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**“Demystifying and demythologizing the brand: a componential analysis of the
world’s most valuable, yet confusing business asset”**

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Introduction

The brand: enduring, indispensable, and still misunderstood

Brands attract many descriptors, from the esoteric, to the metaphoric through to the erudite. Examples from literature include: *rock stars of commerce*, (Anholt, 2003), *more influential than the church* (Dignam, 2001), and *the intangible yet visceral of a person's subjective experience with the product* (Howard-Spink, 2002). From a communication standpoint, brands are one of the most compact producers and distributors of meaning in the world and are now an inseparable part of society and nationhood. Brands pervade every government, municipal agency, business organization, and worthy cause.

While brands have endured for centuries, it was not until they were actively promoted through advertising early in the 20th century (Arens, 2002:6) that brands represented more than just a means of identifying the seller. Academic interest in brands and branding did not gain popularity until the 70s and now, after several decades of observation and research, the literature appears to lack consensual evidence on theory and measurement and curiously portrays a growing level of disagreement amongst brand experts toward the definition, role and management of 'the brand'.

In part, it can be reasoned that the lack of congruity in the findings of the literature review depends on the adequacy of the language used, as Schutte (1969) notes in his paper, "Semantics of Branding," in which he refers to one linguistic expert's explanation of "primitive words" as being "notions (...) only fully comprehensible in the material situations in which they are spoken," (Entwistle, 1954). Without doubt, such primitive language, or use of industry jargon, is not only common place in contemporary brand literature to satisfy the needs of each contributor, it also needs decoding to be fully understood.

One key observation amongst >350 brand articles and papers reviewed for this thesis, is the lack of holistic work which combines both sides of the brand equation, i.e. the roles of sender and receiver, or as perceptively noted in Wells & Hollins, (2003:93) "a brand is co-created by the seller and the customer". Instead, researchers obviously find more interest in specialization, focusing in true intellectual fashion, on one aspect of the brand concept, such as: brand equity measurement, identity system or semiotic analysis.

Editor of *Journal of Marketing*, Michael Baker (1998) acknowledges, "there has been a marked increase in the subject of branding...80% (of the papers) date from the 1980s and 1990s." A similar observation made by the editor of Britain's respected journal *Admap* (2004), indicates that over the past 20 years, more words have been written about brands than any other aspect of marketing. "The growing obsession with brands and branding has given rise to the staggering range of magazines, books and programs to the subject," (Pillot de Chenecey, S, 2001). Even journalists use branding analogies to spice up headlines, such as *The Economist's* January 13, 2007 article on Thailand 'Rebranding Thaksinomics'.

The writer's own secondary analysis not only confirms this outpouring of literature, but also the considerable criticism it draws. As a professor of marketing, Calder (2005) said, "if you ask what a brand is, the answer is most often long (sometimes book-length!), and it usually varies across companies, consultants, and different writers". To add to the confusion, one also finds conflicting statements like "the brand does not truly exist," (Holt, 2003). He believes that the place where a label transforms itself into a brand takes place is in the consumer's head, not in the offices of its custodians. Yet curiously, many of the brand models offered in literature ignore the realization that brands are co-created by both consumer and custodian, (Baskin & Earls, 2003). From a defensive standpoint, Haigh (2004) also points out that, "a company can own and protect certain (legal) aspects of a brand but other factors reside in the minds of consumers."

Contemporary literature wraps the brand with popular ideas and social phenomena, giving birth to terms like *brand halo*, *brand smashing*, and *Lovemarks*®. Not surprisingly, many authors feel the need to challenge what they obviously feel are falsely held notions about the brand and to demythologize its 'half-real, half-virtual' status. Typical of brand myths being continually challenged are issues such as:

- *A brand is not a logo* (Neumeier, 2003)
- *The terms brand identity and image are completely misused*, (Perry & Wisnom, 2003)
- *Very, very few brand managers understand their brands*, (de Chernatony, 1997)
- *The level of disagreement which exists amongst brand experts*, (Robertson, 2003, *Chartered Institute of Marketing*, UK)
- *Brands are not made and owned by companies*, (Bullmore 2001, *British Brands Group*, Lecture)
- *A brand itself has no legal definition*, (Haigh, 2004)
- *Everyone has a different working definition of brand*, (Hill, 2001)

1. Brand tectonics

For the first time in decades, new forces are at work, which carry the prognosis of change to the structure of the world's brand landscape. While 58% of the world's best brands are currently marketed by American companies (*Businessweek*, 12 August, 2005), and 34% of the world's "Fortune 500" companies are domiciled in the US (*Fortune*, July 24, 2006), business analysts are looking Eastwards for early signs of a shift in the world order of brands. This is more than a reaction to "American hegemony" noted by Jean-Noel Jeanneney (2006), president of the *Bibliothèque Nationale de France*, or the views of Sorrell & Bullmore (2004) in their *WPP Annual Report*, in which the authors suggest, "What has been going on may well not be the globalization of world markets, but their *Americanisation*." To this point, Rance Crain, President of *Advertising Age* (December 2006), reports that "America's greatest strength – is the unparalleled zest for its consumers to try new things (...) what we are most adept at is building strong brands in greater numbers than anybody else". Having lived and worked for four years in Japan, the

writer would have to say that the Japanese are also one of, if not the leading, trialists of new products and services.

What interests the writer is how these views rest with business and marketers in the Asia Pacific region. If one looks at the brand rankings produced by *InterBrand/BusinessWeek* (Berner & Kiley, 2005) they certainly reflect this US domination (Fig 1.1), but contrast this with *China's Power Brands* in (Roberts, 2004) and *BusinessWeek's* Asian "Best 50 Performers" (Bremner et al. 2005), one can see the opportunity for a new group of potent companies and brands intent on challenging the world order. Quite how long this process will take is open to debate, but already, for instance, *China Mobile* ranks 4th in Millard Brown Optimor's 2005 survey of "The top 20 Global", and *Samsung* ranks 20th in BusinessWeek/Interbrand's 2005 survey of "Global brands."

Fig. 1.1 Global Rankings BusinessWeek 2004/5

Leading Global Brands	China's Power Brands	Asian Best 50 Performers
1. Coca-Cola	Haier	PTT (Thailand)
2. Microsoft	Lenovo	Petro China (PRC)
3. IBM	TCL	Oil & Natural Gas (India)
4. GE	Wahana	S-Oil (Korea)
5. Intel	Gome	Tata Steel (India)
6. Nokia	Geely	POSCO (Korea)
7. Disney	Bird	Shinhan Financial (PRC)

It is worth noting in *WPP's* 2005 Annual Report, in which Sir Martin Sorrell observed that "in Davos this year, the Chinese and Indians exhibited a larger degree of self-reliance and independence." As China develops its own power brands, like *Qeelin*, a first in the luxury jewelry market, (Cadwalladr, 2007) reports that in just a decade, the millionaires amongst China's first generation "one-child families" can also afford brands like *Prada* and *Ferrari*, a trend which is turning Shanghai into the world's biggest boomtown. It cannot be denied that China has much fertile ground in which to plant the seeds of new brands, but will their marketing people be any better at understanding how to build brands in the minds' of consumers, at both a local and international level, than is currently reflected in Western literature? The writer hopes his research outcomes will add a point of clarity in what is still a very confusing brandscape.

2. Research Aim

The overall objective of this investigation is to tackle the antecedents of brand development; that being why this most valuable business asset is still the subject of confusion with all its attendant new theories and processes. The central aim of the research, of which this is a work in progress, is to distil a simple brand schema from the reorganization and synthesis of available brand literature. The logistical challenge this presents the investigator is how best to subdivide the vast body of brand literature into manageable proportions? Given the wealth of information which encompasses "over 80" definitions, according to New York consultants *Brand Architecture* (Bryson, 2004); the

writer will use content analysis to investigate the frequency and incidence of brand concepts, concerns, definitions and, then sample the brand schemata and mental models currently offered in brand-related text books.

3. Literature review

The library within a library

A definition of relevant literature is any “collection of materials” on the chosen topic (*The Writing Center*, UNC, 2006) which surveys the wealth of expert knowledge. Gathering brand literature is not the kind of elusive search one might associate with some academic studies, such as locating meta-analyses on advertising-related topics. Rather, this quest has quite the opposite problem. There are literally thousands of brand related articles, papers and books and this profusion of material is probably the key contributor to much of the confusion and contention described throughout the literature.

3.1 Investigation Parameters

Framing the field of enquiry determines the shape of the literature collection, be it specialist or generalist in nature. In the former case, the specialization requires a tight frame of reference to pursue a specific area of interest. In science, for example, the research being conducted by British born astronomer, Richard Ellis, is focused on just one tiny dot within the entire universe; the most distant galaxy ever seen, “whose light started its journey to Earth a billion years or so after the Big Bang” (Lemonick, M. 2006). Contrast this with literature which explores the general nature of things, then one requires a much broader perspective, where the investigation frame is purposefully wide, such as in the scientific field of oceanography, which maps things like the topography of the ocean floor, distribution of undersea currents and related temperature gradients.

Different research frames produce different collections of literature. So it is with the writer’s collection of brand literature. Since brand communication pervades all society, the quest to fully understand brands requires a broad sample of available literature, with particular emphasis given to the last decade, a period in which more brand articles were written than at any other time. Its purpose, to map the wealth of brand related material available, firstly to gain an appreciation of how brand knowledge and language has evolved from its historical roots as a distinguishing mark, and secondly, to investigate the metamorphosis a brand undergoes in the mind of the consumer. A thematic approach uses content analysis to organize the material and subdivide the works into meaningful units of information.

During the search for material, the writer became fascinated by two seminal papers delivered by Stephen King (1991) and Jeremy Bullmore (2001). In King’s paper the key message was “the core of the brand is people, not things” with the implication that it would be extremely difficult to measure the personality of this sort of brand. Bullmore’s lecture, built on King’s work, with his “thirteen deeply disturbing facts” about the Brand, the most important fact being that consumers create brands, not

companies. It was at this moment of reading, that the writer realized why so many authors attest to the level of complexity which surrounds the brand concept and the number of associated variables in existence. What started out as a very general literature review, evolved to one with focus and purpose; to refine the spectra of brand constructs discussed in the literature and synthesize this rich data field in a way that informs the construction of a new, simplified brand model. The application of such a model has significant implications for the ways marketers manage and communicate their brands.

This collection also recognizes the importance of canvassing brand experts in both academic and practitioner domains; a critical point well made in de Chernatony's papers (1997/8). Since brand authorities populate many areas in literature, the following indicates the breadth of sources used in this review:

- Educational and business management textbooks
- Scholarly journals on advertising, research, marketing and strategy
- Dissertations and conference proceedings published by academics, practicing consultants and researchers
- Industry periodicals, particularly advertising, marketing and research
- Business and financial periodicals
- News media reportage on business, marketing and media trends
- Annual reports
- Authoritative industry websites (WARC, IPA, APG)

3.2 Relevance

To understand prevailing theories and hypotheses on brands, the writer is reminded of his recent posting to Japan and the advice given all new expatriates, "read one (book on Japan), or read them all". When Japan was being rebuilt following WWII, only one definitive book was in existence, *The Chrysanthemum and the Sword: Patterns of Japanese Culture* (1946), by Ruth Benedict. This was considered to be mandatory reading for all government officials and foreigners prior to their posting. Today, the number of English language books on Japan, its customs and cultures, has exploded to over 189,000 titles (Amazon.com), all written with the same objective of demystifying 'the most foreign nation on earth' (Buddle, 2001).

Demystifying brand literature is an equally challenge task, with over 200,000 books published on brand related matters (Amazon.com). In just *one* contemporary textbook on brand management, Keller (2003) cites no fewer than 794 sources. If the 1990s was the decade in which brand equity attained its highest status in terms of literature count, the ideal investigation would require the reading of every book and journal. 35 years ago one could have been reasonably confident in reading just one or two authoritative books on branding from eminent authors such as Philip Kotler (1971) or David Aaker (1975). Even then, both authors recognized that the management of brands was much more involved than simply registering a mark of ownership.

3.3 Discourse analysis

With such a broad collection, in which there are many subdivisions, definitions and theories, it is important for the writer to remember it is the literature *collection* which is the subject of this discussion and avoid the risk of turning the review into an annotated bibliography. As a time management coach succinctly put it, it's very easy to fill a box with pine needles, and in the process, lose sight of the tree!

One recognizes that in the process of interpretation, the subjective feelings and thought, developed from such a wide body of literature, will depend on each author and the experience of the reader. Any latent concerns the writer held as to how best to deal with the subjectivity of discourse analysis lessens after reading Willig (2001). In his book, he reports that Foucauldian discourse analysis provides us with a way of reading an extremely wide range of materials in which we do not necessarily have to analyze individual words to establish meaning. His informed position advises that:

“we can do no more than to delineate what can be felt, thought or experienced from within various subject positions; whether or not, or to what extent, individual speakers actually do feel, think or experience in these ways.”

He further advocates that discourse analysis is a particular *way* of reading for action orientation (what is this text doing?) rather than simply reading for meaning (what is this text saying?). The following extracts from the writer's literature review are designed to provide the reader with points of focus, recap important information, and synthesize the arguments and ideas of its contributors.

3.3.1 Brand generalities and specific brand issues

Kotler (1971:488) notes that “a company seeking to increase its sales must try to understand how buyers see the company's brand in relation to the competitive brands and what influences their perceptions and preferences for the different brands.” Exactly what influences consumers is also expressed by Aaker (1975:101) who states that it is a matter of recognizing that, “several multidimensional approaches to the problem of defining more specifically what brand comprehension means” is the key to consumer choice.

One of the first, and still most cited brand definitions, was developed by The American Marketing Association (AMA), in recognition of the brand's ability to differentiate a product or service offering from that of its competition, describing the brand as a “name, term, symbol or design”. Closely linked with this definition is the long held view that “brand ownership” belongs to the manufacturer (Schewe, 1987); a fact now being contested by other authors who support the consumer perspective. In defense of the AMA's brand definition, it must be acknowledged that the role of ‘brand as differentiator’ has endured for over three decades and is still the most commonly cited in textbooks. But thirty years later, one cannot ignore the fact that the literature yields >138 brand derivatives (Buddle, 2006 App. 1). The other recurring theme relates to the fact that brands are confusing, as illustrated by the litany of expressions which punctuate the literature. Examples which attest to this confusion abound, including: *semantic confusion*

(McNaughton, 2004), *misused terminology* (Ryder, 2004), *brand complexity* (ibid, 2003), *disconnected thinking* (Howard-Spink, 2002), *disagreements* (Keller, 2003), *fuzzy thinking* (Lieberman, 2004), *Brand Babble*” (Schultz & Schultz, 2004) and the *wide gap between the practical and academic worlds* (Franzen, 1999). Taken together, the literature reveals an incidence of 101 such brand related concerns (Buddle, 2006) and calls into question why something as intrinsically simple as the brand concept, after centuries of use, could still be causing so much consternation.

3.3.2 Empirical, theoretical and historical brand records

Experience of brands and branding spans the ages and one could be forgiven for assuming that brands are a byproduct of the industrial era, when mass production of products spawned many of today’s brand names, such as *Sunlight* (Unilever) and *Nescafé* (Nestlé). But the historical roots of brands pre-date both the industrial revolution, of the late 18th and 19th century, and the era of modern economics widely attributed to Dr. Adam Smith (1723-1790). One wonders how intrigued Smith would be today to see that up to 70% of a company’s market value is tied up in brands (Clifton, et al. 2003).

Historical research into brands does not reveal a particular concatenation of events which lead to the appearance of more contemporary brands, but it does record instances of early branding examples, as those found on Greek amphora (c540BC), on Japanese *furoshiki* cloth (c710-784AD) and the Old Norse culture of fire-branding (700-1350AD). All were ‘signature’ marks identifying the maker. In fact, the English word ‘brand’ was derived from the Old Norse verb *brandr*, meaning to burn; the act of using a red hot branding iron on livestock to identify ownership.

What literature does reveal is that most empirical work with brands is tied closely with the ‘cause and effect’ of behavioral science. An excellent example of this is demonstrated by (Goff, 2006) who studies how charities learn to use branding to create an image in line with their cause. Other examples illustrate the use of different theoretical models such as ‘archetype’ (Wertime, 2002), ‘psychology’ of curiosity (Orth, 2005), ‘associative networks’ (Henderson, 1998), and ‘heuristics’ (Davies, 2005). These are just some of the consumer-related techniques which have been explored and their results published in the literature.

Brands are also shown to occur in many theoretic settings, the most common ones being ‘semiotics’, ‘linguistics’, ‘communication’, and ‘economics’. The proliferation of brands and media channels in an increasingly competitive global marketplace creates an environment in which brand literature flourishes. But as specialization grows and brand theory is dissected, the need for synthesis and interpretation becomes greater. It reinforces the conclusion reached by the writer that to fully understand brands, one can no longer rely on just one brand authority; one must read widely.

One other key point concerning the history of brand evolution relates to advertising. Schultz & Barnes (1995) sum it up perfectly with their acknowledgment that “without advertising, there would likely be no brands.” This inextricable link with

advertising acts like an umbilical cord, to nourish the brand with life giving communication, as it undergoes its metamorphosis in the mind of the consumer. The only problem here is that advertising and marketing theory operates in the inexact world of art and science, a fact which cannot be ignored when reviewing brand literature, which provides a large collection of theories, principles and best practice, but no one proven theory on how advertising works, or for that matter one theory on how a brand works. Yet, this vexing situation still has not diminished the widespread interest in understanding advertising and branding.

If there is an accepted brand theory, it is the recognition that the core function of a brand is to differentiate itself from its competitors, influence the potential buyer and simplify the purchase decision. The popularity of brand articles in journals (Baker, 1998) and the importance of refining and improving brand theory, go hand in hand with the needs of business who place ever greater reliance on innovation and branding (Lader, 2005). The unanswered question which emerges from all this literature is, by how much does theoretical progression lag behind the changing nature of brand practice?

3.3.3 Particular schools of thought on brands and branding

Brand complexity and semantic differential appear to be directly proportional to the context in which brand propositions are identified (de Chernatony & Dall'Olmo Riley 1997). Their own literature review distilled nine propositions, of which, four concepts relate to the role of brand custodian (manager) and five relate to consumer context. Each of the nine propositions sheds light on the chasm seen to exist between managers' and consumers' knowledge of brands.

In "*Brand Gap*" (Neumeier, 2003) explains why many linear-based brand models, originally designed to assist brand marketers, are still failing to be understood for reasons of context and complexity. This leaves the writer wondering whether the original objectives to provide clarity and insight are being overshadowed by the intellectual prowess of the researcher. If this is the case, then why are so many brand experts still writing about the existence of complexity and misunderstanding attributed to brand knowledge?

Another school of thought on the brand concept advanced by Davies & Chun (2003) embraces the use of 'metaphor' to understand the brand concept. Their work is based on identifying in the literature three underpinning 'root' metaphors – (i) brand as differentiating mark, (ii) brand as person, and (iii) brand as company.

On review, it appears that brand textbooks become catchments for many schools of thought, whereas journal articles tend to focus on just one aspect of brand theory. In contrast, books authored by brand consultants and practitioners tend to coin shiny new theories and paradigms for a ready market of managers, eager for a quick fix in a results obsessed business economy. Triangulating brand meaning (Sherry, 2005) is one school of thought which resonates with the reviewer, based on '*brandthropology*', an over-riding school of thought on how to manage three overlapping domains of customer experience

involving brand image, brand essence, and brandscape. This approach combines the observable, external characteristics of a marketer's offering with the customer's own creative engagement of the offering which they use to reflect their lives.

In a former life, it is considered that brands were simply 'labels' complete, in most cases, with a wonderful motto, but over time, many brands achieve great strength and are built on that elusive alchemy of awareness and trust. To view brands across the spectra of economic, marketing and biosocial psychology not only challenges academics and business managers, its multidimensional facets undoubtedly contribute to its complexity and makes the model building approach to market decision making, initiated by Kotler back in 1971, an even greater priority for the writer.

3.3.4 Theoretical basis for understanding the anatomy of a brand

Brand theory imbues the brand with physical attributes as well as anthropomorphic qualities. To test the brand's half real/half virtual state, many variables have been explored in the literature. One finds the intrinsic qualities of the brand discussed in areas such as brand genetics and *brand DNA* (Keller, 2003), mapping and brand *molecules* (Hill & Lederer, 2001), *semiotics* (Percy & Elliott, 2005), identity, *names*, symbols, (Perry & Wisnom, 2003), *architecture* (Sawhney, 2005), hierarchy, *brand/product matrix* (Keller, 2003), *economics* (Lipman, 1989), *neural networks*, (Wilson, 2002), and 'associative network' such as the co-branding of *U2iPod* (Product Red™ 2006).

Brand literature also records psychological and observational research methods which parallel social research, designed to probe and elicit consumer response to brand intangibles such as perception, attitudes, and relationships. This theoretical underpinning helps inform the writer's understanding of how brands and society are intertwined, and why the dissection of a brand reveals more than anatomical detail.

3.3.5 Brand definitions in use

On this subject, the words of this brand authority say it best of all:

"I asked delegates (at a recent conference) to define the word 'brand' and I got 45 different answers. I believe it is true to say that the concept of the brand is neither widely nor consistently understood. It appears that the marketing academics are spending their time trying to break brands into smaller and smaller categories and in doing so, making the concept of branding even more intangible," Greenhill (1999).

A taxonomic investigation of brand literature reveals at least 17 classifications of brand definitions, represented by 206 iterations (Buddle, 2006). The intangible nature and asset value described in the various brand definitions is further confused in the literature through the grammatical use of the word 'brand' as a noun, verb, adjective and modifier. The plethora of definitions also generates a range of descriptors, such as: *intrinsic and*

extrinsic offerings (Gardner, 1955), *consumer's idea of a product* (Ogilvy, 1963), *trade mark* (Oxford Dictionary, 1980), *name or symbol* (Keller 2003), *place indelibly in the memory* (Collins Dictionary 1980), and *mental picture* (WARC, 2003), to name just a few. This takes the brand from a differentiating name or logotype to one of communicator and mental construct. Jevons (2005) finds that “the term ‘brand’ is now used extensively in previously unimaginable areas

3.3.6 Brand research methodologies

The literature brings one to the inevitable conclusion that there is no common methodology or shared theory by which to understand the brand. This fundamental problem was clearly articulated in Keller & Lehman's working paper for the MSI (2004). Another contemporary viewpoint offered by Roehm (2006) suggests that “Brand theory now asks, how can we connect with the community in a really meaningful way?” The other key point is the sheer volume of brand research conducted by both practitioners and academics, and the interpretive challenge such a constantly growing body of knowledge presents for brand managers and scholars alike. As Bullmore, (2001) wryly observes, “when CEOs try to think about brands, their brains hurt.”

To make better sense of all the prevailing research methodologies, the writer grouped the literature into two areas – practitioners and academic. The output captured from practitioners tends to be a mix of syndicated surveys and client assignments. Reportage in literature is often headlined with provocative statements designed to influence certain publics and no doubt intimidate competitors. Literature reveals that several global researchers provide a range of services including brand equity audits, brand valuations, brand recall and awareness monitors, scan data analysis, which might also include single source options to fuse media consumption with lifestyle and shopping data, but often, little is revealed of the proprietary methodology employed. Amongst the many providers of brand research, one of the most recognized brand equity audits is published annually by BusinessWeek/Interbrand (2006), to record the top 100 most valuable global brands “which evaluates brands much the way analysts value other assets...to represent a brand's true economic worth.”

One of the more interesting qualitative brand studies with commercial application is the highly debated methodology of ‘neuroscience’, which involves non-invasive positron emission tomography (PET) and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) to study which parts of the brain are active during specific tasks, such remembering and responding to stimuli. Coca-Cola was one of several large corporations who trialed this approach at the Mind of the Market laboratory at Harvard Business School. This research *Reading the mind of the market*, (Schenker, 1999) made the cover of *TIME* magazine and although some readers might be alarmed at the notion of having their brains scanned for commercial purposes, the article notes Professor Kosslyn's reassurance that “the goal is not to manipulate people's preferences, just to speak to their actual desires.” Findings indicate that it is possible to predict not only whether people will remember, but also have specific emotional reactions to certain materials.

Turning now to the work of academicians, their methodologies appear to reflect the interests and specialization of each author. A typical example, referred to earlier, is discussed in *Kellogg on Branding* (2005), in which anthropologist, John Sherry, uses ethnographic methods to conduct a cultural analysis of branding. As an observer, the writer concludes that qualitative research methods are favored more often than the quantitative surveys which dominate the published work of consultant organizations. The writer also recognizes that the preference for qualitative investigation aligns closely with the way consumers express brand traits in human terms. Potent brands are said to resonate with, and identify, those consumers who embrace these brands with an intense loyalty and trust usually given only to one's best friends.

As brands have become an inseparable part of society, it follows that research methods used in social research can also be found in brand research. The same question researchers ask of social research, applies equally to the brand world, as to "whether the social world (and brands) can and should be studied according to the same principles, procedures, and ethos as natural sciences?" (Bryman, 2004:11). Unlike the laws of universal certainty which occur within the natural sciences, the apparent irrationality observed within society provides the researcher with a real challenge. Plummer (2004) uses archaeology to 'uncover' brand associations, memories, perceptions and symbols "*buried*" in the minds of consumers. Kinsella (2005) even goes to the extent of leveraging the science of momentum, using Newtonian physics, to discover that the resonance and momentum is real in the way managers can grow their brands.

Analytical methods in brand literature also abound, from case analysis (Dong & Helms, 2001), to theoretical and empirical analysis, which may also involve the hierarchy of effects (Keller, 2003), segmentation and cluster analysis (Dubow, 1992), content analysis (Schutte, 1969) or meta-analysis (Heath & Chatterjee, 1995). Again the wealth of information is overwhelming and there is little evidence to suggest that brands and branding will not continue to be the most investigated topic in marketing communication for many years to come.

3.3.7 Main arguments and outcomes

One can easily deduce from the vast body of literature why so many authors feel the need to deconstruct the brand and advance new viewpoints and theories, but in doing so, they contribute to its length and complexity (Calder, 2005). If the main argument holds that brands are still being misunderstood, then it is surely not for want of adequate information. The more likely prognosis is that the oversupply of theories and supporting data is working against the overall objective to help brand stakeholders clarify their view of the brand and the role it performs in society and business; a point made abundantly clear in de Chernatony & Dall'olmo Riley's paper "The chasm between managers' and consumers' views of brands" (1997).

3.3.8 Review summary

The knowledge and experience gained from the writer's previous professional role, as brand strategist and advertising practitioner is an influencing factor on how the world view of the literature is interpreted. That said; the writer recognizes that swimming upstream against the flood of brand information might seem unusual, given the prevailing trend in literature to take the brand downstream into many distributaries of specialist knowledge, but the literature overwhelmingly suggests that subject clarity has not yet been achieved.

To return to the advice offered by Willig (2001) on discourse analysis, 'what is all this literature *doing* for me the researcher and what action will come from the *way* in which this review has been conducted?', one might consider Thomas Schutte's goal in the Journal of Marketing (1969), in which he gives marketers the challenge of developing "a set of brand terms and definitions which can be employed by all marketers and students of all industries (...) if science in marketing is to be advanced."

It is difficult to ignore the many voices still calling for clarification of the brand and all that it represents in the market place. Before an answer can be provided, one must find reasons for the source of brand disagreement and investigate issues like "is it simply related to the definition of what is meant by a brand?" (Keller, 2003), or "is it all to do with context?" (de Chernatony et al.1998). A review of the literature suggests that brand meaning and definition are indeed framed by contextual elements and the various roles the brand fulfills for consumer and custodian alike. Since everything in the world is branded, it is no surprise find a leading marketing conglomerate *WPP* endorsing this point, saying that "clients are increasingly coming to the view there is only one way to compete – through innovation and branding" (Lader, 2005). If this view is given the undoubted priority it deserves, surely there is an overwhelming need to simplify the brand and thereby, improve both the clarity and understanding of its role in business. In turn, this may also lead to greater standardization of research methodologies (Richards, 2006).

It would be an oversimplification to interpret from the literature that academics do not acknowledge the existence of some misunderstanding surrounding brand principles, and that future of "brand management may be more difficult than ever," (Keller, 2003). Therefore, given the prognosis that brands are inextricably linked with business success, the priority for managers to understand brands will only heighten in importance. It is particularly fitting to note that at the time of completing this review, a brand new book, *Brand Simple*, sets out clear, clean ideas for "a market inundated with brands and branding theories" (Adamson, 2007).

As a work in progress, it is hoped that this literature review successfully synthesizes the ideas and arguments of the many authors encountered by the writer.

4.0 Methodology

"Objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages,"
(Stone et al, 1966)

4.1 Context

The purpose of this section is to explain how and why the use of ‘content analysis’ satisfies the aims of this enquiry, and why this methodology was selected.

Literature records that advertising has been more influential in building brand equity than any other channel of communication; though more recently, a growing body of evidence attests to very successful brands being built on reputation, which links brand experience and word-of-mouth to social acceptance (*Starbucks*, in Keller, 2003). With this in mind, the writer found significant value in reviewing social research methods and their exploring their potential for this brand enquiry.

4.2 Parallels with Social Research

Social research investigates social life itself, and the fundamental question posed is “whether the social world can and should be studied according to the same principles, procedures, and ethos as natural sciences?” (Bryman, 2004:11). Such research employs different perspectives which look at the outer and inner world of human behavior. One such view contends that ‘facts’ on the social world can be gathered independently of how people interpret them (May, 1998:10 *Empiricism*) and another argues that the knowledge people have of their social world affects their behavior (May, 1998:12 *Realism*). Such thinking inevitably leads to what Habermas (1984) refers to as ‘bridge building’ which attempts to fuse the twin aims of ‘how’ (understanding) and ‘why’ (explanation) in social research. The desire to synthesize these perspectives results in the view that social science is not the same as natural science, and that concepts are relative to time and place. This closely parallels the perspective marketers and advertisers have on the study of brands in society for which there is no universal law or scientific knowledge. What appears to be acceptable knowledge is an epistemological issue based more on knowledge, wisdom and learning than one of scientific discovery.

Unlike the *laws* of universal certainty which occur within the natural sciences, the apparent irrationality observed within society provides the researcher with a real challenge; that being how to make sense of relationships that embrace both individualistic traits with herd mentality. A similar situation exists with brands used by consumers which provides individual identity and peer acclamation. What has been determined from many studies, particularly during the last two decades, is that ‘social life operates within fairly regular patterns’ providing the opportunity within an applied context to develop theories ‘about various patterns, concepts, processes, relationships, or events’. (Berg, 2004)

4.3 The role of secondary analysis

Given that *primary* analysis of data in a research study is the original analysis, it follows that *secondary* analysis is the reanalysis of data. Glass et al (1981:21) indicate that secondary analysis is used for the purpose of either answering the original research

question using better statistical techniques, or to answer new questions with old data. Glass notes that some methodologists treat secondary analysis with more zeal than that of primary analysis, an enthusiasm no doubt propelled by the cornucopia of empirical enquiry which, as Glass (1981:11) laments, “(finds) the house of social science...strewn among the scree of a hundred journals and lies about in the unsightly rubble of a million dissertations.” Even then, such concerns were not new, as two decades earlier, Marsden (1965), concluded that “system after system has been developed and presented in one or two demonstration studies, only to lie buried in the literature, unused even by the author.” It appears to the writer that a similar profusion of primary enquiry exists in the field of brands and branding.

Literature notes that the key to using different methods of secondary analysis depends on whether the researcher chooses to reflect pre-existing documents and data at face value, from the public domain to provide historical insights (Hodder, 2000), or whether the intention is to generate new knowledge or new hypotheses through the *re-analysis* of the data. In this regard, Bryman (2004:447) provides a useful framework in understanding the nature of secondary research by comparing the deductive approach with the inductive approach, in which observation and findings can revise a given theory. Key words common to definitions of secondary analysis include: reanalysis, rework, new knowledge, new hypotheses, additional to the original, or as Hakim (1982:1) states,

“Any further analysis of existing data set which present interpretations, conclusion of knowledge additional to, or different from, those presented in the first report on the enquiry as a whole and its main results.”

A more succinct definition is offered by Houston (2004) “Shed new light on or provide corroborating evidence to established streams of research.” Useful to the writer is a point made by Krippendorff (1980) in that content analysis “involves sensitivity to context and symbolic forms” and its ability to “cope with large volumes of data”.

According to Frey (1992:194) the process was originally developed to study the messages embedded in mass-mediated and public texts, such as public speeches. He also cites Doving’s (1954-1955) work in which eighteenth century Swedish scholars were known to have used secondary analysis to count the number of religious symbols in a collection of hymns to see whether they were preaching against the church. Today, Frey (1992) defines content analysis as the systematic enquiry “to identify, enumerate, and analyze occurrences of specific messages and message characteristics embedded in communication texts.”

In summary, the valuable role content analysis provides the investigator is an ideal way to proceed, when the task exceeds one’s capacity to represent the works through primary research.

4.4 Contestability

Theoretic schools of thought in literature all acknowledge the levels of criticism and limitations associated with secondary analysis. Such criticisms are undoubtedly heightened in the context of social research because the value judgments are being made about people, both positive and normative in what is, or what ought to be. In contrast, limitations held over secondary research in marketing communications tend to relate more to authenticity and credibility issues.

Textbooks and journals are one place where secondary analysis gains much respect. Here, much use is made of citing other researcher's work to provide mutual confirmation of measures and validation of findings. Such collegiality does not appear to gain the same level of respect amongst practicing marketing researchers, drawing the possible conclusion that contestability is more of an issue in commerce and Government.

The use of data which has already been collected, and already analyzed by someone else, opens secondary research to the concept of grounded theory "on the premise that the strategies and products of research are shaped from the data rather than from any preconceived theoretical frameworks and hypotheses" (Daymon, 2002). As such, this reflexive approach to research opens the findings to potential reading inaccuracies and misconceptions, or as Berg (2004:272) puts it, such theory "is an entirely inductive process, that does not verify findings, and that it somehow moulds the data to the theory, rather than the reverse."

4.5 Research objective and design

The overall objectives set for the content analysis which supports this study are:

- To describe the characteristics of the selected brand communication
- To make inferences for the encoding process as to the possible causes or antecedents of the brand communication
- To make inferences following the decoding process as to the effects of the brand communication

More specifically, the analysis will explore:

- Presence of brand themes, concepts and branding techniques
- The presence and frequency of concerns, confusion and disagreement held for brand definitions, themes, concepts and branding techniques
- The presence, number and characteristics of brand definitions ...and later, not the subject of this paper,
- The presence, number and characteristics of brand schemata

The research design takes a longitudinal path, based on a design used in Holsti (1969) and contains the following six steps (see Fig. 4.1)

Fig. 4.1 Brand Research Design

Source	Encoding	Channel	Messages	Decoding	Recipient
Who?	Why?	How?	What?	Effect?	To whom?
Brand experts, academics, consultants	To prove complexity and confusion exists	Review 'currency' of concepts, definitions & schema	Brand character, domain & dimensions	Synthesize data, discourse analysis & inferences	Brand custodians - managerial implications

4.6 Sample and selection of articles

Given the ubiquity and breadth of available brand literature over the last ten years, the issue concerning the adequacy of the sample selection arises as those articles being conveniently available to the researcher which would serve as a retrospective of the published work. As mentioned earlier in the literature review, the problem is not where to find brand literature, but how best to represent all brand constituencies of brand practitioners and academicians. Articulating the details of this step is crucial, as the findings are solely reliant on secondary research, using the benefits of content analysis to systematically and unobtrusively unpack the meanings within each text, and to determine the directions in which journal contributors, brand experts and authors are taking the field of brand advice.

An excellent paper which explains the importance of literature selection can be found in Yale & Gilly's (1998) examination of the "Trends in advertising research: a look at the content of marketing-orientated journals from 1976 to 1985." In their case, the decision to opt for "depth of analysis, rather than breadth of journal inclusion" was driven by the desire to make a large task more manageable and time efficient.

In the case of the writer's secondary research project, the systematic screening 'of every issue' is more problematic. The second key concern relates to the danger of limiting the search to academic journals, as Yale & Gilly did, since the universe of brand knowledge is so extensive in both breadth and number of media channels used. What was needed for the search was a broad, non-random sample of the target literature, using keyword 'tripwires', such as brand and branding, to find relevant materials, without overwhelming the investigator in terms of time and resources. Fig. 4.2 summarizes the breadth and rigor applied to collecting a representative sample of brand-related material:

Fig 4.2 Literature Inventory Captured 2003-2006

Marketing and brand-orientated textbooks & business books	N=63
Scholarly journals on advertising,	N=92

research, and marketing – US & UK	
Dissertations published by academics, practicing consultants, researchers, conference & lectures	N=11
Internet sourced brand materials, including social research and secondary analysis papers	N=53
Industry periodicals, particularly advertising and marketing related	N=38
News media reportage on business, marketing & media	N=66
Annual Reports	N=16
UC undergraduate research papers	N=13
Total	N=352

Not evident in the above summary, is the need to offset the bias induced by the ubiquity of published literature of US origin with a sample of British and Australian journals, books and related media reportage. Another advantage from selecting a less partisan representation of the brand literature is the balanced view it brings to readers in other geographies, particularly those in those countries considered to be the source of next global brands, like those being developed in China, India, and Korea constituencies.

4.7 Filtering the data

Uncovering the many layers of meaning deposited within the pages of the literature is somewhat akin to an archaeological dig, brushing away years of accumulated verbiage to discover the evolution, anatomy and cultural significance of brands. In similar ways, the writer identifies, enumerates and analyzes occurrences of specific messages and message characteristics embedded in the brand texts. The key words which define the central terms about brands and branding are objectively and systematically counted for the number of incidences in which they appear within the content data. But since a single system of enumeration alone excludes the ‘inferential leaps’ required to read between the lines, the consequences or valid inferences cannot be drawn from the manifest content without further discourse.

The search identifies physical aspects of the brand, including syntactical units, such as symbols and metaphors, and also the thematic units which one can theorize frame much of the brand confusion and definition. The issue of semantic validity, when conducting the analysis, is not only a test of the writer’s professional expertise, but also the need to be familiar with the language and connotation congruence of meaning. In terms of coding, it was not possible to provide inter-coder reliability factors in the process, but every effort is made to leave a detailed record of the unit descriptors (not included with this paper in the interests of brevity). The need to question and explore the mutual exclusivity of consumer and custodial domains is also recognized, and how these may be better integrated in the brand building process. One inescapable finding from the

re-analysis of the data is that true brand value, of whatever origin, is best measured in the mind of the consumer, and not in the offices of its 'owners.'

5.0 Findings

The Interpretive Process

If the investigator confines the analysis to just the titles presented in the literature inventory, one can already see that this is a complex subject. By adapting the coding practice used in grounded theory analysis, i.e. line by line, word by word, incident by incident, the tabulation list would be very long. The following chart (Fig 5.0) fractures the titles into defining or thematic groups, and not surprisingly, it is the management and brand building topics which head the list, followed closely by the confusion noted by many authors anxious to highlight such issues:

Fig 5.0	
Fracturing imperatives from the titles of brand-related book and journals	
Associated units	Total incidences
Management/managing 8, marketing 7, strategy/strategies 4, decision 1, principles 1	21
Build/building 10, grow 3, unlocking 1, boosting 1, magnifying 1	16
Understanding 2, Confusion 1, Babble 1, meaning 1, question 2, definition 1, who 1, what 1, really/really do 2, secrets 3, reveal 1	16
New 4, times 2, surprising 1, future 1, quest 1, trends 1, next 1, zag 1, before 1, contemporary 1	14
Consumers 4, people 1, social 1, Living/life 3, humanizing 1, cultural 1, being 1, eyes 1, hand 1	14
Measure/measuring 9, research/researching 2, valuation 1, effective 1, most 1	14
Power 2, muscle 1, gym 1, hijack 1, pirate 1, unbound 1, action 1, metaphor, hero, child 3	11
Emotion 1, heavenly 1, married 1, Lovemarks 1, loyalty 2, wish 1, Posh Spice 1, stars 1	9
Science/scientific 3, brain 3, gurus 1, linguistics 1, semantics 1	9
Compact 1, small 1, simple 1, works 1, best 1, modelling 1, dimensions 1, inside 1,	8
Creative/creating 4, designing 2, screenplays 1	7
Global/globally 5, International 1, Asian 1	7
Behaviour 1, influencing 1, salience 1, experience 1, confident 1, connecting 1, captive 1	7
Symbols 2, icons 1, differentiation 1,	4
Sell 1, pricing 1, promotion 1	3
TOTAL	156 Imperatives

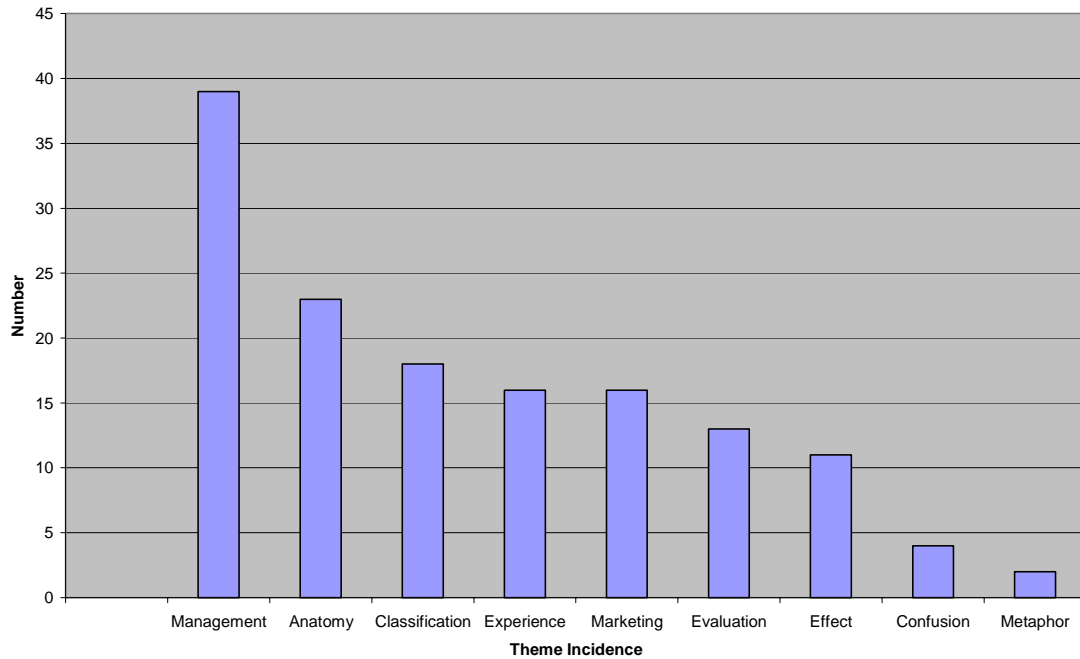
From the consumer viewpoint, there are many dialogic aspects to the brand, and this provides some ground on which to base the analysis of the same book and journal titles above, as narrative enquiry. In this case, instead of fracturing the texts into coded units, a thematic analysis would concern itself with the totality of the content, and be descriptive and borderless in scope (Chase, 2005). *What* is actually told, rather than viewing the many variations of the telling, is a collection of material which sheds light on an extremely complex, half-real, half-virtual entity we know as ‘the brand’.

If one starts out where modern brands began, as a simple, distinctive mark on a product or service, there is no question that the DNA of each brand emanates from different starting points. One can deduce from the literature that eponymous brands, in many ways, are the apotheosis of success, yet many other famous brands are in other ways untypical. Anyone who studies brands soon discovers that there is no one rule which guarantees success. As de Chernatony et al (1998) noted in “Criteria to Assess Brand Success,” reaching a consensus on “success criteria” is further confused in literature between “what constitutes brand success and the strategies that should be used to achieve it.” Their study clearly demonstrates two measurement criteria, one being business-based measures and the other being consumer-based.

5.1 Brand taxonomy

After logging >137 brand derivatives found in brand and branding literature (App.1), the next task was to form clusters of like-minded concepts. The summary below (Fig. 5.1) again reinforces the preoccupation authors have with the custodial *management* of brands, and the lesser interest in their creation and transformation within the mind of the consumer. The data which supports this taxonomy, not only confirms this skew, it also recognizes that more ‘new’ brand derivatives populate journals than are found in textbooks.

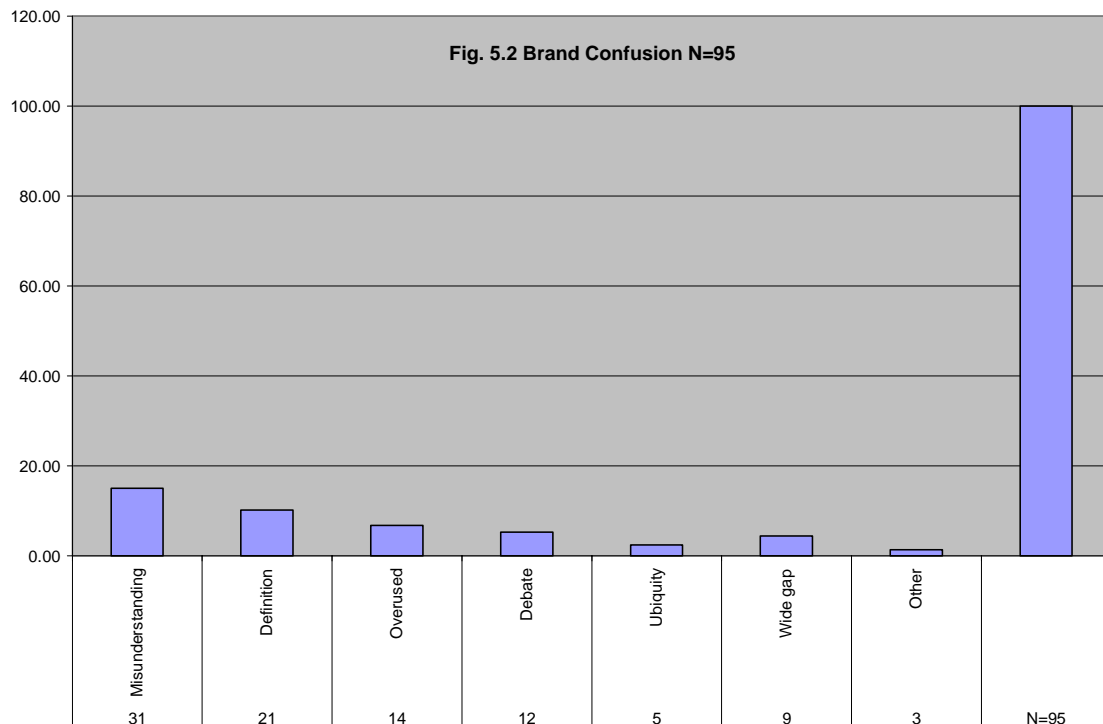
Fig 5.1 Brand Taxonomy N=143



Today, the manifest reveals a bespoke code which extends brand meaning well beyond the concept of a differentiating mark, into a world of molecules, matrices, and mantras, where brand architecture, aesthetics and positioning provides target consumers with identity, salience and trust.

5.2 Brand confusion

Some authors state that branding is not rocket science, but like its marketing and advertising cousins, a combination of art and science. Like an anthology, brand literature records much confusion and misunderstanding, which does little to advance the cause for clarity, or improve its scientific scrutiny, as the graph below, aptly illustrates (Fig. 5.2). The lack of mean deviation found in the data which supports this figure confirms the researcher's view that each author is more interested in putting their own ideas forward, than building on the work of others.



Keller (2003) offers some help to sort out the differences, by suggesting that the term ‘brand’ be subdivided into two constituencies: (i) little ‘b’ brand, verb (active form) and (ii) big ‘B’ Brand, noun (passive form). In its active or causal form, one imprints a brand on a good or service, and also in the mind of the consumer, the linguistic origins of which are recalled from the ancient Norse culture of fire-branding animals, i.e. *brandr* ‘to burn’ the owner’s mark into the hide.

In its passive form, the big B Brand is not just the differentiating mark or logotype, it acts as a reservoir for the Brand’s accumulated provenance, identity, images and associations, following the metamorphosis it undergoes in the mind of the consumer, following a period of media engagement and personal experience. It is this amalgam of tangible and intangible assets which determines the value or equity of the Brand for its ‘owners’ and related stakeholders.

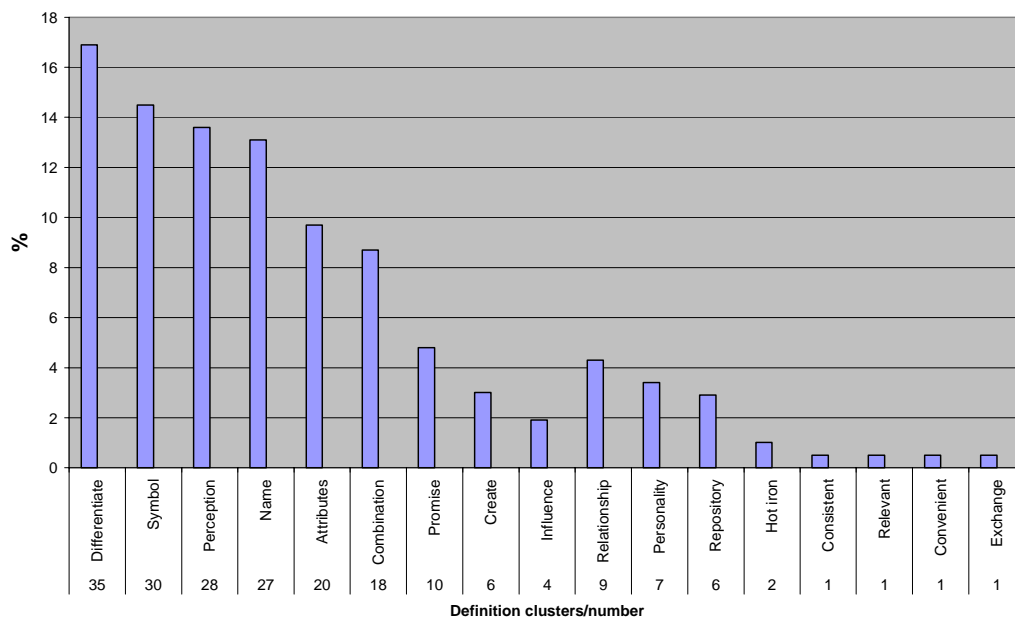
5.3 Brand definitions in use

On this subject, Greenhill’s (1999) work communicates a palpable sense of exasperation:

“I asked delegates (at a recent conference) to define the word ‘brand’ and I got 45 different answers. I believe it is true to say that the concept of the brand is neither widely nor consistently understood. It appears that the marketing academics are spending their time trying to break brands into smaller and smaller categories and in doing so, making the concept of branding even more intangible.”

English grammar adds further complexity to the term ‘brand’ in that it can be expressed as a noun, verb, adjective or attributive modifier. The resultant trans-linguistic affect reinforces the writer’s view that the range of brand definitions offered in the literature are likely to contain too many variables for clear interpretation by brand managers. Despite the care taken in the analysis to retain the context in which each of the definitions is offered, the following graph (Fig. 5.3) indicates just how many brand definitions are contextually framed by the need for ‘differentiation’ compared with how few brand definitions are framed by consumer ‘relationships’ or ‘personality’.

Fig. 5.3 Brand Definitions in use N=206



5.4 Exploring the ideal multi-dimensional construct

The metamorphosis a brand undergoes from simply signifying its physical presence to that of mental construct, sits between the two domains of brand custodian and mind of the consumer; and no two consumer constructs will be exactly the same. Using the analogy of how a larva metamorphoses from a caterpillar into a butterfly, a brand has similar transformational powers, when cocooned in the mind of the consumer who is exposed to communication. This metaphor sets up the next exciting phase of the research, which investigates the content analysis of brand schemata, the results of which will be published in a later dissertation.

6.0 Implications

“Why do you seek more knowledge when you pay no heed to what you already know?”
Shah (1968:110)

Here is a superb example how simplicity and concise language provides clarity and enlightenment of a highly complex subject. American physicist, Andrew Lange in his conference address (2004), boils the entire history of cosmology down to three bullet points:

- *“The universe is expanding*
- *It began as a primeval fireball*
- *You can still see the glow”*

The writer wonders why decades of intense brand study, by thousands of contributors, has not yet yielded the same level of clarity and understanding as cosmology.

Research, filtered through the lens of recorded brand literature, explains in part, why brand myths exist. There is no question that the plethora of material causes degrees of confusion, and fuel debates over such things as brand definition, nomenclature, ownership and creation. Since the primary function of the researcher/reviewer is to be a “*synthesizer*” (Glass, 1981) and interpreter of the literature, questions whether this role is confined to the manifest content (surface meaning), or extended “to analyze the deeper layers of meaning embedded in the document,” (Holsti, 1969). The answer is complicated by the categorization of the large number of words and themes located in the text. To ‘read between the lines’ suggests that some new interpretation about the brand might be uncovered on a well trodden literary path; or is the brand quite simply, framed by too many contexts and propositions to be tied down to one definition?

Back in 1969, Schutte posed the ultimate question for the marketer as to “whether or not it is possible to develop a set of brand terms and definitions which can be employed by all marketers and students?” One would have to accept, on a broad reading of brand literature, that such a quest has yet to be fulfilled. The lexical liabilities in the literature imply that a latent frustration still exists. The inference to be drawn from the findings is that there still is a need for greater simplicity and understanding, particularly amongst the custodians, controllers and nurturers of brands, to ensure that they have, as one brand consultant puts it, ‘a holistic, integrated property’ (de Chernatony, 1997)

Intuitively, if one is tempted to draw a long bow on the manifest-latent issue on brands, one might conclude that the motives and attitudes of so many communicators, is driven out of frustration for the misunderstanding displayed by brand custodians and a desire to cut through the burgeoning brand vocabulary which surrounds this vital business asset. One does not have far to look to find corroborating evidence. In the business press, quite apart from the writer’s personal experience, the Brand asset is often exploited for short-term business gains, or devalued through continual promotion. There are many instances which report the superficial appreciation most managers have of the brands, or as one brand consultant explained in de Chernatony’s (1997) paper,

“very, very few brand managers understand their brands. They may think of them as a logo, packaging and name. But that’s not good enough”.

A further inference can be drawn from the exegesis of such a large body of literature as to why so many authors produce so many different perspectives and advice on brands. The

answer lies in the nature of the brand itself. To use the analogy of French winemaking, the humble grape is the source of all wine, just as brands are the source of all marketing communication, and both can happily be represented by a collective noun. But the "*terroir*" in winemaking is where all similarities in grapes end. It relates to a group of vineyards (or even vines) from the same region, belonging to a specific appellation, and sharing the same type of soil, weather conditions, grapes and wine making savoir-faire, which contribute to give its specific personality to the wine. If you will, brands also have their own *terroir*, belonging to a company or group, usually managed in a country, or region, sharing the same 'weather' conditions of a global, regional or national trading environment, brand and communication savoir-faire, which contributes to the specific personality of the brand, and its ultimate success in the market. In the latter case, the savoir-faire in branding is an amalgam of the combined expertise of marketers, consultants, and communication suppliers. The markers for success in the brand world closely parallel those found in winemaking. Each industry has its bespoke language and experience. Each appoints judges at competitions, typically in the case of brands, to evaluate communication effectiveness. Each publishes industry recognized rankings. Each places intangible value, beyond intrinsic measures, on its capacity to attract users beyond its national boundaries, and its ability to leverage other new products.

If the logic and inferences are correct, the *terroir* and *savoir-faire* of brand management flies in the face of a one-size-fits-all mentality to insist on one brand definition and one method of brand custodianship for product, service or cause. In which case, the huge diversity of brand material is fully explainable and likely to continue as more and more brand experts devise new techniques and approaches to building particular types of brands.

In a monochromatic, global world, with growing sameness across popular categories, the pluralistic nature of the brand can really shine. If there is a downside to this rosy picture emerging from recent business literature, it is the risk resulting from the "commoditization of brands" which affects not only luxury brands, hungry for growth, but also some leading global brands, as the chairman of *Starbucks*, Howard Schultz now faces, (Ward, 2007).

While the theme of this paper was conceived in the headwaters of the brand literature, using content analysis to systematically unpack and analyze the layers of meaning embedded therein, the potential may exist for some readers to contest this paper for its lack of scientific rigour and validity; but the inclination to do so needs to be balanced with a salient point made by mathematician, David Hilbert, some 25 years earlier (Glass, 1981:11):

"...the importance of a scientific work can be measured by the number of previous publications it makes superfluous to read."

If only the same measure could be accomplished in brand literature, to put a few brand myths to rest.

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Appendix 1 - Brand Taxonomy

Appendix 8.9 – Brand Taxonomy

Source: Derivatives from brand journals and books, Buddle, R. (2006) *Literature Review*

1.	Brand acquisition	45.	Brand health
2.	Brand advertising	46.	Brand heaven
3.	Brand anatomy	47.	Brand history
4.	Brand archaeology	48.	Brand idea
5.	Brand archetypes	49.	Brand identity
6.	Brands-as-media	50.	Brand image/imagery
7.	Brand assets	51.	Brand impact
8.	Brand associations	52.	Brand imprint
9.	Brand attrition	53.	Brand investment
10.	Brand audit	54.	Brand journalism
11.	Brand awareness	55.	Brand knowledge/learning
12.	Brand belief	56.	Brand language
13.	Brand building	57.	Brand leadership
14.	Brand bullies	58.	Brand leverage
15.	Brand character	59.	Brand licensing
16.	Brand centricity	60.	Brand linguistics
17.	Brand classification	61.	Brand loyalty
18.	Brand communication (definition ²)	62.	Brand mantra
19.	Brand concept	63.	Brand management
20.	Brand confusion	64.	Brand mapping
21.	Brand consolidation	65.	Brand marketing
22.	Brand consultancy	66.	Brand meaning
23.	Brand-cued brain scanning	67.	Brand measurement
24.	Brand culture	68.	Brand metaphor
25.	Brand (definitions ¹)	69.	Brand metrics
26.	Brand delight	70.	Brand muscle
27.	Brand development	71.	Brand name
28.	Brand differentiation	72.	Brand neurology
29.	Brand dilution	73.	Brand origins
30.	Brand effect	74.	Brand ownership
31.	Brand energy	75.	Brand perceptions
32.	Brand energizers	76.	Brand performance
33.	Branded entertainment	77.	Brand personality
34.	Brand equity (definition ³)	78.	Brand placement
35.	Brand essence	79.	Brand planning
36.	Brand experience	80.	Brand-Person-Relationship (BPR)
37.	Brand extension	81.	Brand portfolio
38.	Brand facet	82.	Brand positioning
39.	Brand failure	83.	Brand power
40.	Brand fragmentation	84.	Brand proliferation
41.	Brand growth	85.	Brand rationalisation
42.	Brand gym	86.	Brand reach
43.	Brand halo	87.	Brand recognition
44.	Brand harmonization	88.	Brand reduction

89.	Brand rejuvenation	114.	Branding (definition ⁴)
90.	Brand renovation	115.	Branding moments
91.	Brand relationships	116.	Co-brand
92.	Brand reputation	117.	Corporate brand
93.	Brand reservoir	118.	Cult brand
94.	Brand resonance	119.	Digital brand
95.	Brand response	120.	Disruptive brand
96.	Brand salience	121.	Global brand
97.	Brand seeding	122.	House brand
98.	Brand self-esteem	123.	<i>Lovemarks</i> ©
99.	Brand signals/symbols	124.	Master brand
100.	Brand similarity	125.	Mega brand
101.	Brand size-effect	126.	Multi-branding
102.	Brand smashing	127.	National brand
103.	Brand strategy	128.	Parent brand
104.	Brand strength	129.	Plated brand
105.	Brand success	130.	Power brand
106.	Brand support	131.	Price brand
107.	Branded surprise	132.	Product brand
108.	Brandthropology ⁵	133.	Re-brand
109.	Brand touch-points	134.	Service brand
110.	Brand transformation	135.	Sub-brand
111.	Brand trust	136.	Super brand
112.	Brand universe	137.	<i>Trustmark</i> ©
113.	Brand value	138.	Umbrella brand

Definitions (End Note Sources): ¹Ed. (177), Bullmore (306), Clifton (307), Dolak (326), De Chernatony (354), Greenhill (14), Keller (286), Neumeier (287) (305), Ryder (328), Schultz (240), Van Auken (348) (349) 352, Wells (293), ²Schultz (324), ³Montgomery (361), ⁴Schultz (157) ⁵Sherry, J. Jr. (2005) © Roberts, K. Saatchi & Saatchi (2006)