

BRAND EXTERNALITIES AND BRAND SYSTEMS

A Macromarketing Systems Perspective

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ABSTRACT

Brands are omnipresent in contemporary society. They are complex multidimensional constructs embedded within almost every aspect of our personal and social life. Branding is central to the organisational strategies for differentiation, competitiveness, and survival, and it is also at the core of consumers' identity work, defining their respective personal and social ideologies. Research has extensively identified brands as significant economically and socially, but lately, brands and branding have been criticised for being ambivalent. Branding can simultaneously induce mechanisms like value creation and value destruction and cause severe social consequences for different brand actors over time. These branding dynamics underpin consumer resistance and anti-branding in contemporary society. Scholars have often raised concerns such as branding ethics, morality, social and environmental sustainability, consumer vulnerability and social well-being and provided frameworks around these issues; but the social consequences and impact of brand-related behaviours of different brand actors are neither conceptualised nor is an integrated framework provided to address these issues holistically. This gap gives rise to the three research questions in this thesis which are addressed across three papers, structured as Chapters 2, 3 and 4, respectively.

The first paper conceptualises the social consequences of branding as *Brand Externalities*. It provides a taxonomy that gives evidence of the non-linear nature of brand exchange by connecting brand actors beyond the brand exchange sphere and establishes branding as a macro-system phenomenon. The second paper explores the causal structure and aggregation mechanism of brand externalities and proposes a causal theory, respectively. The causal theory of brand externalities is developed using *Systematic Theory Mapping*, which combines the conventions of systematic narrative review and system dynamics modelling. The findings from systematic theory mapping are carried forward to the third paper, which proposes an integrated *Brand System* framework based on the marketing systems theory. The brand system framework accounts for brand externalities as a potential system configuration in addition to the other configurations essential in holistically analysing and managing the brand system. The three papers collectively advance systems thinking in branding research with implications for theory, practice, and research. This thesis accounts for the reciprocal brand-society relationship and pertinent realities of contemporary society and lays a foundation for more robust and socially sustainable brand management.

ATTESTATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning.

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March 24th, 2023

PUBLICATIONS FROM THIS THESIS

The following publications relate to the work undertaken for this thesis:

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- Padela, S. M. F., Wooliscroft, B., & Ganglmair-Wooliscroft, A. (2023). Systematic theory mapping: Deciphering causal complexity of brand externalities. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 0(0). <https://doi.org/10.1177/02761467231157616>
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DECLARATION OF CO-AUTHORSHIP

Following are the details of the co-author contributions concerning the published (or submitted) peer-reviewed manuscripts included in this thesis:

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The undersigned hereby certify that:

- the above details correctly reflect the nature and extent of the PhD candidate's contribution to the work undertaken for each of the published (or submitted) peer-reviewed manuscripts, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors; and
- the candidate wrote all or the majority of the text

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Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

Brands are omnipresent (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Levy & Luedicke, 2013). On average, children are exposed to 554 brands each day, i.e., nearly a brand per minute, with 76 of those in the harmful commodities (such as junk food, alcohol, gambling, tobacco) category, a study in New Zealand confirmed (Watkins et al., 2022). Interbrand reported that global brands are reaching new heights, with the aggregate value of the top 100 most valuable brands grown by 15 percent from \$2,326,491 million in 2020 to \$2,667,524 million in 2021. Apple was crowned the top global brand with a growth rate of 26 percent, valued at over US\$408.2 billion, whereas Tesla was marked as the fastest-growing global brand with a growth rate of 184 percent valued at over US\$36.2 billion in 2021 (Interbrand, 2021). Nielsen reported that marketing spending was globally pulled back in 2019-2020 owing to the pandemic and lockdowns, but that pullback was short-lived with 2020 quarter-four and 2021 quarter-one marketing spending well above their seasonal, pre-pandemic spending levels (Nielsen, 2021). Despite the pandemic, 2021 was a record year for spending on brand advertising with the global market exceeding US\$700 billion (Adgate, 2021).

Branding is central to marketing theory and practice (Conejo & Wooliscroft, 2015a; Hunt, 2019) and so to the social and cultural discourse (Hollenbeck & Patrick, 2016) and the global economy (Bronnenberg et al., 2019; Lury, 2004). Brands are social and cultural entities and possess a transactional as well as transformational character (Aitken & Campelo, 2011; Moore & Reid, 2008; Ramaswamy & Ozcan, 2016). All forms of marketing offers, including products, services, organisations, ideas, and people, have embraced branding as a core practice in strategic management (Oh et al., 2020). For firms as well as consumers, brands carry meaning and enable differentiation and growth. Chevalier and Mazzalovo (2003, p. 3) view brands as “authentic factors for social, economic, and cultural progress” and “an essential tool of marketing, international competition, and contemporary social life.”

Brands are multidimensional constructs (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley, 1998; Keller & Lehmann, 2006) and serve different purposes in different domains. In an economic system, brands embody information and map the exchange of differentiated commodities; in a social system, they represent trust mechanisms and entities of collective production, dissemination, and consumption; in anthropological and cultural systems, they are the

source of meaning and identity; and in a political system, they serve as a device providing intellectual property rights, financial assets, and opportunities of international trade (Holt, 2006a; Pike, 2009, 2013).

Branding is no longer a firm-controlled process (Brodie et al., 2017; Hatch & Schultz, 2010; Iglesias et al., 2013; Merz et al., 2009; Schroeder, 2009). Brands possess complex representational narratives fashioned by multiple authors in different contexts (Diamond et al., 2009) over different periods of time (Eckhardt & Bengtsson, 2010; Hatch & Rubin, 2006; Moore & Reid, 2008). They are the outcome of an active negotiation between firms-projected brand identity and market-attributed brand meaning. Cultural codes, including the historical context, religious and mythical facets, arts and aesthetic veneer, and moral and ethical conventions, constrain brand value and meaning creation (Schroeder, 2009).

Hunt (2019) identified that anti-branding is ubiquitous across several continents. Contemporary brandscapes have become highly moralised and inundated with an ethical discourse (Fan, 2005; Jeanes, 2013; Salzer-Mörling & Strannegård, 2007). They are characterised by pro-brand and anti-brand consumers and activists (Kozinets & Handelman, 2004). Anti-brand consumers, also identified as critical reflexive consumers (Østergaard et al., 2015), do not downright resist consumption but exhibit defiance against conventional consumption practices. These consumers have acquired the resources to explicitly reveal their cynicism and formulate resistance strategies towards marketing and branding (Cova & D'Antone, 2016; Luedicke et al., 2010). They are also regarded as rebels, activists, and reflexively defiant consumers (Ozanne & Murray, 1995). These consumers pose a significant challenge for brand management as they are no longer under the control of firms and their marketing efforts (Holt, 2002). They have orchestrated a reconfiguration of power within the marketing system (Thompson, 2004).

Branding has become complex and moved away from the dyadic consumer-brand focus to broader relational, socio-cultural, ethical, and critical perspectives (Heding et al., 2020; Schroeder, 2017). The critical perspective of branding research is reflective and focuses on the dysfunctional outcomes of branding (Arvidsson, 2005; Schroeder, 2017). It charges brands with ethical, moral, ideological, and socio-political nuances and calls for social and environmental responsibilities of brands and firms. Brands are criticised for commercialising culture, colonising social life, commodifying self-esteem, meanings, and values, and destroying civic and social values (Botterill & Kline, 2007; Isaksen & Roper, 2012; Klein, 1999; Mumby, 2016; O'Reilly, 2006; Rennstam, 2013). Branding can easily be misused. Lane (1995) examined the ethical inclinations of business students and found

most of them to be comfortable taking unethical decisions provided the decision was not illegal. When customer commitment to the brand increases, it eventually makes compliance with ethical norms difficult and increases the ethical burden by driving towards lesser ethical behaviours (Story & Hess, 2010). Branding often capitalises on the pester power of children and insecurities of other vulnerable consumer groups, like people with poor self-esteem, socioeconomically disadvantaged, and consumers with compulsive decision-making and conspicuous buying behaviour (Horvath & van Birgelen, 2015; Isaksen & Roper, 2008, 2012; Roper & Shah, 2007). In doing so, it creates social and societal consequences, as externalities, beyond the micro-domain of managerial logic. These externalities connect the brand exchange partners with the wider society and alter the holistic character of the brand exchange outcome. Huber et al. (2009) identified forms of brand misconduct and the subsequent implications for consumer-brand relationships, but their discussion does not incorporate the wider scope of how pervasive brand effects are and how detrimental the outcomes could be, not just for consumers, but for non-consumers and society in general. The interdependency of the brand exchange partners and society, in addition to the managerial tendencies, social vulnerabilities of different stakeholders, and complexities created by anti-brand and critical reflexive consumers, require a considerate and holistic branding practice. It necessitates viewing brands as a system from a macro-perspective while exploring the externalities brands and branding produce in the short- and long-term at the micro- and macro-levels. This research addresses that very need.

The theoretical models and practice-based frameworks in contemporary branding literature are criticised for mainly focusing on consumers and other direct stakeholders (e.g., Diamond et al., 2009; Onyas & Ryan, 2015; Skaalsvik & Olsen, 2014). These conceptualisations do not fully acknowledge non-consumer stakeholders, anti-branding dynamics, the potential for unintentional brand transgressions, stakeholder interdependencies and the complex hierarchical branding environment. Scholars have emphasised that managerial concepts and practices traditionally loaded with customer-orientation should be reconceptualised to incorporate the entire stakeholder network for brand value formation (Berthon et al., 2007; Gregory, 2007; Iglesias et al., 2013; Jones, 2005). While advocating continued research for establishing the theoretical tenets and conceptual foundations of branding, Keller (2021, p. 537) recommended that “academic research must also provide practical insights and guidelines into how firms and organizations should optimally build and manage their brands.” Similarly, Oh et al. (2020,

p. 157) emphasised that “... research going forward must recognize and appreciate the large number of concepts and factors that potentially come into play as mediators and moderators of branding effects.” The complex interrelations among culture, society and corporate institutions characterize, often cached, but significant patterns and behaviours of stakeholders. This inherent complexity due to a large number of concepts in branding, the consequent patterns and behaviours, and the dynamic effects and implications of branding calls for identifying, analysing, and integrating different elements and components holistically while viewing brands and branding from a macro-system perspective. This thesis responds to that call by asking the questions given below.

1.1 Research Purpose & Research Questions

The purpose of this research is:

“to conceptualise brand externalities and develop a holistic systems-based branding framework that recognises brand externalities as a potential outcome of the system and expands the scope of contemporary branding by linking brand-related behaviours and practices of the brand exchange dyad with the wider social system.”

The subsequent research questions emerging from this purpose are:

Research Question One: *What are brand externalities and what are the different forms of brand externalities?*

Research Question Two: *What causal mechanisms and relationships are involved in producing brand externalities?*

Research Question Three: *What are the configurations of a brand system essential for analysis and intervention?*

1.2 Theoretical Lens

Marketing Systems Theory (MST) (Layton, 2007, 2011, 2019) provides the central theoretical lens for this research. MST views the market and marketing, and by extension the society, as a system of action. Fisk (1967) conceptualised marketing systems based on the General Systems Theory (Boulding, 1956; von Bertalanffy, 1950, 1968) and the Functionalist Paradigm of Marketing (Alderson, 1957). Layton (2011, p. 259) defined a marketing system as:

“a network of individuals, groups and/or entities, embedded in a social matrix, linked directly or indirectly through sequential or shared participation in economic exchange, which jointly and/or collectively

creates economic value with and for customers, through the offer of assortments of goods, services, experiences and ideas, that emerge in response to or anticipation of customer demand.”

Besides MST, several other theories and research streams consequently developed on systems thinking (see Table 1.1). Maglio et al. (2009, p. 403) defined a system as “a configuration of resources, including at least one operant resource, in which the properties and behaviour of the configuration is more than the properties and behaviour of the individual resources.” Holbrook (2003) views a system as complex, evolving, adaptive and deterministic, demonstrating the butterfly effect where interdependent elements are subject to nonlinear interactions with each other and the environment to generate unpredictable outcomes and feedback effects. Ng et al. (2012, p. 213) described a service system as a “network of agents and interactions that integrate resources for value co-creation.” Vargo and Lusch (2016, pp. 10-11) defined a service ecosystem as “a relatively self-contained, self-adjusting system of resource-integrating actors connected by shared institutional arrangements and mutual value creation through service exchange.” The former two descriptions give a structural view of the system, whereas the latter two provide a functional perspective. Together, these perspectives reflect the core configurations of the system. Often these research streams view a firm as a system but fail to view the firm as a configuration in the hierarchy of systems. While these conceptualisations and research streams run parallel, they overlap with common principles that include systemism, complexity, adaptability, environment, boundaries, hierarchical levels of aggregation, inputs, processes, outputs, resource exchange and integration, joint value formation, and feedback loops (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972).

Table 1.1 Key Perspectives based on Systems Thinking

Theories	Exemplars
Open Systems Theory	Emery (1969); Katz and Kahn (1966)
Complexity Theory	Byrne (1998); Wollin and Perry (2004)
Stakeholder Theory	Freeman (1984); Friedman and Miles (2002); Mitchell et al. (1997)
Service Science & Service Systems	Maglio and Spohrer (2008); Simmonds and Gazley (2020)
Service Ecosystems Perspective	Vargo and Lusch (2011); Wieland et al. (2012)
Viable Systems Approach	Barile et al. (2018); Golinelli (2010)
Market System Dynamics	Castilhos et al. (2017); Giesler and Fischer (2017)

In marketing, system thinking is mainly applied in network studies, value co-creation and social marketing (Bruni et al., 2018). Stakeholder theory first articulated the importance of stakeholder networks systematically (Freeman, 1984). Stakeholders are the partners who offer skills, knowledge, resource integration, and political support, reciprocally benefiting

themselves and the firms and brands. Stakeholder theory and its further proponents (e.g., Friedman & Miles, 2002; Jones, 2005; Mitchell et al., 1997; Payne et al., 2005) have shifted the view of organisational connections from transactional to relational exchanges via stakeholder collaborations. Stakeholder theory has challenged traditional configurations of an organization and directed towards the network view of the firm.

The systems view is often presumed synonymous with network view, but the two are different (Frow et al., 2014; Vargo & Lusch, 2011; Wieland et al., 2012). A network is a structure of non-hierarchical interconnected entities dispersed over a geographical space (Castilhos et al., 2017). Henderson and Palmatier (2010, p. 44) argue that the term network “does not convey the breadth and complexity of the system of relationships among relational entities.” Network is a static concept that disregards the historicity, diversity, hierarchical organisation, and complex interconnectedness of entities characteristic to the system. The network view is firm-centric and reductionist and often suffers from micro-level, economic actor and variance biases (Giesler & Fischer, 2017). It focuses on narrow strategic management problems ignoring the total system design. It presumes stakeholders to be distinct and mutually exclusive and marginalises the chaos and complexity of the dynamic environment a firm operates in (Luoma-aho & Paloviita, 2010; Steurer, 2006). The narrow spectrum of the stakeholder network often alienates system actors like competitors, anti-brand activists, citizen action groups and other non-consumer third parties from value configuration, leaving several systemic influences unacknowledged.

In contemporary branding literature, the systemic nature of brand exchange is increasingly being recognised (e.g., Diamond et al., 2009; Franzen & Moriarty, 2008; Katsanis, 1999; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Skaalsvik & Olsen, 2014) but the scope of the proposed models is often limited to brand communities (e.g., Hatch & Schultz, 2010; Ind et al., 2013; Kornum et al., 2017). These models demonstrate micro-systems thinking being oriented towards consumers and direct stakeholder network and do not account for disproportionate brand outcomes like brand externalities. From a macro-perspective, Conejo and Wooliscroft’s (2015a) semiotic brand system (SBS), emphasizing semiotics and meaning co-creation, is a progressive contribution. SBS provides a strong foundation for this research in conceptualising brand externalities and developing an integrated brand system framework to capture the systemic complexity of brand value formation and the dynamic effects of branding. The systems perspective expands the stakeholder orientation beyond brand communities and direct marketing networks and makes several other stakeholders endogenous to the value formation process. The systems view enables integrating the

traditional customer orientation in branding literature with the contemporary network, relational, socio-cultural and critical research in branding.

1.3 Research Philosophy & Design

This research is designed and executed according to the scholarly approach called Systems Philosophy, that views the world as a system and endorses systems thinking to address theoretical and real-world problems (Banathy & Jenlink, 2004; Bunge, 1979; Laszlo, 1972). Systems philosophy is “the philosophical explication and generalization of the concepts and principles of the contemporary systems sciences and general systems theory” (Laszlo, 1978, p. 223). It guides the imagination, provides an orientation to the thought, and determines the general worldview of the systems scientist (Golnam et al., 2011; Laszlo, 1972), manifested as “an expansionist, nonlinear dynamic, and synthetic mode of thinking” (Banathy & Jenlink, 2004, p. 37). It views phenomena not in terms of the “substance and attribute, or matter or motion (substantialism, materialism, mechanism) but in terms of process and organization” (Laszlo, 1978, p. 223).

Crotty (1998) identified that philosophical assumptions at the foundation of any social research include four elements that inform each other sequentially, drive research strategy, influence the research process and determine the status of research findings. These elements include epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and method. Crotty did not include ontology in this research schema and claimed that ontology and epistemology emerge together because “to talk of the construction of the meaning is to talk of the construction of meaningful reality” (p. 10). On the contrary, some scholars argue that ontological assumptions precede epistemological issues (e.g., Bhaskar, 1998; Smith, 2006). Creswell and Báez (2020, p. 43) mentioned that “ontology is the first basic belief.” Similarly, Grix (2018, p. 53) stated that “ontology is the starting point of all research, after which one’s epistemological and methodological positions logically follow.” For this reason, based on the systems philosophy, the ontological stance for this research is laid out first before applying the four elements of Crotty’s (1998) research process (see Table 1.2).

Table 1.2 Research Philosophy and Design for this Thesis

Elements	Systems Dimension	General Paradigm
Ontology	<p>Nature of Reality</p> <p>Biperspectivism: Reality is intelligibly ordered and hierarchically organised as systems. The basic building blocks of reality are biperspectival natural-cognitive systems, where concrete (real/natural) systems can be internally viewed, and conceptual (cognitive) systems can be externally viewed (Laszlo, 1972; Rousseau, 2015).</p> <p>Nature of Society & Social Agents</p> <p>“ A society is a system of interrelated individuals, i.e., a system, and while some of its properties are aggregations of properties of its components, others derive from the relationships among the latter” (Bunge, 1979, pp. 13-14). Social agents produce the social system and interdependency and interactions between social agents (intrasystemic relations), and that between the social agents and their environment (intersystemic relations) characterise the social system (Laszlo, 1972; Pickel, 2011).</p>	<p>Critical Realism: Reality is structured and stratified, and an objective reality exists waiting to be discovered, but it is understood subjectively and measured imperfectly (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Pickard, 2017).</p> <p>Society and social agency are mutually constitutive, but they can be analysed separately (Grix, 2018).</p>
Epistemology	<p>Knowledge Creation</p> <p>Interpretive (Perceptual, Scientific, and Aesthetic) Cognition: Knowledge is produced in relation to the spectator (knower) and the spectacle (known). Systems are simultaneously being and becoming. Progressively complete knowledge of reality can be achieved by finding universal attributes underlying contextual relativities (Banathy & Jenlink, 2004; Laszlo, 1972).</p> <p>View of Causality</p> <p>Cause and effect are non-linear, disproportionate and distant in time and space, and cannot be deduced from linear correlations. Social systems exhibit reciprocal and dynamic circular causality (Domegan et al., 2017; Pickel, 2011; Sterman, 2001).</p>	<p>Constructionism: “ All knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context” (Crotty, 1998, p. 42).</p> <p>The relationship between a cause and effect is nondeterministic in nature with no consistent regularities in the social world (Sayer, 2000; Smith, 2006). The social world is open where causes are unstable and external conditions are not constant.</p>
Theoretical Perspective	<p>Scientific Humanism</p> <p>Scientific knowledge should be integrated into a philosophy of man and reality. Systems are intrinsically value-oriented, open, interconnected and culturally embedded. Values are elements in social systems and values essential for life can be elucidated and contrasted with those held by social actors (Banathy & Jenlink, 2004; Laszlo, 1972, 1978).</p>	<p>Interpretivism (Symbolic Interactionism): The world is socially constructed through the actions and interactions of the social actors that influence the social outcomes (Grix, 2018). Access to reality is through the interpretation of “ language, consciousness, shared meanings, and instruments” (Myers, 2013, p. 39). A social actor’s sense of self and social reality is shared and negotiated with other social actors (Gergen, 2015).</p>
Methodology	<p>Systems methodology based on Grounded Theory (Samuel & Peattie, 2016; Wolfswinkel et al., 2013) to develop the conceptualisation and a mid-range theory of brand externalities and brand system.</p>	
Methods	<p>Literature review to conceptualise and propose a taxonomy of brand externalities.</p> <p>Systematic theory mapping comprised of systematic narrative review and qualitative systems dynamics to develop a causal theory of brand externalities.</p> <p>Conceptual synthesis (general systems synthesis) to conceptualise and characterise brand systems and develop an integrative perspective for branding theory.</p>	

1.3.1 Systems Ontology

Ontology is the science of being and deals with the nature of reality (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). The ontological assumptions can be categorised on a spectrum ranging from Realism to Relativism at the extreme ends (Crotty, 1998; Grix, 2018; Harper, 2012; Nightingale & Cromby, 2002). Realism is a doctrine that believes in one true tangible reality existing independent of the mind (beliefs and interpretations). Realists assume that the truth of the world is identifiable, measurable, and bound by rules, and the data directly reflects reality (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Harper, 2012; Pickard, 2017; Ponterotto, 2005). Relativism, on the contrary, advocates the existence of multiple realities constructed subjectively. This ontology assumes that the world ceases to exist independent of the mind and that realities are embedded within social contexts from which they originate over time. Relativists believe that realities are idiosyncratic, complex, fluid, and elusive. In other words, different but equally valid interpretations can emerge from the same observation, and the data doesn't directly represent reality (Harper, 2012; Pickard, 2017; Ponterotto, 2005).

In between these ontological positions lies the philosophy of Critical Realism (Bhaskar, 2008). Critical realism agrees that an objective natural and social reality exists, waiting to be discovered and studied scientifically (realism), but it also accepts that reality is subjectively constructed and imperfectly measured (relativism) due to human fallibility and limited intellect (Hunt, 1983; Pickard, 2017). Critical realism bridges the gap between the extreme ontological stances of realism and relativism (Grix, 2018). It views the data as able to unravel reality but doesn't claim that the data mirrors it (Harper, 2012). It endorses approaching reality from multiple perspectives due to different interpretations (Pickard, 2017; Smith, 2006). Highly relevant to this research, Grix (2018) and Sayer (2000) summarised key characteristics of critical realism:

- Critical realism straddles both the realist and relativist approaches, where causal explanations and interpretive understanding can be developed together.
- Critical realism goes beyond relativism in providing not just an understanding but also an explanation of the social world.
- Critical realism views reality as structured and stratified, and enables a fuller explanation of the events, objects, social relations, and mechanisms by exploring the causal links not always discernible (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Pickard, 2017).

- Critical realism acknowledges that the structure and agency of the social world possess causal powers and influence each other, respectively. It facilitates the identification and explanation of causal mechanisms and making causal statements.
- Critical realism sees the structure and agency of the social world as mutually constitutive, but they can be analysed separately.
- Critical realism is compatible with a wide range of research methods, the choice of which should be based on the object and objectives of the research.

Systems philosophy (Laszlo, 1972), also called Systemism (Bunge, 1979), is grounded in such critical realism (Rousseau, 2014). Systems ontology argues that reality is intelligibly ordered and underlies different phenomena of the experienced and the observed world (Laszlo, 1972). It postulates that the world (and its natural and social phenomena) is organised as a non-summative system. Any physical, biological, social, or technological phenomenon should be viewed as a concrete (real/natural) system within an interconnected, interdependent continuum of supra-systems and sub-systems of nature (reality).

Systems ontology is based on Monism that recognises an unbridgeable gap between distinctive but correlated concrete (real/natural) systems and conceptual (cognitive) systems (Laszlo, 1972, 1978). Concrete systems encompass real/natural events and exist independent of experience and observation, whereas conceptual systems constituting the mind are shared social representations constructed by experience and observation (Pickel, 2011). A conceptual system, i.e., an introspectively lived system of mental events, can be analysed as a concrete system of natural events, if the observer's vantage point is externally shifted. Similarly, a concrete system can be viewed as and becomes a conceptual system when lived (observed) immanently. This view is called Biperspectivism and it is argued to provide a consistent understanding of real (natural) and mental phenomena (Laszlo, 1972). It provides a fundamental concept for systems ontology called "natural-cognitive (i.e., psychophysical) system" (Laszlo, 1972, p. 154). These systems are not dual but biperspectival, as they (the same system) can be observed from two points of view. Systems ontology is thus stated as "sets of irreducibly different mental and physical events constitute an identical psychophysical system, disclosed through the invariance of the respective theories" (Laszlo, 1972, p. 154).

Empirical inquiry generally follows two modes of thinking: reductionism (individualism or atomism) and holism. Systems philosophy discourages reductionism because natural

phenomena do not manifest in patches. Reductionism provides a wide variety of limited-range theories applicable to specific phenomena within narrow domains but remains silent about the consequent emergent properties of the phenomena due to the interconnections and interactions with the rest of the world. On the contrary, holism focuses on the wholes and loses sight of the individual constituents (Bunge, 1979; Laszlo, 1972). Systems philosophy seeks to overcome the limitations of both these modes of thinking, and recommends that holism must be complemented by reductionism because “many phenomena can be understood only by taking into account the full set of relations constituting them, without reducing them to casual interactions between analytically isolated parts” and “it is often counterproductive to reduce concepts and principles applicable to complex systems to the concepts and principles applicable to their parts” (Laszlo, 1978, p. 224). Bunge (2004, p. 191) supported this endeavour and stated that “systemism is just as comprehensive as holism, but unlike the latter, it invites us to analyze wholes into their constituents, and consequently it rejects the intuitionist epistemology inherent in holism.”

This research aims to identify brand externalities and analyse a wide set of constituent relations involved in producing them. This research places brand externalities within the grand design of a brand system, without reducing this phenomenon to the subsystem of the consumer-brand dyad, to understand the how and why of the wider implications on the extended brand actor agency and overall brand value formation. Biperspectivism with underlying critical realism supports this endeavour as the ontological philosophy for this research because it sees social phenomena emerging from mechanisms that are real but not precisely discernible. The mechanisms become evident only through their effects (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The task here is to propose hypotheses of these dynamic mechanisms and explore their effects.

1.3.2 Systems Epistemology

Epistemology is the philosophy of knowledge, its nature, methods of acquisition, validation, and justifications (Grix, 2018; Harper, 2012; Ponterotto, 2005). It is concerned with knowledge-gathering processes and asks research-oriented questions, such as: How the knowledge about reality can be obtained? How do we know what we know? What is the relationship between the subject and the researcher? There are different epistemological traditions to answer these questions. These include objectivism, constructionism, subjectivism, and their variants (Crotty, 1998).

Objectivism views knowledge as nomothetic, where the laws of nature govern the knowledge (Ponterotto, 2005; Salvatore & Valsiner, 2010). Objectivists believe that meaning, and by extension meaningful reality, is external to and independent of the social actors. The intrinsic meaning in the existence of an object has precedence over the mind, with the consciousness having no influence on the object. The ontological notion of realism often implies epistemological objectivism (Crotty, 1998; Grix, 2018). According to this philosophy, knowledge of the social and physical world is generalizable and enduring in nature, and objective universal truth can be obtained using the assumption of the natural sciences (Saunders et al., 2019).

Subjectivism, on the contrary, follows a relativist ontology and assumes that meanings emerge from idiosyncratic interpretations with no possibility of generalization. Subjectivists assert that meanings emerge from the mind and the object has no contribution to creating meanings (Crotty, 1998). They see the knowledge as idiographic, unique (Ponterotto, 2005), and all that “is experienced once” (Salvatore & Valsiner, 2010, p. 819). This philosophy believes that social reality is comprised of perceptions and behaviours of the social actors. With social phenomena constantly changing, knowledge about the social world should be obtained over time, space, and contexts to understand how social actors experience realities. Consequently, a subjectivist pursues multiple realities to make sense of the world (Saunders et al., 2019).

Constructionism provides a middle ground and balances objectivism and subjectivism (Maxwell, 2022). Constructionists view reality as both an objective fact as well as a subjective construction of the mind (Kakkuri-Knuuttila et al., 2008). Systems epistemology is constructionist (interpretive) in nature, and the interaction between the knower and the known is a key concept in it (Pickel, 2011). It is based on the ordinary perceptual, scientific, and aesthetic cognition of humans as the natural-cognitive systems (Laszlo, 1972). It follows ontological Monism (Laszlo, 1978), and consequently formulates the epistemological philosophy for this research.

Systems epistemology considers the cognitive (conceptual) processes as indivisible into a spectator and a spectacle (Laszlo, 1972). It postulates that an objective and more complete knowledge of reality as concrete (real/natural) systems can be progressively achieved through science and reason, but such systems can be understood and explained only as conceptual systems (Laszlo, 1972; Rousseau, 2015), where the observer and the observed interact and knowledge depends upon biological, psychological, socio-cultural and other environmental factors (Pickel, 2011). Epistemologically, systems are simultaneously being

and becoming (Banathy & Jenlink, 2004) or formed and forming (Laszlo, 1978). The physical stimulus (a real/natural phenomenon) itself does not impose meaning (mental phenomenon). Meanings are perceptive and emerge from the interplay between the object and the subject as they engage with each other in the real world. Social actors may ascribe different meanings to the same object and the same meaning to different objects depending upon multiple interpretations (contextual relativities) over time, space, and socio-cultural contexts (Crotty, 1998; Harper, 2012; Laszlo, 1972). It means that interactions of the social actors between themselves and their environment transforms physical reality into experienced reality. The systematic method of obtaining knowledge of the physical (natural) reality from the experienced reality through perceptual processing and interpretation in view of the prior scientific knowledge is termed scientific cognition (realist interpretation) (Laszlo, 1972).

Systems epistemology (interpretive cognition), in line with embedded constructionism (Kakkuri-Knuuttila et al., 2008), recognises the reciprocal causality between social structures and social actions (and agency). Laszlo (1972, p. 197) stated that a man's "knowledge of the world is no longer conceived as that of a disinterested spectator who sees what encounters his eye; the existential behavior of the human being in his surrounding medium has emerged as a vital determinant of his cognition. The latter is shaped, and in turn shapes, an ongoing transactional relationship between man and environment." In other words, social structures (or objects) influence social actions, and in turn, social actions embedded within pre-existing structures reshape the social structures over time. This research explores the reciprocal causality and the interplay between the brands and different brand actors as social structures and social actions, and accordingly interpretive cognition paralleled with constructionism provides a suitable epistemological foundation for this research.

1.3.3 Theoretical Perspective

A theoretical perceptive determines the way of viewing the world. As an approach to explaining and understanding the social world, it informs the methodology by providing a logic, criteria, and context to the research process (Crotty, 1998). In other words, how we study the social world depends on how we see it. Many theoretical perspectives have emerged over time that often overlap on a continuum ranging from positivism to interpretivism on the opposing ends (Grix, 2018).

Positivism is grounded in realist ontology and objectivist epistemology (Pickard, 2017; Ponterotto, 2005). Positivists view reality as objective and independent of the observer (Myers, 2013). They focus on discovering patterns and regularities of cause-and-effect relationships to make law-like generalizations and causal statements from quantifiable observations. They employ highly structured methodologies and statistical analysis aiming to yield pure value-free data being neutral and detached from the research (Saunders et al., 2019).

Systems philosophy rejects the value-free objectivity of positivism and recommends *Scientific Humanism* (Laszlo, 1978). It follows an interpretivist position that aligns well with the constructionist systems epistemology (Crotty, 1998; Laszlo, 1972), where values as “genetically or culturally programmed norms of behavior are given equal status with facts” opening the way toward “a scientific description of values as norms and programs operating in systems” (Laszlo, 1978, p. 226). Interpretivists look for “culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world” (Crotty, 1998, p. 67) because different social and cultural contexts produce different meanings over time (Saunders et al., 2019). This denies the possibility of an objective value-free analysis (Grix, 2018).

The most prominent interpretivist approaches include hermeneutics, phenomenology, and symbolic interactionism (Crotty, 1998; Saunders et al., 2019). Hermeneutics evolved from theology and focuses on interpretations emerging from the behaviour and actions of social actors (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Phenomenology provides a micro-analysis of the experienced (lived) reality of social actors and emphasises that meanings emerge when social actors engage with (and experience) the social phenomena (and objects) (Pickard, 2017). It treats the culture and other social influences with suspicion and requires interpretations to be made by setting aside “all previous habits of thought” (Crotty, 1998, p. 80). There is also less of a concern about whether the narrative of the experienced (lived) reality is factually accurate (Harper, 2012).

Symbolic interactionism has distinctive epistemological implications than hermeneutic–phenomenological interpretivism (Bryman & Bell, 2011). It emphasises that meanings emerge and evolve from the process of social interactions and communication between different social actors (Saunders et al., 2019). This process influences the behaviours, actions, and responses of social actors depending upon the imputed meaning of the social environment. Symbolic interactionism views an individual’s sense of self and social reality as shared and negotiated with other social actors (Gergen, 2015). A symbolic interactionist

focuses on both the process (of creating the shared meanings) and the roles meaning and symbols play within the shared social phenomena and reality (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

This research considers a brand and brand actor agency as interdependent and intertwined in complex interactions within the social system producing unpredictable outcomes (externalities) and feedback effects over time. The idea of social interdependence and change being central to social interactionism (Gergen, 2015; Saunders et al., 2019) fits the social interplay of brands and brand actor agency as well as the ontological-epistemological philosophy of this research. Therefore, this research resides in the theoretical perspective of social interactionist interpretivism.

1.3.4 Systems Methodology

Systems methodology is “a set of models, strategies, methods, and tools that instrumentalise systems theory and philosophy” to analyse, design, and evaluate complex systems and systems problems and manage them accordingly (Banathy & Jenlink, 2004, p. 37). It allows the application of systems thinking to a functional context by: (1) identifying and characterising the nature of the problem situation, context, and the corresponding system hierarchy and (2) selecting and implementing methods appropriate to the problem situation, context, and the system.

Systems methodology enables building models of complex systems and systems problems as conceptual (cognitive) systems reflecting a concrete (real/natural) system (Bunge, 1979; Pickel, 2011). The core assumptions in systems methodology are as follows:

- Systems are real and exist independent of the explanatory models or theories developed.
- Models and theories should account for the individual as well as the aggregate and emergent properties of the constituents and interactions between them.
- Models and theories should address stasis and dynamics and remain open to accommodate the constant flux of the system over time and space.
- Temporal, spatial, material, symbolic and contextual flows and path dependencies are critical in explaining complex systems.

Samuel and Peattie (2016) identified Grounded Theory as a systems methodology suitable yet underutilised in the context of marketing systems and macromarketing. In the same spirit, this thesis utilises the exploratory approach of Grounded Theory and justifies it on the following grounds:

- Grounded Theory is rooted in symbolic interactionism (Meyer & Mayrhofer, 2022; Pickard, 2017) and aligns well with the systems ontology, epistemology, and theoretical philosophy of this research. It is process-oriented and enables analysing, interpreting, and explaining the construction of meanings and the patterns of individual and collective behaviours of the social actors from the psychological processes, contextual experiences, and social interactions among them (Saunders et al., 2019; Thornberg & Keane, 2022; Tweed & Charmaz, 2012).
- Grounded Theory is a flexible inductively driven methodology that aims to discover and develop a conceptualisation and an integrated mid-range theory of the social phenomenon under study grounded in the data (Grix, 2018; Saunders et al., 2019; Thornberg & Keane, 2022; Tweed & Charmaz, 2012) thus, fits the purpose of this research.
- Grounded theory is useful when a social phenomenon is under-researched and under-defined or when new perspectives or conceptualisations are needed to analyse familiar social phenomena (Grix, 2018; Tweed & Charmaz, 2012). The contemporary branding literature extensively addresses brand misconduct, brand value destruction, anti-branding phenomena, critical reflexive consumption, and ethical and moral implications of branding (e.g., Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018; Cova & Paraque, 2012; Fan, 2005; Huber et al., 2010; Østergaard et al., 2015), but the grounded mechanism of brand externalities is neither conceptualised nor analysed within the larger social structure of a brand system. This research determines brand externalities grounded in the extant literature, providing a different perspective on the familiar phenomenon of the social impact of branding, and finds grounded theory a suitable methodology for the purpose.

Grounded theory was introduced in 1967 by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss to demonstrate the significance of qualitative research in theory building in response to the quantitative methodologies dominating social science (Thornberg & Keane, 2022). Since its inception, grounded theory methodology has evolved into several versions, with some authors holding a more objective and prescriptive stance (classic or Glaserian), while others providing a more flexible and reflexive approach for theory construction (constructivist or Charmazian). Bryant (2017, p. 83) emphasises that grounded theory is “best thought of as a family of methods” with similarities in core principles and differences and conflicts among its various versions. The key principles within this family of methods include:

- Simultaneous data collection and analysis
- Inductive–abductive data analysis
- Rigorous use of coding and categorising the data
- Constant comparison method
- Theoretical sampling and theoretical saturation,
- Use of existing theory and theoretical sensitivity
- Memo-writing

Grounded theory was conceived as a purely inductive methodology, but it is more appropriate to approach it as an abductive process (Saunders et al., 2019; Thornberg & Keane, 2022) that moves between induction and deduction iteratively (Shank, 1998). Grounded theory does not allow for the linear process of data collection followed by data analysis (Pickard, 2017). Data collection and analysis occur simultaneously, informing each other (Thornberg & Keane, 2022). The research commences with collecting an initial data set through purposive sampling and analysing it inductively to generate a preliminary assortment of data codes and categories. This preliminary round guides subsequent sampling, data collection and analysis, facilitating the emergence of data-driven theory (Pickard, 2017).

Theory building from grounded theory approach follows a pyramid of rigorous data coding and categorising (see Figure 1.1). First, the raw data is fragmented, reorganised, and labelled (coded) as per the meanings ascribed to the respective fragments. These coded data fragments create the foundation of the pyramid and establish the building blocks of the emerging theory or concept. The coded data fragments are later categorised and summarised, building towards the peak of the pyramid that facilitates theorising at the higher levels of abstraction and meaning interpretation. Constant comparison method underpins categorising the coded data fragments (Saunders et al., 2019). Each data code is reviewed and compared with other codes within-category and cross-category at each level of the pyramid according to the similarities and differences between them. This coding and categorising process culminate at the peak of the pyramid, providing a theoretical conceptualisation of the social phenomenon under study (Tweed & Charmaz, 2012).

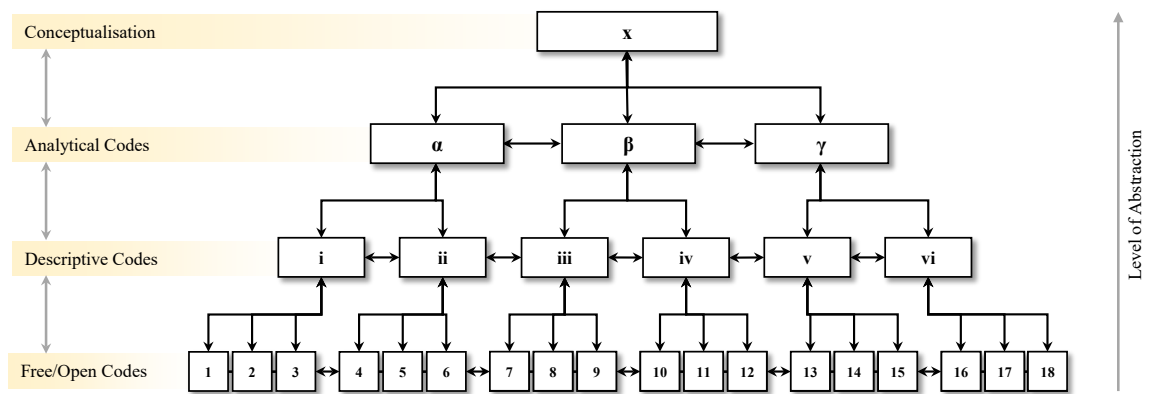


Figure 1.1 Theory Building from Grounded Theory

Constant comparison is a dynamic non-linear process and central to the iterative phases of data collection and analysis (Bryant, 2017; Tweed & Charmaz, 2012). It facilitates identifying the conceptual gaps in the analysis and under-developed areas of the emerging theory (Thornberg & Keane, 2022) and indicates the need for subsequent theoretical sampling “to pursue theoretical lines of enquiry rather than to achieve population representativeness” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 207). Theoretical sampling is data-driven and involves collecting new data sets to elaborate and refine the categories, define their properties and relationships among them, and describe their implications on the theory. Collecting new data sets continues until theoretical and conceptual saturation is achieved, where additional data generates no new insights (Meyer & Mayrhofer, 2022; Tweed & Charmaz, 2012).

Grounded theory grants the use of existing theory prior to the data collection (Pickard, 2017). An overview of the extant literature is essential in familiarising and locating the research within the theoretical landscape. It helps in identifying the theoretical gaps and inconsistencies, reviewing and refining the research problem, and justifying the research design (Thornberg & Keane, 2022). Although the existing theory is considered important in grounded theory, it should not be permitted to influence the data collection and analysis. Theoretical sensitivity is advised to maintain the inductive data-driven stance in theory building (Saunders et al., 2019). A grounded theorist should recognise the limitations and fallibility of the existing theory and focus on interpreting meanings grounded in the data instead of being sensitised by preconceived concepts (Grix, 2018; Pickard, 2017).

Due to the emergent and explorative nature of grounded theory, a specific and focused research problem and rigid research method at the outset were considered counterintuitive for this thesis. This research commenced with a broad research question revolving around

the social consequences of branding, and the term *brand externalities* was coined later. The proposed conceptualisation, taxonomy, and causal theory of brand externalities were continuously reworked and evolved over the course of this research by applying the core principles of grounded theory as discussed above.

1.3.5 Method

Systems philosophy suggests that a true method of discovery begins with a general observation and imaginative generalisation, followed by empirical re-observation and rational interpretation for acute understanding. Laszlo (1972) calls it creative deduction and emphasises that “this method is appropriate to propose theories which are neither purely induced nor deduced, but are so formulated that empirically applicable laws can be derived from them” (p. 18). Empirical observations would be meaningless if the observer’s creative imagination (informed by prior constructs in the cognition) does not elicit several abstract possibilities, which are then tested and either accepted or refuted. For example, no biologist could identify a virus gazing into a microscope without prior theory informing cognition. Consequently, “theories have to be proposed speculatively and pursued deductively” (p. 17), with prior understanding and theory considered essential for imaginative and interpretive generalisation from the experience and observation.

A general observation of the hazards of branding in society was the core motivation and inspiration behind this thesis. Based on this observation, a literature review of the social consequences of contemporary branding practices was done, resulting in the conceptualisation of brand externalities with a taxonomy proposed.

Following this understanding of brand externalities, the complex structures and causal mechanisms generating them were explored through *Systematic Theory Mapping (STM)*. *STM* follows the premise of qualitative system dynamics (Wolstenholme, 1999) that includes problem articulation and formulation of dynamic hypothesis for theory building. Problem articulation was achieved by using extant literature as the data source and examining it through a systematic narrative review under the jurisprudence of grounded theory (Samuel & Peattie, 2016; Wolfswinkel et al., 2013) to identify the key branding variables and respective brand actor influences. Subsequently, a dynamic hypothesis of the causal mechanisms involved in producing brand externalities is formulated and illustrated through a causal loop diagram.

A systematic narrative review is suitable for developing theoretical conceptualisations or frameworks by integrating diverse theoretical perspectives existing within a heterogeneous

body of literature (Snyder, 2019). The extant branding literature provided a large body of archived research and by extension, a comprehensive qualitative input for this purpose. An integrated overview of the diverse theoretical paradigms, scholarly mindsets, and stakeholder perspectives would not have been possible with any primary data collection due to the limitations of the sample size. Therefore, the literature-based *STM* is followed and presented as the first step in the process of designing knowledge elicitation before any primary research.

The diverse theoretical paradigms, scholarly mindsets, and stakeholder perspectives identified in the *STM* were brought forward through a conceptual synthesis approach to characterise and configure the specifications of a brand system and place brand externalities within its grand design, as recommended by systems methodology. Laszlo (1972, p. 19) identified such synthesis as “General Systems Synthesis” that is the process of “building of models of models,” where “the data of systems synthesis are theories – first-order models of the experienced world – and not experiences themselves.” The synthesised brand system framework captures the structural, functional, and social complexity of branding and provides analytical guidelines for investigation and intervention within brand systems.

1.4 Contributions & Significance of the Research

This thesis contributes to the disciplines of Branding, Marketing and Marketing Research by conceptualising brand externalities, proposing a taxonomy and causal theory of brand externalities, presenting a comprehensive and structured method for theory mapping, and developing an integrated brand system framework from a macro-systems perspective.

Theoretically, the taxonomy and the causal theory of brand externalities establish contemporary branding as a macro-systems phenomenon. Brand externalities evidently emphasise the micro-macro relationship of the actions and behaviours of consumers and managers, where brands not only influence the respective partners in the dyadic exchange relationship but also affect immediate others, general others, and future others. The conceptualisation of brand externalities contributes to the research on brand misconduct (Huber et al., 2010), destructive brand practices (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018; Rennstam, 2013), and branding ethics and morality (Fan, 2005; Hunt, 2019; Salzer-Mörling & Strannegård, 2007). This research focuses on reconsidering the brand-society relationship, re-evaluating the methods and frameworks for understanding and analysing market

structures and stakeholder behaviours, and re-conceptualising brand management from a systems perspective.

Besides theorising brand externalities, this research develops an integrated brand system framework that identifies brand externalities as a potential outcome and captures the inherent complexity and dynamics of brand value formation. The proposed framework demonstrates systemic interdependencies and hierarchical embeddedness of the brand system within a dynamic branding environment. Brand systems are characterised by temporal, spatial, contextual, and symbolic path dependence causing convergence and integration of non-linear brand inputs and throughputs. The resultant brand outcomes diverge and diffuse into the system, influencing different brand actors and, in turn, subsequent brand inputs. While conceptualising brand systems as complex exchange systems, this thesis applies Marketing Systems Theory (Layton, 2011, 2019) and responds to the calls for broader, more integrated branding frameworks that re-define brand-society relationship and balance different conceptual orientations and theoretical perspectives of branding (Campbell & Price, 2021; Keller, 2021; Swaminathan et al., 2020).

Managerially, this thesis informs brand development, management, and regulation at a macro-level and provides analytical guidelines for brand system analysis and intervention. The research delineates ethical and moral concerns embedded in branding practices and enables identifying potential nodes from where brand externalities may originate in a brand system. Branding could be argued as an amoral, as opposed to immoral or unethical practice. This thesis identifies branding as a complex function with profound moral and ethical nuances. Managers can use the brand system framework to identify and manage conflicting value orientations of brand actors and reduce the potential of adverse brand outcomes like negative brand externalities.

Methodologically, this thesis presents *Systematic Theory Mapping (STM)* for exploring causal explanations and theory building in marketing research. The usefulness of this method lies in dealing with a large number of variables and the interrelationships between them that are difficult to understand intuitively. This thesis applies literature-based *STM* hybridising systematic narrative review and system dynamics modelling. The literature-based *STM* enables a theoretically grounded explanation of complex managerial and social problems and should precede any primary research. This method can help scholars, managers, and policymakers structure complex issues such as brand externalities, explain causal conditions and develop a dynamic hypothesis, respectively.

Overall, this thesis provides a macro-perspective of branding, considering diverse brand inputs, dynamic brand throughputs, and disproportionate brand outcomes while identifying brand externalities and path dependencies within and across hierarchical levels of a brand system over time and space. In doing so, this thesis lays out a research agenda whereby methods to measure and regulate the causal factors of brand externalities; resolve moral, ethical and sustainability concerns; and develop pragmatic remedial action by designing public policy instruments could be addressed in the future.

1.5 Organisation of the Thesis

This thesis is structured in 5 chapters according to the format guidelines of thesis-by-manuscripts. Although the traditional thesis structure, with a full chapter on literature review, methodology, and findings, is not followed here, the chapters are planned and executed in the same spirit. Chapter 2 (literature-focused), chapter 3 (methodology), and chapter 4 (findings-oriented) comprise three journal articles developed during the doctoral candidature. Each of these chapters includes a background, literature review, method, and findings relevant to the objectives laid out in the article, which eventually address the research questions in this thesis.

The manuscripts (chapters) included in this thesis are connected (see Figure 1.2) and organised with a descriptor before the chapter begins. The research in this thesis is illustrated with chapters 2, 3 and 4 as parallel instead of the sequential flow diagrams in the traditional doctoral thesis. This is done to indicate the research philosophy of this research and to reflect the iterative process of knowledge development followed in this thesis, where these three chapters inform each other and build together towards the conclusion.

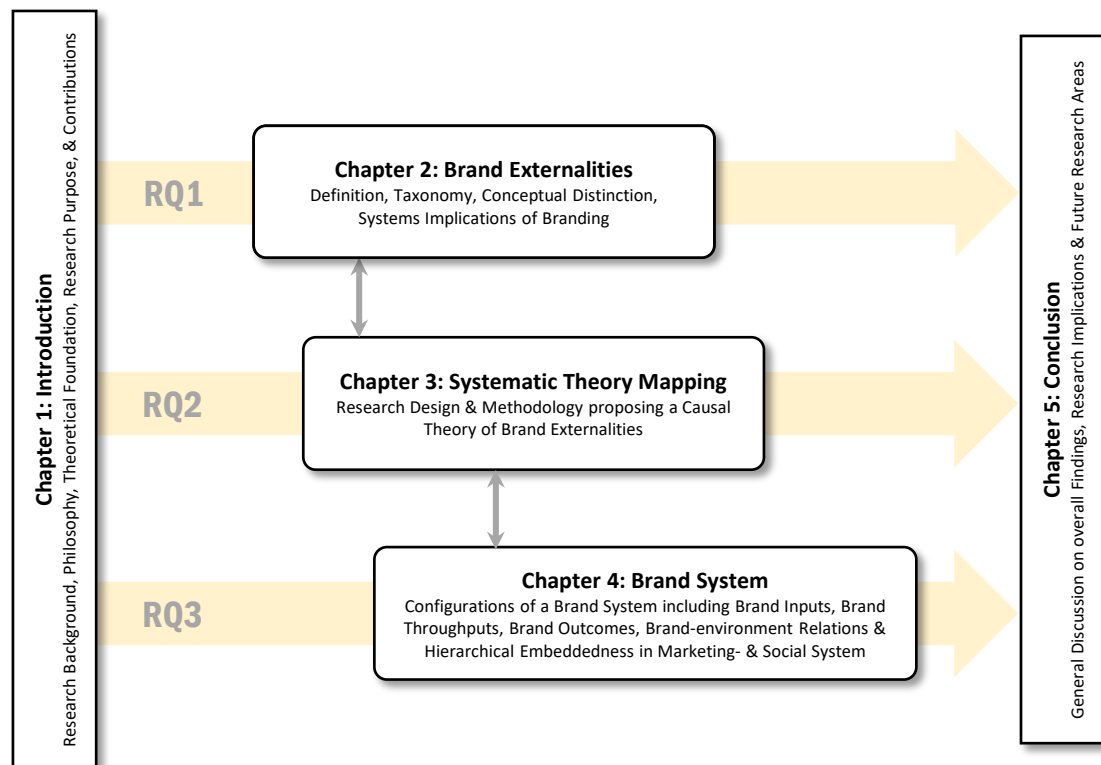


Figure 1.2 Overview of the Thesis

Chapter 2 addresses the first research question and conceptualises brand externalities. It presents a taxonomy of brand externalities and indicates that branding affects not just the brand exchange dyads (firms and consumers), but also the social actors around the brand exchange dyad as well as the entire social system in the short- and long-run. Chapter 3 presents *Systematic Theory Mapping* as a comprehensive and systematic method to unravel the causal complexity of real-world phenomena. The usefulness of this method is demonstrated in deciphering the causal complexity of brand externalities. This chapter addresses the second research question in this thesis and contributes a causal theory of brand externalities. Chapter 4 provides an integrated brand systems framework that accounts for brand externalities as a potential outcome in addition to brand value formation. The proposed framework addresses the final research question of this thesis and accounts for the non-linear dynamic process of branding, including brand inputs, throughputs and outcomes within the complex hierarchical branding environment situated within the marketing system and social system at the aggregated macro-level. Chapter 5, based on the contributions and conclusions in each of the manuscripts (chapters 2, 3, and 4), draws an overarching conclusion by summarising the key findings and relating them to each of the research questions and discussing theoretical, practical, and methodological implications and opportunities for future research.

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PREFACE TO CHAPTER 2: CONTRIBUTIONS

This chapter addresses research question 1 in this thesis, as illustrated below. It defines brand externalities and provides a taxonomy respectively.

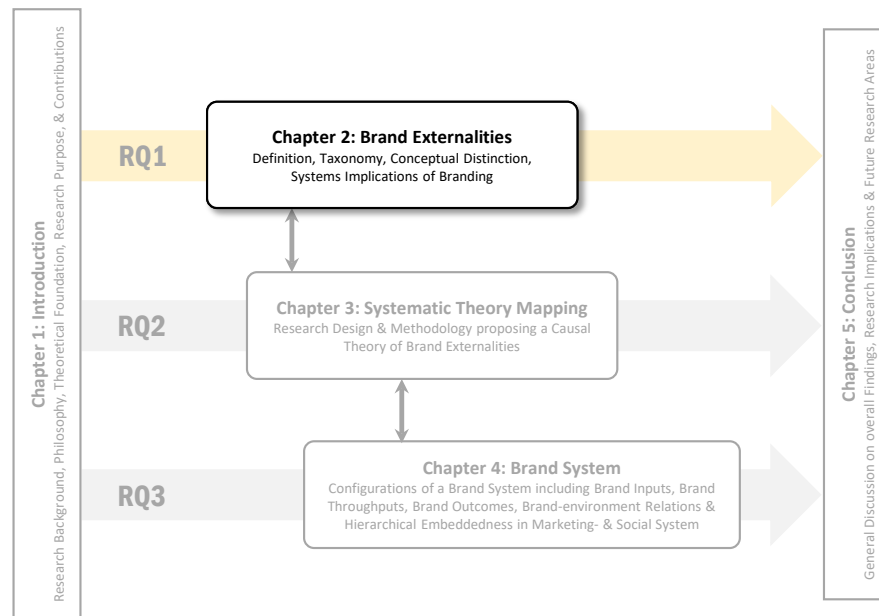


Figure 1.2 Overview of the Thesis

The conceptualisation of brand externalities is achieved by analysing brands as (i) marketing systems, (ii) agents of value co-creation, and (iii) agents of value co-destruction. The extant literature from economics, marketing and branding is reviewed to evaluate the intentional and unintentional consequences of branding on different brand actors. Subsequently, the taxonomy is developed that identifies the social consequences of branding as:

Brand Congestion Externalities	Brand Friction Externalities
Brand Junction Externalities	Chronic Brand Externalities

The taxonomy provides a framework to connect the brand exchange dyad to the social system actors beyond the brand exchange sphere. It delineates the micro-macro relationship between brands and society and establishes branding as a macro-systems phenomenon. Scholars may use the taxonomy to conceptualise frameworks that better inform the management of contemporary brand systems; and managers may use this taxonomy to identify and understand the consequences of their actions and determine the holistic value outcome.

Chapter 2: BRAND EXTERNALITIES

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2.1 Abstract

Brands are ubiquitous and adorn contemporary marketing systems. Modern branding practices spawn contradictory social mechanisms, value co-creation and value co-destruction. This paper considers the societal implications, including personal, psychological, social, ecological, and economic consequences of branding. It posits brand externalities as meaning-led discrepancies and symbolic spill-overs igniting mechanisms detrimental to the integrity of the social system. Brand externalities accompany the assortment of brands in contemporary marketing systems. We propose a taxonomy of brand externalities and elucidate societal consequences of branding upon brand exchange actors themselves, their immediate others, future others and general others. This stakeholder orientation sets a future research agenda and calls for redefining branding from the system's perspective.

Keywords

Brand, Externalities, Marketing System, Ethics, Macromarketing, Value Co-Creation, Value Co-Destruction, Social Consequences

2.2 Introduction

Macromarketing is the study of exchange systems (Meade & Nason, 1991). Market failure occurs, to some extent, in every market exchange (Harris & Carman, 1983). Though market failure occurs for many reasons, its ubiquity indicates inefficiency and imbalance in the goal achievement of exchange actors leading to, often unforeseen and undesirable, consequences. The social consequences of marketing (Nason, 1989) and externalities (Mundt, 1993) are not new to macromarketing, but brands have received little attention, despite branding ubiquity being recognized (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Levy & Luedicke, 2013; O'Reilly, 2006).

Conejo and Wooliscroft (2015a, p. 287) defined brands as “semiotic marketing systems that generate value for direct and indirect participants, society, and the broader

environment, through the exchange of co-created meaning.” Brands are socio-cultural phenomena (Heller & Kelly, 2015) and symbolic structures of the marketing system (Kadirov & Varey, 2011). Layton (2015, p. 306) recommended that macromarketers recognize “the significance of meaning and symbol generation in the study of marketing system formation, growth, and adaptation.” Brands are commodified meanings (Hatch & Rubin, 2006; O’Reilly, 2006), and dissemination of meaningful information is associated with both positive and negative externalities (Bomsel, 2013).

Brands are known to provide opportunities for sellers and buyers and contribute to the quality of life (Chevalier & Mazzalovo, 2003). The critical paradigm of branding research, on the contrary, extensively criticizes contemporary branding practices; it articulates that brands pose social consequences characterized by, often adverse, market trade-offs (Schroeder, 2017). Brands may be at the centre of concerns like the hidden costs of human choices (Laczniak, 2017; Nason, 1989), miscalculations in exchange equations (Mundt, 1993), market imbalances due to changing assortment diversity (Layton & Duan, 2015), social mechanisms generated by field participants (Layton, 2015), macromarketing ethics and distributive justice (Ferrell and Ferrell 2008), and lack of sustainability in marketing systems (Peterson, 2012). These concerns necessitate a study of the social impacts of branding from the system’s perspective. While this paper analyses literature from economics, marketing, and branding, it extends the extant conceptualizations of brands and externalities to evaluate the societal consequences emerging from branding practices. The objectives are to:

- (1) propose a taxonomy of brand externalities,
- (2) establish contemporary branding as a macro-system’s phenomenon, and
- (3) develop an agenda for future research.

The “social externalities” that impact people are an essential macromarketing concern (Fisk, 1981, p. 5). The taxonomy of brand externalities draws a symbolic path dependence among stakeholders over time and space in a brand system. It demarcates the ethical choices from the systemic anomalies emerging from branding. This paper views the brand-society relationship in a new light and builds a foundation to redefine the managerial practice of branding from the system’s approach. In doing so, this paper contributes new perspectives for better governance in contemporary brand systems, addressing moral and ethical dilemmas, concerns of distributive justice and sustainability, and complex choices encountered by public policy makers.

2.3 Dynamics of Contemporary Branding

To exhibit the societal consequences from contemporary branding, brands are positioned into three dominant perspectives: as marketing systems, as an agency for value co-creation, and an agency for value co-destruction.

2.3.1 Brands as Marketing Systems

“The business of marketing is to place meaningful assortments in the hands of consumers” (Alderson, 1965, p. 27), and the output of a marketing system is an assortment that may be tangible or intangible (Layton, 2007). Brands merge tangible commodities with intangible meanings as representational and cultural texts (Hatch & Rubin, 2006; O'Reilly, 2005).

Layton (2015) described that system stakeholders bring certain social mechanisms into action when individual micromarketing systems form. These social mechanisms, may be positive or negative, often fail in optimizing value for the macro-system. Brands can be viewed as micro-systems, in the complex network of meso- and macro-marketing systems. They have the potential to trigger social mechanisms like value co-creation and concurrently, value co-destruction (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018). A brand system, like Layton's (2007) marketing systems, can be defined as a micro-system of semiotic assortments encompassing social mechanisms like value co-creation and/or co-destruction. These social mechanisms are generated by system stakeholders (brand exchange actors and non-participating stakeholders) within branding-action fields.

2.3.2 Brands as Agency for Value Co-Creation

Brands are multidimensional constructs. Brands and branding are used in different contexts and involve a variety of stakeholders (Diamond et al., 2009; Hatch & Rubin, 2006). Table 2.1 summarizes the dominant conceptualizations and different stakeholders' views of brands.

Table 2.1 Dominant Conceptualisations of Brands

Stakeholders	Fundamental Idea (brands as)	Relevant Literature
For Firms	a strategic and financial asset	Kapferer (2008)
	a medium for product differentiation	Davies and Chun (2003)
	relationship partners	Fournier (1998)
	product coordinators for utility enhancement	Rahinel and Redden (2013)
	competitive shields by (1) reducing price elasticity of demand and, (2) increasing advertising elasticity of demand	Keller and Lehmann (2006)
For Consumers	a source of legal protection	Gillespie et al. (2002)
	a tool for crisis management	Rea et al. (2014)
	a source of personal expression	Chernev et al. (2011)
	a meaning and identity system for self-construal	Escalas and Bettman (2005)
	a symbol of wealth and status	Nelissen and Meijers (2011)
For Society	heuristic device to simplify choice	Keller (1998)
	invoke purchase confidence and reduce unwanted consumption anxiety	Hoeffler and Keller (2003)
	a system that communicates social values and aspirations	Holt (2003)
	a factor of progress	Chevalier and Mazzalovo (2003)
	a source of value through exchange of co-created meanings	Conejo and Wooliscroft (2015a)
	a means to achieve altruistic objectives	Naidoo and Abratt (2018)

Brands are social and perceptual processes (Berthon & Pitt, 2018). Contemporary branding literature regards a brand as a platform for mediation of marketplace interactions (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018; Wilson, 2006) and a dynamic sociocultural phenomenon that attunes multiple stakeholders co-creating brand value (Brodie et al., 2017; Merz et al., 2009). This is in line with the stakeholder-unifying, value co-creation philosophy (Lusch & Webster, 2011; Vargo & Lusch, 2004) and the organic view of the brand (Iglesias et al., 2013).

Brand value, co-created within the micro-domain of consumers and firms, aggregates at the macro-level and articulates social benefits. Hilton (2003) argued that while branding empowers the non-profit sector to advance social value, it produces social surplus even through the commercial sector. Branding establishes public and non-profit organisations as social arbiters, strengthens stakeholder relationships, expedites access to charity and donations, enables provision of social services and serves a reliable and credible platform, with no commercial gains, for positive social change (Leijerholt et al., 2019; Stride & Lee, 2007).

Commercially, brands garner income and growth certainty for firms, foster sustainable levels of employment and wealth creation, and contribute to the economic growth (Corrado & Hao, 2014). Brands stimulate socially beneficial innovation and improve individual and community life (Brexendorf et al., 2015). Higher brand value puts greater pressure for corporate social leadership and responsibility, harnessing positive social change. Brands are “a great ally of social progress” and promote social cohesion nationally and globally, “by enabling shared participation in aspirational and democratic narratives” (Hilton, 2003, p. 48).

2.3.3 Brands as Agency of Value Co-Destruction

Within the critical paradigm of branding research (Arvidsson, 2005; Schroeder, 2017), debate on the social impact of branding is ongoing (Isaksen & Roper, 2008, 2012; Kozinets & Handelman, 2004), and the ethical and moral concerns are frequently raised (Fan, 2005; Salzer-Mörling & Strannegård, 2007). Scholars extensively criticize the superficiality of consumer culture and express discontent with contemporary branding practices (see Table 2.2). This paper builds on and argues that branding creates consequences more profound than previously recognized.

Table 2.2 Criticism on Branding Practices

Literature	Criticism
Holt (2002)	Brands “ allow companies to dodge civic obligations” (p. 88)
Holt (2006b)	Brands are capitalists’ weapon to profit from consumer anxieties and “ poignant symbols” (p. 300) that mark the rendezvous for consumerism and capitalism
O’ Reilly (2006)	Brands are “ meanings staged, enacted, performed, or danced to the music of the cash register” (p. 268)
Klein (1999)	Brands have colonized social life
Ashton and Pressey (2011)	Branding enables corporates to hold an anti-competitive stance and cause several regulatory challenges by: (1) commanding excessive prices (2) creating artificial barriers to entry (3) imposing undue restrictions on supply chain partners (4) causing consumer disempowerment by limiting choice and instigating confusion
Sandner and Block (2011)	Branding imposes hefty overheads forcing toward inflated prices
Birnik et al. (2010)	Branding-led competitive advantage is short lived
Rennstam (2013)	Branding consumes discursive human resources
Goldman and Papson (2006)	Branding serves merely short-term capitalist interests but wreaks long-term consequences on culture and values within a market causing “ ideological instability and referential confusion” (p. 350)
Kipnis et al. (2013)	Branding may aggravate consumers’ vulnerability
Arvidsson (2005) Cova and Dalli (2009)	Branding engages consumers in the unpaid labour under the vice of identity creation projects
Isaksen and Roper (2012)	Branding commodifies self-esteem and diffuses materialism and individualism in society

Branding may destroy civic and social values through discursive closure and organized hypocrisy (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018). Dove's campaign for real beauty was denounced for discursive closure as it supposedly attempted to conceal corporate aims by associating social problems with the corporate image (Bissell & Rask, 2010; Murray, 2013). McDonald's was accused of hypocrisy when it expanded into hospitals promoting a high in fat, sugar, and salt diet within sick children's spaces (Botterill & Kline, 2007). Similarly, HSBC investing in an organization accused of causing deforestation while claiming to be concerned about the planet was hypocritical (Woolley, 2010). These examples reflect value-destruction for society and spark anti-brand activism.

Anti-brand sentiments and consumer resistance spur an ideological tension in the consumption system (Kozinets & Handelman, 2004), contributing to value-destruction. Such value co-destruction demands new conceptualizations of brand authenticity (e.g., Kadirov et al., 2014) and poses a challenge for firms and society.

The parallel brand conceptualizations put branding at the heart of the problem. Authorities find it difficult to objectify branding and regulate brand misconduct (Ashton & Pressey, 2011). Value co-destruction predominantly highlights a gap in marketing theory and branding practice. Concerns like corporate social responsibility (Torelli et al., 2012), branding and sustainability (Dauvergne & Lister, 2012), conscientious corporate brands (Rindell et al., 2011) and social and consumer well-being (Kipnis et al., 2013) repeatedly appear without conceptualizing brand externalities. This gap offers an opportunity to explore the externalities branding inflict upon society, addressing the phenomenon from a system-wide stakeholder perspective, at the micro- and macro-level.

2.4 Externalities

Externalities are addressed in several ways in macromarketing literature (see Table 2.3).

Economists restrict the concept of externalities to the effects of exchange on parties external to the price mechanism (Baumol & Oates, 1988; Hartwick & Olewiler, 1986). In macromarketing, Nason (1989) and Mundt (1993) argued that externalities could accrue to the exchange actors too. Exchange and externalities are fundamentally tied, and this paper builds on the inclusive idea of externalities to understand the hidden costs of human decisions in the contemporary brand system. Externalities, occurring in production and consumption situations (Hartwick & Olewiler, 1986), are the uncalculated costs and benefits of exchange, accruing to the transacting parties themselves and/or parties external to the transaction (Mundt, 1993; Nason, 1989).

Table 2.3 'Externalities' Concepts in Macromarketing

Authors	Description	Terminology
Harris and Carman (1983)	Side effects of consumption or production accruing to the subjects of exchange (first parties)	Internalities
	Side effects of consumption or production accruing to the individuals not subject to the exchange (third parties)	Externalities
Nason (1989)	Foreseen and unforeseen effects of market transactions accruing to both first and third parties	Social consequences
Mundt (1993)	Uncalculated outcomes of exchange accruing to both first and third parties	Externalities
Cadeaux (2000)	Expected and unexpected effects of consumption on non-users (third parties)	Externalities
	Unexpected effects of consumption on users (first parties)	Consumption surprises
Laczniak (2017)	Identifiable effects of market choices to others (third parties)	Externalities
	Unforeseen effects of market choices to exchange actors (first parties)	Internal unintended consequences (UCs)
	Unforeseen effects of market choices to others (third parties)	External unintended consequences (UCs)/Externalities
Lusch (2017)	Massive unseen costs and rewards of exchange	Externalities
Redmond (2018)	Unanticipated costs of exchange born by exchange parties (first parties)	Internalities
	Unanticipated costs of exchange born by non-transacting parties (third parties)	Externalities

In economics, externalities are shown to emerge from poorly defined property rights (Baumol & Oates, 1988; Demsetz, 1964). Dahlman (1979) states that transaction costs, encompassing imperfect information, are the exclusive source of externalities, and all potential exchange interactions involve some transaction costs (Buchanan, 1973). A principle social cause of externality is the dominant market mentality (Swaney, 1981), where the individuals' responsibility to themselves supersede their responsibility to society (Wheaton, 1972). Marketing theory agrees with the social and individual goal conflict as consumer behavior is primarily "guided by the principle of self-interest" (Nason, 1989, p. 244).

Bator (1958) identified that many externalities are like public goods. They possess a common property characteristic and joint consumption interaction (Buchanan, 1973). This led to categorizing externalities as public and private based on their undepletable and depletable nature, respectively (Baumol & Oates, 1988; Hartwick & Olewiler, 1986). Private externalities are typically found in the dyadic micro-exchange. They do not spill over to a large scale and barely constitute policy implications. Public externalities, causing public bad, are macromarketing issues and major policy concerns.

Traditionally, economists classify externalities as technological (non-pecuniary) and pecuniary (Baumol & Oates, 1988; Scitovsky, 1971). Technological externalities are the direct effects of the actions of economic agents on the utility of other economic agents, whereas pecuniary externalities occur through the price mechanism or transactional links. Scitovsky (1971) offers a comprehensive typology of technological externalities useful in understanding their differential nature and analyzing their micro- and macro-implications. Several commonalities can be deduced from the economic and marketing conceptualizations of externalities (see Table 2.4).

Table 2.4 Economic and Marketing Conceptualizations of Externalities

Externalities	Scitovsky (1971)	Baumol and Oates (1988) Hartwick and Olewiler (1986)	Mundt (1993) Nason (1989)
Concerns of Self-infliction	Capacity Externalities	Private Externalities	Direct Effects (1 st and 2 nd Party Effects)
Concerns for Immediate Others	Nuisance Externalities		
Concerns for Future Others	Supply Externalities	Public Externalities	Indirect Effects (3 rd Party and Society)
Concerns for General Others	Environmental Externalities		

Capacity externality results from the limited capacity of resources in the short term, e.g., an overcrowded theatre due to the fixed seating capacity (Scitovsky, 1971) or the road congestion due to the limited capacity of a highway (Verhoef, 2002). This externality personifies the externality producer simultaneously as the externality consumer. Nason's (1989) foreseeable and unforeseeable first-party effects somewhat overlap capacity externalities where imperfections in market structure, information, and analysis cause transacting parties to suffer.

Nuisance externality is the neighborhood effect where the externality is inflicted upon third parties and citizens around the transaction. Mundt (1993) identified neighborhood citizens as second parties and identifiable third parties, for example, externality from smoking affecting non-smokers. This externality relates to Nason's (1989) foreseeable third-party effects and occurs from the lack of goodwill and welfare concern for immediate others. Since these externalities are usually foreseeable, they receive the most attention when disregarded by transacting parties.

Supply externality is the long run counterpart of capacity externality. It results from using non-renewable resources, the fixed capacity of which in the long run, would inflict undesirable consequences on future others. The existing generation obtains benefits from the non-renewable resources at the cost of the welfare of all future generations.

Environmental externality combines capacity and supply externalities and refers to the infliction of present and future generations as the aggregated society in the short and long run, e.g., air and water pollution, climate change, ill-effects of technology explosion, etc. It results from the lack of concern for general others and constitutes the harsh reality of modern-day excessive consumption culture (Wooliscroft & Ganglmair-Wooliscroft, 2018). These effects are the aggregation phenomenon. They emerge from the physical and/or social interdependence of economic agents generating new complexities which are inconceivable from the micro-analytic theory (Krupp, 1963). Nason (1989) addressed supply and environmental externalities as the indirect effects to all others, including foreseeable and unforeseeable effects. Their root causes include aggregation of micro-transactions, a shift in the social values and morals, and changes in the economic and technological environments (Mundt, 1993; Nason, 1989).

2.5 Micro-Macro Relationship of Brands and Society

Macromarketing literature identifies that dyadic, micro-level interactions, activities, and decisions of stakeholders aggregate into complexities at the macro-level (Bone & Corey,

1992; Redmond, 2018; Rittenburg & Parthasarathy, 1997). Branding is one such activity produced and consumed supposedly within the firm and consumer dyad without any regard to its (dys)functional consequences on society.

Brand externalities reflect a symbolic path dependence among stakeholders beyond the brand exchange dyad. The symbolic path dependence in brand exchange proliferates minor influences into macro-social mechanisms over time and space. These social mechanisms establish brand externalities as a system's phenomenon due to the interdependence of social actors and the aggregation of the individual attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors.

Externalities are frequently described as a system's problem (Laczniak, 2017; Meade & Nason, 1991). Krupp (1963) argued that externalities are a function of aggregates emerging beyond a boundary. Callon (1998) takes a similar stance and explains externalities, as overflows, from a sociological perspective. The overflows emerge as a failure in the framing process where either it is impossible to frame the behavior (virtual impossibility of assigning property rights), or the frame is purposefully transgressed by agents involved (disregarding the welfare of others).

Bertilsson and Rennstam (2018) produced an inter- and intra-world critique on branding. Brands create value in the market world, but the spill-over sabotages value in the same (regarded here as *brand congestion*) or other worlds of fame, industrial, civic, domestic, inspired, and green worlds (as other *brand externalities*). Mittelstaedt et al. (2006, p. 131) stated, "The actions of market participants have consequences far beyond the boundaries of firms." Brand externalities link contemporary marketing systems (market world) with stakeholders beyond the system (in other worlds) and acknowledge the symbolic path dependence in brand exchange.

Fournier (1998, p. 366) argues that brands holistically articulate their relationship with consumers both at the micro- and macro-level and stresses the "consideration of the larger whole in which that [consumer-brand] relationship is embedded." Brands are cultural resources (Holt, 2002), a culture cynosure (Diamond et al., 2009) that leave impressions beyond the scope of the marketing system into the wider context of the economy, society, culture, and even the global ideoscape (Wilson, 2006).

In line with Kadirov and Varey (2011) and Conejo and Wooliscroft (2015a), it is asserted that brands are semiotic marketing systems or symbolic characters of marketing system assortments, and brand externalities are the symbolic spill-overs accompanying brands within marketing systems.

2.6 Contrasting Product and Brand Externalities

The idea that brands go beyond the product is well established (Brodie et al., 2017; Iglesias et al., 2013; Kornum et al., 2017; Merz et al., 2009). A brand is “a mental representation” (Stern, 2006, p. 219), residing in consumers’ brand schema (Berthon & Pitt, 2018), emotionally and cognitively coded in memory (Gordon, 2002), as an associative neural network, an engram (Batey, 2016). These conceptualizations dematerialize the brand from its material assortment, contingencies, and hybrids (Manning, 2010). “Brands have transcended products” (Conejo & Wooliscroft, 2015b, p. 393), and so do the externalities originating from them.

A distinct contrast between product and brand externalities may not always be possible, but there are two attributes that differentiate between them. The first relates to brand semiotics and symbolism, and the second is the interaction effect that encompasses the extent of product externalities in the context of branding.

Research has largely ignored the externalities emerging from the relational, cultural and social processes that cultivate subjective brand meanings. While brands are consumption objects, like commodities, they are suffused with social and cultural expression (Heller & Kelly, 2015; O'Reilly, 2005). “The social and expressive value of these marks [brands] can create externalities that overstep the marketplace of goods, and instead spill over into the marketplace of ideas” (Katyal, 2010, p. 1621).

Brand externalities are symbolic and expressive influences distinctly evident in pharmaceutical brands. Pharmaceutical brands provide greater learning opportunities and objectivity to evaluate products in terms of efficacy, side effects, contraindications etc. Within a therapeutic class, consumers’ (physicians’ and/or patients’) preference for Zantac (as opposed to Tagamet, Axid, or Pepcid), despite similar therapeutic (functional) effects, is attributed to brand-specific consumption externality (Berndt et al., 2003). The behavioural response from the brand stimuli, beyond product objectivity, is a brand externality.

A negative externality, from brand symbolism, may take the form of “emotional harm, reputational damage, or misinformation about a certain group or person” (Katyal, 2010, p. 1632). In Australia and France, for example, Starbucks was perceived as a bully of local café culture. The brand violated cultural heritage, communal solidarity, aesthetic and social authenticity, and patronage of local diversity (Bryson & Atwal, 2019; CNBC, 2018; Patterson et al., 2010). It ignited communal aversion, even in US, due to the externalities

embedded in “the feelings of cynicism, alienation, disenchantment, and disempowerment that could result from the increasingly ubiquitous presence” of the global giant (Thompson & Arsel, 2004, p. 639).

The interaction of branding and product externalities, as an aggregation phenomenon, provides another configuration for brand externalities. Brand externality is the experience effect established from brand recognition (Ohe & Kurihara, 2013). This experience effect would be lower with a lower brand recognition. Hilton (2003, p. 49) argued that “without brands, producers of consumer goods would have been limited to selling their products to a small pool of local customers.” Branding provides a cultural logic to commodities, often antithetical to the ideals of the commodity itself (Wilk, 2006). This cultural logic fosters modern capitalism, an era of excess consumption, that intensifies associated positive and negative externalities (Wooliscroft & Ganglmair-Wooliscroft, 2018).

2.7 A Taxonomy of Brand Externalities

Brands provide consumption with meaning but perpetrate ramifications on targeted segments, as well as consumers external to the intended domain (Fan, 2005). Drawing from the discussion on branding dynamics and externalities, we define brand externalities, under the system’s perspective, as:

the discounted system component (brand variable) with no explicit utility value, in an exchange actor’s (consumer or firm)’s brand consumption or production function, over which the actor has no control and the magnitude of which is determined by some other actor or component in the brand system.

This paper proposes a taxonomy of brand externalities (Table 2.5) deduced from diverse externality conceptualizations discussed in Table 2.4. The taxonomy identifies a symbolic path dependence among system stakeholders that creates social trade-offs and consequences beyond the micro-domain of this managerial activity.

Table 2.5 Taxonomy of Brand Externalities

Brand Congestion Externalities	concerns of self-infliction	<p>Positive network effects for consumers including functional, emotional, psychological and social fulfilment.</p> <p>Negative network effects including normative pressure, reactance, diminishing marginal brand value.</p> <p>Positive network effects for firms including higher consumer willingness-to-pay and competitive advantage.</p> <p>Negative network effects including market fragmentation, rapid competitor take-offs, financial effects.</p> <p>Consumer-to-firm effects including consumer resistance and anti-brand actions.</p> <p>Firm-to-consumer effects including manipulation, deception, greenwashing, targeting vulnerabilities etc.</p>
Brand Friction Externalities	concerns for immediate others	<p>Interpersonal and intrapersonal pressures, social exclusion, undermined social relationships on second parties to consumers.</p> <p>Governance issues with channel partners and employees of firms.</p>
Brand Junction Externalities	concerns for future others	<p>Implications on social welfare, psychological development, physical health and well-being and behavioural intentions and outcomes for children.</p>
Chronic Brand Externalities	concerns for general others	<p>Environmental disservice, physical and psychological disturbances, behaviour alterations, vulnerability exacerbation, social discomfort, materialism within society in the short and long run.</p>

2.7.1 Brand Congestion Externalities

Brand congestion involves first-party effects – the phenomenon concerning *self-infliction* – where stakeholders, within the brand exchange dyad, influence the brand value for themselves and/or their counterparts intentionally or unintentionally.

Brand congestion stems from network externalities¹. It shows that brands, like network markets, are limited in their capacity to provide value and meaning to respective stakeholders. It is sub-categorized based on the affected and affecting stakeholders (see Figure 1).

		Affecting Stakeholder	
		Consumer	Firm
Affected Stakeholder	Consumer	Consumer-to-Consumer Brand Congestion	Firm-to-Consumer Brand Congestion
	Firm	Consumer-to-Firm Brand Congestion	Firm-to-Firm Brand Congestion

Figure 2.1 Brand Congestion Externalities

Consumer-to-consumer interactions create positive brand externalities when the brand, as an intangible network, has higher brand equity. This phenomenon is manifested when consumers of a brand transpose into a “structured set of relationships” called brand community (Muniz & O’Guinn, 2001, p. 412). Consumers seek emotional and psychological fulfillment through peer approval, affective association, and belongingness; and utilitarian fulfillment through sharing information, assistance, and participative rewards. Brand community members share values and ethical surplus, the value “produced by ethics, or by the ability to install affectively significant relations” (Arvidsson, 2011, p. 273).

Brand community membership may simultaneously exert negative externalities as *consumer-to-consumer brand congestion*. Algesheimer et al. (2005) determined that active brand community engagement breeds normative community pressure. Consumers experience an obligatory burden to publicly comply with the community’s norms, especially if public display of brand acceptance differs from private enthusiasm for the brand. It may cause cognitive dissonance, a mental stress, characterised with reactance and negative behavioural intentions toward membership continuance, participation,

recommendation and loyalty. For this reason, subgroups – founders, insiders, regulars and newcomers – identified in NBRO (Nike related community in Copenhagen, Denmark) display different degrees of social ties and conformity to the brand community norms and rituals (Kornum et al., 2017). Active engagement in one brand community intensifies a negative predisposition toward rivals within the community and members of rival brand communities. Consumers may indulge in ridicule, negative stereotyping, derogatory remarks, and trash-talking (Ewing et al., 2013). These behaviors create a negative externality on the social standing of brand consumers themselves, as others may feel repugnant and avoid association with them.

Consumer-to-consumer brand congestion is also manifested as a crowding effect causing dilution of value perceived in brands. Typically, an extensive market presence and higher market share are linked with positive market outcomes (Arthur, 1996; Caminal & Vives, 1996). Several brands accentuate their leadership position for this reason, e.g., Head & Shoulders claims to be *World's No. 1 Antidandruff Shampoo*, and Gillette promotes as *The Best a Man Can Get*. Contrarily, Hellofs and Jacobson (1999) and Rego et al. (2013) reported a negative relationship between market share and consumers' quality perception and satisfaction, indicating a diminished perceived value. Brand value is often linked with exclusivity. When a brand becomes cliched in the market, the consumer desire for uniqueness and prestige gets violated, and brand utility starts dwindling. Every additional consumer adopting the brand compresses brand value unknowingly for self and other brand consumers (Ewing et al., 2009). The market price seemingly fails to reflect a consumer's marginal brand utility for oneself and other consumers, causing the disadvantage in brand buying and use.

Firm-to-firm brand congestion may also result from consumer interactions. Consumer interactions are not always brand specific and may not result in positive network externalities for innovator brands. Brand-based consumer interactions favor innovators by reinforcing their competitive advantage. The higher expectation of larger network size, due to rising market competition, increases all consumers' willingness-to-pay. The former monopolist benefits from the stronger effect of consumer willingness-to-pay over the effect of competition entering the market (Economides, 1996). This positive externality fosters the competitive position of innovators over followers. Conversely, cross-brand communication among consumers of the product category becomes a positive externality for followers. It reduces their take-off time (Libai et al., 2009), creating a negative externality, a source of congestion, for innovator brands. This mechanism is evident in the

success of smartphones by Samsung and other brands following the launch of the iPhone. Similarly, Google achieving brand leadership, despite Yahoo and MSN launched over two years earlier, may also be somewhat attributed to it.

Market fragmentation is another source of *brand congestion* for firms. Every new brand differentially splits the market, diminishing the perceived difference between brands. It reduces brand value and returns on branding. It also has a chilling effect on the net present value of a new brand. This is due to the influence of the initial wait-and-see scenario of consumers, breeding a slow diffusion of the new brand during the introduction phase, followed by fast growth in later stages (Goldenberg et al., 2010). Congestion from poor financial implications and slow adoption of the innovator brand may threaten their survival duration. It facilitates followers contributing to the higher rate of the innovator failures (Srinivasan et al., 2004).

Consumer-to-firm and *firm-to-consumer brand congestion* broadly encompass effects imposed by brand exchange partners – firms and consumers – on each other. *Consumer-to-firm brand congestion* occurs when consumers engage in complaining, ridicule, negative word-of-mouth, and other anti-brand actions. It leads to the firm losing more than a group of dissatisfied customers. Similarly, *firm-to-consumer brand congestion* occurs when corporate actions, undermining ethical concerns, perpetrate externalities on consumers. Corporate actions, like targeting vulnerable consumers, attractive packaging of hazardous products, and decorative packaging for children (Bone & Corey, 1992; Rittenburg & Parthasarathy, 1997), may result in wider social consequences. Brands, like Benetton and The Body Shop, are blamed for emotionally exploiting vulnerable consumers by utilizing social (external) atrocities in their corporate-image work (Muhr & Rehn, 2014).

When corporate interests supersede social citizenship in brand exchange, *brand congestion* is entrenched. Activities, like disguising brand-sponsored messages as anonymous word-of-mouth in web-based blogs, paid celebrity endorsements as spontaneous word-of-mouth, and using brand pushers to deliver commercial messages as customer-oriented experiences (Magnini, 2011), comprise firms intentionally exerting externalities. Wal-Mart (Gogoi, 2006), McDonald's (Siebert, 2006), and Dr. Pepper (Kaikati & Kaikati, 2004) allegedly disguised brand-sponsored messages in web-based blogs. Sony Ericsson (Martin & Smith, 2008) and Blackberry (Osterhout, 2010) used brand pushers to get unsuspecting consumers to try the product. Amgen Inc. and Wyeth paid the actress Kathleen Turner to promote a website marketing drug-brand Enbrel (Kaikati & Kaikati, 2004). Similarly, using corporate

social responsibility as a disguise to conceal questionable corporate activities, like Enron before its demise (Fan, 2005), and using emotional appeal as a surrogate for concrete product information (Caccamo, 2009), also represent *brand congestion*. Automobile brands, MG Rover in the UK, Mitsubishi Diamante, and Ford XR8 in New Zealand, increased the likelihood of accidents by inciting young drivers with the adrenaline rush in their brand communications (Jones, 2007).

Brand congestion from deceptive branding reduces customers' individual and social welfare. It propagates negative consequences like dwindling confidence, erosion of trust, denigrated self-esteem, and heightened suspicion in commercial relationships and potential personal interactions (Martin & Smith, 2008). The most vocal and enthusiastic brand advocates become the worst misanthropists of the brand (Thomson et al., 2012), especially if the brand is highly self-relevant (Johnson et al., 2011).

2.7.2 Brand Friction Externalities

Brand friction constitutes second-party effects – the social consequences of branding on *immediate others* – where branding influences subjects, not within the brand exchange dyad, but neighboring it.

The immediate others to brand consumers may include their friends and family, neighbors, colleagues, and others, who are not directly involved in the brand exchange. *Brand friction* is prominent during interactions between people from different social strata because friendships are often based on belongings causing social discrimination and exclusion. Roper and Shah (2007) reported bullying, teasing, and stereotyping based on brand consumption among children in Kenyan and British schools. Children not possessing the right brands found it difficult to fit in. They were frequently labeled as “poor quality people” (p. 719), “un-cool” (p. 720), and “out-groups” (p. 721). This interpersonal pressure causes inferiority complex and deprives children of the value of community and belonging. It prompts the feeling of resentment in them toward their parents. Parents, in turn, suffer from guilt owing to the victimization of their children. Ritzer (2004) discussed that brands undermine relationships within families and other social relationships. Highly branded work environments, especially service encounters, restrict customer-worker and worker-worker interactions creating externalities of poor personal and professional relationships.

Immediate others to firms include stakeholders like employees, suppliers, distributors, and retailers of brands, who may not be the potential brand buyers, but get exposed to the power of brands. The critical analysis of McDonald's brand journey describes the havoc brands

can wreak over their immediate stakeholders (Botterill & Kline, 2007). McDonald's is accused of exploiting young and immigrant workers by keeping wages low and demanding non-unionization, stringent productivity, and flexibility in labor hours supplied. Ritzer (2004) criticized fast-food brands like McDonald's and Burger King for establishing robot-like work settings, utilizing a minimal set of skills, neglecting skill development, and discouraging creative thinking. This contributes to job dissatisfaction, high employee turnover, and poor well-being.

Vertical restraints in the brand supply chain form another aspect of *brand friction*. It includes restrictive distribution agreements for prime shelf space, full-line forcing, sole distribution, and change in the retail atmosphere to reflect the brand image. Buying agreements with component manufacturers enforcing usage of their brand name in component manufacturing and consequent eclipsing of the corporate reputation of suppliers is a testimony of brands executing their power over supply-chain partners (Ashton & Pressey, 2011). Starbucks' efforts to suppress Ethiopian coffee producers' trademark applications through industry lobbyists, depriving them of the value they are generating, is not just a matter of exploiting supply partners; it questions the ethical and moral credibility of the corporate (Faris, 2007).

2.7.3 Brand Junction Externalities

Brand junction addresses third-party effects – the social consequences of branding on *future others* – where the present brand-fostered consumer culture influences the welfare of children limiting the progression of future generations.

Brand junction follows the contention that “today's consumption causes tomorrow's externality” (Meade & Nason, 1991, p. 81). Branding typically resonates with children. It has a tremendous impact on their psychological development and socialization. Formulation of child-brand relationships commences at an early age (Ji, 2002). Young children view brands perceptually, whereas more conceptual interpretations occur while growing up (Achenreiner & John, 2003).

Brands are more than a source of fun and entertainment for children. They are used as a passport to the membership of aspirational groups, to seek value for money, quality in consumption, and reinforce gender/class/ethnic/etc., identity. Children re-enact brand narratives in their social environments (Nairn et al., 2008). The American Girl epitomizes ordinary dolls with historical and personal stories. It illustrates social values reinforced by

the intergenerational engagement of grandmothers, mothers, and daughters at the American Girl Place and personal spaces where “these personal narratives are then redacted, recirculated, and replayed” (Diamond et al., 2009, p. 131).

Brands can instill negativity and suspicion and invoke extreme hatred, violence, vandalism, and theft (Nairn et al., 2008; Roper & Shah, 2007). In the “Sneaker Culture” (Weinswig, 2016), brands are accused of instigating sneaker crimes when a pair of Nike’s Air Jordon came to the center stage for being the motive behind first-degree murder of a 15-year-old boy on May 2, 1989 (Telander, 1990). A similar incident was reported on December 18, 2017 (Alexander, 2018). A father was stabbed while protecting his 8-year-old son from a teenager trying to steal the son’s pair of sneakers (Hitt, 2017). Several newspapers, including reports of such offenses, demonstrate how susceptible young consumers can be and how significantly branding needs to incorporate the multidimensional construct of consumer vulnerability (e.g., Baker et al., 2005).

Brands have commodified self-esteem because failure to fit-in and possess the right brands cause negative peer evaluation, social exclusion, and damaged self-worth (Isaksen & Roper, 2012). They have transformed the younger generation into the insecure materialistic dependents of consumerism for identity and social reference (Achenreiner & John, 2003). Brands are used to disguise poverty, and brand names are more desirable to children from lower socio-economic tiers (Roper & Shah, 2007). These children seek self-identity reinforcement in brands. Their self-concepts destabilize when they are unable to keep up with the modern consumption trends. It becomes “a vicious cycle” where weaker self-concept further enhances their susceptibility to peer pressure and financial aspirations to reach the status quo (Isaksen & Roper, 2008, p. 1063). Brands plague children with social comparisons interfering with their intra-psychic development and social well-being.

Children’s physical well-being is directly threatened by food branding and brand placements in popular media. Brand characters, like Chester the Cheetah (Cheetos), Tony the Tiger (Kellogs Frosties), Ronald McDonald (McDonald’s), M&M’s Spokescandies, etc. instill early brand recognition in children affecting their food preferences and eating habits (Boyland & Halford, 2013). Brand tie-ins with popular media characters and spaces, like Coca Cola placed in American Idol and Burger King enticing children with SpongeBob toys during the movie’s release, exemplify how future generations are affected by the clutter. Brand awareness mediates the relationship between weight status and food intake. The obese children are more responsive to food branding, taking in statistically larger food portions in branded meals (Forman et al., 2009). Branding affects children’s

taste perceptions to the extent that they were found to accept milk and carrots coming out of McDonald's packaging (Robinson et al., 2007).

Promotional regulations on tobacco marketing have seen corporates focus on branding. Branding (brand familiarity and brand image) affects adolescents' attitudes and intentions to smoke more strongly than peer influence (Grant et al., 2008). Tobacco brands communicate, primarily, through the point of purchase promotions. Marlboro, Pall Mall, Kent, Dunhill, and Lucky Strike were being promoted within 300 meters of schools in several countries (Boseley et al., 2018). Sponsorships of global events have taken the impact of tobacco branding beyond the borders, increasing adolescents' propensity to relate and indulge in physical afflictions through smoking. Young children easily relate to alcohol branding too (Harris et al., 2015). The beer brand Victoria Bitter reportedly got a brand exposure of 1.6–3.8 times per minute on-screen during the 2015 Cricket World Cup final between Australia and New Zealand (Johnston, 2017). The vivid imagery and symbolic structures of style, class, and maturity in alcohol brands resonate with children providing a gateway into adulthood.

Brand junction externalities exhibit the imprints of branding practices on the pillars of our future society. Psychologically vulnerable children with limited physical capabilities, due to obesity and other ailments, require interventions to sustain the epidemic of the consumer culture.

2.7.4 Chronic Brand Externalities

Chronic externalities include third-party effects – the social consequences of branding on *general others* – where branding influences wider society in the short and long run.

Chronic externalities amount to the collective adversity of branding practice and fall in the dominion of conservation versus commercialization discourse. Branding has accelerated the rate of resource exhaustion. Branded water exemplifies the commodification of a free public good causing deleterious effects on the natural habitat and environment in the process (Wilk, 2006). A lot of money is spent on a commodity otherwise free, only to bring a marginal difference in the lives of those who are adequately blessed. Expending resources this way is counter to the sustainability claims of brands. Nestle Pure Life, despite its Water and Environmental Sustainability Policy, is criticized for extracting groundwater in Pakistan and developing a bottled water culture, which serves the minor elite with a status symbol. It is drying out existing water systems and violating human

rights to health by making clean drinking water inaccessible for the majority poor (Rosemann, 2005).

Chronic brand externalities include psychosomatic nuisance on humans. Brand priming significantly disrupts human behavior. Mere exposure to the status-oriented brands can trigger a desire for prestige driving consumer choice towards premium-priced products (Chartrand et al., 2008). Brasel and Gips (2011) reported a dual effect of brand exposure on the behavior in a non-consumptive environment. This dual effect encompasses the simultaneous positive and negative outcomes on consumer performance metrics. Red Bull brand exposure, in line with the perceived brand identity, induced an aggressive racing strategy in a virtual car race, and resulted in either the fastest or reckless, crash-riddled slowest race times. Similarly, brand priming with Gatorade resulted in better physical endurance (Friedman & Elliot, 2008); that with Apple led to more creative behavior than IBM and Disney priming ensued more honesty than E! (Fitzsimons et al., 2008).

Brands give corporates the power to benefit from the desires of low-end consumers to emulate high-end consumer choices (Amaldoss & Jain, 2015). Compulsive buyers are more vulnerable and prestige sensitive. They seek relief in well-reputed premium-priced brands (Kukar-Kinney et al., 2012). Brands become a surrogate for such consumers met with unfulfilled social and interpersonal needs (Thomson et al., 2012). Materialism arises as a coping mechanism in the face of self-doubt and perceived societal normlessness (Chang & Arkin, 2002). This unhealthy coping mechanism usually results in lower self-esteem, poor functionality, diminished life satisfaction, and heightened social discomfort.

Corporations authenticate the illusion of life satisfaction and happiness built on brands. When Disneyland claims to be *The Happiest Place on Earth* and BMW positions itself as *Joy is BMW*, Coca Cola promoting itself through *Open Happiness* and Hershey's Chocolate as *Pure Hershey's. Pure Happiness*, they imply that gratification is hinged upon indulgence. These brand promises – seemingly harmless claims – are largely paradoxical because consumerism undermines happiness, subjective well-being, and fulfillment of psychological needs (Wang et al., 2017). At best, they drive consumer emotions into the delusion of fleeting contentment to supplement “the extraction of surplus value” and “buffer it's [firm's] voracious appetite” for capital accumulation (Goldman & Papson, 2006, p. 340).

Material well-being and subjective well-being (SWB) may not necessarily resonate with each other, although several researches report otherwise. Ganglmair-Wooliscroft and

Lawson (2011) found that resource availability influences overall SWB. In addition, a positive relationship has been reported between income, material resources, financial satisfaction, and SWB, recommending pursuit of both material and psychological aspects (Ahuvia & Friedman, 1998; Ng & Diener, 2014). The opposing school of thought claims that income and material possessions increase life satisfaction and happiness only in the short run and at subsistence-level poverty, with the marginal benefit of rising income waning after a certain threshold (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2014; Howell & Howell, 2008).

Research has demonstrated a negative correlation between materialism and SWB (Christopher et al., 2009; Dittmar et al., 2014). This phenomenon can be elucidated from a socio-cultural and psychological perspective. When more psychic energy is exhausted in pursuing happiness from extrinsic means, less remains for its pursuit intrinsically (Wang et al., 2017). Material acquisitions, brands in this case, become quickly habituated through hedonic adaptation. They escalate self-expectations providing merely momentary happiness (Chancellor & Lyubomirsky, 2014). The socio-cultural cause of the discrepancy between materialism and social welfare lies in relative deprivation; comparing material possessions with others causes eventual exasperation (Crosby, 1976). The disintegration of community sense and the emergence of quantifiable lifestyles have ingrained the hoax of material acquisitions into the equation of happiness and SWB (Dittmar et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017).

Social issues related to deception and emotional manipulation that undermines trust are linked with branding. Brands engender psychological attachment to consumption. They undermine deeper social needs of love and gratification, endanger “integral human development and undermine common good” (Caccamo, 2009, p. 309). The consumer preoccupation with material acquisition and brand-orientation hinders the attainment of sustainability in production and consumption (Scott et al., 2014).

Conclusion: While many positive outcomes of branding are documented (see Table 1), this taxonomy predominantly illustrates negative brand externalities to highlight the need for redefining branding practices. The categories of brand externalities (see Table 2.5) neither infer order nor exclusivity. Keeping in view the complexity of the *brand* construct and meaning-led discrepancies spilled over multiple stakeholders, stark contrast among the effects is difficult. *Brand junction* and *chronic externalities* involve physical and psychological influences but are segregated based on temporal and spatial perspectives. Each stakeholder within a social system is subjected to branding one way or the other and

affected by any one or multiple brand externalities. Despite the overlap, this taxonomy is a useful abstraction, like most social science taxonomies, that guides the study of the phenomena. This paper invites discussions and future extrapolations for theoretical and practical developments.

2.8 Discussion

Brands are ubiquitous (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Levy & Luedicke, 2013), and branding is powerful yet fragile enough to instigate societal implications as brand externalities. Brand externalities indicate a systemic anomaly in contemporary marketing systems. Just as Nason's (1989) typology of the social consequences of marketing features the foreseen and unforeseen effects, the taxonomy of brand externalities offers insight into ramifications wrought knowingly and/or unknowingly. Unintentional effects of branding may be supplemented as the systemic anomaly yet to be analyzed through a system's vision (see Layton, 2007; Nason, 2006). The impact, well perceived and disregarded, formulates the major proportion of the plight and showcases an ethical paradigm.

This paper establishes branding as a macro system's phenomenon and conceptualizes a taxonomy of brand externalities. In doing so, it:

- (1) identifies the nodes from which the systemic anomalies originate in a marketing system,
- (2) delineates ethical and moral concerns embedded in branding practices,
- (3) draws the symbolic path dependence among system stakeholders, and
- (4) provides a framework to segregate the anomalous behavior and ethical choices encountered by different stakeholders.

According to Ferrell and Ferrell (2008, p. 31), "Macromarketing ethics is concerned with economic and social impact in the distribution of products and other resources through the marketing system, including the consequences to all stakeholders." Brand externalities expand the domain of macromarketing ethics, including the distribution of, not just products and resources, but meanings and interpretations and their consequences to all stakeholders. Managerial activities negotiating value and meanings within society should pass through the framework for marketing ethics (see Lacznia, 1983). Ethical branding is a practice of paramount importance (Fan, 2005) that ties brands back to the authenticity and grants a new dimension for branding practices.

The taxonomy of brand externalities demonstrates that some branding practices undermine dimensions of distributive justice (Ferrell & Ferrell, 2008). *Brand friction*, when brands accentuate social inequality, shows a violation of the principle of strict egalitarianism and the difference principle. *Brand friction*, from the anti-competitive acts, curtailed individual liberty and freedom of choice, also demonstrate contravention of the libertarian principle. *Chronic externalities*, when brands breed compulsive behavior and lead to unequal economic outcomes, display defiance of the resource-based principle. Similarly, *brand congestion*, by setting unjust and baseless standards of beauty and self-improvement for women, infringes the feminist principle. Such value-laden branding raises ethical concerns and jeopardizes egalitarian values of corporate integrity, transparency, and social accountability.

Layton (2011, p. 272) stated that “assortments generated by marketing systems are highly visible indicators of the nature of a society, its values and its commitments.” The taxonomy of brand externalities contends that current branding practices producing untenable brand assortments do not reflect social sustainability. The present paper not just identifies brand externalities but establishes the possibilities to re-evaluate the brand-society relationship with a more nuanced, judicious, and expedient use of the branding practice.

2.8.1 Future Research Agenda

The conceptualization of brand externalities provides significant research avenues whereby a method for analyzing the systemic architecture of brand externalities holds promise. The notion of a system’s model of branding is not new (e.g., Keller & Lehmann, 2006), but the idea is not adequately developed. The systems-based model of branding would determine the specifications of a brand system and expedite the macromarketing vision of sustainability (Nason, 2006).

The methods for measurement and management of brand externalities would be the next logical step. Future research should explore social intervention methods and public policy instruments through qualitative and quantitative investigations, precisely when symbolic spill-overs embody a higher order of pervasiveness and raise concerns of sustainability and wellbeing of future generations. Stakeholders within a brand system may (or may not) observe and analyze brand externalities from individualistic perspectives. Research is needed to determine and differentiate between methods and strategies for the management of externalities by exchange actors (first parties), their immediate others (second parties), future others, and general others (third parties).

Extending the framework of marketing ethics (Laczniak, 1983), a framework for branding ethics provides another direction for future research. The guidelines for how ethical branding can be embedded in corporate marketing strategies become imperative in the wake of brand externalities. Future research should outline the managerial and organizational responsibilities in view of brand externalities originating from their decision-making processes.

The brand externalities at the micro-level (*brand congestion*) lead to cognitive dissonance and consumer dissatisfaction. When aggregated, these externalities may translate into social mechanisms like anti-branding movements. Further investigation is needed to determine conditions for externality endurance and remediation, the thresholds of individual and social tolerances, subsequent behaviors, and consequences of behavioral outcomes. Additionally, how brand externalities aggregate from individual stakeholders (*brand congestion*) to society in the short and long term (*chronic externalities*)? How could the aggregation of micro-brand externalities into aggregate macro-phenomenon be circumvented?

Brand externalities contribute to imperfections in the contemporary brand system. They link branding practices with the wider array of stakeholders and enable to understand the latent social mechanisms and action fields where the trouble may be deeply rooted.

2.9 Conclusion

Brand externalities illustrate a symbolic path dependence among actors in a marketing system. They link brand consumers, their immediate others, future others, and general others as potential stakeholders not traditionally conceived to be connected in contemporary branding literature. The taxonomy of brand externalities establishes the micro-managerial practice of branding as a macro-system's phenomenon, causing complex systemic outcomes at the aggregated macro-level over time and space. In doing so, this paper brings branding further under the macromarketing umbrella and contributes to the stream of research that emphasizes the unintended consequences of branding (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018).

A conscientious and ethically sound branding practice is holistic, environmentally oriented, and aesthetically appealing. It incorporates effects of the past heritage, not just a cosmetic veil, but formulate an authentic trajectory that links systemwide stakeholders to the happy ideals of future welfare and sustainability. Identifying brand externalities creates an opportunity to revitalize branding for a sustainable branding era. For any marketing

system to thrive and contribute to the developments in a social system, considering brand externalities as an output of a contemporary marketing system and its proactive management is essential.

Note:

1. Network externalities were illustrated by economists Katz and Shapiro (1985). They defined it as the increasing utility a consumer experiences from a product with an increasing number of total consumers of the product. The two types of network externalities were delineated as direct and indirect network externalities. A direct network externality is the physical effect of the number of consumers on the utility and is a distinctive characteristic of network products like telephone lines or electric power grids. Indirect network externality is a market mediated effect and occurs through transactional links. For example, availability of better software due to a rising customer base of hardware improves the potential utility of all hardware consumers. Network externalities are extensively addressed in economics (Farrell & Saloner, 1985; Liebowitz & Margolis, 1995) and marketing (Huang et al., 2017; Srinivasan et al., 2004); whereas, they are scarcely discussed in terms of brands and their symbolic effects (e.g., Hellofs & Jacobson, 1999; Libai et al., 2009).

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PREFACE TO CHAPTER 3: LINK & CONTRIBUTIONS

This chapter addresses research question 2 in this thesis, as illustrated below. It provides a causal theory of brand externalities developed using a structured method proposed as *Systematic Theory Mapping*.

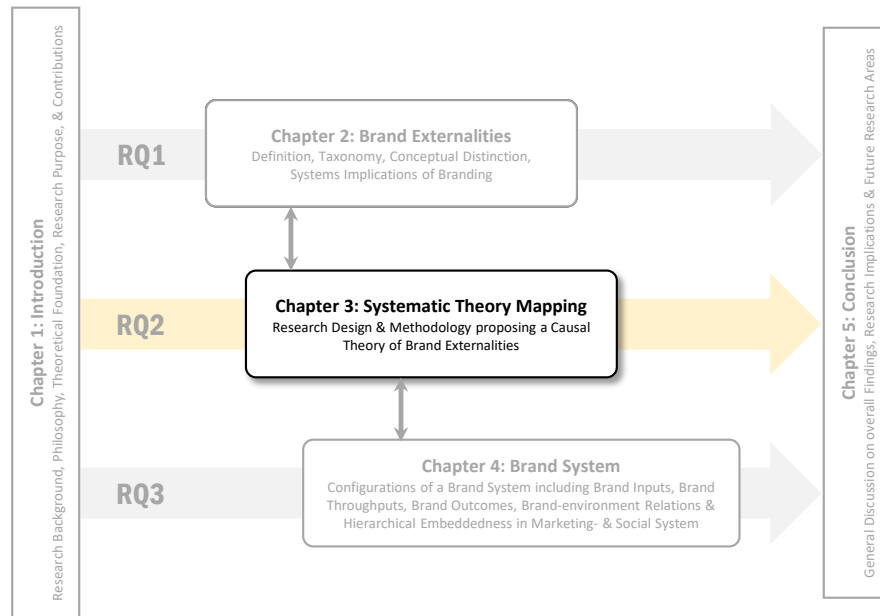


Figure 1.2 Overview of the Thesis

Chapter 2 in its research agenda asked a critical question: how does brand externalities aggregate from the individual behaviours (brand congestion) at the micro-level to the society (chronic externalities) at the macro-level in the short and long term? The taxonomy of brand externalities made it imperative to explore the social mechanisms involved in producing brand externalities at the micro- and macro-level.

Chapter 3 unravels the causal structure and aggregation mechanism of brand externalities. It delineates how brand externalities emerge from the brand exchange dyad, followed by how these effects spill over to the meso-systems of consumer and organisational relations and how these effects aggregate at the macro-level of society in the short and long term.

The causal theory of brand externalities is developed using *Systematic Theory Mapping*, that combines the conventions of systematic narrative review and systems dynamic modelling. The theory is illustrated using a Causal Loop Diagram. The diagram visualises the non-linearities that characterise the complex macro-systemic phenomenon of branding and enables the identification of the potential nodes (relationships and behaviours among different brand actors) from where brand externalities emerge.

Chapter 3: SYSTEMATIC THEORY MAPPING

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3.1 Abstract

This paper presents *Systematic Theory Mapping (STM)*, a comprehensive and systematic method, as the first step toward defining and dealing with complex and wicked problems. Social systems exhibit a messy, multifaceted, and multi-level composite of problems characterized by causal complexities and non-linear interactions of numerous contributing variables. Exploring such a wicked composite of problems for causal explanations and theory building through reductionist empiricism is unrealistic, expensive, and futile. Systems thinking is required to understand the configurations driving wicked problems and navigate their causal complexities. We construed brand externalities as a wicked problem and provided an illustrative example for *STM*. A systematic narrative review is used to amalgamate diverse stakeholder perspectives and capture the structures and processes that generate brand externalities. System dynamics, employing a causal loop diagram, is used to organize the findings and develop a causal theory of brand externalities. The proposed method can help scholars, managers, and policymakers better define complex managerial and social problems and identify the likely consequences of their actions.

Keywords

Systems Thinking, Configurational Thinking, Causal Theory, Qualitative Data, Archival Research, Systematic Literature Review, Narrative Synthesis, Content Analysis, Relational Analysis, Grounded Theory

3.2 Introduction

Addressing complex and wicked real-world phenomena is a major macromarketing concern (Wooliscroft, 2021). Churchman (1967, p. B-141) stated that wicked problems are a “class of social system problems which are ill-formulated, where the information is confusing, where there are many clients and decision-makers with conflicting values, and where the ramifications in the whole system are thoroughly confusing.” A wicked problem

exhibits non-linear causal complexity, dynamicity, ill-structuredness with diffused boundaries, and cross-domain contributions to the problem (Domegan et al., 2017), thus requires systems thinking (Jackson, 2019; Meadows, 2008; Sterman, 2000).

Systems thinking has enabled major shifts in perspective for marketing research by emphasizing the systemic wholes instead of the reductionist parts; focusing on the interactions, relationships, and interconnectedness of system entities; transcending the structures into the processes; and prompting a methodological change from measuring to mapping (Vargo et al., 2017). Systems thinking is critical in deciphering complex and wicked social phenomena (Duffy et al., 2017; Fisk, 1982). Defining, scoping, and analyzing such phenomena begin with identifying the individual entities and stakeholder groups making up the system and understanding their social mechanisms and shared narratives driving the problematic outcomes (Kennedy et al., 2017; Layton, 2019). Wicked problems cannot be understood intuitively. Non-linear causal modeling, such as system dynamics, is central to defining and scoping these problems (Domegan et al., 2017; Wooliscroft, 2021).

System dynamics is a well-suited methodology for complex and wicked social phenomena. It provides causal explanations and content theories of the real world and initiates learning processes and cognitive improvements for designing policies and system interventions (Größler et al., 2008). It can deal with a large number of variables under a wide variety of assumptions and contextual scenarios in short durations, which is often the failure of reductionist black-box approaches and experimental theory building. Wicked problems occur in irreducibly open systems “where the symmetry between explanation and prediction is severed and where laboratory experiment can play little if any role in developing and testing causal explanations” (Dessler, 1991, p. 353). System dynamics modeling is an appropriate methodological option for mapping complex and wicked phenomena and transitioning into simulation for measuring the dynamic behavior of the system (Lane, 2008; Sterman, 2001; Wolstenholme, 1990).

The contribution of this paper is twofold. First, this paper presents *Systematic Theory Mapping (STM)*. It demonstrates the usefulness of this method in synthesizing and mapping the extant literature for defining complex real-world phenomena, deciphering causal complexities, and developing causal theories. This methodology is applied in the context of branding, where a heterogeneous body of literature and archived research is extensively available. Second, this paper identifies brand externalities as a wicked social problem and proposes a causal theory as the first step in the analysis of brand externalities.

STM applies systems thinking (Meadows, 2008; Sterman, 2000) and configurational thinking (Furnari et al., 2021; Misangyi et al., 2017) and draws upon the conventions of systematic reviews (Palmatier et al., 2018; Petticrew & Roberts, 2006), narrative synthesis (Mair et al., 2021; Mays et al., 2005; Popay et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2017), thematic content analysis (Roberts & Pettigrew, 2007; Wang et al., 2021), relational analysis (Robinson, 2011), causal mapping, and system dynamics (Lane, 2008; Sterman, 2001), under the jurisprudence of grounded theory (Samuel & Peattie, 2016; Wolfswinkel et al., 2013).

We begin with the research context of brand externalities as a wicked problem and reflect upon the methodological premise of *STM* before applying it to decipher the causal complexity of brand externalities.

3.3 Research Context: Brand Externalities as a Wicked Problem

Brands are multidimensional dynamic systems of stakeholder relationships involving tangible and intangible resources that grow and/or erode over time (Conejo & Wooliscroft, 2015a; Mukherjee & Roy, 2006). They mediate social and marketplace interactions (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018; Eckhardt & Bengtsson, 2010), where multiple stakeholders co-create brand value (Brodie et al., 2017; Hatch & Schultz, 2010). Brands are also argued to instigate anti-branding sentiments and value-destruction (Cova & Paraque, 2012; Østergaard et al., 2015), causing externalities that encompass physical, psychological, behavioral, social, and environmental nuisance (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018; Caccamo, 2009; Klein, 1999). With the rise of anti-branding phenomena and pressures of social sustainability, considering brand externalities is an operational imperative. Brand externalities are defined as:

meaning-led discrepancies and symbolic spill-overs that accompany brands and distort brand value for consumers, firms, and several other brand actors within a brand system intentionally or unintentionally (Padela et al., 2021).

Brand intangibles – variables related to a brand that do not involve physical, tangible, or concrete attributes – play a significant role in branding (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). The contemporary branding environment, characterized by diverse tangible and intangible inputs, outputs, and path dependencies, is “a system with a high number of variables and contains non-linearities, inertia, delays, and bi-directional network feedback loops.” (Chica et al., 2016, p. 42). Similarly, externalities are known to be systemic phenomena

(Laczniak, 2017; Vatn & Bromley, 1997). The interconnectedness of different system actors having conflicting values, driven by self-interest, and the ensuing composite of problems, such as brand externalities, create social consequences, the ramifications of which are blurry and confusing. These features, characteristic of a wicked problem (Huff et al., 2017; Wooliscroft, 2021), undermine managerial intuition and ingenuity (Pagani & Otto, 2013). The *STM*, building on system dynamics, is a suitable methodology for wicked social phenomena, like branding (Chica et al., 2016; Mukherjee & Roy, 2006)(Chica et al. 2016; Mukherjee and Roy 2006), as it provides manageable simplicities and a holistic frame of reference for managers to follow the complex cause-and-effect web, and do well in brand development, management, and regulation (Pagani & Otto, 2013).

3.4 Methodological Premise

This section describes the methodological components of *STM* and positions it among the wider methodologies available to deal with complex and wicked problems.

3.4.1 Components of *STM*

Causal complexity exists within real-world phenomena when an “outcome may follow from several different combinations of causal conditions” (Ragin, 2008, p. 124). Systems thinking overlaps with configurational thinking in explaining the causal complexity of social phenomena through the principles of conjunction, equifinality, and asymmetry (Furnari et al., 2021; Jackson, 2019; Misangyi et al., 2017). Conjunction involves the co-occurrence of multiple interdependent causal attributes in producing an outcome. Equifinality indicates that there are more than one alternative pathways producing the same outcome. Asymmetry means that not just the presence but sometimes the absence of a causal attribute may produce the same outcome. Causal complexity produces non-linearity (where the system outputs are not directly proportional to the combined causal inputs), requiring non-linear causal modeling, such as system dynamics (Domegan et al., 2017).

3.4.1.1 System Dynamics

System dynamics is ideally suited to address the causal complexity and non-linearity in social systems. It examines complex problems integrating multiple perspectives based on the fundamental principle that a system’s feedback structure generates its dynamics (Sterman, 2000). It applies to the systems characterized by interdependence, mutual interactions, information feedback, and circular causality (Richardson, 1991). Recognizing the cyclical structure of mutual causality beyond linear causality, system dynamics

provides a hierarchically higher unit of analysis than individual variables in traditional empiricism (Domegan et al., 2017).

A system dynamics model is the aggregate of several feedback loops that comprise the complex structure of the system and influence the system outcomes endogenously (Richardson, 2011). System dynamics models are descriptive rather than normative (Größler et al., 2008). They operate as learning devices (Lane, 2017), enabling a better understanding of the complex dynamic interactions of causal attributes and leveraging their behavior to plan for and adapt specific solutions (Domegan et al., 2020). In addition to the underlying dynamics, they reveal unexpected and unintended consequences that affect the overall system outcome (Homer, 1985; Meadows, 2008). They link micro-level decision making (e.g., managerial brand building or consumer brand purchase, use and recommendation, etc.) with macro-level system behavior (such as systemic brand value creation/destruction, brand externalities, etc.) (Arquitt & Cornwell, 2007), and enable locating delays in the cause and effect providing a much closer representation of the real world (Forrester 1992).

System dynamics allows for both qualitative and quantitative modeling. Qualitative system dynamics usually precedes the quantitative phase (Jackson, 2019; Wolstenholme, 1990). Qualitative data plays a central role at all levels of the modeling process (Luna-Reyes & Andersen, 2003). The real-world phenomena involving soft variables like ‘loyalty,’ ‘engagement,’ ‘materialism,’ or ‘psychological reactance’ are far more difficult to quantify and require qualitative modeling. Qualitative system dynamics assists in evaluating dynamic behaviors, structuring complex issues, and explaining problem-solving processes (Stepp et al., 2009; Wolstenholme, 1999); thus, it facilitates the development of dynamic hypotheses and causal theories (Luna-Reyes & Andersen, 2003).

3.4.1.2 Literature Review

A causal theory of the physical or social phenomena is generative and typically begins from an observation that links causal mechanisms with an outcome (Dessler, 1991). Subsequently, theorizing is best initiated by scoping the extant substantive knowledge and existing theories to learn as much about the phenomenon as possible (Furnari et al., 2021). Diversity of the types of evidence can be critical in this regard (Joffe, 2017). Reviewing an integrated body of knowledge based on observational, conversational, anecdotal, conceptual, empirical, and practitioner-based qualitative and quantitative evidence from various theoretical or disciplinary domains can improve investigative efficiency and

provide new insights (Wacker, 1998). A literature review may be the best methodological tool and should be the first step when researchers aim to explore the state of knowledge on a specific topic, discuss a particular phenomenon and develop a conceptual model or theory (Snyder, 2019; Wolfswinkel et al., 2013).

A *literature review* is not the same as reviewing the literature. The task of reviewing literature traditionally occurs while writing introductory sections for journal articles and research reports. It involves a selective discussion of the literature to justify the research gap and position research contributions. This task is significant for presenting arguments, sourcing ideas, sharing information, and establishing contexts (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). In contrast, a literature review is a distinct research methodology that uses a clearly formulated research question and systematic and explicit methods to comprehensively synthesize available evidence and draw robust conclusions (Siddaway et al., 2019). In essence, a literature review is very similar to survey-based primary research. It includes surveying literature instead of people. It “takes time, effort, intelligence and commitment, and it is a branch of scientific endeavour as important as primary research” (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006, p. 20).

Surveying extant literature can be structured as a systematic quantitative review or unstructured like traditional narrative reviews. Table 3.1 provides an overview of these approaches for conducting literature reviews. There are criticisms on both the systematic and narrative reviews. While systematic reviews are scientifically precise and rigorous, they are not always the best approach. The narrative thread, critical for understanding the progress of a research paradigm, development of a theory, or building of a conceptual framework, could be lost in the rigid requirements of a systematic review (Collins & Fauser, 2005). Individually, a narrative review is not scientific enough, and a systematic review is not comprehensive enough to address the range of concerns to be integrated for delineating wicked social problems. Wicked problems require flexibility, broad scope, and critical analysis of the discourse from the narrative approach and the scientific rigor, structure, and transparency from the systematic approach. Thus, a hybrid review design, such as a systematic narrative review, is more appropriate (Mair et al., 2021; Popay et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2017).

Table 3.1 An Overview of Literature Review Methods

Methods	Systematic Review	Narrative Review	Systematic Narrative Review
Description	It is a structured approach for comprehensively and rigorously identifying, appraising, and synthesizing research evidence from all relevant studies on a particular topic or research area (Gough, Oliver and Thomas 2012; Petticrew and Roberts 2006)	It is a traditional approach for summarising, explaining and interpreting evidence descriptively from a wide range of issues at various levels of completeness and comprehensiveness within a specific topic or research area (Grant and Booth 2009; Mays, Pope and Popay 2005; Popay et al. 2006)	It is a hybrid of systematic and narrative approach for systematically identifying, appraising, and synthesizing findings beyond literature summation from wide range of issues on a given topic or research area (Collins and Fauser 2005; Mair et al. 2021; Teoh, Wang and Kwek 2021)
Nature of Research Problem	Narrow, focused	Broad	Broad
Search & Appraisal Process	Structured process with an appraisal criterion for inclusion/exclusion aiming for comprehensive and exhaustive coverage	Unstructured process with no formal and explicit appraisal criteria. Literature is often evaluated based on contributions	Structured process with an appraisal criterion for inclusion/exclusion aiming for conceptual saturation through comprehensive and broader coverage
Analysis & Synthesis Approach	Quantitative; statistical methods synthesise various studies into a single quantitative estimate; often presented with narrative commentary	Qualitative; typically narrative with descriptive, chronological, conceptual, or thematic analysis	Quantitative and Qualitative; narrative synthesis takes conceptual or thematic analysis into conceptual innovation
Benefits	Objective, methodical, transparent, and replicable Reviewers' subjectivity, and search and analysis bias are minimum Accumulates all known knowledge on a topic Time efficient for decision makers	Flexible with comprehensive coverage of heterogeneous topics, disciplines, and research traditions In-depth overview of research progress over time	Inclusion is broader with studies of different research designs Integrates competing or conflicting research traditions Enables higher-order interpretations
Drawbacks	Inclusion is restricted to the same study design (prescribed criterion undermines broad subject coverage) Lacks interpretive depth of a narrative review Limited applicability	Subjective and often biased Lacks rigorous methodological scrutiny Often lends undue credence to a particular research perspective Ambiguous and irreproducible data collection	Restricted according to the inclusion/exclusion criteria Qualitative interpretations may be subjective and not entirely reproducible

A systematic narrative review can bridge the limitations of the narrative and systematic reviews (Jin & Wang, 2016; Mair et al., 2021) and provide evidence-based inferences avoiding opinionated descriptions (Collins & Fauser, 2005). It can deal with complex, heterogenous problems within substantive research domains where epistemological, methodological, and paradigmatic diversity exists (Gough et al., 2012; Popay et al., 2006). It combines an explicit and rigorously systematic search with a critical review of the literature through a narrative approach resulting in conceptual innovation and theory building (Collins & Fauser, 2005; Grant & Booth, 2009; Teoh et al., 2021). Systematic narrative reviews have some parallels to the meta-narrative approach (Wong et al., 2013), but the two differ in their focus. Meta-narrative reviews focus more on the storylines of research traditions – a historical progression of research concerns and methodologies – within a research area over time (Greenhalgh et al., 2005; Hwang & Henry, 2021). Wong et al. (2013, p. 9) state that “if exploration of a range of research traditions on the topic is not deemed to be appropriate, the work is probably not a meta-narrative review.” A systematic narrative review has a more theoretical and conceptual focus (Mays et al., 2005; Teoh et al., 2021). It enables the aggregation of qualitative data from various disparate sources to identify themes and common concerns, determine components of a theoretical concept, integrate theoretical perspectives, or propose new theoretical frameworks (Snyder, 2019).

Despite recognizing the advantages of the systematic and hybrid approaches, scholars often diminish literature reviews as an exercise of descriptively summarising the content of the review sample without analyzing in-depth the research across the board and making a substantial and truly valuable contribution (Snyder, 2019). A meaningful contribution from a literature review requires going beyond the contents of the review sample by generating new insights in the form of conceptual innovation, new analytical constructs, higher-order interpretations, derived inferences, propositions and hypotheses, new explanatory theories, and extended extant theories (Thomas & Harden, 2008). These contributions are critical developments and defining characteristics that elevate the systematic approaches above content summaries of the literature. We provide *STM* as a structured method to take the findings from a literature review beyond content summaries and make meaningful contributions to advance theory and practice. This method could be adapted for micro-social and organizational problems involving few variables and macro-level wicked problems involving a deluge of variables that are difficult to understand intuitively.

3.4.2 Positioning of *STM*

Systems research best begins with a conceptual framework that evolves as the research progresses (Sankaran, 2017). The conceptual framework is a tentative theory of the phenomena under investigation, and the research problem is a part of the conceptual framework (Maxwell, 2013). Miles et al. (2019, p. 15) described a conceptual framework as a graphical and/or narrative explanation of “the key factors, variables, phenomena, concepts, participants – and the presumed interrelationships among them.” Maxwell (2013) suggested that scholars can construct conceptual frameworks from their experiential knowledge, existing literature and theories, pilot studies and exploratory research, and thought experiments. We position *STM* as a structured method to scope and explore existing literature and develop the conceptual frameworks as a tentative theory for further investigation.

Brychkov et al. (2022) demonstrated the significance of literature in systems research. They developed a dynamic model of the cycling system for sustainable transport and conducted a cycling-related literature review for systemic stakeholder analysis and system barrier/enabler analysis prior to participatory modeling. They also provided a summary of various methods in macro-marketing and social marketing to capture the systemic complexity of wicked social phenomena. Besides these methods, management science and operational research have provided a wide range of methods for dealing with the wicked complexity of organizational and social phenomena. These methods are grouped as problem structuring methods (PSMs), also called soft systems or soft operational research methods (Ackermann, 2012; Mingers, 2011; Mingers & Rosenhead, 2004). PSMs are defined as “a set of interactive and participatory modeling approaches for dealing with unstructured complex problems, which are characterized by the existence of multiple actors, with differing perspectives and conflicting interests, trying to identify alternatives for solving a problematic situation in an environment with uncertainties” (Gomes Júnior & Schramm, 2022, p. 55). The most common PSMs include soft systems methodology, strategic choice approach, strategic options development and analysis, drama theory, and robustness analysis (Smith & Shaw, 2019). Several other methods share the spirit of problem structuring methods. These methods include analytic hierarchy process, multi-criteria decision analysis, value-focused thinking, decision conferencing, critical systems heuristics, consensus conferencing, DSRP (distinctions, systems, relationships, and perspectives), nominal group technique, etc. (see Edson & Klein, 2017; Mingers, 2011; Mingers & Rosenhead, 2004 for a detailed overview).

PSMs are effective as a participative process of problem structuring where different stakeholder groups interact to clarify their dilemma and develop a mutual understanding with commitments toward combined resolution. They are commonly deployed in a group format to general organizational, planning-based, or interorganisational complex problems (Mingers & Rosenhead, 2004). PSMs are resource-intensive methodologies (Rosenhead, 2006), and operationalizing them becomes very difficult if the problem goes beyond (inter) organizational boundaries and spills over to the larger social system involving a large number of stakeholder groups (Mingers, 2011). Identifying key system actors at the core of the problem and secondary system actors being influenced at the periphery is often elusive, and bringing them together for model building may not always be possible. Similarly, selecting an appropriate PSM for messy situations has always been challenging because of the lack of a definite and organized problem situation (Mingers & Rosenhead, 2004). An adequate definiteness of the problem usually emerges well into the investigation. Ackermann (2012, p. 654) argued that “recognising the importance of getting a good appreciation of the situation is paramount” before any further modeling for holistically managing the complexity takes place, and good work in defining the wicked problem increases the likelihood of successfully dealing with it. The *STM* can organize a problem situation into definite subsystems of cause-and-effect relationships and provide a preliminary understanding of the wickedness of the problem before selecting a PSM or a combination thereof for achieving resolutions. Consequently, we recommend an *STM* prior to PSMs for comprehensive system actor analysis and determining the broader scope of the systemic complexity before proceeding with facilitated and participatory modeling.

Methodological competence is not enough to apply PSMs successfully. Scholars and practitioners must be skilled in the art of negotiation and facilitation, where sensitivity to the effects of power relations, communication (in)competencies, and fears and anxieties of participants is essential (Franco & Montibeller, 2010; Mingers & Rosenhead, 2004). Researchers require considerable expertise, training, and experience for the effective deployment of PSMs (Rosenhead, 2006). *STM* is well-suited in such circumstances where early career academics and novice researchers can develop an understanding of the wicked problems without an apprenticeship and rigorous training in facilitation. Lave and March (1993, p. 10) stated that “the best way to learn about model building is to do it,” and an *STM* can prepare novice scholars and practitioners in this regard.

3.5 Systematic Theory Mapping (*STM*)

We define *STM* as a comprehensive and systematic method that utilizes the conventions of system dynamics to synthesize, interpret and illustrate qualitative data from heterogeneous sources (primary and/or secondary research) for defining the complex and wicked real-world phenomena, deciphering the inherent causal complexities, and developing the respective causal theory.

STM is based on the premise of qualitative system dynamics (Jackson, 2019; Wolstenholme, 1999) and facilitates model conceptualization through problem articulation and dynamic hypothesis formulation (Luna-Reyes & Andersen, 2003). Problem articulation involves determining the research problem and the modeling purpose that defines the system boundary. It guides the identification of the variables and their dynamic interactions that drive the system behavior. Following problem articulation, dynamic hypothesis formulation involves describing the system dynamics in the context of the modeling purpose. The dynamic hypothesis represents a feedback theory of the causal structure that generates dynamic behaviors over time. This enables understanding of the dynamic problem and facilitates designing and improving policies and guidelines for intervention.

To demonstrate *STM*, we take the example of brand externalities as a wicked social problem and develop a causal theory of brand externalities. We begin with problem articulation by systematically examining the extensive branding literature through a systematic narrative review, encompassing diverse theoretical and empirical frameworks and scholarly insights into different branding paradigms. The methodological protocols for systematic reviews aimed at the conceptual model and framework development are adopted (e.g., Paul & Mas, 2020; Shashi et al., 2018; Teoh et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2021). We apply systems thinking (Meadows, 2008; Sterman, 2000) and configurational thinking (Furnari et al., 2021; Misangyi et al., 2017) to identify key branding variables and respective stakeholder influences and proceed with establishing causal relationships among them to explain the wicked complexity of brand externalities. Subsequently, the dynamic hypothesis is developed and illustrated through a causal loop diagram.

There are two concerns to be noted before we describe the *STM*, illustrated in Figure 3.1. First, we assert that theory mapping can also proceed from qualitative data obtained from primary research (surveying people); thus, a mirror method is also illustrated. We argue that the literature-based method should be the first step before investing time and resources

into primary qualitative data collection. Second, although the process is illustrated and described below sequentially, the steps followed are overlapping, recursive, and iterative, depending upon the emerging insights from each stage. For example, identifying the research questions and the scoping search and review occurred simultaneously, driving the respective adjustments when required. Keeping in view the iterative nature of the *STM*, we recommend taking notes for each decision made at each step of the process. These notes would provide the justifications for the tasks performed and enable recalling the process, which is particularly critical at the last stage for authenticity and transparency.

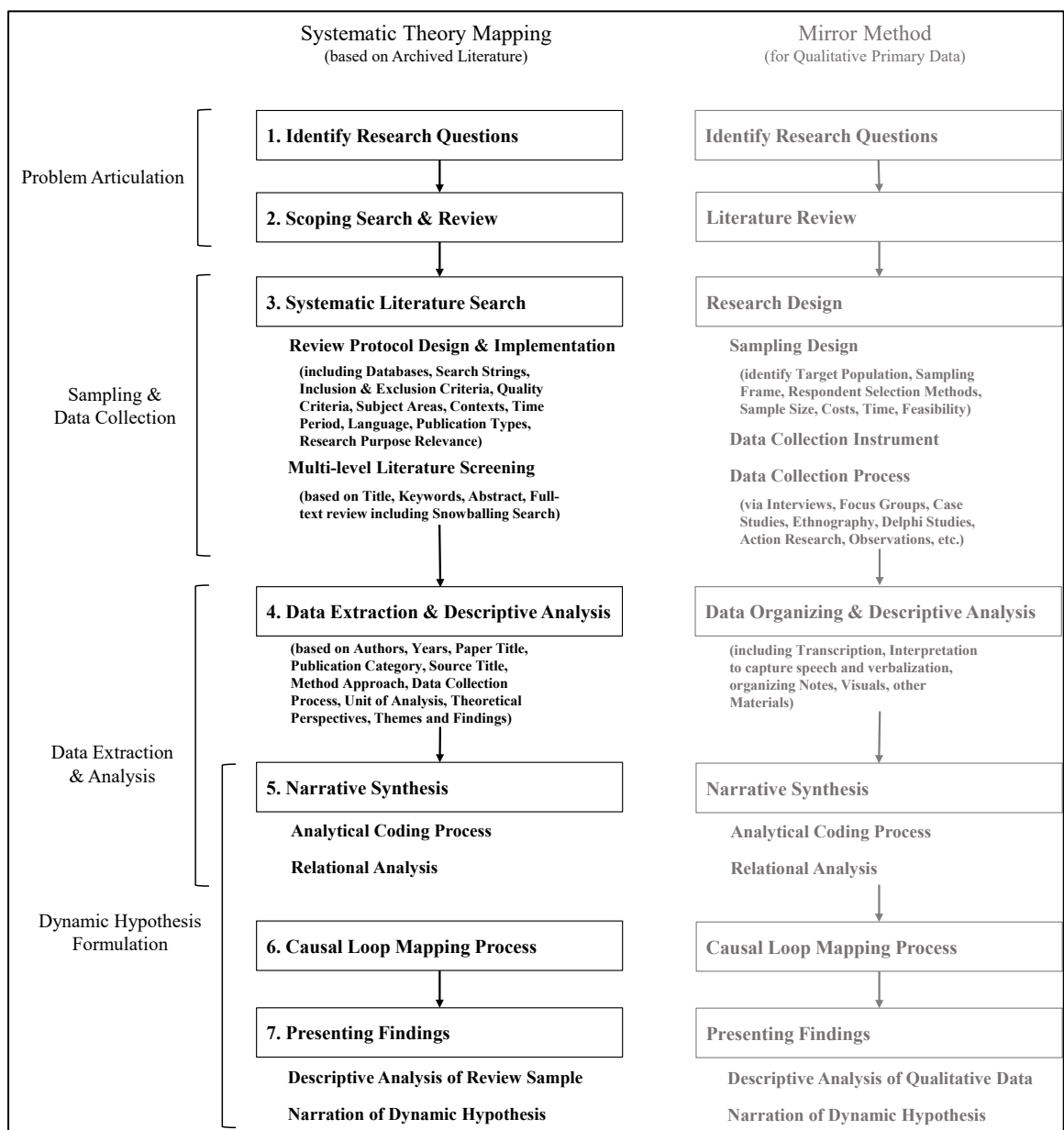


Figure 3.1 Systematic Theory Mapping

We proceed to describe the detailed step-by-step process of the *STM* below:

Step 1: Identifying Research Questions

A primary question for any literature-based *STM* exercise should be:

What are the attributes and relationships identified in the extant literature on a focal phenomenon?

This question is broad and may become multi-faceted depending on the context. Accordingly, it should be modified and further broken down. The research questions should be developed iteratively because they may require amendments or additions during data collection, analysis, and mapping (Mays et al., 2005; Wolfswinkel et al., 2013). They determine the purpose and scope of the theory mapping task. They set a boundary and enable the identification of the important variables and secondary issues relevant to the problem. This is important to determine if the mapped causal theory is simple enough to be comprehended and complex enough to reflect the wicked reality.

The research questions serve as a point of reference and provide a theoretical structure that guides the proceeding tasks and decisions made; not just the literature search and data extraction but also the synthesis of higher-order interpretations required for theory development (Thomas & Harden, 2008). Identifying the right questions may or may not require involving the relevant stakeholders and conducting small-scale primary research, but it would always involve secondary research from archived sources.

Worked Example

To decipher the wicked complexity and develop a conceptual model that narrates the causal mechanisms of brand externalities, we asked the following primary question:

What are the causal attributes and relationships identified in the extant literature involved in producing brand externalities?

Step 2: Scoping Search and Review

A scoping search precedes the systematic search of the literature (Farias et al., 2019; Hwang & Henry, 2021). The scoping search is a preliminary informal search and review of the literature to map out the subject, identify leading scholars and highly cited scholarly work, determine commonly used terminologies, and develop search strings and eligibility criteria for the systematic literature search and review (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). The insights from the scoping search refine the research questions and guide the designing of a formally structured review protocol for conducting the systematic literature search (Kitchenham, 2004; Mays et al., 2005).

Worked Example

In our research context, the co-researchers conducted the scoping search and review using various combinations of the term *brand(ing)* with *value*, *value creation*, *value destruction*, and *social consequences*, such as *brand value*, *brand value creation*, *branding consequences*, etc. While providing a basis for designing the structured review protocol, this preliminary literature review enabled clarifying the review purpose and expanding the primary research question. Following are the research questions finalized iteratively during the *STM* process:

- a. What are the key factors driving brand value?
- b. What feedback mechanisms emerge from the interactions among these factors?
- c. How can brand value creation and destruction be configured?
- d. How does the value spill over as brand externalities within the system and beyond?

Step 3: Systematic Literature Search

The systematic literature search involves obtaining a review sample from databases by designing and implementing the review protocol and subjecting the database output to a multi-level screening process.

REVIEW PROTOCOL DESIGN & IMPLEMENTATION

The review protocol defines the source databases, search strings, and inclusion/exclusion criteria based on the publication types, quality, language, research area, and research scope. It structures the literature search and should be developed in advance according to the review purpose and research questions. Designing and implementing the review protocol may occur recursively, requiring it to be restricted or relaxed before the final literature search (Wolfswinkel et al., 2013). The review protocol should be relaxed if it results in a narrow review sample and restricted if it produces an unmanageably large and redundant review sample. The justification and transparency of the choices made in designing and implementing the review protocol are critical because the quality of the theory mapping exercise significantly depends upon the included literature (Snyder, 2019).

MULTI-LEVEL LITERATURE SCREENING

A multi-level screening process should be followed to determine the eligibility of articles to be included in the review (Cerchione & Esposito, 2016; Gupta et al., 2020; Kitchenham, 2004). The articles should first be filtered based on the title and keywords, followed by an inclusion based on the abstract before the full-text review. A snowballing search and

review are also essential to incorporate highly cited and influential publications beyond the database output. The stages in the multi-level screening process are as follows:

Inclusion based on Title and Keywords

Screening the database output based on the article title and keywords excludes articles not directly focused on the focal phenomenon. The abstracts of the excluded articles should be subjected to a manual screening process to ensure that the articles relevant to the review purpose, despite a discrepant title and keywords, are not excluded.

Inclusion based on the Abstract

The second level of screening involves reading the abstracts to determine the suitability of the articles for the review. Despite the search terms being present, the articles should be excluded if the research does not critically analyze the focal phenomenon or some related aspect. The excluded articles should be iteratively reviewed and discussed among all the authors to validate the exclusion.

Inclusion based on the Full-text Review

The list of articles for review further narrows based on the full-text reading. The excluded articles should be iteratively cross-reviewed and discussed to reach a consensus on proceeding to analysis with only those that fit the review purpose. The full-text review often leads to re-evaluating the review purpose and redefining the research questions.

Inclusion based on Snowballing

The full-text review usually reveals some frequently cited scholarly work, including peer-reviewed journal articles, books, and book chapters, that either do not appear in the database search or get filtered out eventually. These publications may be relevant to the review purpose and fulfill the criteria outlined in the review protocol. Thus, a snowballing search and review are essential to obtain a representative purposive and theoretical review sample.

Worked Example

The review protocol was designed and implemented to conduct an identical search in different databases, that included Scopus, ScienceDirect, Web of Science, and EBSCO Business Source Complete (see Table 3.2). Considering the enormous scale and scope of branding research for over forty years, the database search involved different search strings based on various combinations of the identified keywords (see Table 3.3). The search was limited to peer-reviewed journal articles published in English. Both conceptual and empirical publications involving qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method research

were included. The database output comprised 3,147 articles after removing duplicates. Lastly, the obtained articles were benchmarked for quality assurance according to the 2019 Australian Business Deans Council (ABDC) journal list (Ng et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2017), and articles in journals ranked A*, A, and B were included. This resulted in 2,516 articles for the manual multi-level screening process.

Following the quality assurance, the review sample was further narrowed to 329 based on the article title, keywords, abstract and full-text reading (see Figure 3.2). The articles were included if the research involved any of the following three conditions:

1. theoretical and/or empirical conceptualization of models and frameworks for brands, branding, and related phenomena like brand value creation and/or destruction.
2. appraisals and criticisms of brands and branding practices and behaviors.
3. analysis of intentional/unintentional, social/societal consequences of branding practices and behaviors at the micro- and/or macro-level in the short- and/or long term.

The review protocol and the multi-level screening process initially excluded books and book chapters. The full-text review revealed such frequently cited publications that were identified as fulfilling the review purpose and impacting the theoretical and empirical development of different branding research paradigms. This led to the snowballing search based on the guidelines by Wohlin (2014). The backward and forward snowballing produced 99 publications, including journal articles, books, and book chapters. The final review sample contained 406 journal articles, 19 books, and 3 book chapters ($n = 428$) subjected to data extraction and analysis.

Table 3.2 Review Protocol for Systematic Literature Search

Criteria	Inclusion	Exclusion
Databases	Scopus, ScienceDirect, Web of Science (WOS) and EBSCO (Business Source Complete)	All others
Subject Area	Business, Economics, and Social Sciences	All others
Publication Type	Full-text peer-reviewed journal articles Theoretical/conceptual and empirical papers including qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method studies	Conference proceedings and abridged abstracts, book reviews, trade publications, etc.
Language	English	All others
Quality	Articles in journals ranked A*, A, and B in the 2019 ABDC journal list	All others
Relevance	Focus on models and frameworks for brand and branding, including brand value creation and/or destruction Focus on appraisal and criticism of brands and branding Focus on social consequences of branding	Lack of marketing context of branding, e.g., branding of cattle Focus on value co-creation and/or co-destruction in general Focus on epistemology and methodological approaches to branding research

Table 3.3 Search Strings for Systematic Literature Search

Themes	Keywords
Brand Management	brand building, brand development, brand management, brand management system, brand manager system, brand system, branding model, branding framework, branding mechanism, branding practice, branding phenomena, branding process, brand structure, brand components, brand elements, brand architecture, brand measurement, brand equity, brand marketing, brand strategy
Brand Value Creation	brand value, brand value creation, brand value co-creation, brand creation, brand co-creation, brand collaboration, brand alliance, brand cooperation, brand interaction, interactive brand value
Brand Value Destruction	brand value destruction, brand value co-destruction, brand destruction, brand co-destruction, anti-branding, anti-consumption, destructive branding, dark-side of branding, brand misconduct, brand transgression, brand scandal, stealth branding
Social Consequences of Branding	psychological, behavioral, social, societal, environmental, ecological, economic consequences (influences and implications), consumption externalities, marketing externalities, market externalities, external effects

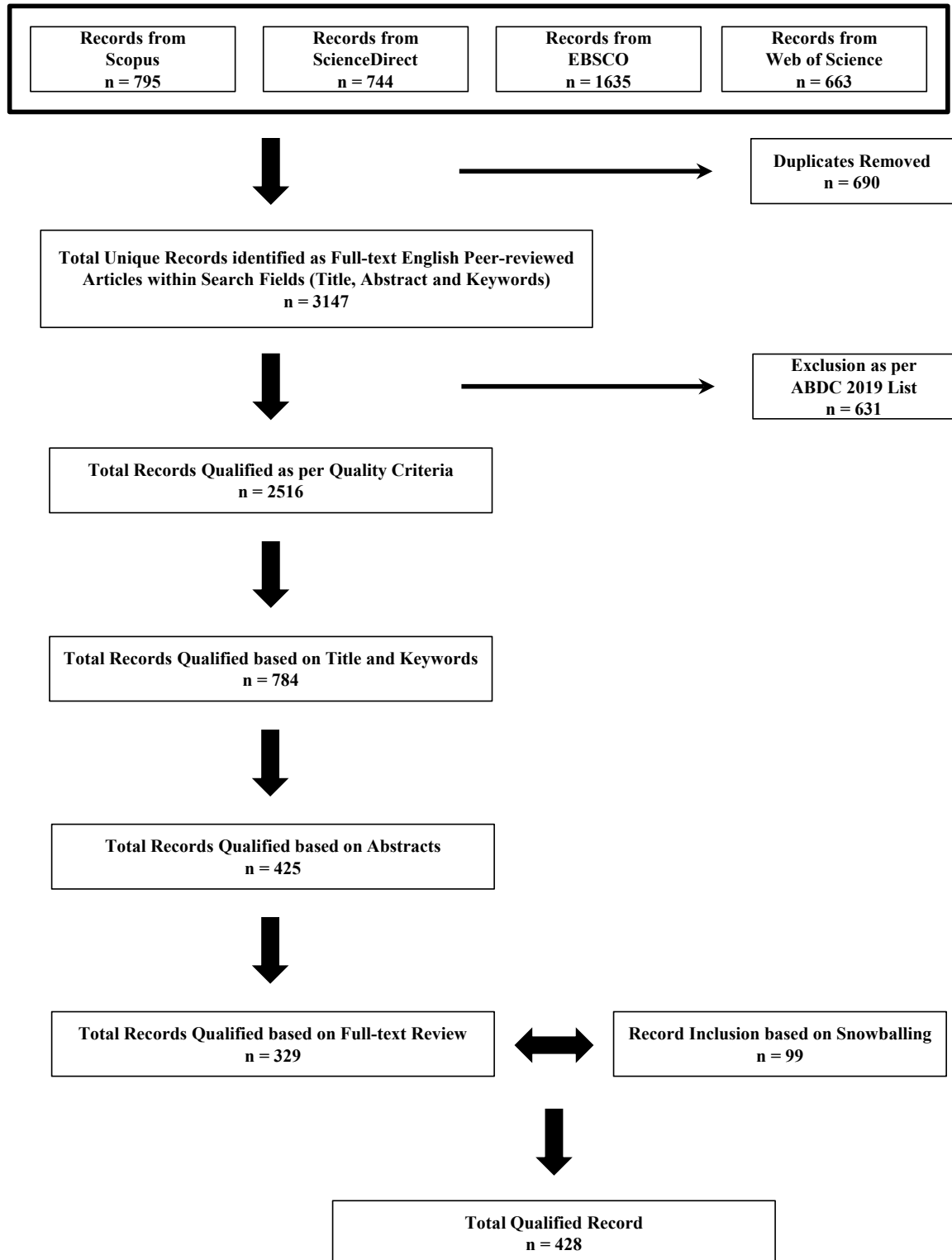


Figure 3.2 Systematic Literature Search & Screening Process

Step 4: Data Extraction and Descriptive Analysis

Comprehensive and consistent data extraction should be achieved using a structured data extraction tool (Anees-ur-Rehman et al., 2016; Cerchione & Esposito, 2016; Gupta et al., 2020; Shashi et al., 2018). The data extraction tool systematically organizes and aggregates the review sample across multiple dimensions, such as publication years, source categories and titles, publishers, citation indices, authors and institutions analysis, countries or geographical distribution, study contexts and industries, subject areas and disciplines, topic areas, research designs, methodological orientations, data collection techniques, theoretical perspectives, units of analysis, etc. These dimensions serve as the basis for descriptive analysis that summarises the general characteristics of the review sample and provides methodological justification for narrative synthesis. Based on the review purpose, the reviewers should reach a consensus on using all or some of these descriptive analysis dimensions. They should extract the data individually and subsequently compare and resolve disagreements through discussion.

Worked Example

The data extraction and analysis of our review sample were carried out across the following dimensions:

1. Publications over time
2. Publications by methodology
3. Publications by source category and titles
4. Publications by theoretical perspectives
5. Publications by units of analysis

The descriptive analysis summarised the general attributes of the review sample, indicating the complexity and diversity in branding research. The review sample indicated that branding research gained momentum in the early 1990s, after Aaker's book *Managing Brand Equity* (Aaker, 1991), Keller's *Journal of Marketing* paper (Keller, 1993), and a special issue run by the *Journal of Marketing Research* in 1994. Figure 3.3 shows that publication activity has steadily advanced since then, with occasional drops attributed to article exclusions. The year 2009 saw a peak in publications within the review sample mainly owing to the two special issues, Anti-consumption (Feb) and Advances in Brand Management (Mar), in the *Journal of Business Research*.

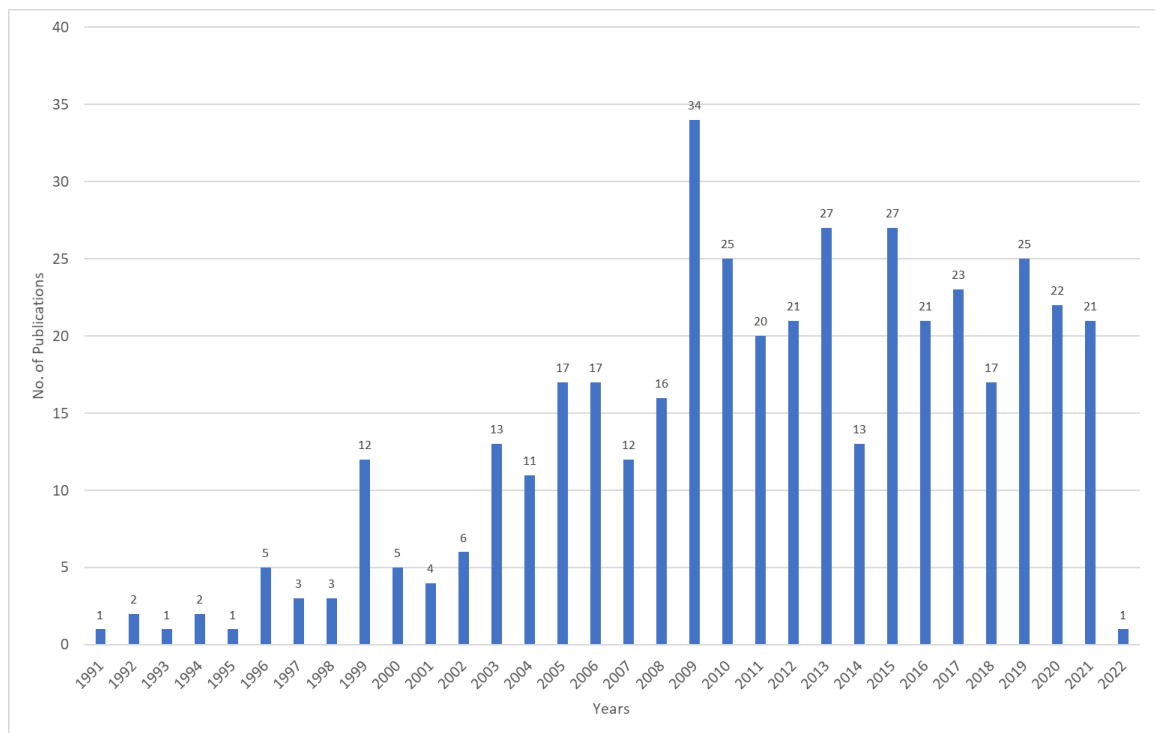


Figure 3.3 Publication Frequency over Time

The review sample included articles published in 91 different journals. Table 3.4 shows the frequency of branding research appearing in most reputed research outlets and subject categories within the review sample. More than half of the review sample (52.8%) comes from specialized branding and marketing journals. Among these, the *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *Journal of Brand Management*, *European Journal of Marketing*, and *Journal of Macromarketing* are highly notable. *Journal of Macromarketing*, with its broader scope of marketing discourse than other marketing journals, is publishing branding research involving branding ideology, branding history, and evolution, and the impact of branding on society and vice versa (e.g., Berthon & Pitt, 2018; Eckhardt & Bengtsson, 2010; Gao, 2013; Heller & Kelly, 2015; Kravets, 2012; Levy & Luedicke, 2013; Petty, 2011). Besides these, the *Journal of Business Research* is the largest outlet for branding research. Other subject areas featuring branding research, including Consumer Behaviour, Hospitality and Tourism, Retail and Distribution, Business Ethics, Advertising, Economics, Psychology, and Environmental and Social Sciences, confirm that branding research is extremely heterogenous and finds its place in an array of different contexts and fields.

Table 3.4 Distribution by Publication Category and Source

Category	Source Title	Frequency	Total	%
Marketing	European Journal of Marketing	21	143	33.4%
	Journal of Macromarketing	20		
	Journal of Marketing	13		
	Marketing Theory	13		
	Journal of Marketing Management	10		
	Psychology & Marketing	10		
	Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science	6		
	Industrial Marketing Management	5		
	Int. Journal of Market Research	5		
	Int. Journal of Research in Marketing	5		
	Journal of Interactive Marketing	5		
	Journal of Marketing Research	3		
	Journal of Services Marketing	3		
	Marketing Intelligence & Planning	3		
	Marketing Science	3		
	Int. Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing	2		
	Int. Marketing Review	2		
	Journal of Fashion Marketing & Management	2		
	Journal of International Marketing	2		
	Other Marketing Journals	10		
Brand Management	Journal of Product & Brand Management	42	83	19.4%
	Journal of Brand Management	41		
Business & Management	Journal of Business Research	53	83	19.4%
	Organization	3		
	Business Horizons	2		
	California Management Review	2		
	Corporate Communications	2		
	Harvard Business Review	2		
	Journal of Service Research	2		
	MIT Sloan Management Review	2		
	Scandinavian Journal of Management	2		
	Other Business Journals	13		
Consumer Behaviour	Journal of Consumer Research	14	44	10.3%
	Journal of Consumer Behaviour	6		
	Young Consumers	6		
	Advances in Consumer Research	5		
	Journal of Consumer Culture	4		
	Journal of Consumer Marketing	4		
	Journal of Consumer Psychology	4		
	Journal of Consumer Affairs	1		
Retail & Distribution	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	12	16	3.7%
	Int. Journal of Retail & Distribution Management	2		
	Journal of Retailing	2		
Hospitality & Tourism	Tourism Management	2	7	1.6%
	Current Issues in Tourism	1		
	Int. Journal of Hospitality Management	1		
	Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	1		
	Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management	1		
	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	1		
Business Ethics	Journal of Business Ethics	6	7	1.6%
	Business Ethics Quarterly	1		
Advertising	Int. Journal of Advertising	3	5	1.2%
	Journal of Advertising	1		
	Journal of Advertising Research	1		
Miscellaneous	Economics, Psychology, Environmental & Social Sciences	18	18	4.2%
Books/Book Chapters		22	22	5.1%
Total		428	428	100.0%

A majority of publications in the review sample are theoretical/conceptual (see Table 3.5), owing to the nature of the sample – seeking debates and arguments around social/societal consequences of branding practices and consumer culture. The empirical research finds quantitative approaches as the method of choice, with experiments, surveys, and empirical estimations as preferable techniques. Most qualitative research preferably uses case studies, interviews, observation, and ethnography.

Consumer-brand relationships analyzed either at the level of the consumer-brand dyad, young consumers' socialization and development, or brand communities (see Table 3.6) dominate within the review sample. A small number of articles were firm-oriented, focusing on managers, branding experts, and managerial issues (e.g., Alexander, 2009; Kumar & Christodouloupoulou, 2014; Rego et al., 2021). Articles with customer orientation focused on customers' attitudinal and behavioral tendencies towards consumption in general, with brands as merely a secondary element within the discourse (e.g., Iyer & Muncy, 2009; Lim, 2017). The stakeholder system perspective is established in research on brand management (e.g., Hatch & Schultz, 2010; Iglesias & Ind, 2020) but not as prevalent in research focusing on social/societal consequences of branding (e.g., Botterill & Kline, 2007). This finding is important for our research context and indicates future research opportunities as well.

Branding research utilizes a wide variety of theoretical perspectives. It is essential to dig into the origin of these theoretical perspectives to enhance the scholarly understanding of branding research dimensions and provide an opportunity to further the field by integrating theories from other social and scientific disciplines. Table 3.7 is a critical contribution and finding in this paper, providing essential guidance for any researcher interested in the dimensions and dynamics of Brand Development and Management, Brand Value Creation and Destruction, Consumption Culture, Consumers' Self, Consumer-brand Relationships and Behaviours, Brand Misconduct, Social Influences and Social Consequences of Branding and Anti-branding.

Table 3.5 Publication Distribution by Method

Methodological Orientation	Data Collection and Techniques	Frequency	Percentage
Qualitative	Interviews, Focus Groups and Group Discussions, Case Studies, Observations, Ethnography, Netnography, Experimental Interviews, Secondary Data and Document Analysis, Historical Record Analysis, Archival Research, Organizational Text Analysis, Narrative Discourse Analysis, Content Analysis, Thematic Analysis, Configurational Analysis, Projective Techniques, Photo Elicitation, Introspective Narration Analysis, Hermeneutic Analysis, Open-ended and Biographical Questionnaire-based Survey, Literature Review, Meta-analytic Review, Critical Incident Analysis, Constant Comparative Method, Script Analysis	97	22.70%
Quantitative	Experiments, Questionnaire Surveys, Archival Content Analysis, Secondary Data-based Empirical Estimation, Econometric Modelling, Agent-based Modelling and Simulations, Meta-analysis, Neurophysiological Measurements, Real-time Experience Tracking Method, Structural Equation Modelling, <i>t</i> -tests, Regressions, ANOVA, MANOVA, MANCOVA, Factor Analysis, Chi-square tests, Path Analysis, Descriptive Statistics	141	32.90%
Mixed-method	Qualitative: Interviews, Focus Groups, Case Studies, Observations, Netnography, Secondary Data, Group Discussion, Memory Story Writing, Projective Techniques, Automated Text Analysis, Critical Review, Thematic Analysis Quantitative: Questionnaire Surveys, Experiments, Census, Content Analysis, Secondary Data-based Empirical Estimation, Regressions, Rasch Modelling, Structural Equation Modelling, Machine Learning Algorithms based Mathematical Modelling, Factor Analysis	38	8.90%
Theoretical/Conceptual (including Books & Book Chapters)	Theoretical Models and Conceptual Frameworks, Concept Review, Alternative and/or Extended Conceptualizations, Typologies/Taxonomies, Critique and/or Appraisal of Consumer Culture, Critique and/or Appraisal of Branding Practices	152	35.50%
Total		428	100%

Table 3.6 Publication Distribution by Unit of Analysis

Unit of Analysis	Frequency
Consumer Brand Dyad	238
Firm-orientation	47
Brand Communities	33
Children/Young Consumers	27
Stakeholder Network/System	26
Market-orientation	16
Customer-orientation	14
Business-to-Business Relations	5

Table 3.7 Distribution of Theoretical Perspectives in Branding Research

Theoretical Perspectives	Frequency	Origin
Value Co-creation	40	Marketing
Theories of the Self*	34	Psychology
Relationship Marketing	25	Marketing
Theories of Social Learning, Cognitive Development & Socialization*	25	Psychology
Service-dominant Logic	20	Marketing
Theories of Social Influence & Interactions*	17	Psychology
Social Identity Approach*	16	Psychology
Consumer Culture Theory	13	Marketing
Experiential Marketing	12	Marketing
Theories of Human Values & Motivations*	12	Psychology
Attachment Theory	11	Psychology
Theories for Consumer Response & Behavior*	11	Psychology
Resource-based View	9	Strategic Management
Social Comparison Theory	8	Psychology
Critical Theory	7	Social Philosophy
Social Practice Theory	7	Sociology
Network Externalities Theory	7	Economics
Consumer Resistance Theory	7	Marketing
Word-of-Mouth Theory	6	Communication
Theory of Reasoned Actions	6	Psychology
Systems Theory	6	Biology
Attribution Theory	6	Psychology
Theories of Meaning Formulation, Interpretation & Movement*	6	Communication
Theories of Social Capital & Network*	5	Sociology
Theories of Stakeholder/Network*	5	Strategic Management
Theories of Exchange*	5	Sociology
Theories of Ethical Behavior*	5	Moral Philosophy
Theory of Planned Behaviour	4	Psychology
Need-for-Uniqueness Theory	4	Psychology
Information Integration Theory	3	Psychology
Strategy-as-practice Approach	3	Strategic Management
Other	66	—

* indicates a group of closely-linked or somewhat overlapping theories

Value co-creation and service-dominant logic dominate as a theoretical lens for conceptually and empirically developing and testing branding models and frameworks (e.g., Hollebeek et al., 2021; Iglesias & Ind, 2020; Payne et al., 2009). Besides these, Consumer Culture Theory, Relationship Marketing, Theories of Consumers' Self, Social Identity Approach, Attachment Theory, Experiential Marketing, Social Influence Theory, and Theories of Human Values and Motivations are the most popular within branding research. A vast majority of these theories originated in Psychology (including Cognitive, Behavioural, Social, and Organizational Psychology) and Sociology. Theories of Consumer Socialization and Cognitive Development are common in research analyzing young consumers' brand behaviors (e.g., Harris et al., 2015; Watkins et al., 2017). Similarly, Critical theory, Consumer Resistance Theory, Systems Theory, Attribution Theory, and Theories of Ethical Behaviour are common pillars in research providing critiques and appraisals of branding practices and analyzing brand misconduct and anti-branding (e.g., Martin & Smith, 2008; Østergaard et al., 2015).

Closely linked and somewhat overlapping theories were grouped. For example, Theories of the Self include Self-congruity Theory, Implicit Self-esteem Theory, Self-knowledge Theory, Self-verification Theory, Self-consciousness Theory, etc.; Theories of Human Values & Motivations include Theory of Human Values, Balance Theory, Cognitive Consistency Theory, Theory of Human Motivation, Motivated Reasoning Theory, etc.; and Others include scarcely used theories appearing either once or twice within the review sample, e.g., Generational Theory, Optimal Distinctiveness Theory, Signalling Theory, Cue Consistency Theory, Theory of Social Construction of Reality, Theory of Camouflage, Rarity Principle, etc.

Step 5: Narrative Synthesis

Narratives are the raw material, the building blocks for theory, and a coherent, integrated causal narrative provides explanatory knowledge (Gabriel, 2017). A plausible narrative is an integral part of a proposed model. It legitimizes the model and improves its believability (Hartmann, 1999; Morgan, 2001). The use of narratives is gaining traction among social science scholars (Shenhav, 2015), and social phenomena explored using narratives can lead to comprehensive research agendas (Gabriel, 2017).

Narratives are “particular types of accounts involving temporal chains of inter-related actions undertaken by characters with purposes, emotions and desires, or events that affect such actors positively or negatively” (Gabriel, 2017, p. 64). They are valuable modes of

thought and devices to disseminate meaning, communicate experience, transfer knowledge, affirm identity, inculcate learning, internalize social conventions, exercise persuasion, power, and leadership, and understand the goals and values of social groups (Rhodes & Brown, 2005; Shenhav, 2015). While integrating discourses of temporally organized thematic configurations, narratives tell a story of behaviors, activities, and processes culminating into an outcome (Emerson & Frosh, 2004; Polkinghorne, 1995).

Synthesis is critical to any systematic review process and refers to the phase where new insights, knowledge, or theories are produced by identifying, extracting, and integrating data from multiple sources (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009; Palmatier et al., 2018). Strike and Posner (1983, p. 346) suggested that “it involves some degree of conceptual innovation, or the invention or employment of concepts not found in the characterisation of the parts as means of creating the whole.” Thematic analysis is the most common method used for synthesizing findings across the extant literature, but narrative synthesis, developed lately, introduces a greater degree of systematicity and synthesis (Mair et al., 2016; Popay et al., 2006). Narrative synthesis differs from thematic analysis based narrative reviews in “moving beyond a summary of study findings to attempt a synthesis which can generate new insights or knowledge and be more systematic and transparent” (Mays et al., 2005, p. 12). It is useful when the systematic review sample contains a heterogeneous body of literature with diverse research designs (Popay et al., 2006), which is almost always the case with social science research (Gough et al., 2012). It enables the integration of research-based qualitative and quantitative studies as well as non-research-based evidence, providing knowledge and decision support (Mays et al., 2005). Narrative synthesis allows exploring relationships in the findings from the literature review without requiring data transformation and tells an evidence-based story (Barnett-Page & Thomas, 2009; Lucas et al., 2007; Mair et al., 2016). A narrative synthesis is most helpful for a review designed to develop an explanatory theory of a phenomenon (Mays et al., 2005) and thus, it is a critical step in an *STM*.

Narrative synthesis involves a segmentation process through analytical coding (Samuel & Peattie, 2016; Seuring & Gold, 2012; Wolfswinkel et al., 2013), followed by a reintegration process through relational analysis (Robinson, 2011). The procedure is described below:

ANALYTICAL CODING PROCESS

A thematic content analysis approach is suitable for analytical coding. Content analysis is common in marketing research (e.g., Fehrer & Nenonen, 2020; Roberts & Pettigrew, 2007;

Wang et al., 2021), and systematic/literature reviews (e.g., Kienzler & Kowalkowski, 2017; Papastathopoulou & Hultink, 2012). Content analysis is a powerful technique to provide inputs for systems dynamic modeling (Luna-Reyes & Andersen, 2003). Krippendorff (2019, p. 24) defines it as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use.” It categorizes the textual data into themes and allows quantification of findings to identify dominant themes and make generalizations (Mays et al., 2005).

Analytical codes can be derived deductively and inductively through content analysis (Seuring & Gold, 2012). The deductive approach determines the analytical dimensions and categories based on the existing theory before data analysis. Contrarily, the inductive approach is explorative, where analytical codes emerge from the data iteratively during the review process. For an *STM*, we recommend inductive coding, the bottom-up approach entrenched in grounded theory. Grounded theory is a flexible, inductively driven methodology that aims to discover and develop a conceptualization or an integrated mid-range theory of the social phenomenon grounded in the data (Grix, 2018; Saunders et al., 2019; Thornberg & Keane, 2022; Tweed & Charmaz, 2012). It facilitates theory building by evaluating and extending existing literature through a concept-based analytical synthesis (Samuel & Peattie, 2016; Wolfswinkel et al., 2013). This synthesis involves three overlapping stages:

In stage 1, the reviewers independently perform excerpting and develop the free codes. Each paper in the final review sample is read line-by-line, and insights within the text relevant to the review purpose, are highlighted. All highlights – the phrases, sentences, or paragraphs – comprise the excerpted data pool re-read and coded according to the grounded meaning and content. These free codes, often supplemented with ancillary notes and comments about the theoretical and methodological insights, provide input for the next hierarchical coding stage. In stage 2, the reviewers perform a comparative analysis of the free codes and develop descriptive themes (axial codes) based on the intra- and inter-relations between the free codes. Similarly, in stage 3, a comparative analysis of the descriptive themes produces analytical themes that relate directly to the subject, context, and scope of the review or the specific research questions.

These stages occur iteratively, going back and forth between the review sample, excerpted data pool, free codes, descriptive themes, and analytical themes. Grounded theory involves simultaneous data collection and analysis informing each other (Thornberg & Keane, 2022). The research commences with collecting an initial data set through purposive

sampling and analyzing it inductively to generate a preliminary assortment of data codes and categories. This preliminary round guides subsequent theoretical sampling, data collection, and analysis (searching, reading, excerpting, coding, and relating). Theoretical sampling is data-driven and involves collecting new data sets to elaborate and refine the categories, define their properties and relationships among them, and describe their implications on the theory (Pickard, 2017). For these reasons, grounded theory is well-suited to an *STM* that requires an initial scoping review, followed by the systematic and snowballing search and review, as a way “to pursue theoretical lines of enquiry rather than to achieve population representativeness” (Saunders et al., 2019, p. 207). The iterative data collection and analysis continue until the entire review sample is analyzed and theoretical and conceptual saturation is achieved. Theoretical and conceptual saturation occurs when data extraction and synthesis provide no new insights (Meyer & Mayrhofer, 2022; Thomas & Harden, 2008; Tweed & Charmaz, 2012; Wolfswinkel et al., 2013). Although grounded theory grants the use of existing theory prior to the data collection (scoping review prior to systematic review), theoretical sensitivity is advised to maintain the inductive data-driven stance in theory building (Pickard, 2017; Saunders et al., 2019).

Methodological rigor in the *STM* is critical, as in any humanistic inquiry (Hirschman, 1986), to ensure transparency and trustworthiness of the research process and findings. Several approaches have been proposed in the literature and categorized broadly as qualitative and quantitative methods for this purpose (see Duriau et al., 2007; Krippendorff, 2019; Rust & Cooil, 1994; Seuring & Gold, 2012; Weber, 1990 for comparisons and details). Quantitative measures may be complicated for qualitative researchers and are argued to focus more on internal validity rather than external validity (Mays et al., 2005). Researchers often apply discursive alignment of interpretations in qualitative data analysis (Seuring & Gold, 2012), notably when the focus is more on the deeper meaning and latent content of the data instead of the manifest content and text statistics (Duriau et al., 2007). Lincoln and Guba (1985) described credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability as essential quality criteria to ensure internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity and establish trustworthiness in the research process. These criteria are widely accepted and remain most influential in qualitative research (see Creswell, 2013; Flint et al., 2002; Whittemore et al., 2001 for an overview and application of these and other evaluative criteria).

RELATIONAL ANALYSIS

The relational analysis is a key step in an *STM*, owing to the focus on developing and mapping theory. It begins during analytical coding and establishes meaningful higher-order narrative parts that reveal structure and process, culminating in a model or theory (Mair et al., 2021; Mays et al., 2005; Siddaway et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2017).

The analytical coding process produces a thematic hierarchy of free codes, descriptive themes, and analytical themes based on the conventions of Comparative and Conceptual Part-Whole Relations (Robinson, 2011). Multiple free codes are linked under a higher-order descriptive theme providing a conceptual whole. Similarly, numerous descriptive themes are linked under a higher-order analytical theme providing a conceptual umbrella (Gupta et al., 2020; Seuring & Gold, 2012; Thomas & Harden, 2008). Hierarchical analytical codes and themes are the concepts or groups of concepts that determine a node explaining a small part or unit within the social phenomenon under review. This is when the theory, conceptualization, or explanation of a phenomenon begins emerging (Wolfswinkel et al., 2013).

In addition to the comparative and conceptual part-whole relations, causal relations are critical in an *STM* to unearth the underlying causal mechanisms in the focal phenomenon. Identifying causation is integral to system dynamics (Sterman, 2000) and, subsequently, theory building (Robinson, 2011). A cause is “an act or event or a state of nature which initiates or permits, alone or in conjunction with other causes, a sequence of events resulting in an effect” (Rothman, 1995, p. 91). Causal relations indicate path dependence where an occurrence precedes an event or outcome (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2020; Robinson, 2011). Theory-building research uses the literature as a guideline to identify important causal relations (Wacker, 1998). The excerpted data pool and iteratively the review sample, whenever needed, provide grounded insights on causation among free codes, descriptive themes, and analytical themes. Once identified, the causal relations should be mapped through a causal loop diagram.

Worked Example

Narrative synthesis, as per our research context, involved a distillation of the review sample into a summarised form for developing the causal theory of brand externalities. It commenced with analytical coding and culminated in identifying the cause-and-effect variables through relational analysis. Following Thomas and Harden (2008) and Gupta et

al. (2020), we utilized iterative cycles of inductive coding, examples of which are shown in Figure 3.4.

In stage 1, the excerpting exercise generated 2,614 free codes. In stage 2, identifying the comparative and conceptual part-whole relations between the free codes resulted in 288 descriptive themes. For example, the free codes, namely Vandalism, Boycotts, Shoplifting, Wardrobing, Trashing, Complaining, and Avenging, were grouped to form a descriptive theme called 'Negative Consumer-to-brand Actions.' Similarly, Bullying, Physical Assault, Territorial Behaviour, Trolling, Trash-talking, Customer-to-customer Incivility, Negative Consumer Evaluation, and Negative Peer Evaluation were grouped into 'Negative Consumer-to-consumer Actions.' The free codes with clear conceptual complementation were grouped into respective descriptive themes. However, some free codes were found to be hybrid with the potential to be part of more than one descriptive theme. For example, consumer motivation of 'Entertainment' predicting content consumption on a brand's social media pages could be grouped within 'Emotional Consumer Value' and 'Experiential Consumer Value.' Similarly, 'Amplified Word-of-Mouth' could be included within 'Brand Communication and Promotion' as well as within 'C2C Interactions'. In such instances, literature on the hybrid free code was explored further to develop a deeper understanding and group it into the most appropriate descriptive theme.

In stage 3, analyzing the interrelations between descriptive themes finally resulted in 48 analytical themes. For example, the descriptive themes Brand Credibility, Conscientiousness Associations, Brand Ethicality, Perceived Brand Globalness, Heritage Associations, Origin Associations, Product Category Associations, and Sustainability Associations described different perceptions consumers hold within their memories about characteristics and attributes brands possess; thus, they were grouped as 'Brand Associations.' Similarly, Consumer Vulnerability, Consumer Ethics, Consumer Environmental Responsibility, Consumer Social Responsibility, Consumer Skepticism, Materialism, and Consumer Vanity defined different psychological and behavioral tendencies of consumers and were grouped as 'Consumer Attributes.'

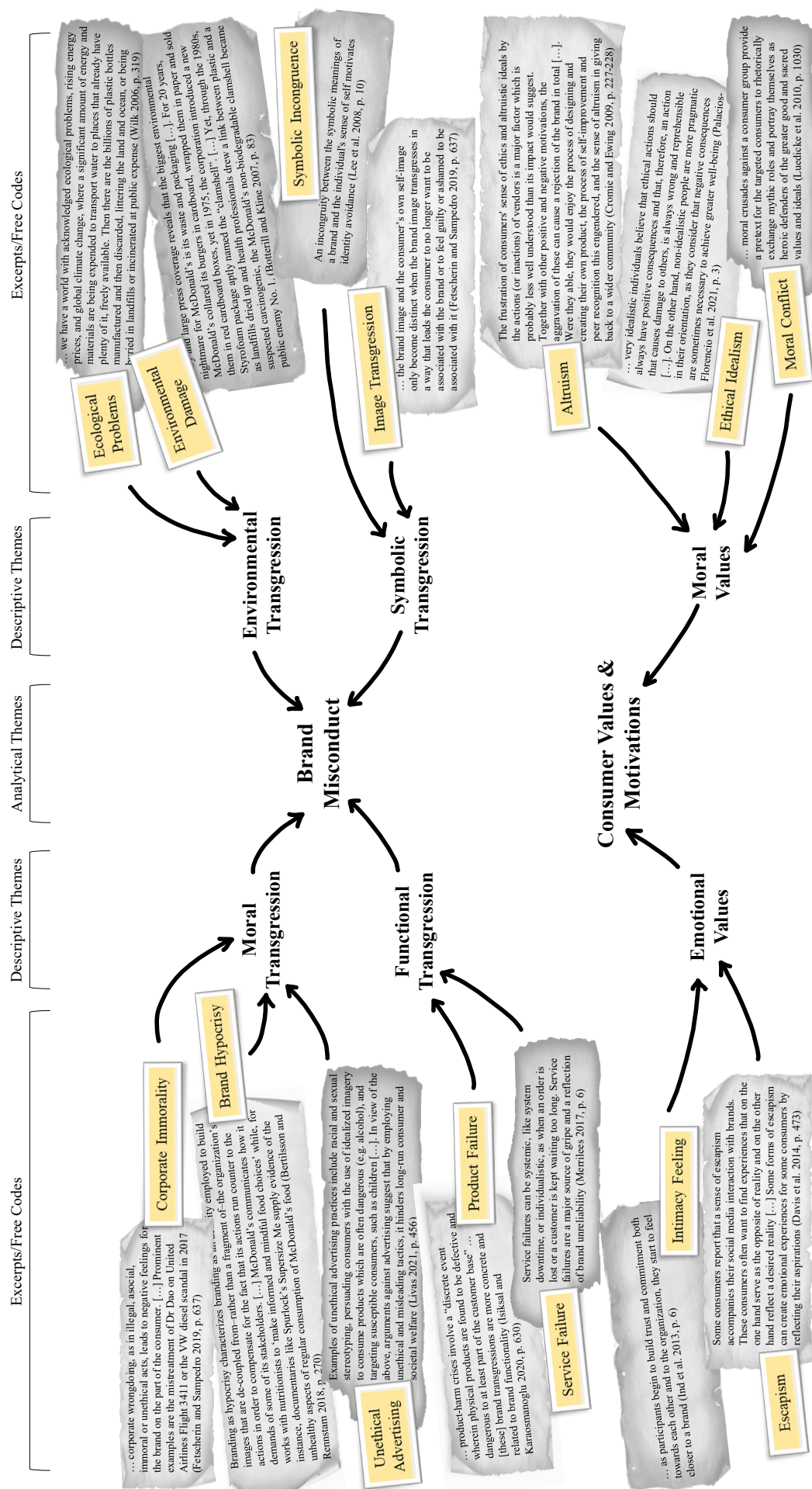


Figure 3.4 Examples from Analytical Coding Process

Besides conceptually re-integrating the excerpted data pool into descriptive and analytical themes, the relational analysis continued synthesizing the narrative by identifying the causal relations involved in producing brand externalities. The identified causal relations indicated a dismembered causal structure of brand externalities in the form of cause-and-effect variable pairs. These causal relations were aggregated and illustrated during the causal loop mapping process (see Step 6 below).

Methodological rigor and analytical transparency in this research were ensured using Lincoln and Guba's (1985) and Hirschman's (1986) criteria for quality evaluation (see Table 3.8). These criteria were implemented through discussion, comparison, and reflection (discursive alignment), using a peer debriefing process (Gupta et al., 2020).

Step 6: Causal Loop Mapping Process

The causal loop mapping can be done in system dynamics software, such as Stella, Vensim, Kumu, Powersim Studio, Dynamo, etc. A causal loop diagram illustrates the feedback structure of the system that describes causal mechanisms and determines system outcomes over time. It is based on the causal links (cause-and-effect relationships) among variables shown using arrows. Developing and comprehending causal loop diagrams require mapping conventions to be understood. The first convention pertains to the link polarity that determines the nature of the cause and effect between variables. A positive (+) link polarity indicates the same direction of change in the effect variable based on the change in the cause variable. On the contrary, a negative (–) polarity is assigned to an inverse effect where there is an opposite change in the effect variable when the cause variable changes.

The second convention relates to the nature of the feedback loops when the causal links aggregate. A feedback loop is a chain of successive causal links that starts at a variable and ends at the same variable, indicating a closed path of action and information. There are two types of feedback loops: reinforcing (R) and balancing (B). Reinforcing loops are autocatalytic and strengthen change over time, resulting in either growth or decline. Balancing loops are self-limiting and goal-seeking. They oppose change over time and stabilize the system, contributing to inertia and supporting the status quo (Richardson, 2011; Sterman, 2001). A feedback loop is reinforcing if all the causal links within the loop are either positive or negative. The nature of a feedback loop with mixed positive and negative causal links can be reinforcing or balancing based on the number of negative causal links within the loop. Such a feedback loop is reinforcing if it holds an even number

of negative causal links and balancing if an odd number of negative links exists within it (Lane, 2008; Sterman, 2000).

Worked Example

Relational analysis (in Step 5 above) initiated the causal mapping process by creating the pairs of cause-and-effect variables (causal relations). A list of all causal relations was developed and organized according to their interplay within the identified subsystems (see Table 3.9). Subsequently, each causal relation was assigned a link polarity before being included in the diagram. Figure 5 illustrates the aggregate of all causal relations in the causal loop diagram developed in Vensim. The causal map was created in stages. First, a core feedback loop of brand value creation was built (see Loop R₁ in Figure 5), including 13 branding variables. Table 3.10 gives a few key contributors and the frequency of these variables appearing within the review sample. The core feedback loop was followed by including further causal loops organized from the causal relations within the respective subsystems. All the loops, when aggregated, represented the social consequences of branding over time.

Identifying variables from the free codes, descriptive and analytical themes, and their respective causal relationships was an iterative process. This process sometimes required consolidating a few variables by virtue of parsimony, depending upon the variable concept and the identified relationships. For example, Table 3.11 shows how several variables were consolidated into one variable (brand loyalty) because of conceptual similarity and similar cause-and-effect pairs resulting from these. Additionally, sometimes new and auxiliary variables that mediated feedback paths emerged during discussions of causal loop diagramming. The systematic narrative review was considered to determine and confirm these variables and their respective relationships with other variables. When aggregated, the causal links and the resultant feedback loops produced the complete causal loop diagram (see Figure 5), providing a basis for narrating the causal theory of brand externalities.

Table 3.8 Evaluative Criteria for Methodological Rigor, Transparency and Trustworthiness in Research Process

Criteria	Techniques Used to Establish Validity, Reliability and Objectivity
Credibility	Scoping, systematic, and snowballing search and review was comprehensive taking over a year. Three research team members contributed to analytical coding, relational analysis, and causal loop mapping. Multiple sources were used including four different databases, and further journal articles, books, and book chapters through snowballing, that included studies from different publication categories, and diverse methodological orientations, units of analysis and branding contexts. All publications were peer-reviewed and highly cited outputs of branding scholars.
Transferability	Purposive and theoretical sampling: After the scoping and systematic literature search, the review sample kept growing through snowballing incorporating theoretical concepts from different brand actor perspectives, branding contexts, and hierarchical system levels.
Dependability	Prescriptive inclusion and exclusion criteria and search strings employed in reported databases enabled stepwise replication by co-researchers at the beginning, and also closer to the end a year later to incorporate any new publications during analysis period. The process of the <i>STM</i> , including systematic literature search and narrative synthesis through analytical coding, relational analysis, and causal mapping was audited by a research team member.
Confirmability	The product of the <i>STM</i> , i.e., the causal loop diagram and the causal theory of brand externalities was audited by a research team member and presented and discussed at a conference. The co-researchers analysed the codes, themes, cause-and-effect relations, and feedback loops independently and agreed upon collectively, producing the comprehensive causal theory illustrated and narrated in the subsequent sections.

Table 3.9 Examples of the Cause-and-Effect Pairs

Sub-systems	Causes	Effects	Link Polarity
Value Creation Sub-system	Brand Knowledge	Brand Experience	Positive
	Brand Loyalty	Brand Engagement	Positive
	Brand Value	Brand Strength	Positive
Brand Community Sub-system	Normative Community Pressure	Reactance	Positive
	Brand Community Participation	Brand Community Benefits	Positive
	Reactance	Brand Community Membership Continuance	Negative
Consumer-Consumer Sub-system	Social Victimization	Self-esteem	Negative
	Interpersonal Pressures	Materialism	Positive
	Anti-social Behaviours	Social Reputation	Negative
Environment Sub-system	Production	Environmental Damage	Positive
	Production	Resource Exhaustion	Positive
	Social Costs	Societal Well-being	Negative
Miscellaneous	Commercial Relations	Social Well-being	Positive
	Subjective Well-being	Life Satisfaction	Positive
	Materialism	Subjective Well-being	Negative

Table 3.10 Branding Variables comprising the Core Feedback Loop

Variables	Frequency	Key Contributors
Brand Image	195	Anselmsson et al. (2014); Biel (1997); Brodie et al. (2009); Burmann, Jost-Benz, et al. (2009); Griffiths (2018); Kauppinen-Räsänen et al. (2014); Lantieri and Chiagouris (2009); Schivinski et al. (2020); Shukla (2011); Yu et al. (2018)
Brand Equity	108	Abela (2003); Berry (2000); Biel (1997); Brodie et al. (2002); Chatzipanagiotou et al. (2016); Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2010); Das et al. (2009a); Davcik et al. (2015); Helm and Jones (2010); Hoeffler and Keller (2003); Jones (2005); Keller (1993); Lisa (2000); M'Zungu et al. (2010); Salinas and Ambler (2009); Veloutsou et al. (2013)
Brand Value	90	Brady (2003); Chica et al. (2016); Choi et al. (2016); France et al. (2020); Gyrd-Jones and Kornum (2013); Hollebeek et al. (2021); Iglesias et al. (2013); Ramaswamy and Ocean (2016); Rennstam (2013); Schau et al. (2009)
Brand Advocacy/WOM	78	Bambauer-Sachse and Mangold (2011); Chae et al. (2017); Coelho et al. (2019); Grace and O'Cass (2005); Kozinets et al. (2010); Lawer and Knox (2006); Libai et al. (2010); Libai et al. (2009); Loureiro et al. (2017); Magnini (2011); Pantano (2021); Sweeney et al. (2020)
Brand Loyalty	70	Ahn (2019); Coelho et al. (2019); Coelho et al. (2018); Dwivedi (2015); Dwivedi et al. (2019); Fastoso and González-Jiménez (2020); Japutra, Ekinci, & Simkin, 2018; Japutra, Ekinci, Simkin, et al., 2018); Kabiraj and Shanmugan (2011); Syed Alwi et al. (2017); Ting et al. (2021)
Brand Engagement	65	Algharabat et al. (2020); Baldus et al. (2015); Carlson et al. (2019); M. L. Cheung et al. (2021); Man Lai Cheung et al. (2021); de Almeida et al. (2018); Dessart et al. (2015); Dwivedi (2015); France et al. (2016); Gambetti and Graffigna (2010); Gambetti et al. (2012); Hatch and Schultz (2010); Hollebeek et al. (2014); Hollebeek et al. (2017); Hsieh and Chang (2016); Naeem and Ozuem (2021); Rahman et al. (2022); Schivinski (2021); Schivinski et al. (2020)
Brand Relationship Quality/Strength	54	Algesheimer et al. (2005); Glynn (2010); Grohs et al. (2016); Johnson et al. (2011); Kang et al. (2014); Keller and Lehmann (2009); Liao et al. (2015); Mühlbacher et al. (2016); Valta (2013)
Brand Credibility/Trust	47	Brexendorf et al. (2015); Dalli et al. (2006); Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán (2005); Delgado-Ballester et al. (2003); Dwivedi et al. (2018); Lantieri and Chiagouris (2009); Rea et al. (2014); Romani et al. (2009)
Brand Awareness	45	Forman et al. (2009); Harris et al. (2015); Ji (2002); Roper and Shah (2007); Ross and Harradine (2004); Watkins et al. (2017)
Brand Experience	43	Brakus et al. (2009); Dwivedi et al. (2018); Frow and Payne (2007); Ha and Perks (2005); Hepola et al. (2017); Jiang et al. (2018); Lin (2015); Lundqvist et al. (2013); Merrilees (2016); Merrilees (2017); Payne et al. (2009); Pina and Dias (2021); Sarker et al. (2019); Schmitt (1999); Trudeau H and Shobeiri (2016)
Brand Adoption/Penetration	23	Brexendorf et al. (2015); Caminal and Vives (1996); Choi et al. (2016); Christodoulides et al. (2012); Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán (2005); Hellofs and Jacobson (1999); Kapferer (2012); Kapferer and Valette-Florence (2018); Libai et al. (2009); Rego et al. (2013)
Brand Knowledge	21	Algesheimer et al. (2005); Berthon et al. (2009); Esch et al. (2006); Ji (2008); John (1999); Keller (2003); Zhan and He (2012)
Brand Enactment	2	Diamond et al. (2009); Gambetti et al. (2012)

Note: (a) Some key texts contributing several of these variables include Aaker (1991, 1996); Batey (2016); Brodie et al. (2017); Brodie and de Chernatony (2009); Chevalier and Mazzalovo (2003); Christodoulides (2009); Christopher et al. (2002); de Chernatony and Dall'Omo Riley (1998); Franzen and Moriarty (2008); Holt (2004); Kapferer (2008); Keller and Lehmann (2006); Low and Fullerton (1994); Lury (2004); Schroeder and Salzer-Mörling (2006). (b) Brand Equity is the assessment of *value* that emerges from brand relationships (Jones, 2005) and the convergent outcome of various brand variables (Das et al., 2009b; Davcik et al., 2015; Iglesias et al., 2013; Keller & Swaminathan, 2020; Veloutsou & Guzman, 2017), hence doesn't appear in the core feedback loop (R_1).

Table 3.11 Example of Variable Consolidation (Brand Loyalty)

Variable	Concept Description	Exemplar
Brand Loyalty	a deeply held commitment to rebuy or repatronize a preferred product or service consistently in the future, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior.	Oliver (2015)
Brand Commitment	the extent to which a consumer is emotionally or psychologically attached to a brand within a product class.	Beatty and Kahle (1988) Wang (2002) Kang, Tang and Fiore (2014)
Brand Attachment	the strength of the cognitive and emotional bond between a consumer and a brand comprised of affection, connection, and passion.	Guèvremont (2019) Ahn (2019)
Brand Love	the degree of passionate emotional attachment between a consumer and a brand that includes passion, attachment, positive evaluations, positive emotions, and declaration of love.	Carroll and Ahuvia (2006)
Brand Affection	consumers' affective or emotional reactions towards a brand that represents their positive evaluations toward a brand.	Japutra, Roy and Pham (2021)
Brand Resonance	the intensity or the depth of the psychological and behavioral bond composed of behavioral loyalty, attitudinal attachment, sense of community, and an active engagement of a consumer towards a brand.	Keller and Swaminathan (2020)

Step 7: Presenting Findings

The findings from an *STM* would have two dimensions: the insights obtained from the descriptive analysis of the review sample and the causal theory hypothesized from narrative synthesis and causal loop mapping. These findings can be presented and described using various visualizations, such as tables, graphs, flow charts, and diagrams, depending upon the comprehensiveness and creativity of the researchers. These visualizations, accompanied by the respective descriptions, improve comprehensibility, and help reach a broader academic and non-academic audience.

Worked Example:

The findings from the descriptive analysis of our review sample are presented in Step 4 above. Given below is the dynamic hypothesis of our causal theory of brand externalities, illustrated in Figure 5. The feedback loops formulating our dynamic hypothesis are organized and described within multiple interacting hierarchical subsystems. Table 3.12 provides an overview of the feedback loops and causal relations connecting these subsystems. The interconnectedness of these subsystems demonstrates the wicked complexity of brand externalities and elucidates the systemic influences of branding on different brand actors.

Table 3.12 Feedback loops within the Causal Loop Diagram in Figure 5

Subsystems	Feedback Loops & Causal Chains	Variables
Micro-system of Brand Exchange	R1 (reinforcing loop)	brand knowledge (+) brand value (+) brand engagement (+) brand strength (+) brand loyalty (+) brand advocacy (+) brand credibility (+) brand image (+) brand knowledge
	R2 (reinforcing loop)	anti-brand actions (-) brand credibility (-) consumer skepticism (-) commercial relations (-) anti-brand actions
Meso-systems of Organizational Relations	B1 (balancing loop)	competition (+) cross-brand interaction (+) brand adoption (+) brand customer population (-) perceived brand uniqueness (+) willingness-to-pay (+) brand adoption
	Other causal chains	competition (+) cross-brand interaction (+) rival adoption (+) market fragmentation (-) financial returns competition (+) cross-brand interaction (+) rival adoption (-) brand customer population (+) network externalities (+) customer welfare brand misconduct (+) supplier/distributor exploitation (-) commercial relations (+) social well-being brand misconduct (+) worker exploitation (+) worker burnout (-) subjective well-being (+) life satisfaction (-) social discomfort brand misconduct (+) worker exploitation (+) worker burnout (-) commercial relations (+) social well-being
Meso-systems of Consumers' Social Relations	R3 (reinforcing loop)	brand engagement (+) brand community membership (+) brand community benefits (+) brand community membership continuance (+) brand loyalty (+) brand engagement
	R4 (reinforcing loop)	anti-social behaviors (+) social victimization (+) vulnerability (+) interpersonal pressure (+) resentment (-) family and social relations (-) anti-social behaviors
	R5 (reinforcing loop)	anti-social behaviors (+) interpersonal pressure (+) resentment (-) family and social relations (-) anti-social behaviors
	B2 (balancing loop)	brand engagement (+) brand community membership (+) normative community pressure (+) reactance (-) brand loyalty (+) brand engagement
	B3 (balancing loop)	interpersonal pressures (+) materialism (+) self-identity reinforcement (+) self-esteem (-) vulnerability (+) interpersonal pressures
	Other causal chain	brand engagement (+) brand community membership (+) negative predisposition towards rival brands (+) negative peer evaluation (+) anti-social behaviors
		brand price (-) brand affordability (-) social victimization (-) self-esteem (+) subjective well-being
Macro-system of the Economy and Society	B4 (balancing loop)	brand knowledge (+) excessive consumption (+) production (+) resource exhaustion and environmental damage (+) social costs (-) production
	Other causal chains	production (+) spending on branding (+) opportunity cost (-) societal well-being (+) social well-being brand knowledge (+) brand priming (+) brand-identity consistent behaviors (+) wasteful consumption (-) social well-being brand knowledge (+) harmful consumption behaviors (-) physical well-being (+) social well-being

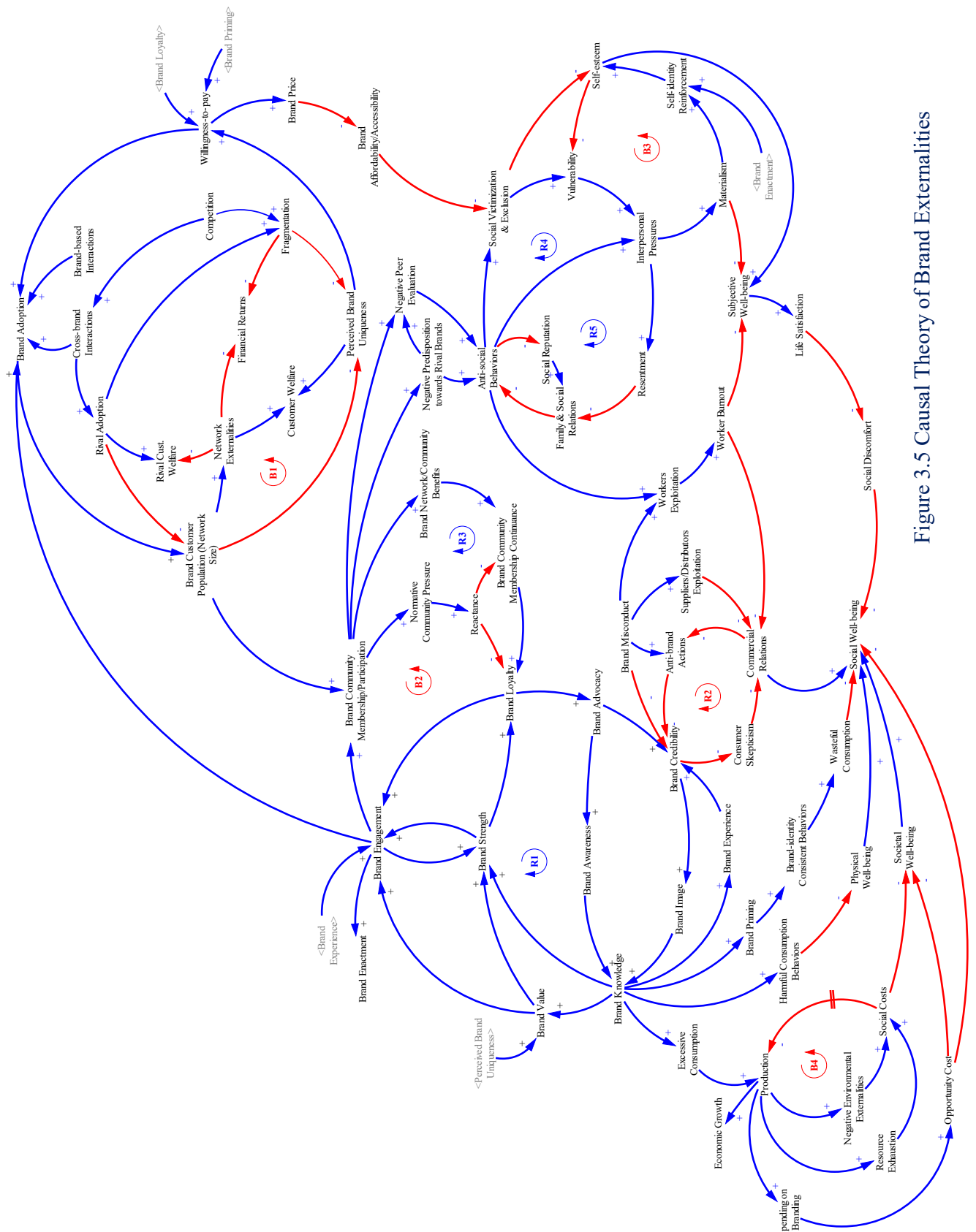


Figure 3.5 Causal Theory of Brand Externalities

MICRO-SYSTEMS OF BRAND EXCHANGE

The micro-system of brand exchange is based on the dyadic consumer-brand relationship and features the brand value creation process, where managerial and consumer inputs assimilate facilitated by contextual stakeholders like employees, channel members, media, etc.

Consistent brand communication and delivery from the firm at various brand touchpoints is a critical managerial input that potentiates consumer-brand interactions and, subsequently, brand knowledge and experiences (Loop R₁) (France et al., 2015; M'Zungu et al., 2010). The knowledge of strong, favorable, and unique brand associations strengthens brand relationship quality that drives brand loyalty intentions and behaviors (Grohs et al., 2016; Hajli et al., 2017; Mühlbacher et al., 2016; Valta, 2013). Similarly, a positive experience of the consumer-brand relationship, mediated with secondary sources of brand knowledge, invokes the co-creation of brand value (Payne et al., 2009). Consumers engage with and adopt the brand when perceived brand value is high (Itani et al., 2019), and this further improves brand relationship quality and brand loyalty (Hollebeek, 2011). Loyal consumers, in turn, engage more with the brand and exhibit pro-brand behaviors like brand adoption, repeat purchases, reduced switching, willingness-to-pay premium, brand advocacy, and word-of-mouth (WOM) referrals (Jiang et al., 2018; Kabiraj & Shanmugan, 2011). Positive WOM improves brand credibility and enhances brand awareness (Coelho et al., 2019; Libai et al., 2010). Brand credibility is a higher-order construct comprised of brand likeability, brand expertise (competence), and brand trustworthiness (Brexendorf et al., 2015; Dwivedi et al., 2018). These attributes are important brand associations contributing to brand image and reputation (Dwivedi et al., 2019; M'Zungu et al., 2010). Eventually, brand image and awareness, constituting brand knowledge, become essential to creating brand equity and value (Keller & Swaminathan, 2020). This core feedback loop is reinforcing unless the growth is stunted by brand misconduct and negative word-of-mouth.

Besides brand value creation, the micro-system of the consumer-brand dyad also features brand value congestion and destruction from brand misconduct and anti-brand actions causing externalities for the respective brand-exchange actor (see Loop R₂). Brand misconduct or transgression is an intentional or unintentional “violation of the implicit or explicit rules guiding consumer–brand relationship performance and evaluation” (Aaker et al., 2004, p. 2). It can be functional (product/service failure), symbolic (image incongruence), environmental (unsustainable), and moral/social (unethical or socially

irresponsible) (Botterill & Kline, 2007; Fetscherin & Sampedro, 2019; Wilk, 2006). At the micro-level, brand misconduct is usually functional or symbolic. It often leads to micro-actions of anti-branding if the negative impact of the misconduct is not readily mitigated (Trump, 2014). The negative consumer actions may be firm-directed (e.g., negative word-of-mouth, shoplifting, vandalizing, etc.), brand employee-directed (e.g., incivility, physical assault, stalking, etc.), or other customer-directed (e.g., customer-to-customer incivility, trolling, etc.) (Fombelle et al., 2020; Funches et al., 2009). These actions damage brand credibility and image, affecting consumer-brand relationships (Hsiao et al., 2015; Huber et al., 2010). Consequently, consumer skepticism and suspicion rise in consumer-brand relationships and other commercial relationships. This reduces consumers' individual and social well-being (Lantieri & Chiagouris, 2009; Martin & Smith, 2008) and increases the likelihood of anti-brand actions at the micro-level traversing into the organized anti-brand activism at the meso- and macro-level (Holt, 2002; Thomson et al., 2012).

MESO-SYSTEMS OF ORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONS

The organizational relations encompass stakeholders like suppliers, distributors, retailers, employees, collaborators, competitors, etc. Brand misconduct involving these stakeholders triggers brand value destruction beyond the consumer-brand dyad. For instance, exerting brand hegemony in the brand value chain may deteriorate commercial relations with suppliers and retailers (Ashton & Pressey, 2011). Exploiting workers causes employee burnout and reduces their subjective well-being (Ritzer, 2004). Employee burnout activates negative employee perceptions and engagement, causing deviant employee behaviors which spill over to the consumer-brand and other organizational relationships (Liao et al., 2015). Anti-competitive acts, such as commanding excessive prices, creating artificial barriers to entry, or artificial resource scarcity, cause severe regulatory challenges and stakeholder disempowerment (Ashton & Pressey, 2011).

Competition is an organizational relation not generally viewed within the stakeholder network (Frow et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the mere presence or entry of competition within the market creates externalities for the brands and consumers. Competition fragments the market over time, diminishing perceived brand uniqueness and return on branding activities (see inside Loop B₁). Brand-based and cross-brand consumer interactions also characterize competitive markets. Cross-brand (category-based) interactions lead to rival-brand adoption, creating congestion for a brand, whereas brand-based consumer interactions reinforce a brand's competitive advantage and lead to brand adoption

(Economides, 1996; Libai et al., 2009). Brand adoption increases the brand's customer population (network size) and creates network externalities resulting in different outcomes for consumer groups and firms. Network externalities improve consumer welfare from the ease of serviceability, variety in complements available, and ensuing sociability from the brand, whereas decrease rival brand's consumer welfare as the popular brand outshines personal brand preference (Chou & Shy, 1990). A negative externality of increasing a brand's customer population is the violation of the rarity principle, causing dilution of perceived brand uniqueness (see Loop B₁) (Ewing et al., 2009). Diluted perceived uniqueness reduces consumers' willingness-to-pay premiums, eventually affecting brand adoption (Dwivedi et al., 2018; Kapferer & Valette-Florence, 2018). For firms, network externalities cause slow diffusion of innovation and cast a chilling effect on the net present value of the innovating brand, disincentivizing brand investment (Goldenberg et al., 2010).

MESO-SYSTEMS OF CONSUMERS' SOCIAL RELATIONS

Consumers' social circles include immediate and distant family, friends, relatives, neighbors, co-workers, membership groups, and reference groups. Brands establish informal in-group and out-group dynamics (Nairn et al., 2008; Roper & Shah, 2007; Ross & Harradine, 2004) and formal brand communities and rival communities (Ewing et al., 2013; Hook & Kulczynski, 2021).

Consumer brand engagement encourages brand community membership and participation (Alden et al., 2016; Hsieh & Chang, 2016), resulting in positive and negative externalities (Agrawal & Ramachandran, 2017; Algesheimer et al., 2005). Brand community participation provides psychological, emotional, functional, hedonic, altruistic, social, and relational benefits (Cromie & Ewing, 2009; Davis et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2014) that foster brand community membership and loyalty (see Loop R₃) (Algesheimer et al., 2005). On the other hand, brand community membership and participation breed normative community and social pressure leading to psychological reactance (see Loop B₂) (Algesheimer et al., 2005; Hollebeek et al., 2022; Hook & Kulczynski, 2021). Additionally, it propagates a negative predisposition toward rival brands and communities, leading to negative peer evaluation and anti-social behaviors, such as trash-talking, stereotyping, bullying, and insulting, influencing consumers' own and others' social reputations (Ewing et al., 2013).

Negative peer evaluation and anti-social behaviors are also observed beyond the context of brand communities (Isaksen & Roper, 2012; Japutra, Ekinci, Simkin, et al., 2018; Nairn et al., 2008). These tendencies cause social exclusion, exacerbate consumer vulnerability

and susceptibility to interpersonal pressures (see Loop R₄), and damage self-esteem, especially among young consumers, compulsive buyers, and lower socio-economic groups (Roper & Shah, 2007). The interpersonal pressures induce materialism for self-identity reinforcement and self-esteem restoration (see Loop B₃) (Achenreiner & John, 2003; Chang & Arkin, 2002; Isaksen & Roper, 2008) and prompt resentment deteriorating family and social relations (see Loop R₅) (Roper & Shah, 2007).

MACRO-SYSTEM OF THE ECONOMY AND SOCIETY

Brand externalities emerging from the micro-system of brand actors aggregate through social trends in the long run. Cognitive development and consumer socialization of young consumers over time are essential aspects in this regard (Achenreiner & John, 2003; Ji, 2008; John, 1999; Watkins et al., 2017). While engaging with brands, young consumers enact brand values personally and socially for self-identity reinforcement (Diamond et al., 2009; Nairn et al., 2008). Harmful consumption behaviors from social trends (consumer socialization) and brand knowledge stimuli, such as brand characters and brand placements in popular media, branding of unhealthy food, tobacco, alcohol, etc., threaten young consumers' physical and social well-being. Similarly, brand knowledge primes consumer behavior over time, activating brand-identity consistent attitudes and behaviors upon exposure (Chartrand et al., 2008; Ferraro et al., 2013). It discounts rational decision-making and drives toward wasteful consumption, undermining social well-being and the common good (Caccamo, 2009). Harmful consumption (compulsive and materialistic vanity-based) (Ferraro et al., 2013; Kapferer & Valette-Florence, 2021; Loureiro et al., 2017), arising to cope with unstable self-identity and poor self-esteem, undermine physical and social well-being collectively in the long run (Wang et al., 2017).

Brands, providing cultural logic to commodities, cause excessive consumption and require production at a larger scale (see Loop B₄). This enables economic growth and employment but simultaneously instigates resource exhaustion and negative environmental externalities, such as overrunning landfills, air and water pollution, global warming, energy shortage, etc. (Wilk, 2006). These externalities increase the social costs and diminish societal and social well-being. Similarly, the resources spent on branding create an opportunity cost of social welfare influencing societal and social well-being at the macro-level in the long run.

3.6 Future Research from *STM*

The *STM* proposing a causal theory is not an end in itself. Quantitative system dynamics with mathematical modeling should follow a qualitative causal map and theoretical narrative to identify leverage points and design policies for long-term structural and behavioral change (Wolstenholme, 1999). Qualitative modeling is vital for comprehensive managerial and institutional learning, whereas quantitative models inform strategic and operational decisions. A qualitative model for the dynamic hypothesis of complexity within a wicked problem is just the beginning. It provides input for consensus-based and evidence-based quantitative and simulation modeling.

Future research should empirically develop and broaden the hypothesized causal theory from the *STM* by incorporating variables and factors beyond the systematic narrative review. For brand externalities (or any other complex real-world phenomena), the data collected from the archived literature should be triangulated and validated through a Delphi approach. A Delphi study iteratively integrates the first-hand opinions and worldviews of experts on the subject (Dalkey & Helmer, 1963) and can be combined with system dynamics to develop consensus-based models (Rees et al., 2017; Vennix et al., 1990). Case study research is required for a within-case and cross-case analysis to determine the process tracing and path analysis indicated within the causal theory from the *STM*.

Future research is also needed to develop evidence-based (mathematical) simulation models by quantifying the causal links and evaluating the magnitude of the variables that influence and contribute to the wicked complexity of real-world social and physical phenomena. The simulation modeling following an *STM* would allow identification and empirical validation of the leverage points and strategies toward more socially and environmentally sustainable managerial practices. The overall dynamic behavior and outcome of a system depend upon the dominant feedback loops and shifting loop dominance over time (Sterman, 2001). Simulation can help managers identify what decision types lead to which loop dominance, how the loop dominance shifts over time, and what directions system behaviors and outcomes would take.

Several quantitative methods, such as structural equation modeling (SEM), could be used for estimating model parameters and data-driven validation of the causal theory (Rahmandad et al., 2015). SEM can efficiently facilitate exploratory theory development and confirmatory theory testing. Considering the limitations of SEM in testing dynamic theory, it is recommended as “a partial model testing strategy to establish confidence in

the underlying causal structure of specific subsystems” (Hovmand & Chalise, 2015, p. 87). SEM can be used to estimate parameters from the empirical data to be included for the subsystems (involving simultaneous equations of the feedback relationships) in the system dynamics model.

Experiments have long been the gold standard in system dynamics, particularly randomized controlled trials, for capturing causal relationships and distinguishing them from correlations (Sterman, 2018), but often they are expensive, time-consuming, and unrealistic. However, smaller studies focusing on the micro-problems within the grand wickedness of the social phenomenon could be designed. For example, the causal theory of brand externalities postulates that skepticism in the consumer-brand relationship due to brand misconduct can create distrust in other commercial and interpersonal relationships. An experimental study could easily be conducted to empirically estimate the effect (magnitude) of such consumer skepticism on other consumer relationships (spill-over effect). Such an experiment can have significant macromarketing implications in terms of subjective and social well-being and quality-of-life.

3.7 Discussion

Social systems exhibit a constellation of problems characterized by dynamic circular causality and non-linear interactions involving a network of stakeholders and entities interconnected with often conflicting interests, priorities, and value systems within and across micro-, meso- and macro-levels of the system (Domegan et al., 2017; Duffy et al., 2017; Huff et al., 2017). Our causal loop diagram illustrates that branding has potential to perpetuate a horde of problems, like compulsive buying, brand-consistent purchase behavior, overconsumption, materialism, etc., formulating different brand externalities. These problems threaten social sustainability and escalate social vulnerabilities into wicked problems over time. Below we discuss the theoretical and practical implications of the causal theory of brand externalities and the methodological implications of the *STM*.

3.7.1 Theoretical and Practical Implications

The causal theory of brand externalities expands the macromarketing narrative of branding by recognizing the hierarchical organization of a brand system and highlighting the narrow conceptualizations of brand stakeholders and brand relationships in the extant literature. Brand externalities spill over from the micro-system of brand exchange into the meso-system of the organizational and consumers’ social relations, encompassing non-consumers and other contextual system actors as an extended brand actor agency within a

brand system. These findings reinforce that managerial efforts should go beyond the micro-system of brand exchange. The causal theory of brand externalities sets the premise for managers to avoid derailing from social sustainability and mitigate brand externalities if any may arise.

Time matters in dealing with complex problems (Kennedy et al., 2017). Managerial decisions tend to assume that cause and effect are linear and proximate in time and space. Cause and effect are non-linear and often distant in time and space in the real world (Sterman, 2001). Usually, the farthest effects of causes are unintentional and marginalized due to an indirect impact. Qualitative causal models are critically significant in identifying direct and indirect effects and unintended consequences of stakeholder actions, managerial decisions, policy designs, and system interventions (Stepp et al., 2009). Our causal loop diagram identifies the unintended consequences of brand-related behaviors of managers, consumers, and contextual stakeholders holding different, often conflicting, social and commercial interests. While analyzing behaviors of individuals and groups at different levels within a brand system, our causal theory provides a macro-level explanation of the systemic interconnectedness and non-linearities among variables that contribute to brand externalities.

From a public policy perspective, brand externalities impose a formidable challenge because objectifying and regulating brand misconduct is difficult (Padela et al., 2021). Vatn and Bromley (1997, p. 148) suggested that “issues such as moral commitment, collective standards, social norms, and network processes may attain a higher position in the understanding of externality policy.” Social externalities may require endogenous institutional restructuring. Though minor amendments in the individual predisposition can be immensely constitutive in internalizing numerous brand externalities, galvanizing self-control and dealing with the long-standing consumer culture is a tremendous task. Consumer awareness programs for children and adolescents to encourage resistance toward pressures of consumer culture and ease the burden of poverty; enhance self-esteem to maim materialism; and develop mechanisms to restore a sense of community responsibility and appreciation of broader social values would just be the beginning. The negative impact of branding was found relatively benign in populations with stronger community values and religious orientations (Roper & Shah, 2007). Taking these as a start, this research emphasizes further qualitative and quantitative investigations to establish preventive mechanisms for a socially sustainable branding practice and a safer society.

3.7.2 Methodological Implications

Explanatory frameworks describing social mechanisms must consider the inputs from all potential components of the system (institutional structures, stakeholder agencies, interactive mechanisms) and avoid the reductionist visions that produce unrealistic narrow conceptualizations for designing experiments and conducting measurements (Sarkies et al., 2020). Reductionist empiricism and experimental theory building for complex real-world phenomena are exorbitantly expensive, time-consuming, and unrealistic due to a large number of variables and non-linear interactions operating in the real world. System dynamics allows compressing time and designing policy instruments and experiments with a multitude of variables under a wide variety of assumptions and contextual scenarios (Arquitt & Cornwell, 2007; Pagani & Otto, 2013). The complex feedback systems often “behave in counterintuitive, unpredictable ways,” and “the act of trying to govern/manage/control generates system dynamics of its own” (Richardson, 2011, p. 239). An *STM*, incorporating the conventions of system dynamics, can provide manageable simplicities and a holistic frame of reference for scholars, managers, and policymakers to better define wicked managerial and social problems, follow the complex web of causes and effects, create a deeper understanding of leverage points and alternate solutions, and identify likely consequences of their actions (Pagani & Otto, 2013). We recommend *STM* to develop and illustrate a causal theory, using archived knowledge first in the process of designing knowledge elicitation and experiments and engaging stakeholders and decision-makers while commencing behavioral modifications and system interventions.

Petticrew and Roberts (2006, p. 21) suggest that “a systematic review is needed before embarking on any new piece of primary research [...], it is simply good scientific practice to know how a new study builds on existing evidence.” The *STM* demonstrates a structured approach for developing a theoretically grounded explanation of complex and wicked real-world phenomena. A large body of archived research exists for established managerial practices and social phenomena like branding and pertinent social consequences. The rich body of literature provided a comprehensive qualitative input and an integrated overview of the diverse theoretical paradigms, scholarly mindsets, and stakeholder perspectives resulting in a wide range of causal arguments that helped build a plausible and coherent narrative of brand externalities. The narrative synthesis within *STM* considered both qualitative and quantitative research within the review sample, and the relational analysis and system dynamics modeling took the findings of the systematic review beyond literature summation. Quantitative research informed the causal impact of variables,

whereas qualitative research provided applicative and formative knowledge. Consequently, we propose a systematic method for data collection, extraction, and synthesis of archival knowledge for scoping complex phenomena and wicked problems and developing respective theoretical frameworks. We recommend the *STM* for:

- scoping and defining wicked problems and other complex social and physical phenomena.
- a preliminary study in any system dynamics project and/or experimental empiricism leading to decision making and designing policies and system interventions.
- a systematic, comprehensive overview and integration of research domains, including research-based and non-research-based archived knowledge.
- integrating, synthesizing, and presenting findings from primary qualitative data obtained during knowledge elicitation through surveys, Delphi studies, case study research, action research, observational research, etc.

3.8 Limitations and Future Research

As with any qualitative research, there are some limitations concerning the methodology and scope of the *STM*, requiring further research. Methodologically, a qualitative narrative synthesis, as in *STM*, may not be entirely reproducible. Textual data analysis is subjective and impressionable of the background knowledge, contextual circumstances, individual value systems, and personal biases of the analysts (Wolfswinkel et al., 2013). Similarly, the *STM* is limited in scope as per the review protocol. It uses a purposive and theoretical review sample to achieve conceptual saturation in interpretive explanation instead of an exhaustive review sample commonly found in meta-analysis (Thomas & Harden, 2008). More causal pathways may emerge from the literature excluded during multi-level screening and quality assessment. Additionally, although the review sample included both conceptual and empirical publications with different research designs, the research context and the publication context of the review sample have a bearing on the implications of the developed causal theory, as it has a bearing on the entire marketing discipline. Future research should expand the scope of literature further by explicitly considering branding practices in the public sector and non-profit context beyond commercial branding, as well as other publication types such as newspapers, public views on social media, blogs, opinion polls, focus groups, etc., to ensure integration of diverse perspectives for holistic theory building.

3.9 Conclusion

Social systems are characterized by complex phenomena and wicked problems that require faculties beyond intuition and experience. We present *Systematic Theory Mapping (STM)* as a comprehensive and systematic method to hypothesize causal theories of complex social and physical phenomena. Using the working example of brand externalities construed as a wicked problem, we applied *STM* to develop a causal narrative of brand externalities. Literature in different paradigms of branding research provided abundant insights to capture the structures and processes that generate brand externalities, and conventions of system dynamics were utilized to interpret and map the causal theory.

Despite the availability of guidelines for systematic reviews (Palmatier et al., 2018; Petticrew & Roberts, 2006; Snyder, 2019), narrative synthesis (Mair et al., 2021; Mays et al., 2005; Popay et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2017), and system dynamics modeling (Lane, 2008; Sterman, 2000), there is no fixed way to synthesize a causal narrative. The proposed methodology is, therefore, suggestive rather than prescriptive. We realize that the robustness of this methodology depends upon the objectivity and cross-disciplinary expertise of the reviewers and modelers, transparency of the process, and systematic comprehensiveness of the extracted literature. Consequently, a straightforward and transparent process is followed to describe the review protocol, synthesis approach, and modeling process. This paper illustrates the value of *STM* in developing theory and causal narratives by synthesizing findings from the heterogeneous bodies of literature and qualitative data in general, and specifically in macromarketing, addressing the wicked complexity of macro-social problems.

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PREFACE TO CHAPTER 4: LINK & CONTRIBUTIONS

This chapter addresses research question 3 in this thesis, as illustrated below. It conceptualises and characterises brand systems and advances systems thinking in branding research.

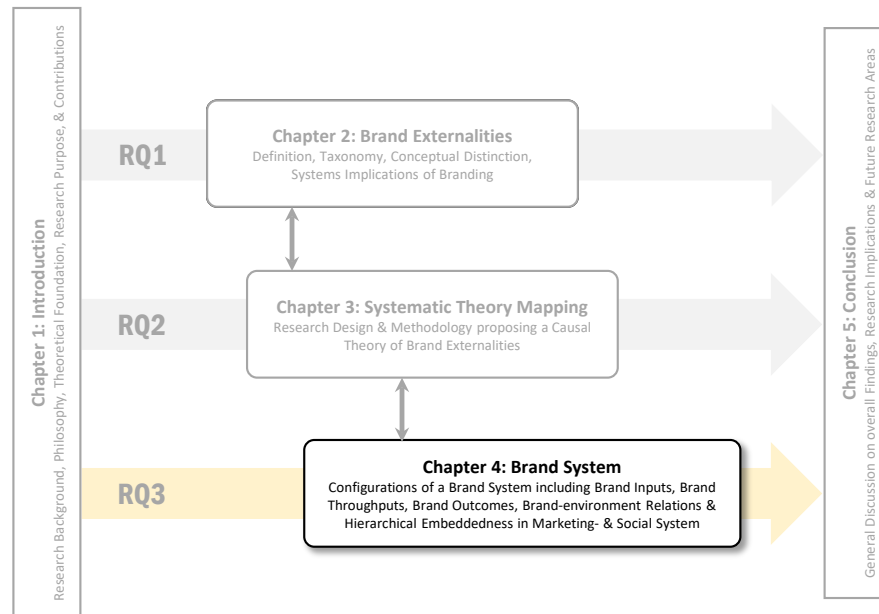


Figure 1.2 Overview of the Thesis

Chapter 2 proposed a systems-based model of branding to determine the specifications of a brand system for a more socially sustainable branding practice. A brand system framework from a macro-marketing perspective is significant to account for the complex systemic influences, like brand externalities, largely ignored by the contemporary branding literature. Based on the literature reviewed systematically, Chapter 3 largely focused on brand externalities providing a causal theory respectively. Chapter 4 takes the findings of the review further and identifies brand externalities as one configuration among others within a brand system.

For developing the causal theory of brand externalities, research question 2 of this thesis was further elaborated with four sub-questions in step 2 of the *STM* process. These questions were:

- What are the key factors driving brand value?
- What feedback mechanisms emerge from the interactions among these factors?
- How can brand value creation and destruction be configured?
- How does the value spill over as brand externalities within the system and beyond?

The answers for sub-question (a) and (c) above are only partially reflected in Chapter 3 because the focus of that chapter was to develop the causal theory of brand externalities. For this reason, a very simplified core feedback loop of brand value creation was developed (see Loop R₁ in Figure 3.5). This feedback loop features key drivers of brand value but does not fully describe the configurations of a brand system resulting in brand value creation as well as brand value destruction.

Chapter 4 describes the configurations of a brand system for holistically analysing and managing them in view of brand externalities. The brand system framework integrates diverse perspectives in branding theory and practice and accounts for the complexity and dynamics of brand value formation. The critical configurations in brand systems are:

- Brand Inputs: the contributions of the extended brand actor agency in a brand system.
- Brand Throughputs: the value-based social and relational mechanisms among the brand actor agency.
- Brand Outcomes: the consequences of various value-based social and relational mechanisms among the brand actor agency.
- Brand-environment Relations and Path Dependencies: the systemic interdependencies among different brand actors and hierarchical embeddedness of the brand system within a dynamic branding environment.

Chapter 4: BRAND SYSTEM

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4.1 Abstract

Purpose – This paper proposes an integrative perspective for branding theory and illustrates the complexity and dynamics of brand value formation. The paper conceptualises and characterises Brand Systems and outlines propositions and research avenues to advance the systems view of branding.

Design/methodology/approach – A conceptual synthesis approach is adopted, grounded in the theoretical foundations of systems thinking. The paper builds on Marketing Systems Theory and integrates extant branding perspectives providing a holistic framework of the Brand System.

Findings – The conceptual framework delineates brand inputs, throughputs, outcomes, feedback loops, and path dependency among brand actors. It demonstrates systemic interdependencies and hierarchical embeddedness of the brand system within a dynamic branding environment.

Originality – This research expands the scope of brand actor agency and brand outcomes, extending the locus of brand value formation. It provides analytical guidelines for brand system analysis and intervention.

Research limitations/implications – This paper contributes to systems thinking in branding and brand value co-creation research. It extends Marketing Systems Theory into the branding context and provides directions for exploring structural and functional configurations, cause-consequence processes, and outcome concerns of brand value formation.

Practical implications – This conceptual framework informs brand development, management, and regulation at a macro-level. Managers can apply the brand system concept to identify and manage conflicting expectations of brand actors and alleviate

adverse brand outcomes like negative brand externalities, enhancing overall brand system health.

Keywords

Systems thinking, general systems theory, marketing system, feedback loops, brand stakeholders, brand value co-creation, brand externalities, brand environment

4.2 Introduction

The systems view of brands has recently gained traction, especially in the context of brand value and meaning co-creation and co-destruction (Conejo & Wooliscroft, 2015a; Kadirov & Varey, 2011; Padela et al., 2021). This view is distinct from the early conceptualisations proposed around the turn of the century (e.g., Aaker, 1996; Wood, 2000). Pre-millennial research viewed branding as tactical and managerial, projecting brands as a label of identification and functional and symbolic images from product- and firm-centric perspectives (de Chernatony, 2009; Louro & Cunha, 2001; Schroeder, 2017). The focus shifted towards multi-constituent branding later, beginning with consumer-centrism and evolving into stakeholder-oriented relational, networked, and cultural approaches that view a brand as a dynamic socio-cultural process (Merz et al., 2009; Schroeder, 2009).

Brands are radically changing and becoming far more complex in response to smart technologies, hyperconnectivity, ubiquitous access to information, social practices and trends over social media, and larger environmental turbulence (Leitch & Merlot, 2018; Swaminathan et al., 2020). Oh et al. (2020, p. 160) anticipates that “the role and influence of brands will dramatically change” and “it may also face paradigmatic shifts arising from macro changes in consumer demand, mainly due to technological developments.” The dominant extant theoretical perspectives are not adequate to address the realities of contemporary society. Hyperconnectivity has created new actors like micro-influencers, brand publics and unanticipated publics (Arvidsson & Caliandro, 2016; Wakefield & Knighton, 2019), and despite the stakeholder orientation, the scope of brand value formation in the extant branding frameworks is often limited to the context of brand communities (e.g., Hatch & Schultz, 2010; Kornum et al., 2017).

Branding is also characterised by an ethical component. The widespread prevalence of anti-branding movements across several continents has created an ethical controversy, maintaining that “branding is not just problematic, but ethically wrong” (Hunt, 2019, p. 408). Brands are criticised for commercialising culture, exploiting stakeholders and the

environment, destroying civic and social values, and undermining the common good (Botterill & Kline, 2007; Caccamo, 2009; Klein, 1999). Contemporary society requires firms to recognise the social and environmental responsibilities of brands (Spry et al., 2021), and address brand misconduct (Huber et al., 2010) and the destructive side of branding (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018). Hunt (2019) argues that branding as a societal institution and organisational practice is not unethical; however, scholars should develop frameworks to evaluate the ethics of branding.

Systems thinking in branding research is an important theoretical development that moved the conceptualisation of brands from closed dyadic, triadic, and networked perspectives towards an open system of interactions between networks of brand actors. This research addresses brands as a complex cultural system or gestalt (Diamond et al., 2009), an interactive relationship system (Skaalsvik & Olsen, 2014), and a nested system of brand identities (Kornum et al., 2017). Most notable among these frameworks is Conejo and Wooliscroft's (2015a) semiotic brand system. While these conceptualisations have triggered a multi-disciplinary approach towards branding, there are several concerns: Are brands merely *semiotic* systems? Should the focus of brand outcomes be limited to the *creation* of brand meaning and value? Does the scope of brand actors within existing literature explain realities like value destruction, consumer resistance and anti-branding in contemporary society? We argue that the narrow conceptualisations of brand actors leave several systemic influences unacknowledged. A broader spectrum of brand actors' connectivity, collaboration, and competition should be considered to explain the complexity of collective brand value formation. Campbell and Price (2021, p. 524) state that "without question, more research is needed to address the complex dynamics and implications for consumer, firm, and societal value of empowered consumers and brands embedded in complex and changing sociopolitical systems."

Scholars have called recently for brands to be conceptualised more broadly. Spry et al. (2021, p. 543) argue that branding is a prosocial process that should be aimed at creating value outcomes for stakeholders, the market and society at large, and "brands must come to value and prioritise orientations that are not entirely necessarily grounded in economic interests and activities." Research should continue to find integrative solutions that balance different conceptual orientations and theoretical tenets of branding (Keller, 2021). Swaminathan et al. (2020, p. 42) argue that existing theoretical perspectives on branding need to be refocused and integrated where "the society perspective should go beyond the role of brands as cultural symbols and examine them as agents of social change"; similarly,

“the firm perspective will need to embrace societal questions [...] including social responsibility, sustainability, and human-resource practices that go beyond profit maximization”; and “consumer perspective will also have to be more rooted in the society perspective as consumers form networks that are becoming distinct and occasionally vociferous entities that can shape both managerial practice and societal trends.”

Systems theory can help integrate contributions from different theoretical perspectives and provide a paradigmatic shift in addressing the interconnectedness and relationships between a broader group of entities and actors within dynamic environments (Domegan et al., 2019; Mars et al., 2012). Bhattacharya and Korschun (2008, p. 113) suggest that the “systems-based approach may help shed light on the potential tensions and synergies that arise in these [relationship] networks.” Systems theory gives a holistic perspective required to determine whether the net value outcome is negative or positive (Layton & Duffy, 2018; Layton, 2011).

In this paper, we present a *Brand System* framework built on Marketing Systems Theory to: (1) expand the scope of brand actors within the system, (2) determine value configurations resulting in different brand outcomes, and (3) identify the feedback effects (path dependencies) that contribute to the complexity and dynamics of brand value formation. Instead of focusing on the ideas competing to define brands, the brand system framework is aimed at the collaboration of the key theoretical perspectives of branding research. We construe brands as an assemblage of heterogeneous processes, practices, technologies, and ideas, and provide a holistic framework with descriptions of the individual and aggregated values, influences, and contributions of the extended brand actor agency. The brand system framework embodies the flow of interrelated input–throughput–output processes over time across the complex hierarchical branding environment. It accounts for the systemic interconnectedness of brand actors and how formal and informal exchange networks and system–environment interactions mediate brand value formation. There are several systems-based models of brands to date. Where the brand system framework differs is in its broader conceptualisation and the scope of systemic influences and value configurations, demonstrating the realities of contemporary society.

We begin with an overview of the developments in branding research across key theoretical perspectives, indicating the need for an integrated brand system framework. This is followed by an overview of marketing systems theory to establish a foundational premise. We conceptualise *Brand System* as an integrated multi-disciplinary framework

by leveraging the contributions of the extant theoretical perspectives in branding and discuss our contributions and implications for theory, practice, and research.

4.3 Developments in Branding Research: Key Theoretical Perspectives

Branding is discussed extensively in marketing literature, and different branding models have emerged from evolving paradigms and philosophies. Table 4.1 provides a brief overview of the contributions of key theoretical perspectives in branding research. Our review of the literature finds that branding research gained momentum in the early 1990s. Since Aaker's book *Managing Brand Equity* (Aaker, 1991), Keller's *Journal of Marketing* paper (Keller, 1993), and a 1994 special issue in the *Journal of Marketing Research*, branding research has steadily advanced into a distinct area of academic inquiry and practice.

The pre-millennial conceptualisations of brands are *product-* and *firm-centric*, where firms and marketers are active owners and controllers of brands (Louro & Cunha, 2001). Despite some palpable shortcomings and criticism, the product- and firm-centric logic of branding prevailed since P&G implemented brand management system in 1931. These perspectives are criticised as reductionist visions suffering from branding myopia because they disregard the role of consumers as active co-creators of brand meanings (Berthon et al., 2007; de Lencastre & Côte-Real, 2010). The focus consequently shifted from the brand or the firm towards consumer centrality in brand value creation (Schroeder, 2017). The *consumer perspective of branding* is criticised for focusing on dyadic consumer-brand interactions while ignoring the contributions of a firm's internal resources and capabilities and external value network (Louro & Cunha, 2001).

The *relational perspective of branding* is stakeholder-oriented and recognises that brands are dynamic and organic (Brodie et al., 2017; Iglesias et al., 2013). This perspective extends into the *cultural perspective of branding* that regards a brand as a socio-cultural phenomenon (Diamond et al., 2009; Heller & Kelly, 2015). The relational and socio-cultural branding perspectives are criticised for commercialising culture, colonising social life, and commodifying meanings and values (Botterill & Kline, 2007; Klein, 1999). Brands are accused of propagating ephemeral relationships and diminishing happiness and subjective well-being (Caccamo, 2009; Ritzer, 2004), producing anti-branding sentiments and critical reflexive consumption (Østergaard et al., 2015).

Table 4.1 Key Theoretical Perspectives of Branding Research

Perspectives	Contributions
Product- and Firm-centric Branding	These perspectives define brands as strategic and financial assets that emerge from comprehensive marketing programs. The brand manager is viewed as a boundary spanner between functional departments, suppliers, distributors, retailers, and consumers; and is considered responsible for planning, budgeting, implementing, and controlling the brand performance (Low & Fullerton, 1994). These perspectives theorised models of brand identity (Aaker, 1996), brand equity and brand value (Keller, 2013), and corporate brand (Knox & Bickerton, 2003).
Consumer-centric Branding	Consumer-centrism posits a brand as a perceptual construct and typifies consumers in symbolic exchange, asserting brand precedence in consumers' self-expression and identity reinforcement (Berger & Heath, 2007; Escalas & Bettman, 2005). This perspective contributed to conceptualisations of brand knowledge, including brand awareness and brand image (Biel, 1997; Keller, 2003), brand personality (Aaker, 1997), and customer-based brand equity (Keller, 1993).
Relational Branding	This perspective views a brand as an iterative value co-creation process transpiring between the firm and other stakeholders (Brodie et al., 2017; Merz et al., 2009). Brand value is the outcome of interactions and relationships involved in the value creation process (Jones, 2005). This perspective advanced relational concepts like brand relationships (Fournier, 1998), brand interaction (Fyrberg & Jürriado, 2009), brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009), brand engagement (France et al., 2016), brand co-creation (Hatch & Schultz, 2010), brand community and brand tribes (Cova & Pace, 2006).
Socio-cultural Branding	This perspective extends relational branding and regards a brand as a cultural resource and a cultural cynosure (Diamond et al., 2009). Brand value is networked and lies in cultural meanings and myths. This perspective generated concepts like brand culture (Schroeder & Salzer-Mörling, 2006), brand heritage (Rose et al., 2016), and brand iconicity (Holt, 2004), emphasising that brands evolve over time in congruence with changes in ideological, communal, and socio-cultural logics (Cova & D'Antone, 2016).

The evolution of branding research perspectives shows a broadening scope of stakeholders better captured with a systems view of brand. Branding from a *systems perspective* is not new and often overlaps with other theoretical perspectives of branding research. de Chernatony and Dall’Olmo Riley (1998) argued that stakeholders perceive a brand en masse instead of its deconstructed parts and proposed a consumer-centric double vortex model of the brand. Keller and Lehmann’s (2006) systems model of brand is market-oriented and describes systemic brand antecedents and consequences. Diamond et al. (2009) conceptualised brand gestalt as a complex cultural system where a brand is the outcome of meanings negotiated between marketers and consumers. These models demonstrate micro-systems thinking and miss the richness gained through a more thorough systems perspective.

Recently, Padela et al. (2021), while conceptualising brand externalities, established branding as a macro-systems phenomenon and regarded brands as agents of value co-creation and co-destruction from a marketing systems perspective. Several scholars have used the term ‘*brand system*’ (see Table 4.2). Among these, Conejo and Wooliscroft’s (2015a) semiotic brand system (SBS) is one of the scholarly contributions that truly reflects systems thinking. We concur with SBS that brands are the outcome of an active negotiation between multiple stakeholders co-creating brand meaning and value, and semiotics/symbolism is a critical configuration in a brand system. Yet, we also recognise the need to go beyond *co-creation* and *semiotics* to characterise a brand system.

Marketing systems operate through the flows of ownership, possession, finance, risk and information (Fisk, 1967). SBS focuses on the flow of information (meanings) and emphasises the role of communication based on the overarching semiotic objectives. We argue that explaining the realities of contemporary society, such as value destruction, anti-branding, and consumer resistance, requires the flows of ownership, possession, finance, and risk to be integrated. For example, consumer empowerment fuelled by social media has altered the flows of ownership and possession. Firms own the trademarks, but possession of the brands lies with consumers causing a blurring and broadening of branding boundaries (Swaminathan et al., 2020). Attempts to draw the flow of finance due to shareholder pressure may cause consumer exploitation in brand value creation and trigger value destruction (Cova & Paraque, 2012). Consumers’ critical reflection and punishing behaviours ensue if the flow of risk is not managed during product-harm crisis, service failure, environmental damage, or other image- and value-related brand transgressions (Isiksal & Karaosmanoglu, 2020). Similarly, value co-creation through

stakeholder engagement brings transparency and exposes a firm to the risk of market outbursts, reputational damage, consumer resistance and anti-branding (Hatch & Schultz, 2010).

Although SBS addresses contextual stakeholders and recognises the significance of stakeholder-environment interactions, we identify that the scope of contextual stakeholders should be expanded. Research has identified new brand actors, like micro-influencers, brand publics and unanticipated publics, who largely influence brand meaning and value (Arvidsson & Caliandro, 2016; Wakefield & Knighton, 2019). We assert that a more integrative conceptualisation, with a broader scope of brand actors, is essential to better understand the realities of contemporary society and the evolving roles of consumers and firms.

Next, we review the aspects of marketing systems theory used in conceptualising brand systems and subsequent discussion.

Table 4.2 Systems-based Branding Frameworks

Model Concept	Scope/Focus	Exemplars
Brand system is a complex hierarchical portfolio of multiple intertwined and overlapping brands. This view of brand portfolio shifts the emphasis from individual brands to the relationships among brands in the system for effective management of the entire system of brands. Brands are strategic assets and components within a larger system of related brands.	It is a firm-centric, product-focused view of the brand/product portfolio that provides a platform and context to identify risks; evaluate synergy, performance, growth potential, and future extensions; coordinate investments/resource allocation; and plan strategic directions.	Aaker (1996)
Brand Management System is a managerial system that organises internal and external information, incorporating cultural and environmental evaluation of brand and organisational commitments to the brand strategy to achieve customer response for competitive advantage through product innovation, market strategies and service leadership. Brands are strategic resources.	It is a product- and customer-oriented framework with the scope of brand constituents limited to managerial functions and practices for developing strong brands and improving a firm's customer and competitive performance. The outcome and feedback are restricted to customer response, which influences the brand environment and firm situation, mandating strategy modification.	Katsanis (1999)
Brand System is a triad of a brand concept, brand name and symbolism, and product or service experience. Branding is a pyramidal management process that begins with brand vision and core brand values around a strategic brand personality and attributes shared across the family of multiple products. Brands are strategic intangible assets.	It is a product-oriented strategic marketing conceptualisation for brand conception, management, growth and valuation within changing market conditions.	Kapferer (2008)
Brand System is a social phenomenon where communication organises meanings between producers and consumers individually and socially. Brands are modes of communication.	This view is consumer-centric and emphasises controlling consumption through communication. It proposes that the brand system dissipates if consumers cease to communicate about brands. The brand environment is considered external to the system. This model largely excludes significant structural dynamics and relational agencies, restricting the scope of the concept.	Giesler (2003) Luedicke and Giesler (2005)
Brand System is a complex emergent system of interactions among people, technologies, organisations, and information. It is comprised of an enduring idea, differentiation, and experiences of customers, employees, investors, and communities. Brands are service vehicles co-created by the interactions of economic entities.	This concept follows a relational approach and suffers from the economic actor bias. It is largely disconnected from the dynamic brand environment and does not account for feedback loops.	Maglio et al. (2010)
Brand Ecosystem uses the living ecosystem metaphor and narrates brand interactions between firms, government and technology as multiple levels forming a halo around the brand. It addresses the relationship between the brand and cultural values and artefacts. Brands are bearers of cultural values.	This concept is relational, focusing only on B2B interactions and technological interdependence between firms, undermining other brand interactions within the ecosystem. The contribution of government and non-government organisations is discussed only within the context of place branding, discounting other branding contexts.	Bergvall (2006)
Brand System is a harmonious whole of management decisions, marketing components, branding components, stakeholders, information and context. Brands are input-output systems of interrelated components and interacting marketing processes for identifying the product and creating awareness and meanings.	This systems conceptualisation is consumer-centric and directed towards strategy development. The contextual stakeholders encompass the brand's microenvironment, and situational context is limited to consumers' individual circumstances. The brand outcomes are restricted to positive consumer outcomes, and systemic feedback effects are directed towards managerial decision needs.	Franzen and Moriarty (2008)
Systems Model of Brand elucidates how brands manifest the value through marketers' actions on the customers and financial markets, keeping competitors', channel partners', employees' and environmental influences under consideration. Brands are multidimensional constructs.	This model is basic and succinct and doesn't address the dynamic complexity of brand value formation. It presents narrow descriptions of the brand constituency, brand interactions, brand outcomes, feedback mechanisms and systemic effects.	Keller and Lehmann (2006)
Semiotic Brand System considers branding an ongoing process of meaning negotiation with internal and external stakeholders. Brands are semiotic marketing systems that generate value for direct and indirect participants, society, and the broader environment through the exchange of co-created meaning.	This framework emphasises the flow of communication and semiotics. It accentuates brand outcome as the creation of brand meanings and value, and the scope of brand stakeholders is limited as in stakeholder-oriented relational and socio-cultural branding frameworks.	Conejo and Wooliscroft (2015a)

4.4 Theoretical Foundation: Marketing Systems Theory

Systems thinking in marketing is widely advocated (Dixon, 1967; Vargo et al., 2017) and rooted in General Systems Theory (GST) (Boulding, 1956; von Bertalanffy, 1950, 1968). GST is a “general science of wholeness” that focuses on interdependent systems of relationships, dynamic processes, interactions, and consequences of those interactions (von Bertalanffy, 1968, p. 37).

Alderson (1957) was one of the first scholars to utilise GST for developing a general theory of marketing. Alderson’s functionalist paradigm led to the conceptualisation of the marketing system (Fisk, 1967) and influenced research on the social embeddedness and systemic complexity of the marketing phenomenon (e.g., Dixon, 1984; Dowling, 1983; Meade & Nason, 1991). Fisk (1967) delineated micro- and macro-marketing systems and identified seven levels in the hierarchy of systems for marketing from the individual to the world economy. While considering marketing systems as provisioning mechanisms of society, Fisk argued that marketing systems are the most efficient way to improve social and human welfare. Lewis and Erickson (1969) demonstrated that a marketing system is comprised of objects (input and output objects, processes combining inputs to produce outputs, feedback-control and system restrictions), and relationships between the objects and between their attributes. Dowling (1983, p. 22) defined a marketing system as “a complex social mechanism for coordinating production, distribution and consumption decisions.” Dixon (1984) identified the marketing system as a subsystem of the economic system, which itself is a societal subsystem. A marketing system interacts with and influences other social systems, the cultural system, and the material environment. Moreover, Dixon and Wilkinson (1984) proposed a functionalism-based approach to marketing theory and described seven hierarchical levels of a marketing system. While investigating marketing’s societal contributions, Wilkie and Moore (1999) discussed aggregate marketing systems that emerge as complex human institutions serving the needs of their host society. These scholarly efforts developed into Marketing Systems Theory (Layton, 2007, 2011, 2019), which defines a marketing system as:

“a network of individuals, groups and/or entities, embedded in a social matrix, linked directly or indirectly through sequential or shared participation in economic exchange, which jointly and/or collectively creates economic value with and for customers, through the offer of assortments of goods, services, experiences and ideas, that emerge in response to or anticipation of customer demand” (Layton, 2011, p. 259).

Marketing systems are essentially a nested hierarchy of inputs and outputs and processes that convert inputs into outputs (Dixon & Wilkinson, 1984). They emerge from localised choices and individual contributions of interdependent system actors over time and space. They are structured as multi-level systems where micro-systems are embedded within meso-systems, further situated within macro-systems (Layton, 2015). Understanding the embeddedness of a marketing system within the hierarchical levels of the social system enables one to see the unpredictable emergent phenomena that are difficult to analyse from reductionist perspectives (Domegan et al., 2020). Marketing systems research unravels the links between micro-action and macro-phenomena, where issues of agency, structure, operations, control, and performance are important considerations (Dixon & Wilkinson, 1984). Shaw and Jones (2005) suggested that the concept of marketing systems provides a hierarchical superstructure that must be included in any attempts towards a general theory of marketing. Shultz et al. (2014, p. 87) identified that marketing system research provides a nuanced analysis of the complexities within marketing systems and sheds light on the “systems that often are perceived to be dysfunctional, inefficient, unjust, different, or are simply unknown; the logic being that systemic understanding is not only important for academic purposes, but also to serve as a bridge for cooperation, enhanced efficiencies and efficacies, and ultimately better outcomes for all stakeholders of the system, both internally and externally. In an increasingly global economy in which most if not all national marketing systems are interconnected in some capacity, all of us are stakeholders.”

The theory of marketing systems identifies the structure, functions, and outcomes essential to characterise and configure marketing systems for analysis and intervention (Layton, 2015). The structural elements in a marketing system can be tangible and intangible, including: the agency of system actors (as individuals, groups and entities), the roles played, the value propositions made, and the actions performed by them; the marketing infrastructure based on the institutional settings, procedures, logics and physical environment, as well as the infrastructure of meanings, value, norms and regulations, facilitating their interactions and exchange; the functional flows of ownership, possession, finance, risk and information; and the hierarchy of social, cultural, political, economic and related networks linking system actors over time and space (Layton, 2007). The individual marketing roles of the system actors are the basic units of a marketing system (Dixon & Wilkinson, 1984).

The output of a marketing system includes a diverse assortment of goods, services, experiences, and ideas (Layton, 2007) that eventually produces outcomes in the form of

material value and satisfaction (Dixon & Wilkinson, 1984). In creating and delivering the assortments, the system also generates a wide range of externalities and unintended outcomes (Mundt & Houston, 2010; Nason, 1989). The effectiveness of a marketing system depends on the contribution of system outcomes to the quality of life of the relevant community (Layton, 2007). The immediate marketing system outcomes depend on the balance between what is offered and what is desired. Long-term outcomes vary with benefits flowing to respective system actors, externalities diminishing or enhancing those benefits, the achievement of distributive justice, system resilience to environmental and external turbulence, and system sustainability (Layton, 2015). The output of a marketing system and the accompanying externalities directly influence the standard of living at the micro-, meso- and macro-level of society (Layton, 2007).

Marketing system analysis begins with identifying a focal system of action (Dixon & Wilkinson, 1984; Domegan et al., 2020). The success of a marketing system, in terms of its efficiency and effectiveness, depends on the coordinated working and equilibrium among the structural elements. Although structural and functional elements are common across all marketing systems, each marketing system differs in its nature and characteristics. These differences emerge from varying inputs and choices of system actors and entities, interactions within and across the adjacent, higher- or lower-level systems, and other contextual factors. Given the diversity in marketing systems, Layton (2015) suggested that marketing system specifications for analysis and intervention require defining: (1) the system boundary by identifying the levels of aggregation and system actors as individuals, entities and groups within each level, (2) the institutional settings, procedures and logics, and the physical infrastructure facilitating interactions and exchange, (3) the characteristics of the system environment including social, cultural, political, economic and other contextual conditions shaping the interactions and exchange, and (4) the potential linkages and inputs (feedback loops) from the adjacent, higher or lower-level systems. When the core structure of a marketing system is understood, the analysis can proceed to delineating social mechanisms and interactions among system actors that produce certain outcomes (Domegan et al., 2020). A poorly defined marketing system can result in analytical errors, leading to poor managerial decisions.

Entities comprising a marketing system may themselves be marketing systems (Layton, 2011). We identify brand systems as a lower-level configuration within a broader marketing system, that require a holistic, multi-level and multi-domain approach for analysis. Marketing Systems Theory enables the integration of diverse disciplines and

theoretical perspectives and facilitates a macro-theoretical framework for studying complex real-world phenomena, such as branding. According to Marketing Systems Theory, we develop configurations of a brand system based on: (1) inputs from brand actors and the system environment, (2) throughputs delineating value formation and brand actor interactions, (3) outcomes from creating and delivering brand assortment as value created/destroyed, and the accompanying brand externalities, while (4) recognising the hierarchical levels of the system environment and potential linkages from the adjacent, higher- or lower-level systems. We extend Marketing Systems Theory into the branding context, providing a conceptual framework that links branding behaviour exhibited within subsystems of a marketing system to the hierarchy of a larger marketing system, which in turn links to the society as a whole.

4.5 Brand Systems

All brand systems possess common structural and functional elements that lead to their emergence, growth, and evolution. Based on Marketing Systems Theory, we conceptualise brand systems as follows:

A brand system is a social matrix of diverse brand actors, connected with adjacent systems within a hierarchy of respective systems, linked temporally, spatially, and symbolically, providing individual and collective brand inputs that undergo relational processes and generating brand outputs and outcomes that influence the system itself as well as the system hierarchy.

Figure 1 is a simplification of the non-linear structure and mechanism of a brand system organised as brand inputs, brand throughputs, and brand outcomes within the dynamic hierarchical system environment. These structural and functional components are described below, providing a guideline for analysis and intervention within a brand system.

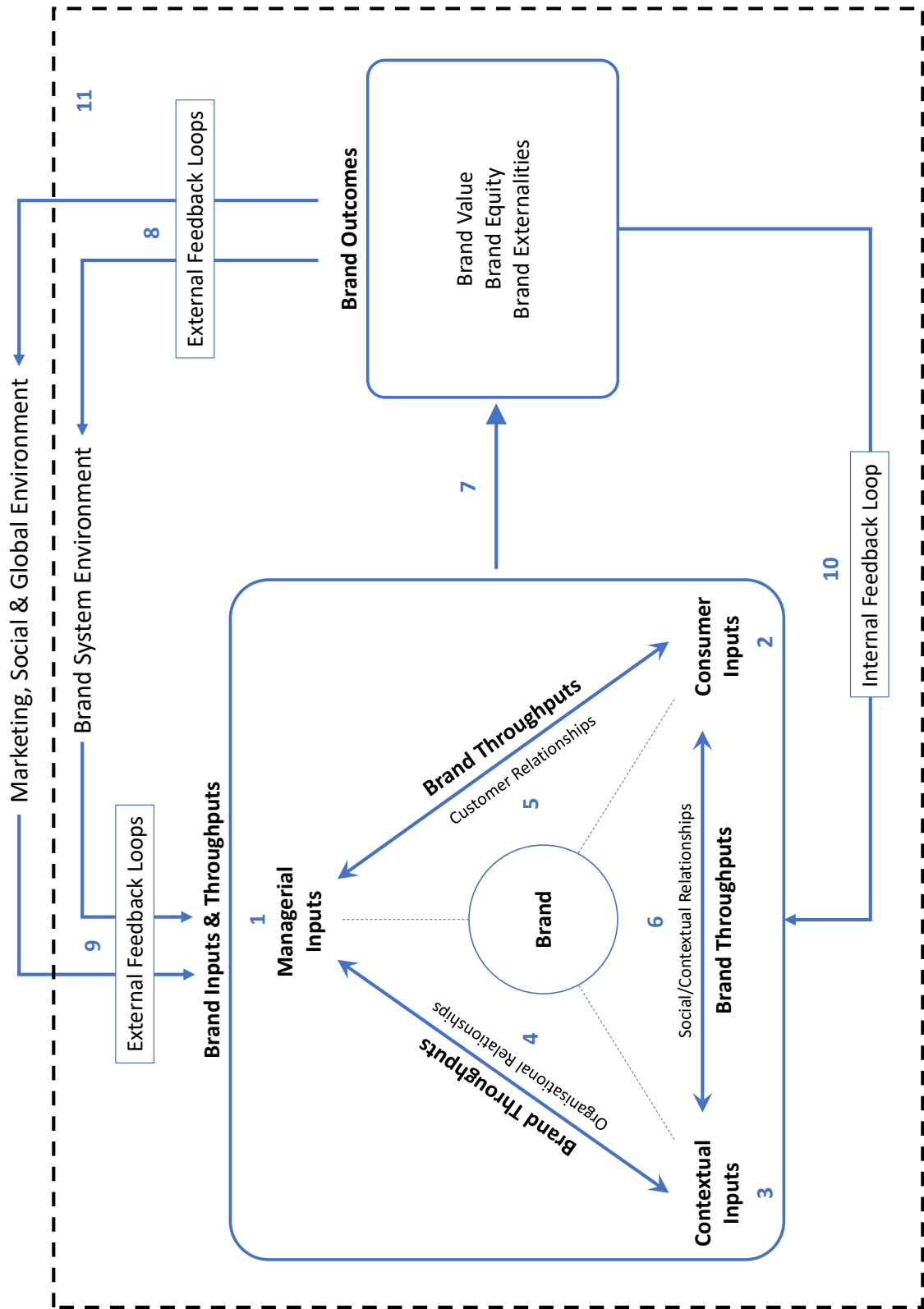


Figure 4.1 Brand System

4.5.1 Brand Inputs

Brand inputs are the constituent elements of brand outcomes. The stakeholder-oriented branding perspectives provide a broad view of multiple sources of brand value and equity (Gregory, 2007; Jones, 2005). Brands are organic and socially alive (Brodie et al., 2017; Iglesias et al., 2013) shared by managers, employees, customers, and other external stakeholders across different brand nodes (touchpoints). We identified a broader range of brand actors and classified them as representational, customer and contextual actors (see Table 4.3). We acknowledge the extended brand actor agency as subsystems within a brand system that may influence and get influenced by the brand.

A brand provides a platform for social interactions and mediates brand actor relationships. It amalgamates the managerial perspective as marketing propositions and actions; the consumer perspective as an identity and sign system; and the contextual perspective as the cognitive, affective and behavioural responses from other brand actors (de Lencastre & Côte-Real, 2010). Based on these perspectives, we describe managerial, consumer and contextual inputs below, before discussing the collective manifestation of brand inputs.

4.5.1.1 Managerial inputs

Managers are representational brand actors. They represent the brand and engage internal and external brand actors through technical and analytical competencies (Gregory, 2007; Katsanis, 1999). The stakeholder-oriented branding literature recognises the loss of managerial control over brands. Haarhoff and Kleyn (2012, p. 112) noted that managers “can guide, influence and inspire consumers to co-create brand meaning, but unilateral identification and building of all aspects of brand positioning [...] is no longer possible.” Managers play a passive role as hosts and facilitate other brand actors during the brand value creation process (Christodoulides, 2009; Iglesias et al., 2013).

Table 4.3 Brand Actors

Representational	
producers	brand managers (teams), supervisors, trademark owners, designers, manufacturers, marketers, destination councils, residents, board of directors & chief executive officers (corporate leadership),
presenters	frontline personnel, service providers, employees, staff, volunteers
supporters	functional specialists, hierarchical divisions, internal departments, business units
Customer	intermediate & final customers, consumers, brand community, brand tribes, tourists, visitors
Contextual	
suppliers	material/component and service suppliers, labour suppliers & recruitment agencies, competency/capability providers
distributors	distribution firms, marketing intermediaries, wholesalers, retailers, resellers, transporters, logistics
promoters/facilitators	infomediaries, IT, brand consultancies, market research agencies, advertising agencies, mass media, social/digital media, business press, journalists, bloggers, influencers, opinion leaders, experts, other professional consultants
financiers	shareholders, creditors, investors, banks, financial and investment analysts, venture capitalists, insurers, stockbrokers
regulators	the central and regional government, local councils, quasi-government bodies, legislators, law enforcers, industrial, trade & global unions, non-commercial entities, regulatory authorities, export agencies, trademark and intellectual property commissions
alliances/collaborators	strategic partners, co-branding alliances, franchisees, licensees
firm neighbours	neighbourhood residents, local community, natural environment inhabitants
consumer neighbours	family, friends, neighbours, co-workers, colleagues, membership groups
pressure groups	anti-brand actors, citizen-action groups, consumer protection, environmental picketers/activists, minority groups, religious & political activists, NPOs, NGOs
other social groups	the general public, brand public, unanticipated public, industry, society, culture, economy
adversaries	competitors, rivals, criminal networks, illegal markets, counterfeiters, second-hand brand marketers

Source: Adapted from Apte and Sheth (2017); Buttle (1996); Christopher et al. (2002); Gummesson (1994); Mitchell et al. (1997); Padela et al. (2021); Payne et al. (2005); Srivastava et al. (1998); Wakefield and Knighton (2019).

Brands are conditional assets (Kapferer, 2008) and begin with value propositions revolving around the object of branding (Brodie et al., 2017; de Lencastre & Côte-Real, 2010). The product- and firm-oriented branding literature offers several models that describe managerial brand-building inputs, such as product and service design, packaging, positioning, promotions, brand extensions etc. (e.g., Boyle, 2007; Katsanis, 1999; Knox & Bickerton, 2003). Broadly, managerial decisions include planning and implementing brand architecture strategy, brand elements, product development, and channel strategies, and aligning brand-controlled communications around uncontrolled communications and external events (Franzen & Moriarty, 2008; Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Besides the object of branding and value propositions, we identify brand orientation, internal branding, brand delivery and communication, as critical managerial inputs for building and sustaining brand equity and value (see Table 4.4).

4.5.1.2 Consumer/Customer inputs

Customers and their social interactions, creating and disseminating brand associations and meanings, are pivotal in brand value creation (Fyrberg & Jürjado, 2009; Skålén et al., 2015). Customer inputs involve “a series of activities through which the customer aims to achieve a particular purpose” (Payne et al., 2009, p. 382). These activities enable multiple customer roles, such as payer, user, competence (resource) provider, quality controller, co-producer, or co-marketer (Nambisan & Baron, 2007; Payne et al., 2008). Customer contributions are manifested in the enactment of brand identity through brand-led social networking and sharing of knowledge, ideas, opinions, and experiences (Kornum et al., 2017; Leitch & Merlot, 2018). France et al. (2015) identified brand engagement, congruity, involvement, interactivity, community practices, and co-creation practices as important customer inputs that produce brand knowledge and value.

Brand engagement is a widely researched and documented customer input (Carlson et al., 2019; France et al., 2016). It is the customers’ motivational and psychological state characterised by cognition, affection and activation (Hollebeek et al., 2014). It also encompasses experiential and social dimensions (Gambetti et al., 2012). Brand interactivity, quality, self-congruity, and involvement are the drivers of customer-brand engagement, that determine brand value and loyalty (France et al., 2016). Brand engagement also creates brand citizenship behaviour, which includes brand enthusiasm, endorsement, and helping behaviour (Kim et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2014).

Table 4.4 Managerial Brand Inputs

Inputs	Description
The Object of Branding	The object of branding may be a tangible or intangible entity like an idea, product, service, person, corporate, industry, region, destination, country, inter-continental or global value system. The object of branding possesses a social significance that shapes branding practices (Kravets, 2012). It gives a context, level of aggregation and unit of analysis to analyse the brand system. Provided with trademarks (brand elements), it is typically the first line of marketing strategy and the first mediator of stakeholder relationships (Hearn, 2008).
Value Propositions	Value propositions, around an object of branding, communicate managerial intent and act as “an invitation to participate” within the system (Lusch & Webster, 2011, p. 132). They connect brand actors as resource integrators, offering value co-creation opportunities (Vargo & Lusch, 2010; Wieland et al., 2012). Value propositions are “a value alignment mechanism within a marketing system” (Frow & Payne, 2011, p. 236). They operate within and between micro-, meso- and macro-levels, influencing intra-level and inter-level interactions and shaping the levels of aggregation (Domegan et al., 2012; Frow et al., 2014).
Brand Orientation	It is “an inside-out, identity-driven approach that sees brands as a hub for an organisation and its strategy” (Urde et al., 2013, p. 13). It is the managerial mindset, significant within integrated marketing communication, for creating a successful brand identity (Reid et al., 2005). Managers propose an intended brand identity through inputs like brand elements and brand architecture (Burmman, Jost-Benz, et al., 2009; Kornum et al., 2017), e.g., the brand name (Nike), logo (Swoosh), tagline (Just Do It), stores (Nike Town), websites (nike.com), promotional campaigns (She Runs The Night), celebrity endorsements (Cristiano Ronaldo, Colin Kaepernick etc.) and other brand-building activities.
Internal Branding	It encompasses a supportive organisational culture that embeds the brand internally and strengthens employee-brand relationships. It develops “organizational citizens” and extends employee behaviour beyond self-interest (Gregory, 2007, p. 69). Alignment of employee recruitment, training and compensation with brand meaning and identity is an essential managerial input. The lack of employee-brand commitment encourages a silo mentality and compromises brand value (Iglesias et al., 2013). Internal branding is a prerequisite for consistent brand delivery, ensuring consistent interpretation of the brand across various brand touchpoints (M'Zungu et al., 2010).
Brand Delivery	It involves an ability to communicate and provide an expected brand experience in the context of a distinctive and meaningful brand promise (Helm & Jones, 2010). It is comprised of customer experience management, media management and internal brand activation (Perrey et al., 2015). Consistent brand delivery, over time and across various brand touchpoints, is essential to avoid conflicting and/or orthogonal interpretations of brand meaning. It reflects brand reliability and credibility, determines stakeholder trust, and enhances brand reputation (de Lencastre & Côte-Real, 2010; M'Zungu et al., 2010).
Brand Communication	It is a critical component of brand delivery (Perrey et al., 2015). It is a “primary integrative element in managing brand relationships” that assimilates all stakeholders to maximise and reciprocate stakeholder satisfaction (Duncan & Moriarty, 1998, p. 1). Brand communication, traditionally restricted to advertising, contributes to brand strength when characterised by thematic consistency and visual metaphors across various campaigns (Biel, 1997). It involves controlled and uncontrolled communication and creates a positive brand attitude and consumer response (Grace & O'Cass, 2005).

Brand trust and commitment are significant prerequisites for customer inputs (Ind et al., 2013; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Customer inputs enrich customer learning and experience, and depend on extrinsic and intrinsic reasons like rewards, personal relevance and fulfilment, shared interests, creative inclinations, self-expression, and connections. Intrinsically motivated customers possess greater knowledge and creativity and participate more strongly in co-creation processes (Ind et al., 2013; Payne et al., 2009).

4.5.1.3 Contextual inputs

Value is a context-dependent construct (Gummerus, 2013), and several secondary, contextually relevant actors are essential in a brand system. Contextual brand actors become active in certain circumstances and emerge around specific issues (Jones, 2005). These may include systemic changes like legislations, economic and technological development, competitive strategies and actions, evolving public opinions and lifestyles, and anti-brand activism. Research addresses contextual brand actors as non-consumers (Frow & Payne, 2011; Jones, 2005), latent and expectant stakeholders (Mitchell et al., 1997), and indirect-impact and enabler-impact stakeholders (Apte & Sheth, 2017), that include employees, channel members, investors, government, media, the general public, etc.

A brand system may also include other social system actors who are largely powerless or indifferent to dominant worldviews, like brands and branding dynamics. These brand actors depoliticise their consumption rituals (Cova & D'Antone, 2016) and decouple product functionality and brand symbolism (Salzer-Mörling & Strannegård, 2007). Their respective ideas may be “separate, opposed and unconnected” with no formal/informal social contract with the firm/brand (Friedman & Miles, 2002, p. 9). Often, these actors are marginalised in the traditional organisational logic because their actions are seen as mere “atomistic reaction, uncoordinated co-action or associational interaction, depending upon the extent of their participation in a given institutional context” (Archer, 1995, p. 265).

We consider these system actors contextually endogenous, extending the scope of potential brand actors (see Table 4.3). A lack of will or intention does not mean they have no influence on the systemic organisation and reorganisation. They “react and respond to their context as part and parcel of living within it” and “have agential effects on stability or change” (Archer, 1995, p. 259). While these brand actors may not take an active part (either pro- or anti-brand) within the brand system, their aggregate effect can have a decisive influence on brand value, directly affecting brand meaning and equity (Franzen &

Moriarty, 2008; Jones, 2005; Merz et al., 2009). These brand actors may get involved in the flows of information, meanings, finance, or risk via social interactions and influence brand meaning and value creation without participating in the flow of ownership or possession.

Managerial, consumer and contextual inputs manifest collectively within a brand system (see 1, 2, and 3 in Figure 4.1). Following the brief overview of brand inputs, we discuss below the interdependencies among brand actors and inputs that produce synergistic and cyclical effects within a brand system.

4.5.1.4 Propositions for brand inputs

Brand actors are connected through “the hub of the brand” (Jones, 2005, p. 18). The symbolic and material constitution of the brand system lies in the relationships and the symbiotic complementation of managerial, consumer and contextual brand inputs. The relative proportion of each input characterises the brand system with uniqueness. Brand inputs depend on each other and produce a synergistic holistic effect (Biel, 1997; Keller & Lehmann, 2006). For example, a firm depends on other brand actors and resource providers to propose and perform brand value. The marketing-finance interface within a firm is critical, as it can disturb the subtle balance in brand value creation. Excessive financial pressure on marketers may cause over-exploitation of consumer participation in brand value creation leading to value destruction (Cova & Paraque, 2012). Similarly, consumer value depends on marketplace conditions, including channel support, competitor reactions, and employees’ and other actors’ brand performativity (Brodie et al., 2006; Keller & Swaminathan, 2020). Moreover, distributors’ and retailers’ decisions to support the brand depend on revenue anticipation and customer drop-in frequency, which are based on consumer demand and engagement with the brand (Webster, 2000). We propose:

Proposition 1: Each brand input is mediated by other brand inputs, and all brand inputs possess synergistic interaction effects that generate brand outcomes at the micro, meso and macro levels of a brand system.

A brand system utilises the resources, skills, and competencies of brand actors to create brand value. The groups of different brand actors, with their inputs and value creation processes, are subsystems that establish the brand system when aggregated. Brand inputs improve brand actors’ relational experiences by triggering their competencies and behaviours and creating mutual knowledge through reciprocal social learning (Ind et al., 2013; Payne et al., 2009). Each learning incidence influences the next iteration of inputs

and changes the system irreversibly (Frow et al., 2014; Wieland et al., 2012). Dixon and Wilkinson (1984, p. 45) show that “lower-level system outputs are the inputs for higher-level systems.” The brand system recognises the retroactive effects of branding, where the brand outcomes influence the system environment and establish feedback loops, creating further conditions for brand inputs over time (see 8, 9, and 10 in Figure 1). In this way, brand systems are self-learning, self-regulating and self-organising systems. We propose:

Proposition 2: Brand systems are learning systems, where all brand inputs are outputs/outcomes from the same or other hierarchical systems, and all brand outputs/outcomes are inputs to the same or other hierarchical systems.

4.5.2 Brand Throughputs

Brand throughputs are a temporal, spatial and symbolic collective of social mechanisms and relational processes and practices among brand actors within a dynamic environment, where competitive and collaborative interactions determine brand outcomes.

Social systems are characterised by complex, open and emergent interactions (Sawyer, 2005). Luedicke and Giesler (2005) argue that social communication and interactions establish brand systems. The phenomenon and implications of these interactions are often viewed as value co-creation (Lusch & Webster, 2011; Saarijärvi, 2012). Most research views value creation or co-creation as positive. The outcome of social interactions may be co-creative and/or co-destructive of value (Plé & Cáceres, 2010; Smith, 2013). The phenomenon therefore may be more accurately analysed as positive and/or negative value formation (Echeverri & Skålén, 2011; Makkonen & Olkkonen, 2017) and is regarded as such hereafter.

Brand value formation is described in terms of processes (Boyle, 2007; Iglesias et al., 2013) and practices (Schau et al., 2009; Skålén et al., 2015). The process logic sees value formation as a complex, non-linear and often subconscious phenomenon (Payne et al., 2008), whereas the practice logic finds value embedded in routinised activities (Korkman et al., 2010). Regardless of the logic, value mechanisms and social interactions are considered synonymous and interchangeable (Fyrberg & Jürriado, 2009; Saarijärvi, 2012) because the nature, content and position of value formation cannot be determined without understanding interactions (Grönroos, 2011).

Brand actor interactions establish multiple coexisting relationship logics (see 4, 5, and 6 in Figure 4.1) that affect relationship expectations and outcomes. Dialogue, access, risk-benefits, and transparency are the building blocks of these interactions (Prahalad &

Ramaswamy, 2004). Brand actor interactions, following brand inputs, originate a series of coordinated and uncoordinated value mechanisms within the system (Brodie et al., 2017). These mechanisms encompass firm-driven, customer-driven, and interactive value formation processes (Grönroos & Voima, 2013; Gummerus, 2013). Table 4.5 provides an overview of these value formation processes that emerge from direct and indirect system actor interactions. Following is a brief description of these interactions before we characterise collective brand throughputs.

4.5.2.1 Direct interactions

Direct interaction is a merged, integrated process of mutually coordinated and reciprocal actions where actors are actively involved and influence each other's practices (Grönroos, 2011). It is a dialogical co-learning process that integrates the resources and competencies of individual brand actors (Ballantyne & Varey, 2006; Payne et al., 2009).

Grönroos and Voima (2013, p. 140) state that "the core of interaction is a physical, virtual, or mental contact." These contacts occur in connected spaces that are conceptualised as the conversational space (Grönroos & Voima, 2013), value-configuration space (Vargo & Lusch, 2010), co-creation space (Ind et al., 2013), joint sphere (Grönroos, 2011) and brand touchpoints (Baxendale et al., 2015; Sultan, 2018). When stakeholders participate in discussing and developing brands, ideas flow and innovation emerges from these connected spaces. The interaction space is fluid and continuously changes based on the nature of interaction and negotiation of meaning and value (Iglesias et al., 2013; Ind et al., 2013). It includes brand advertising, retail outlets, service centres, service process, online and offline brand communities, social media platforms, corporate website, catalogues, corporate helplines, telemarketing programs, interactive reservation systems, and service contacts like brand employees and staff following sales protocols (Baxendale et al., 2015; Biel, 1997; Sultan, 2018).

Direct interactions develop customer relationships (see 5 in Figure 4.1) and involve interactive value formation, where the roles of customers and firms become multidimensional, and their individual value formation processes become intertwined occurring simultaneously (Grönroos & Voima, 2013; Saarijärvi, 2012). The firm and customers become partners in producing resources and generating value, though the control of interactive value formation remains predominantly with customers (Helkkula et al., 2012).

Table 4.5 Brand Throughputs – Value Formation Mechanisms

Categories	Exemplars	Processes
Firm-driven Value Formation	Payne et al. (2008)	(1) identifying co-creation opportunities, (2) planning value propositions for value co-creation with customers, (3) implementing and evaluating propositions as customer solutions, and (4) managing value encounters and interactions with customers.
	Payne et al. (2009)	
	Srivastava et al. (1999)	
	Grönroos (2011)	
	Nambisan and Baron (2007)	
Customer-driven Value Formation	Payne et al. (2008)	(1) cognitive processes: memory-based and subconscious information processing, (2) emotional/affective processes: attitudes and preferences, (3) behavioural processes: choice, purchase, and usage, and (4) experiential processes: routine and peak experiences, and rational, emotional, contextual and symbolic experiences.
	Payne et al. (2009)	
	Schau et al. (2009)	
	Helkkula et al. (2012)	
Interactive Value Formation	Payne et al. (2008)	Value-in-experience: (1) individual intra-subjective and social inter-subjective experiences, (2) lived and imaginary experiences, and (3) past, present and future experiences. Forms of encounters: (1) communication encounters, (2) usage encounters, and (3) service encounters. Types of encounters: (1) cognition-supporting – knowledge sharing and creating expertise, (2) emotion-supporting – emotional engagement and positive surprise, and (3) action-supporting – enabling trials, self-service, and product usage. (1) co-conception, (2) co-design, (3) co-production, (4) co-promotion, (5) co-pricing, (6) co-distribution, (7) co-consumption, (8) co-maintenance, (9) co-disposal, and (10) co-outsourcing. (1) economic value co-creation: co-production and co-distribution, (2) functional value co-creation: co-design and co-development, (3) emotional value co-creation: co-experiencing, and (4) symbolic value co-creation: co-promotion and co-construction of meanings. (1) informing (information sharing), (2) greeting, (3) delivering, (4) charging, and (5) helping. (1) relationship development, (2) communicative interaction, and (3) knowledge renewal.
	Payne et al. (2009)	
	Sheth and Uslay (2007)	
	Saarijärvi (2012)	
	Echeverri and Skålén (2011)	
	Ballantyne and Varey (2006)	

4.5.2.2 Indirect interactions

Indirect interactions occur before or after direct interactions when customers engage with and utilise the resources or outputs from a firm's value formation processes (Grönroos & Voima, 2013). These interactions arise from a firm's organisational relationships (see 4 in Figure 4.1) and customers' social/contextual relationships (see 6 in Figure 4.1) and involve independent value formation processes (see Table 4.5). These processes may be heterogeneous, not necessarily sequential, and occur in different spheres at different times (Grönroos, 2011).

Customer-driven value formation processes occur in customers' lives beyond brand interfaces and touchpoints (Helkkula et al., 2012). For example, several contextual contact points, such as the stock exchange and traditional earned media, like magazine articles and newspapers, create indirect brand actor interactions (Baxendale et al., 2015). Similarly, peer observations, consumer-to-consumer communications, word-of-mouth recommendations, content creation and sharing, and real or virtual reviews lead to customer-driven value formation (France et al., 2015; Nambisan & Baron, 2007). Customer-driven processes comprise a series of individual or collective goal-directed activities that broadly involve customers' search, evaluation, purchase, use, sharing, learning and reflection. These activities may be influenced by several extraneous factors like family, friends, income, culture, social media and technology. These factors affect customers' knowledge, skills, information, and resource accessibility, beyond a firm's control (Grönroos & Voima, 2013; Payne et al., 2008). Firms play a passive role, as value facilitators, during independent customer-driven value formation (Grönroos, 2011).

4.5.2.3 Propositions for brand throughputs

Value formation is a macro-phenomenon, that involves activities, resources, and interactions of several actors (Gummerus, 2013). The interactions and value are the cause and effect, emerging from the relationships characterised by involvement, knowledge and action (Fyrberg & Jürriado, 2009). In this context, brand throughputs are a collective function of managerial, consumer and contextual inputs, encompassing engagement, knowledge, and participation of brand actors within the system. Brand throughputs generate value if brand inputs are synergistically aligned. The degree of fit between managerial inputs (value proposed), consumer inputs (value sought), and contextual inputs (environmental support) determines the value outcomes in a brand system (see 7 in Figure 4.1). Grönroos (2011) identified value creation as bilateral and reciprocal. We argue that brand throughputs resulting in brand value are reciprocal and multilateral, requiring

various anchoring points and frames of reference, while keeping the entire value formation system in focus.

Unlike brand throughputs, characterised by a multiplicity of its constituents, brand outcomes (discussed below) depend on a brand actor's unique perceptions. Value determination occurs within the micro-domain of the individual actor (Gummerus, 2013) because value is uniquely and phenomenologically determined (Grönroos, 2011; Vargo & Lusch, 2008). We propose:

Proposition 3: Brand throughputs are multilateral and reciprocal, whereas brand outcomes are unilateral and idiosyncratic.

Brand actors are collaborators in value formation and competitors in value extraction (Hatch & Schultz, 2010; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). The value formation processes may be discrete or overlapping and involve tensions and disagreements due to different brand actors' often diverging and conflicting expectations and responses (Gregory, 2007; Onyas & Ryan, 2015). Facilitating value for one actor may cause value destruction for others (Plé & Cáceres, 2010; Smith, 2013). The inherent tensions and synergies between different brand actors characterise their relationships as complex, chaotic, and non-linear with systemic interdependencies (Layton, 2011; Mars et al., 2012). These interdependencies require more than one group of brand actors to be addressed simultaneously. A value alignment through balanced centricity is required (Frow & Payne, 2011) because the collective-conflictual interdependencies among brand actors may steer brand throughputs in different directions, trigger reconfigurations in brand actor relationships and make brand outcomes uncertain, unstable, and continuously evolving. We propose:

Proposition 4: Brand throughputs emerge from dynamic interactions and relationships, with tensions and synergies inherent between brand actors, resulting in varying and often unforeseen brand outcomes over time.

4.5.3 Brand Outputs & Outcomes

Brand outcomes address the logic of brand actor perceptions, i.e., how brand actors determine the value of a brand. As noted earlier, value is individualistic, perceptual, experiential, and contextual, thus it varies for each brand actor (individual or group) within and across levels of aggregation in a brand system.

Branding literature lacks an agreed-upon construct to describe brand outcomes. The evolving theoretical branding perspectives from product- and firm-orientation to relational and socio-cultural approaches identify several brand outcomes. These include competitive and strategic advantage (Brodie et al., 2017; Katsanis, 1999), brand performance (Dunes & Pras, 2017; Lee et al., 2008), brand identity (Burmam, Jost-Benz, et al., 2009; Kornum et al., 2017), brand knowledge (France et al., 2015; Keller, 2003), brand meaning (Batey, 2016), brand loyalty (Boyle, 2007), brand experience (Brakus et al., 2009; Merrilees, 2017), and relationship experience (Payne et al., 2009). These outcomes are shown to converge at brand value and brand equity (e.g., Davcik et al., 2015; Veloutsou & Guzman, 2017). Although often used interchangeably, brand value is not the same as brand equity (Das et al., 2009b; Raggio & Leone, 2007). Brand value is the collectively perceived value-in-use of brand actors (Merz et al., 2009). It is the outcome of interactions and relationships involved in value formation processes, whereas brand equity is the assessment of the value emerging from relationships between brand actors (Jones, 2005).

Brand outcomes manifest at three distinct, yet interdependent levels of the market: the customer market, product market, and financial market (Davcik et al., 2015; Keller & Lehmann, 2006), and are measured by evaluating performance at these levels (Dunes & Pras, 2017; Lee et al., 2008). This approach is in line with brand values, central to the brand core, concerning the product, the firm, and consumer perceptions (Urde, 2016). Several other brand outcome perspectives exist (see Table 4.6).

Customer-based and financial perspectives are the most common approaches to brand value and equity (Davcik et al., 2015). Customer-based methods identify two drivers of brand value: attitudinal equity and behavioural equity. The mental/attitudinal models of brand equity measure the effects of brands on the consumer psyche, whereas behavioural models assess consumer response in terms of choice, purchase, repurchase and advocacy (Das et al., 2009b). Financial brand value assessment is broadly classified into cost, market, and income approaches. The cost-based models provide a historical perspective on brand investments; the market-based models estimate the current market value of a brand; and the income approach relies on the future earning potential of brands (Salinas & Ambler, 2009).

Table 4.6 Brand Outcome Perspectives

Outcome Orientation	Concept	Description	Exemplars
Customer-based Brand Outcomes	Customer-based Brand Equity	It is “ the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand” (p. 1). CBBE lies within customers’ brand knowledge derived from brand awareness and brand image.	Keller (1993)
	Brand Equity	It is a set of brand assets and liabilities comprised of brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and other brand assets, such as patents, trademarks and channel relations.	Aaker (1991)
	Service Brand Equity	Brand meaning is the source of brand equity, in addition to brand awareness, based on brand-controlled and uncontrolled communication and customer experience.	Berry (2000)
	Customer-level Brand Equity	It is manifested hierarchically in customers’ brand awareness, associations, attitude, attachment and activity.	Keller and Lehmann (2006)
	Customer Equity	It is “ the total of the discounted lifetime values summed over all of the firm’ s current and potential customers” (p. 110)	Rust et al. (2004)
Product-based Brand Outcomes	Additional measures frequently used to capture the value of a brand to a consumer include brand preference, purchase intention, brand satisfaction, relationship performance etc		Davcik et al. (2015) Dunes and Pras (2017) Lee et al. (2008)
	Market Brand Equity	It is the value of a brand accrued to the brand owner and marketer considering the ability of a brand to generate future net income flows based on past net income flows and present brand investments.	Schultz (2016)
	Additionally, product-based measures include differential effects of brands on price, advertising, substitution elasticities, channel support, brand extension, market penetration, market share, sales growth etc.		Dunes and Pras (2017) Hoeffler and Keller (2003) Srivastava et al. (1998)
	Financial Performance	It considers the financial equity of brands and includes the market value, replacement values, stock-market value accounting returns (profitability) and yield (total shareholder return and asset growth rate) of brands.	Dunes and Pras (2017)
	Financial Brand Value	It is the “ net discounted cashflow attributable to the brand after paying the cost of capital invested to produce and run the business and the cost of marketing” (p. 14)	Lee et al. (2008) Kapferer (2008)
Financial-based Brand Outcomes	Brand Asset Value	It is comprised of consumer-based intrinsic brand worth, attitudinal equity, behavioural equity and the financial-based net present value of a brand.	Das et al. (2009b)
	Employee-based Brand Equity	It is “ the differential effect that brand knowledge has on an employee’ s response to internal brand management” (p. 269)	King et al. (2012)
	Channel Equity	It is the value a channel partner receives based on the relational bond between the channel partner and the firm.	Anderson and Narus (1999) Srivastava et al. (1998)
	Reseller Equity	It is the direct benefit that emerges for consumers from a particular reseller of a brand as opposed to other resellers.	Anderson and Narus (1999) Brodie et al. (2002) Arnett et al. (2003)
	Retailer Equity	It is “ a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a store brand.... its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the perceived value of the store brand by its customers (or potential customers)” (p. 168)	Londoño et al. (2016)
Other Brand Outcomes	Consumer-based Brand–Retailer–Channel Equity	It is “ a set of assets and liabilities created by the link among the brand, the retailer and the channel, its names and symbols that add to or subtract from the value provided by a good or service (or a combination thereof) to its customers (both actual and potential)” (p. 72)	
	Relational Equity	It is an assessment of brand relationships, interactions, meanings and experiences customers have with the firm and other stakeholders.	Brodie et al. (2002) Rust et al. (2004) Jones (2005)
	Relationships Equity		
	Stakeholder Equity		
	Network equity	It is the equity emerging from lateral associations of a brand with other entities through brand alliances, co-branding and joint promotions.	Brodie et al. (2002)
	Social Brand Equity	It is the social equity comprising brand awareness, relevance, leadership, loyalty and resonance of a social brand.	Naidoo and Abratt (2018)
	Social Media Equity	It is the equity generated by a brand’ s social media activities.	Mathur (2020)

Several scholars take a broader perspective and combine consumer, product, and financial measures, recognising that sources of brand equity overlap and vary over time (e.g., Feldwick, 1996; Kapferer, 2008). Anderson and Narus (1999) proposed marketplace equity as the combined assessment of the brand, channel and reseller equity, whereas Brodie et al. (2002) conceptualised marketplace equity as composed of the customer, financial, relational and network equity. Despite this, Jones (2005, p. 12) accentuated the need to “adopt more holistic ways of approaching brand equity”, and Daveik et al. (2015) suggested that equity creation requires unification of three interdependent pillars: financial performance, marketing assets and stakeholder value.

4.5.3.1 Propositions for brand outcomes

We assert that there is room for more brand actor relations, interactions, and influences to be considered, despite the attempts for a holistic measure of brand outcomes. Srivastava et al. (1998) recognised the need to integrate a wider community of public, government, and regulatory authorities, in addition to customers, channels and lateral partners. Similarly, Padela et al. (2021) argued that brand actors include the brand-exchange neighbourhood, future generations and society, in addition to the firm and consumers. The interests and expectations of system actors are interrelated (Domegan et al., 2019). The outcomes for firms are related to those of channel members, and customers, at the micro-level, and the regional/national economy, government, and global system at the meso- and macro-level (Dixon, 1967). Berthon et al. (2007) demonstrated that brands connect goods and services; individual consumers’ states of consciousness, perceptions, thoughts, and emotions; and collectives of culture, knowledge, images, and language, through meanings. This shows that brands manifest outcomes at the micro-levels of generic products and individual actors’ objective and subjective experiences and the macro-levels of aggregates, groups, cultures, and society. Figure 1 identifies that each brand input mediates other systemic inputs and entities, indicating that outcomes embedded in each brand actor relation depend upon other relations. We propose:

Proposition 5: Brands manifest interrelated outcomes for different brand actors (individuals or groups) within and across micro-, meso- and macro-levels of aggregation.

The extant brand value and equity frameworks do not account for the bipolar nature of brand outcomes. Brands not only create value for different actors; they can also destroy value (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018; Cova & Paraque, 2012). Gummerus (2013, p. 32)

proposed that consumer experience is “the missing link and the common denominator” of value formation processes and outcomes. Brand experience is an active contextual process that evolves and generates brand value over time and space (Brakus et al., 2009; Helm & Jones, 2010). It may be positive or negative, leading to co-creation or co-destruction of value (Merrilees, 2017).

Interactions often have disproportionate outcomes: more favourable, neutral, or detrimental to some actors than others (Gummerus, 2013; Mars et al., 2012). This may be due to two reasons. First, imperfect information and asymmetrical relationships between actors create opportunistic dispositions (Edvardsson et al., 2011). Secondly, there may be unintended consequences and externalities (Mundt & Houston, 2010; Nason, 1989). Brand externalities are meaning-led discrepancies and symbolic spill-overs that accompany brands and distort brand value for consumers, firms and other brand actors (Padela et al., 2021). Dysfunctional outcomes from negative brand externalities may emerge if the brand system fosters ideas of unattainable or unmet living standards. The negative brand outcomes rival positive brand outcomes and affect overall equity (Japutra, Ekinci, & Simkin, 2018; Veloutsou & Guzman, 2017). We propose:

Proposition 6: Brand outcomes are positive or negative and disproportionate among different brand actors within a brand system.

These concerns render the extant models inadequate for capturing the system complexity, that encompasses value creation and destruction over time. Externalities and latent costs are often overlooked when marketing is viewed from the managerial perspective (Dixon, 1967). The limitations of existing measures can be overcome by integrating diverse perspectives. Adopting a systems approach allows a better understanding of system outcomes in terms of equity and value to all brand actors. Considering brand externalities, brand misconduct, anti-branding phenomena, and destructive brand behaviours (Bertilsson & Rennstam, 2018; Huber et al., 2010; Padela et al., 2021), the integrated brand outcome can be conceptualised as systems equity of brand. The notion of systems equity is in line with a brand’s total equity (Ambler, 2000), marketplace equity (Brodie et al., 2002), and integrated system of brand equity (Das et al., 2009b), where brand value formation is a process dispersed among a range of brand actors. Systems equity of brand is the aggregate view of the positive and negative brand outcomes integrating customer, product/market, financial, relational, network and social equity of brands. It may provide a holistic value perspective that represents value outcomes from the interactions and relationships among

the extended brand actor agency, linking their value formation processes and highlighting the financial and social viability of a brand system. We propose:

Proposition 7: The systems equity of brand is the assessment of aggregate brand value, i.e., the maximum net benefit of branding (a net estimate of value created and destroyed) for all brand actors within the brand system.

Now, we proceed to describing the environmental and hierarchical embeddedness of a brand system that essentially influences brand inputs, throughputs, and outcomes and determines the nature of the brand system.

4.5.4 Environment relations and feedback loops

Systems studied in marketing are “not a single system but a nested hierarchy of systems of action” (Dixon & Wilkinson, 1984, p. 45). The firm is a micro-system embedded within the macro-system of the environment (Layton, 2011, 2019), and the environment is a complex collection of several subsystems that is part of a focal system (Dixon & Wilkinson, 1984; Kadirov & Varey, 2011).

The environment defines the nature and behaviours (inputs) of system actors and entities (environment-system interactions). If the actors are removed from their context and environment, their nature and behaviour will change (Ackoff, 1971; Dowling, 1983). Similarly, systemic shifts in the environment (environment-environment interactions), such as globalisation, cultural change, technological advancement, the evolution of trade channels, investors’ expectations, and changing social trends trigger the evolution of branding, making it imperative to re-examine system structures and decision processes (Low & Fullerton, 1994; Shocker et al., 1994). Evaluating potential linkages between a brand system and other adjacent, higher- or lower-level systems (see Figure 4.2) is critical for system analysis and intervention. Below, we briefly describe brand system-environment relations and feedback loops (see 8 and 9 in Figure 4.1) before summarising the systemic nature of branding.

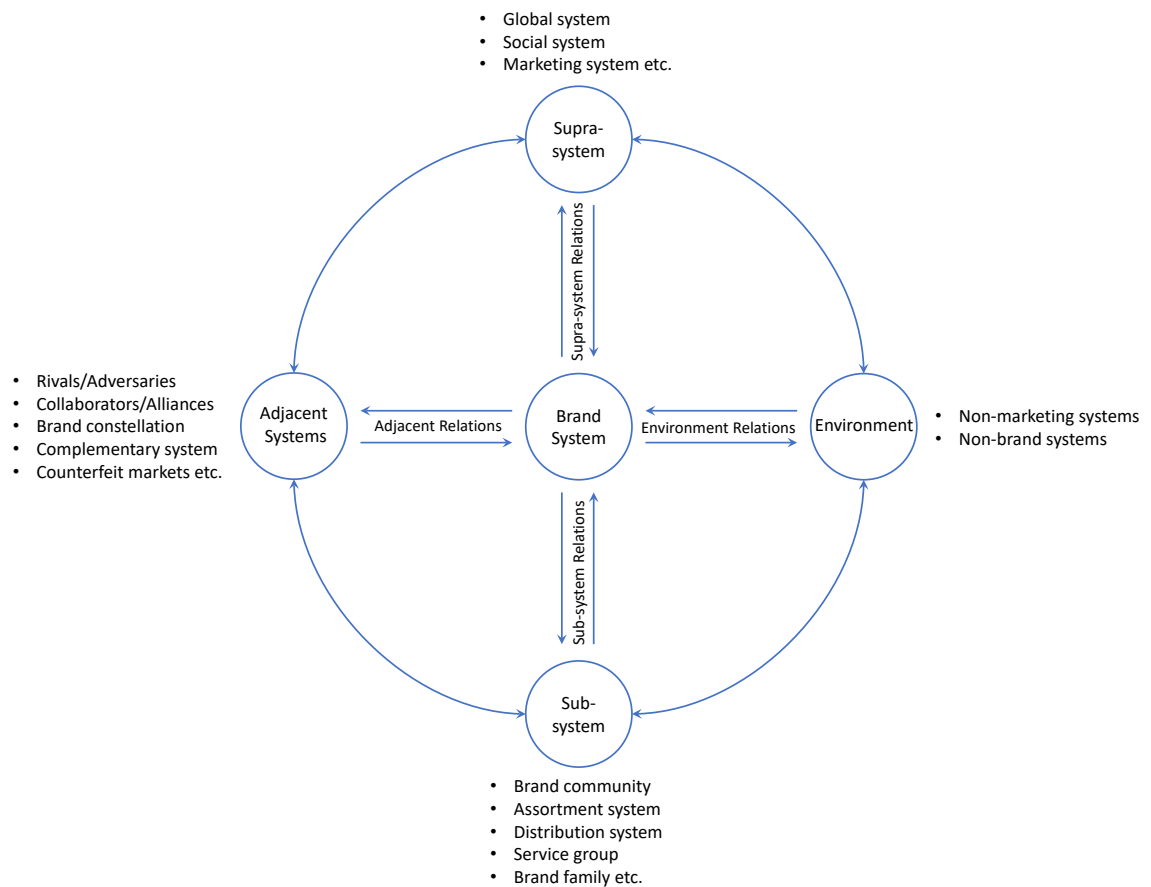


Figure 4.2 Brand System Environment Relations

4.5.4.1 Environmental subsystems

Brands are historical, social, cultural, and political artefacts (Cayla & Arnould, 2008; Kravets, 2012). Culture lies at a brand's core (Urde, 2016) and influences brand inputs and throughputs (see 9 in Figure 1). It influences consumer inputs by affecting consumer value perceptions and behaviours (Overby et al., 2005) and managerial inputs by shaping several mechanisms, such as brand communication and advertising, in-store and mass-media product placements, brand endorsements, brand alliances, co-branding, sponsorships and social marketing etc. (O'Reilly, 2005). Reciprocally, brands “shape cultural rituals, economic activities, and social norms” (Schroeder, 2009, p. 124) (see 8 in Figure 1). Brands infuse cultural meanings into the material world and exhibit symbolic articulation of cultural values and practices, mediating socio-cultural ideoscape (Kipnis et al., 2013; Kravets, 2012).

The economic system is part of the social and cultural system (Dixon, 1967, 1984). Economic liberalisation towards a free-market system and movement from monopoly markets to intense competition prompt the evolution of brand meaning. Similarly, political

deregulation, media commercialisation, and social pluralisation influence consumer inputs affecting brand meaning and value (Gao, 2013; Kravets, 2012).

The boundaries of a brand system are porous, allowing the system to absorb the supra- and sub-systems to develop holistically (see 11 in Figure 1). Besides the larger marketing and social system, the porous boundaries allow the power of globalisation to be recognised at a higher level of aggregation considered for system analysis. Globalisation influences managerial inputs by providing low cost through economies of scale and an opportunity for a global brand image (Hsieh, 2002). It influences consumer inputs through the effects of local-global consumer values, including global connectedness, consumer ethnocentrism and cultural identity (He & Wang, 2015; Kim et al., 2019).

Digitisation and virtualisation have revolutionised traditional branding and rendered the concept of one-way and two-way communication inadequate (Christodoulides, 2009; Leitch & Merlot, 2018). Interactions on virtual platforms, like social media, virtual reality and 3-D games, are not constrained by economic boundaries and distances (Lindstrom, 2004). When a tweet/message is shared on social media, it is commented on (value added/destroyed) and shared further (aggregated) across a complex web of brand actor links that integrate and co-create meaning well beyond the managerial inputs. It may create serendipitous associations and opportunities for brands, or conversely fortify inherent tensions between managerial and consumer inputs, influencing brand throughputs and characterising system outcomes with instability and uncertainty (Onyas & Ryan, 2015).

4.5.4.2 Path dependency

Path dependency occurs in marketing systems at all levels of aggregation. It marks how inputs from system actors generate interdependent social mechanisms and outcomes that feed back continually into the subsequent inputs (Layton & Duffy, 2018). Research exploring feedback loops in a brand system is in its embryonic phase (e.g., Heller & Kelly, 2015; Kadirov & Varey, 2011). Path dependency, evident within brand actor relationships, characterises a brand system with dynamism and resilience (Padela et al., 2021). In addition to the environmental feedback loops, brands also exhibit spatial, temporal, and symbolic path dependency.

Social and market processes are embedded in physical spaces and geographies (Castilhos et al., 2017). The concepts of brandscape (Stevens et al., 2019) and brand world (Onyas & Ryan, 2015) provide spatial configurations of brands. Spatial path dependency pertains to the range of brand nodes where the actors interact, creating brand experiences and value.

It is manifested in the geographic connections and connotations (Pike, 2013), demonstrated traditionally in the country-of-origin effects and sourcing associations (He & Wang, 2015; Kim et al., 2019).

Temporal path dependency acknowledges that the present value of a brand is the result of a continuous evolution of its past meanings and longitudinal negotiations among multiple constituencies (Berthon et al., 2007). Temporal path dependency is manifested as brands accumulate histories (Gao, 2013; Heller & Kelly, 2015) and heritage (Iglesias et al., 2013; Rose et al., 2016). It is a contributing factor to consumers' brand acceptance and avoidance (Strandvik et al., 2013) and essential for the functioning of the brand system in uncertain and changing systemic environments (Rego et al., 2021).

A brand system is replete with signs, symbols, and meanings, that connect brand actors over time and space and establish symbolic path dependency. The actions of system entities may produce externalities as intended or unintended consequences (Mundt & Houston, 2010; Nason, 1989) and these "consequences may systematically feed back to be the unacknowledged conditions of further acts" (Giddens, 1984, p. 8). Brand externalities link actors not traditionally conceived to be related and mark symbolic path dependency within a brand system (Padela et al., 2021).

Finally, after the brief overview of brand-system-environment relations and path dependencies, we conclude the key configurations of a brand system by summarising the systemic complexity of branding.

4.5.4.3 Propositions for environment relations and feedback loops

Brand actors are agents of brand meaning constrained within a context and an environment. Brand system specifications may be developed at a local or national level or the superordinate global level for system intervention. The world is a brand system at one (macro) extreme (Wilson, 2006). At the other (micro) end, any exchange between two individuals in the name of a brand could be considered a brand system (de Lencastre & Côte-Real, 2010). A brand system is a configuration within the complex hierarchy of supra- and sub-systems (see Figure 4.2), where dynamic relational links between interdependent components and the environment underpin the flows of commodities, meanings, information, experiences, and ideas (Layton, 2011). We propose:

Proposition 8: Brand systems are complex, relational, hierarchical systems characterised by the flows of commodities, meanings, information, experiences, and ideas.

Brand systems are simultaneously unstable and resilient. The autonomy and interconnectedness of brand actors are critical system characteristics that make brand systems inherently complex and unstable. A change within the subsystems influences the focal system and the aggregated hierarchy due to the interdependencies and interactions among the system elements (Domegan et al., 2019; Layton, 2011). The socio-technical agencement of a brand is only temporary, with outcomes of brand performativity largely uncertain (Onyas & Ryan, 2015). Brand systems are viable as well because they are characterised by reinforcing and balancing feedback loops. They receive information from various sources and demonstrate adaptability and resilience to survive dynamic contextual and environmental changes (Iglesias et al., 2013; Rego et al., 2021). We propose:

Proposition 9: Brand systems are viable, adaptive systems with temporary coherence, shape, and form, at any given point in time and space, emerging from interdependencies among different brand actors.

4.6 Discussion

This paper captures the structural, functional, and social complexity of branding and contributes to the branding literature by conceptualising and characterising Brand Systems. In doing so, it:

1. extends the scope of brand actors from the dyadic, triadic, and networked conceptualisations to a broader brand actor agency (Proposition 1 and 2),
2. extends the locus of brand value formation to the interactions, engagement, and experiences of all brand actors at all potential brand nodes (Proposition 3 and 4),
3. ascertains hierarchical, bipolar (spectral) and disproportionate nature of brand outcomes for different brand actors (Proposition 5, 6 and 7),
4. identifies systemic path dependency and feedback loops that contribute to the inherent complexity and dynamics of brand value formation (Proposition 8 and 9), and
5. provides analytical guidelines for investigation and intervention within brand systems and understanding the realities of contemporary society.

We assert that analysis and intervention in brand systems require a holistic, multi-level and multi-domain approach. Looking ahead to the configurations of different brand systems, scholars and managers may benefit from defining a brand system, from a broader outlook, in terms of the collective manifestation of a wide range of brand actors, their dynamic interactions and value processes, disproportionate outcomes, unintended consequences and

externalities, and path dependencies within and across system levels over time and space. For analysis and intervention, a brand system must be specified at:

1. one or more levels of aggregation indicating brand actors at each level as individuals, groups, and entities,
2. the roles of coordination, competition, and control performed, and the managerial, customer and contextual inputs provided by brand actors at each level of the system,
3. the throughputs involved in brand value creation and destruction, as well as those generating other intended and unintended outcomes,
4. potential linkages and interactions of the brand system with broader marketing and social system, and other adjacent, higher and lower-level environmental systems, and
5. temporal, spatial, material, and symbolic path dependencies from brand-related behaviours and externalities originating from them.

While scholars have examined brands and branding from a systems perspective (see Table 4.2), this research pursues the integration of firm-centric, consumer-centric, relational, networked, socio-cultural, and ethical perspectives of branding research. The brand system framework illustrates the virtuous cycle of brand inputs, throughputs and outcomes characterised by interaction effects and feedback within a hierarchical environment and context. The cycle is dynamic because the system never reverts to its initial configuration due to the dynamic nature of actor relations and interactions that continues to change the system's very nature (Frow et al., 2014; Wieland et al., 2012). The conceptualisation and propositions made in this paper have several implications for theory, practice, and future research.

4.6.1 Theoretical implications

This paper provides a holistic framework to capture the integrated phenomenon and systemic complexity of brand value formation. It extends Marketing Systems Theory (Layton, 2007, 2011, 2019) into the branding context by placing brands and branding within a complex hierarchy of a larger social system. It responds to the calls for broader brand conceptualisation that integrates diverse perspectives of branding theory and practice (Campbell & Price, 2021; Keller, 2021; Swaminathan et al., 2020). The brand system views multiple constituencies as resource integrators (Lusch & Webster, 2011; Merz et al., 2009) and captures the polysemy of brands, recognising the total market entity

without diminishing the importance of other characteristic system elements and brand actor perspectives. Within a brand system, consumers and managers are key players, systemically dominant actors within the structural foundation providing essential resources for the system to function (Mars et al., 2012). The contextual brand actors are the third pillar, a broad and diverse group that shapes and modifies the contextual environment. This brand system framework formulates a value base drawn from the extended brand actor agency, including participants not traditionally conceived within the brand exchange domain. In doing so, it expands the notion of brand relationships (Fournier, 1998; Fournier & Alvarez, 2012), extends the stakeholder brand value model (Jones, 2005), and advances the brand value co-creation research (Iglesias et al., 2013; Merz et al., 2009).

The brand system integrates the temporal, spatial, cultural, and political groundings (Schroeder, 2009) needed to understand brands in context. The characteristic make-up of brand inputs and throughputs across different social and institutional configurations defines the nature of the brand system. Iglesias et al. (2013, p. 165) determined that “there are no significant differences between brands in different business settings, regarding brand value co-creation.” Contrarily, we argue that contextual brand actors would vary from one context to another with differing brand throughputs and outcomes in different brand systems. Contextual inputs create systemic differences because of the dominance of some elements in certain contexts (de Chernatony & Dall’Olmo Riley, 1998). These contextual inputs allow the brand system to be adapted for different branding situations and various objects of branding.

The extant branding frameworks focus inordinately on corporate performance in terms of brand equity and ignore social performance and impact on quality-of-life. Traditional brand equity measures disregard several inputs and throughputs that are imperative for brand value formation (Jones, 2005). Considering the dynamic changes, feedback loops, and disproportionate brand outcomes, this paper suggests a dynamic longitudinal measure of brand outcomes as Systems Equity of Brand. Systems equity provides a holistic macro-level conceptualisation of brand outcomes, incorporating value formation processes of the extended brand actor agency. Advancing the concepts of a brand’s total equity (Ambler, 2000), marketplace equity (Brodie et al., 2002), and the integrated system of brand equity (Das et al., 2009b), systems equity of brands may integrate disparate research streams based on micro-managerial perspectives of various concepts like brand, customer, relational, network and social equities. The difficulty in measuring brand value holistically

lies in capturing the systemic complexity and mapping the brand system is the first step in that direction.

4.6.2 Managerial implications

The brand system framework provides a conceptual model and methodological guideline for managers to identify, analyse, plan, and implement a brand strategy relevant to diverse subsystems and supra-systems of brand actors. It corresponds to the frameworks for effective brand development and management (Kapferer, 2008; Keller, 2013). Managers can track the symbolic footprints of their branding decisions and simplify the relational and symbolic complexity, focusing on the expectations, value configurations, interactions, and relationships amongst a broad range of brand actors. Managerial contributions are one of several inputs in a brand system. Managers must be wary of customers' independent processes and the contextual inputs in brand value formation. Though it assumes the system on a macro-level, the brand system provides a cause-and-effect web of variables important in brand development, management, and regulation.

When the brand system is a point of reference and the umbrella concept, conflicting mindsets and concerns can be applied in the short and long run. Addressing the system allows for a long-term consistent core around which short-term value propositions can be made. In this regard, the brand core (Urde, 2016) provides support for the brand system. It may assist managers in planning systemic adjustments to marketing strategy and brand positioning for brand survival, running scenario analysis for dynamically changing brand contexts and implementing balanced centricity. A brand strategy, isolating a stakeholder group, discriminating against them, or conflicting with their expectations and value-sought, faces the burden of cultural and social pressures (Kipnis et al., 2013; Merz et al., 2009). Thus, a brand system may thrive only by aligning individual and social ideologies and achieving a "balance in the value co-created and shared by members of a marketing system" (Frow & Payne, 2011, p. 232).

Understanding the diversity of brand inputs and managing them together becomes imperative for avoiding and alleviating unintentional consequences. Managerial inputs may create brand externalities, directly and indirectly, through the mediating effect of the environment and other system components (Padela et al., 2021). The brand system framework brings forth these influences and provides an opportunity to reduce and regulate potential adverse effects.

The systems view may facilitate organisations to undertake managerial practices in a way that empowers other brand actors to improve their performance and enhances the overall system's health. Effective brand management is only possible after understanding the system of entities, structures, processes, and influences within which the brand is embedded. Mapping brand inputs and regulating brand throughputs is not easy, but if resources and stakes are organised, deployed, and facilitated accordingly, it may allow managers to retain some control over their brands and stay on top of their professional obligations.

4.6.3 Further research avenues

The brand systems model needs dynamic modelling and calibration through both qualitative and quantitative testing to make branding more holistic and rigorously scientific. Brand outcomes are unpredictable due to the uncertain nature of brand inputs and throughputs. An epistemology of brand actors and their inputs would be just one concern for research among many that are critical to stochastically map and analyse potential contributions of and consequences on different brand actors within the system.

A brand system analysis should focus on one or more of the system elements: structural and functional configurations, cause-consequence processes, and outcome concerns. The structural and functional configurations may include defining brand system boundaries and environmental relations and interactions. Analysing cause-consequence processes could lead to understanding brand throughputs, resulting in brand value creation and/or destruction. Studies concerning brand system outcomes may focus on system performance, resilience, brand failure and brand externalities. Table 4.7 elaborates on these avenues for future research to advance the systems perspective of branding. Overall, the analysis of causal dynamics and distribution of power within a brand system, the development of systems equity model of brand, the assessment of interdependencies and trade-offs required, determining the role and impact of brand system in terms of social sustainability and other societal outcomes, such as quality-of-life, life satisfaction, well-being, and sustainability, are essential research concerns requiring the systems view of branding.

Table 4.7 Brand System Research Avenues

Structural and Functional Configurations	<p>system specifications in different branding contexts; boundary configurations, scope, aggregation levels and component endogeneity and heterogeneity in a brand system; tangible and intangible resource access and mobilisation; formal and informal material, symbolic and experiential exchange; flows of ownership, possession, finance, risk, meaning, symbols, signs and information; communication systems; parallel brand systems, complementation and supplementation dynamics, cooperation and competition; used-brand markets, grey and black markets, counterfeit systems, digital spaces</p> <p>the evolution of brand system environment; environment-system interactions; inter- and intra-hierarchical interactions of a brand system; environment-to-environment interactions influencing the brand system</p> <p>the structural and functional shifts in roles of brand stakeholders; the managerial and regulatory role of contextual stakeholders; the emergence of new stakeholders (from digitisation etc.)</p> <p>assessment of interdependencies and trade-offs; stability, adaptability, resilience, conflicts, constraints, barriers and limitations; collaborations, support, opportunities; governance issues</p>
Cause-Consequence Processes	<p>formation, growth, adaptation, and evolution of brand systems over time</p> <p>social mechanisms among contextual stakeholders</p> <p>power and information asymmetry; variation in the relative strength of brand stakeholder relationships, causes and types of change and its impact on the brand system</p> <p>primary and contextual brand value formation processes and mechanisms, value creation, no-creation, co-creation, co-destruction</p>
Outcome Concerns	<p>measures for brand system performance, systems equity of brands, financial and non-financial viability, economic outcomes, brand system efficiency, effectiveness and health; threshold of managerial and social effectiveness of branding, the role of the brand system in societal outcomes, such as quality of life, objective and subjective well-being, social sustainability, environmental sustainability etc.</p> <p>brand discontinuities, brand failures; temporal, spatial and symbolic path dependency, internal and external feedback loops</p> <p>brand stakeholder vulnerabilities, dysfunctionalities, serendipity, ethicality, morality, criminality</p> <p>brand externalities, brand misconduct, interaction effects, symbolic spill-overs; physical, psychological, social nuisance etc.</p>

4.7 Conclusion

The extant branding frameworks, though widely accepted, are inadequate for dealing with the systemic complexities and realities of contemporary society. An integrative brand system theory is increasingly necessary to guide brand development, management, and regulation. Considering systemic interdependencies and disproportionate brand outcomes, branding will have to undergo massive changes to be sustainable and socially and environmentally responsible. Systems thinking is an efficient alternative where not just the stakeholder orientation but also the complex manifestation of non-linear causes and effects can be addressed. As sustainability and social responsibility have become an inexorable imperative, the brand system reconfigures traditional brand management into a systematic multidimensional framework for aligning brand values with the personal and social values of a wide range of brand actors.

The brand system coalesces disparate research streams that include inputs required for effective brand building, the individual and social value formation processes, and branding consequences and outcomes. The brand system integrates different branding perspectives into a structure that provides analytical rhetoric and strategic guidance for firms, regulatory authorities, public policymakers, and society to optimise and maximise value from resource inputs within a brand system. When societal changes influence knowledge and practices, the epistemological and paradigmatic shift becomes inevitable. For this reason, the brand system is about applying the age-old branding practice differently. The difference lies in viewing the big picture from the vantage points of multiple constituents and respecting their expectations and contributions within the process. The brand system provides a holistic perspective of brand actor relationships and value formation and a less narrow view of equity and efficiency, with better understanding and more opportunities to maximise and optimise brand value.

4.8 References

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Chapter 5: CONCLUSION

Contemporary society is a branded world – a world of signs and symbols (Schroeder, 2009; Venkatesh, 1999) – where brands are ubiquitous, and their importance is growing more than ever. Brands are critical assets in marketing being essential social entities. Brands and society are in a reciprocal relationship where both are cause and effect simultaneously. The evolution in society generates brands, and in turn, brands define contemporary social life. Brands create and signify wealth, encourage innovation, competitiveness, and market efficiency, stimulate transparency in commercial relationships, provide physical, psychological, and moral comfort, and enable comprehension of cultural diversity while nurturing mechanisms for cultural solidarity (Brexendorf et al., 2015; Corrado & Hao, 2014; Hilton, 2003; Kipnis et al., 2013). There are undeniable abuses. The brand-related behaviours of the brand exchange dyad are not always socially responsible. Chevalier and Mazzalovo (2003, p. 4) argue that “brands are a force for progress to the degree that they are well managed and that the consumer behaves responsibly.” The core purpose behind branding and, by extension, brand consumption is differentiation and augmentation. Even when done responsibly, the core feature of differentiation in branding may lead to unintentional consequences by distorting the individual psychological (cognitive and emotional) processes at the micro-level and causing long-term developmental and behavioural issues at the macro-level.

The research purpose of this thesis involved identifying and conceptualising these effects of branding while viewing brands as a system. Although brands have been analysed as a system in the extant literature, the scope of the analysis is micro-systemic. The extant conceptualisations do not describe how the social consequences (the externalities) of branding emerge from the brand-related behaviours of firms and consumers and how these externalities can be configured in the grand design of a brand system for stronger analysis and more thoughtful intervention. Consequently, this thesis asked three research questions. This chapter reviews and responds to these research questions and elaborates on the theoretical, practical and research implications, followed by the concluding remarks.

5.1 Review of Research Questions

Although the research questions in this thesis overlap and inform each other (as illustrated in Figure 1.4), this sub-section addresses each of the research questions sequentially.

5.1.1 Research Question 1

What are brand externalities and what are the different forms of brand externalities?

Brand externalities are meaning-lead discrepancies and symbolic spill-overs that emerge from brand-related behaviours of the brand exchange dyad, i.e., consumers and firms, respectively. These externalities may affect the brand exchange partners themselves and influence other social actors in their immediate surroundings at the micro-level and the larger society at the macro-level. The taxonomy of brand externalities, detailed in Chapter 2, is based on the influences of branding and brand consumption on the respective social actors and agency. These social actors include:

- i. the brand exchange dyad;
- ii. subjects neighbouring the brand exchange dyad, such as friends, family, co-workers etc., of consumers; and suppliers, distributors, retailers, and service providers of firms;
- iii. children in general, as the pillars of future society; and
- iv. the environment and society in general in the short- and the long-run.

The externalities borne by the brand exchange partners themselves are identified as brand congestion externalities. These externalities are further sub-categorised as consumer-to-consumer congestion, consumer-to-firm congestion, firm-to-consumer congestion, and firm-to-firm congestion. Consumer-to-consumer congestion includes positive network effects, such as functional, emotional, psychological, and social fulfilment from brand consumption. It also includes negative network effects from normative community pressure, a crowding effect on a brand's perceived value, and negative behavioural tendencies like stereotyping, trash-talking, etc. Consumer-to-firm congestion occurs from consumers' negative brand engagement and anti-brand actions, including vandalism, boycotts, shoplifting, wardrobing etc. Firm-to-consumer congestion involves unethical or immoral practices from firms like the misleading branding of Autopilot by Tesla (Hern, 2016; Metz & Boudette, 2021) Finally, firm-to-firm brand congestion includes consequences from anti-competitive acts, market fragmentation and diminishing financial returns from brand investments discouraging innovation and economic progress.

Brand friction externalities are the neighbourhood effects and can be sub-categorised into two based on the consequences of brand consumption on the social actors around firms and consumers, respectively. These externalities include interpersonal pressures and social exclusion affecting the social relationships of consumers with the social actors within their

personal or professional circles. Similarly, the effect of the power leveraged by firms from stronger brand equity on their suppliers, distributors, retailers, and employees is also a premise for brand friction externalities.

The mechanisms that underpin the effect of branding on children is a critical finding conceptualised as brand junction externalities. Children occupy the junction between the present and future society and get remarkably affected by the brand-fostered consumer culture. These effects may emerge from peer pressures and child-to-child incivility, denigration, and bullying resulting in damaged self-concept, materialism, and intensified vulnerabilities. Besides these psychological and social nuisances, altered food perceptions and eating habits, and socialisation through tobacco or alcohol may also cause hazards to physical health and well-being, jeopardising the future.

Chronic externalities reflect the aggregation effect, where the individual behaviours at the micro-level accumulate over time and space into social benefits or costs at the macro-level. Branding plays a critical role in generating employment, income, economic growth, and socially beneficial innovation while harnessing social progress. Similarly, ecological chaos from over-production and over-consumption, and psychological, physical, and behavioural hazards from brand priming and brand knowledge affect subjective and social well-being in the long run.

The brand externalities draw symbolic path dependence and connect brand exchange partners with other social actors within the wider social system. In doing so, brand externalities indicate the systemic nature of brands and establish branding as a macro-system's phenomenon that goes beyond the managerial logic of this practice.

Product externalities are extensively discussed in marketing and economics literature. Brand externalities are distinctive from product externalities in two ways. First, the symbolic expressiveness of brands produces meaning-led influences which are independent of the product externalities. Secondly, the experience effect emerging from brand knowledge interacts with product externalities and intensify their effect socially and societally at the macro-level.

5.1.2 Research Question 2

What causal mechanisms and relationships are involved in producing brand externalities?

Chapter 3 addressed this question and provided a detailed account of the causal mechanisms and relationships involved in producing brand externalities. The causal

mechanisms producing brand externalities reflect the patterns of thoughts and actions of the brand actors individually at the micro-level and collectively at the meso- and macro-level in the context of branding. The consumer-brand relationship is the fundamental micro-system of brand exchange that is central to a brand system. The social mechanism of brand value creation and brand value destruction emerging from the interactions, communications and exchange between consumers and firms underpin this micro-system and create potential nodes for brand externalities. Brands are identified as the agents of value creation as well as that of value destruction and both these social mechanisms result in brand externalities.

The causal pathways emerging from brand knowledge, brand engagement, brand loyalty, and brand credibility within the social mechanism of brand value creation are critical nodes producing different brand externalities. For instance, brand engagement leading to brand adoption and brand community participation may cause consumer-to-consumer brand congestion, specifically in the context of brand community and diminish perceived brand value and uniqueness in general. It may also produce brand friction within the meso-system of consumers' social relations through negative peer evaluation and anti-social behaviours. Similarly, brand knowledge priming consumer decision-making, and consumption behaviours may affect their own physical and social well-being in the short term at the micro-level and in the long run at the macro-level (chronic externalities). Specifically, psychological and behavioural alterations from brand knowledge and engagement in children (brand junction externalities) may cause poor consumer socialisation and development (brand junction externalities becoming chronic over time). In addition, overconsumption due to the cultural logic provided by brand knowledge to the commodities intensifies the product externalities and creates ecological externalities (chronic externalities), eventually affecting societal and social well-being at the macro-level.

Another important cause of externalities is the misconduct at the hands of firms and consumers in the context of branding. Misconduct, resulting in brand value destruction by either firms or consumers, extends brand externalities from the micro-system of the brand exchange to the meso-systems involving consumer relations and organisational relations, respectively, within the institutional structure of the social system. Misconduct from the firms may be directed towards consumers (firm-to-consumer brand congestion) through brand deception, stealth marketing and consumer exploitations and involve functional (product-based), operational (service-based), symbolic (image-based), social or moral

(value-based) brand transgressions. It may also be directed towards competitors (firm-to-firm brand congestion) or employees, suppliers, and distributors (brand friction) through respective exploitations. Similarly, misconduct by the consumers may be directed towards the firms (consumer-to-firm brand congestion) or their employees (brand friction) through anti-branding. It may also be directed towards other consumers (consumer-to-consumer brand congestion) and members within the meso-system of consumers' social relations like friends, family, and colleagues (brand friction) through anti-social behaviours.

An important finding in delineating the causal mechanisms producing brand externalities is the identification of the intentional and unintentional brand externalities. For example, brand friction among peers may be unintended by the brand user and may appear as a systemic anomaly from branding. Similarly, consumer-to-consumer brand congestion in reduced brand exclusivity and perceived uniqueness from increasing brand adoption may also be systemically anomalous. No brand buyer would intend to diminish the value of the brand they purchase or use themselves. On the contrary, intentionally inflicted effects such as consumer exploitation through premium pricing of brands, selective distribution, promotional content impersonating puffery and targeted at socioeconomically disadvantaged, compulsive buyers and other vulnerable consumer groups; or labour exploitation through inappropriate working conditions and poor wage settings indicate the need for stronger regulations. Anti-social behaviours in different forms from consumers similarly exemplify ethical choices requiring active social intervention. In conceptualising brand externalities and describing the causal mechanisms involved, this thesis contributes towards identifying and segregating systemic anomalies from the ethical and moral concerns entrenched in branding, bringing the branding practice closer to social sustainability.

5.1.3 Research Question 3

What are the configurations of a brand system essential for analysis and intervention?

The brand system is conceptualised as a micro-system hierarchically embedded within a marketing system and social system at the macro-level. The hierarchical embeddedness of the brand system is one of the core configurations among others described in Chapter 4. The configurations essential for analysing and intervening in a brand system include:

- Brand inputs comprising managerial, consumer and contextual inputs and mutual interdependence between them.

- Brand throughputs encompassing social mechanisms and relational processes and practices, resulting in brand value creation and destruction.
- Brand outcomes including brand value and equity as well as potential brand externalities.
- Systemic brand-environment relationships, potential interactions of the brand system with broader marketing and social system, and various path dependencies within and across this hierarchical organisation of the system.

These configurations can be summarised in the following statement:

The brand actor agency contributes (inputs) to the value formation processes (throughputs) that result in brand value and brand externalities (outcomes). These brand outcomes may create dynamics that influence the brand actor agency directly and indirectly through the complex hierarchical branding environment.

The attributes of a system are affected by the system environment, and simultaneously the system environment is affected by the changes in the system (Layton, 2015). The interdependencies between different brand actors at different levels of aggregation hold central significance in a brand system. Consumer and contextual inputs are the interpretants of managerial inputs. i.e., the response (interpretation) of consumers and contextual stakeholders (interpreters) over the managerial inputs (de Lencastre & Côte-Real, 2010). An intentional or unintentional change in any of these inputs can completely change the system (Layton, 2007).

In identifying managerial, consumer and contextual inputs as mutually interdependent and possessing synergistic interaction effects, this research redefines brand actor agency and considers non-consumer and third-party brand actors, like brand adversaries, pressure groups, consumers', and firms' neighbourhood etc., as endogenous to the system. Analysing the brand system, with the extended brand actor agency in consideration, enables to characterise brand throughputs and understand how the brand value may get affected by the direct and indirect interactions of the brand exchange partners with each other and with other brand actors within the system; and how these interactions produce direct or indirect and favourable or unfavourable outcomes for respective brand actors.

Brand value, as the system outcome, depends upon relationships and interactions between different brand actors that contribute to and support respective value-creation processes (Jones, 2005). The desired system outcomes require coherence and consistency (M'Zungu

et al., 2010) among managerial, consumer and contextual inputs over time. Brand value is not bound to consumer-firm (advertising, point-of-purchase) and consumer-consumer (brand communities, social media) interactions. Interactions among all brand system actors across all potential brand- and social touchpoints are opportunities for brand value creation. This research suggests that the evaluation of systemic brand value and brand externalities requires consideration of each brand input in relation to other inputs and value-creating processes of customers and firms individually and collectively along with other system actors' interactions and relationships.

5.2 Review of Research Purpose

This section draws together the findings from the three research questions and addresses the core purpose of this research. This thesis began with the following research purpose:

“to conceptualise brand externalities and develop a holistic systems-based branding framework that recognises brand externalities as a potential outcome of the system and expands the scope of contemporary branding by linking brand-related behaviours and practices of the brand exchange dyad with the wider social system.”

This research conceptualised brand externalities and the brand system based on a comprehensive analysis of the extant views of brands and externalities within the economics, marketing, and branding literature. This analysis was conducted using Marketing Systems Theory as a substantial explanatory theory. While conceptualising brand externalities and proposing the brand systems framework, this research recognised that brand externalities accompany brands in the contemporary brand systems and link the brand exchange dyad at the micro-level with the larger marketing and social system at the meso- and macro-level in the short- and long-term.

Brand externalities as a potential outcome and critical configuration within a brand system is not addressed in the contemporary branding literature. Brand externalities draw the connection of the micro-structure of the consumer-brand dyad to the macro-aggregate of society. They indicate the systemic nature of branding, establishing it as a macro-systems phenomenon. Recognising the existence of brand externalities is a matter of perspective while viewing brands as a system. Looking from a micro-perspective, brand externalities would largely cease to exist. Economic theory argues that market mechanism results in the most efficient outcomes for consumers and firms. By extension, branding mutually benefits consumers and firms and improves the economic efficiency of the marketing

process. This thesis emphasises that, while maximising market efficiency, brands often jeopardise social sustainability at the aggregated macro-level of society, because what is external to the market is internal to the society. Only when the point of reference is aggregated, unexpected outcomes like externalities can be observed (Dahlman, 1979). Krupp (1963, p. 223) stated that “the problem of externalities concerns the interdependence that emerges when individual units are aggregated with consequences not predictable under theorems derived from the individual units.” Viewing brands as a system hierarchically embedded within broader marketing and social system is critical in this regard.

5.3 Contributions & Implications of the Research

This research contributes to the knowledge in branding, (macro)marketing and marketing research and accordingly provides significant implications for scholars, managers, regulators, and policymakers in regard to branding practices and research.

5.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

This research conceptualises brand externalities and provides an integrated brand system framework from a macromarketing perspective. Branding is discussed in macromarketing literature in several ways, such as branding ideology (Levy & Luedicke, 2013), nation branding (Kerrigan et al., 2012; O’Shaughnessy & O’Shaughnessy, 2000), place branding (Askegaard & Kjeldgaard, 2007; Brown & Campelo, 2014), historical discourse on branding and evolution of brand meaning (Eckhardt & Bengtsson, 2010; Gao, 2013; Heller & Kelly, 2015; Petty, 2011), semiotics and symbolism in branding (Conejo & Wooliscroft, 2015a; Kadirov & Varey, 2011), and impact of system elements on brands and brand management (Berthon & Pitt, 2018; Gao, 2012; Kravets, 2012). Similarly, the concerns for hidden costs of human choices (Laczniak, 2017; Nason, 1989), macromarketing ethics and morality of brands (Ferrell & Ferrell, 2008; Hunt, 2019), and sustainability concerns (Peterson, 2012) are frequently raised. Discussion of the externalities, that originate from brand-related behaviours of different brand actors, is scarce with no adequate theorisation. This research expands the macromarketing narrative on branding by developing a taxonomy and causal theory of brand externalities and providing an integrated brand system framework with analytical guidelines to address them.

This research describes the core configurations in a brand system based on the theoretical lens of Marketing Systems Theory (Layton, 2007, 2011, 2019). Dixon (1967) delineated systems as a flow of interrelated input-output activities over time generating outcomes or

goals within an environment that create constraints and opportunities. Layton (2007) theorised the marketing system as a core concept in macromarketing and described it as an interrelated hierarchical structure of the social actors and entities that functions toward producing value collectively over time and space. Marketing systems theory highlights the significance of converging diverse perspectives in identifying and understanding how the behaviours of system actors interact with the larger social concerns and how the consequences of these interactions go beyond the exchange relationship (Layton, 2007; Mittelstaedt et al., 2006). This research integrates different perspectives in branding research and conceptualises a brand system encompassing brand inputs and throughputs, producing brand outcomes that include brand value as well as brand externalities within a complex hierarchical branding environment. In describing the structural dynamics and functioning of a brand system, this research extends Marketing Systems Theory into the context of branding.

This research also contributes to systems thinking in branding and brand value co-creation research. The value co-creation research recognises that value emerges as value-in-use from customer-driven processes well beyond the control and management of the firm (Grönroos, 2011; Helkkula et al., 2012). The brand value co-creation research correspondingly views brands as organic and socially and culturally nuanced (Brodie et al., 2017; Iglesias et al., 2013), where multiple brand constituencies act as resource integrators and co-create brand value mutually (Fyrberg & Jürriado, 2009; Hatch & Schultz, 2010; Ind et al., 2013; Merz et al., 2009; Ramaswamy & Ozcan, 2016; Skålén et al., 2015). Jones (2005, p. 10) stated that brand value “is a multifarious construct that is affected by, or the sum of, a gamut of relationships.” Systems thinking in branding research (e.g., Diamond et al., 2009; Kornum et al., 2017; Skaalsvik & Olsen, 2014) takes this understanding further while acknowledging the complexity of brand value creation due to the open system of interactions among consumers, firms, and the wider network of other brand actors (see Table 4.2). Among these micro-system conceptualisations, Conejo & Wooliscroft’s (2015a) semiotic brand system takes a macro-perspective and emphasises how brand meanings are co-created from the communication and negotiation between multiple stakeholders within the system. This research responds to the calls for broadening the horizon and rethinking brand value co-creation and brand management (Campbell & Price, 2021; Swaminathan et al., 2020). It takes the systems thinking in branding research beyond the co-creation of meaning and value and demonstrates brand externalities as

critical in explaining brand value destruction, anti-branding, consumer resistance and such realities of contemporary society.

The identification and analysis of brand externalities within a brand system also shed light on the narrow conceptualisations of brand stakeholders and brand relationships in the extant literature. Traditionally, brand relationships are conceptualised in the narrow context of consumers (Fournier, 1998; Fournier & Alvarez, 2012), and brand stakeholders are conceptualised as individuals or groups holding power and/or interest in influencing the organisational strategies (Gregory, 2007). Brand stakeholder relationship management is recommended to be based on dependency, strategic significance, actuality, and attractiveness of the respective stakeholders to the branding process (Jones, 2005). These parameters are based on the Stakeholder Theory (Freeman, 1984; Friedman & Miles, 2002; Jones, 2005; Mitchell et al., 1997) that challenged the earlier configurations of an organisation and directed towards the network view of the firm. Although stakeholder theory is trans-disciplinary and draws upon the systems theory, it follows a firm-centric reductionist approach ignoring the total system design. It presumes stakeholders to be distinct and mutually exclusive, marginalising the chaos and complexity of the dynamic organisational environment (Bhattacharya & Korschun, 2008; Steurer, 2006). This research argues that brands are vulnerable to the agency of non-consumers and new contextual system actors, like brand publics and unanticipated publics (Arvidsson & Caliandro, 2016; Wakefield & Knighton, 2019), have emerged in the modern hyperconnected world. Wilson (2006, p. 160) defines a brand stakeholder as “a collective individual who holds an explicit view of a brand, which is dynamic, situation specific and expressed implicitly through communication.” Social agents do not have to perceive a stake in the organisation or the brand. By virtue of being social actors, they become brand actors within a brand system that may influence and get influenced by a brand. The causal theory of brand externalities also reinforces this idea. Merz et al. (2009, p. 335) discussed that for brand value co-creation, “people do not necessarily have to *consume* or use the market offering” (emphasis in the original). In the same spirit, this research identifies an extended agency of brand actors and views them as co-participants (Laczniak, 2006) to address the systemic interconnectedness and hierarchical organisation of the brand system within a dynamic branding environment.

5.3.2 Practical Implications

This research argues that the extant branding frameworks are inadequate in dealing with the systemic interdependencies among different brand actors and the environment at

different levels of aggregation. The mapping of brand value formation requires various value processes of diverse brand actors and environmental, temporal, spatial and contextual feedback mechanisms within a brand system to be considered. Managers must take into account the dynamism in consumer and contextual inputs (the extended brand actor agency) because managerial inputs are just one among several inputs in a brand system. Brand inputs like advertising may only have a tenuous influence on brand value formation. Conventionally viewed as a major managerial input, advertising constructs a brand schema based on pre-consumption associations, including cognitive and affective anticipations (Berthon & Pitt, 2018; Boyle, 2007). This brand schema undergoes perceptual exploration – a reality check – upon consumption and experience within a context. The extended customer base of a brand, including the potential brand buyers and consumers as well as the non-buyers and non-consumers, possesses the power to influence brand value. This reinforces the non-linear nature of brand value formation and indicates that managerial efforts should go beyond the dyadic brand exchange logic. For managers, brand value formation depends upon both the subsystems (internal organisational mechanisms of research and development, quality control and assurance, audits, finance etc.) and the supra-systems (supply chain and marketing networks, collaborative alliances, customer relations, environmental interactions etc.).

The integrated brand system framework provides analytical guidelines for managers to capture the systemic complexity of branding and understand the socio-cultural phenomenon of brand value formation beyond brand co-creation. It enables addressing the governance issues for a firm and integrating marketing strategy with the value formation processes of different brand actors. Brand value co-creation occurs when stakeholder expectations are met (Jones, 2005). This research identifies the trade-offs required during resource allocation within the brand system, managing potential conflicts and balancing expectations of the extended brand actor agency. This research informs brand management and regulation while addressing brand externalities.

Managerial inputs may produce co-creative and co-destructive brand value outcomes (Cova & Paraque, 2012), and this may be due to different brand externalities. Iteratively defining and reframing the system specifications is important to address the externalities and unintended consequences of strategic choices and policy prescriptions (Layton, 2007, 2015). Identifying the extended brand actor agency involved systematically becomes imperative and is the first step in managing unintended brand externalities. Embracing ethical and moral responsibility, and dealing with brand misconduct that intentionally

exerts externalities, goes without saying. Layton (2011, p. 272) stated that “at the macro or aggregate level characteristics of the assortments offered will often be economically, socially and politically important. Restricted access to goods, services, experiences and ideas may lead to social disruption. Assortments that provide access to drugs, alcohol, or pornography are often unacceptable, leading to proscription of the marketing systems that generate these assortments. Assortments that encourage obesity, unsustainable energy use, or which may distract a population from the pursuit of socially important ends may also be discouraged.” Such managerial inputs or brand behaviours often lead to corporate backlash and anti-branding movements requiring regulatory mechanisms to be strengthened. Holt (2002, p. 88) suggested that “brands will be trusted to serve as cultural source materials when their sponsors have demonstrated that they shoulder civic responsibilities as would a community pillar.” The causal theory of brand externalities and the brand system framework set the premise for managers to avoid derailing from social sustainability and mitigate brand externalities if any may arise.

From a public policy perspective, the all-pervasive brand externalities impose a formidable challenge. Regulatory mechanisms developed to shield from the hazardous effects of an industry or managerial practice usually future-proof it by igniting a need for innovation in the current activities, thereby laying the groundwork for future strategies that may become further difficult to regulate. Advertising is an easy target for regulatory enforcement, but it is important to recognise that branding strategy is at the heart of all marketing communications. To counter the regulations on advertising, corporates turn towards branding to achieve their objectives. For instance, brand sponsorships by tobacco firms in global events, continue to influence smoking behaviour locally despite the domestic enforcement and ban on tobacco advertising. Government regulations to cater to brand externalities and social consequences of branding, as intangible and pervasive as discussed above, seem doomed to fail in this regard.

Externalities require endogenous institutional restructuring (Dahlman, 1979). Relying on regulatory policy to redeem the wrongs committed by the brand exchange partners may be futile. The distinctive quandary of communal and personal goal conflict in producing externalities necessitates an equilibrium of motives and modification of behavioural patterns. Vatn and Bromley (1997, p. 148) suggest that “issues such as moral commitment, collective standards, social norms, and network processes may attain a higher position in the understanding of externality policy.” Though minor amendments in individual predisposition can be immensely constitutive in internalising numerous brand externalities,

galvanising self-control and dealing with the long-standing consumer culture is a tremendous challenge.

Consumer awareness programs for children and adolescents to encourage resistance towards pressures of consumer culture and ease the burden of poverty; enhancing self-esteem to maim materialism; and mechanisms to restore a sense of community responsibility and appreciation of broader social values would just be the beginning. The negative impact of branding was found to be relatively benign in populations with stronger community values and religious orientation (Roper & Shah, 2007). Branding being a dynamic capability (Brodie et al., 2017) may help itself in dealing with the challenge of brand externalities. First, brands possess the ability to address the institutionalism in externalities caused by asymmetrical information because brands possess the power to inculcate trust between multiple actors within the system and price premiums could be justified to indemnify society instead of gorging self-interest. Secondly, because property rights can be clearly demarcated to trademarks, brands can help internalise positive externalities encouraging the development of sustainable production and consumption. This research emphasises further qualitative and quantitative investigations for adopting preventive mechanisms for a safe society.

5.3.3 Methodological Implications

Brands lie within complex systems (Diamond et al., 2009; Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Kornum et al., 2017). These systems exhibit wicked phenomena which are ill-structured, dynamic, and characterised by blurred overlapping boundaries and non-linear causality due to the various inputs from a wide range of system actors (Duffy et al., 2017; Huff et al., 2017). This research identifies brand externalities and, consequently, brand value formation as systemically complex phenomenon that involves a myriad of variables characterised by interdependencies, non-linearities and mutual interactions. The exploration and analysis of such phenomena require qualitative, process-oriented methodologies, such as system dynamics, that can account for non-linearities and deal with a large number of variables (Domegan et al., 2017; Wooliscroft, 2021).

This research proposes *Systematic Theory Mapping (STM)* for future researchers to define and deal with the systemic phenomena of the real world, decipher causal complexity, and develop causal theories accordingly. The *STM* in this thesis utilises the qualitative input from a systematic narrative review and hypothesises the resultant causal theory based on the conventions of system dynamics modelling. Scholars can use the *STM* to process

qualitative data from other data collection methods, such as interviews, ethnography, netnography, observations, focus groups etc. However, prior to the primary data collection, the literature-based method can enable theoretical scoping of the focal phenomena and understand its various nuances for holistic knowledge elicitation and theory development. Conceptualising and theorising should ideally begin with the extant literature (Furnari et al., 2021; Snyder, 2019), as it can improve the efficiency of any primary research in generating new insights (Wacker, 1998). Hence, this thesis establishes *STM* as a valuable addition to the methodological toolkit of qualitative researchers in marketing and other social sciences for developing and mapping theories systematically.

The *STM* is a comprehensive and structured methodology for delineating the structures and processes (causal feedback mechanisms) manifested in complex social and physical phenomena. Such a methodology, where findings from the extant literature are theorised through systems dynamic modelling, is not found in marketing research; and so, the significance of literature in the theory development process in marketing is not recognised well. This thesis indicates that systematically surveying literature before surveying people in the theory development process is “an essential prerequisite for scientific research” (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2020, p. 58) and “simply good scientific practice” (Petticrew & Roberts, 2006, p. 21), especially when the area of research holds a heterogeneous body of literature with diverse theoretical paradigms and requires various perspectives of the system actors to be integrated (Gough et al., 2012; Snyder, 2019).

5.4 Limitations & Future Research

This thesis is limited in its theoretical and qualitative focus. This research utilises extant literature (secondary source) as the data to propose the causal theory and conceptualise brand externalities and the brand system accordingly. The proposed theory and conceptualisations require validation through primary research, such as group model building or a Delphi study. Although the literature included is reliable, well-substantiated and academically peer-reviewed, the scope of the literature should be expanded with other forms of secondary information, including newspapers, social media, industry reports etc. The literature for chapters 3 and 4 was procured through a systematic and comprehensively rigorous methodology, but the conceptualisation and taxonomy of brand externalities were based on an unstructured literature review. More types of brand externalities may be unravelled if a systematic and comprehensive methodology is followed. A second limitation stems from the subjectivity of the qualitative approaches used, that include thematic content analysis, relational analysis, and conceptual synthesis. The proposed

theory and conceptualisations are not empirically tested, thus providing an opportunity for future research.

Besides addressing these limitations, the key directions for future research identified in each of the manuscripts (chapters) in this thesis include:

- developing methods for measuring different types of brand externalities,
- developing a system dynamics simulation model for brand value formation based on the integrated brand system framework, and
- developing a method for measuring the systems equity of brand in view of brand externalities to assess aggregate brand value.

Scholars should find ways to objectify brand externalities for measuring brand externalities. The taxonomy of brand externalities demonstrated that several brand externalities emerge from the individual and social goal conflict. This raises the concern of whether the individual and social goal conflict can be resolved and whether the externalities can be minimised or internalised. This would be critical for future research from a public policy perspective. The development of regulatory mechanisms, like those set for advertising, would depend upon brand externalities being considered an objective outcome of a brand system.

In addition to these broad concerns, the conceptualisation of brand externalities provides some specific directions for future research. For example, implementing methods and strategies to manage brand externalities may potentially create subsequent externalities. Further research is needed to answer: How to make externalities, the systemic anomalies, more identifiable and predictable before branding decisions? What methods would be optimal for anticipating and mitigating potential externalities arising from managing brand externalities? If and how the vicious chain of brand externalities can be broken?

The ethics and morality of the social institution of branding have been questioned to the point of being extremely controversial (Hunt, 2019). The taxonomy of brand externalities also raises concerns in this regard. Future research may further explore specific moral and ethical issues pertaining to branding. Contemporary marketplaces are multicultural, and branding may aggravate consumers' vulnerability if the phenomenon of cultural identity formation is disregarded (Kipnis et al., 2013). Brand scrutiny from an ethical perspective must be repeated with each branding campaign and should not be a one-time activity. Instead of exacerbating the vulnerabilities of targeted brand consumers and other non-consumer brand actors belonging to different subcultures in a dominant culture, the

intergroup dynamics should be respected through a culture-based and ethically oriented brand voice to minimize brand externalities and the risk of anti-brand actions. Critical concerns in this regard include: how does targeting different subcultures within a dominant culture exacerbate vulnerabilities of brand actors in multicultural brand systems? How do cultural contexts influence individual processing of brands at the micro level, and how does it influence social processing of branding within a subculture and the dominant culture at the macro level?

The concerns of efficiency in branding decisions provide another direction for future research. The concept of brand congestion iterates that the investment in branding activities would increase the brand value until a threshold is reached. Future research may be directed towards identifying and quantifying the threshold after which brand value congests and branding expenditures become inefficient.

Besides these research opportunities, the hypothesized causal theory of brand externalities and the integrated brand system framework require empirical validation. Future research should consider validating the causal theory of brand externalities through marketing and branding experts. It should be followed by developing a quantitative simulation model to inform tactical and strategic branding decisions. A simulation model can provide predictive power in determining potential branding backlashes and brand outcomes in terms of brand value, brand resilience, and brand failure. Such a predictive model may enable scholars and managers to connect the brand-related behaviours of consumers and firms with larger social outcomes like subjective and social well-being, quality of life, and sustainability concerns.

The integrated brand system framework is limited in its theoretical position. Future research is needed to substantiate the framework in different branding contexts by describing the structural and functional configurations, cause-consequence processes, and outcome concerns through case study research and action research. The empirical support on brand system framework in different contexts may lead towards a macro-theory of branding, enabling better evaluation of the systemic interdependencies and conflicts and regulating the brand system holistically.

5.5 Concluding Remarks

This thesis scrutinises brands and views brand-related behaviours of different brand actors critically, but it agrees that branding is important and a reckoning force for firms as well as consumers at the micro-level and the wider social system at the macro-level.

Organisations and entities holding an anti-branding stance also use branding strategies to deliver themselves (Østergaard et al., 2015). The outbreak of consumer resistance and the surge of globally recognised counter-cultural anti-branding movements are interesting in this regard. The enigma lies in the branding strategy itself. Contemporary society has witnessed how remarkably corporate wrongdoings are branded as 'No Logo' (Klein, 1999). The portrayal of anti-branding rhetoric, that engages the audience using altercating catchphrases and emotional appeals like any profit-oriented corporate, fashions an antithetical purview and professes the branding ambivalence.

Brand enthusiasm and opposition are rooted in the same societal phenomenon (Palazzo & Basu, 2007). One may not exist without the other, therefore coherence between brand values and social values should be sought in supplementing consumers' search for identity. Consumer resistance initiatives like anti-brand activities and anti-consumption movements are troublesome for both firms and consumers, and it threatens the sanctity of not just the brand system but the entire social system. Firms ceaselessly strive in dealing with critical reflexive consumers and suspicious society, whereas consumers find themselves trapped in the contradictory logic of critical reflexive identity because it is impossible to escape branding in the modern consumption system. Being a resistant consumer in its true spirit (Østergaard et al., 2015) and cultivating self-identity from within may be virtually impossible. Like brands do not provide an infinite source of self-expression (Chernev et al., 2011), other self-expressive acts may also be limited in their service. This indicates that consumer resistance may be a myth. In the same way as resource scarcity spurs the exploration of production and consumption alternatives, consumer resistance would be a handful in provoking firms towards exploring new paradigms and principles for branding practice.

This thesis provides an integrative systems paradigm for branding research and practice in view of brand externalities. The reconfiguration of traditional brand management into the integrated brand systems framework is critical to address the systemic complexities and conflicting values of the brand actor agency and guide brand development, management, and regulation from a macro-systems perspective. While conceptualising brand externalities and providing methodological guidelines for analysis and intervention in brand systems, this research accrues several concerns in branding profoundly overlooked and directs future research to build towards a socially sustainable branding practice and a safer society.

5.5 References

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