Brand Tourists: How Non–Core Users Enhance the Brand Image by Eliciting Pride

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This research examines how core consumers of selective brands react when non–core users obtain access to the brand. Contrary to the view that non–core users and downward brand extensions pose a threat to the brand, this work investigates the conditions under which these non–core users enhance rather than dilute the brand image. A distinction between two types of non–core users based on how they are perceived by current users of core products is introduced: "brand immigrants" who claim to be part of the in-group of core users of the brand and "brand tourists" who do not claim any membership status to the brand community. A series of studies show that core consumers respond positively to non–core users when they are perceived as brand tourists. The brand tourism effect is mediated by core users' pride and moderated by brand patriotism and selectiveness of the brand.

There is an inherent trade-off in managing symbolic and exclusive brands. Brand managers need to generate growth by extending the customer base to new segments and new markets; yet, this increased popularity and prevalence can paradoxically hurt the brand and threaten its symbolic value. For instance, the popularity of Tiffany's highly profitable and fast-growing line of cheaper silver jewelry threatened to alienate the brand's older and wealthier clients and to damage its reputation for luxury. Burberry displayed its iconic tan plaid on multiple products and brand extensions and struggled with the resulting overexposure (Byron 2007). Other notorious examples of brands that stumbled while trying to satisfy both investors' clamor for sales growth and customers' demand for exclusivity include Pierre Cardin, which became too common for many high-fashion customers (Andrews 2004), and Gucci, whose prod-

uct line grew to 22,000 items but eventually managed to refocus the brand (Galloni 2005).

Indeed, consumer research warns managers of brand dilution risks (for a review, see Loken and John [2009]). Consumers of exclusive brands, as members of a selective in-group, want to limit the number and type of consumers who have access to the brand and also want to maintain the brand's distinctiveness (Amaldoss and Jain 2005; Han, Nunes, and Dreze 2010). The value of brands can be diluted when firms engage in aggressive brand extension strategies (Keller 2009; Kirmani, Sood, and Bridges 1999) and when undesired outsiders start using the brand (Berger and Heath 2008; White and Dahl 2007).

Contrary to the shared view that downward brand extensions and non–core users are by definition a threat to exclusive brands and that the prestige of the brand community decreases with the number of users, we investigate the conditions under which non–core consumers can enhance rather than dilute the prestige image of the brand. Our conceptualization integrates several research streams in psychology and marketing and establishes an analogy between countries and brands. Building on this analogy, we introduce a distinction between two types of users of non–core products based on how they are perceived by current users of the core offering of the brand. We define "brand immigrants" as those who claim to be part of the in-group of core users of the brand and "brand tourists" as those who buy the non–core branded products but do not claim any in-group membership (i.e., do not claim to be part of the brand core users' in-group).

We argue that non–core consumers perceived as brand tourists rather than brand immigrants can prevent brand dilution and positively affect the image of the brand in the eyes of the core users of the brand. Non–core users who are perceived by the current core users as claiming in-group status (i.e., brand immigrants) pose a threat to the brand and dilute the brand image. In contrast, when these non–core users are not perceived to claim membership status (i.e., brand tourists), they serve as proof of value for the brand, making it more aspirational without compromising its attainability. We label this positive phenomenon "the brand tourism effect." We investigate psychological processes and demonstrate a new mechanism of consumers' pride toward the brand. We show that brand tourists elicit feelings of pride among core users of the brand and that pride mediates the positive impact of brand tourists on the image of the brand. Moreover, we demonstrate that the effect is moderated by core customers' level of attachment to the brand as measured through the "brand patriotism" scale adapted from the political psychology literature. Finally, we demonstrate that the effect is attenuated for nonselective brands.

Our research contributes to the literatures on brand extension (Keller 2009; Kirmani et al. 1999; Loken and John 2009) and intergroup dynamics within brand communities (Berger and Heath 2008; Schouten and Mcalexander 1995; Shalev and Morwitz 2012; White and Dahl 2007) by offering novel insights for preventing brand dilution and enhancing the image of exclusive brands. Our findings demonstrate that providing out-group members access to exclusive brands through non–core products can actually enhance the brand image. When the users of these non–core products are perceived as brand tourists, they can serve as a source of pride for core users and generate positive value for the brand.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The Symbolic Value of Brands and Brand Extension

Consumers buy products not only for functional purposes but also for what they symbolize, thereby using products to express desired identities and to make inferences about the identities of others (Belk 1988; Kleine, Kleine, and Allen 1995; Levy 1959). Research examining consumers' connection to brands demonstrates how brands in particular become part of consumers' self-concept and fulfill their identity needs (Escalas and Bettman 2003; Fournier 1998). Brands are perceived as symbolic to the extent that they are able to communicate information about the individual using them (Escalas and Bettman 2005; White and Dahl 2007). Moreover, the symbolic properties of reference groups become associated with the brands those groups are perceived to use (Bearden and Etzel 1982; Childers and Rao 1992; Muniz and O'Guinn 2001). The brand meaning and its symbolic value are cocreated and reinforced by the brand community. Brand community members, much like other social groups, share a system of values, consciousness, rituals and traditions, and a sense of "us" versus "them" (Fournier and Lee 2009; Muniz and O'Guinn 2001; Muniz and Schau 2005). Individuals display pride in being associated with specific in-groups and brand communities (Decrop and Derbaix 2009) and value their membership even more in the case of exclusive groups with demanding and effortful initiation processes (Aronson and Mills 1959; Gerard and Mathewson 1966).

The symbolic value of brands can be diluted when firms engage in aggressive brand extension strategies or when undesirable social comparison groups start using them. Consumers abandon their preferences for and their usage of products when they become associated with undesirable outsiders (Berger and Heath 2007, 2008; White and Dahl 2006, 2007). While symbolic and prestigious brands have great potential for brand extension (Park, Milberg, and Lawson 1991), they are extremely exposed to the risks of unsuccessful extensions (Keller and Aaker 1992) and of losing their high-status character when overdiffused (Dubois and Paternault 1995; Kapferer and Bastien 2009; Keller 2009). Kirmani et al. (1999) examine brand owners' response to extensions of exclusive brands and demonstrate that owners of these brands exhibit parent brand dilution in response to downward brand extensions because of their desire to maintain brand distinctiveness. Thus, this literature suggests that downward brand extensions and non–core users typically pose a threat to exclusive brands and dilute the brand image in the eyes of the core users of the brand. In the present research, we propose a new framework to understand core users' response to non–core users and downward brand extensions of exclusive brands. We argue that the response to these non–core users and their impact on the brand depend on whether they are perceived to claim membership status to the brand in-group. Our conceptualization builds on the observation that while immigrants are often treated with hostility and viewed as a threat, tourists, who do not demand any privileges or citizenship rights, are more welcomed by residents. Such tourists confirm and reinforce the attractiveness and desirability of the place they visit and have a positive effect on residents' sense of pride.

Brand Immigrants and Brand Tourists

We draw an analogy between countries and brands and propose that the differential response to immigrants versus tourists can help us understand and predict how core users of exclusive brands will respond when peripheral individuals are given access to the brand community. Research in political and social psychology suggests that immigrants are often treated with hostility and resentment by national residents (for a review, see Dovidio and Esses [2001]). Such prejudice, intolerance, and exclusionary reactions have been shown to be driven by group conflict over resources. The theoretical accounts of group conflict (Blalock 1967; Blumer 1958) argue that individuals tend to view minority groups as a potential threat to one's key in-group. Immigrant minorities in particular are often perceived as taking resources and enjoying benefits that "belong to" current citizens

(Esses, Jackson, and Armstrong 1998; McLaren and Johnson 2007).

Moreover, recent research examining attitudes toward immigrants in the United States and Western Europe finds that anti-immigrant hostility not only is associated with a desire to protect the economic benefits of current citizens but is mostly driven by symbolic concerns and desires to protect and maintain the nation's cultural unity and distinctiveness (McLaren and Johnson 2007; Sniderman, Hagendoorn, and Prior 2004; Stephan, Ybarra, and Bachman 1999). These findings are consistent with social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1979), which suggests that people are motivated to achieve and maintain a positive and distinctive social identity and thus seek to differentiate their in-group. Accordingly, in the context of selective brands, brand immigrants can threaten the symbolic value of the brand and the distinctiveness of the brand community.

While there is extensive work on attitudes toward immigrants, there is scant research examining responses to tourists. Anecdotal evidence suggests that tourists are more welcomed than immigrants and inspire feelings of pride.[1] In a between-subjects pilot with 210 American citizens, we confirmed that citizens hold more favorable attitudes toward tourists than toward immigrants.[2] An examination of residents' responses to tourism development in their community demonstrates that, in addition to the economic benefits of tourism, tourists promote community pride and a sense of cultural identity. Tourism makes local residents feel more proud of their town and makes them feel good about themselves and their community (Tovar and Lockwood 2008). Residents feel proud when they see tourists visit their city (Alhammad 2012) and proud to live in a place that provides many tourism opportunities (Huh and Vogt 2007).

We draw on this differential affective response to immigrants and tourists to explain and understand current customers' responses to non–core users of a brand and downward brand extensions. We propose a classification of non–core users of selective brands depending on whether they are perceived to claim in-group status to the brand community. Core users (or brand citizens) are consumers of the brand's core offering who can claim in-group status by virtue of possessing the brand's marquee. For example, Harvard University students enrolled in a full-time undergraduate or graduate program, consumers who own a Prada

handbag, or users of Lomography cameras are considered core users of the Harvard, Prada, and Lomography brands, respectively. Non–core users are consumers who obtain access to the brand by consuming one of its non–core offerings (e.g., individuals who take summer classes or online courses at Harvard University, consumers who buy a Prada key chain, users of a smart phone Lomography application). We propose that non–core users can be seen as either "brand immigrants" or "brand tourists" depending on whether they claim in-group status to the brand community. Brand immigrants are individuals who consume non–core branded products and claim to be part of the in-group of core users (e.g., online students who mention Harvard University on their résumé, a Prada key chain owner who sees herself as part of the core brand users' in-group, users of the Lomography smart phone app who claim to be Lomographers). We define brand tourists as those who also consume the non–core branded products but do not claim any membership status (e.g., students taking online courses who do not mention Harvard University on their résumé, Prada key chain owners who do not claim to be part of the core brand users' in-group, users of the smart phone app who do not see themselves as Lomographers). We suggest that non–core consumers perceived as brand tourists rather than brand immigrants can enhance the image of the brand in the eyes of core users of the brand and elicit positive reactions toward these non–core users. While both groups of non–core users admire the brand and want to be associated with it, brand immigrants dilute the distinctiveness of the brand image and make it more attainable since they claim membership to the brand community. In contrast, brand tourists, who do not claim membership, serve as a source of value for the brand without compromising its attainability.

It is important to specify that our analogy between citizens of a country and members of a brand community should be interpreted as such. We propose a classification of consumers of a brand building on one specific and stylized aspect of the analogy: the extent to which non–core members are perceived to claim in-group status. Of course, in reality there are several other differences between actual immigrants and tourists. Some of these differences extend beyond claims of citizenship (e.g., their socioeconomic status), and some might not even translate so naturally in the context of brands (e.g., the length of the stay in the country). Nonetheless, countries and brand communities share several interesting similarities across many dimensions. For example, brand communities, just like national communities, are marked by shared consciousness, rituals and traditions, and a sense of moral responsibility (Muniz and O'Guinn 2001). Indeed, some brands refer to their communities as "nations" (e.g., the "Red Sox Nation") or "countries" (e.g., the "Republica Popular do Corinthians" founded by Nike in 2010; http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0hklbtRaF-k), and countries have been referred to as brands (Kotler and Gertner 2002). Our analogy between countries and brands, based on some of those similar dimensions, allows us to derive theoretical

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[1] A Google search of relevant keywords confirms this differential response to tourists and immigrants. Pairing "tourists welcome" results in 58 million hits and pairing "tourism proud" results in 51 million hits. Searches for "immigrants welcome" and "immigration proud" produce many fewer entries (respectively, 24 and 32 million hits).

[2] Respondents recruited through Qualtrics were asked (a) whether they thought the number of immigrants [tourists] to the United States should be reduced or increased on a 5-point scale and (b) to indicate their agreement on a 7-point scale with the statement "the United States would lose its identity if more immigrants [tourists] came to the US." Respondents wanted to increase the number of tourists but not the number of immigrants ($M_{tourist} = 3.4$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 2.3$, $t(209) = 13.8$, $p < .001$), and tourists were seen as less threatening to the identity of the United States ($M_{tourist} = 2.2$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 3.9$, $t(209) = 11.7$, $p < .001$).

implications for brands by deepening our understanding of intergroup dynamics within exclusive brand communities.

Why are brand tourists expected to have a positive impact on the brand image when compared to brand immigrants? We argue that the brand tourism effect is mediated by core users' pride. Just as tourists boost the pride of citizens toward their home country and reinforce the attractiveness and desirability of the place they visit, brand tourists, as fans of the brand, inspire feelings of pride among core members who attained access to the brand community and thus enhance the image of the brand. Pride is a feeling of satisfaction and fulfillment over one's achievements and capabilities (Cavanaugh et al. 2011; Tracy and Robins 2004). Feelings of pride appear when one's behavior is positively valued by others and may spread over in-group social identity, as when pride is felt in association with national anthems and patriotic actions (Lazarus 1991). The marketing literature analyzes pride arising from a wide range of consumption situations (Aaker and Williams 1998; Mochon, Norton, and Ariely 2012; Mukhopadhyay and Johar 2007; Wilcox, Kramer, and Sen 2011). Specifically, research in the branding domain suggests that brand communities often develop around beloved brands such as Ferrari, Harley Davidson, or Apple that involve passionate consumers who are proud to be associated with the brand and involved in the brand community (Decrop and Derbaix 2009; Fournier and Lee 2009; Thompson, Rindfleisch, and Arsel 2006). We propose that feelings of pride among core users, who achieved access to selective brand communities, can be further heightened by the presence of brand tourists. Moreover, we examine the downstream consequences for the brand, such as future choices and willingness to spread positive word of mouth, and additional affective responses such as core users' feelings of anger toward non–core users. We therefore predict that:

H1: Non–core users of a selective brand will have a positive effect on the brand and will be viewed positively by core users of the brand when they are perceived as brand tourists rather than when they are perceived as brand immigrants (or compared to a control condition).

H2: The positive effect of non–core users perceived as brand tourists versus brand immigrants will be mediated by core users' pride: brand tourists will increase pride among core users of the brand compared to brand immigrants (or compared to a control condition).

Both the political psychology and the consumer behavior literature demonstrate that individual differences in attachment and identification with one's country/brand can have a strong impact on citizens'/consumers' reactions and behaviors. Consumer research offers several measures of connection and self-identification with the brand, including self-brand connection (Escalas and Bettman 2003), brand attachment (Park et al. 2010; Thomson, MacInnis, and Park 2005), and brand love (Batra, Ahuvia, and Bagozzi 2011).

In political psychology, the patriotism scale (Kosterman and Feshbach 1989) is the most established measure of individual-level differences in attachment to one's nation. Since our conceptualization integrates political psychology and consumer behavior literature, we adapt the patriotism scale from countries to brands (see the method section in study 4) and coin the term "brand patriotism." Compared to other measures of attachment to and identification with the brand, the brand patriotism scale specifically focuses on feelings of smugness and superiority associated with being part of the in-group of the brand. We predict that the brand patriotism level among brand owners will moderate reactions to non–core users and downward brand extensions. This hypothesis is consistent with social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1979), which suggests that attitudes toward outgroups are affected by the level of identification with the in-group (Jetten, Spears, and Postmes 2004).

H3: The positive effect of non–core users perceived as brand tourists will be moderated by core users' brand patriotism: core users with higher levels of brand patriotism will have a more positive response to brand tourists than core users with lower levels of brand patriotism.

Finally, we investigate an additional moderator of the brand tourism effect by comparing responses to brand tourists of selective versus nonselective brands. Consistent with recent research demonstrating more pronounced effects for products that require an acquisition effort (Kivetz and Simonson 2002; White and Argo 2011), we expect a stronger positive response to brand tourists when the brand is perceived as selective. Brands are perceived as selective to the extent to which access to the brand is not open and some acquisition effort is required to gain membership in the brand community. Membership to exclusive communities is often valued as a function of severe initiation processes (Aronson and Mills 1959; Gerard and Mathewson 1966), suggesting that exerting effort to acquire in-group status makes the brand more important to the self. As such, brand tourists expressing admiration for the brand without making it more accessible should be particularly rewarding and gratifying for those individuals who invested energy and commitment to obtain brand membership. In contrast, when less effort is expended to acquire in-group status and the brand is perceived as fairly easy to attain (i.e., nonselective), brand tourists should not elicit such a positive reaction. To examine this moderator of the brand tourism effect, we compare selective versus less selective brand communities within the same product scenario. We predict that brand tourists will enhance the image of the brand for members of selective in-groups but that this effect will be attenuated for members of less exclusive in-groups that require less effort to achieve admission.

H4: The positive effect of non–core consumers perceived as brand tourists will be stronger for brands that are perceived as selective (i.e., high effort to

attain) compared to brands that are perceived as less selective (i.e., low effort to attain).

Overview of the Present Research

We explore the response of consumers of selective brands to non–core customers and downward brand extensions. Figure 1 summarizes our conceptual model and hypotheses. In our studies, we examine diverse consumer populations and exclusive brands that encompass a wide variety of ways to earn access to the in-group such as investing monetary resources (e.g., owners of expensive brands), passing admission requirements and tests (e.g., students at selective institutions), or even training for an activity (e.g., participants of endurance races). All studies are based on real branding dilemmas and brand extension scenarios.

We show how the brand tourism effect translates into three focal dependent variables: (*a*) brand image, (*b*) downstream consequences for the brand, and (*c*) attitudes toward the non–core users. Specifically, we assess the brand image primarily through the brand prestige scale (Kirmani et al. 1999; studies 3, 4, 5, and 6), and we also measure the impact on the image and reputation of the brand (study 1). Moreover, we examine downstream consequences by analyzing willingness to spread positive word of mouth, using Cheema and Kaikati's (2010) measures, and the frequency and intensity with which respondents expect to engage with the brand and the community in the future. Finally, we examine attitudes toward non–core users.

The construct of "claiming in-group status" is critical in our theorizing for it differentiates between brand tourists and brand immigrants. Our studies explore various ways of operationalizing the distinction between brand immigrants and tourists, such as a reference of affiliation on a résumé (study 1), explicit claims by non–core users (studies 3 and 4), and methods that can be directly applied by brands, such as the positioning and advertising of the non–core products (studies 2 and 5) and the strategic management of symbols of membership to the brand community (study 6). We confirm that each of these experimental manipulations conveys different perceptions of "claiming in-group status."

RESEARCH DESIGN AND FINDINGS

Study 1: The Effect of Depicting Non–Core Users as Brand Tourists

Study 1 introduces our research paradigm and examines the response to brand tourists versus brand immigrants in the context of education brands. According to the author of *Luxury World*, "Universities accept that they too are brands. And some of them are premium brands" (Tungate 2009, 202). Gladwell (2005) argues that Ivy League admissions directors are "in the luxury brand management business." Harvard University in particular has been labeled as "the Gucci of higher education" (Katz 2005) and as a "branding empire" (Silverstein 2008). Past research has often operationalized in-group membership by recruiting students of a specific university brand, for example, Stanford students (Berger and Heath 2007, 2008) or Duke students (Gino and Zhong 2009). Similarly in this study, we investigate intergroup dynamics within the community of Harvard students.

The study is inspired by a real-world example of a downward brand extension (the part-time programs offered by Harvard University) that generated anger and resentment among full-time Harvard students. These programs offer evening, summer, and online courses. Registration requires full payment of tuition but usually does not require an ap-

FIGURE 1

THEORETICAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES
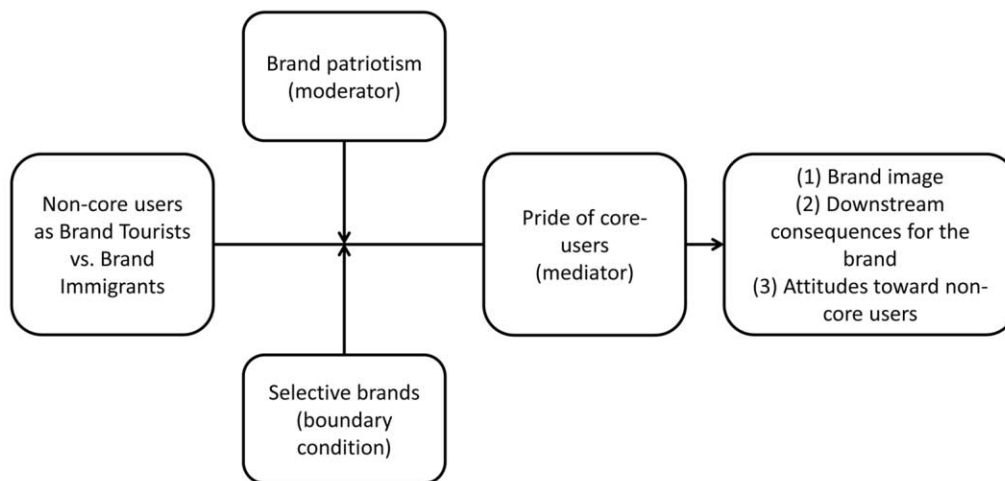
plication or a selective admissions process. A *Harvard Crimson* editorial (2005), written by full-time students, criticized these programs and questioned their legitimacy. A few years later, students argued that participants in these programs should correctly report their affiliation to Harvard by an explicit mention of the nature of the program on their résumés (http://blogs.law.harvard.edu/lamont/). Our study tests the responses of full-time Harvard students to summer school courses offered by their university. Students in the summer school program are described either as brand tourists who do not claim group membership or as brand immigrants claiming membership.

Method. We recruited 60 Harvard University full-time undergraduate students (54% female; $M_{age} = 21$) who participated in a series of unrelated lab studies. All participants read the same description of the Harvard summer program: "Harvard University offers a Harvard summer program to non-Harvard students. These students come all the way from all over the world to participate in a program at Harvard. In contrast to other Harvard programs, attending this 6-week program does not require a selective admissions process." The description of the summer school students manipulated between subjects whether they claimed in-group status by mentioning Harvard on their résumés (brand immigrant condition) or did not claim in-group status by not mentioning Harvard on their résumés (brand tourist condition). Participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions that read "Participants in this program [do not] put Harvard University on their résumé, because they [do not] think of themselves as real Harvard students."

Next, we measured the three dependent variables of interest: (*a*) brand image, (*b*) downstream consequences for the brand (i.e., intended alumni support and donations), and (*c*) attitudes toward non–core users. First, respondents assessed "How does the summer program impact the reputation of Harvard University?" using a scale from 1 = very negatively to 7 = very positively, and they indicated whether "the summer program will have a positive or negative impact on the image of Harvard University," using a scale from 1 = extremely negative to 7 = extremely positive. Second, two items assessed respondents' intended alumni support and donations; participants rated on a scale ranging from 1 = not likely at all to 7 = extremely likely the likelihood of engaging in the following two behaviors: (*a*) "donate money to Harvard" and (*b*) "attend Harvard alumni events." Third, participants were asked to indicate their attitudes toward the non–core students, using three 7-point scale items ranging from 1 = "I dislike them" to 7 = "I like them," 1 = "I react unfavorably to their story" to 7 = "I react favorably to their story," and 1 = "I feel negative about them" to 7 = "I feel positive about them."

Finally, participants responded to a manipulation check to confirm that non–core users who put Harvard on their résumés (the brand immigrants) were perceived to claim more in-group status than non–core users who did not put Harvard on their résumés (the brand tourists). Three items on a scale ranging from 1 = definitely not to 7 = definitely

yes measured the extent to which non–core users were perceived to claim membership: (*a*) "the summer students will claim they are Harvard students," (*b*) "the summer students will see themselves as Harvard students," and (*c*) "the summer students believe they deserve a Harvard diploma."

Results. The analysis of the manipulation check (three items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$) confirmed that brand immigrants were perceived to claim more in-group membership than brand tourists ($M_{immigrant} = 4.0$ vs. $M_{tourist} = 2.9$; $t(58) = 2.5$, $p < .05$). The analysis of the brand image (two items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$) revealed that respondents thought that the image and reputation of Harvard University would benefit from the summer school more in the brand tourist condition, when summer students were not claiming membership, than in the brand immigrant condition, when summer students were claiming membership ($M_{tourist} = 4.4$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 3.8$; $t(58) = 2.2$, $p < .05$). Moreover, full-time Harvard students reported a higher willingness to donate money to their school and to attend alumni events (two items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$) in the brand tourist condition than in the brand immigrant condition ($M_{tourist} = 5.9$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 5.2$; $t(58) = 2.0$, $p = .05$). Finally, the analysis of attitudes toward the non–core users (three items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$) indicated that full-time Harvard students had more positive reactions toward brand tourists than toward brand immigrants ($M_{tourist} = 4.9$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 3.8$; $t(58) = 3.3$, $p < .01$).

Discussion. This study demonstrates that simply framing consumers of a downward brand extension as brand tourists rather than brand immigrants can have a positive impact on the brand. We demonstrate that the extent to which non–core users are perceived to claim group membership matters a great deal to core members of the brand community and can affect downstream consequences, such as intended donations. In this study, non–core users explicitly claimed membership status by stating their affiliation on their résumés. The next study employs a more subtle manipulation and frames non–core users as brand tourists or brand immigrants through the characteristics of the non–core product.

Study 2: The Brand Tourism Effect and Willingness to Spread Positive Word of Mouth

Study 2 extends the experimental design of the previous study by adding a control condition. Specifically, the control condition in this study represents a neutral scenario for the brand (i.e., in the absence of a downward brand extension). Importantly, this neutral control condition allows us to demonstrate the benefits of launching non–core products that generate the brand tourism effect, compared to not engaging in downward brand extension strategies at all. In addition to examining downstream consequences for the brand as in study 1 (i.e., future intentions to engage with the brand), in this study we also examine a formal measure of willingness to spread positive word of mouth (Cheema and Kaikati 2010). This study is also inspired by the real-world example

of a downward brand extension: a smart phone application of Lomography cameras. The Lomography camera is an analog photographic machine that produces creative visual effects (e.g., oversaturated colors, optical distortions). Lomography cameras are engineered so that the artistic effects are random, always slightly different, and, as such, irreproducible. Our study is directly inspired by the recent launch of the Lomography app for smart phones. The app emulates real Lomography filters; however, it does not retain the random element that is obtained through the physical camera.

We examine how the introduction of this app would have a positive or negative impact depending on whether app users are viewed as brand tourists or brand immigrants. We asked participants to imagine that they own a Lomography camera, and we examined three different conditions. In the brand tourist condition, we framed the app pictures as clearly not generated by a real camera. In contrast, in the brand immigrant condition, we told participants that it was "not very apparent" that the app pictures were not generated by a real camera. Finally, in the control condition, there was no mention of the Lomography app. We predict that respondents in the brand tourist condition will have more positive reactions to Lomography than respondents in the control and brand immigrant conditions. When pictures taken with the app are clearly distinguishable and thus app users cannot claim that they are Lomographers, we expect that the app will generate a positive brand tourism effect and will increase positive word of mouth.

Method. We recruited 90 participants who responded to a paid online survey (33% female; $M_{age} = 32$). Participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions (brand tourists, brand immigrants, or control condition). All participants read the same study introduction and a description of Lomography. They were told, "Lomography is a relatively new trend/hobby in photography. The Lomography camera is analog (rather than digital) and is designed to produce photographic effects such as oversaturated colors, optical distortions, rainbow-colored subjects, blurring, and alternative film processing. Lomography cameras are deliberately engineered so that the artistic photographic effects are random and always slightly different. Thus each picture is unique and not replicable. Lomography cameras typically sell for an average price of $250 and the most sophisticated models can cost over $1,000. Imagine that you own a Lomography camera and enjoy taking creative pictures with it." In the control condition, no further description was reported; in the other two conditions, the text continued with a description of the app for smart phones. The description manipulated between subjects the extent to which it was very apparent (brand tourist condition) or not very apparent (brand immigrant condition) that the app pictures were not generated by a real Lomography camera. In detail, participants in the brand tourists [brand immigrants] condition read, "The manufacturer of the Lomography camera recently launched a popular Lomography application for smart phones. Although the app emulates the Lomography ex-

perience, it is [not] very apparent that these pictures were not generated by a real Lomography camera."

After reading the description, participants answered a series of questions measuring downstream consequences for the brand: (*a*) word of mouth and (*b*) future intentions to engage with Lomography. Employing Cheema and Kaikati's (2010) measures of willingness to generate positive word of mouth and to recommend a product, participants in all conditions rated "How likely are you to tell friends and acquaintances positive things about Lomography?" and "Will you recommend Lomography to others?" on a scale ranging from 1 = not likely at all to 7 = very likely. Moreover, participants in the brand tourist and brand immigrant conditions (participants in the control could not answer this item since they did not read any information about the non–core product) also indicated their willingness to talk about the non–core product: "Will you try to spread the word about the availability of the Lomography app?" on a scale from 1 = definitely no to 7 = definitely yes. As with the measure of "intended alumni support and donations" employed in the study with Harvard students, all participants next rated two items tapping into future intentions to engage with Lomography. Specifically, respondents answered a question about their expected usage frequency, "How often would you want to use your Lomography camera?" on a time interval scale ranging from 1 = never to 7 = daily. Moreover, they rated on a scale from 1 = definitely no to 7 = definitely yes their willingness to engage with the brand community: "Would you be an active member of the global community of Lomography?" We averaged the two items and used the resulting measure of future intentions to engage with Lomography in our analysis. Finally, as a check for our manipulation, participants in the brand tourist and brand immigrant conditions rated the following two items: "The Lomography app allows its users to claim that they take Lomography pictures" on a scale from 1 = not very much to 7 = very much and "Users of the app can claim they are Lomographers" on a scale from 1 = definitely no to 7 = definitely yes.

Results. First, the analysis of the manipulation check (two items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .57$) confirmed that non–core users in the brand immigrant condition were perceived to claim more in-group membership than non–core users in the brand tourist condition ($M_{immigrant} = 5.4$ vs. $M_{tourist} = 4.5$; $t(58) = 2.5$, $p < .05$). The analysis of willingness to spread positive word of mouth (two items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$) revealed a significant effect of condition ($F(2, 87) = 4.0$, $p < .05$). As shown in figure 2, planned contrasts revealed that participants' willingness to mention and recommend Lomography to others was significantly higher in the brand tourist condition ($M_{tourist} = 5.7$) than in the control ($M_{control} = 5.0$; $t(87) = 2.0$, $p = .05$) and brand immigrant ($M_{immigrant} = 4.7$; $t(87) = 2.7$, $p < .01$) conditions. There was no significant difference between the control and brand immigrant conditions. In addition, the willingness to mention the non–core product to others was higher in the brand tourist condition than in the brand immigrant condition

FIGURE 2

STUDY 2 RESULTS: THE BRAND TOURISM EFFECT ON
WILLINGNESS TO SPREAD POSITIVE WORD OF MOUTH

Willingness to Spread Word of Mouth
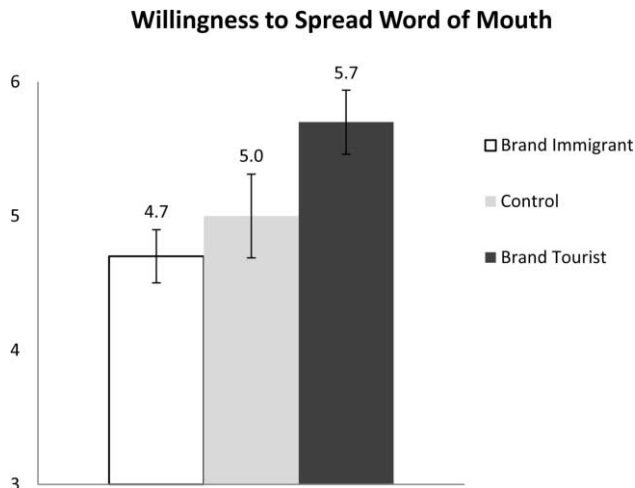
NOTE.—Error bars denote standard errors

($M_{tourist} = 4.5$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 3.4$; $t(58) = 2.1$, $p < .05$). The analysis of future intentions to engage with Lomography (two items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .75$) revealed a similar pattern of results with a significant effect of condition ($F(2, 87) = 4.4$, $p < .05$). As hypothesized, planned contrasts showed that participants were more willing to engage with Lomography in the brand tourist condition ($M_{tourist} = 5.4$) than in the control ($M_{control} = 4.7$; $t(87) = 2.1$, $p < .05$) and brand immigrant ($M_{immigrant} = 4.4$; $t(87) = 2.9$, $p < .01$) conditions. Again, there was no significant difference between the control and brand immigrant conditions.

Discussion. This study demonstrates the potential benefits of non–core products generating the brand tourism effect compared to a neutral control condition in the absence of the non–core product. Our findings demonstrate that, when non–core users are perceived as brand tourists, the brand can benefit from pursuing downward brand extension strategies rather than refraining from launching non–core products.

Of special relevance to marketers is whether the documented positive effect of framing non–core users as brand tourists (who do not claim membership status) can potentially enhance the prestige of the brand in the eyes of core consumers. Study 3 further extends our findings by examining how brand tourists affect the prestige image of the brand compared to brand immigrants and to a control condition. In this study, we also delve into the underlying mechanisms of the brand tourism effect and demonstrate that non–core users depicted as brand tourists boost the pride of core users of the brand.

Study 3: Non–Core Users as Brand Tourists in the Domain of Luxury Fashion Brands

Study 3 examines consumers of luxury fashion brands, a highly symbolic product category. We test the responses of Prada or Marc Jacobs owners to a collectors' paper shopping bag offered to anyone entering the boutique. Using a three-conditions between-subjects design, we describe consumers receiving this paper bag as brand tourists, as brand immigrants, or neutrally (control condition). The brands explored in this study (Prada and Marc Jacobs) are known for their high-end leather goods and clothes (e.g., purses, shoes, wallets, dresses), and each has over 250 branded luxury boutiques worldwide.

The study was inspired by a recent trend covered by Korean TV news about a flourishing secondhand market for luxury paper bags, including brands such as Tiffany and Gucci. The news story indicated that consumers buy these secondhand paper bags to claim status; consumers who cannot afford the actual high-end product carry the paper shopping bags as substitutes because they have a desire to be seen and perceived as real luxury users.

We examine whether offering a free collectors' paper shopping bag to all store visitors would have a positive or negative impact on the brand image. This study also examines a formal measure of prestige image of the brand (Kirmani et al. 1999) and the mediating role of pride. We predict that the impact of offering the paper shopping bag will depend on whether the product recipients are described as brand tourists or immigrants. Across three conditions, we describe women receiving this paper bag as brand tourists (not claiming membership to the brand community), as brand immigrants (claiming in-group status), or neutrally (control condition). We predict that brand owners will react more positively when the non–core users are depicted as brand tourists than when the non–core users are depicted either as brand immigrants or neutrally (control condition). In other words, core users will react positively only when it is clear that the non–core product (the paper bag) does not confer in-group status to non–core users. In the brand tourist condition, the non–core product does not compromise the exclusivity of the brand but rather boosts the pride of core users and reinforces the image and desirability of the brand.

Method. Sixty-four women recruited from a national online sample responded to a paid online survey ($M_{age} = 41$). We randomly assigned participants to one of three conditions (brand tourist, brand immigrant, or control condition). Respondents were recruited by Qualtrics panel services on the basis of their income (a minimum of $5,000 monthly income) and ownership of Prada or Marc Jacobs products. The sample was equally split between these two luxury brands with 30 owners of Prada and 34 owners of Marc Jacobs (the two brands examined were collapsed and analyzed jointly since there were no significant differences in the patterns of results). Respondents were assigned to the scenarios relative to the brand that they owned. All partic-

ipants read the same description of a new free collectors' paper shopping bag and a prototypical consumer, Lucy, receiving such a product: "To celebrate its anniversary, the Prada/Marc Jacobs brand is considering offering a free collectors' paper shopping bag to anyone who enters one of its boutiques worldwide. Now imagine Lucy, who just walked into a Prada/Marc Jacobs store and received a free Prada/Marc Jacobs collectors' paper shopping bag." In the control condition, no further description was reported; in the other two conditions, the text continued with additional information about the non–core consumer. In the brand immigrant condition, Lucy was depicted as claiming membership to the owners' community: "Even though Lucy cannot afford a Prada/Marc Jacobs purse, she can still be part of the community of Prada/Marc Jacobs owners and consider herself part of the Prada/Marc Jacobs brand. The Prada/Marc Jacobs collectors' paper shopping bag will allow her to show that she is a customer of the brand." In contrast, in the brand tourist condition, Lucy was not depicted as claiming membership through the paper bag, but simply showing her admiration for the brand: "Even though Lucy cannot afford a Prada/Marc Jacobs purse and does not belong to the community of Prada/Marc Jacobs owners, she still wants to show her admiration for the Prada/Marc Jacobs brand. The Prada/Marc Jacobs collectors' paper shopping bag will allow her to show that she is a fan of the brand." A manipulation check conducted with a separate group of respondents confirmed that Lucy was perceived as claiming significantly less in-group status in the tourist condition than in both the control and immigrant conditions.[3]

After reading the non–core user's description, all participants were asked how the paper bag would affect the pride of Prada/Marc Jacobs' owners using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = extremely negative to 7 = extremely positive. Subsequently, we measured the two dependent variables of interest in this study: (a) brand image and (b) attitudes toward non–core users. First, participants responded to three prestige scale items (Kirmani et al. 1999) measuring the extent to which the paper bag would make the image of the brand seem (a) exclusive, (b) high-status, and (c) prestigious using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = less to 7 = more. Second, respondents indicated their attitudes toward the non–core user using the same three items employed in study 1.

Results. The analysis of pride revealed a significant effect of the non–core user's description ($F(2, 61) = 5.7$, $p < .01$). As depicted in figure 3A, core users' ratings in the brand tourist condition ($M_{tourist} = 5.8$) were higher than in

STUDY 3 RESULTS: THE BRAND TOURISM EFFECT ON PRIDE AND PRESTIGE IMAGE OF THE BRAND
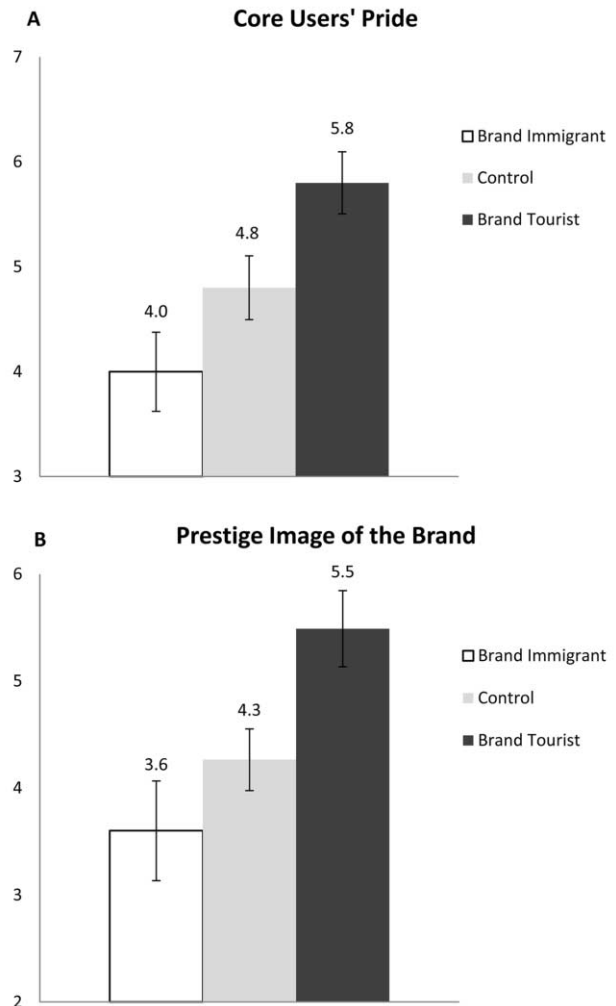
NOTE.—Error bars denote standard errors.

the brand immigrant condition ($M_{immigrant} = 4.0$; $t(61) = 3.4$, $p < .01$). Responses in the control condition fell in between the tourist and immigrant conditions and were significantly lower than in the tourist condition ($M_{tourist} = 5.8$ vs. $M_{control} = 4.8$; $t(61) = 2.1$, $p < .05$) and marginally higher than ratings in the immigrant condition ($M_{control} = 4.8$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 4.0$; $t(61) = 1.7$, $p = .10$). The analyses of the two dependent variables yielded the hypothesized pattern of results. First, the analysis of the prestige image of the brand (three items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .99$) revealed a significant effect of the new consumer's description ($F(2, 61) = 5.4$, $p < .01$). As shown in figure 3B, planned contrasts showed that participants perceived a more positive impact

on the prestige image of the brand in the brand tourist condition ($M_{tourist} = 5.5$) than in the control ($M_{control} = 4.3$; $t(61) = 2.3$, $p < .05$) and brand immigrant ($M_{immigrant} = 3.6$; $t(61) = 3.3$, $p < .01$) conditions. In addition, the description of the non–core user (as brand tourist vs. brand immigrant vs. control) had a significant impact on attitudes toward the non–core user ($F(2, 61) = 4.3$, $p < .05$). Planned contrasts revealed that participants' attitudes toward the new consumer (three items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$) were significantly higher ($M_{tourist} = 5.9$) in the brand tourist condition than in the control ($M_{control} = 5.0$; $t(61) = 2.0$, $p < .05$) and brand immigrant ($M_{immigrant} = 4.5$; $t(61) = 2.9$, $p < .01$) conditions. For both dependent variables, there was no significant difference between the immigrant and control conditions.

Mediation Analyses. A series of mediation analyses examined whether the boost in core users' pride mediated the relationship between the differential framing of the non–core users across conditions and the two dependent variables (i.e., brand image and attitudes toward the non–core user) following the Hayes and Preacher (2013) method for mediation with multicategorical independent variables. We created two dummy-coded variables (one with the immigrant condition coded as 1 and the other conditions coded as 0; the other with the control condition coded as 1 and the other conditions coded as 0) and included them simultaneously as predictors in the regression analyses.

The analysis of the prestige image of the brand revealed a significant mediation path by core users' pride. Effects of both brand immigrant and control conditions on brand image were significantly reduced (from $\beta_{immigrant} = -.49$, $t(61) = -3.3$, $p < .01$, to $\beta_{immigrant} = -.16$, $t(60) = -1.3$, NS, for the brand immigrant condition; and from $\beta_{control} = -.34$, $t(61) = -2.3$, $p < .05$, to $\beta_{control} = -.14$, $t(60) = -1.1$, NS, for the control condition) when pride was included in the mediation model and pride was a significant predictor ($\beta_{pride} = .65$, $t(60) = 6.6$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, the bias-corrected confidence interval of the indirect effects through pride excluded zero both for the difference between the brand tourist condition and the brand immigrant condition (95% CI $= -2.07$ to $-.67$) and for the difference between the brand tourist condition and the control condition (95% CI $= -1.52$ to $-.18$).

Second, the analysis of attitudes toward the non–core users revealed a similar mediation path by core users' pride. Effects of both brand immigrant and control conditions on attitudes toward non–core users were significantly reduced (from $\beta_{immigrant} = -.44$, $t(61) = -2.9$, $p < .01$, to $\beta_{immigrant} = -.15$, $t(60) = -1.1$, NS, for the brand immigrant condition; and from $\beta_{control} = -.31$, $t(61) = -2.0$, $p = .05$, to $\beta_{control} = -.12$, $t(60) = -.96$, NS, for the control condition) when pride was included in the mediation model and pride was a significant predictor ($\beta_{pride} = .59$, $t(60) = 5.4$, $p < .001$). The bias-corrected confidence interval of the indirect effects through pride excluded zero for both the difference between the brand tourist condition and the brand immigrant condition (95% CI $= -1.57$ to $-.48$) and the

difference between the brand tourist condition and the control condition (95% CI $= -1.05$ to $-.17$).

In sum, these results indicate that pride mediated the positive effect of brand tourists on both dependent variables: the prestige image of the brand and attitudes toward the non–core user.

Discussion. In conclusion, these data show that describing non–core users of a brand as brand tourists rather than brand immigrants (or compared to a neutral control condition) significantly enhanced the image of the brand in the eyes of core users of the brand and increased liking of the non–core consumers. At the end of the survey, participants were given the opportunity to comment on their responses if they wished. These open-ended explanations also suggested that core users responding to the tourist condition liked the non–core product more since the paper bag "will allow everyone to show their fondness of the brand." In contrast, participants responding to the immigrant condition perceived the non–core product as a threat to the brand: "It is a clever idea, but I think it will sort of cheapen the brand." Our results in the control condition, directionally higher than in the immigrant condition but not significantly different from it, are consistent with previous literature (Kirmani et al. 1999) documenting brand dilution in the case of downward extensions for prestige brands. In this context, non–core users in the neutral condition were perceived more similarly to brand immigrants. These perceptions are in line with the image portrayed in the news story discussed above, describing users of these luxury paper bags, and with the resentment by full-time students toward part-time students reported in study 1. Furthermore, study 3 demonstrates that the brand tourism effect is mediated by pride among core users of the brand.

In the next studies we focus on the brand tourist and brand immigrant conditions and explore two moderating factors of the brand tourism effect: core users' brand patriotism and brand selectiveness. In study 4, we explore the effect in another different brand community and consumption context. The study also examines whether the differential response to brand tourists versus brand immigrants is stronger for core users who more strongly identify with the brand.

Study 4: The Moderating Role of Brand Patriotism

To generalize our findings within a different context and a different type of brand, in this study, we examine our conceptualization with "Tough Mudder" participants. Tough Mudder is a series of obstacle course competitions that bill themselves as "probably the toughest one day event on the planet." According to the *New York Times* (2010), the event is designed to be "more convivial than marathons and triathlons, but more grueling than shorter runs or novelty events." Tough Mudder is marketed more as an event than as a race and encourages teamwork and helping other "mudders" over difficult obstacles. Each event consists of a 7–12-mile mud/

trail run over uneven, hilly, and wet ground followed by 17–20 sets of military-style obstacles. Participants train for several months prior to the contest, and as stated by corporate communication, "Not everyone will finish, but those who do make it to our post-event party will have truly earned the right to call themselves a Tough Mudder." This message clearly conveys the idea that members have to earn their membership to the Tough Mudder community. After completion of the run, race participants attend the Tough Mudder postparty. Study 4 examines the effect of allowing people who did not participate in the run to be part of the event and the postevent festivities. Specifically, we test how ingroup members of the brand community (run participants—Tough Mudders) feel about offering nonparticipants the opportunity to buy a $25 ticket that allows them to attend all events—watching the run along the trail and taking part in the festivities after the run. We describe these nonparticipants as brand tourists or brand immigrants. While so far we employed descriptions of non–core users in the third person, in this study we operationalize the proposed distinction between brand immigrants and brand tourists by manipulating direct verbal testimonials made by non–core users (i.e., brand immigrants and brand tourists). As hypothesized, we expect that respondents' level of attachment to the brand as measured through the brand patriotism scale, adapted from the political psychology literature (Kosterman and Feshbach 1989), will moderate the positive brand tourism effect.

Method. Participants were 83 Tough Mudders (74% male; $M_{age} = 31$) recruited through the Tough Mudder mailing list. Respondents were given a description of the event tickets for nonparticipants and a potential consumer "Mike." All participants were told, "Tough Mudder events are spectator friendly. Anyone can buy a spectator ticket and watch Tough Mudder participants slog up hills, climb over obstacles, jump into cold water and run through fire. After the event, spectators can enjoy the Tough Mudder post party. Tickets are $25 (or $15 if bought in advance). Please read carefully the following description of Mike, a potential Tough Mudder spectator, and answer the questions below. Mike has never done a Tough Mudder race. He just learned about the spectator tickets and is planning to attend the next run as a spectator." In the immigrant condition, participants were told, "When asked why he wants to attend the event, Mike said, 'This is my chance to be in the Tough Mudder location and become a real, hardcore, Tough Mudder. I am looking forward to telling people I am a Tough Mudder.'" In the tourist condition, participants were told, "When asked why he wants to attend the event, Mike said, 'This is my chance to see the Tough Mudder location and meet real, hardcore Tough Mudders. I am looking forward to telling people I saw the Tough Mudders in action and cheered them on.'"

In this study, we examined brand image and attitudes toward the non–core users. We adapted the brand prestige scale used in study 3 to the specific Tough Mudder brand and measured the extent to which people like Mike would make the image of the brand seem (*a*) tough, (*b*) high-status, and (*c*) popular using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = less to 7 = more. Participants answered the same three items used in previous studies (study 1 and study 3) to assess their attitudes toward the non–core users. Additionally, three manipulation check items measured whether Mike was perceived to claim membership to the Tough Mudder community: "Mike will claim he is a Tough Mudder," "Mike will see himself as a Tough Mudder," and "Mike believes he deserves to be treated like a Tough Mudder." These items were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = definitely not to 7 = definitely yes.

To examine the moderating role of individual differences in attachment to the brand, participants completed the brand patriotism scale. We adapted the patriotism scale (Kosterman and Feshbach 1989) from countries to brands in order to measure brand patriotism for Tough Mudder. The scale included the following items: "I love Tough Mudder"; "I am proud to be a Tough Mudder"; "In a sense, I am emotionally attached to Tough Mudder"; "I feel a great pride in that I am part of the Tough Mudder community"; "When I see the Tough Mudder logo I feel great"; "The fact that I am a Tough Mudder is an important part of my identity"; "I would not want to switch to a different event"; and "Tough Mudder runs are one of the best in the world."

Results. The analysis of the manipulation check (three items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$) confirmed that the brand tourist was perceived to claim significantly less membership than the brand immigrant ($M_{tourist} = 2.5$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 5.1$; $t(81) = 8.1$, $p < .001$).

We first report results supporting hypothesis 1 (main effect of brand tourists vs. brand immigrants) and then report additional analyses testing hypothesis 3 (moderation). In line with previous findings, participants rated the impact on the prestige image of the brand as higher in the brand tourist condition than in the brand immigrant condition ($M_{tourist} = 4.7$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 3.0$; $t(81) = 8.5$, $p < .001$). To provide stronger support for our conceptualization, we tested not only whether there was a significant difference between the two conditions but also whether these responses were significantly different from the scale midpoint (4). Brand image ratings in the brand tourist condition were significantly higher than the midpoint ($t(36) = 3.9$, $p < .001$), while ratings in the brand immigrant condition were significantly lower than the midpoint ($t(45) = 5.5, p < .001$). The analysis of attitudes toward the non–core users (three items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$) indicated that Tough Mudders liked the non–core user more when he was perceived as a brand tourist rather than a brand immigrant ($M_{tourist} = 4.9$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 2.9$; $t(81) = 3.4$, $p < .001$). Both ratings were significantly different from the scale midpoint. Attitudes toward the brand tourist were significantly higher than the midpoint ($t(36) = 3.5$, $p < .001$), while attitudes toward the brand immigrant were significantly lower than the midpoint ($t(45) = 5.7$, $p < .001$). These results indicate that while brand immigrants are viewed as a threat to the brand, brand tourists are perceived positively and enhance the brand's image.

Thus, describing Mike as a brand tourist rather than an immigrant not only mitigated the negative effect on the brand but also positively contributed to the brand's image. At the end of the survey, participants were given the opportunity to comment on their responses. Respondents' open-ended explanations also suggested that brand tourists have a positive effect on the brand since they "help to confirm the toughness of the Tough Mudder event" and that brand tourists could help Tough Mudder "be more popular if more people want to watch and see what it is all about."

Brand Patriotism as a Moderator. To examine the interaction between the description of the non–core user and Tough Mudders' brand patriotism, responses were analyzed using a linear regression with brand image as the dependent variable and the following independent variables: a variable for the non–core user's description (coded as 1 for brand tourist and −1 for brand immigrant), brand patriotism scale (eight items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .88$; standardized for ease of interpretation), and their interaction. The analysis revealed a significant main effect of the non–core user's description ($\beta = .57$, $t(79) = 6.3$, $p < .001$), a nonsignificant main effect of brand patriotism ($\beta = −.09$, $t(79) = −.95$, NS), and a significant interaction ($\beta = .17$, $t(79) = 2.0$, $p = .05$). To explore this interaction, we performed a spotlight analysis focusing on participants with higher and lower levels of brand patriotism. The spotlight analysis at one standard deviation above the mean of brand patriotism revealed a significant difference ($\beta = .75$, $t(79) = 5.7$, $p < .001$): participants with high brand patriotism reported higher brand prestige in the brand tourist than in the brand immigrant condition. A similar spotlight analysis performed at one standard deviation below the mean of brand patriotism also showed a significant difference between conditions ($\beta = .39$, $t(79) = 3.1$, $p < .01$). While framing non–core users as tourists rather than as immigrants elicited a significant reaction for participants with both high and low brand patriotism, the magnitude of the effect for Tough Mudders with high brand patriotism was almost double compared to the size of the effect for Tough Mudders with low brand patriotism ($\beta_{\text{high brand pat}} = .75$ vs. $\beta_{\text{low brand pat}} = .39$).

A similar moderation analysis on the second dependent variable, attitudes toward the non–core users, yielded an analogous pattern of results. The analysis revealed a significant main effect of the non–core user's description ($\beta = .60$, $t(79) = 6.6$, $p < .001$), a nonsignificant main effect of brand patriotism ($\beta = .13$, $t(79) = 1.5$, NS), and a marginally significant interaction between these two variables ($\beta = .17$, $t(79) = 1.9$, $p = .07$). To explore this interaction, we performed a spotlight analysis focusing on participants with higher and lower levels of brand patriotism. As illustrated by figure 4, a spotlight analysis at one standard deviation above the mean of brand patriotism revealed a significant difference ($\beta = .78$, $t(79) = 5.8$, $p < .001$): participants with high brand patriotism reported more positive attitudes toward the non–core users in the brand tourist than in the brand immigrant condition. A similar spotlight analysis performed at one standard deviation below the mean
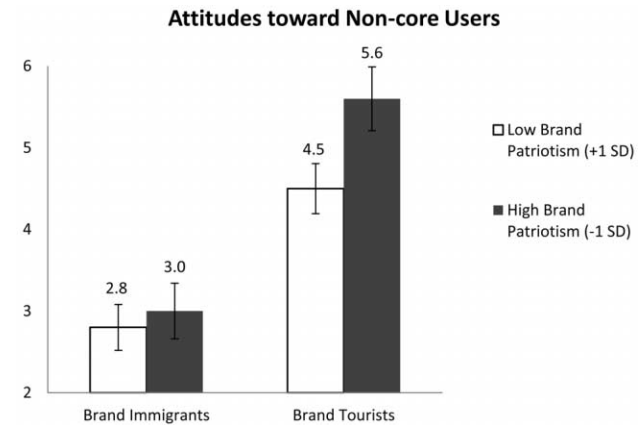
NOTE.—Error bars denote standard errors.

of brand patriotism also showed a significant difference between conditions ($\beta = .43$, $t(79) = 3.4$, $p = .001$). Again, the size of the effect for Tough Mudders with high brand patriotism was almost double compared to the size of the effect for Tough Mudders with low brand patriotism ($\beta_{\text{high brand pat}} = .78$ vs. $\beta_{\text{low brand pat}} = .43$). In sum, these results suggest that core users with high levels of brand patriotism have a more positive response to brand tourists compared to the reactions of consumers with lower levels of brand patriotism.

Discussion. Study 4 extends previous findings on the brand tourism effect. This study further demonstrates that these results are moderated by core users' level of attachment to the brand as measured through the brand patriotism scale (adapted from Kosterman and Feshbach [1989]). In the next studies, we further explore how firms can create and leverage the brand tourism effect. Specifically, we examine how firms can position non–core products (study 5) and manage products that signal membership to the brand community (study 6) to generate the inference that non–core users are brand tourists rather than brand immigrants. Additionally, study 5 identifies a moderator of the brand tourism effect by examining brand communities that vary in the degree to which they are perceived as selective.

Study 5: Selectiveness of the Brand as a Moderator of the Brand Tourism Effect

Study 5 tightens the conceptualization of our theoretical framework in three ways. First, we seek to identify an additional moderator of the brand tourism effect by demonstrating that the enhancement of the brand image is atten-

uated for nonselective brand communities. In particular, we manipulate the extent to which access to a university course is depicted as limited and selective. Specifically, we compare the reactions of students of a selective course (i.e., admits a limited number of students and demands high requirements for enrolling) to the reactions of students of a less selective course (i.e., open to all students and has no specific requirements for enrolling). Second, this study further tests the mediating role of pride among core users and it complements the findings of study 3 by employing a direct measure of feelings of pride. Importantly, we also collect a measure of feelings of anger to examine whether framing non–core users as brand tourists rather than as brand immigrants can reduce negative feelings of anger among core users. Finally, in this study we expand our previous findings by exploring how firms can generate the brand tourism effect through the positioning and the marketing of the non–core products. Specifically, study 5 examines how students enrolled in a course react to the launch of a popular book based on the lectures. The book is marketed either as a sampling of the class, allowing everyone to get a taste of the lectures (brand tourist condition), or as a substitute for taking the class, allowing everyone to gain access to the lectures (brand immigrant condition). We predict that the positive brand tourism effect will be particularly strong for students enrolled in the selective class. For selective brand communities, non–core products marketed to generate the brand tourism effect reinforce the prestige and the desirability of the brand in the eyes of core users who had to put effort into gaining their membership in the brand community.

Method. We recruited 148 participants who responded to a paid online survey (41% female; $M_{age} = 32$). We randomly assigned participants to one of four conditions, in a 2 (selective vs. nonselective course) × 2 (brand tourist vs. brand immigrant condition) design. All participants were asked to imagine that they are students enrolled in a university course. To manipulate the selectiveness of the course, we varied the effort required to enroll: "The class is limited to a select number of students [open to all students]. You worked very hard to meet the high requirements for enrolling in this class [There are no specific requirements for enrolling in this class]." Moreover, we told participants about a new book based on the class, and we manipulated between subjects whether the book was positioned and advertised as a sampling of the class (brand tourist condition) or as a substitute for taking the class (brand immigrant condition). Specifically, participants in the brand tourist [brand immigrant] condition read the following book description: "You just found out that the university press has published a popular book based on the course. The back cover of the book indicates that readers can view this book as a sampling of the class: 'Get a taste of what it would feel like to attend these lectures!' [as an almost perfect substitute for taking the class: 'Now everyone can gain access to these lectures!']" To examine how the brand tourist manipulation affected the image of the course, participants then responded

to the three prestige scale items (Kirmani et al. 1999) measuring the extent to which the image of the course was rated as (*a*) exclusive, (*b*) high-status, and (*c*) prestigious on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

While in study 3 we first measured the mediator and then the dependent variables, in this study, we reversed the order of the measures to avoid potential order effects. Thus, we next measured feelings of pride and anger. While our focus and predictions center on pride, we measured both kinds of feelings to test whether pride is the dominant mediating mechanism of the brand tourism effect. Moreover, collecting both measures allowed us to reduce potential demand effects. Specifically, participants were asked to indicate how (*a*) proud and (*b*) angry they felt as students in the course on a scale ranging from 1 = not at all to 7 = extremely. The order of appearance of the two items was randomized.

Subsequently, we assessed the success of our manipulations by asking participants to rate the degree of effort required to enroll: "Do you perceive this course as selective?" on a scale from 1 = not selective at all to 7 = extremely selective, and "How much effort is required for students to enroll in this course?" on a scale from 1 = definitely not much effort to 7 = very much effort. Finally, three additional manipulation check items tested the extent to which non–core users were perceived to claim membership: (*a*) "Book readers will see themselves as course students," (*b*) "Readers will claim they are like students in the course," and (*c*) "Book readers will feel they are just as knowledgeable as students who actually took the course"; items were measured on a scale ranging from 1 = definitely not to 7 = definitely yes.

Results. The analysis of the manipulation check on selectiveness (two items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$) confirmed that getting access to the class was perceived as more effortful in the selective course condition than in the nonselective condition ($M_{select} = 5.7$ vs. $M_{nonselect} = 2.5$; $t(146) = 13.3$, $p < .001$). Moreover, the analysis of the manipulation check for claiming (three items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$) confirmed that book readers in the brand immigrant condition were perceived to claim more in-group membership than book readers in the brand tourist condition ($M_{immigrant} = 4.7$ vs. $M_{tourist} = 3.9$; $t(146) = 3.3$, $p < .01$).

Next, we conducted a 2 (selective vs. nonselective course) × 2 (brand tourist vs. brand immigrant condition) between-subjects ANOVA using ratings of brand image of the course as the dependent variable. The analysis revealed a significant main effect for the selectiveness of the course ($F(1, 144) = 48.1$, $p < .001$), a significant main effect for the brand tourism manipulation ($F(1, 144) = 16.9$, $p < .001$), and a marginally significant interaction ($F(1, 144) = 3.0$, $p = .08$), depicted in figure 5*A*. As predicted, when the course was described as selective, students perceived the course as more prestigious in the brand tourist condition than in the brand immigrant condition ($M_{tour\,sel} = 5.7$ vs. $M_{imm\,sel} = 4.3$; $t(72) = 4.0$, $p < .001$). We also tested whether these prestige ratings were significantly different from the scale midpoint
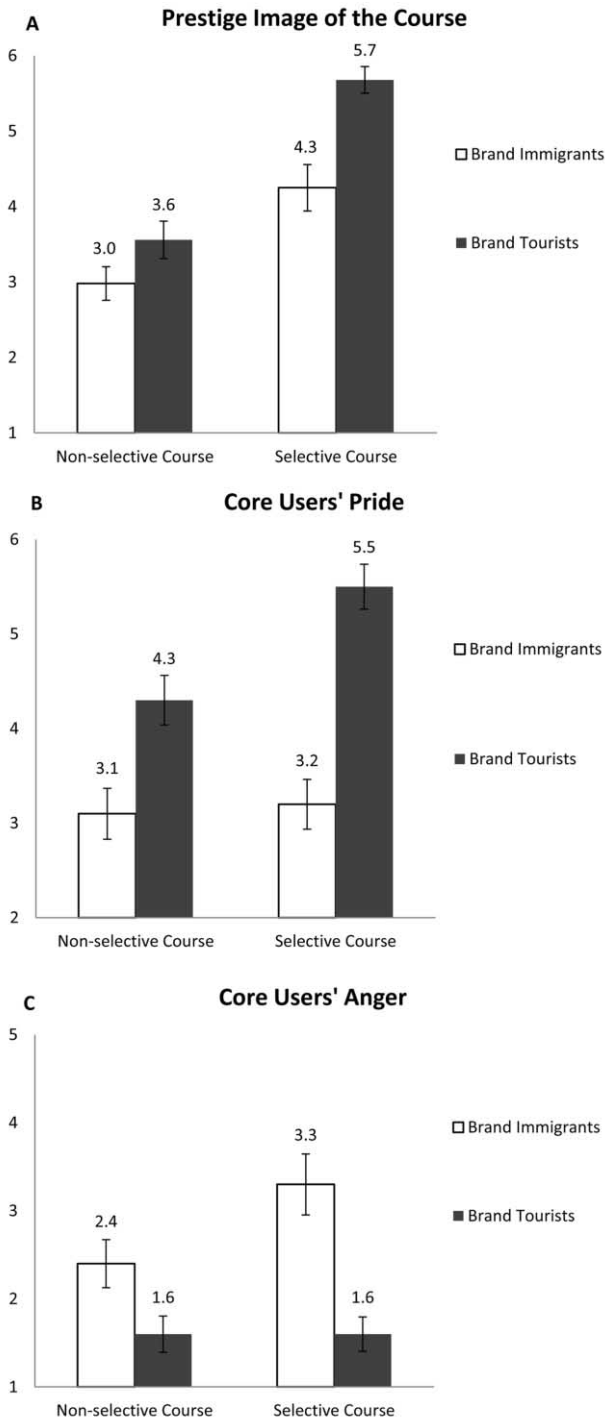
NOTE.—Error bars denote standard errors.

(4). The prestige image of the course in the brand tourist condition was significantly higher than the scale midpoint ($M_{\text{tour sel}}$ = 5.7; $t(36)$ = 9.6, $p < .001$), whereas the prestige image in the brand immigrant condition was not significantly different from the midpoint ($M_{\text{imm sel}}$ = 4.3; $t(36)$ = .82, NS). When the course was described as nonselective, there was a marginally significant difference between the brand tourist and the brand immigrant conditions ($M_{\text{tour nonsel}}$ = 3.6 vs. $M_{\text{imm nonsel}}$ = 3.0; $t(72)$ = 1.7, $p = .09$). In absolute terms, both ratings were lower than the scale midpoint ($M_{\text{tour nonsel}}$ = 3.6; $t(38)$ = 1.8, $p = .09$; $M_{\text{imm nonsel}}$ = 3.0; $t(34)$ = 4.6, $p < .001$). Open-ended comments that participants were free to write at the end of the study suggested that participants in the selective course were flattered by the book's positioning as a sample of the class and used it as proof of value for the course. Participants commented, "It's a good thing that they are publicizing the course. That means that the course I got into was so good that everyone wants to do it"; and "I would feel happy and proud to be in such a class, especially given that I earned my way in and wasn't simply placed there by luck." In contrast, participants in the nonselective course did not find it plausible that the book would generate a positive brand tourism effect: "It's an open class without requirements, so it sounds like an intro class. I don't see what the big deal is with the book being a 'taste' of the class. Just sounds like an intro class which isn't a big deal either way."

Subsequently, we conducted a similar ANOVA using feelings of pride as the dependent variable. The analysis revealed a significant main effect for the selectiveness of the course ($F(1, 144)$ = 5.3, $p < .05$), a significant main effect for the brand tourism manipulation ($F(1, 144)$ = 44.1, $p < .001$), and a significant interaction ($F(1, 144)$ = 5.0, $p < .05$), depicted in figure 5B. As predicted, when the course was described as selective, students reported higher feelings of pride in the brand tourist condition than in the brand immigrant condition ($M_{\text{tour sel}}$ = 5.5 vs. $M_{\text{imm sel}}$ = 3.2; $t(72)$ = 6.5, $p < .001$). In absolute terms, pride in the brand tourist condition was significantly higher than the scale midpoint ($M_{\text{tour sel}}$ = 5.5; $t(36)$ = 6.1, $p < .001$). In contrast, pride in the brand immigrant condition was significantly lower than the scale midpoint ($M_{\text{imm sel}}$ = 3.2; $t(36)$ = 3.2, $p < .01$). When the course was described as nonselective, there was also a significant difference between the brand tourist and the brand immigrant conditions ($M_{\text{tour nonsel}}$ = 4.3 vs. $M_{\text{imm nonsel}}$ = 3.1; $t(72)$ = 3.0, $p < .01$); however, pride in the brand tourist condition was not significantly different from the scale midpoint ($M_{\text{tour nonsel}}$ = 4.3; $t(38)$ = 1.1, NS).

Finally, we conducted a similar ANOVA using feelings of anger as the dependent variable. The analysis revealed a nonsignificant main effect for the selectiveness of the course ($F(1, 144)$ = 2.3, NS), a significant main effect for the brand tourism manipulation ($F(1, 144)$ = 23.2, $p < .001$), and a marginally significant interaction ($F(1, 144)$ = 3.3, $p = .07$), depicted in figure 5C. When the course was described as selective, students reported lower feelings of anger in the brand tourist condition than in the brand immigrant
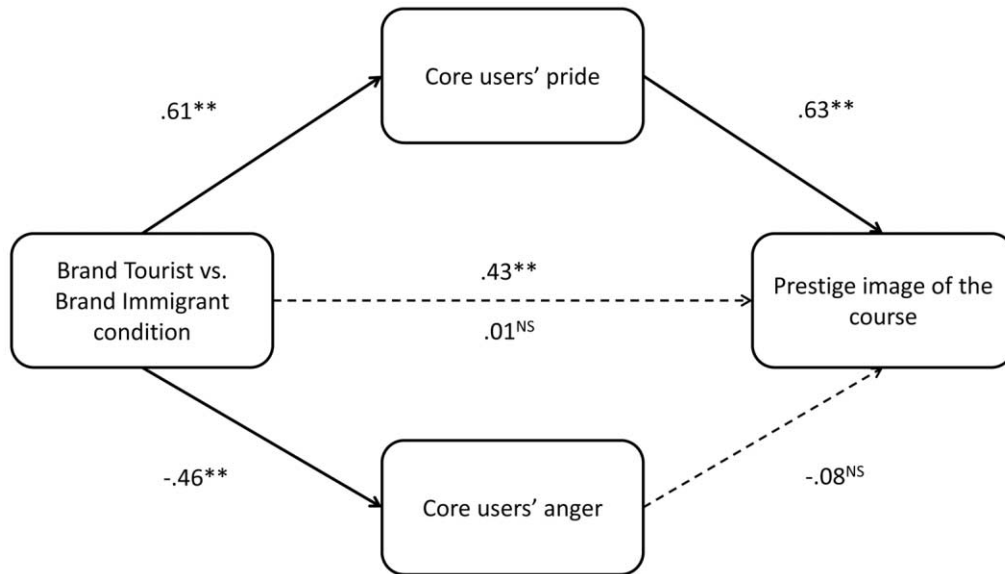
NOTE.—Path coefficients represent standardized regression coefficients. Coefficients significantly different from zero are indicated by asterisks (**$p < .001$), and their associated paths are shown by solid lines; dashed lines indicate nonsignificant paths.

condition ($M_{\text{tour sel}} = 1.6$ vs. $M_{\text{imm sel}} = 3.3$; $t(72) = 4.3$, $p < .001$). When the course was described as nonselective, there also was a significant difference between the brand tourist and the brand immigrant conditions ($M_{\text{tour nonsel}} = 1.6$ vs. $M_{\text{imm nonsel}} = 2.4$; $t(72) = 2.3$, $p < .05$). Interestingly, when the book was positioned as a substitute for the class (i.e., in the brand immigrant condition), participants were angrier in the selective condition, that is, when access to the class was limited and some effort was required to gain in-group status ($M_{\text{imm sel}} = 3.3$ vs. $M_{\text{imm nonsel}} = 2.4$; $t(70) = 2.0$, $p = .05$). The finding on anger is in line with previous research examining prestige versus mainstream brands (Kirmani et al. 1999). This work suggests that owners of prestige brands react negatively in response to downward brand extensions because of their desire to maintain brand exclusivity.

Mediation Analysis.   The analysis tested whether the difference in prestige image of the course as a function of the brand tourism manipulation was jointly or differentially mediated by pride and anger. We employed a series of regression procedures that allowed us to look at the role of both pride and anger simultaneously and independently. Focusing on the two selective course conditions, the independent variable (dummy coded as 1 for brand tourist and 0 for brand immigrant) predicted both pride ($\beta = .61$, $t(72) = 6.5$, $p < .001$) and anger ($\beta = -.46$, $t(72) = -4.3$, $p < .001$). In addition, consistent with our hypothesis, only the direct ef-

fect of pride significantly predicted the prestige image of the course ($\beta = .63$, $t(70) = 5.6$, $p < .001$), whereas anger was not a significant predictor ($\beta = -.08$, $t(70) = -.75$, NS). Finally, this analysis revealed that the book description (i.e., the tourist vs. immigrant manipulation) no longer predicted the prestige image of the course (from $\beta = .43$, $t(72) = 4.0$, $p < .001$, to $\beta = .01$, $t(70) = .09$, NS). Furthermore, we tested whether the indirect effect (the path through the mediator) was significant using bootstrapping procedures for multiple mediator models (Preacher and Hayes 2008). The indirect effect involving pride was significant, and the 95% bias-corrected confidence interval for the size of the indirect effect excluded zero (95% CI = .64 to 2.16), indicating successful mediation through this path, whereas the indirect effect involving anger was not significant (95% CI = −.32 to .68; see fig. 6).

Mediated Moderation Analysis.   To test mediation by pride (hypothesis 2) and moderation by selectiveness of the brand community (hypothesis 4), we conducted a mediated moderation analysis (Edwards and Lambert 2007) examining whether greater pride mediated the interaction between the brand tourism manipulation and selectiveness on the prestige image of the course.

As reported above, selectiveness of the course significantly moderated both the dependent variable (prestige image) and the mediator (pride). Moreover, when prestige image of the course was regressed on the brand tourism

manipulation, selectiveness of the course, their two-way interaction, and pride, the mediator was significant ($\beta = .59$, $t(143) = 9.3$, $p < .001$), and the effect of the interaction between the brand tourism manipulation and selectiveness of the course on the dependent variable became nonsignificant ($\beta = .04$, $t(143) = .45$, NS). In a bootstrap analysis, we found that the confidence interval for the size of the indirect effect excluded zero (95% CI = .12 to 1.29), suggesting a significant overall indirect effect.

Discussion. Taken together, the results of study 5 deepen our understanding of the mediating and moderating processes underlying the brand tourism effect. We find that marketing a non–core product as a sample of, rather than as a substitute for, the core offering generates a positive brand tourism effect by eliciting feelings of pride. We also examine the role of anger and show that while anger is lower in the brand tourist condition, pride is the dominant emotion driving the effect. Moreover, study 5 provides evidence for the selectiveness of the brand as a moderator of the brand tourism effect by comparing the responses of in-group members of selective versus nonselective communities. As predicted, we find that the enhancement of the brand image due to the brand tourism effect is attenuated for nonselective communities. We show that when the course is depicted as selective, non–core products not conferring membership status have a positive impact on the image of the course, validating its desirability and prestige. In contrast, when the course is perceived as nonselective, the brand tourism manipulation is less effective.

In the next study we examine the strategic management of symbols of membership to the brand community, another method that can be directly applied by marketers.

Study 6: The Brand Tourism Effect and Signals of Membership

In this study, we explore how firms can manage signals of membership to the brand community to generate the inference that non–core users are brand tourists rather than brand immigrants. Indeed, managers can increase the perceived separation between core users and peripheral users by strategically managing symbols that allow core users to claim full membership to the community. Often, membership clubs distribute branded symbols and accessories that signal club affiliation to their members. For example, the exclusive Italian Yacht Club in Genoa gives a stylish tie decorated with the club's logo as a gift to its affiliates upon acquiring membership. Notably, the tie is not available for sale to nonmembers. The New York Athletic Club, a prestigious gym in the United States, gives its members club-branded warmers, socks, and stickers. Inspired by this phenomenon, which is common among many sports, golf, and country clubs, the scenario portrayed in this study features a selective sports club where members receive a distinctive accessory with the club's logo. We describe non–core users of the club as visitors who buy passes to the gym during nonpeak hours. We manipulate between conditions whether

these visitors receive the distinctive symbol of affiliation to the club (a gym bag with the club's logo used by core members). Moreover, this study further investigates the mediating role of pride, and in addition to the pride measures used in studies 3 and 5, it also assesses a direct measure of "pride to be a core member." We predict that members of the club will feel prouder and will perceive the image of the club as more prestigious when visitors who buy passes to the gym are depicted as brand tourists rather than brand immigrants. In other words, core users will react positively only when it is clear to them that the visitors are not claiming in-group status. When the distinctive symbol of affiliation to the club (the gym bag with the club's logo) is clearly reserved for club members, the visitors do not compromise the exclusivity of the club but rather boost the pride of core members and reinforce the image and desirability of the club.

Method. Sixty-nine participants responded to a paid online survey (47% female; $M_{age} = 38$). Respondents were randomly assigned to one of two conditions (a brand tourist or brand immigrant condition). All participants were told, "Imagine you are a member of a gym and sports club. All members receive a distinctive gym bag with the club's logo. Members of the club typically use this recognizable gym bag whenever they go." The description manipulated between subjects whether people buying these passes would receive the gym bag or not. Specifically, participants in the brand tourist [brand immigrant] condition read: "The club is open to members only; however, during nonpeak hours, people who do not have gym membership can buy a guest pass and get access to the gym. People typically line up to buy one-day passes and have the chance to spend time at the sports club. They do not [also] receive the distinctive gym bag with the club's logo."

After reading the descriptions, all participants rated the prestige image of the club. As in previous studies, we used the brand prestige scale (Kirmani et al. 1999) and asked participants to rate the extent to which the image of the gym club was perceived as (*a*) exclusive, (*b*) high-status, and (*c*) prestigious using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Next, we collected pride through three measures. First, similarly to study 3, we asked participants to rate the pride of gym club members using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = very low to 7 = very high. Second, as in study 5, participants indicated how (*a*) proud and (*b*) angry they felt on a scale ranging from 1 = not at all to 7 = extremely. The order of appearance of the two items was randomized. Third, we asked respondents to indicate whether they felt "proud to be a member of the club" and "proud be considered part of the club" on a scale ranging from 1 = not proud at all to 7 = extremely proud. We averaged the last two items to create a measure of pride to be a core member.

Finally, as a manipulation check, participants answered the following two items: "One-day visitors will claim membership to the club" and "One-day visitors will see them-

selves as club members" on a scale ranging from $1 = $ definitely no to $7 = $ definitely yes.

Results. The analysis of the manipulation check (two items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$) confirmed that non–core users in the brand immigrant condition were perceived to claim more in-group membership than non–core users in the brand tourist condition ($M_{immigrant} = 4.7$ vs. $M_{tourist} = 3.6$; $t(67) = 2.9$, $p < .01$). The analysis of the brand image (three items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$) revealed that participants perceived the brand as more prestigious in the brand tourist condition than in the brand immigrant condition ($M_{tourist} = 5.3$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 4.1$; $t(67) = 3.4$, $p < .01$). In addition, the analysis of pride revealed a similar pattern of results across all measures. First, participants' ratings of club members' pride was higher in the brand tourist than in the brand immigrant condition ($M_{tourist} = 5.8$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 4.9$; $t(67) = 2.9$, $p < .01$). Second, participants reported higher feelings of pride in the brand tourist than in the brand immigrant condition ($M_{tourist} = 4.6$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 3.8$; $t(67) = 2.1$, $p < .05$), whereas feelings of anger were equally low in both conditions ($M_{tourist} = 2.0$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 2.1$; $t(67) = .24$, NS). Finally, pride to be a core member (two items, Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$) was higher in the brand tourist than in the brand immigrant condition ($M_{tourist} = 5.5$ vs. $M_{immigrant} = 4.8$; $t(67) = 2.2$, $p < .05$).

Mediation Analyses. A series of mediation analyses examined whether the relationship between the independent variable (brand tourist vs. brand immigrant) and the dependent variable (prestige image of the club) was mediated by each of the three measures of pride: (*a*) rating of club members' pride, (*b*) feelings of pride, and (*c*) pride to be a core member.

First, the effect of the independent variable (dummy coded as 1 for tourist and 0 for immigrant) on prestige image was significantly reduced (from $\beta = .38$, $t(67) = 3.4$, $p < .01$, to $\beta = .18$, $t(66) = 1.9$, $p = .07$) when rating of club members' pride was included in the mediation model, whereas rating of club members' pride was a significant predictor ($\beta = .58$, $t(66) = 5.9$, $p < .001$). The confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero (95% CI $= .29$ to 1.11). Second, the effect of the independent variable on prestige image was significantly reduced (from $\beta = .38$, $t(67) = 3.4$, $p < .01$, to $\beta = .27$, $t(66) = 2.6$, $p < .05$) when feelings of pride were included in the model, whereas feelings of pride were a significant predictor ($\beta = .43$, $t(66) = 4.2$, $p < .001$). The confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero (95% CI $= .02$ to $.79$).[4] Third, the effect of the independent variable on prestige image was significantly reduced (from $\beta = .38$, $t(67) = 3.4$, $p < .01$, to $\beta = .24$, $t(66) = 2.5$, $p < .05$) when pride to be a core member was included in the model, whereas pride to be a core member was a significant predictor ($\beta = .56$, $t(66) = $

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[4] We also ran a multiple mediator model to simultaneously test feelings of pride and anger. The indirect effect of pride was significant (95% CI $= .04$ to $.89$), whereas the indirect effect of anger was not (95% CI $= -.16$ to $.05$).

5.8, $p < .001$). The confidence interval for the indirect effect excluded zero (95% CI $= .04$ to 1.06).

Discussion. In conclusion, this study demonstrates that firms can generate the perception that non–core users are brand tourists rather than brand immigrants by strategically managing the symbols of affiliation to the club. The findings from this study provide further evidence in support of the brand tourism effect and show that non–core users perceived as brand tourists inspire feelings of pride and thus enhance the image of the brand in the eyes of core users.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

This article establishes a novel framework to understand the responses of core consumers of selective brands to non–core users of the brand and downward brand extensions. Six studies demonstrate that the reaction to non–core users depends on whether they are perceived to claim in-group status to the brand community. We distinguish between two types of non–core users on the basis of how they are viewed by core consumers of the brand: "brand immigrants," who appear to claim membership (i.e., consider themselves as part of the in-group of core brand consumers), and "brand tourists," who do not claim any membership (i.e., do not claim to be part of the core brand in-group). While brand immigrants pose a threat to the image and distinctiveness of selective brands, brand tourists can actually reinforce and enhance the brand's desirability and value in the eyes of core users. As shown in our conceptual model (fig. 1), we demonstrate that the positive response to brand tourists is mediated by the feelings of pride held by current core consumers for the brand. We further demonstrate that the effect is moderated by core customers' level of attachment to the brand measured through the brand patriotism scale. Finally, our studies show that the brand tourism effect applies to brand communities that are perceived as selective and that require effort to gain membership.

We broaden the breadth of prior research on brand extension for prestige brands (Dubois and Paternault 1995; Kirmani et al. 1999; Park et al. 1991) by identifying the conditions under which non–core users and downward extensions of exclusive brands enhance, rather than dilute, the brand image. Our findings also contribute to our understanding of intergroup dynamics within brand communities (Berger and Heath 2008; Mazzocco et al. 2012; Shalev and Morwitz 2012; White and Argo 2011; White and Dahl 2007). We demonstrate that when non–core users show admiration for the brand but do not claim membership status to the brand community, they are perceived as brand tourists and enhance the image of the brand. Moreover, we provide new insights into a novel psychological mechanism by investigating pride among core consumers of the brand as a key mediating process of the brand tourism effect. Finally, our research further contributes to the branding literature by offering strategies to leverage the brand tourism effect and boost pride among core users of exclusive brands.

Directions for Future Research

Our conceptual framework could be further applied to explore additional important marketing and consumption phenomena such as response to brand extensions in different product categories, response to "brand emigrants," response to counterfeits, and others.

Brand Extensions in Different Product Categories. Applying the brand tourism theoretical conceptualization to the question of consumers' response to high- versus low-fit brand extensions can potentially add a new perspective to the debate in the branding literature about this topic (for a review, see Loken and John [2009] and Meyvis, Goldsmith, and Dhar [2012]). Our distinction between brand immigrants and brand tourists is based on whether these non–core users are perceived by core users of a brand to claim in-group status. To operationalize this distinction and provide a stronger test for our conceptualization, we hold the product category constant in both the tourist and immigrant conditions and manipulate the description of these non–core users as either claiming or not claiming in-group status. However, it is also possible that certain product categories are inherently more or less likely to be viewed as providing new customers an opportunity to claim in-group status.

Response to Emigrants. At a conceptual level, our classification of brand users can be further extended to include another category, the "brand emigrants": those who could claim in-group status but willingly decided not to claim it. These would include, for instance, a consumer who owns a Ferrari car but decides to replace it with a different luxury sports car or a full-time undergraduate student at Harvard who transfers to another institution (e.g., MIT) to complete the degree. Brand emigrants inspire negative reactions from core users of the brand, just as citizens might feel betrayed by compatriots who decided to leave the country and live elsewhere. Previous research has documented the abandonment of previously held tastes and products to avoid disliked out-groups who adopt similar consumption behaviors (Berger and Heath 2007, 2008; Berger and Ward 2010; Han et al. 2010; White and Argo 2011; White and Dahl 2006, 2007). In the case of emigrants, we would examine the effect of liked in-group members abandoning the brand community.

Response to Counterfeits. An alternative way for new customers to get access to the brand at a lower price is by buying a counterfeit version of the product (e.g., buying a fake Gucci purse or a Rolex replica). Our conceptualization suggests that the consumption of counterfeits may have a negative or positive effect, depending on whether the consumers of counterfeit products claim in-group status. When it is not apparent that the counterfeit version is fake and people mistake it for a real branded product, then counterfeit users will be seen as "illegal immigrants," claiming to be part of the core users' in-group. However, when it is apparent that the product is fake and neither the product nor its users

are associated with the brand, then users of such fake products may be seen as brand tourists.

Other Extensions. Future work could examine individual characteristics of the brand tourists (e.g., socioeconomic background, age) and manipulate the similarity to the prototypical profile of the core users along several dimensions. On the basis of existing literature examining intergroup dynamics, two divergent predictions can be formulated regarding this question and are open to potential future empirical investigation. Some research on dissociative out-groups (Berger and Heath 2008; White and Dahl 2006, 2007) would suggest that brand tourists of analogous profile to the core users should be more welcome to the brand community and thus elicit positive reactions among core in-group members; however, other research on intergroup differentiation (see Jetten et al. [2004] for a review) would suggest that brand tourists particularly similar to the prototypical core user would pose a threat to the identity of the core members and potentially dilute the distinctiveness of the in-group. Moreover, a complementary research angle could examine brand tourism beyond the perspective of core users of the brand. Indeed, managers have to consider and balance the perceptions and needs of both their existing and prospective customers. Thus, future work could examine the effect of brand tourists on nonusers and potential users of the brand. It would be interesting to compare the effect of brand tourists between nonmembers potentially interested in belonging to the brand community and nonmembers who are not interested in engaging with the brand at all. Finally, another fruitful direction for further research pertains to the investigation of the primary drivers motivating core users to belong to the brand community in the first place. For example, one hypothesis is that core users whose primary motive for belonging to a selective brand community is status display (e.g., individuals buying a Ferrari car to show off) might react even more positively to brand tourists relative to core users seeking primarily functionality (e.g., individuals buying a Ferrari car because of the superiority of the engine).

Alternative Explanations. Results in the manipulations entailing more explicit claims by the core users (studies 3 and 4) might potentially be driven by perceived honesty; that is, brand tourists might elicit positive reactions because they are viewed as honest, whereas brand immigrants might elicit negative reactions because they are illegitimately overclaiming membership. While honesty is an interesting and relevant aspect to consider, when exploring responses to non–core users, this mechanism cannot fully explain our findings. In particular, honesty would not account for the positive boost generated by brand tourists compared to a neutral control condition or for the moderators supporting our theoretical framework (i.e., brand patriotism and selectiveness). Moreover, honesty is less of a concern across all other studies manipulating how marketers position or advertise the non–core products (studies 2, 5, and 6).

Managerial Implications

Our findings offer actionable strategies for brand managers who want to leverage their brand by launching new products and extend their consumer base without incurring brand dilution and compromising the long-term equity of their brands. Our research demonstrates the importance of understanding and managing the perceptions and reactions of existing core consumers to new non–core branded products and their buyers.

Minimizing the Negative Effects of Brand Immigration. Our findings suggest that core users of exclusive brands react less negatively to downward brand extension and their customers when these non–core users do not claim in-group status. Thus marketers need to carefully manage the perceptions of these non–core consumers and their ability to claim membership status.

Some firms actively limit outsiders' access to the products when they are not part of the brand owners' in-group. For example, the luxury car brand Aston Martin recently launched its first luxury city car, the Aston Martin Cygnet, priced around $50,000. Interestingly, Aston Martin announced in its brand magazine that only current Aston Martin owners will be able to purchase the Cygnet (Patton 2009). Another example is provided by Tough Mudder. In 2011, the company decided to launch a "Finisher Only" line of merchandise that could be purchased only at the end of the trail by participants who completed the run and earned the right to buy it. The line was very popular and sold out quickly.

Alternatively, managers can mitigate the effects of brand immigration by strategically increasing the perceived separation between core products and brand extensions, as seen in study 6. Examples of such strategies might include launching distinct types of packaging, separate distribution channels, and dissimilar customer service or targeting an unrelated consumer group that cannot be mistaken for in-group members.

Finally, one more strategy for mitigating reactions to immigrants is creating a perception of immigrants as more deserving of in-group status. For example, in 2011 Bulgari launched the "Save the Children Collection." This line introduced more affordable silver versions of the B01 rings collection, previously available only in gold. The firm donated part of the revenues to a charity organization, thus shielding negative reactions of brand owners to the introduction of a less exclusive version. This is metaphorically equivalent to conferring "honorary citizenship" or offering citizenship eligibility to immigrants who volunteer to serve in the military.

Leveraging Brand Tourism. Throughout our studies we demonstrate that brand tourists have a positive impact on the brand. Managers could therefore strategically manipulate the presence of brand tourists in order to increase product liking and feelings of pride among their consumers. For example, several brands grant visibility to brand tourists by publicly displaying on their websites the statistics about the number of Facebook fans and Twitter endorsers of the brand (e.g., Mercedes, New York Giants, Walt Disney World Resorts). Tough Mudder sought to test whether the presence of brand tourists could improve the perception of an obstacle that was poorly rated by previous race participants. In 2011 Tough Mudder introduced the "Electro Shock Therapy" obstacle in its racing trail. This obstacle required participants to sprint through a field of live wires, some of which carried a 10,000-volt electric shock. Postevent ratings from the first event indicated very poor liking. In a subsequent event, the obstacle was strategically placed closer to the audience, so that participants were watched by spectators while sprinting though the wires. As a result, participants evaluated this obstacle more positively. In the absence of spectators, 19.5% of participants wanted to remove Electro Shock Therapy, whereas when spectators were present, only 5.5% of participants wanted to remove this obstacle ($z = 10.6$, $p < .001$; 2,457 observations). The control conditions were represented by two other obstacles (i.e., "Devil's Beard" and "Log Bog") that maintained the same trail position in both events and were not watched by spectators. There was no increased liking for the control obstacles, and the number of participants who wanted to remove these obstacles was stable between races (around 8% for Devil's Beard and around 5% for Log Bog). It would be interesting to further examine the positive effect of the presence of brand tourists in a variety of consumption contexts.

Successful luxury brands creatively cultivate brand tourism by creating touristy destinations such as extravagant flagship stores and brand museums. Several prestige brands have recently dedicated entire museums to the history and the myth of their brand (e.g., Louis Vuitton, Valentino, Gucci, Nike) and accompanied the opening of these museums with extensive media exposure. Such brand museums offer access to consumers who wish to pay tribute to the brand but do not confer any membership status to visitors. This strategy contributes to the enhancement of the brand image and boosts the pride of core users of the brand. In sum, managers of exclusive brands need to constantly nurture and sustain the value of their brand. Our research stresses the importance of embracing and cultivating brand tourism and demonstrates that brand tourists can serve as a source of pride and value for the brand.

DATA COLLECTION INFORMATION

The pilot study with American citizens reported in the introduction was conducted through the Qualtrics panel in 2010. Participants in study 1 were Harvard University students recruited at the Computer Lab for Experimental Research at Harvard Business School in 2013. A lab manager with the support of research assistants managed the collection of the data in the lab. Owners of the Prada and Marc Jacobs brands (study 3) were recruited through the Qualtrics panel in 2012. Participants who completed the endurance race Tough Mudder (study 4) were recruited through the Tough Mudder mailing list in 2011. Respondents in studies 2, 5, and 6 were recruited through the Amazon Mechanical

Turk online panel in 2013. Tough Mudder's management shared the postevent obstacle ratings reported in the discussion section. The ratings are relative to two Tough Mudder races that happened in 2011. The first and second authors jointly analyzed all the data.

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