. = .126; z = 1.992)
Knowledge → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .404)	.346*** (S.E. = .081; z = 4,716)	Knowledge → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .412)	.198*** (S.E. = .077; z = 2.894)
Skills → Helping others intentions	-.065 n.s. (S.E. = .058; z = -1,128)	Skills → Helping others intentions	-.033 n.s. (S.E. = .052; z = -.58)
Creativity → Helping others intentions	.062 n.s. (S.E. = .061; z = .823)	Creativity → Helping others intentions	.171 n.s. (S.E. = .066; z = 2.162)
Connectedness → Helping others intentions	.121* (S.E. = .043; z = 2,102)	Connectedness → Helping others intentions	-.054 n.s. (S.E. = .049; z = -.902)
Trustworthiness → Helping others intentions	.016 n.s. (S.E. = .095; z = .204)	Trustworthiness → Helping others intentions	.034 n.s. (S.E. = .102; z = .429)
Passion → Helping others intentions	.145* (S.E. = .054; z = 2,134)	Passion → Helping others intentions	.091 n.s. (S.E. = .065; z = 1.245)
Commitment → Helping others intentions	.171* (S.E. = .082; z = 2,432)	Commitment → Helping others intentions	.321 n.s. (S.E. = .133; z = 3.145)

(table continues)

(continued)

Knowledge → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .3)	.135 n.s. (S.E. = .097; z = 1,778)	Knowledge → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .338)	.044 n.s. (S.E. = .087; z = .63)
Skills → Feedback intentions	.106 n.s. (S.E. = .072; z = 1,715)	Skills → Feedback intentions	.055 n.s. (S.E. = .059; z = .948)
Creativity → Feedback intentions	.089 n.s. (S.E. = .076; z = 1,112)	Creativity → Feedback intentions	.055 n.s. (S.E. = .074; z = .668)
Connectedness → Feedback intentions	-.01 n.s. (S.E. = .053; z = -.167)	Connectedness → Feedback intentions	-.086 n.s. (S.E. = .055; z = -1.383)
Trustworthiness → Feedback intentions	-.009 n.s. (S.E. = .117; z = -.104)	Trustworthiness → Feedback intentions	.018 n.s. (S.E. = .116; z = .214)
Passion → Feedback intentions	.342*** (S.E. = .067; z = 4,695)	Passion → Feedback intentions	.249*** (S.E. = .074; z = 3.251)
Commitment → Feedback intentions	.044 n.s. (S.E. = .1; z = .593)	Commitment → Feedback intentions	.313** (S.E. = .15; z = 2.958)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=1086}$ = 2740.689; RMSEA = .047; SRMR: .069; CFI = 925; TLI = .913			

Table AT5.13: Comparison of Model 1 between low and high involvement offerings

Low involvement (N = 249)		**High involvement (N = 319)**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Value for the cost → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .516)	.718*** (S.E. = .067; z = 12.876)	Value for the cost → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .393)	.627*** (S.E. = .059; z = 11.996)
Value for the cost → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .387)	.622*** (S.E. = .067; z = 8.362)	Value for the cost → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .243)	.493*** (S.E. = .061; z = 7.303)
Value for the cost → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .299)	.546*** (S.E. = .052; z = 8.163)	Value for the cost → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .160)	.4*** (S.E. = .057; z = 6.827)
Value for the cost → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .127)	.356*** (S.E. = .075; z = 5.458)	Value for the cost → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .092)	.303*** (S.E. = .061; z = 5.161)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=198}$ = 457.421; RMSEA = .049; SRMR: .0796; CFI = 966; TLI = .950			

Table AT5.14: Comparison of Model 2 between low and high involvement offerings

Low involvement		**High involvement**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Functional value (quality) → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .524)	.326*** (S.E. = .116; z = 3.777)	Functional value (quality) → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .402)	.332*** (S.E. = .109; z = 4.548)

(table continues)

(continued)

Functional value (price) → Purchase intentions	.165* (S.E. = .091; z = 2.137)	Functional value (price) → Purchase intentions	.141* (S.E. = .078; z = 2.105)
Emotional value → Purchase intentions	.31*** (S.E. = .091; z = 3859	Emotional value → Purchase intentions	.246*** (S.E. = .086; z = 3.534)
Social value → Purchase intentions	.006 n.s. (S.E. = .062; z = .114)	Social value → Purchase intentions	.032 n.s. (S.E. = .048; z = .575)
Functional value (quality) → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .438)	.151 n.s. (S.E. = .099; z = 1.49)	Functional value (quality) → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .396)	.024 n.s. (S.E. = .087; z = .309)
Functional value (price) → Willingness to pay a price premium	.144 n.s. (S.E. = .078; z = 1.575)	Functional value (price) → Willingness to pay a price premium	.111 n.s. (S.E. = .064; z = .393)
Emotional value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.329 n.s. (S.E. = .079; z = 3.373)	Emotional value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.275*** (S.E. = .072; z = 3.564)
Social value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.179*** (S.E. = .055; z = 2.676)	Social value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.369*** (S.E. = .044; z = 5554)
Functional value (quality) → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .376)	.024 n.s. (S.E. = .123; z = .242)	Functional value (quality) → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .303)	.054 n.s. (S.E. = .1; z = .692)
Functional value (price) → Helping others intentions	.046 n.s. (S.E. = .098; z = .503)	Functional value (price) → Helping others intentions	-.054 n.s. (S.E. = .073; z = -.736)
Emotional value → Helping others intentions	.501*** (S.E. = .099; z = 5.139)	Emotional value → Helping others intentions	.475*** (S.E. = .083; z = 5.998)
Social value → Helping others intentions	.118 n.s. (S.E. = .067; z = 1.795)	Social value → Helping others intentions	.127* (S.E. = .046; z = 2.086)
Functional value (quality) → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .212)	-.096 n.s. (S.E. = .146; z = -.87)	Functional value (quality) → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .192)	-.024 n.s. (S.E. = .121; z = -.293)
Functional value (price) → Feedback intentions	.086 n.s. (S.E. = .116; z = .858)	Functional value (price) → Feedback intentions	-.01 n.s. (S.E. = .088; z = -.135)
Emotional value → Feedback intentions	.368*** (S.E. = .115; z = 3.532)	Emotional value → Feedback intentions	.31*** (S.E. = .098; z = 3.795)
Social value → Feedback intentions	.161* (S.E. = .08; z = 2.23)	Social value → Feedback intentions	.217*** (S.E. = .055; z = 3.324)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=460}$ = 1061.743; RMSEA = .048; SRMR: .076; CFI = 949; TLI = .939			

Table AT5.15: Comparison of Model 3 between low and high involvement offerings

Low involvement		**High involvement**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Utilitarian value → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .138)	.18*** (S.E. = .095; z = 3.818)	Utilitarian value → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .176)	.25* (S.E. = .094; z = 2.734)
Hedonic value → Purchase intentions	.255*** (S.E. = .074; z = 3.727)	Hedonic value → Purchase intentions	.239*** (S.E. = .079; z = 3.553)
Utilitarian value → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .250)	.252 n.s. (S.E. = .077; z = .996)	Utilitarian value → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .16)	.068** (S.E. = .071; z = 4.367)
Hedonic value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.335*** (S.E. = .066; z = 4.906)	Hedonic value → Willingness to pay a price premium	.363*** (S.E. = .061; z = 4.413)
Utilitarian value → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .221)	.335* (S.E. = .082; z = 2.435)	Utilitarian value → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .188)	.16*** (S.E. = .087; z = 4.613)
Hedonic value → Helping others intentions	.213*** (S.E. = .066; z = 5.014)	Hedonic value → Helping others intentions	.334*** (S.E. = 071; z = 3.009)
Utilitarian value → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .143)	.201* (S.E. = .082; z = 2.322)	Utilitarian value → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .075)	.143** (S.E. = .094; z = 2.734)
Hedonic value → Feedback intentions	.243** (S.E. = .076; z = 2.58)	Hedonic value → Feedback intentions	176** (S.E. = .078; z = 3.317)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=396}$ = 920.66; RMSEA = .048; SRMR: .091; CFI = 944; TLI = .934			

Table AT5.16: Comparison of Model 4 between low and high involvement offerings

Low involvement		**High involvement**	
Structural path	**Standardized parameter estimate**	**Structural path**	**Standardized parameter estimate**
Knowledge → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .498)	.189* (S.E. = .098; z = 2.558)	Knowledge → Purchase intentions (R^2 = .339)	.126 n.s. (S.E. = .095; z = 1,761)
Skills → Purchase intentions	-.116 n.s. (S.E. = .071; z = -1.712)	Skills → Purchase intentions	.097 n.s. (S.E. = .058; z = 1,651)
Creativity → Purchase intentions	-.242*** (S.E. = .091; z = -2.924)	Creativity → Purchase intentions	-.154 n.s. (S.E. = .07; z = -2,019)
Connectedness → Purchase intentions	.128* (S.E. = .063; z = 2.184)	Connectedness → Purchase intentions	-.055 n.s. (S.E. = .049; z = -.884)
Trustworthiness → Purchase intentions	.488*** (S.E. = .22; z = 4859)	Trustworthiness → Purchase intentions	.432*** (S.E. = .102; z = 5,16)

(table continues)

(continued)

Passion → Purchase intentions	-.058 n.s. (S.E. = .082; z = -.794)	Passion → Purchase intentions	-.108 n.s. (S.E. = .067; z = -1,473)
Commitment → Purchase intentions	.308*** (S.E. = .122; z = 3.706)	Commitment → Purchase intentions	.253* (S.E. = .138; z = 2,83)
Knowledge → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .498)	.155 n.s. (S.E. = .078; z = 1.897)	Knowledge → Willingness to pay a price premium (R^2 = .407)	-.01 n.s. (S.E. = .075; z = -.133)
Skills → Willingness to pay a price premium	-.135 n.s. (S.E. = .057; z = -1.792)	Skills → Willingness to pay a price premium	.102 n.s. (S.E. = .046; z = 1,705)
Creativity → Willingness to pay a price premium	.061 n.s. (S.E. = .071; z = .683)	Creativity → Willingness to pay a price premium	.093 n.s. (S.E. = .055; z = 1,205)
Connectedness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.055 n.s. (S.E. = .05; z = .861)	Connectedness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.09 n.s. (S.E. = .038; z = 1,435)
Trustworthiness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.32*** (S.E. = .16; z = 3.166)	Trustworthiness → Willingness to pay a price premium	.362*** (S.E. = .082; z = 4,196)
Passion → Willingness to pay a price premium	.093 n.s. (S.E. = .065; z = 1.156)	Passion → Willingness to pay a price premium	.09 n.s. (S.E. = .053; z = 1,205)
Commitment → Willingness to pay a price premium	.247*** (S.E. = .097; z = 2.695)	Commitment → Willingness to pay a price premium	.113 n.s. (S.E. = .108; z = 1,267)
Knowledge → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .471)	.258*** (S.E. = .095; z = 3.277)	Knowledge → Helping others intentions (R^2 = .327)	.272*** (S.E. = .085; z = 3,635)
Skills → Helping others intentions	.005 n.s. (S.E. = .068; z = .064)	Skills → Helping others intentions	-.065 n.s. (S.E. = .051; z = -1,08)
Creativity → Helping others intentions	.016 n.s. (S.E. = .085; z = .186)	Creativity → Helping others intentions	.123 n.s. (S.E. = .061; z = 1,574)
Connectedness → Helping others intentions	.087 n.s. (S.E. = .061; z = 1.403)	Connectedness → Helping others intentions	.062 n.s. (S.E. = .043; z = .986)
Trustworthiness → Helping others intentions	.121 n.s. (S.E. = .177; z = 1.352)	Trustworthiness → Helping others intentions	-.007 n.s. (S.E. = .082; z = -.088)
Passion → Helping others intentions	.064 n.s. (S.E. = .079; z = .834)	Passion → Helping others intentions	.145 n.s. (S.E. = .059; z = 1,933)
Commitment → Helping others intentions	.355*** (S.E. = .119; z = 3.991)	Commitment → Helping others intentions	.177 n.s. (S.E. = .12; z = 1,949)

(table continues)

(continued)

Knowledge → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .304)	.141 n.s. (S.E. = .111; z = 1.646)	Knowledge → Feedback intentions (R^2 = .306)	.126 n.s. (S.E. = .095; z = 1,702)
Skills → Feedback intentions	.014 n.s. (S.E. = .081; z = .179)	Skills → Feedback intentions	.11 n.s. (S.E. = .058; z = 1,809)
Creativity → Feedback intentions	.004 n.s. (S.E. = .101; z = .046)	Creativity → Feedback intentions	.067 n.s. (S.E. = .069; z = .853)
Connectedness → Feedback intentions	-.11 n.s. (S.E. = .072; z = -1.613)	Connectedness → Feedback intentions	.04 n.s. (S.E. = .048; z = .63)
Trustworthiness → Feedback intentions	.08 n.s. (S.E. = .207; z = .827)	Trustworthiness → Feedback intentions	.21 n.s. (S.E. = .093; z = .152)
Passion → Feedback intentions	.22* (S.E. = .093; z = 2.592)	Passion → Feedback intentions	.365*** (S.E. = .068; z = 4,733)
Commitment → Feedback intentions	.288*** (S.E. = .137; z = 3.013)	Commitment → Feedback intentions	.014 n.s. (S.E. = .135; z = .152)
Model fit: $\chi^2_{df=1086}$ = 2378.125; RMSEA = .046; SRMR: .076; CFI = 923; TLI = .911			

Appendix 6: Manipulations and detailed results of Study 2a

This appendix summarizes the experimental manipulations used in Study 2a (Table AT6.1) and provides results related to measurement reliability (Table AT6.2) and validity (Table AT6.3) assessment as well as results of manipulation checks and univariate effect sizes (Table AT6.4).

Table AT6.1: Experimental treatments

Experimental group	**Company description**
Control	**ABOUT US** We've come a long way since a small mobile operator from New Jersey has grown into a global business and one of the most valuable telecommunications brands. We now operate in 15 countries. In an increasingly connected world, it's no longer just about being able to talk and text. Our network allows people to share images and videos as soon as they're captured; to share thoughts and feelings as soon as they're created. And because we now do more than just mobile in many markets, more customers look to B-Linked for great value in their fixed line and broadband services.
Customer orientation	Our philosophy and achievements have been recognized and awarded many times by various independent local and international associations and organizations. We're especially proud that The Stevie® Awards - the world's premier business awards, created to honour and generate public recognition of the achievements and positive contributions of organizations worldwide, has chosen B-Linked as the recipient of Customer service award for 2018. This award is given to the organisation that is genuinely concerned about customer needs and has employees who treat customers fairly and courteously.
Corporate-social responsibility	Our philosophy and achievements have been recognized and awarded many times by various independent local and international associations and organizations. We're especially proud that The Stevie® Awards - the world's premier business awards, created to honour and generate public recognition of the achievements and positive contributions of organizations worldwide, has chosen B-Linked as the recipient of Sustainability award for 2018. This award is given to the organisation that supports good causes, is willing to sacrifice its profits to ensure a clean environment and demonstrates an effort to create new jobs.

(table continues)

(continued)

Good employer	Our philosophy and achievements have been recognized and awarded many times by various independent local and international associations and organizations. We’re especially proud that The Stevie® Awards - the world's premier business awards, created to honour and generate public recognition of the achievements and positive contributions of organizations worldwide, has chosen B-Linked as the recipient of Best place to work award for 2018. This award is given to the organisation that demonstrates that it maintains high standards in the workplace, treats its people well and has management that pays attention to the needs of its employees.
Corporate ability	Our philosophy and achievements have been recognized and awarded many times by various independent local and international associations and organizations. We’re especially proud that The Stevie® Awards - the world's premier business awards, created to honour and generate public recognition of the achievements and positive contributions of organizations worldwide, has chosen B-Linked as the recipient of Service quality and innovation award for 2018. This award is given to the organisation that demonstrates superior service quality and offers truly innovative and reliable products and services.
Financial performance	Our philosophy and achievements have been recognized and awarded many times by various independent local and international associations and organizations. We’re especially proud that The Stevie® Awards - the world's premier business awards, created to honour and generate public recognition of the achievements and positive contributions of organizations worldwide, has chosen B-Linked as the recipient of Business of the year award for 2018. This award is given to the organisation that demonstrates has strong prospects for future growth, outperforms competitors and has a strong record of profitability.

Table AT6.2: Study 2a Measurement reliability and descriptive statistics

Scale means, standard deviations and reliabilities / items	Standardized loading	Standard error	t-test
Trust (M_{Trust} = 13.5; SD_{Trust} = 3.28; α_{Trust} = .902)			
I trust B-Linked. (BT1)	.889	.055	18.372
I would feel comfortable depending on B-Linked. (BT2)	.871	.062	17.436
I would rely on B-Linked to deliver on its brand promise. (BT3)	.845	.061	16.644
Warmth (M_{Warmth} = 217.48; SD_{Warmth} = 56.54; α_{Warmth} = .893)			
If B-Linked appeared in the UK market, what you think, how would UK consumers see B-Linked... cold / warm	.799	.866	15.156
If B-Linked appeared in the UK market, what you think, how would UK consumers see B-Linked... ill-natured / good-natured	.899	.833	16.716
If B-Linked appeared in the UK market, what you think, how would UK consumers see B-Linked... unfriendly / friendly	.871	.823	16.756
If B-Linked appeared in the UK market, what you think, how would UK consumers see B-Linked... unkind / kind	.845	.847	14.766
Competence ($M_{Competence}$ = 239.76; $SD_{Competence}$ = 54.85; $\alpha_{Competence}$ = .875)			
If B-Linked appeared in the UK market, what you think, how would UK consumers see B-Linked... incompetent / competent (BC1)	.799	.882	14.661
If B-Linked appeared in the UK market, what you think, how would UK consumers see B-Linked... unintelligent / intelligent (BC2)	.852	.848	14.002
If B-Linked appeared in the UK market, what you think, how would UK consumers see B-Linked... inefficient / efficient (BC3)	.854	.829	15.433
If B-Linked appeared in the UK market, what you think, how would UK consumers see B-Linked... incapable / capable (BC4)	.785	.840	16.384
Customer orientation ($M_{Customer\ orientation}$ = 14.91; $SD_{Customer\ orientation}$ = 2.79; $\alpha_{Customer\ orientation}$ = .903)			
B-Linked has employees who treat customers courteously. (CO1)	.784	.05	17.238
B-Linked has employees who are concerned about customer needs. (CO2)	.760	.049	18.792
B-Linked is concerned about its customers. (CO3)	.812	.053	16.38
Corporate-social responsibility ($M_{Social\ and\ environmental\ reliability}$ = 13.42; $SD_{Social\ and\ environmental\ reliability}$ = 2.62; $\alpha_{Social\ and\ environmental\ reliability}$ = .805)			
B-Linked seems to make an effort to create new jobs. (SER1)	.836	.057	12.177
B-Linked seems to be environmentally responsible. (SER2)	.887	.057	15.848
B-Linked would reduce its profits to ensure a clean environment. (SER3)	.849	.060	12.882
Good employer ($M_{Good\ employer}$ = 15.21; $SD_{Good\ employer}$ = 2.81; $\alpha_{Good\ employer}$ = .881)			
B-Linked looks like a good company to work for. (GE1)	.845	.05	17.942
B-Linked seems to treat its people well. (GE2)	.864	.054	16.756
B-Linked seems to have excellent leadership. (GE3)	.911	.054	15.485
Corporate ability ($C_{orporate\ ability}$ = 14.9; $SD_{Corporate\ ability}$ = 2.88; $\alpha_{Corporate\ ability}$ = .864)			
B-Linked is a strong, reliable company. (CA1)	.736	.057	16.932
B-Linked develops innovative products and services. (CA2)	.707	.059	14.220
B-Linked offers high quality products and services. (CA3)	.763	.051	17.349
Financial performance ($M_{Financial\ performance}$ = 15.02; $SD_{Financial\ performance}$ = 2.88; $\alpha_{Financial\ performance}$ = .864)			
B-Linked tends to outperform competitors. (FP1)	.807	.059	12.624
B-Linked seems to recognize and take advantage of market opportunities. (FP2)	.704	.055	14.025
B-Linked looks like it has strong prospects for future growth. (FP3)	.864	.054	16.051

Table AT6.3: Validity matrix

	Composite reliability (CR)	Average variance extracted (AVE)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Trust (1)	.905	.760	**.872**							
Warmth (2)	.893	.677	.482***	**.823**						
Competence (3)	.877	.642	.635***	.515***	**.801**					
Customer orientation (4)	.904	.758	.525***	.476***	.469***	**.871**				
Good employer (5)	.885	.719	.596***	.564***	.510***	.328***	**.848**			
Corporate social-responsibility (6)	.813	.594	.380***	.505***	.369***	.491***	.612***	**.771**		
Financial performance (7)	.815	.595	.708***	.452***	.656***	.654***	.739***	.520***	**.772**	
Corporate ability (8)	.868	.688	.772***	.493***	.645***	.674***	.757***	.547***	.588***	**.830**

Square root of AVE in bold on the diagonal, inter-construct correlations below the diagonal. Significance levels: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table AT6.4: Means and standard deviations across experimental groups

Experimental group / Construct	Control group (N = 42)	Customer orientation (N = 49)	Corporate-social responsibility (N = 40)	Good employer (N = 44)	Corporate ability (N = 45)	Financial performance (N = 46)
Trust	M = 4.1; SD = 1.1	M = 4.52; SD = 1.1	M = 4.43; SD = 1.1	M = 4.49; SD = 1.31	M = 4.54, SD = .89	M = 4.89; SD = .94
Warmth	M = 51.8; SD = 13.3	M = 57.17; SD = 12.66	M = 58.29; SD = 15.69	M = 59.15.28; SD = 14.68	M = 48.78; SD = 13.98	M = 51.21; SD = 11.91
Competence	M = 57.38; SD = 16.04	M = 58.21; SD = 14.21	M = 58.11; SD = 12.99	M = 60.56; SD = 16.72	M = 62.28; SD = 9.97	M = 62.813; SD = 10.97
Customer orientation	M = 4.35; SD = .75	M = 5.42; SD = .99	M = 4.96; SD = .93	M = 5.24; SD = .94	M = 4.67, SD = .81	M = 5.1; SD = .75
Corporate-social responsibility	M = 4.06; SD = .73	M = 4.2; SD = .8	M = 5.12; SD = .93	M = 4.64, SD = .92	M = 4.25, SD = .58	M = 4.59; SD = .82
Good employer	M = 4.37; SD = .88	M = 5.03; SD = .91	M = 5.1; SD = .88	M = 5.8; SD = .86	M = 4.86, SD = .73	M = 5.23; SD = .75
Corporate ability	M = 4.48; SD = .95	M = 4.92; SD = .92	M = 4.86; SD = 1.18	M = 5.02, SD = .93	M = 5.41, SD = .76	M = 5.01; SD = .81
Financial performance	M = 4.51; SD = 1.01	M = 4.91; SD = .87	M = 4.92; SD = .82	M = 5.08, SD = .85	M = 5.13, SD = .72	M = 5.45; SD = .77

Appendix 7: Detailed results for Study 2b

This appendix provides detailed information on the results of Study 2b. Table AT7.1 summarizes reliability coefficients and factor loadings, while Table AT7.2 presents the analysis of common method bias with marker variable.

Table AT7.1: Study 2b measurement reliability and descriptive statistics

Scale means, standard deviations and reliabilities / items	Standardized loading	Standard error	t-test
Trust (M_{Trust} = 13.47; SD_{Trust} = 4.7; α_{Trust} = .94)			
I trust BRAND. (BT1)	.942	.057	26.480
I would feel comfortable depending on BRAND. (BT2)	.953	.058	27.061
I would rely on BRAND to deliver on its brand promise. (BT3)	.847	.063	22.114
Competence ($M_{Competence}$ = 20.33; $SD_{Competence}$ = 5.35; $\alpha_{Competence}$ = .949)			
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... incompetent/competent (BC1)	.894	.052	24.322
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... unintelligent/intelligent (BC2)	.865	.051	22.977
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... inefficient/efficient (BC3)	.925	.051	25.812
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... incapable/capable (BC4)	.927	.050	25.901
Warmth (M_{Warmth} = 18.45; SD_{Warmth} = 5.52; α_{Warmth} = .952)			
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... cold/warm (BW1)	.868	.057	22.909
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... ill-natured/good-natured (BW2)	.912	.054	24.915
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... unfriendly/friendly (BW3)	.949	.052	26.757
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... unkind/kind (BW4)	.911	.052	24.885
Customer orientation ($M_{Customer\ orientation}$ = 14.2; $SD_{Customer\ orientation}$ = 3.62; $\alpha_{Customer\ orientation}$ = .906)			
BRAND has employees who treat customers courteously. (CO1)	.876	.044	23.012
BRAND has employees who are concerned about customer needs. (CO2)	.949	.044	26.299
BRAND is concerned about its customers. (CO3)	.830	.058	21.159
Corporate-social responsibility ($M_{Corporate\ social\ responsibility}$ = 11.4; $SD_{Corporate\ social\ responsibility}$ = 3.55; $\alpha_{Corporate\ social\ responsibility}$ = .839)			
BRAND seems to make an effort to create new jobs. (CSR1)	.842	.053	20.801
BRAND seems to be environmentally responsible. (CSR2)	.729	.054	16.969
BRAND would reduce its profits to ensure a clean environment. (CSR3)	.819	.06	19.978
Good employer ($M_{Good\ employer}$ = 12.74; $SD_{Good\ employer}$ = 4.12; $\alpha_{Good\ employer}$ = .915)			
BRAND looks like a good company to work for. (GE1)	.914	.057	24.680
BRAND seems to treat its people well. (GE2)	.894	.054	23.787
BRAND seems to have excellent leadership. (GE3)	.845	.056	21.718
Corporate ability ($M_{Corporate\ ability}$ = 14.2; $SD_{Corporate\ ability}$ = 4.14; $\alpha_{Corporate\ ability}$ = .905)			
BRAND is a strong, reliable company. (CA1)	.885	.053	24.168
BRAND develops innovative products and services. (CA2)	.920	.051	25.909
BRAND offers high quality products and services. (CA3)	.787	.058	19.932

(table continues)

(continued)

Financial performance ($M_{Financial\ performance}$ = 14.07; $SD_{Financial\ performance}$ = 3.76; $\alpha_{Financial\ performance}$ = .865)			
BRAND tends to outperform competitors. (FP1)	.732	.062	20.255
BRAND seems to recognize and take advantage of market opportunities. (FP2)	.797	.05	20.323
BRAND looks like it has strong prospects for future growth. (FP3)	.843	.049	22.139
Involvement ($M_{Involvement}$ = 15.69; $SD_{Involvement}$ = 4.25; $\alpha_{Involvement}$ = .873)			
For me, PRODUCT/SERVICE is very important. (Inv1)	.922	.059	23.402
For me, PRODUCT/SERVICE does not matter. (Inv2)	.763	.068	18.091
PRODUCT/SERVICE is very important part of my life. (Inv3)	.827	.068	20.112
Brand Familiarity (M_{BFam} = 75.15; SD_{BFam} = 24.98)			
How familiar are you with BRAND? (BFam)	-	-	-

Notes: All factor loadings are significant at $p < .01$ level.

Table AT7.2: Study 2b construct correlations matrix with social-desirability bias as a marker variable

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Competence (1)	1									
Customer orientation (2)	.420***	1								
Good employer (3)	.396***	.647***	1							
Corporate ability (4)	.663***	.637***	.702***	1						
Financial performance (5)	.639***	.512***	.431***	.782***	1					
Corporate-social responsibility (6)	.404***	.624***	.784***	.646***	.472***	1				
Trust (7)	.489***	.629***	.691***	.794***	.556***	.663***	1			
Warmth (8)	.603***	.524***	.613***	.546***	.417***	.606***	.566***	1		
Involvement (9)	.018	.092	.103*	.016	.042	.121*	.060	.124*	1	
Social-desirability bias (10)	-.071	-.035	-.062	-.006	.078	-.087	.018	-.036	-.027	1

Significance levels: * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

Appendix 8: Detailed results for Study 2c

This appendix provides detailed information on the results of Study 2c. Table AT8.a summarizes reliability coefficients and factor loadings, while Table AT8.2 presents the analysis of common method bias with marker variable.

Table AT8.1: Study 2c measurement reliability and descriptive statistics

Scale means, standard deviations and reliabilities / items	**Standardized loading**	**Standard error**	**t-test**
Trust (M_{Trust} = 13.47; SD_{Trust} = 4.7; α_{Trust} = .94)			
I trust BRAND. (BT1)	.942	.057	26.480
I would feel comfortable depending on BRAND. (BT2)	.953	.058	27.061
I would rely on BRAND to deliver on its brand promise. (BT3)	.847	.063	22.114
Competence ($M_{Competence}$ = 20.33; $SD_{Competence}$ = 5.35; $\alpha_{Competence}$ = .949)			
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... incompetent/competent (BC1)	.894	.052	24.322
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... unintelligent/intelligent (BC2)	.865	.051	22.977
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... inefficient/efficient (BC3)	.925	.051	25.812
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... incapable/capable (BC4)	.927	.050	25.901
Warmth (M_{Warmth} = 18.45; SD_{Warmth} = 5.52; α_{Warmth} = .952)			
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... cold/warm (BW1)	.868	.057	22.909
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... ill-natured/good-natured (BW2)	.912	.054	24.915
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... unfriendly/friendly (BW3)	.949	.052	26.757
The majority of Americans sees BRAND as ... unkind/kind (BW4)	.911	.052	24.885
Customer orientation ($M_{Customer\ orientation}$ = 14.2; $SD_{Customer\ orientation}$ = 3.62; $\alpha_{Customer\ orientation}$ = .906)			
BRAND has employees who treat customers courteously. (CO1)	.876	.044	23.012
BRAND has employees who are concerned about customer needs. (CO2)	.949	.044	26.299
BRAND is concerned about its customers. (CO3)	.830	.058	21.159
Corporate-social responsibility ($M_{Corporate\ social\ responsibility}$ = 11.4; $SD_{Corporate\ social\ responsibility}$ = 3.55; $\alpha_{Corporate\ social\ responsibility}$ = .839)			
BRAND seems to make an effort to create new jobs. (CSR1)	.842	.053	20.801
BRAND seems to be environmentally responsible. (CSR2)	.729	.054	16.969
BRAND would reduce its profits to ensure a clean environment. (CSR3)	.819	.06	19.978
Good employer ($M_{Good\ employer}$ = 12.74; $SD_{Good\ employer}$ = 4.12; $\alpha_{Good\ employer}$ = .915)			
BRAND looks like a good company to work for. (GE1)	.914	.057	24.680
BRAND seems to treat its people well. (GE2)	.894	.054	23.787
BRAND seems to have excellent leadership. (GE3)	.845	.056	21.718
Corporate ability ($M_{Corporate\ ability}$ = 14.2; $SD_{Corporate\ ability}$ = 4.14; $\alpha_{Corporate\ ability}$ = .905)			
BRAND is a strong, reliable company. (CA1)	.885	.053	24.168
BRAND develops innovative products and services. (CA2)	.920	.051	25.909
BRAND offers high quality products and services. (CA3)	.787	.058	19.932

(table continues)

(continued)

Financial performance ($M_{Financial\ performance}$ = 14.07; $SD_{Financial\ performance}$ = 3.76; $\alpha_{Financial\ performance}$ = .865)			
BRAND tends to outperform competitors. (FP1)	.732	.062	20.255
BRAND seems to recognize and take advantage of market opportunities. (FP2)	.797	.05	20.323
BRAND looks like it has strong prospects for future growth. (FP3)	.843	.049	22.139
Involvement ($M_{Involvement}$ = 15.69; $SD_{Involvement}$ = 4.25; $\alpha_{Involvement}$ = .873)			
For me, PRODUCT/SERVICE is very important. (Inv1)	.922	.059	23.402
For me, PRODUCT/SERVICE does not matter. (Inv2)	.763	.068	18.091
PRODUCT/SERVICE is very important part of my life. (Inv3)	.827	.068	20.112
Loyalty ($M_{Loyalty}$ = 11.22; $SD_{Loyalty}$ = 4.09; $\alpha_{Loyalty}$ = .796)			
I am committed to BRAND.	.875	.053	15.213
I would be willing to pay a higher price for BRAND than for other brands.	.744	.056	14.372
I will buy/use BRAND the next time I need SERVICE INDUSRTY.	.623	.078	11.742
Perceived value ($M_{Perceived\ value}$ = 22.56; $SD_{Perceived\ valu}$ = 4.03; $\alpha_{Perceived\ valu}$ = .889)			
BRAND offers good value for the price I pay.	.840	.049	21.659
BRAND offers good value for the effort I make.	.929	.047	22.732
BRAND offers good value for the time I invest.	.911	.047	22.101
BRAND offers experiences that make me feel good.	.641	.063	13.099
Satisfaction ($M_{Satisfaction}$ = 22.44; $SD_{Satisfaction}$ = 5.82; $\alpha_{Satisfaction}$ = .976)			
How would you describe your last encounter with BRAND… highly unsatisfactory/highly satisfactory (Sat1)	.940	.026	34.955
How would you describe your last encounter with BRAND… very unpleasant/very pleasant (Sat2)	.964	.025	37.372
How would you describe your last encounter with BRAND… terrible/delightful (Sat3)	.955	.056	36.568
Brand Familiarity (M_{BFam} = 80.16; SD_{BFam} = 19.56)			
How familiar are you with BRAND? (BFam)	-	-	-

Table AT8.2: Study 2c construct correlations matrix with social-desirability bias as a marker variable

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Customer orientation (1)	1												
Corporate responsibility (2)	.60***	1											
Good employer (3)	.75***	.75***	1										
Corporate ability (4)	.63***	.62***	.67***	1									
Financial performance (5)	.46***	.47***	.48***	.60***	1								
Competence (6)	.43***	.47***	.46***	.48***	.46***	1							
Warmth (7)	.44***	.51***	.52***	.36***	.37***	.74***	1						
Brand trust (8)	.49***	.55***	.58***	.60***	.34***	.32***	.29***	1					
Perceived value (9)	.42***	.45***	.44***	.45***	.31***	.23***	.22***	.52***	1				
Loyalty (10)	.44***	.57***	.48***	.55***	.41***	.29***	.34***	.70***	.53***	1			
Satisfaction (11)	.40***	.44***	.41***	.21***	.39***	.43***	.45***	.64***	.65***	.60***	1		
Involevement (12)	.13*	.29***	.27***	.24***	.06	.24***	.28***	.19**	.07	.23***	.21***	1	
Social-desirability bias (13)	.14	.25**	.23**	.10	.18	.29**	.12	.32**	.08	.07	.19*	.12	1

Notes: Significance of correlation coefficients: * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001. Source: Own work

Appendix 9: A demonstration of mixed findings regarding the outcomes of accommodative and defensive response strategies

Table AT9.1 summarizes quotes from the extant literature, which illustrate the inconclusiveness of results regarding the effects of accommodative vs. defensive response strategies on stakeholder reactions. Note that some of the quotes refer to accommodative and defensive strategies with alternative labels, such as mechanisms (Ren & Gray, 2009), response options (Sohn & Lariscy, 2014), or corrective action (Benoit, 2018). Additionally, some quotes refer to the inconclusive results related to specific response tactics that correspond to accommodative or defensive response strategies, such as accounts (Brühl, Basel, & Kury, 2018), apologies (Einwiller & Steilen, 2015), denials (W. T. Coombs, Holladay, & Claeys, 2016b), scapegoating (Antonetti & Baghi, 2021), and product recalls (Yong et al., 2012). Lastly, while most of the quotes refer to effects of brand crisis response strategies on customer reactions, a couple of them refer to investor reactions (Kurt, Pauwels, Kurt, & Srinivasan, 2021; Yong et al., 2012).

Table AT9.1: A summary of quotes illustrating mixed results regarding the outcomes of accommodative vs. defensive response strategies

Source	**Illustrative quote**
Ren and Gray (2009)	“Although research has demonstrated the effectiveness of each of these four mechanisms in restoring relationships, the results are inconsistent” (p. 110, the four mechanisms are accounts, apologies, penance, and demonstration of concern).
Kramer and Lewicki (2010)	“We observe a lack of consensus emerging from these streams of research on exactly which tactical approaches are more effective at repairing trust” (p. 267)
Yong et al. (2012)	“Summarizing the literature on the impact of product recalls on firm value, the following observations can be made. First, there is a mixed set of results on whether the impact is significant” (p. 303).
Gensler, Völckner, Liu-Thompkins, and Wiertz (2013)	“So far academic research provides ambiguous results regarding the optimal strategy to use in a given situation” (p. 249)
Sohn and Lariscy (2014)	“In crisis literature, empirical studies have yielded mixed results, as some studies have found significant differences among crisis response options (e.g., Coombs & Holladay, 1996; Dean, 2004), whereas others have found no significant differences (e.g., Bradford & Garrett, 1995; Coombs & Holladay, 2008; Coombs & Schmidt, 2000)” (p. 37)
Benoit (2014)	“Research on SCCT has found no difference between crisis response strategies” (p. 39; SCCT refers to Situational crisis communication theory).

(table continues)

(continued)

Einwiller and Steilen (2015)	"Also, the few studies that analyzed the effects of apology yielded mixed results. While several studies reported a positive relationship, others found none" (p. 198).
Ma and Zhan (2016)	"Despite SCCT's dominance in crisis communication research, studies using this theory have yielded mixed findings about the role attribution of responsibility and response strategies have in organizational associations" (p. 102; SCCT refers to Situational crisis communication theory).
W. T. Coombs et al. (2016b)	"There is still a significant misunderstanding about denial in the crisis communication literature" (p. 392).
Benoit (2018)	"The United crisis, a video of a passenger being dragged off an airplane followed by an inept initial response, cries out for corrective action. This strategy has been used frequently in image repair, with mixed results" (p. 13).
Brühl et al. (2018)	"Studies on the effectiveness of different accounts have found ambiguous results" (p. 161).
Ferguson, Wallace, and Chandler (2018)	"As might be expected, complex theories such as SCCT attempt to address a number of variables affecting perceptions in crises that often produce mixed research findings. For example, Claeys et al. (2010) found that matching an organization's crisis response to the type of crisis did not lead to a more positive perception of the organization's associations, counter to Coombs' and Holladay's (1996) findings" (p. 257 ; SCCT refers to Situational crisis communication theory).
X. Liu, Lischka, and Kenning (2018)	"Previous literature shows mixed results about the relative effectiveness of two major brand response strategies: reduction-of-offensiveness and corrective action" (p. 139)
Gistri et al. (2019)	"Notably, the situational crisis communication theory suggests that post-crisis communication strategies of rebuilding (apology and compensation) should be matched to preventable types of crises, such as the crises considered in our studies. However, experimental research on the efficacy of its guidelines has found mixed results" (pp. 610-611).
Ayaburi and Treku (2020)	"Our mixed results demonstrate that apology has mixed results, confirming findings in prior literature that apology may lead to unintended results" (p. 171).
Aurélie De Waele, Claeys, and Opgenhaffen (2020)	"Some of the best practices, however, are based on studies that have been challenged by more recent research, such as the recommendation to avoid responding with "no comment", for which the crisis communication literature gives mixed results" (p. 2).
Guerber, Anand, Ellstrand, Waller, and Reychav (2020)	"Empirical studies in support of SCCT have provided mixed results" (p. 109).

(table continues)

(continued)

Reinders Folmer, De Cremer, Wubben, and van Dijke (2020)	"In light of public examples of false denials, it is unsurprising that people's beliefs about denials often are negative. However, inconsistent with such beliefs, denials often are sincere, and can facilitate trust repair" (p. 4).
Singh et al. (2020b)	"Notwithstanding the breadth of past research examining crisis response strategies, evidence on the efficacy of response strategies is mostly inconsistent" (p. 465).
Singh et al. (2020a)	"Extant evidence on the interaction between crisis types and responses offers inconsistent findings" (p. 841).
Antonetti and Baghi (2021)	"Despite several case studies illustrating the negative reactions stakeholders have toward scapegoating (Bundy et al., 2017), there is also recent laboratory (Antonetti & Baghi, 2019) and field (Gangloff et al., 2016) evidence suggesting that scapegoating can be effective in certain circumstances" (p. 413).
Kurt et al. (2021)	"Recent related studies examining product recalls in different industries do not provide consistent evidence regarding investors' reaction to the negative events such as the announcement of product recalls" (p. 818).
Holland, Seltzer, and Kochigina (2021)	"Previous research has produced mixed results regarding the value of matching crisis type with crisis response as suggested by the extant SCCT literature" (p. 7).

Table AT9.2 presents evidence of inconsistent empirical results from experimental studies that examine the effects of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies positive customer reactions, such as brand trust and brand associations. Additionally, a comparison of correlation coefficients suggests that it is not clear if using a combination of actions and communications (e.g., apology and compensation) instead of a single action or communication (e.g., only apology) to implement an accommodative response strategy improves the overall effectiveness of response strategies as all correlation coefficients in the first two columns of Table AT9.2 are of similar magnitude.

Table AT9.2: Examples of inconsistent findings from studies examining the effects of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on marketing assets

Accommodative outperforms defensive		Defensive outperforms accommodative		z
Representative study	Findings and setting	Representative study	Findings and setting	
Mattila (2009)	*r* = .12 • ethical scandal • denial vs. apology only	Fuoli, van de Weijer, and Paradis (2017)	*r* = -.41 • ethical scandal • denial vs. apology only	3.754*
M. R. Jahng and S. Hong (2017)	*r* = .12 • data breach • denial vs. apology only	Sora Kim and Sung (2014)	*r* = -.25 • product tampering • denial vs. apology only	2.210*

(table continues)

(continued)

Hegner et al. (2014)	*r* = .27 • product-harm crisis • denial vs. apology and compensation	Claeys and Cauberghe (2014)	*r* = -.07 • product-harm crisis • denial vs. apology and compensation	2.221*
Sora Kim and Sung (2014)	*r* = .20 • product-harm crisis • denial vs. compensation only	De Blasio and Veale (2009)	*r* = -.65 • product-harm crisis • denial vs. compensation only	5.212*

Note: r = reliability-corrected correlation coefficient from an individual study, Z = significance of difference in r of both studies. * = p < .05.

Table AT9.3 presents evidence of inconsistent empirical results from studies that compare the effects of accommodative (i.e., early/voluntary/proactive) vs. defensive (i.e., late/involuntary/passive) product recalls on investor reactions in terms of stock returns.

Table AT9.3: Examples of inconsistent findings from studies examining the effects of accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategies on stock returns

Positive correlation		Negative correlation		z
Study	Findings and setting	Study	Findings and setting	
Davidson III and Worrell (1992)	*r* = .29 133 automobile recalls	Gao et al. (2015a)	*r* = -.06 110 automobile recalls	2.748*
Lincoln C. Wood, Wang, Olesen, and Reiners (2017)	*r* = .11 135 toy recalls	Y. Chen et al. (2009)	*r* = -.21 153 consumer product recalls from different categories	2.712*
Xiande Zhao, Li, and Flynn (2013)	*r* = .04 42 automobile recalls	Rupp (2001b)	*r* = -.35 494 automobile recalls	2.437*

Note: r = correlation coefficient from an individual study, Z = significance of difference in r of both studies. * = p < .01.

Appendix 10: Papers, datasets, and effect sizes included in the meta-analysis

This appendix lists the papers, datasets and effect sizes that we integrated in the meta-analysis. Table AT10.1 presents datasets with the corresponding effect sizes between accommodative (vs. defensive) response strategy and dependent variables (i.e., negative customer outcomes, brand-related marketing assets, customer-related marketing assets, and firm performance). The complete meta-analytic database can be accessed at: https://osf.io/yvxef/?view_only=368ff513d8e6435e9567db267f0b0905

Table AT10.1: List of datasets and corresponding effect sizes

Paper	Dataset ID number in the meta-analytic database	Dataset sample size	Number of effect sizes			
			Negative customer outcomes	Brand-related marketing assets	Customer-related marketing assets	Firm performance
Almer et al. (2008)	139	50		1		
An, Park, Cho, and Berger (2010)	1 (US sample)	228	3	3		
An et al. (2010)	2 (Korean sample)	182	2	4		
Antonetti and Baghi (2019)	98 (Study 1)	283	8	4		
Antonetti and Baghi (2019)	99 (Study 4)	202	1	5		
Antonetti and Valor (2021)	192	290	6			
Arpan and Roskos-Ewoldsen (2005)	100	134		2		
Arthaud-Day et al. (2006)	3	116				1
Backhaus and Fischer (2016)	187	214		2		
Béal and Grégoire (2021)	193	156			2	
Beldad, van Laar, and Hegner (2018)	4	273		2	2	
Borah and Tellis (2016)	188	585				1
Bortoli and Freundt (2017)	5	133		3	1	
Bowen, Freidank, Wannow, and Cavallone (2018)	140 (US sample)	262	2	1		
Bowen et al. (2018)	141 (German sample)	242	2	1		
Boyer (2002)	101	300		1		
Bradford and Garrett (1995)	6	340		1		
K. A. Brown and White (2010)	189	275	1		1	
Caldiero (2006)	94	617			12	
H. H. Chang, Tsai, Wong, Wang, and Cho (2015)	102	282	4			

(table continues)

(continued)

H. S. Chen and Jai (2019)	8	255		1	1	
Y. Chen et al. (2009)	9	153				1
Z. Chen (2013)	86	332	4	2		
Cheng and Walton (2019)	168	107				4
Jihee Choi (2017)	96 (Study 1)	199	1	1	1	
Jihee Choi (2017)	97 (Study 2)	180		1	1	
Jinbong Choi and Chung (2013)	10	252		1	1	
Y. Choi and Lin (2009)	142	113		4		
Cianci et al. (2019)	104	94		1	1	
Claeys and Cauberghe (2012)	11	137		4		
Claeys and Cauberghe (2014)	12	274	1	2		
Claeys, Cauberghe, and Leysen (2013)	107	168		1		
Claeys, Cauberghe, and Vyncke (2010)	13	316	6	6		
Cleeren et al. (2013)	190	60			1	
Cline, Walkling, and Yore (2018)	110	325				2
T. W. Coombs and Holladay (2009)	111	184	2	1		
W. T. Coombs, Holladay Sherry, and Claeys (2016a)	87	316		2		
Cowen and Montgomery (2020)	112	232			1	
Cowen and Montgomery (2020)	113	213			1	
Crijns, Claeys, Cauberghe, and Hudders (2017)	16	119	1	1		
Cui, Zhang, Peng, and Chu (2018)	169	440		12	4	
Dahlen et al. (2013)	143	178		1		
Daly, Pouder, and McNeil (2017)	17	231			6	
Dardis and Haigh (2009)	88	189		15		
Davidson and Worrell (1992)	123	51				3
Davidson, Worrell, and Dutia (1993)	144	77				1
Dawar and Pillutla (2000)	18	171 (Study 2)		4		
Dawar and Pillutla (2000)	19	164 (Study 3)		4		
De Blasio and Veale (2009)	114	200		6		

(table continues)

(continued)

A. De Waele, Claeys, and Cauberghe (2019)	115	227		1		
Dean (2004)	174	291		1		
Decker (2012)	191	336		4		
Dutta and Pullig (2011)	21	137		4	4	1
Eilert et al. (2017)	22	381				1
Elliott, Hodge, and Sedor (2012)	116	80				1
Etter and Fleck (2018)	119	404			2	
Farber (2005)	118	87				1
Fennis and Stroebe (2014)	23 (Study 1)	65			1	
Fennis and Stroebe (2014)	24 (Study 2)	71		1		
Fennis and Stroebe (2014)	25 (Study 3)	77		2		
Ferrin, Cooper, Dirks, and Kim (2018)	26	87		2		
Ferrin et al. (2007)	145	241		11		
Fischer (2013)	84	222		6		
Frank, Grenier, and Pyzoha (2019)	170	547		6		6
Fuoli et al. (2017)	72	284		6	2	
Gangloff, Connelly, and Shook (2016)	27	104				1
Gao, Xie, Wang, and Wilbur (2015b)	31	110				1
Giuffredi-Kähr, Nyffenegger, Hoyer, Khamitov, and Krohmer (2020)	179	481		4	2	
Gomulya and Boeker (2014)	28	704				1
Gomulya and Mishina (2016)	106	352				1
Goode, Hoehle, Venkatesh, and Brown (2017)	146	144		1	2	
Gordon, Loeb, and Sohail (2010)	166	796				1
Grappi and Romani (2015)	29	250	6	6	3	
Gwebu, Jing, and Li (2018)	194	303				2
Haigh and Brubaker (2010)	53	413		29	6	
Hashimoto and Karasawa (2018)	147 (Study 1)	67	1			
Hashimoto and Karasawa (2018)	148 (Study 2)	149	3			
Hegner, Beldad, and Hulzink (2018)	34	178		12	4	

(table continues)

(continued)

Hegner et al. (2014)	32	304	3	8	2	
Hegner et al. (2016)	33	108	1	4	2	
Hock and Raithel (2020)	35	230				3
Holland et al. (2021)	195	898	2	8	2	
Hsu (2012)	36	185		1		1
M. Jahng and S. Hong (2017)	37	304		4	2	
Jang and Chen (2009)	178	178				3
Janney and Gove (2011)	149	80				1
Janney and Gove (2017)	90	126				1
Johnen and Schnittka (2019)	197	395			1	
A. Johnson, V. Folkes, and J. Wang (2018)	198 (Study 3)	417		2	2	
A. Johnson et al. (2018)	199 (Study 4)	110		2		
Kerkhof and Beugels (2011)	38	125	2	2		
Kervyn et al. (2014)	182	147	2			
Kharouf and Lund (2019)	185	321			2	
Ki and Brown (2013)	120	352			12	
Kiambi and Shafer (2016)	39	230	2	2		
Sora Kim (2014)	125	149	3	3		
Sojung Kim, Choi, and Atkinson (2017)	40	133	2	2		
Sora Kim and Sung (2014)	41	242	14	14	14	
Koehn and Goranova (2018)	42	64				4
Kong and Tao (2017)	43	90	1	1	1	
Kreger (2019)	95	264		4		
Lamin and Zaheer (2012)	44	126				4
B. K. Lee (2004)	46	385	5	4		
S. Lee and Chung (2012)	150	500		2		
Sang Yeal Lee (2016)	151	138		1	1	
So Young Lee and Atkinson (2018)	48	338	1	2	1	
Y. Li, Yang, Chen, Gupta, and Ning (2019)	126	320				1

(table continues)

(continued)

Lim and Brown-Devlin (2021)	200	197		2		
A. X. Liu et al. (2016)	196	170				1
X. Liu et al. (2018)	80	108		8	4	
Y. Liu et al. (2017)	49	280				6
Louie and Obermiller (2002)	181	120		3		
Lyon and Cameron (2004)	173	77		3	3	1
F. Magno (2012)	201	217		1		
Francesca Magno, Cassia, and Ugolini (2017)	51	237		2		
Marciukaityte, Szewczyk, and Varma (2009)	152	187				1
Mattila (2009)	128	143		4	2	
McDonald, Sparks, and Glendon (2010)	129	907	11	8	4	
Nakayachi and Watabe (2005)	54 (Study 1)	198		3		
Nakayachi and Watabe (2005)	55 (Study 2)	313		6	2	
Nengzhi, Jiuchang, Weiwei, and Alexander (2019)	117	130				2
Ni, Flynn, and Jacobs (2014)	122	164				3
Noack et al. (2019)	105	212				3
Ouyang, Wei, and Zhao (2017)	175	130				3
Pace, Fediuk, and Botero (2010)	130	264	2	2		
Pappas (2020)	202	125		2	2	
H. Park and Reber (2011)	83	262		3	3	
Paruchuri and Misangyi (2015)	86	84				3
Racine, Wilson, and Wynes (2018)	57	223				1
Raithel and Hock (2021)	203 (Study 2)	443				2
Raithel and Hock (2021)	211 (Study 1)	569		4		
Reed (2014)	132	458		8		
Rosati, Deeney, Cummins, van der Werff, and Lynn (2019)	153	87				1
Rupp (2001a)	164	494				1
Sato, Arai, Tsuji, and Kay (2020)	158	111		2		

(table continues)

(continued)

Schoofs, Claeys, De Waele, and Cauberghe (2018)	134	63		2		
Shin, Casidy, Yoon, and Yoon (2016)	62 (Study 1)	63	1	1		
Shin et al. (2016)	63 (Study 2)	107	1	1		
Shu and Wong (2018)	93	69				2
Singh, Crisafulli, and Quamina (2019)	186	558			6	
Singh et al. (2020b)	204	254		3		
Souiden and Pons (2009)	206	537		2		
Steinbach (2016)	135	226			1	
Stockmyer (1996)	165	144		2		
Stuart, Bedard, and Clark (2021)	207	557				1
Tan and Yu (2018)	161	78				2
Tan and Yu (2018)	162	78				1
ten Brinke and Adams (2015)	67 (Study 1)	29				1
ten Brinke and Adams (2015)	68 (Study 2a)	132			2	2
ten Brinke and Adams (2015)	69 (Study 2b)	1421				1
Triantafillidou and Yannas (2020)	121	510		4	8	
Triche and Walden (2018)	167	214				1
Tsarenko and Tojib (2015)	71	252		1		
Turk, Jin, Stewart, Kim, and Hipple (2012)	133	252		1	1	
van der Meer and Verhoeven (2014)	73	94		1		
van Zoonen and van der Meer (2015)	208	483		1		
Verhoeven, Van Hoof, Ter Keurs, and Van Vuuren (2012)	74	84			1	
Verschoor (2014)	85	280		2	4	
P. Wang (2010)	75	744				6
Y. Wang, Zhang, Li, McLeay, and Gupta (2021)	209	398			1	
J. Wei, Zhao, Wang, and Zhao (2016)	76	490			1	
W. Wei, Zhang, and Hua (2019)	159	280		1	1	
Wiersema and Zhang (2013)	77	141				1

(table continues)

(continued)

R. J. Williams and Barrett (2000)	210	184		1		
L. C. Wood, Wang, Duong, Reiners, and Smith (2018)	183	41				1
Lincoln C. Wood et al. (2017)	156	135				1
Fanfan Wu (2017)	137	689			2	
F. Wu and Cui (2019)	180	800		28	28	
P. Wu, Gao, Chen, and Li (2016)	103	555				1
Wynes (2021)	212	328	2			2
Wynes (2021)	213	538				4
Xia (2013)	78	51		2		
Xia (2013)	79	173		1	2	
Xie and Peng (2009)	176	220	3	13	3	
H. Xu, Bolton, and Winterich (2021)	216	404		3	3	
Yang, Kang, and Johnson (2010)	163	281		2	1	
Yin, Yu, and Poon (2016)	81 (Study 1)	168		3	1	
Yin et al. (2016)	89 (Study 2)	377		3	1	
Yuan, Lin, Filieri, Liu, and Zheng (2020)	177	377		1	1	
Xiande Zhao et al. (2013)	214	42				1
Xinyan Zhao, Zhan, and Ma (2020)	215	59				
Zhu and Chang (2013)	171	218		1		

Appendix 11: Additional information on effect size integration and hierarchical linear modeling

Most of the datasets included in this meta-analysis provided multiple effect sizes corresponding to the impact of defensive vs. accommodative response strategy on the dependent variables. For instance, some papers used a multidimensional conceptualization of dependent variables, such as brand associations (e.g., Decker, 2012; Raithel & Hock, 2020) or brand trust (e.g., Singh, Crisafulli, Quamina, & Xue, 2020; Xie & Peng, 2009), and reported separate effect sizes of response strategy on each dimension of these constructs. Other papers provided multiple effect sizes because they examined the impact of defensive vs. accommodative response strategy on the same dependent variable (e.g., brand attitude) in different crisis situations, such as competence and benevolence crises (e.g., Dutta & Pullig, 2011) or internally and externally caused crises (e.g., Claeys, Cauberghe, & Vyncke, 2010). In such cases, we considered multiple effect sizes from the same dataset as interdependent. We thus followed the methodological recommendations and accounted for these interdependencies when integrating effect sizes by using hierarchical linear modeling (Bijmolt & Pieters, 2001; Kalaian & Raudenbush, 1996; Van den Noortgate, López-López, Marín-Martínez, & Sánchez-Meca, 2015). Namely, we specified the following mixed-effects model with two levels:

$$r_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \mu_{0j} + e_{ij} \qquad (1)$$

where i = 1, 2, 3 ... I effect sizes, j = 1, 2, 3 ... J data sets. This model estimates the average effect size γ_{00}, the deviation of the average effect size in a data set from γ_{00} (μ_{0j}), and the deviation of each effect size in the kth data set from γ_{00} (e_{ij}). μ_{0j} and e_{ij} are not correlated and both have variances that are normally distributed.

The model presented in Equation 1 includes a Level 1 weight that corresponds to the inverse variance of the effect size r_{ij} (see Equation 4 below) and followed the methodological recommendations to assign more importance to more precise effect sizes (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Thus, we first calculated the variances of effect sizes using formula provided by Eisend (2017):

$$V_{rij} = (1 - r_{ij}^2)^2 / (n - 1) \qquad (3)$$

Where V_{rij} is the variance of an effect size i from dataset j, r_{ij} is the reliability-corrected correlation coefficient i from dataset j, and n is the sample size underlying the correlation coefficient r_{ij}.

Then we calculated the inverse variance weights and applied them as Level 1 weights in models presented in Equations 1, 5, and 6 using the following formula:

$$w_{rij} = 1 / V_{rij} \qquad (4)$$

where w_{rij} is the inverse variance weight of an effect size i in dataset j and V_{rij} is the variance of an effect size as calculated by Equation 3.

To explain the variations in integrated effect sizes, we added predictors to Equation 1 and calculated two additional mixed-effects model – one for effect sizes corresponding to brand-related marketing assets and one for effect sizes corresponding to customer-related marketing assets. Both models have the same specification of theoretical (i.e., hypothesized) moderators and control variables but include different sets of dummy variables representing the specific outcome constructs that correspond to brand-related (e.g., brand trust) or customer-related (e.g., purchase intentions) marketing assets. We used brand's crisis response attitude as the baseline for these dummy variables in the brand-related marketing assets model, while we used purchase intentions as the baseline for dummy variables in the customer-related marketing assets model. For the response tactics moderator, which is also a polytomous variable, we used the category "both ceremonial and technical tactics" as the baseline. Among the moderators, publication status, publication quality, crisis stimuli, year of dissemination, and dataset origin vary at the dataset level (Level 2), while crisis type, locus of causality, crisis controllability, response tactics (i.e., ceremonial only and technical only), correlation type, and dummies for the specific outcome constructs vary at the effect size level (Level 1). The specification of moderator model for brand-related marketing assets corresponds to the following equation:

$$r_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} \times (\textbf{Publication status}_j) + \gamma_{02} \times (\textbf{Publication quality}_j) + \gamma_{03} \times (\textbf{Crisis stimuli}_j) + \gamma_{04} \times (\textbf{Year of dissemination}_j) + \gamma_{05} \times (\textbf{Dataset origin}_j) + \gamma_{10} \times (\text{Crisis type}_{ij}) + \gamma_{20} \times (\text{Locus of causality}_{ij}) + \gamma_{30} \times (\text{Crisis controllability}_{ij}) + \gamma_{40} \times (\text{Ceremonial only}_{ij}) + \gamma_{50} \times (\text{Technical only}_{ij}) + \gamma_{60} \times (\text{Correlation type}_{ij}) + \gamma_{70} \times (\text{Brand trust dummy}_{ij}) + \gamma_{80} \times (\text{Brand associations dummy}_{ij}) + \gamma_{90} \times (\text{Brand attitude dummy}_{ij}) + \mu_{0j} + e_{ij} \quad (5)$$

While the specification of the moderator model for customer-related marketing assets corresponds to the following equation:

$$r_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} \times (\textbf{Publication status}_j) + \gamma_{02} \times (\textbf{Publication quality}_j) + \gamma_{03} \times (\textbf{Crisis stimuli}_j) + \gamma_{04} \times (\textbf{Year of dissemination}_j) + \gamma_{05} \times (\textbf{Dataset origin}_j) + \gamma_{10} \times (\text{Crisis type}_{ij}) + \gamma_{20} \times (\text{Locus of causality}_{ij}) + \gamma_{30} \times (\text{Crisis controllability}_{ij}) + \gamma_{40} \times (\text{Ceremonial only}_{ij}) + \gamma_{50} \times (\text{Technical only}_{ij}) + \gamma_{60} \times (\text{Correlation type}_{ij}) + \gamma_{70} \times (\text{Customer loyalty dummy}_{ij}) + \gamma_{80} \times (\text{PWOM dummy}_{ij}) + \mu_{0j} + e_{ij} \quad (6)$$

The bolded Level 2 predictors in Equation 5 and Equation 6 were centered around the grand mean in order to make the intercepts γ_{00} (i.e., the average effect size when all of the moderators are accounted for) "more interpretable" (Hofmann, 1997, p. 738). We used HLM software (version 8.0.2) to estimate the models presented in Equations 1, 5, and 6.

Appendix 12: Results of publication bias assessment

Following the methodological recommendations to rely on methods for estimating publication bias that go beyond the fail-safe N (Sun & Pan, 2020), we conducted an additional analysis of publication bias. We used Stata software (version 17) to conduct the trim-and-fill analysis, which is a two-step nonparametric technique that, in the first step, determines the number of missing effect sizes based on the symmetry assumption of the distribution of effect sizes. In the second step, the trim-and-fill method imputes the missing effect sizes to derive an overall effect size that is attenuated for the missing (i.e., unpublished) effect sizes (Duval & Tweedie, 2000). As evidenced in Table AT12.1, the trim-and-fill procedure did not impute any additional effect sizes, meaning that publication bias for any of the dependent variables in this meta-analysis is unlikely.

Table AT12.1: Publication bias assessment results

Dependent variable	**Average correlation coefficient[a]**	**Trim-and-fill corrected correlation coefficient[b]**
Brand's crisis response attitude	.294 (56)	.294 (0)
Brand attitude	.167 (85)	.167 (0)
Brand trust	.228 (154)	.228 (0)
Brand associations	.178 (142)	.178 (0)
Customer loyalty	.162 (25)	.162 (0)
Purchase intentions	.176 (85)	.176 (0)
Positive word-of-mouth communications	.131 (46)	.131 (0)

Notes: [a] Refers to reliability-corrected mean effect size. Number of effect sizes in parentheses.

[b] Number of imputed effect sizes on the left hand side of effect size distribution in parentheses.

All correlation coefficients are significant at $p < .001$ level.

Appendix 13: Multicollinearity assessment for moderator analysis

Multicollinearity is a major threat to the validity of hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) results (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Therefore, before using HLM to conduct the moderation analysis, we tested the degree of multicollinearity between the predictors (i.e., moderator variables) to be included in both moderator models specified by Equation 5 and Equation 6 (Appendix 10). We followed the standard methodological practice of meta-analyses in marketing (W. Chang & Taylor, 2016; Sethuraman et al., 2011) and first calculated bivariate correlation coefficients between moderator variables, which are presented in Table AT13.1 below. Two bivariate correlation coefficients for each moderator model were larger than .5, indicating potential collinearity issues, which we further examined by computing variance inflation factors (VIFs). Because the HLM software does not provide a formal test for collinearity, we regressed the reliability-corrected correlation coefficients on the moderators in an ordinary regression model and computed the VIFs. As shown in Table AT13.1, the largest VIF of either model was 2.82, which is considerably lower than VIFs in some previous meta-analyses in marketing (e.g., Blut, Wang, Wünderlich, & Brock, 2021; Sethuraman et al., 2011) and suggests that multicollinearity does not pose a threat to the validity of our HLM results.

Table AT13.1: Bivariate correlation coefficients between moderators and variance inflation factors (VIFs)

Moderator variable	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**
1 Ceremonial response tactics only (ceremonial and technical as baseline)	1	-.425**	.018	.093	.055	-.122	.076	.020	.051	-.008	-.058	.036	-.095	—
2 Technical response tactics only (ceremonial and technical as baseline)	-.479**	1	.223**	-.242**	-.129	.114	-.073	.169*	-.031	-.127	.138	.029	-.123	—
3 Crisis type (benevolence vs. competence)	-.139**	.237**	1	-.352**	-.685**	.224**	.097	.469**	.016	.131	-.086	.297**	-.187*	—
4 Locus of causality (internal vs. external)	.122*	-.181**	-.205**	1	.455**	-.099	-.074	-.198*	-.050	-.103	.196*	.223**	.004	—
5 Crisis controllability (uncontrollable vs. controllable)	.187**	-.284**	-.655**	.265**	1	-.298**	-.100	-.428**	-.093	-.139	.305**	-.116	.090	—
6 Crisis stimuli (fictitious vs. real)	-.178**	.240**	.133**	.055	-.229**	1	.287**	.108	.351**	-.025	-.048	.275**	-.011	—
7 Type of correlation coefficient (partial vs. bivariate)	-.021	-.063	.054	.040	-.067	.160**	1	.067	.251**	.070	.082	.066	-.153	—
8 Publication status (unpublished vs. published)	-.084	.007	.044	-.065	-.011	.015	-.091	1	.167*	.304**	.025	.119	-.238**	—
9 Publication quality (normal vs top journal)	.057	-.061	-.206**	-.074	.159**	.039	-.045	.127**	1	.142	.026	.015	-154	—
10 Year of dissemination	-.025	-.296**	-.219**	.014	.233**	-.183**	.011	-.053	-.250**	1	-.142	-.189*	-.027	—
11 Dataset origin	-.043	.056	-.012	-.050	.030	-.100	-.051	.097	-.010	.207*	1	.098	-.458**	—
12 Brand trust / Purchase intentions dummy	.077	.026	-.155**	.218**	.244**	-.056	-.087	-.056	.067	-.061	.055	1	-.478	—
13 Brand associations / PWOM dummy	-.022	-.033	.046	-.035	-.162**	.191**	.128**	.005	.149*	-.065	.253**	-.512**	1	—
14 Brand attitude dummy	-.045	-.011	.082	-.038	-.010	-.081	-.008	.049	-.134**	.009	-.183*	-.362**	-.341**	1
Mean (Standard deviation): brand-related marketing assets model	.35 (.48)	.30 (.46)	.77 (.42)	.86 (.34)	.32 (.47)	.25 (.43)	.01 (.12)	.90 (.30)	.13 (.33)	2013 (5.24)	.578 (.495)	.36 (.48)	.32 (.47)	.20 (.40)
Mean (Standard deviation): customer-related marketing assets model	.40 (.49)	.21 (.41)	.68 (.47)	.76 (.42)	.42 (.50)	.19 (.40)	.02 (.14)	.81 (.39)	.11 (.31)	2015 (4.93)	.506 (.501)	.16 (.37)	.55 (.50)	—
Variance inflation factor (VIF): brand-related marketing assets model	1.382	1.590	1.855	1.202	2.041	1.210	1.042	1.046	1.311	1.379	1.128	2.822	2.676	2.088
Variance inflation factor (VIF): customer-related marketing assets model	1.311	1.529	2.521	1.554	2.335	1.622	1.211	1.644	1.448	1.371	1.813	2.065	1.586	—

Notes: Correlation coefficients below diagonal refer to the moderator model for brand-related marketing assets, while the correlation coefficients above diagonal refer to the moderator model for customer-related marketing assets. Significance of correlation coefficients: * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$.

Appendix 14: Meta-analytic correlation matrix

To develop the meta-analytic correlation matrix (Table AT14.1), we followed methodological recommendations (Bergh et al., 2016; Landis, 2013). That is, we searched the papers in our database for correlation coefficients between negative customer outcomes, brand-related or customer-related marketing assets, and firm performance. We identified at least seven effect sizes for each cell of the meta-analytic correlation matrix, which exceeds the number of effect sizes per cell in correlation matrices of previous meta-analyses in marketing (Geyskens et al., 1999; Rosengren et al., 2020). We used all available effect sizes to integrate correlation coefficients between the response strategy and negative customer outcomes, brand-related marketing assets, customer-related marketing assets, or firm performance (Roschk & Hosseinpour, 2020). We performed reliability corrections and integrated the effect sizes for each cell of the correlation matrix in the same way as we integrated the effect sizes of response strategy on dependent variables (as described in the third chapter and Appendix 11). We used Amos software (version 26) to conduct SEM analysis.

Table AT14.1: Correlation matrix

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Defensive vs. accommodative response strategy	1	k = 37; n = 106 (9,538)	k = 112; n = 437 (28,599)	k = 52; n = 156 (15,732)	k = 56; n = 111 (12,564)
2 Negative customer outcomes	-.046 (-.142; .049)	1	k = 14; n = 36 (9,260)	k = 7; n = 10 (3,814)	k = 8; n = 8 (1,800)
3 Brand-related marketing assets	.251 (.199; .304)	-.442 (-.593; -.291)	1	k = 11; n = 18 (5,385)	k = 10; n = 11 (2,742)
4 Customer-related marketing assets	.194 (.138; .249)	-.212 (-.281; -.142)	.495 (.363; .628)	1	k = 7; n = 8 (1,377)
5 Firm performance	-.003 (-.061; .056)	-.116 (-.096; -.136)	.158 (.041; .275)	.245 (.112; .378)	1

Notes: Correlation coefficients with 95% confidence intervals in parentheses appear below the diagonal, while the number of datasets (k), number of effect sizes (n) and sample size (in parentheses) are above the diagonal. The harmonic mean of total sample size is 4,024.

In the system of equations below (Equation 7), we present the specification of structural relationships in our meta-analytic structural equation model. We omit the measurement relationships as each latent variable is measured with a single indicator, and measurement errors, which we fixed to zero as we previously corrected the correlation coefficients for measurement error (Bergh et al., 2016).

$$\eta_{\text{(Negative customer outcomes)}} = \gamma \times_{\text{(Response strategy)}} + \varsigma$$
$$\eta_{\text{(Brand-related marketing assets)}} = \gamma \times_{\text{(Response strategy)}} + \beta \times_{\text{(Negative customer outcomes)}} + \varsigma$$
$$\eta_{\text{(Customer-related marketing assets)}} = \gamma \times_{\text{(Response strategy)}} + \beta \times_{\text{(Brand-related marketing assets)}} + \varsigma$$
$$\eta_{\text{(Firm performance)}} = \gamma \times_{\text{(Response strategy)}} + \beta \times_{\text{(Negative customer outcomes)}} + \beta \times_{\text{(Customer-related marketing assets)}} + \varsigma \quad (7)$$

Appendix 15: Robustness analysis for moderator models

We assessed the robustness of moderation results in two ways. First, moderation results reported in the third chapter (Table 22) indicate that correlation type (partial vs. bivariate) has at least marginally statistically significant moderating influence on the integrated effect size of response strategy on both types of marketing assets. Therefore, we excluded all effect sizes that were based on partial correlation coefficients and reestimated both moderator models only with effect sizes based on bivariate correlation coefficients only. As Table AT15.1 shows, the moderation results remain stable even if partial correlation coefficients are excluded and lead to the same substantive conclusions as the results reported in Table 22.

Table AT15.1: Robustness analysis results – moderator models without effect sizes based on partial correlation coefficients

Moderator	**Brand-related marketing assets**	**Customer-related marketing assets**
	β (SE)	**β (SE)**
Intercept	.249 (.132)†	.238 (.061)**
Response tactics		
Ceremonial (Ceremonial only = 0 vs. ceremonial and technical or technical only = 1)	-.084 (.038)*	-.137 (.070)†
Technical (Technical only = 0 vs. ceremonial and technical or ceremonial only = 1)	-.108 (.052)*	-.125 (.066)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.171 (.049)***	.179 (.052)***
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.068 (.105)	-.104 (.072)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.045 (.073)	.033 (.073)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.099 (.065)	-.065 (.089)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	—	—
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.107 (.080)	-.029 (.072)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.018 (.067)	.038 (.086)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.002 (.006)	-.004 (.007)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.024 (.056)	-.033 (.029)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.071 (.114)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.087 (.090)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.065 (.068)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	-.057 (.073)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	-.029 (.031)
	k = 101; n = 398	k = 43; n = 141

Significance of beta coefficients * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; † = $p < .10$.

Second, in the moderation analysis, we pooled the effect sizes of response strategy on specific outcome constructs corresponding to brand-related or customer-related marketing assets. Therefore, we followed the methodological practice of recent meta-analyses in marketing (Gremler, Van Vaerenbergh, Brüggen, & Gwinner, 2020; Roschk & Hosseinpour, 2020) and included dummy variables (as specified by Equations 5 and 6 in Appendix 11) representing the specific outcome constructs. The moderating effects of these dummy variables were not statistically significant (see Table 22), indicating that the effects of defensive vs. accommodative response strategy on brand-related or customer-related marketing assets do not depend on a specific conceptualization of these assets.

However, we also checked if our results regarding moderating influences of response tactics and situational characteristics of brand crises generalize across specific constructs corresponding to brand-related or customer-related marketing assets. To this end, we computed interaction terms between the dummy variables representing the specific outcome constructs and each theoretical moderator. We then added these interaction terms one at a time to both moderator models. As shown in Tables AT15.2 – AT15.16, none of the interaction terms were statistically significant. Moreover, the results of both models remained stable (i.e., at least marginally significant moderating effects of response tactics and crisis type) even after accounting for interactions between theoretical moderators and outcome construct dummies. This leads us to conclude that moderation results can be generalized across specific constructs representing brand-related or customer-related marketing assets.

Table AT15.2: Robustness analysis results – interactions between ceremonial only response tactics and brand trust / customer loyalty dummy variables

Moderator	**Brand-related marketing assets**	**Customer-related marketing assets**
	β (SE)	**β (SE)**
Intercept	.254 (.127)*	.237 (.063)***
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.108 (.044)*	-.145 (.069)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.100 (.055) †	-.124 (.073)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.173 (.049)**	.170 (.051)**
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.064 (.106)	-.089 (.077)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.071 (.070)	.012 (.052)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.094 (.063)	-.055 (.086)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	-.157 (.085)†	-.245 (.125)†
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.108 (.079)	-.039 (.070)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.022 (.068)	.024 (.082)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.003 (.006)	-.003 (.007)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.017 (.055)	-.061 (.062)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.037 (.086)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.093 (.083)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	.069 (.062)	—
Interaction term (Ceremonial only * Brand trust dummy)	.072 (.098)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	-.133 (.082)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	-.025 (.031)
Interaction term (Ceremonial only * Customer loyalty dummy)	—	.205 (.155)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.3: Robustness analysis results – interactions between ceremonial only response tactics and brand associations / PWOM dummy variables

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets	Customer-related marketing assets
	β (SE)	β (SE)
Intercept	.252 (.132)†	.215 (.058)***
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.085 (.048)†	-.107 (.050)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.107 (.053)*	-.121 (.069)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.171 (.049)***	.176 (.051)***
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.068 (.105)	-.098 (.073)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.043 (.073)	.027 (.052)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.093 (.063)	-.071 (.087)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.152 (.080)†	-.284 (.118)*
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.107 (.079)	.032 (.067)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.020 (.067)	.061 (.090)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.003 (.006)	-.005 (.007)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.018 (.055)	-.056 (.065)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.071 (.113)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.092 (.095)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.065 (.068)	—
Interaction term (Ceremonial only * Brand associations dummy)	.010 (.066)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	-.037 (.069)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	-.006 (.035)
Interaction term (Ceremonial only * PWOM dummy)	—	-.043 (.072)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.4: Robustness analysis results – interaction between ceremonial only response tactics and brand attitude dummy variable

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets
	β (SE)
Intercept	.252 (.061)**
Response tactics	
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.089 (.039)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.107 (.052)*
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis	
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.172 (.050)***
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.068 (.105)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.043 (.072)
Control variables	
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.048 (.049)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.156 (.083)†
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.113 (.081)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.002 (.068)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.002 (.005)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.017 (.055)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.072 (.114)
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.086 (.090)
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.082 (.068)
Interaction term (Ceremonial only * Brand attitude dummy)	.065 (.047)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.5: Robustness analysis results – interactions between technical only response tactics and brand trust /customer loyalty dummy variables

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets	Customer-related marketing assets
	β (SE)	β (SE)
Intercept	.225 (.134)†	.235 (.073)**
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.078 (.031)*	-.138 (.039)***
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.052 (.025)*	-.121 (.068)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.172 (.049)***	.171 (.064)**
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.062 (.107)	-.094 (.043)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.039 (.072)	.022 (.059)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.095 (.062)	-.058 (.076)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.173 (.078)*	-.287 (.180)
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.109 (.079)	-.058 (.076)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.039 (.064)	.033 (.083)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.003 (.006)	-.004 (.006)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.017 (.055)	-.053 (.069)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.119 (.124)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.095 (.078)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.050 (.068)	—
Interaction term (Technical only * Brand trust dummy)	-.125 (.084)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	—	-.020 (.096)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	-.026 (.040)
Interaction term (Technical only * Customer loyalty dummy)	—	-.085 (.210)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.6: Robustness analysis results – interactions between technical only response tactics and brand associations / PWOM dummy variables

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets	Customer-related marketing assets
	β (SE)	β (SE)
Intercept	.251 (.132)†	.221 (.064)**
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.078 (.034)*	-.138 (.069)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.122 (.047)**	-.073 (.039)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.172 (.049)***	.182 (.053)***
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.066 (.106)	-.104 (.070)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.040 (.072)	.030 (.052)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.088 (.049)	-.071 (.088)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.165 (.078)	-.272 (.114)
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.109 (.067)	-.035 (.073)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.026 (.066)	.047 (.085)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.003 (.006)	-.005 (.006)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.019 (.055)	-.064 (.068)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.077 (.115)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.111 (.084)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.063 (.068)	—
Interaction term (Technical only * Brand associations dummy)	.069 (.059)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	.042 (.072)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	.009 (.035)
Interaction term (Technical only * PWOM dummy)	—	-.098 (.097)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table A15.7: Robustness analysis results – interaction between technical only response tactics and brand attitude dummy variable

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets β (SE)
Intercept	.247 (.133)†
Response tactics	
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.081 (.038)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.098 (.055)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis	
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.172 (.049)**
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.068 (.105)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.069 (.105)
Control variables	
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.092 (.063)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.149 (.079)†
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.106 (.079)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.018 (.068)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.017 (.006)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.002 (.055)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.072 (.114)
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.087 (.090)
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.052 (.073)
Interaction term (Technical only * Brand attitude dummy)	-.067 (.085)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table A15.8: Robustness analysis results – interactions between crisis type and brand trust / Customer loyalty dummy variables

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets β (SE)	Customer-related marketing assets β (SE)
Intercept	.303 (.128)*	.233 (.062)***
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.083 (.036)*	-.140 (.069)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.107 (.051)*	-.127 (.075)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.118 (.058)*	.176 (.052)**
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.068 (.106)	-.099 (.073)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.028 (.069)	.028 (.052)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.095 (.063)	-.068 (.088)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.151 (.081)†	-.279 (.113)*
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.097 (.082)	-.029 (.073)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.008 (.074)	.062 (.092)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.002 (.006)	-.006 (.007)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.017 (.055)	-.059 (.064)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	-.005 (.110)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.088 (.090)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.073 (.066)	—
Interaction term (Crisis type * Brand trust dummy)	.081 (.073)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	-.026 (.031)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	-.040 (.072)
Interaction term (Crisis type * Customer loyalty dummy)	—	-.030 (.073)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.9: Robustness analysis results – interactions between crisis type and brand associations / PWOM dummy variables

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets	Customer-related marketing assets
	β (SE)	β (SE)
Intercept	.245 (.094)†	.225 (.095)*
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.060 (.024)*	-.140 (.0369)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.064 (.033)*	-.1127 (.075)*
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.143 (.044)***	.187 (.06)**
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.068 (.106)	-.098 (.072)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.043 (.071)	.028 (.052)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.092 (.063)	-.068 (.088)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.153 (.080)†	.-281 (.112)*
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.108 (.079)	-.021 (.070)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.016 (.074)	.063 (.092)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.003 (.006)	-.006 (.007)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.017 (.054)	-.060 (.064)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.071 (.114)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.064 (.128)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.064 (.068)	—
Interaction term (Crisis type * Brand associations dummy)	-.024 (.101)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	-.017 (.060)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	-.043 (.070)
Interaction term (Crisis type * PWOM dummy)	—	-.019 (.062)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.10: Robustness analysis results – interaction crisis type and brand attitude dummy variable

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets
	β (SE)
Intercept	.248 (.132)†
Response tactics	
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.082 (.038)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.106 (.052)*
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis	
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.176 (.050)***
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.067 (.105)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.041 (.073)
Control variables	
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.094 (.063)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.151 (.082)†
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.105 (.080)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.017 (.068)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.003 (.006)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.018 (.055)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.071 (.114)
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.088 (.089)
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.043 (.077)
Interaction term (Crisis type * Brand attitude dummy)	-.033 (.061)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.11: Robustness analysis results – interactions between locus of causality and brand trust / Customer loyalty dummy variables

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets	Customer-related marketing assets
	β (SE)	**β (SE)**
Intercept	.256 (.129)*	.223 (.062)***
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.079 (.037)*	-.140 (.069)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.103 (.052)*	-.127 (.075)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.172 (.049)***	.176 (.052)**
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.074 (.103)	-.098 (.073)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.043 (.072)	.028 (.052)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.096 (.063)	-.068 (.088)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.153 (.079)†	.279 (.113)*
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.106 (.079)	.029 (.073)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.023 (.069)	.039 (.086)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.003 (.006)	-.004 (.007)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.018 (.054)	-.059 (.064)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	-.029 (.217)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.092 (.088)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.063 (.068)	—
Interaction term (Locus of causality * Brand trust dummy)	.103 (.207)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	-.026 (.031)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	.051 (.042)
Interaction term (Locus of causality * Customer loyalty dummy)	—	-.031 (.029)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.12: Robustness analysis results – interactions between locus of causality and brand associations / PWOM dummy variables

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets	Customer-related marketing assets
	β (SE)	**β (SE)**
Intercept	.269 (.121)*	.227 (.052)***
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.105 (.078)*	-.138 (.069)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.110 (.053)*	-.124 (.074)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.173 (.049)***	.173 (.052)**
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.097 (.103)	-.015 (.059)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.048 (.070)	.032 (.050)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.093 (.063)	-.057 (.085)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.146 (.081) †	-.308 (.115)**
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.105 (.078)	-.012 (.075)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.019 (.068)	.073 (.085)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.002 (.007)	-.009 (.0007)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.014 (.054)	-.074 (.066)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.078 (.119)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.137 (.073)*	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.060 (.072)	—
Interaction term (Locus of causality * Brand associations dummy)	.066 (.084)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	-.021 (.073)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	.098 (.058)
Interaction term (Locus of causality * PWOM dummy)	—	.126 (.078)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.13: Robustness analysis results – interaction between locus of causality and brand attitude dummy variable

Moderator	**Brand-related marketing assets**
	β (SE)
Intercept	.237 (.078)**
Response tactics	
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.082 (.038)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.106 (.052)*
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis	
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.174 (.049)***
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.058 (.122)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.049 (.070)
Control variables	
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.095 (.063)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.153 (.080)†
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.103 (.077)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.021 (.068)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.002 (.006)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.014 (.057)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.070 (.113)
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.089 (.089)
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.017 (.125)
Interaction term (Locus of causality * Brand attitude dummy)	-.049 (.116)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.14: Robustness analysis results – interactions between crisis controllability and brand trust / Customer loyalty dummy variables

Moderator	**Brand-related marketing assets**	**Customer-related marketing assets**
	β (SE)	**β (SE)**
Intercept	.297 (.112)**	.226 (.059)***
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.078 (.047)†	-.140 (.069)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.099 (.056)†	-.129 (.076)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.176 (.050)***	.184 (.049)***
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.061 (.106)	-.103 (.072)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	-.041 (.086)	.041 (.053)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.072 (.068)	-.069 (.089)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.155 (.075)*	-.284 (.107)**
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.122 (.083)	-.029 (.072)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.029 (.069)	.059 (.092)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.002 (.007)	-.006 (.008)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.021 (.057)	.056 (.066)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.001 (.05)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.109 (.156)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.045 (.057)	—
Interaction term (Crisis controllability * Brand trust dummy)	.026 (.015)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	-.009 (.097)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	-.027 (.031)
Interaction term (Crisis controllability * Customer loyalty dummy)	—	-.054 (.115)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.15: Robustness analysis results – interactions between crisis controllability and brand associations / PWOM dummy variables

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets	Customer-related marketing assets
	β (SE)	β (SE)
Intercept	.245 (.133)†	.244 (.058)***
Response tactics		
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.077 (.042)†	-.141 (.070)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.100 (.053)†	-.183 (.052)†
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis		
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.175 (.049)***	.183 (.052)***
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.070 (.102)	-.097 (.075)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.079 (.061)	-.014 (.058)
Control variables		
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.087 (.133)	-.065 (.089)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.146 (.080)†	-.295 (.109)**
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.101 (.079)	-.020 (.069)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.019 (.067)	.060 (.093)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.002 (.006)	-.006 (.007)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.026 (.054)	-.061 (.066)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.069 (.114)	—
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.074 (.091)	—
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.070 (.068)	—
Interaction term (Crisis controllability * Brand associations dummy)	-.121 (.097)	—
Customer loyalty dummy (else = 0 vs. Customer loyalty =1)	—	-.041 (.075)
PWOM dummy (else = 0 vs. PWOM = 1)	—	-.054 (.042)
Interaction term (Crisis controllability * PWOM dummy)	—	.071 (.057)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Table AT15.16: Robustness analysis results – interaction between crisis controllability and brand attitude dummy variable

Moderator	Brand-related marketing assets
	β (SE)
Intercept	.260 (.133)†
Response tactics	
Ceremonial only (else = 0, ceremonial only = 1)	-.081 (.038)*
Technical (else = 0 vs. technical only = 1)	-.106 (.052)*
Situational characteristics of a brand crisis	
Crisis type (benevolence = 0 vs. competence = 1)	.170 (.050)***
Locus of causality (external = 0 vs. internal = 1)	-.071 (.104)
Crisis controllability (uncontrollable = 0 vs. controllable = 1)	.027 (.077)
Control variables	
Crisis stimuli (fictitious = 0 vs. real = 1)	.093 (.063)
Correlation type (bivariate = 0 vs. partial = 1)	.151 (.081)†
Publication status (unpublished = 0 vs. published = 1)	-.103 (.079)
Publication quality (else = 0 vs. top journal = 1)	.017 (.067)
Year of dissemination (continuous)	.002 (.006)
Dataset origin (0 = else vs. US = 1)	.019 (.055)
Brand trust dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand trust =1)	.072 (.114)
Brand associations dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand associations = 1)	-.088 (.089)
Brand attitude dummy (else = 0 vs. Brand attitude =1)	-.087 (.073)
Interaction term (Crisis controllability * Brand associations dummy)	.059 (.058)

Significance of beta coefficients * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.

Appendix 16: Results for competing meta-analytic structural equation models

The methodological literature on meta-analytic SEM recommends analyses of "competing models" (Landis 2013, p. 252) as a way to examine "competing causal mechanisms" (Viswesvaran & Ones, 1995, p. 880) and an "opportunity for ruling out endogeneity as a threat to interpreting the findings" (Bergh et al. 2016, p. 481). We thus considered three alternative SEMs and compared them with the model that we report in the third chapter (Equation 7; Figure AF16.1). As reported in the chapter three of this dissertation, all three competing models fit the meta-analytic correlation matrix significantly worse than the proposed Full serial mediation model (Equation 7, Figure AF16.1). However, we briefly present the rationales of both competing models, while we summarize results in Table AT16.1. The fist alternative model (i.e., "Non-mediation model") treats customer reactions (i.e., negative customer outcomes, brand-related and customer-related marketing assets) and investor reactions as unrelated outcomes of response strategies. This model is consistent with the current state of the literature on brand crisis management, where most studies examine the effects of response strategies on reactions of a single stakeholder group (Bundy et al. 2017). As shown in Table AT16.1, Non-mediation model fits the data significantly worse than the Full serial mediation model ($\Delta\chi^2_{\Delta df=3}$ = 256.51; p < .001).

Figure WAF16.1: Full serial mediation model

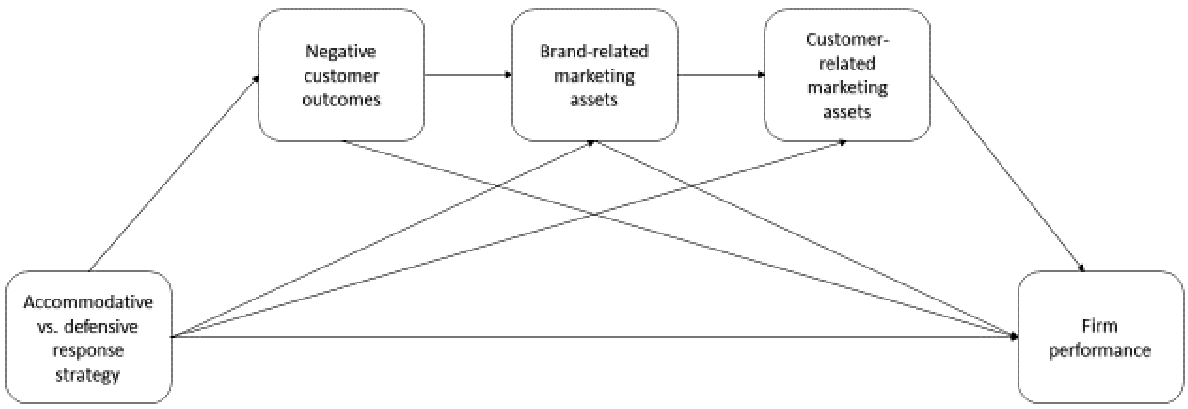
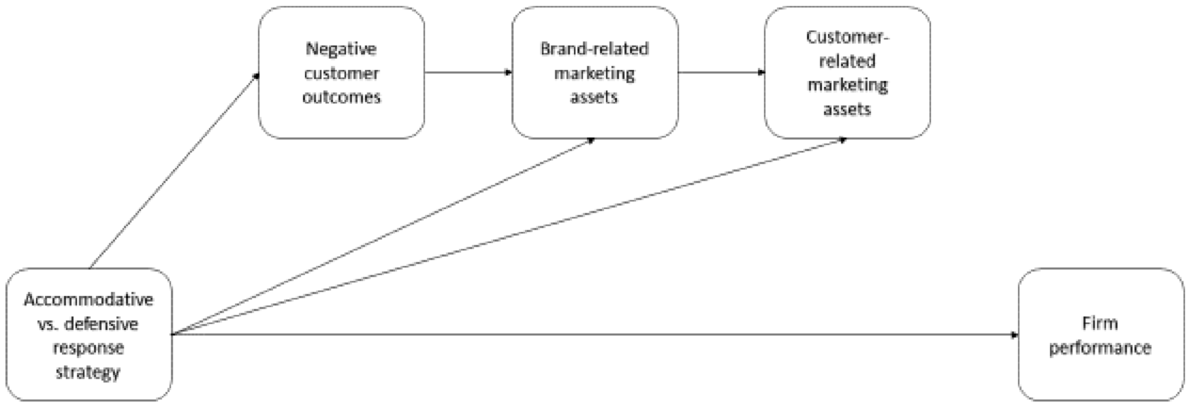
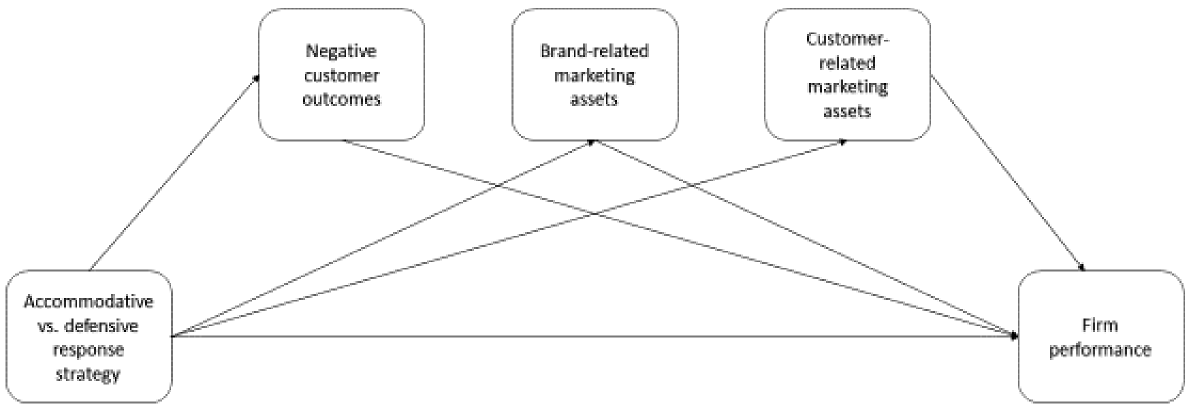


Figure AF16.2: Non-mediation model



The other two alternative models build on the idea that trust repair attempts may affect negative and positive reactions independently (Lewicki et al. 1998). For instance, Gillespie & Dietz (2009) suggest that response strategies may independently reduce distrust and provide evidence of trustworthiness, which suggests that these mechanisms act as separate and parallel routes for repairing trust. Parallel mediation model (Figure AF16.3) is the second alternative model as it assumes that all three constructs representing customer reactions to response strategies act as parallel and unrelated mediators that transfer the response strategy's effect on firm performance. Since the vast majority of effect sizes in our database represents short-term firm performance (i.e., a few days after the implementation of response strategies), it could be that there is not enough time in this period for customer reactions to affect one another. Parallel mediation model has a significantly worse fit than the Full serial mediation model ($\Delta\chi^2_{\Delta df=2}$ = 1,892.69; p < .001).

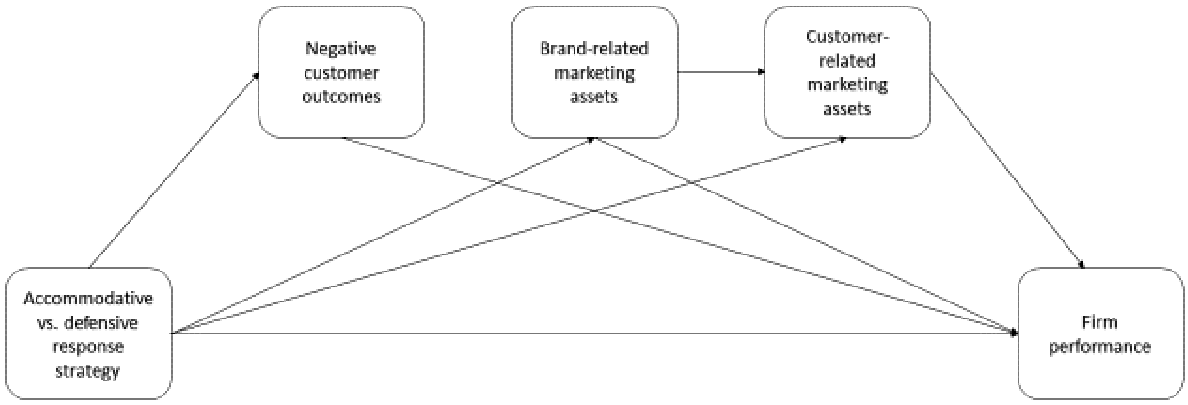
Figure AF16.3: Parallel mediation model



Partial serial mediation model (AF16.4) is the third alternative model and assumes that brand-related and customer-related marketing assets are causally related with the former being an antecedent of the latter. This ordering of marketing assets is consistent with hierarchy of effects proposed by marketing-finance value chain models (Edeling & Fischer 2016; Katsikeas et al.

2016). However, this model still assumes that negative customer outcomes and marketing assets operate as two parallel and independent mechanisms (Gillespie & Dietz 2009). While the Partial serial mediation model has a significantly better fit than the Parallel mediation model ($\Delta\chi^2_{\Delta df=1}$ = 1004.18; p < .001), it also has a significantly worse model fit ($\Delta\chi^2_{\Delta df=1}$ = 888.51; p < .001) than the Full serial mediation model.

Figure WAF16.4: Partial serial mediation model



Lastly, we also estimated a Saturated model (Figure AF16.5) by adding the path negative customer outcomes to customer-related marketing assets to the Full serial mediation model. This path was not statistically significant (β = .002; p = .873) and did not improve model fit ($\Delta\chi^2_{\Delta df=1}$ = .026; p = .871). This result suggests that brand-related marketing assets mediate all of the effect of negative customer outcomes on customer-related marketing assets.

Figure WAF16.5: Saturated model

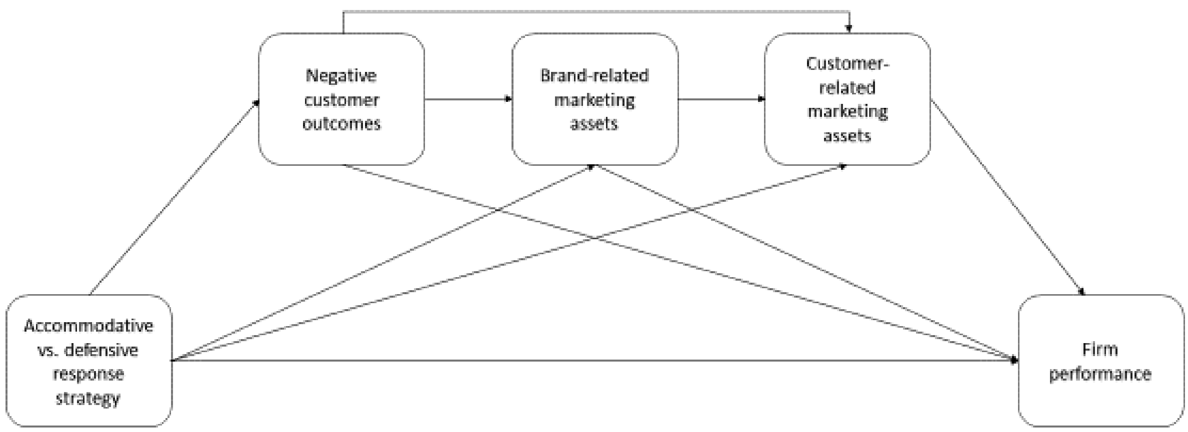


Table AT16.1: Comparison of alternative mediation models

Directional path	Non-mediation model	Parallel mediation model	Partial serial mediation model	Full serial mediation model	Saturated model
Response strategy → Negative customer outcomes	-.046**	-.046**	-.046**	-.046**	-.046**
Response strategy → Brand-related marketing assets	.231***	.251***	.251***	.231***	.231***
Response strategy → Customer-related marketing assets	.074***	.194***	.074***	.074***	.074***
Response strategy → Firm performance	-.003	-.059***	-.059***	-.059***	-.059***
Negative customer outcomes → Brand-related marketing assets	-.431***	—	—	-.431***	-.431***
Negative customer outcomes → Customer-related marketing assets	—	—	—	—	.002
Negative customer outcomes → Firm performance	—	-.055**	-.055**	-.055**	-.055**
Brand-related marketing assets → Customer-related marketing assets	.476***	—	.476***	.476***	.477***
Brand-related marketing assets → Firm performance	—	.036*	.036*	.036†	.036†
Customer-related marketing assets → Firm performance	—	.227***	.227***	.227***	.227***
Model fit indices					
χ^2	282.506***	1,892.71***	888.53***	.026	.000
Degrees of freedom	4	3	2	1	0
Goodness-of-fit-index	.974	.840	.927	1	—
Adjusted goodness-of-fit-index	.901	.220	.449	1	—
Comparative fit index	.892	.270	.658	1	—
Root mean square error of approximation	.132	.396	.332	.000	—
Standardized root mean residual	.100	.172	.124	.001	—

Significance of path coefficients and chi-square statistics * = p < .05; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001; † = p < .10.